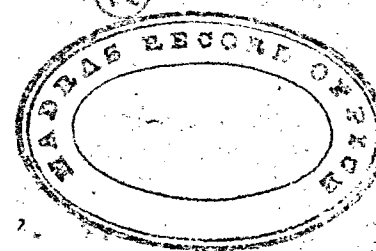
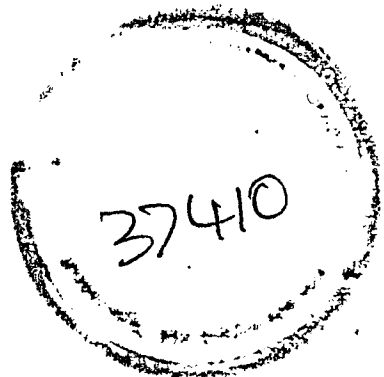


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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THIS volume was originally issued in 1877, corrected to 31st March 1876. It is now re-issued, corrected to 31st March 1879. Some of the sections in the present issue are wholly new, and the whole volume has the advantage, not enjoyed by its predecessor, that most of the sections have before final appearance been submitted for the inspection and criticism of the heads of the departments concerned. The volume aims only at describing the machinery of the administration, and does not attempt to be either a gazetteer for geographical information or a book of reference for statistical purposes. If a few remarks or entries appear under either of those heads, it is only because neither a Presidency Gazetteer nor a volume of standing statistics have as yet appeared.

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SECTION I.

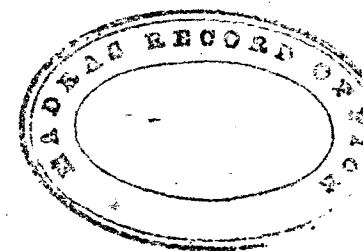
GENERAL AND POLITICAL.

AREA, PHYSICAL FEATURES, CLIMATE, CHIEF
STAPLES, AND LINGUISTIC DIVISIONS.

THE territory included within the Presidency of Fort Saint George, or the Madras Presidency, is the southernmost of the Indian provinces. The coast line extends on the east of the peninsula from Orissa in Bengal to Cape Comorin. On the west the narrow strip of country formed by the Native States of Travancore and Cochin gives the coast line from Cape Comorin as far as the town of Cochin. After that Madras territory again forms the coast line until the Bombay Presidency is reached at the northern extremity of the South Canara District. In the centre of the peninsula thus enclosed are the Nagpore country and Berar, the territories of the Nizam known generally as the Deccan, and the province of Mysore; but all the country south and east of Mysore belongs to the Madras Presidency.

The Presidency occupies an area of 139,698 square miles; but within this is included 1,383 square miles belonging to the Pudukottah territory, which is situated in the middle of one of the Revenue districts.

The Presidency has a coast line of about 1,700 miles, and consequently a large area of country but little elevated above the level of the sea. Mountain ranges run northward from Cape Comorin along the Western Coast, attaining an elevation in some parts of from 4,000 to nearly 9,000 feet. Ranges of hills follow also the general line of the East Coast; but these, as a rule, are of lower elevation than the Western Ghats. The drainage of the peninsula is for the most part from west to east into the Bay of Bengal, the area of country drained by rivers running westward being only the narrow strip of territory between the Western Ghats and the sea. As a rule the country slopes gradually from the eastern base of the western mountain chain



down to the Coromandel Coast, while the fall is sudden and precipitous on the western side of the mountains. The centre of the peninsula consists generally of undulating table-lands from 1,000 to 3,000 feet above the level of the sea.

Influence of
physical
geography
on climate.

The peculiar physical geography of the peninsula of India, with a huge mountain chain running from north to south along its western boundary, is of importance in regard to climate and the productions of the various districts. These hills have the effect of arresting the lower strata of rain clouds brought up from the Indian ocean by the periodical winds of the south-west monsoon, and of causing excessive rain precipitation on the narrow strip of coast line on the western side of the peninsula. Where the mountain range is of great height, as between Malabar and Coimbatore, the rain clouds are almost entirely diverted from the districts immediately below the mountains on the eastern side; and while the annual rainfall on the western side may be one hundred and fifty inches, not more than twenty inches will be registered on the eastern side, immediately within the influence of the mountain ranges. Where the mountain chain is of lower elevation, the rain clouds pass over the hills, and rain is precipitated in uncertain and varying amount over the peninsula to the east of the Western Ghats; but, except in the northern districts, where the rainy season approximates to that of Bengal, the heaviest rainfall of the southern portion of the eastern division of the peninsula occurs during the period of the north-east monsoon. During the continuance of this monsoon, the western ranges of mountains have a similar effect in arresting the rain clouds, so that at the season of the year when the Carnatic is visited by heavy rain, the Western Coast Districts enjoy fine clear weather.

Ditto on
production.

To the physical barrier of the Western Ghats must be attributed not only the vast differences of climate, but also those of the nature of the productions, in the eastern and western divisions of the peninsula. In the former division the uncertainty and capricious character of the rainfall has taught the cultivators of the soil the necessity of making provision for the storage of water for irrigation purposes, and innumerable tanks or reservoirs, scattered throughout the country, are the result. On the western side of the mountains, however, the necessity for such works has never arisen. There the periodical rains fall with great regularity as to time and quantity, and the earth produces so abundantly that, although in certain exceptional years there may be partial failures of crops, absolute agricultural distress, as a result of bad seasons, is quite unknown. Only three of the twenty-one districts of which the Madras Presidency is composed lie within the influence of the never-failing rains of the south-west monsoon. In the remaining eighteen districts nature demands the

assistance of art in the collection, storage, and distribution of the rain-supply. In some of these eighteen districts, however, as in the northern coast area, the periodic rains fall more regularly than in others, giving them thus an advantage. In several of these also the rivers running eastward, swelled by the south-west monsoon rains, form an additional source of irrigation.

The following table giving the mean average rainfall in each district for a recent period of four years will throw light on the normal climate of the Presidency:—

Rainfall
throughout
the Presi-
dency.

Average Rainfall in Districts of Madras Presidency—Mean of Four Years, 1870-73.

Districts.	Number of Gauge-stations.	January.		February.		March.		April.		May.		June.		July.	
		Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.
Bellary	17	0.09	0.25	0.01	0.00	0.07	0.25	0.70	1.66	2.26	4.25	2.71	6.25	2.05	5.75
Chingleput	7	1.32	1.25	2.64	1.30	0.39	0.75	0.61	0.75	1.99	1.25	2.33	4.75	3.77	8.50
Coimbatore	10	0.41	0.50	0.75	1.25	0.58	1.00	2.00	3.50	2.76	4.50	2.24	4.75	1.65	4.50
Cuddapah	19	0.51	0.75	0.27	0.50	0.27	0.50	0.30	0.50	2.16	2.75	2.15	5.00	2.74	6.00
Ganjam	13	0.39	0.75	0.13	0.25	0.75	1.25	1.51	3.00	1.61	3.50	6.70	7.25	6.24	10.75
Godavari	19	0.40	0.75	0.25	0.25	0.48	0.25	0.52	1.00	1.46	2.75	4.53	6.25	6.10	10.75
Kistna	11	1.09	0.75	0.07	0.25	0.36	0.25	0.30	0.50	1.10	2.50	2.71	5.50	4.52	9.50
Kurnool	9	0.20	0.75	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.23	0.50	1.49	3.50	2.98	6.00	4.08	9.00
Madras	1	1.75	2.50	1.65	1.00	0.73	1.00	0.76	1.25	1.12	1.25	3.60	10.00	4.88	15.25
Madura	13	1.08	2.00	0.96	2.00	0.50	1.25	1.63	3.00	1.83	2.25	1.19	2.00	0.81	2.00
Malabar	15	0.91	1.25	0.48	1.50	0.75	1.00	3.61	6.00	7.19	8.50	31.75	25.66	33.87	25.60
Nellore	13	1.30	1.25	0.70	0.25	0.17	0.25	0.15	0.25	1.05	1.75	1.18	3.00	3.71	5.75
North Arcot	9	0.55	0.75	1.54	0.75	0.73	0.50	0.42	1.00	3.72	2.75	1.97	4.50	3.20	6.00
Salen	10	0.16	0.50	0.61	1.00	0.75	0.75	1.21	2.75	4.16	5.00	2.41	4.75	2.32	5.50
South Arcot	8	0.43	0.75	2.04	1.50	0.76	0.25	1.19	1.00	2.64	2.25	1.73	3.25	3.20	5.25
South Canara	5	1.22	0.75	0.29	0.75	0.21	0.50	1.10	2.50	6.32	7.75	39.98	25.75	47.01	29.25
Tanjore	10	1.34	2.50	1.64	2.00	0.24	0.25	2.35	2.25	3.13	2.50	1.66	3.25	2.64	4.75
Tinnevely	11	3.08	3.50	1.76	2.75	1.39	2.50	1.66	3.75	1.41	2.50	0.63	2.00	0.53	0.75
Trichinopoly	5	0.83	1.25	1.33	1.75	0.03	0.25	1.49	2.75	3.06	4.25	2.01	2.75	2.11	3.00
Vizagapatam	13	0.62	0.75	0.40	0.50	0.37	0.25	1.10	1.50	2.34	4.00	5.13	6.75	5.32	9.00

SECTION I.

Average Rainfall in Districts of Madras Presidency—Mean of Four Years, 1870-73—(Continued).

Districts.	Number of Gauge-stations.	August.		September.		October.		November.		December.		Total.	
		Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.	Rain.	Days.
Bellary	17	3.93	7.25	4.78	7.75	6.81	8.75	0.97	0.75	0.30	0.75	23.70	45.50
Chingleput	7	5.21	9.00	5.24	7.00	9.08	10.00	14.81	12.50	2.62	4.00	49.95	61.25
Coimbatore	10	2.43	4.75	2.94	5.75	4.94	8.25	4.35	7.25	0.57	2.00	25.53	47.50
Cuddapah	19	4.71	7.50	4.59	6.50	8.24	9.00	3.37	5.25	0.72	1.50	30.05	45.75
Ganjam	13	7.30	12.25	7.76	12.25	9.42	9.00	1.45	2.25	0.73	1.00	49.03	63.5
Godavari	19	5.06	8.00	8.24	10.25	10.82	10.75	1.95	2.50	0.55	0.75	40.34	54.20
Kistna	11	4.58	9.00	6.68	10.25	8.11	10.00	1.90	2.75	0.89	0.75	31.97	52.00
Kurnool	9	4.63	8.25	6.07	8.50	4.65	6.75	1.06	2.50	0.48	0.75	26.00	44.50
Madras	1	4.88	16.25	6.67	11.25	14.53	15.25	19.09	18.00	4.36	6.50	64.03	99.50
Madura	13	2.67	5.00	1.81	4.00	4.24	8.00	4.63	6.75	1.43	3.25	22.92	41.25
Malabar	15	11.60	18.75	9.49	14.50	8.25	12.25	3.74	6.25	0.81	1.50	112.97	124.50
Nellore	18	3.73	5.75	3.92	5.25	11.02	9.25	9.78	8.00	1.76	2.00	37.46	42.50
North Arcot	9	4.94	8.50	6.22	8.00	8.00	10.25	7.65	8.50	1.39	3.25	40.36	54.75
Salen	10	4.99	8.00	6.62	9.25	7.09	9.50	3.28	5.75	1.44	2.75	35.57	55.50
South Arcot	8	5.59	8.25	5.32	6.25	8.87	10.25	11.79	12.25	3.66	4.25	46.63	55.50
South Canara	5	21.40	22.75	12.44	19.75	9.15	13.75	1.22	3.75	0.26	0.75	140.03	128.00
Tanjore	10	4.91	7.50	3.86	6.59	9.11	11.75	10.87	13.00	5.00	8.00	47.14	64.25
Tinnevely	11	0.75	2.00	1.28	2.50	2.77	5.00	7.30	11.00	1.84	4.00	24.79	42.25
Trichinopoly	5	4.69	6.25	4.89	6.00	0.04	11.75	6.72	10.25	2.32	4.50	35.01	53.75
Vizagapatam	13	7.01	6.00	7.03	10.00	9.76	9.50	1.93	2.50	1.33	1.00	42.33	56.25

AREA, PHYSICAL FEATURES, &c.

5

Chief staples.

The chief staples of the Presidency are rice, cholam (a kind of maize), cumboo (a kind of millet), ragi, and varagu amongst food-grains; gingelly amongst oil seeds; and chillies, tobacco, sugar-cane, plantains, and betel leaf amongst garden crops. Cotton, as a special crop, has a cultivation almost equalling that of ragi. The trees most grown for their fruits are cocoanut, areca nut, jack, tamarind, and mango. Rice, as might be expected, is produced in the largest quantities in the alluvial and highly-irrigated districts of Tanjore, Godavari, and Kistna on the East Coast, and in Malabar and Canara on the West Coast, where the rainfall is so abundant as to render irrigation by artificial means almost unnecessary. Cholam is most abundant in the table-land districts of Bellary and Kurnool, while cumboo and ragi are most extensively grown in the other inland, but less elevated, districts, such as Salem and Coimbatore. Cocoanut palms flourish most luxuriantly on the banks of the estuaries and backwaters or salt-water lagoons of the western districts of Malabar and Canara, and areca nut palms in the valleys intersecting the lower slopes of the Western Ghats.

Linguistic divisions.

Within the Madras Presidency there are six well-defined linguistic boundaries. In the northernmost district of Ganjam is included a portion of the Ooriya-speaking population. The Telugu language is commonly spoken by the people of the Northern Circars, and in a portion of the Nizam's country, Kurnool, Cuddapah, part of North Arcot, Nellore and some parts of Bellary. Tamil is the common language of the districts from a few miles north of Madras to the extreme south of the eastern division of the peninsula. Malayalam is the language of the Native States of Travancore, Cochin, and the Malabar District. Tulu is spoken in a limited portion of the South Canara District; and Canarese in certain portions of the Bellary, Coimbatore, Salem, and South Canara Districts. Besides these six Dravidian languages, the hill tribes of certain districts have dialects of their own, also of a Dravidian type. In the whole Presidency there are about 11,610,000 persons who speak the Telugu language; Tamil, 14,715,000; Canarese, 1,699,000; Malayalam, 2,324,000; Tulu, 29,400; Ooriya and Hill languages, 640,000. From time to time colonies of Telugu and Canarese-speaking people have found their way down to the southern or Tamil country. In some cases they have been invited to settle as cultivators in localities where waste lands were available. In others they followed probably in the train of invading armies. In the same way people from the Mahratta country have settled in the south, and in all the large towns there are colonies of silk-weavers from Gujerat, who speak a language of their own. Along the border lines of the prevailing languages two or more languages are indifferently spoken by the people. There is no instance of the Tamil people

pushing their colonies up towards the north. The migrations appear to have been always from north to south. In the large military cantonments of Secunderabad and Bangalore there are Tamil-speaking populations, but these people have settled as camp-followers.

HISTORICAL SUMMARY.

The first attempt at the formation of an English Settlement in the Madras Presidency was in conjunction with the Dutch at Pulicat early in the seventeenth century, or about one hundred years after the establishment of the Mahomedan kingdoms of Bijapore and Golconda. Compelled to desist from this attempt, the English formed a trading settlement at Masulipatam in 1620, and shortly afterwards at Armogum, about forty miles north of Pulicat; and in 1659, after permission had been obtained from the Hindu Rajah of Chindragherry, the first English fortress on the Eastern Coast of India was erected at Madras. In 1691 Fort St. David was built at Tegenapatam, near Cuddalore, on a site purchased from a petty native prince.

Until the end of the first half of the following century the English carried on their trading operations tolerably unmolested in the midst of the continual wars between the Mussulman and Mahratta conquerors of the old Southern Hindu powers; the only event really affecting the future career of the settlements being the acquisition by the French of the village of Pondicherry, which they purchased in 1672 from the King of Bijapore shortly before his dynasty was overthrown by Aurungzebe. In 1744, war broke out between the French and English, and Fort St. George fell—only to be restored again, however, at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1749. The European war being thus ended, the forces of the two powers found both occupation and profit in the various wars between the native princes, and it usually happened that their sympathies or their interests were enlisted on opposite sides. Nearly the whole of Southern India was then subject to the Nizam of Hyderabad, the country in the neighbourhood of Madras being under the immediate rule of a tributary prince, called the Nabob of the Carnatic, while the Mahrattas still held supreme power in Tanjore and the adjacent country. The English first assisted a claimant to the Mahratta throne of Tanjore, and were rewarded by the cession of the town of Devicottah. The French took up the cause of Chanda Sahib, who in alliance with Mirzapha Jung, opposed Mahomed Ali, Nabob of the Carnatic, and Nizam Nazir Jung. Chanda Sahib being an old enemy of the Tanjore prince, the assist-

ance of the English was again invoked and obtained, but Mirzapha Jung succeeded in securing the throne of the Nizam, and the triumph of the French under Dupleix was complete until Clive appeared upon the scene and changed the whole course of the war by seizing Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, on the 30th August 1751, while Chanda Sahib and the French were besieging Mahomed Ali in Trichinopoly. He himself was besieged in turn, but repulsed all attacks and followed up his success by the victory of Arnee, which virtually placed the Carnatic once more under the ally of the English, although the siege of Trichinopoly was not formally raised until the French detachment, which had retreated to Srirungum, surrendered to Clive and Major Lawrence in June 1752. Chanda Sahib was eventually assassinated by a Mahratta, probably at the instigation of Mahomed Ali. •

—1754.

A quarrel next broke out between Mahomed Ali and Nunjeraj, the Minister of the Rajah of Mysore. The assistance of the latter had been procured by the Nabob by the promise to cede Trichinopoly if he were victorious, but, when he had got all he wanted, he declined to fulfil his agreement. Nunjeraj then had recourse to force, and, though the English at first hesitated to assist the Nabob under such circumstances, the conduct of Nunjeraj in other matters left them no alternative but to treat him as an enemy. The French supported the Mysoreans, and a succession of engagements took place, chiefly in the immediate vicinity of Trichinopoly, in which the English were almost uniformly successful. The recall of Dupleix on the 14th October 1754 led to a cessation of hostilities, but the English continued to aid the Nabob of the Carnatic in the internal management of his dominions, the Nizam Salabut Jung receiving similar assistance from the French under M. Bussy.

—1757.

The theatre of action was then for some time transferred to Bengal, where Clive took command of the English army, but hostilities recommenced in Southern India in 1757 as soon as it was known that war had again broken out in Europe between the French and English. The French took advantage of the English forces being dispersed in various expeditions, and made an unsuccessful attack on Trichinopoly, while another detachment succeeded in gaining possession of Vizagapatam. In 1758 a French fleet appeared off Fort St. David, and the fort fell on the 2nd June. Devicottah was next reduced, and the French commander, Count de Lally, made a triumphal entry into Pondicherry; but here his success ended for the time, and an expedition against Tanjore resulted in complete failure. In December, however, he besieged Madras itself, and the siege was not raised until two months afterwards, when an English fleet appeared in the roads. In the meantime the English arms under Colonel Forde were progressing satisfactorily further north, where Clive had sent a detachment to

operate in a tract called the Northern Circars, which had been ceded by the Nizam to the French, and their successes culminated in the fall of Masulipatam on the 7th April, by which the French influence with the Nizam was destroyed, and a tract of territory around Masulipatam extending eighty miles along the coast and twenty miles inland, was ceded by him to the English. The operations in the south were of a minor nature until 22nd January 1760, when the French under Lally were completely defeated at Wandewash, near Arcot, by Colonel Coote who had arrived with reinforcements from England. This was followed by the capture within a fortnight of Gingee and Arcot. Minor forts fell in rapid succession, and by May the English were in a position to lay siege to Pondicherry. Lally then had recourse to the services of Hyder Ali, an adventurer who subsequently usurped supreme power in Mysore, but at that time merely held high military command under the Rajah. An English detachment sent to meet the Mysoreans was totally defeated, and the situation of the English might have become critical had not home troubles recalled the Mysore troops to their own country. Deprived of their aid, the French cause soon became hopeless, and, on the 16th January 1761, Pondicherry surrendered. With this event the French power in the Carnatic may be said to have ended; and, so far as the English were concerned, there were no more military operations in Southern India until 1766 beyond granting such little aid as was, from time to time, necessary to enable the Nabob of the Carnatic to keep down his turbulent vassals. Negotiations were carried on with the Nizam of Hyderabad for the cession of the Northern Circars, but with no very satisfactory results; and in 1765 sundry transferring these tracts to the Company were obtained direct from the Emperor of Delhi, whose paramount authority was recognized by the Nizam. The Madras authorities, however, hesitated to avail themselves of the powers thus assigned to them except with the consent of the Nizam; and in 1766, although sending a body of troops to secure their possession, they entered into a treaty with Nizam Ali, agreeing to pay tribute for the Circars and to defend the Nizam against his enemies. In the meantime the Mysore adventurer, Hyder Ali, had succeeded, not only in obtaining supreme power in that province, but in extending his dominion on all sides, and the English were very soon called on, under the treaty, to assist the Nizam and the Mahrattas in checking the advance of Hyder in the direction of their territories. No sooner, however, had operations commenced than Hyder Ali, by judicious expenditure of treasure, not only bought off the Mahrattas, but actually induced the Nizam to desert his allies and join him in a descent upon the Carnatic. Colonel Smith, who commanded the English troops, finding himself thus opposed to a force infinitely larger than his own, commenced a retreat, followed by the allies who

overtaken him at Changamma. The English repulsed the attack thus made, but were compelled to continue their retreat to Trinomallee. On being attacked at that place the victory of the English was decisive, the troops of Hyder and of the Nizam retreating in the utmost confusion, while bands of marauding horse, who had been plundering the country up to the very gate of Madras under the command of Hyder's son Tippoo, a boy of seventeen, considered their situation to be no longer secure, and drew off to rejoin the rest of the army. Colonel Smith, however, was too weak to follow up his victory, and withdrew his troops into cantonment for the rains, which were now at hand. Hyder at once took advantage of this inaction to reduce a few unimportant fortresses, but his movements were checked at the hill fort of Amboor, where Captain Culvert, with a garrison of five hundred sepoy and fifteen Europeans defied the utmost efforts of Hyder's armies for nearly a month, when he was relieved by Colonel Smith on the 7th December 1767. Hyder then drew off, and after a few skirmishes he retired above the ghauts, having learned that an expedition from Bombay had captured his fleet in the harbours of Canara and commenced hostile operations in his territories on the Western Coast. Risking an invasion from the east, Hyder hurried over to meet what to him seemed the more imminent danger, and appeared suddenly before Mangalore in such force as to compel the re-embarkation of the expedition. In the meantime, though very imperfectly informed of Hyder's actual movements, the Madras Government resolved to commence offensive operations, and one body of troops under Colonel Wood proceeded to reduce the fortresses under the south-eastern slopes of the ghauts, while another entered Mysore proper under Colonel Smith. The movements of both detachments were at first completely successful, but just as they had united in August 1768, with the view of attacking Bangalore, Hyder returned from the Western Coast and made an attack on the camp of a Mahratta Contingent, which, though unsuccessful, was sufficient to show that there was no chance of reducing Bangalore unless a decisive victory could be first obtained over Hyder in the field. Various marches and counter-marches were undertaken with this object, but in vain, and after reconquering a number of the fortified places on the table-land, Hyder descended into the lowland by passes unknown to the English, and speedily retook the fortresses in Coimbatore, the Baramahal, and Salem, which in almost all cases had been left most inadequately supplied with troops. He did not, however, care to risk an engagement in the field with Colonel Smith, and a treaty was concluded on the 4th April 1769, on the basis of a mutual restitution of conquests with the exception of Caroor, which was ceded to Hyder on the ground of its being an ancient dependency of Mysore.

From the date of this treaty until the year 1780 the only military —1780 operations in the south of India, beyond the usual work of assisting the Nabob of the Carnatic in keeping peace in his own dominions and in his quarrels with the Tanjore Rajah, were the capture of Pondicherry from the French in 1779, and the reduction of the French Settlement of Mahé on the Western Coast in 1779. The war which broke out again with Hyder in 1780 was attributable to the Nabob of the Carnatic failing to furnish the necessary supplies to enable the English to fulfil the stipulations of the treaty of 1769. Enraged at this apparent treachery and bad faith, Hyder succeeded in forming an alliance with the Nizam and the Mahrattas, and descended on the plains of the Carnatic in July 1780, burning crops and devastating villages, so that a cordon of blackened desert was formed around Madras, commencing at the lake of Pulicat, extending some fifty miles inland, and terminating a little to the north of Pondicherry. The English Commander-in-Chief, Sir Hector Munro, proceeded to Conjeveram, an open town 40 miles from Madras, and directed Colonel Baillie to join him there with troops from the north. Hyder endeavoured to prevent the junction, and Sir Hector, seeing that Colonel Baillie was in danger, sent a detachment under Colonel Fletcher to his aid, which successfully eluded the enemy, and joined Colonel Baillie on the 9th September, only to be included, however, in the general massacre which took place when Colonel Baillie's force was attacked by overwhelming numbers on the following day. Sir Hector Munro considered Conjeveram no longer tenable when he heard the news of this disaster, and commenced a retreat to Madras, which he reached on the 14th September, leaving the field open to Hyder. On receipt of the intelligence at Calcutta, the then Governor-General Warren Hastings suspended the Governor of Madras, and despatched Sir Eyre Coote with reinforcements. The latter arrived on the 1st November 1780, but was unable to take the field until the 17th January 1781. On the 19th he relieved Chingleput, and on the 21st retook Carangooly, which had the effect of raising the siege of Wandewash, which had been gloriously defended by Lieutenant Flint. Hearing of the arrival of a French fleet off Pondicherry he proceeded to that place, but, finding that the fleet had brought no land forces, he turned his attention to the protection of Cuddalore. Hyder had followed him down the coast, but moved off when the English general offered him battle, probably considering it more politic to endeavour to weaken the force by cutting off supplies, from the want of which the English army had already experienced considerable difficulty. Thus hampered, the troops remained almost inactive until the 18th June, when an ineffectual attempt was made to capture Chellumbrum. The news of this failure apparently emboldened Hyder to make a decisive attempt to

annihilate the English army, and he accordingly advanced and took up a position close to Sir Eyre Coote's camp at Porto Novo, a small town on the coast about 14 miles south of Cuddalore. The battle commenced early on the morning of the 1st July 1781, an English fleet lying close in shore with the view of enabling the embarkation of the remnant of the army in the, by no means impossible, contingency of its being defeated in an encounter with an enemy at the very least eight times its numerical superior. The battle was long and severe, but by 4 p.m. the enemy were in precipitate retreat. The want of proper equipment rendered Sir Eyre Coote unable to take full advantage of the complete victory which he had gained, but he succeeded in again relieving Wandewash on the 18th May, after which he proceeded northwards and joined a detachment from Bengal at Pulicat, having eluded the force sent to intercept him by adopting a line of march hitherto supposed impassable for troops. Thus reinforced he marched against the fortress of Tripassore and procured its surrender on the 22nd August, just before Hyder's relieving army appeared on the field. A general action took place on the 27th, but with no very decisive result, though the English kept possession of the field. A month later, on the 27th of September, the English commander surprised the enemy near Sholinghur and gained such a victory as put him in a position to throw provisions into Vellore, which had been defended from the commencement of the war against the finest troops and strongest batteries which Hyder's resources could furnish. In November the English army retired for the monsoon to Madras, where it remained until the following January, when it had once more to advance to the relief of Vellore. Hyder then turned his attention to Cuddalore, and succeeded in reducing it with the assistance of a French Contingent which had landed at Porto Novo. Permacoil followed, but Sir Eyre Coote once more arrived in time to save Wandewash. In the meantime war had broken out with the Dutch as well as with the French, and the Dutch Settlements of Sadras, Pulicat, and Negapatam had been captured. A portion of the force employed for the reduction of the latter place was subsequently detached under Colonel Brathwaite to operate in Tanjore. Deceived by false spies, the little force was suddenly surrounded by superior numbers under Hyder's son, Tippoo, and only a small remnant escaped with their lives. To counterbalance this, a rebellion had broken out in Malabar, and a small force of English sent to their aid gained a considerable victory at Tellicherry, which necessitated the immediate despatch of Tippoo to the Western Coast, and Hyder Ali, feeling himself overmatched by Sir Eyre Coote, determined to quit the Coromandel Coast. The English commander then returned with his army to Madras, where he bid them a final farewell, and General Stuart

assumed the command in his place. The English force on the Western Coast seemed hardly strong enough successfully to oppose that brought against it, but the news of the death of Hyder at Chittoor on the 7th December 1782 led to Tippoo's speedy return to the head-quarters of the principal army, thereby leaving the field open to the English, who were shortly afterwards reinforced by a considerable number of troops from Bombay under General Matthews. Several places on the coast fell in rapid succession, and eventually the English penetrated to Bednore above the ghauts. Here, however, their success ended, Tippoo returning and compelling the surrender of the place on the 3rd May, after which he marched to the siege of Mangalore, where a small fort was in the occupation of Colonel Campbell. The garrison was insignificant and the material defences of the place contemptible, but Tippoo was unable to take it by assault and his large army remained for many months practically inactive, while his French allies under M. Bussy were being besieged in Cuddalore. On the receipt of the news of the conclusion of peace between France and England, an armistice was agreed upon under which Tippoo was bound to provision the garrison of Mangalore. With but little more than a pretence of observing the letter of the convention, he deliberately broke the spirit by supplying provisions which were utterly unfit for consumption, and the garrison, completely broken down by famine and sickness, were obliged to capitulate on the 30th January 1784, the health of the commander being so undermined that he expired on the 23rd March following. After much evasion and delay, peace was ultimately concluded on the 10th March on the basis of mutual restoration of conquests. During this war many of the English prisoners, including General Matthews, were put to death by Tippoo by poison or still more inhuman means.

After the conclusion of peace with the English, Tippoo seized about thirty thousand of the Christians of Canara, forcibly converted them to Islam, and deported them to the country above the ghauts. Subsequently, the many rebellions of the Nairs of Malabar on account of a somewhat similar exercise of fanatical zeal in that portion of his territory led to expeditions for the suppression of the several risings; and many of the Nairs having taken refuge in Travancore, Tippoo resolved to invade that country in their pursuit, notwithstanding an intimation that such a proceeding would involve him in another war with the English. His first attempt to enter Travancore ended in failure. A second was more successful, and the country was overrun in the usual cruel manner; but, on his return to Coimbatore, he found an English army in the field at Trichinopoly under the command of General Medows, the Governor of Madras, who had also entered into alliances with the Mahrattas and the Nizam. Tippoo at first

withdrew to Seringapatam, which he had established as the capital of his dominions, and the English met with little opposition in the reduction of the various forts along the south-eastern slopes of the ghauts until the 7th September, when their army was attacked by a force commanded by Tippoo in person, which had descended by the Gazalhatti pass. The attack was repulsed, but all General Medows' efforts to bring on a general action were evaded by Tippoo, and nothing but indecisive skirmishes took place, until the Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, took the field in person, and, assuming the command on the 29th January 1791, at once commenced preparations for a march upon Bangalore, concentrating his army at Vellore. Tippoo hastened to intercept his advance, which he expected would be made by the passes near Amboor, but the demonstration in that direction was a mere feint, and the table-land was reached by Bangalore without a shot fired. The pettah or town of Bangalore fell early in March, and on the night of the 20th the fort was taken by assault after a severe contest of little over an hour. While these operations were going on in Mysore, Colonel Hartly from the Madras side had defeated the Sultan's troops near Calicut; and General Abercrombie, Governor of Bombay, had landed at Tellicherry with a considerable force, and reduced Cannanore without encountering much opposition. The name of Tippoo was so hated throughout the province that but little difficulty was met with in the operations in that neighbourhood, and within a very short time the whole of Malabar was in the occupation of the English. Operations on a smaller scale were conducted in the north in concert with the Mahrattas and the Nizam, the latter having also despatched a body of about ten thousand horse to join Lord Cornwallis' army.

-1792.

On the 4th of May the English army left Bangalore to march against Seringapatam; but the route was so difficult, the means of transport so limited, and the devastation of the country by Tippoo so thoroughly carried out, that, notwithstanding a successful engagement at Arikera, only nine miles from Seringapatam, Lord Cornwallis was compelled to abandon his plan of operations for the time and retire to the vicinity of Bangalore, where he occupied himself for some time in reducing a number of hill forts. The Nizam's troops and the Mahrattas having worked their way up from the north and reinforced his army with both men and supplies, Lord Cornwallis again appeared before the walls of Seringapatam on the 5th February 1792. On the night of the 6th, the outlying encampment and redoubts were carried and the city closely invested on two sides. Preparations were made for the vigorous conduct of the siege, and on the 16th the army was joined by that of General Abercrombie from Malabar. A few days previously Tippoo had made overtures for peace, but the negotiations

did not lead to a cessation of preparations for the siege, and it was evident that the fall of Seringapatam was close at hand when, on the 24th February, orders were issued for the discontinuance of all hostilities, peace having been agreed upon on the basis of a cession to the allies of one-half of the dominions of which Tippoo was in possession before the war, the payment of three crores and thirty lakhs of rupees, and the restitution of all prisoners including those retained from the time of Hyder. Under this treaty the English came into possession of the Baramahal, Dindigul, Malabar, and Coorg, the latter being restored to the Rajah, who had rendered essential aid to the English in the course of the war.

Though thus severely disabled, Tippoo was not rendered completely —1793. powerless. He lost no time in commencing a series of intrigues with the view of winning over those who had been the allies of the English, and even despatched an embassy to Paris to try and obtain the assistance of the French. His overtures being rejected by Louis XVI., he renewed them after the revolution had broken out, and a paltry contingent of ninety-nine men from the Mauritius landed at Mangalore in 1798. The aid thus received was contemptible, but the object of applying for it was manifest, and the then Governor-General, Lord Mornington, resolved to act at once instead of waiting till Tippoo had matured his plans. Instructions were despatched for the immediate adoption of such measures as were necessary to place the Madras army on a satisfactory footing, and an alliance was entered into with the Nizam. The object of the Governor-General was to obtain possession of the maritime territory still under Tippoo, and thus preclude him from communication with the French; and, before commencing the war, an opportunity was afforded him of averting it by timely concession, but all efforts at negotiation were futile, and offensive operations were determined on. The army of the Carnatic was placed under the command of General Harris, while another force from Malabar under General Stuart ascended into Coorg early in March 1799. Tippoo directed his first efforts against this latter army, but was beaten at Sedasseer near Periapattam, and in the meantime General Harris and the Nizam's troops crossed the Mysore frontier. Tippoo turned to meet them, and was defeated with severe loss in a general action at Malvelly on the 27th March. He then retired to Seringapatam, and the allies advanced to the siege, which lasted for a month before a practicable breach was made. The assault commenced at one o'clock on the 4th May, and before evening Tippoo was dead, and the whole town in the possession of the English. The dynasty of Hyder and Tippoo having practically come to an end with the fall of the latter, the settlement of the country was effected by the restoration of Mysore proper to the representative of the ancient royal family whose rights

had been usurped by Hyder. The greater part of the remainder was then divided between the English and the Nizam, the districts of Canara, Coimbatore, and Wynad falling to the share of the former. A portion was also reserved for the Peishwa, with the view of its forming a basis for a new treaty with the Mahratta Empire. Arrangements were at the same time made by which Mysore could never again become a great military power, and, to provide against the most remote contingencies, it was stipulated that the heads of all the passes on the table-land should remain for ever in the hands of the British. The military history of the Madras Presidency may be said to cease with the treaty of 1799, all subsequent addition of territory, with one exception, having been peacefully acquired. Before noting these, a brief recapitulation will be made of the territorial acquisitions already alluded to.

Acquisition
of territory
down to 1799.

As stated in the opening paragraph, a trading settlement was established at Masulipatam in 1620, and in 1639 and in 1691 Forts St. George and St. David were built at Madras and Tegnapatam, respectively, by the permission of the ruling Hindu princes. The fort of Tellicherry, in Malabar, was similarly established in 1703. The first footing in Tanjore was gained by the cession of Devicottah in 1749, as a reward for assistance rendered to a successful claimant to the throne. The Nizams Mirzapha Jung and Salabut Jung had ceded Masulipatam and portions of the Northern Circars to the French; but, on the capture of Masulipatam by the English in 1757, the influence of the French was broken, and the town of Masulipatam and a considerable tract of the surrounding territory was made over to the English. In 1765 sunnuds ceding the whole of the Northern Circars were obtained direct from the Emperor of Delhi, but the Madras Government thought it more politic to obtain the consent of the Nizam also, and in 1766 the five Circars of Ellore, Chicacole, Rajahmundry, Moostafarnugger, and Moortizanugger or Guuntoor were ceded by treaty on the English agreeing to pay an annual subsidy of nine lakhs, or to furnish military assistance when required. A life-interest in the Circar of Guuntoor was retained on behalf of the Nizam's brother Bazalut Jung, and it did not come into the possession of the English until 1768, six years after the death of Bazalut Jung. The Dutch settlements of Pulicat, Sadras, and Negapatam were annexed in 1781. The earlier wars with Hyder and Tippoo were concluded with a peace on the basis of mutual restitution of territory, but by the treaty of 1792 the districts of Malabar and Salem and the Dindigul division of Madura were acquired by the English, and on the partition of Tippoo's territory in 1799 the districts of Canara and Coimbatore fell to the share of the British Government.

During the wars of the eighteenth century the English more than once interfered in the disputes between the Rajah of Tanjore and the Nabob of the Carnatic, and in 1776 a treaty was concluded by which Nagore and 277 villages were ceded to the Company. The internal affairs of the kingdom continued to go on from bad to worse, and, after a turbulent period of disputed succession, the rightful claimant to the throne, on being put into power in 1799, executed a treaty resigning the administration of the kingdom into the hands of the British, on the understanding that he would receive a provision of one lakh of pagodas and one-fifth of the net revenues. The titular dignity became extinct in 1855 through failure of heirs. In 1802 a new treaty was entered into with the Nizam, by which a considerable increase was made in the British Subsidiary Force, on account of which the Nizam ceded all the territories he had acquired by the Mysore treaties of 1792 and 1799, together with the taluk of Adoni and all other taluks situated to the south of the rivers Toombuddra and Kistna. These are known by the name of the Ceded Districts, and comprise the provinces of Bellary and Cuddapah. The English having in all the earlier wars of the peninsula supported the cause of Mahomed Ali, Nabob of the Carnatic, and having in fact secured him both the original possession of his kingdom and the power of retaining it, the revenues of the Carnatic were looked to for the defrayal of the expenses of the wars, and with this view the present district of Chingleput, then known as "the Jaghire," was made over to the Company in 1763. This was rented to the Nabob for some time, but in 1780 the British Government took the management into their own hands. As new wars arose fresh agreements were made, and a series of treaties were executed culminating in that of 1792, three years before the death of Mahomed Ali, and the accession of Omdut-ool-Oomrah, by which the Nabob agreed to pay a large subsidy, and, in order to secure punctual payment, the English were authorized to collect tribute direct from a large number of the poligars or local chiefs. In the event of the balance not being paid, the English were further authorized to assume the management of certain specified districts. In accordance with this treaty, tribute was collected throughout a great part of the Tinnevely and Madura Districts, and in 1795 the Company assumed the entire management of the Ramnad division of the present district of Madura. [On the fall of Seringapatam in 1799 it was discovered that both Mahomed Ali and Omdut-ool-Oomrah had been carrying on a treasonable correspondence with Mysore, and the treaty of 1792 having thus been infringed, the British Government resolved to assume the entire management of the Carnatic, and proposed a treaty for the purpose. Omdut-ool-Oomrah having died before arrangements were concluded,

and his reputed son Ali Hoossain having rejected the terms offered him, another grandson of Mahomed Ali, named Azeem-ood-Dowlah, was declared his successor, and an arrangement was entered into on the 31st July 1801, by which he resigned the government of the country into the hands of the British, retaining the titular dignity and receiving a liberal stipend. The effect of this treaty was to bring under British rule the whole of the country from the Northern Circars to Cape Comorin, with the exception of the French Settlements of Pondicherry and Karikal and the Danish settlement of Tranquebar. The titular dignity of Nabob of the Carnatic was continued until 1855, when there was a failure of direct heirs. The present representative of the family bears the title of Prince of Arcot, and has the position of the first native nobleman of Madras. In 1838 internal mismanagement and suspicion of treasonable intrigue on the part of the Nabob of Kurnool led to the occupation of his territory by an armed force and to its subsequent annexation. Tranquebar was ceded by the Danes in 1845, since which time there has been no accession of territory to the Madras Presidency. The district of North Canara was transferred to the Bombay Presidency in 1862.

CIVIL DIVISIONS OF THE BRITISH TERRITORY.

Districts
grouped.

The Madras Presidency, according to existing boundary divisions, is made up of twenty-one districts, grouped as below:—

* Technical names of groups of Districts.	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Position.
Northern	1. Ganjam	8,313	To the north and east along the sea coast on the Bay of Bengal.
	2. Vizagapatam	18,344	
	3. Godavari	7,209	
	4. Kistna	8,036	
East Central	5. Nellore	8,462	In the centre of the peninsula and mostly south and east of Mysore.
	6. Madras	27	
	7. Chingleput	2,753	
	8. South Arcot	4,873	
Ceded Districts	9. North Arcot	7,139	To the south, forming the south-eastern boundary of the peninsula.
	10. Kurnool†	7,358	
	11. Bellary	11,007	
	12. Cuddapah	8,367	
West Central	13. Salem	7,453	On the Western Coast.
	14. Coimbatore	7,432	
Southern	15. Nilgiris	719	On the Western Coast.
	16. Tanjore	3,514	
	17. Trichinopoly	3,515	
	18. Madura	9,502	
West Coast	19. Tinnevely	5,176	On the Western Coast.
	20. South Canara	3,362	
	21. Malabar	6,902	

* Districts with a sea board are called "Maritime Districts."

† Kurnool is not strictly speaking one of the historical "Ceded Districts."

‡ Exclusive of Pudukottah territory, the area of which is 1,380 square miles.

The four districts at the head of the list are known as the Northern "Northern Circars." Prior to 1859-60 these circars consisted of five districts, but in that year the three districts of Rajahmundry, Masulipatam, and Guntoor were divided to form the present Godavari and Kistna Districts. The northern districts were formerly under the Nizam's Government, and in that time the divisions were as follows:—Guntoor, Condapilly, Ellore, Rajahmundry, and Chicacole. They came finally into British possession in the year 1823, by the payment to the Nizam's Government of Rupees 11,66,666 in lieu of an annual tribute. When these districts fell into the hands of the East India Company they consisted chiefly of large estates held by renters or zemindars; of lands called "Havelly," which were the old demesnes, or private estates, of former rulers; and of tracts near the principal towns which had been resumed by the Mahomedan Governors of the districts, and appropriated for the support of their numerous bands of soldiers and public establishments. For some years prior to 1855-56 these Northern Circars were under the charge of a separate Commissioner, but each district had then also its own revenue and judicial establishments. The appointment of Commissioner of the Northern Circars was abolished in June 1856.

The part of the Presidency usually known as the Carnatic appears to have been originally formed of three divisions, namely, Northern, extending from the river Pennar to the river Gundegama, and consisting of a portion of the Nellore District; Central, extending from the Coleroon to the Pennar River, and containing a portion of Trichinopoly, Chingleput, North Arcot, South Arcot, Madras, and Nellore Districts; and Southern, consisting of a portion of the Trichinopoly and the whole of Tanjore, Tinnevely, and Madura Districts. These districts came into the possession of the British between the years 1799 and 1801.

In the year 1859-60 the two districts of Madras Town and Chingleput were amalgamated into a single district, the collection of Sea Customs revenue being separately provided for. In the year 1870 the Chingleput District was again divided as before, leaving the administration of the Madras Town District in the hands of the Sea Customs Collector. The Chingleput District was obtained from the Nabob of Arcot in 1763 in return for services rendered to him and his father by the Company. The grant was confirmed by the Great Moghul in 1765, and for a long time the district was known as the "Jaghire" of the East India Company. The site of the town of Madras was obtained in the year 1640, by a grant from the descendants of the Vijayanaggar rulers, subsequently confirmed by the Moghul Government.

The districts of Bellary and Cuddapah were ceded to the English by the Nizam in the year 1800 for the maintenance, in perpetuity, of a

Kurnool.

West centre
Districts.
Salem and
Coimbatore.

Nilgiris.

West Coast
Districts.
Canara and
Malabar.

GENERAL FORM OF ADMINISTRATION.

The Administration of the Madras Presidency is vested in a Governor, with a Council of three Members, one of whom is the Commander-in-Chief for the time being, and the others Members of the Covenanted Civil Service. The Commander-in-Chief is Second in Council, but the Senior Civilian Member presides in the absence of the Governor. The appointment of the Ordinary Members of Council is made by the Queen in Council. Additional Members are added to the number for purposes of legislation only by the Governor; the particulars will be seen under Section III. The cabinet system of administration, under which each member of the Executive Council deals with separate subjects and refers special cases only to the whole Council, is carried out

The different Secretariat Departments of the Government Office are given in a list at foot. Attached to the Chief Secretary, Revenue Secretary, Public Works Secretary, and Joint Secretary for Irrigation, are four Under Secretaries. An Assistant Secretary is also attached to the Judicial and Legislative Departments:—

The names of the different subjects into which the practical administration divides itself can best be seen from the table of contents prefixed to this volume. The classification there shown is the classification of subjects adopted for the purposes of the yearly Administration Report. Some of the subjects, as Jails, Educational, &c., form so-called executive "departments;" where this is so, it is necessary to remark that such departments are not co-incident with the Secretariat departments of the Government Office. The principal executive and other officers who are in direct communication with the Government, are shown in the list given below. The headings show the Secretariat departments of the Government Office in which for the most part their communications are received:—

JUDICIAL.

The Judges of the High Court.
District and Sessions Judges.
District Magistrates.
Agents to the Governor of Fort St. George in Vizagapatam and Ganjam
Inspector-General of Police.
Inspector-General of Jails.
Magistrates of the Town Police Court.
Magistrates of the Egmore Police Court

SECTION I.

Judges of the Madras Court of Small Causes.
Advocate-General.
Government Solicitor.
Government Pleader.
Administrator-General.
Coroner of Madras.
Inspector-General of Registration.
Sheriff of Madras.

PUBLIC.

Collectors of Districts.
Commissioner, Nilgiris.
Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department.
Sanitary Commissioner.
Committee for the Examination of Assistants.
Private Secretary to His Excellency the Governor.
Government Astronomer.
Superintendent, Government Central Museum.
Chemical Examiner.
Supervisor of the Government Press.
Protector of Emigrants.
Translators to Government.
Examiner of Medical Accounts.
Committee for the management, Government Work-house, Madras.

POLITICAL.

Resident in Travancore and Cochin.
Government Agent at Chepauk.
Government Agent at Tanjore.
Political Agent at Pudukota.
Collector in charge of the Special Agent's Department at Cuddalore.
Officer in charge of the Stipend Pay Office at Vellore.
British Consular Agents at Pondicherry and Karikal.
Receiver of Carnatic Property.

ECCLESIASTICAL.

The Right Reverend the Bishop of Madras.
Venerable the Archdeacon of Madras.
Senior Chaplain of the Church of Scotland.
Marriage Registrar for the Town of Madras.

MARINE.

Master Attendant, Madras.

FINANCIAL.

Trustees of the Civil Fund.
Accountant-General.
Commissioner of Paper Currency.
Presidents of Municipalities.
Presidents of Local Fund Boards.
Superintendent of Stamps and Stationery.
Postmaster-General.

EDUCATIONAL.

Director of Public Instruction.
Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examinations.

GENERAL FORM OF ADMINISTRATION.

Registrar, Madras University.
Superintendent of School of Arts.
Committee for the management, Lawrence Asylum, Nilgiris.

REVENUE.

Secretary to the Board of Revenue.
Conservator of Forests.
Director of Revenue Settlement.
Superintendent of Revenue Survey.
Commissioner of Salt Revenue.
Superintendent of Government Farms.

PUBLIC WORKS.

Chief Engineer, Public Works Department.
Chief Engineer for Irrigation.
Consulting Engineer for Railways.
Examiner of Railway Accounts.
Examiner of Public Works Accounts.

MILITARY.

Adjutant-General.
Quartermaster-General.
Judge Advocate-General.
Inspector-General of Ordnance.
Commissary-General.
Controller of Military Accounts.
Superintendent and Agent of Army Clothing.
Superintendent of Family Payments and Pensions.
Remount Agent.
Surgeon-General, British Medical Service.
Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department.

In the appendix will be found statements showing the prescribed Pay, precedence, and scale of allowances for the superior civil officers for this Presidency, the warrant of precedence now in force for all officers whose rank is graded as far as the warrant affects this Presidency, and the list of salutes due to European functionaries and to Native princes and chiefs throughout India.

The normal strength of the Covenanted Civil Service in Madras, present and absent on leave, is usually taken to be about 155. The appointments in this Presidency reserved by law for Covenanted Civilian are the following:—2 Members of Council, 2 Judges of the High Court, 21 Judges, 3 Members of the Board of Revenue, 2 Secretaries to Government, 19 Collectors, 2 Secretaries to the Board of Revenue, 1 Collector of Customs and of Madras, 17 Sub-Collectors and Principal Assistants, 2 Under Secretaries to Government, 19 Head Assistants and Senior Assistants, 1 Special Assistant. In speaking of appointments being reserved by law for covenanted officers, it must be mentioned that under Act of Parliament of 1870 the Government of India has power, under certain rules hereafter to be promulgated, to appoint natives of India direct to the service

in supersession of any such law. The following appointments are held by Covenanted Civilians by usage though not by law:— 1 Resident at Travancore, 1 Registrar of the High Court, 1 Commissioner of the Nilgiris, 1 Director of Revenue Settlement, and 1 Deputy Director of Revenue Settlement. A certain number of the recent mofussil Small Cause Court Judgeships were usually held by Covenanted Civilians, but their revival is not contemplated. The position occupied by a Junior Civilian as an Assistant, and until he acts in one of the posts detailed above, is not reckoned as an appointment. There are altogether rather less than 100 appointments ordinarily available to the service, and the service is kept at such a strength that, allowing for absentees, a Junior Civilian will get his first acting appointment in the lowest grade at about the close of his fourth year after arrival in the country. The ordinary annual recruitment calculated so as to ensure these results is about 7, giving an average of 28 Junior Civilians who will be at any one time not yet provided with an appointment. Recruitment in the Civil Service has not always been regular; prior to 1861 there was a large under-recruitment followed in the years 1862, 1863, and 1864 by a correspondingly large over-recruitment. A second under-recruitment followed the year 1869. These measures have produced great inequality in the promotion of existing members of the service, and its present condition may be said to be an entirely abnormal one. The Covenanted Civil Service is so called because each member of the service, before leaving England, enters into a covenant with the Secretary of State, wherein his privileges are recited, and in which he binds himself to certain conditions. The Covenanted Service are concluded as to leave by the Imperial Civil Leave Code. Similarly for acting allowances by the Imperial Acting Allowance Code. For pension they have special rules attached to the Imperial Civil Pension Code. As regards pensions, the Covenanted branch of the service has this peculiarity, that contributions towards the pension at the rate of 4 per cent. on allowances are deducted monthly by Government from the pay of each member. Figures are not available since 1874, but down to that date average contributors paid for £381 out of the £1,000 nominally given as pension by Government. The Covenanted service has also a Provident Fund for widows, orphans, and sick members; this is managed by seven Trustees and a Secretary, but the enjoyment of certain privileges at the hands of Government gives the Fund a quasi-public character.

Staff Corps.

The Staff Corps, which provides officers for military duties, for duty in the civil branches of the army, and for purely civil duties, numbers in this Presidency about 559 officers; of these about 149 are employed in civil duties, that is to say, in the Political, Public Works,

Police, Survey, and Forest Departments, and 410, including unemployed officers, are in Military employment. The Staff Corps are for the most part under separate Military rules as regards leave and pension. The following table showing the statistics of a recent date gives further particulars as to numbers:—

* Major Generals.	Colonels with Colonel's allowances.	Brevet Colonel and Lieutenant Colonels.		Majors.		Captains.		Lieutenants.	
		Military Employ.	Civil Employ.	Military Employ.	Civil Employ.	Military Employ.	Civil Employ.	Military Employ.	Civil Employ.
unemployed.	33 2 in Military employ; rest unemployed.	160	40	104	60	74	42	27	7
Total 8	Total 33	Total 204	Total 164	Total 116	Total 34				

The uncovenanted service proper comprises every person in the employ of Government other than a covenanted civilian or an officer of the army who is in receipt of 10 rupees a month and upwards. An Act of Parliament of 1793, in extending the East India Company's charter for another period of twenty years, provided among other things that no office, place, or appointment in the "civil line" of the Company's Indian service should be filled up except by the appointment of a "civil servant," that is to say a member of what is now the covenanted agency. The uncovenanted service had thus no recognized existence at the end of the last century, and matters remained on this footing until the passing by Parliament of the Civil Service Act of 1861. The Civil Service Act provides that with the exception of certain reserved appointments there detailed as belonging to the Covenanted Civil Service, all offices shall be open; thus giving legal recognition to the uncovenanted branch of the service. In 1859 a considerable improvement was made in the status of the uncovenanted service by the creation of the class of Deputy Collectors. About that time also the appointments of Madras Town Magistrates and Judges of the Small Cause Courts were thrown open to natives of India. Quite recently the four assistants to the Chief Secretary, the Revenue Secretary, the Military Secretary, and the Public Works Secretary, were ordered to be classed as gazetted appointments. Considerable misconception exists in some quarters as to the extent to which natives of this country take part in the public administration. The arrangements at the census of 1871 were unfortunately unsatisfactory as regards the classification of employments, and the results are not to be trusted. By collating the budget lists of establishments however, it appears that there cannot be less than 16,000 members

Uncovenanted civil service.

of the uncovenanted service proper; and from general statistics it is not difficult to conclude that the number of persons in the service of Government below that grade must amount to over 80,000. With a very few exceptions, the whole of this body of men are natives of the country. The principal administrative grades of the Revenue and Judicial branches of the uncovenanted service are those of Deputy Collector, Tahsildar, Deputy Tahsildar, Subordinate Judge and District Munsif. There are sixty-eight Deputy Collectors at present in the Presidency at salaries ranging from rupees 240 to rupees 600, a hundred and fifty-six Tahsildars with salaries ranging from rupees 150 to rupees 250, a hundred and seventy-eight Deputy Tahsildars with salaries ranging from rupees 50 to rupees 150, fourteen Subordinate Judges with salaries at rupees 500, and a hundred and ten District Munsifs with salaries ranging from rupees 200 to rupees 300. The departments of Government other than the Revenue and the Judicial, as for instance the Account Offices, the Educational, Registration, Stamps, Medical, Police, Jails, Public Works and Railway Departments, and the Uncovenanted Secretariat, contain a large number of well paid appointments. At the Presidency town there are several miscellaneous appointments with salaries ranging up to rupees 1,500, which are open to members of the Uncovenanted Service. The proportion of the Uncovenanted Service proper, a term almost synonymous with the Native Civil Service, to total population was in 1875-78 about one in 1,980 or about .05 per cent. Including the inferior agency above referred to, the proportion was about one in 330, or about .3 per cent. Members of quasi-Government establishments are not included in these calculations. The Covenanted Civil Service on the other hand combined with Staff Corps officers in civil employ numbered in 1877-78 about 300, giving a proportion to total population of about one in 105,323, or about .0009 per cent. The Uncovenanted Service is for pensionary purposes under the Civil Pension Code, and in that respect all its members are on the same footing. Some of its members, though not all, are provided with leave rules under the Civil Leave Code. The following table shows the exact number of uncovenanted servants as above defined, as the service stood shortly before this volume went to press:—

Collectors' Huzoor and Taluks	4,174
Abkari	53
Law and Justice	3,293
Inam Commission	7
Stamps	37
Observatory	17
Salt	359
Administration	454
Director of Revenue Settlement	496
Director of Revenue Survey	1,523
Ecclesiastical	28

Political	72
Forest	177
Marine	179
Customs	320
District Post	13
Police	3,065
Jails	224
Registration	98
Printing	302
Government Farms	13
Government Botanical Garden	4
Office of the Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examination	4
Stamping Weights and Measures	25
Birth and Death Registration	33
Medical	271
Education	698
Total	15,943



Below the Uncovenanted Civil Service is a large class of Government servants, with important duties, but whose salaries nevertheless do not place them in that class. The sub-division of the soil into so many independent interests necessitates in particular a large staff of Government officials in connection with revenue administration. Each village has its staff of officials, of whom the most important are the head of the village and magistrate, the accountant, the watchman, and the distributor of water. These will be more particularly described hereafter. If to these are added the large number of peons and other ministerial servants in Government employ, we shall obtain a total under the present head of probably not less than half a lakh of persons. Village servants have no pensions; the rest are provided for under the Civil Pension Code. There are no codified leave rules for this class of public servants.

RELATIONS WITH FOREIGN EUROPEAN POWERS.

The Dutch have had no settlements within the Presidency since 1825, and the Danes none since 1845. The Portuguese settlement of Goa ceased to be within the limits of this Presidency when the North Canara district was transferred to Bombay in 1860. Since 1860 the only foreign European settlements have been those still subsisting, namely the French settlements of Pondicherry in South Arcot, Karikal in Tanjore, Yanam in the Godavari, and Mahé in Malabar. Between 1819 and 1834 the Madras Government were represented on the

Previous history.

Coromandel coast by a general Special Agent. The head-quarters of this officer were at Cuddalore, and his duties consisted in being the medium of communication between the Madras Government on the one side, and on the other side the Dutch Government at Sadras, the Danish Government at Tranquebar, and the French Government at Pondicherry. In 1834, what remained of the Special Agent's duties were transferred to the Collector of South Arcot.

Present
relations
with France.

Pondicherry being at the present date the centre of government for all the French settlements in India and Indo-China, matters of importance are negotiated through the Collector of South Arcot. Minor matters however at the outlying stations of Karikal, Yanam, and Mahé are dealt with by the Collectors at those places, without reference to Pondicherry. The relations between the Pondicherry Government and the Madras Government are regulated by articles 8, 12, and 14 of the European Treaty of 1814; by the European Convention of 1815; and by two subsidiary and local Conventions, dated 1818 and 1837. Under the Treaty of 1814 the French engaged to erect no fortifications on the continent of India, and to keep in their establishments only such a number of troops as would be sufficient for police purposes. Under article 8 of the Convention of 1815 the English engaged that if at any time war should break out between France and England, neither the French civil officers nor the military force just mentioned should be treated as prisoners of war, but should be given three months to settle their affairs, and should be sent to France along with their families and personal property. Under article 9 of the same Convention it was agreed that persons going over the frontiers for the purpose of absconding from justice, whether on the civil or criminal side, should be mutually restored on application being made by the respective Governments. By the tacit consent however of both the contracting powers, as shown in their subsequent Acts and Declarations, this provision has been held to be in force only so far as it concerns criminal offences of a grave and non-political character; especially such crimes as are described as heinous under the Fugitive Foreign Offenders' Act, No. VII of 1864. There is at the present day no extradition of debtors. The Convention of 1815 as modified by that made locally in 1818, disposes of the salt question between the two Governments. Pondicherry agrees to make no salt for itself in any of its Indian settlements, but to take British made salt at cost price, selling it to its own subjects at approximately the same factitious rate as that which prevails in British territory. The quantity of salt supplied by the British Government to the different settlements is supposed to be no more than suffices for the needs of the French population. In addition to the profit made on the sale of the salt so supplied, the French receive in connection with this subject an

indemnity from the British Government of Rupees 4,41,600. The theory of the indemnity is that it is necessary to pay France to keep her out of the market as a salt-producer, and to avoid additional difficulty on the land customs line. The indemnity is rather of the nature of a political than of a commercial payment. The Convention of 1837 merely renewed that of 1818, with the additional proviso that either contracting party could withdraw at a year's notice.

ADMINISTRATION OF TRIBUTARY STATES AND SPECIAL AGENCIES.

TRAVANCORE STATE.

The English first settled in Travancore in 1684 at Anjengo, when a Commercial Resident was appointed, whose functions soon became political. In the war in Madura and Tinnevely in 1756, the Travancoreans, though not actual allies of the British, effected diversions in their favor against the Mahomedans and Polygars whose country they entered for the purpose of plunder through the Ariencavoo or Puliary and Aramboly passes. In the wars with Hyder and Tippoo the Rajah of Travancore was an ally of the British, and in the treaty concluded with the latter in 1784, he was specially named as included in its provisions. In 1788 the Rajah seeing Tippoo establishing himself at Palghaut and Calicut, and by his proximity threatening the lines of Travancore, which connect the ghauts with Cranganore, applied to the British Government for officers and sergeants to drill his troops, but this being refused he accepted the offer of two of the Company's battalions to be stationed on his frontiers at his expense. Notwithstanding this, in the following year Tippoo attacked the lines, and though at first he was unsuccessful and had to retire wounded, yet in a second attempt he forced the lines and ravaged the country. Up to this point the Governor-General had been prevented by the restrictions placed on his power by Act of Parliament from adopting measures to counteract the danger existing from the scarcely concealed hostile intentions of the Sultan of Mysore, but freed from this restraint by the open aggression of Tippoo on an ally, Lord Cornwallis at once decided on war as "a measure not less necessary to vindicate the insulted honor of the nation, than to provide for its future security by accomplishing at a favorable moment the reduction of the power of

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political
relations.

Tippoo Sultan." The result of this war was the treaty of 1792, which secured Travancore from further danger. In 1793 the Bombay Government entered into a treaty with the Rajah, by which they bound him to supply a large quantity of pepper for ten years in return for arms and European goods. In 1795 a treaty was concluded with the Rajah by which he agreed to pay an annual subsidy equivalent to the cost of three battalions of sepoy, a company of European Artillery, and two companies of lascars, and in 1805 a further treaty was entered into by which he engaged to make such addition to the payment as should maintain one more regiment of sepoy, and in case an additional force were necessary to defend his territory against attack or invasion, he agreed to contribute such a sum as was just and reasonable in proportion to his revenue. This treaty gave the Governor-General power to interfere in the internal management of the country, and even to assume the direct management of such parts as seemed necessary to provide funds if there were grounds for apprehending failure to defray the expense of the permanent force and of any extraordinary force. The subsidy was finally fixed at Rupees 800,000 at which sum it now stands. In 1808 an insurrection broke out, headed by the Dewan Vailoo Thumby and his brother. The chief object was the assassination of the Resident, Colonel Macaulay, and a party of Nairs endeavoured to surprise him in his house at Cochin, but he escaped on board a vessel in the harbour. The Officer Commanding at Quilon was at first unable to cope with the greatly superior numbers of the rebels, but on being reinforced he marched out and utterly defeated the Dewan who commanded a force of 30,000 men with 18 guns. A British force was then sent to invade Travancore from the South, which, after forcing the Aramboly lines near Cape Comorin and capturing the Forts of Oodiagherry and Pulpanapuram, advanced on the capital and opened up communications with the Quilon force. The Rajah tendered his submission and disclaimed any sympathy with the insurgents. The debts, however, into which the country was thrown by these events prevented the punctual payment of the subsidy, and the administration of the territory would have been assumed under the terms of the treaty of 1805 had not the death of the Rajah and the succession of a female led to the union in the person of Colonel Munro of the combined functions of Resident and Dewan. Under his administration tranquillity was restored, the public services reorganized, debts discharged, and the financial prosperity of the kingdom secured; and in 1829 the Rajah having attained his majority was formally installed, and thenceforth no political troubles affected the State. In 1862 a sunnud was issued by the Governor-General conveying to the Rajah the assurance that on failure of natural heirs the adoption of a successor according to Hindu law would be recognized.

In 1865 a Customs Convention was entered into with Travancore by the British Government. According to this Travancore undertook:—*First*.—To raise the selling price of salt at the coast depôts to the British monopoly price, and at inland depôts to that price *plus* cost of carriage. *Secondly*.—To abolish import duty on all British Indian produce imported by sea or land, and on goods of foreign origin exported through British Indian ports or by land from British territory, receiving as compensation Rupees 40,000 a year. Tobacco is not included. *Thirdly*.—To levy the same import duty as the British Indian Government on foreign goods imported direct, except on cotton and metals, which were to pay 10 per cent., and tobacco, which was to pay 120 rupees per candy. *Fourthly*.—Not to levy export duty of more than 5 per cent. except on timber, pepper, and betel-nut. In consideration of this undertaking the British Government on its part agreed—*First*.—To supply salt at Bombay on the same terms as to the Madras Government, namely, levying no duty, except three pies per maund for petty local expenses. *Secondly*.—To declare Travancore sea-ports to be British Indian ports within the meaning of Section 12, Act VI of 1863, and to levy no duty by sea or land on goods to and from Travancore. Opium is excepted.

The mountains which separate Travancore on the east from the British provinces of the Coromandel Coast, and which at some points rise to an elevation of 8,000 feet above the sea, are covered with forest jungle; the flat country, which extends to an average distance of about ten miles from the sea inland, is distinguished by an almost unbroken mass of cocoanut and areca palm cultivation, this constituting the wealth of the country. The geological formation is peculiar. The whole country is undulating; and is traversed east to west by numerous rivers, the floods of which arrested by the peculiar action of the Arabian Sea on the coast spread themselves out into numerous lakes or lagoons; these connected by artificial canals, form an inland line of smooth-water communication, which extends nearly the whole length of the coast, and is of great value during the monsoon, when the coast itself is closed to navigation. According to the trigonometrical survey the area is 6,653½ square miles. The population has been given till recently at 1,280,000, but there are reasons for supposing that this number should be nearly doubled. The number of houses is supposed to be about 500,000, giving four or five souls to a house. The forests contain valuable timber, principally teak, anjelly, ebony, and black-wood. The borassus and other palms and the cotton tree are abundant. Elephants, tigers, cheetas, panther (including the black species), bear, bison, elk, deer, nilghau, and various species of monkeys are found in the forests. Pepper and cardamoms and nutmegs and cloves in a less degree, are characteristic productions of Travancore. The ordinary

Features of
the country.

staple productions are the cocoanut, the areca nut, and the jack fruit, all grown in gardens; various kinds of yams and other farinaceous roots are also grown. Rice is cultivated in the valleys and along the edges of the backwaters and in the tract of the flat country near Cape Comorin known as Nanjinad. Coffee has been introduced of late years by European planters, and is becoming a valuable article of export.

Travancore
census.

A census has recently been carried out in Travancore. The rules and arrangements were nearly the same as those adopted in British India. There was first a registration of houses, and then a registration of shops, pagodas, churches, mosques, schools, and chuttrums. This was followed by a preliminary house-to-house enumeration occupying thirty days. Finally there was a synchronous enumeration of the population of the whole State in one day, the 18th May 1875. The result gave the population at 2,311,379 against 1,262,647, the result announced in 1854, and 906,587, the result announced in 1816. The cost of the operation was Rupees 32,000. The difference in accuracy between a census taken as the present one was on scientific principles and former censuses taken on a mere haphazard method is so great that no argument can be raised on the difference between the results. Taking the most important divisions of the community, the figures stand as follows:—Hindus, 1,700,317, or 73·64 per cent.; Christians, 468,518, or 20·29 per cent.; Mahomedans, 139,905, or 6·06 per cent. The feature that will probably cause most surprise in these figures is the large proportion of Christians, amounting to upwards of 20 per cent. of the population against 1½ per cent. in the British portion of the Presidency. In Tinnevely, where this element is strongest in the British Territory, the proportion does not rise above 6 per cent. In fact the total Christian population of the whole of the Madras Presidency is only 545,120 or but one-sixth more than that of Travancore. The Travancore Christians are thus classified:—Syrian Christians, 295,770; Roman Catholics, 109,820; Protestants, 61,284. The Hindus are separated in the census tables into 75 castes, but nearly 50 per cent. of the total are comprised in the two principal castes, Malayala Sudras and Elovvars; the Nairs and Toers of Malabar. The Brahmins only number 38,434, of whom 27,672 are classed as foreign Brahmins. In the matter of education Brahmins, as might be expected, take the lead, 50 per cent. being returned as educated. Among the Nairs the proportion is 21 per cent. Taking the percentage throughout for educated persons it is 11·08 among the males and 46 among females compared with the figures 9·4 and 16 in the Madras Presidency generally. Looking at the population of the country as now ascertained with respect to area it amounts to 343·4 per square mile. The average in British territory is 226, and the only districts in which the density

of population exceeds Travancore are South Arcot, where it amounts to 360, Malabar, where it is 376, and Tanjore, where it rises to 540. The great increase in the last-named district is evidently due to the fact that there is hardly any unoccupied area in it, whereas in Travancore as in Malabar large areas of primeval forest exist, much of which can never be inhabited.

The census shows that the total revenue raised in the State in that year amounted to 2½ rupees per head of the population, or almost the same as in the British territory. The average incidence of the land tax was 11 annas per head as against 1 rupee 6 annas in British territory. This difference, however, is in part counterbalanced by the excess in customs, a great part of which is export duty on agricultural produce. The salt revenue amounted to 7½ annas per head, which is somewhat in excess of the average throughout the British territory. The salt consumed, however, is Bombay salt, the extra cost of carriage of which is now included in the selling price. Fish-curing is also largely carried on.

Zillah Courts were first established in Travancore in M. E. 987. They were seven in number, and were placed under the orders of the Dewan, who was then supreme head of all departments. The term regulation had not then come into use. All measures of State were made known by royal proclamations under Sign Manual, or by Sattavari-olais or Hookoonnamas. The duty of these Courts was to inquire into all cases brought before them, civil, criminal, or police, and to report to the Dewan, whose approval in each was necessary to give effect to their proceedings. This patriarchal system remained in force till 990, when an Appellate Huzur Court was formed for the hearing of appeals from the decisions of the Zillah Courts. This court still formed rather an appendage of the Dewan's Cutcherry than an independent Court of Justice. In 993 Tahsildars, who were up to that time confined exclusively to revenue duties, were for the first time invested with jurisdiction in petty cases of police. The first experiment was tried in the outlying taluk of Shencottah, adjoining British territory. In 1007 Munsif Courts were created, vested with jurisdiction in petty police cases and in civil suits not exceeding Rupees 100 in value. In 1010 a general scheme of judicial administration was conceived, founded on the arrangements obtaining in the Madras Presidency, and was carried out by means of seven regulations. Regulation I prescribed the general powers and functions of Munsifs, together with rules of general procedure to be observed in the trial of civil suits. Regulation II provided for the adjudication of suits by punchayets. Regulation III laid down the procedure for execution by Munsifs of decrees passed by all the courts. Regulation

tion IV revised the powers and constitution of Zillah Courts. Regulation V created the Appeal Court subsequently called the Sudr. Regulation VI invested the Tahsildars with police powers. Regulation VII created Circuit Judges, and, in addition to defining their powers, laid down the procedure to be observed in the trial and commitment of criminal cases. These regulations, though modified subsequently in some respects, form still the groundwork of the present judicial machinery. In 1023 sub-officers of police were appointed to exercise the powers of the police officer or Tahsildar during his absence for the commitment of cases only. In 1025 a regulation was passed reducing the number of Munsifs and relieving them of the duty of executing decrees passed by the Appeal and Zillah Courts. In the same year a law was passed to enable parties to sue *in forma pauperis*. In 1030 an important administrative change was made. Revenue divisions were formed and the Dewan Peishcars, who were till then doing duty in the Huzur Cutcherry in charge of special departments under the orders of the Dewan, were sent out to take charge of them with powers of general control and supervision in all matters, revenue, magisterial, and police. They were still subject to the orders of the Dewan as head of the Administration and Chief Magistrate. In 1032 Circuit Courts were abolished and Sessions Courts, three in number, were constituted in their place. In 1036 Sessions Courts were in their turn abolished, and the Zillah Judges were invested with the full powers of the former Circuit Judges. This regulation provided also for the adoption of the scale of punishments prescribed in the Penal Code of British India. It also conferred on single judges jurisdiction in causes up to Rupees 300, and in 1038 appeals in such cases were made inadmissible; but this was rescinded and superseded by Regulation II of 1041, by which small causes involving sums up to Rupees 10 before Munsifs, and up to Rupees 50 before Zillah Judges from the judgments of Munsifs, were determinable without appeal. This jurisdiction still continues in force. In 1037 a very important reform was introduced, a regulation being passed which virtually adopted the British Civil Procedure Code. The present Sudr Court was at the same time constituted under that title, the name of Appeal Court being discarded. Regulation I of 1039 was passed for the punishment of offences against the telegraph. Regulation II of the same year created copyright in books. Breaches of contract by artizans and workmen were made punishable by Regulation I of 1040. In 1040 another regulation was passed, defining the status of Vakils, their discipline and rights in relation to the courts. A statute of limitation was also passed in the same year. By Regulation I of 1041, single judges of Zillah Courts were empowered to try and determine both criminal and civil cases. In the same year a regulation raised the jurisdiction of Munsifs to suits of Rupees 200

value. Regulation III of 1041 legalized admission of approvers in criminal cases. Regulation I of 1042 introduced an amended system of registration of assurances based upon that obtaining in British India, but did not come into force till 1043. The use of stamped cedjans and the then existing agency of registration ceased from the date last named. Regulation I of 1043 legalized the employment of Vakils in criminal cases. Regulation I of 1047 provided for the better conduct of business in the Sudr Court by giving a casting vote to the Chief Judge in certain cases. Another regulation was passed in the same year to relieve the Dewan of magisterial functions and appellate jurisdiction in criminal cases, and for redistribution of magisterial powers generally. In 1049 a Zillah Court was established at Alwaye presided over by a single judge.

Of revenue regulations not many have been passed. In 1035 and 1036 regulations were made for the levy of port dues at the port of Alleppey. Regulation II of 1040 provided for the adjudication of claims to waste lands, and rules for the sale of waste lands with special reference to the cultivation of coffee in the hill tracts of the State. In 1042 a royal proclamation was issued defining the rights and relations between Jennies or landlords and their tenants. Revenue Regulations.

The present judicial machinery is thus the outcome of the legislation of more than half a century. It may be summarized as follows. Present judicial machinery. First as to criminal jurisdiction. Sub-Magistrates are Magistrates of first instance in all cases, and have power to pass sentence of fine up to Rupees 10, imprisonment up to 30 days, and corporal punishment up to 6 lashes. The Magistrates have power of fining up to Rupees 50, imprisonment 3 months, and corporal punishment up to 1 dozen lashes. The Criminal Courts have power of fining up to Rupees 500, imprisonment 3 years, and corporal punishment up to 3 dozen lashes. All cases involving punishments higher than what is here mentioned must be referred to the Sudr Court for approval, whether the Criminal Court records a finding of conviction or acquittal. Appeals lie from Sub-Magistrates to Magistrates, from Magistrates to the Criminal Courts, and from the Criminal Courts to the Sudr, except in cases of disputed possession of lands, &c., wherein the order of the Magistrate is final as to present occupancy till a decision from a competent court of civil jurisdiction is obtained. The Sudr have also a general power of revisions over all the decisions of the lower courts; for this purpose they peruse the calendars which are submitted to them in every case disposed of, in which the Zillah Court passes remarks. Next as to civil jurisdiction. Munsifs have jurisdiction in suits up to Rupees 200, their decisions in suits up to Rupees 10 on the small cause side being final. The Zillah Courts have original jurisdiction without limit, and in suits up to Rupees 50 on the small

cause side, in appeal from the decisions of Munsifs their judgment is final. The Sudr have no original jurisdiction, but receive appellate regular appeals from the Zillah Courts and special appeals from decisions of Munsifs, where points of law are involved. The Maharajah is the highest appellate authority in the State in all criminal and civil matters. All punishments exceeding 14 years of imprisonment or 36 stripes, all punishments involving imprisonment for life, and all sentences of capital punishment, must be confirmed by the Maharajah.

The Bar.

There are Vakils attached to courts of all grades, Munsifs, Zillah Courts, and the Sudr. Local examinations are held, and such candidates only as pass are allowed to practise in the courts, those passing high being selected for the Sudr, and those passing lower being permitted to plead in the Zillah and Munsifs' Courts. Three Barristers of the High Court of Madras are also enrolled Pleaders of the Sudr. Several of the other pleaders have passed the British legal tests. The nominal roll of the Sudr Bar consists of 51 pleaders, and that of the Zillah Courts of 84 pleaders. Attached to the Sudr and to each of the Zillah Courts is a Sircar Vakil, who discharges the duties of a public prosecutor in criminal cases and those of a Government Vakil in civil suits where the Government is interested.

Criminal Courts.

The Criminal Courts of First Instance are those of the Sub-Magistrate. Tahsildars are ex-officio Sub-Magistrates, as also are Police Amins. The former perform, in addition to their magisterial work, revenue and police duties; the latter similarly combine police with magisterial work. There are special Sub-Magistrates in a few places. Previous to 1048 there were altogether 57 officers exercising the functions of Sub-Magistrates. The Tahsildar Sub-Magistrates were divided into three classes in respect of their salaries, which were Rupees 100, 70, and 56, respectively. In the year 1049 the Maharajah abolished the last class altogether, making the salaries of all Rupees 70 and upwards. The Police Amin Magistrates were divided into two classes on salaries of Rupees 35 and 30. In their case the salaries were raised to Rupees 50 and 40 according to length of service. As to the standard of qualification of the Sub-Magistrates, it may be observed that they have had previous training for the most part in the various ministerial offices, Huzur, Division, and Taluk. Some of them have passed the legal tests, and upwards of 20 are well acquainted with English. The Dewan Peishcars who are in charge of the divisions are ex-officio Magistrates, and are four in number. The Commercial Agent at Alleppey, the Superintendent of the Cardamom Hills, and the Conservator of Forests are also Magistrates. Thus there are in all 7 officers exercising the powers of a Magistrate. Regulation II of 1047, which was passed towards the close of the preceding year, which relieved the Dewan of direct magisterial functions, reserving

to him as before full executive and administrative control, and which redistributed magisterial powers among the various grades, came into force from the beginning of 1048. Nearly all criminal cases come before the Sub-Magistrates in the first instance, few original cases being taken up and tried by the Magistrates. When cases are referred to the Magistrate by the Sub-Magistrate for higher punishment or other reasons, such cases are taken as original cases on the file of the Magistrate.

There is no distinct organized Police in Travancore, such as has of Police late years been introduced into British India. That is to say, so far as the supervising and controlling agency is concerned, the Police has no separate establishment; the mass of the force however has always occupied a distinct footing and been employed exclusively for Police duties. The Dewan Peishcars or Divisional Officers, and the Tahsildars, combine revenue, magisterial and police functions, while Sub-Magistrates are Magistrates as well as Police Officers. There are however some purely Police Officers answering to the grade of Inspectors in the British Police. There were eight of these including two newly appointed in the year under report. Their salaries, which varied much before, were raised during 1049 and fixed with reference to a scale by which the officers were graded into two classes according to their service and qualifications. Next come some ranks in the force which, known under various designations, Cutwalls, Police Naiks, Aminadars, Vicharipoos, Jemadar, Havildar, Duffadar, and the like, may be classed as answering to the grade of Head Constables. Their number is 56, and their pay ranges from Rupees 6 in the case of the Duffadar to Rupees 17 in the case of the Cutwall. The rest of the force may be termed "privates," and are known as Naikens, Moodalpers, Peons, and the like; their pay ranges from Rupees 4½ to 6, and they number about 1,900. The total strength of the force of all ranks in 1048 was 1,964, and has been augmenting considerably of late years, 31 being added in the year 1049. The whole force in 1040 was 1,043 and in 1045 was 1,667. The cost of the Police Force in 1048 was Rupees 8,960 per mensem, or for the year Rupees 1,07,520. The cost of the Police Magisterial Officers and their establishments and Huzur Central Office and establishment charged to Police amounted to Rupees 2,611 or 31,332. The entire cost was thus Rupees 1,38,852. All the principal ranks are stipendiary, and are paid exclusively by the State. The Deracavalgars or village watchmen, the remains of the ancient hereditary Police still found in Shencottah and Thowallay, are remunerated partly by the Sircar in money, and partly by the ryots in kind. The lowest class are required to render some kind of police duties, such as guarding public cutcherries and buildings in their own villages, but receive no remuneration.

Jails.

There are four jails in the State, are all under the general control of the Dewan. The Central Jail and another supplementary to it are at the capital; there is one at Quilon and another at Alleppey. The Durbar Physician, as Principal of the Medical Department, has chief medical charge, one or two subordinates having immediate charge of the hospitals attached to each jail. The charge of the jails themselves is vested in superintendents or jailors. No valuation has been attempted of the work done by the convicts as a body; a large number of them are employed in the making and repairing of roads at the capital and at Quilon. Others are told off in small parties, from day to day, for garden-work in the palaces, hospitals, Sircar buildings, and public gardens. Parties are told off to cart their own daily provisions, to cook their own meals, to wash their own clothes, to shave, to draw water for cooking and cleaning the jails and urinal, to make their own fetters, and to remove poudrette. Some are employed to saw timber in the Marhamut workshop, and a few are employed in ivory carving. By the custom of the country Brahmins and females of all classes are exempt from hard labor or labor of any kind; they are from the same cause free from capital punishment.

Registration
of Assurances.

The old system of Registration of Assurances, which was superseded in 1042 by the regulation now in force, provided a regular agency of village notaries, who derived their appointments from, and acted under, the orders of the Sudr Court. Their number was unlimited. They were remunerated, not by salaries, but by fees levied upon the instruments which they registered, and which had to be drawn up by themselves, and to be transcribed for registry. The stamped cadjans were supplied to them through the Munsif Courts, and were sold at certain fixed rates, the proceeds being credited to the State. The Village Registrars (or Oorkanakens) had power to make summary inquiries into objections against the execution of the deeds, and to refuse registration in case they were deemed valid. They were also prohibited from registering whenever they found that the Sircar had liens on the property, such as for arrears of revenue, or had them already under attachment, or that they were Service or Personal Inam tenures. The revenues under the system did not average more than Rupees 1,200, as unstamped documents were not invalid but were only subjected to a penalty of 3 per cent. on value when produced before a Court. This unpaid agency did not work either to the profit of the State or to the satisfaction of the public, and the latter were subjected to much annoyance, delay, and extortion. A reform was effected by new legislation, which brought into existence the present system. Under this the Registrars are paid servants of the State, divided into four classes with reference to the quantity of work of the various districts. As a rule, there is a Registrar to each Revenue

Taluk, and none is appointed who has not passed a public examination in the law and rules of Registration. Above the District Registrars are Inspectors, who are three in number, and whose duty it is to inspect every Registry Office within their ranges once in two months at least, examine the state of the registers, and report the result in their fortnightly diaries. The work of these District Registrars is checked and controlled by a Central Office, at the head of which is the Huzur Registrar.

The broad distinctions in the tenures of land in Travancore are ^{Tenures of} Jenm, Madambimar and Sircar. ^{land.}

The Jenm lands may be sub-divided into Devasom, or those held by Jenm lands, pagodas, and Bramasum, or those held by Brahmins. The normal condition of the Jenm tenure is absolute freedom from tax of any kind, and the tenure dates from that remote period of antiquity when, according to tradition, the "Kerala" country was reclaimed from the sea and parcelled out by Parsurama among a colony of Brahmins. The colony still remains, and is known as that of the sixty-four village communities. The tenure ceases the moment it passes into alien hands for a money consideration, whatever the nature of the transaction. The mere letting out of lands however for annual rent to a tenant does not vitiate the tenure. The moment an alienation or kanom takes place, the land becomes liable to a light tax called rajabogum, amounting in the case of gardens to one-sixth or one-eighth of the full rental (Venpauttom or Kundapauttom); in the case of paddy lands the tax amounts to nearly the same proportion of the full grain-rent, that is, half, three-tenths, or one-tenth of the quantity of seed required to sow the land, the full grain-rent being represented by an average of three times the quantity of seed. If the Kundapauttom of the alienated garden was fanams 100, the rajabogum or karum or tax would be nearly 16½ or 12½ fanams; in the case of paddy lands, if the land was one parah khandum, that is, a block of land which would require one parah of seed, the full grain-rent would be 3 parahs. The light tax chargeable would be only ½, ⅓, ⅕ of one parah. Even if the mortgage is afterwards redeemed by the Jenmi, the light tax continues on the land for ever and at the same rate. The only variation is for worse; for if the mortgagee dies heirless, the Sircar seizes the tenure, transfers the land to the head Sircar, and pays to the Jenmi or landlord the residue of rent or mitchavarom if any was paid to him by the deceased. Again, if the land is abandoned (Nirthul) by the kanom holder on account of its becoming unfit for cultivation, from various causes, it is at once transferred to Sircar and granted as a new Sircar pattom tenure if it is ever reclaimed. A Jenmi, as a rule, never alienates absolutely (Uttipare) except to other Jennies, Brahmins or Davasoms (pagodas).

Madambimar
lands.

The Madambimars are, in common parlance, also called Jennies, though strictly speaking they are not so, because their lands are subject to the rajabogum, whether in their own hands or alienated to others. They are generally Nairs, or others not Brahmins. These also seldom alienate by absolute sale; if they do, the tenure is extinguished as with Jenm lands, the land is transferred to Sircar, the purchase money, less a fine of 25 per cent., is given credit for, and interest is allowed on the 75 per cent. only, the remainder of interest being added to the existing rajabogum karom, which will still be much short of full pattom or rent of the land. At every alienation, however, this fine of 25 per cent. is levied, till sometimes the purchase money entirely disappears, and interest, added to rajabogum which continues unabated, may absorb all the rental and even exceed it.

Sircar lands.

All other lands are known as Sircar that is liable to full assessment or pattom, whether actually paying it at the full or reduced rates or not paying it at all, as when given away as Inams. The Sircar, in fact, takes in respect of these lands the place of the Jenmi or landlord. These may be broadly sub-divided into six classes—(1), Kundukrishipattom; (2), Kuttapattom; (3), Vempattom; (4), Otti; (5), Anubogum, &c., or personal Inams; and (6), Ulliam or service. It is not easy to state precisely how the proprietary right in such lands came to be vested in the Sircar or the governing power, the primeval tenure of all lands on the coast being pure Jenm according to accepted tradition. Probably, when the Rajahs were called in by election by the Numboory landlords, as they did once in twelve years for the purpose of Government, some lands were granted to them. Accretion of escheated lands, unoccupied lands reclaimed in the course of years, annexed home farms of subjugated chiefs, and lands purchased for money from the Dutch, have also contributed to increase the roll of Sircar lands. The kandukrishi lands are literally the "home farms" of the sovereign. The lands are theoretically speaking cultivated by the sovereign himself. Seed and hire for cultivation, the latter being given in kind, used to be advanced to the actual tenants and recovered with interest out of the harvest, of which they get for their share generally a little more than half of the gross produce. Of late years this system has been discontinued, the grain-rent alone being recovered from the cultivators in kind. The tenants are really tenants at will. They cannot sell even the occupancy right, nor can they transfer it without the previous consent of the Sircar. As a matter of fact, however, the Sircar never interferes with their occupancy. The grain-rent is collected in kind, is stored in various granaries, and is spent according to the requirements of the large feeding-house at the capital. If there is any surplus, it is sold and the proceeds credited to the general exchequer. (2) The few lands which now remain under the

head of Kuttapattom are the purchases from Dutch (Paliport), from the Jenmi (Pooliendurti), and the jungle lands called Kudukaval forming the frontier defences towards Cape Comorin. The bulk of such tenures have been sold in past years and converted into vempattom. The above are rented out to the highest bidder, who levies full rent and makes some profit himself. This system of farming out for short periods, which leads to oppression of the tenants, is now discouraged. (3) The vempattom lands are lands liable to and paying full tax or assessment. In the case of gardens a general deduction of 25 per cent. is allowed as compensation to the owner for the cost and labor of growing the gardens. In the case of paddy lands 20 or 30 per cent. is allowed as a permanent deduction for adverse seasons, blights, and floods of ordinary kind. When an extraordinary drought or flood occurs, remissions on a larger scale are allowed as a matter of grace. In the case of lands lying on the borders of backwaters or rivers the assessment is remitted on fallows of alternate years once in three years or once in four years. These fallows having been determined originally on the oath of the ryots, the remission is called Sathiakoravu. In the Nanjanaud, where there is river irrigation which is sometimes deficient, remissions are allowed for blighted or withered crop, though never for waste lands. Where the water-supply is dependent on the falling rains and on rivers, both waste lands and withered crop are allowed for. A deduction is also allowed when dry crops are cultured on paddy lands. The lands falling under this head were formerly unalienable by the occupant ryots, the proprietary right being theoretically vested in the State. In 1401 rights of full property were conferred on them without payment, but subject to a fine or fee of 2 per cent. on the money consideration indicated in the conveyances. This fee yields an annual sum of Rupees 30,000, representing a value of transactions in this description of land (before unsaleable and unmarketable) of Rupees 15,00,000. (4) Otti, or as it is commonly called Pandar Otti, denotes a mortgage, the parties to the transaction being the Sircar on one side as mortgagor and the ryot holding the land on the other as mortgagee, the consideration being either actual cash borrowed by the State or something equivalent. It is, in fact, in no respect legally different from a simple mortgage dealing, or kanom, between a jenmi who borrows and a tenant who lends the money. One kind of consideration is actually money borrowed from the ryot to meet State necessities. Another kind is an acknowledgment of money invested in forming a garden, repairing tanks, making improvements or reclaiming lands, from all of which either new revenues have been added or old revenues revived and secured. A third kind consists of State debt which came with the various petty kingdoms and principalities from time to time subdued and annexed to Travancore. A

fourth kind consists of similar debts coming with escheats. Interest is allowed on these loans at rates rising from 5 to 12 per cent. per annum according to the circumstances and times when the obligations were contracted. These transactions are in many cases several centuries old. The interest is made payable by a deduction from the tax or pattom on particular lands. Whatever remains after deducting the interest and adding rajabogum on the full pattom becomes the next tax payable on otti lands. These lands are alienable at will, but at every alienation both the principal and interest are reduced 25 per cent.; in other words, the Sircar repudiates the obligation to that extent by refusing to pay the full original interest. When the number of hands thus changed amount to 16, the debt is extinguished and the land begins to pay full assessment. In some few places the fine is levied in cash in a lump, leaving the assessment on the lands as favorable as before. Economically and financially this plan is by far better, as the value of property remains the same to the ryot and the Sircar is benefited by the lump receipt and is saved the constant correction of accounts. In Nanjanand no such fines are levied on alienations of otti lands, unless the family of the survey holder becomes extinct. In some few cases near the capital no fines are levied under any circumstances. (5) Anubogum lands are held on *bond file* favorable or personal Inam tenures, and are liable to pay no assessment except the usual rajabogum at $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$. In some cases they are liable to quit-rents in addition. They may be mortgaged and redeemed without fines, but when absolutely sold the tenure is resumed and the land transferred to "otti" and dealt with under the rules applicable to that head. (6) Oollum, or Vritti tenures constitute the Service Inams. They are held either for services actually performed at the present time, or for former services; in the latter case they are of the nature of Inams held for personal benefit. As a general rule, the former are inalienable, and the latter, when alienated, become liable to fines or ottivilakum. But even in regard to the former a succession duty or addukuvathu is levied on every change of incumbency calculated at 50 per cent. of a year's rental (pattom) for gardens and $2\frac{1}{2}$ fanams per parah of paddy land. If the holder's family becomes extinct, the tenure is either transferred on payment of a high fine or premium (adiyara), or sold to the highest bidder at a public auction, when sometimes very high prices are realized. The bulk of these tenures are the Nair Vrittis, the holders of which are bound to supply at certain fixed prices vegetables and provisions for pagodas, for ootperas or charity feeding-houses, and for the royal birthday; they are also bound to raise sheds, to thatch and guard public buildings, and to do occasional peon's duties. They receive advances from the public funds and settle accounts subsequently on

producing vouchers for the due delivery of the provisions, supplies, or work done. The Nair Vrittis are held free of all assessment or pattom, but they are liable to the payment of the rajabogum quit-rents at $\frac{1}{2}$, &c., as already alluded to, *plus* a fee called "load-tax" (chumadupanam), which is about 2 fanams payable on the whole Vritti. This is supposed to represent the commuted value of a load of vegetables, &c., which each Vritti holder was bound by the tenure to bring without payment. When Vrittis have been found excessive in proportion to the service required, they have been charged with $\frac{1}{2}$ pattom and left with the holders. Where lands were insufficient, they have been supplemented by grants of money from the State treasury without interest. Where there were no lands previously, money grants were made on the same condition for service. When the service is not rendered for a time, the full pattom on the lands is levied as a penalty if the holder refuses to render it, and the land itself becomes liable to be resumed and transferred to another. This, however, seldom happens. Where the money loans received from the State alone constitute the consideration for the service, it can be redeemed and enfranchised by the repayment of the original sum if the holder is inclined to relieve himself from the service. This measure was sanctioned recently. The Nair Vrittis consist of about 20,000 holders of 5,764 gardens and 220,000 paraahs of paddy land; the annual rental of the former being about Rupees 9,000 and that of the latter about Rupees 2,00,000. The State loans advanced for service amount to about Rupees 2,00,000, the interest on which is about Rupees 12,000 at 6 per cent. Thus, the total value of the tenures is about Rupees 2,21,000, and deducting from this quit-rent paid amounting to about Rupees 21,000, the net value may be given at Rupees 2,00,000. Other kinds of Service Inams are of a miscellaneous and local kind, such as those belonging to canoe services, elephant trapping, wrestlers, songsters, coppersmiths, potters, musicians, dancers, &c.

Of the Devasom Jenmi lands alluded to above, 378 pagodas were assumed and brought under the direct management of the Sircar in the year 987, during the administration of Colonel J. Munro. They consisted of 62,000 gardens and 548,000 paraahs of paddy lands, the former yielding a rental of about Rupees 50,000, the latter Rupees 3,50,000, total Rupees 4,00,000. The annual expenditure out of this is only Rupees 2,50,000, leaving a surplus Rupees 1,50,000.

There are certain large Jenm holdings called Adhigara Oyevoor and Desa Oyevoor, consisting of compact blocks of territory. The largest of these is the Edapully Rajah, a Numboori Brahmin of the highest rank. He was and still is in some respects an independent chief, and is entitled to all sources of revenue, whether actually levied

by himself or administered by the State for him; compensation being settled and paid every year. He pays no tribute excepting a sum of Rupees 1,000 per annum, which is for police services rendered. He has, however, no police, civil or criminal authority within the principality. The annual revenue amounts to about Rupees 75,000. The Pooniat Rajah is another chief whose tenure is peculiar. Attingul consists of two Adhigaroms, and is the private property of the Ranees. The annual rental is probably below Rupees 20,000. Killimanoor is the estate of the Coil-Tumburans, who are generally allied by marriage to the Ranees and, consequently, to the reigning Sovereigns. There are other large holdings in which, besides exemption from tax of any kind, the proprietors have power to deal with their property without the interference of Government.

1. Mahadevaswami Pagoda (Kottarakkarray).
2. Kavoor do. (Tiruvellah).
3. Kamooganicheri do. (Puthanapooram).
4. Elankonappen do.
5. Pangotoo Krishnaswamy (Kottarakkarray).
6. Maunadi Bagavathly (Koonatoor).
7. Paniannarkavoo (Tiruvellah).
8. Congrapully Numburipad's Sastha (Canjeripully).
9. Agherra Numbooripaud (Kottarakkarray).
10. Do. and Omanpalh do. (Quilon).
11. Vunchipelar Peruvathanum Sastha.

The lands of the Sree Pudmanabha Swami temple extend over the whole of Southern Travancore, and are for purposes of account divided into three divisions, Madapaud, Neendakara Sanketham, and Colatoor-Melanganom. The tenure, which is puro Jenm, dates from very remote antiquity. The annual rental of these lands is about Rupees 73,000, derived from 21,517 gardens and 92,960 paraahs of paddy lands, the former yielding Rupees 14,000, the latter Rupees 59,000. The funds belonging to this pagoda are separately collected and accounted for, but the State has a general control; any surplus is credited to the State, and deficits, when they occur, are made good by the State.

Surveys and
Assessment.

The earliest survey or ayacut remembered by the oldest living accountant in Travancore is that of the year 914, when Travancore was within its ancient limits. There were several surveys both anterior and subsequent. The surveys on which the present revenue arrangements are based are those of the year 948; this was a very comprehensive one, and embraced nearly the whole of the lands, gardens and paddy fields now belonging to the State. There has however been subsequent surveys. No idea is afforded by the ayacut accounts of

the whole extent of paddy lands, but those which come under assessment consist of 31,81,620 paraahs of lands, or about 40,000 acres at 8¹/₂ paraahs per acre, assessed with a net revenue, after making all deductions, of Rupees 8,08,958, or 2 Rupees per acre. It is impossible to say that the ayacut rates of assessment on paddy lands have been fixed on a uniform plan or principle, but a very minute local appraisalment by arbiters and Sircar officers seems to have preceded the operation of classification. Each field expressed by the quantity of seed it took to sow was rated at so many paraahs of produce, and commonly expressed as double, treble, quadruple, &c. North of Trevandrum the average rate of rent was about double the seed. In the south it went up to beyond ten times, but the average was probably five times, and in recent years all excessive rates above ten were reduced to that level. The average gross produce in the north may be put at between 7 and 8 times, and that in the south at between 12 to 15 times the amount of seed. The Sircar share is thus about a fourth in the one case and a third in the other.

The above are the standard pattom rates on the lands. There are Extra cesses, however various other extra cesses, about 200 in number, corresponding to the abwabs of North India, collected over and above the standard rates. They amount to Rupees 60,000, and are met with in all taluks.

The taxes on gardens are collected in money with a few exceptions. The tax on paddy land is collected part in grain and part in money, according to the wants of the Sircar with reference to neighbouring temples and charity feeding institutions. The proportion may be stated as a third in grain and two-thirds in money. All grain received in kind, but found in excess of Sircar wants, is commuted into a money payment at varying rates. For gardens 10 equal kists are required and for paddy 4 kists for each crop; only two instalments however are allowed for the portion payable in money.

As in British India, there were inland and frontier and sea customs Former duties levied in Travancore up to the year 1012, when the inland transit duties were abolished, and the frontier and sea-board chowkeys alone were retained. There were import as well as export duties on almost every article up to the year 1040, when, by a convention with the British Government, import duty, except on articles brought direct from countries other than British India and Cochin, was abolished. The Government undertook to compensate Travancore by an annual cash payment. The export duty was retained, but it was in no case to exceed 5 per cent., except in the case of timber, which was subject to a duty of 10 per cent. The articles of Sircar monopoly, namely, salt, tobacco, pepper, and opium, were exempted from the convention.

The pepper monopoly was abolished in 1036, and superseded first by an excise duty of Rupees 15 per candy levied in the taluks before the article left, and afterwards in 1074 by an export duty of 5 rupees per candy; this continues to the present day. The monopoly in the highest year has yielded a net revenue of Rupees 3,50,000 and in average years Rupees 1,50,000. Under the excise system it yielded a maximum of Rupees 95,000 and an average of Rupees 55,000; under the present arrangement the export duty gives Rupees 15,000 on an average. Tobacco, which was also a strict monopoly, was formerly imported by the Sircar from British India and Ceylon and sold in the Sircar's own bankshalls. This system was abolished in 1038 and superseded by an import duty, which has been successively reduced from Rupees 190 to Rupees 110 upon the best kind. Under the present arrangement merchants import tobacco on their own account, but by certain routes only, and not below a certain quantity; and they are required to bond it in Sircar warehouses. In the time of the monopoly it yielded a maximum of Rupees 12,00,000 and an average of Rupees 10,00,000; under the excise arrangement it yielded at first nearly Rupees 8,00,000 and afterwards Rupees 9,00,000. The quantity of tobacco consumed has more than doubled itself between 1033 and 1049.

Salt mono-
poly.

Salt was made a monopoly of the State in the last two months of the year 988. In the following year 989 the sales stood thus: home-made white salt 50,000 Indian maunds, black salt 81,000 Indian maunds, total 131,030 Indian maunds; foreign salt imported 153,000 Indian maunds; gradd total 284,000 Indian maunds. The total revenue yielded to the Sircar was Rupees 1,85,149. The price was Rupee 1-1-0 per maund for the best quality, lower prices being put on inferior salt. At the end of the year the selling price was reduced to Annas 11½ per maund. The amount of revenue and the prices remained with little variations till the year 1034, when the price of foreign salt was raised to Rupee 1-1-0 and the revenue indicated a corresponding increase. In the year 1037 the selling price of home-made white salt was raised and made equal to that of foreign salt. But this increase in the selling rate was then made applicable only to the districts north of the Warkally barrier. In the following year the increase was extended to all white salt sold throughout the country. The revenue continued to increase from year to year until 1040, when it reached Rupees 5,48,659. At the close of this year, by an arrangement with the British Government, the price was assimilated to that of British India; that is to say, from Rupee 1-1-0 it became Rupee 1-8-0 per maund. In all the subsequent revisions made by this Government the Sircar has followed the example set. In 1041 the price was raised from Rupee 1-8-0 to 1-11-0, and in 1045 it was raised

from Rupee 1-11-0 to Rupees 2, which latter is the price ruling at present. At the time when the price was first assimilated with the British rate; it became necessary to discontinue the production and sale of black salt; from its bad quality this could not be sold at the same price with the rest.

The present supply is derived partly from the Sircar pans in South Travancore, four in number, and partly from Bombay. Occasionally salt from Tinnevely or Tanjore is imported. The actual prime cost of home-made salt is 1 anna and 10 pies per Indian maund, or Rupees 13¼ per garce. Imported Bombay salt costs the Sircar Rupees 38 per garce when landed and delivered into the stores. Unlike the operations on the other coast, there are in Travancore two seasons of manufacture, one between September and November and the other between January and June. Salt is not taken over from the ryot as soon as made, but is buried in pits and allowed to season till the bitter taste has worn off. It is dug up and received into store as required, and then only payment of the kudiwarum is made. The interval between manufacture and payment is sometimes several years. This is the system of the country, but a concession was made in the year under report, by advancing 50 per cent. of the price on the estimated quantity as soon as it was removed from the pans.

The revenue from Abkari is managed much as it is in British India; Abkari, that is to say, the monopoly of selling toddy and country liquor is farmed out, taluk by taluk, to the highest bidder. The contractors are forbidden from selling below certain rates; the Tahsildars recover the rents from the contractors in ten equal monthly instalments, the last two months of the year being left out. If the contractor chooses to register sub-contracts or sub-leases before the Tahsildar, this officer is authorized to help the contractor in enforcing recovery of his dues by summary process. Fifty-seven years ago the revenue from this source was Rupees 41,124, and continued fluctuating between that sum and Rupees 59,448 up to the end of the year 1033. Since then it has risen rapidly, and in 1047 had reached Rupees 1,06,591.

The opium monopoly includes also that in gunja, which is cultivated in the southern extremity of the State. Opium was made a source of revenue for the first time in 1037; it then yielded Rupees 14,774, but fell off in subsequent years owing to losses sustained by the contractors. It is again reviving at present, the rental for the last two years having been Rs. 9,161 and 10,178; the amounts were fully recovered within the close of each year. Opium is consumed chiefly by the Moplas, north of Quilon, and especially in Meenachel, a hilly taluk, where the drug is resorted to as a preventive of malarious fever. A single contractor usually holds the farm of this monopoly for the whole State.

Forest.

The whole range of forests in the country is under the charge of the Conservator, excepting the Cardamom Hills, mostly included in the Thodupulay Taluk, and a small tract in South Travancore, both of which are separately administered. The forest tract in South Travancore is under the control of the Revenue Department. Timber is felled here at Government cost, and periodically sold by public auction at a depôt established in the Thovalay Taluk under the superintendence of an officer called Aminadar. Besides the general conservancy of the forests, the Conservator is charged with the duty of supervising the trapping of elephants, the collection of revenue from miscellaneous forest produce, the supplying of timber for Government requirements, and other items. The most valuable timber trees produced in the forests are teak, blackwood and ebony, in respect of which the Government has a monopoly. No permits are granted to private individuals for felling them. Timber of other kinds is allowed to be cut by private parties on payment of a fee, or kutticanom, at certain fixed rates. As a means of check, watch stations are provided at various places, and timber felled under permits is subject to inspection at these stations in the course of transit.

Cardamoms.

One item of miscellaneous forest produce is cardamom. In the forests under the Conservator this spice is not regularly cultivated, but grows wild. Of late, however, it would seem that attention has been directed towards bringing it under regular cultivation as in the Cardamom Hills. Cardamom gardens to the extent of some hundred acres have been marked out. The Cardamom Hills were under the supervision of the Conservator of Forests till the year 1044, when they were transferred to a special Superintendent. The undivided attention which the change has secured for the industry has produced increased efficiency in the working of the department.

Davasom.

The revenue of the lands belonging to the Sri Padmanathasawmi Pagoda, which have been acquired from remote times by gift, amount to Rupees 75,000 and go to defray the daily expenses of the institution; surpluses are credited to the State treasury and deficits, which rarely occur, are made good from it. This temple is more or less independent of Government management. The State had no concern with the management of any temples before the year 987, when the landed property of 378 temples was assumed and the management taken over. Other minor temples, 1,171 in number, which had no property, were also assumed either before or at that date. The expenditure, establishments and rules for management, were settled on this occasion on a permanent basis. The lands thus assumed now yield a revenue of Rupees 4,30,000, while the annual expenditure on the 378 pagodas concerned with them amount to about Rupees

3,92,000. The annual grants for the other 1,171 temples amount to about Rupees 28,000. The interest of Government in respect of these institutions is for the most part that of a trustee, and as a church establishment they cannot be regarded as expensive.

The ootperas or charitable feeding institutions are 45 in number, Ootpe inclusive of 3 conjee-houses. The chief is at the capital, and is known as the agrasala. The others are distributed at convenient stages on the line of road commencing from the Aramboli Pass in the south and ending at Paravoor in the north. The former is intended to feed all comers, the latter to feed travellers only—Brahmins are the chief recipients of the charity. Of the conjee-houses one is at Thovalay close to the Aramboli Pass, where all classes and castes of travellers are fed; one is at Shencottah a little way beyond the Ariengavoo Pass, where also all classes are served; the third is at the capital, which is confined to the very poorest of all classes and creeds, and chiefly to the dumb, the lame, the sick and the blind. The ootperas are primarily intended for the relief of the poor and wayworn traveller, but it cannot be denied that they have come in some cases to be regarded as feeding-houses for the poor of a resident population. It may be remarked that 75 per cent. of the people fed at these charitable institutions come from the southern provinces of the Madras Presidency, and from Malabar, and form a kind of migratory population. The reduction of expenditure on ootperas has been kept in view of late years.

The system of State vernacular education embraces—(1) Proverti Vernacular or Village Schools, (2) Taluk District Schools, and (3) Aided Schools Schools. receiving grants. The third class is confined to the town of Trevandrum. The department was organized in the year 1042. The course of instruction in the village schools consists of reading, writing, both on paper and cadjan; arithmetic; geography, both general and of Travancore; and writing from dictation from the History of Travancore. The course of instruction in the taluk schools is the same, but the standard is higher, and Indian History is also taught. Sanscrit is taught in three and Tamil in all of the taluk schools in South Travancore. At the central vernacular school at Trevandrum the standard embraces the first book of Euclid, Algebra (to simple equations), and the History of India and Travancore. In the girls' schools the subjects are the same as in the taluk schools, with the addition of some vocal music. Some of the teachers are females. The class books used in all the vernacular schools have been translated or compiled by a committee who were brought into existence simultaneously with the system of State vernacular education. Uniform fee is collected in every school, namely 2 annas, except at the central school, where it varies with each class from 2 annas to 4 annas. The

first masters of Proverti schools are paid Rupees 7 per mensem and the under-masters each Rupees 5. But the pay is reduced when the fees realized fall short of 25 fanams, or the attendance falls short of 25 boys. Formerly, when this was not attained, pay used to be refused altogether. In a recent year this rule was relaxed, and the masters were paid in proportion to the fees realized. The buildings and furniture are provided by the villagers themselves. Maps alone are at present supplied by the Government. In some schools the boys sit on the ground. The salaries of Taluk Schoolmasters range thus: 1st Master, Rupees 20; 2nd Master, Rupees 12; 3rd Master, Rupees 10; Monitors, Rupees 5. The head-master of the central school is allowed a salary of Rupees 60 and the under-masters from Rupees 30 to 10. The aided schools receive a grant of Rupees 60 per annum each on condition of their teaching the same subjects as are taught in the Government schools and of undergoing periodical inspections. There is nothing to prevent other subjects being taught. The village schools are inspected at least once in two months by Deputy Inspectors whose salaries range from Rupees 30 to 35. There were ten of them in 1049. The district or taluk schools are inspected once in three months by Inspectors whose salary is Rupees 85, inclusive of a travelling allowance of Rupees 15. The aided schools in the town of Trevandrum are visited every month and supervised by a special Inspector on a salary of Rupees 40 per mensem. The whole department is controlled by a Director, whose salary is Rupees 150.

Vernacular
Schools
belonging to
Missionary
Societies.

The educational operations of the various Missionary Societies have always been a very active widely influential agency in the education of the youth of the country, especially of the lower classes. The results of their labors may be summarized thus in a recent year:—

	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	
		Boys.	Girls.
The London Mission Society	137	4,040	1,636
The Church Mission Society	119	2,600	560
The Catholic Mission, Vicar Apostolic, Malabar	258 (average 25 each)	6,000	1,500 (guessed)
Vicar Apostolic, Quilon	72	2,674	223
Bishopric, Cochin	28	599	197
Syrian Metropolitan See of Malabar	152	20,000	7,000 deducting 2,000 for English schools).

It is under contemplation to introduce a system of grants-in-aid or of payment for results in respect of some of these schools.

Medical
Department.

The total monthly cost of the Medical Establishment is Rs. 3,924, and of the Vaccination Establishment Rs. 882, giving a total monthly cost of Rs. 4,806, or Rs. 57,672 per annum. The medical institutions maintained at the capital are the Civil or General Hospital, the Charity Hospital to which is attached a Small-pox Hospital, the Lunatic Asylum, the Lying-in Hospital, and the Jail Hospital. There

are subordinate dispensaries attached to the Rajah's Palace, to the First Prince's Palace, to the public offices, and to the Durbār Physician's residence. The medical institutions at out-stations consist of three at Alleppy, namely, a Civil Hospital, Charity Hospital, and Jail Hospital, and twelve at other places. The medicines and medical stores cost on an average Rupees 30,000 per annum. The total annual expenditure of the department amounts to nearly Rupees 1,08,000.

The Revenue Survey Department is attached to the Dewan's Revenue Cutcherry, and is directly under his orders. It was organized in the year 1040. The survey operations are mostly in connection with coffee estates.

The Sircar Press was organized about forty years back, at the time when the Trevandrum English school came into existence. The scope of its operations was exceedingly limited for a long time, the demand for printing work being confined to the publication of the Trevandrum Almanac and the requirements of the English school and one or two more departments. Recently the department has undergone considerable improvement in strength and efficiency. The stock of printing machinery and types received valuable additions during the years 1040 to 1044. In 1045 a Lithographic Press was supplied with an establishment to work it. At the present time almost every department derives help from the Press, and the general introduction of paper recently effected is calculated to render the need for its assistance still greater.

The Unjel, in former days, was maintained for State service only, but about 1036 it was thrown open to the public and the system of levying postage introduced. In 1036 there were 44 stations or Post Offices, and 30 more have been added in subsequent years, making a total of 74 at the present day. The total cost was last year Rupees 21,847, or with contingencies Rupees 21,099. The distance traversed by runners every day is 620 miles. From the Central Post Office at Trevandrum one line runs south to Thovalay, another runs north as far as Pavor, another to Shencottah by the new road *via* Needoovengaud. A branch line runs from Quilon to Shencottah, and another from Krishnapoorum to Thoduvellah; ten other branch lines start from the main ones and proceed into the interior and towards the coast. The average speed attained is between 3 and 4 miles per hour. The total number of private despatches in the year 1049 was 207,796, and was in excess of the number in the preceding year by 11,265. The income yielded from this source was Rupees 11,568. Owing to the substitution of paper for palm leaves, on which latter most of the correspondence of the country used to be carried on, the additional number of covers did not yield a corresponding increase in the receipts, the weight of the letters being considerably reduced. The Unjel carries also the letters,

newspapers and books received into the country through the British Post Offices, of which there are about eight. By the extra charge levied on these it earned in 1049 Rupees 324.

Mint.

With the exception of two stamping presses, an assaying furnace, and assay balances and weights, procured from the Madras Mint and from England, there is no machinery in the Travancore Mint, and the operations are carried on in the native style. For some years past the operations have been very limited. At present work is confined for the most part to copper coinage. The British Rupee is current in the State. The local coins are, therefore, only of lower denominations. A fanam is equal to 4 chuckrams (silver coin), and a chuckrom is equal to 16 cash (copper coin). 28½ chuckrams go to the rupee, a chuckrom being nearly 6 grains Troy. The copper coinage yielded Rupees 1,913 in 1048 and Rupees 2,539 in 1049, deducting cost of metal; allowing for charges of establishment, the result was a loss of Rupees 421 in the one year and Rupees 21 in the other.

Elephant Department.

Elephants are taken in pits, partly by Government agency and partly by private individuals. In the latter case, the captor receives a reward from the Government of Rupees 150, the animal itself being royal. There are in all about 500 Sircar pits and 500 private pits. Each pit is 8 feet square, rounded off towards the bottom. They are scattered over the valleys frequented by the animal. When an elephant falls into a pit, a report is sent to the Aminadar of the range, who reports to the taluk, and a party with tame elephants is then immediately despatched to capture it. After capture the animal is taken to certain large stables or enclosures and there let loose. It then becomes the business of the Mahoot to tame it. When young, a few months suffice for taming; when old, it takes longer. A full grown elephant at work costs about Rupees 51 per mensem, inclusive of the Mahoot's salary. When out of work and left to graze in the forest Rupees 7 per mensem are allowed.

Financial.

The gross receipts from all sources indicated in the Financial Returns for five recent years are given below :—

	1045.	1046.	1047.	1048.	1049.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1 Land Revenue	18,66,950	16,43,954	16,59,023	16,51,217	16,93,051
2 Miscellaneous	6,09,152	4,96,687	5,09,907	4,69,338	6,29,807
3 Judicial fees, &c.	1,17,418	1,20,813	1,28,501	1,31,641	1,44,255
4 Customs	3,63,822	3,55,244	4,55,811	4,13,027	3,87,994
5 Arrack and Opium	1,00,005	1,05,494	1,08,659	1,22,447	1,31,906
6 Tobacco	7,75,031	8,10,511	8,89,114	8,62,803	9,09,746
7 Salt	9,57,228	10,02,336	9,83,515	9,91,317	9,88,798
8 Cardamoms & other goods ...	2,06,767	1,09,923	3,74,585	2,73,294	2,24,970
9 Timber	1,08,074	1,29,174	83,701	1,03,728	1,01,710
10 Interest on Government Securities ...	1,73,393	1,59,079	47,035	1,98,069	1,06,637
11 Arrears of Revenue collected ...	55,537	29,257	38,862	53,403	29,664
Total ...	51,34,007	52,44,472	52,72,372	53,00,471	53,46,131

The disbursements for the same period were as follow :—

	1045.	1046.	1047.	1048.	1049.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1 Devasom	5,59,243	5,52,827	5,54,735	5,44,922	5,73,253
2 Ootperas	3,21,572	3,05,950	2,94,731	3,06,517	3,09,644
3 Palaces	5,42,603	4,99,549	5,11,494	5,03,233	5,41,033
4 Huzur Cutcherry and other civil establishments ...	5,62,219	5,69,867	5,83,781	5,92,721	5,64,045
5 Judicial Establishments ...	1,54,969	1,57,415	1,48,668	1,54,414	1,69,103
6 Police	1,33,242	1,32,056	1,32,609	1,36,455	1,42,430
7 Nair Troops	1,53,631	1,77,597	1,59,364	1,49,020	1,54,905
8 Elephant and Horse establishment ...	67,649	65,696	62,715	63,599	66,251
9 Education, Science and Art ...	1,14,545	1,23,244	1,09,987	1,15,883	1,14,316
10 Medical	...	...	...	...	1,45,480
11 Pensions	1,21,912	1,21,517	1,26,706	1,34,654	1,35,029
12 Public Works	9,67,861	11,68,728	13,26,967	10,58,617	10,15,913
13 Costs and charges of goods sold, &c. ...	3,52,902	4,13,969	4,08,021	3,71,170	3,78,098
14 Contingent charges	2,00,608	1,96,593	1,78,188	1,62,886	1,80,972
15 Subsidy	8,10,654	8,10,552	8,10,552	8,10,652	8,10,652
16 Moorajapuram	1,34,752	...	...	...	...
17 Tulabaram	1,81,177	...	...	...	...
18 Tirumadampu	20,690	...	...	18,425	...
19 Pulmagarbhun	...	...	90,979	...	...
20 The Rajah's trip to Bombay and Benares ...	...	...	...	1,54,592	...
21 Sankara Chariar Swamy's visit ...	...	...	...	...	20,130
Total ...	54,40,167	52,92,560	54,93,657	52,78,060	53,21,292

COCHIN STATE.

According to tradition the Rajahs of Cochin claim to hold the territory in right of descent from Cherman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar, as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as independent ruler. The genealogical table showing the descent of the present ruler of Cochin cannot be traced beyond the last three centuries, and even for this period the information is untrustworthy. From the commencement of the present century the information becomes better defined, and the following names appear in regular succession :—Rama Vurmah died at Trichoor, September 28th, 1805; Rama Vurmah died at Velarapully, January 14th, 1809; Veera Kerala died at Tripoontorah, August 6th, 1828; Rama Vurmah died at Tripoontorah, November 18th, 1837; Rama Vurmah died at Irinjalacodah, May 31st, 1842; Rama Vurmah died at Trichoor, July 10th, 1851; Veera Kerala died at Benares, February 22nd, 1853; Revi Vurmah died at Tripoontorah, February 7th, 1864; and Rama Vurmah, the present rajah who ascended the musnud, March 28th, 1864. In 1776 Cochin was subjugated by, and became tributary to, Hyder Ali. In 1792 Tippoo ceded the sovereignty to the British, who left the country under the uncontrolled authority

History of political relations.

of the Rajah, subject to a tribute of 1,00,000 rupees; this undertaking was concluded with the Rajah in the previous year, when the Company restored to him the districts and forts taken from him by Tippoo. The Cochin State is in subsidiary alliance with the British Government under treaty of 17th October 1809. By this treaty, which was entered into on the suppression of an insurrection raised by Cochin jointly with Travancore against the British power, the Rajah agreed to pay the East India Company, in addition to the usual subsidy of one lakh of rupees, an annual sum equal to the expense of one battalion of Native Infantry, or 1,76,037 Arcot rupees, making an aggregate annual payment of Rupees 2,76,037, paid in six equal instalments. It was further stipulated that, should it become necessary to employ a larger force for the defence of these territories against foreign invasion, the Rajah should contribute towards the expense in proportion to his means. The Rajah engaged to be guided at all times by the advice of the English Government; to hold no correspondence with any foreign State without the knowledge and sanction of the Company; and to admit no Europeans to his service, and permit none to remain in his dominions, without the consent and concurrence of the Company. Power was given to the Company to dismantle or garrison any fortress in His Highness' territory. On the other hand the Company undertook to defend the integrity of the State territory against all enemies. Subsequently the annual subsidy to the British Government was reduced to Rupees 2,40,000, being one-half of the estimated amount of the revenue at that time; and at a still later period the payment was fixed at two lakhs only, which forms the pecuniary obligation of the State at the present day. There is a British Resident for Cochin jointly with Travancore.

Features of
the country.

Cochin contains seven districts, namely, Cochin, Cannanore, Mugundapuram, Trichoor, Tallapully, Chittoor, and Cranganore. The total area is 1,361 square miles.

Recent
Census.

A census was recently taken of the population of this State. The inhabitants have been enumerated five times during the last 55 years, the figures presenting the total population being respectively 223,203 in 995 M.E.; 288,176 in 1011; 356,802 in 1024; 399,056 in 1032; and 601,114 in 1050. The augmentation in numbers appears to have been great and continuous, though not always uniform, being 29 per cent. for an interval of 16 years between the first and second censuses; 27 per cent. for the second period of 13 years; 11 per cent. for the third period of 8 years; 49 per cent. for the fourth period of 18 years; and 170 per cent. for the whole interval of 55 years, between the earliest and latest enumerations. The highest rate of increase has obtained during the present administration, which has been marked also by the rapid development of the food resources of the country. In the

following table is given the present annual increase in each of the principal countries of Europe, together with the number of years in which the population would be doubled if the rates continued so:—

Countries.	Increase per Annum.	Years.
Russia	1.39	50
England	1.29	54
Prussia	1.13	61½
Spain	0.89	78
Italy	0.70	99
France	0.35	193

The rate and years for Cochin are 1.86 and 39, respectively. The male population of the country has increased during the interval between 995 and 1050 from 109,669 to 302,030, or 175 per cent., and the female from 113,334 to 299,084, or 164 per cent. The subjects of the Cochin Government, excluding those whose domicile of origin is elsewhere as above shown, may be ethnically divided into 530,262 Malayalees, 31,325 Tamulians, and 30,849 other languages. The subjoined table shows the distribution of the Cochinites and foreigners according to the districts in which they reside:—

No.	Districts.	Malayalum.		Tamulian.		Other Races.		Total.		Grand Total.
		Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	Cochinites.	Non-Cochinites.	
1	Kanayannoor ...	86,245	1,341	1,341	294	4,337	125	91,934	1,700	93,635
2	Cochin ...	81,812	221	1,988	8	10,807	74	83,599	303	83,901
3	Kodungaloor ...	18,426	100	594	40	1,218	19	20,238	150	20,387
4	Mugundapuram ...	116,407	422	1,851	111	2,161	22	118,410	555	118,964
5	Trichoor ...	98,604	217	869	443	244	365	100,717	1,025	101,742
6	Tallapully ...	103,160	395	3,393	184	2,712	21	109,255	1,200	110,455
7	Chittoor ...	31,307	1,633	22,189	1,223	8,780	620	62,276	3,676	65,952
	Total ...	530,262	4,929	31,325	2,305	30,849	1,416	592,436	8,678	601,114

Taking the three principal caste divisions of the people the figures stand as follows:—Hindus, 426,922, or 71.02 per cent.; Christians, 140,414, or 23.35 per cent.; Mahomedans, 32,499, or 5.40 per cent. The proportion of Christians is 3 per cent. greater than in the adjoining State of Travancore, 21½ per cent. greater than in the Madras Presidency generally, and nearly four times as great as in Tinnevely. The bulk of this population are Syrian Christians, though the report does not distinguish the different denominations. They are massed in the neighbourhood of the seacoast back-waters and lagoons, and almost monopolize the boating and fishing industry. Of the Hindus 66.22 per cent. are classed as Malayala Sudras and Elovvars. The Brahmins number 22,342, or 3.6 of the total population, and 5.5 of the Hindu population. The density is 441 to the square mile, a result exceeded only in Tanjore. The luxuriant growth of the cocoa palm on the sea shore and backwaters is the chief support of this

heavy population. Little labor being entailed by this cultivation, abundant opportunity exists for further earnings. Nearly the whole produce of the country consists of special articles for export, the collection of which at the port of Cochin by the endless net-work of canals, affords ample employment to boatmen, imported rice being distributed in the shape of return cargo. The fact that a sufficient fish diet is available to the great bulk of the people at an almost nominal cost is not to be overlooked in drawing conclusions regarding the density of population.

Taxation in
Cochin.

The census shows the total revenue for that year as a little over 2 rupees a head, or quarter of a rupee less than in the British territory and in the adjoining State of Travancore. The difference indeed is almost explained by the smaller revenue from salt already referred to. The average incidence of the land-tax is Rupees 1-4-0 a head, or 2 annas less than in British territory. The geographical formation of the country does not favor the Travancore system of indirectly taxing the land by export duties.

GANJAM AGENCY.

Nature of
hill tracts.

The Maliah tract at present under the jurisdiction of the Ganjam Agent occupies the western portion of the District of Ganjam covering an area of about 3,500 square miles, or about five-twelfths of the entire district. It is inhabited chiefly by Khonds and Savarals. The term Maliah or Malwah means high lands, and is the name given by Khonds to the upland regions of Orissa generally. The country is mountainous and covered with dense forests of sal, which however never attain any great age, as they are periodically cleared by the Khonds and Savarals for cultivation purposes. Agriculture is practised by the Khonds with a degree of skill and energy which is perhaps nowhere surpassed in India, and the result is a high degree of rural affluence. The Maliah Khonds are extremely rich in every species of agricultural stock. The Khonds inhabit the northern and central portions of the Maliahs in Ganjam and comprise many tribes speaking different dialects and of various degrees of lawlessness. Those on the Kalahundy and Jeypore borders, known as the Kuttiah Khonds, are perhaps the most fierce and warlike. The tribes occupying the hills bordering on Ganjam, with the exception of the Simili Khonds of Bodagadah, are somewhat more civilized; and in the Goomsur Maliahs, where many of them speak Uriya, there is not much perceptible difference between the Khonds of the hills and those living in the jungle villages at the foot of the ghauts. The Savarals occupy

the Pedda Kimeddy, Surangi, and Parla Kimeddy Maliahs to the south of the Khond tribes, with whom they have little in common. In agriculture they are on a par with the Khonds. The region occupied by this people extends from the Kimeddy Zemindari to the Godavari, or for 200 miles. The principal means of access to the Maliahs from the plains is by the Kalingia Ghaut Road from the foot of the hills at Durgaprasad in the Goomsur Taluk to Kalingia on the summit, a distance of seven miles. It was originally constructed by the Sappers and Miners, and is at present maintained by the Department of Public Works. It is accessible to carts. There are many other rough ghaut tracks connecting the Maliahs with the low country available for foot passengers and cattle. A cart road is under construction from the Parla Kimeddy plain country to Gumma in the Parla Kimeddy Maliahs.

In the year 1836 the Zemindari of Goomsur and the Maliahs Government attached thereto were resumed by Government in consequence of the rebellious conduct of the Zemindar and were placed under the control of the Collector. During the war it came to the notice of the Commissioner that meriah sacrifices were practised in certain portions of the Maliahs, and in consequence a Military Assistant with an armed force was specially entertained with a view to their gradual suppression. It was at the same time considered necessary for the prevention of further disturbances that the administration of criminal and civil justice in the Hill Zemindaries should be removed from the jurisdiction of the ordinary Courts and placed under the Collector, and Act XXIV of 1839 was passed giving the Collector, or Agent to the Governor of Fort St. George, the necessary powers. During the time the Maliahs were under the control of the Collector and Agent it was discovered by his Military Assistant that the meriah sacrifices were not confined to the Maliahs of this district alone, but extended to those of the neighbouring district of Vizagapatam as well as to those under the jurisdiction of the Bengal Presidency and Central Provinces, and that female infanticide was also practised in some of them. The Government of India therefore considered it proper to create a separate Agency for the suppression of meriah sacrifices and female infanticide in the Hill Tracts of Orissa in general, and appointed an Agent under Act XXI of 1845, to whom all the Maliahs then under the Collector and Agent were transferred. This arrangement continued up to May 1862, when, the Government having been satisfied that these rites had been completely and successfully put down, the Meriah Agency was done away with, and the Maliahs were retransferred to the Collector and Agent. In 1863 all the Agency tracts situated below the ghauts, with the exception of Goomsur and Suradah, were retransferred to the jurisdiction of the ordinary Courts, and in 1866

Goomsur and Surada also were removed from the jurisdiction of the Agent. In 1869 the Chokapad Muth of the Goomsur Taluk and the petty Chieftainships of Koradah and Ronabah were restored to the Agent. The Maliahs at present under the jurisdiction of the Collector and Agent are the following :—Goomsur, Surada, Chinna Kimeddy, Pedda Kineddy, Bodagadah, Surangi, Parla Kimeddy, Muths of Koradah and Ronabah, Jaradah, Jalantra, Mandasa, Budarasingi, and Kattingiah. Of these the Goomsur Suradah and Chinna Kimeddy Maliahs are under the direct management of Government; the two former having been forfeited to Government along with the Zemindari of Goomsur, while the latter was taken by Government in consequence of disturbances, towards the quelling of which the Zemindar, who is a nominal proprietor, was unable to render assistance for want of influence with the Khonds. The remaining Maliahs are held on sanads by their respective Zemindars, who derive more or less revenue therefrom. The Government derive no revenue from the Maliahs under their own management. The population of the Maliahs under the Agency is computed at 185,957 according to the Census of 1871. In these Maliahs the Agent exercises the powers of the Civil and Sessions Judge, though questions of disputed succession to landed estates are decided by Government on the report of the Agent. The Penal and Criminal Procedure Codes are in force. These tracts are Scheduled Districts under Act XIV of 1874.

VIZAGAPATAM AGENCY.

History of
the agency.

In 1835 Sir Frederick Adam, Governor of Madras, visited the Circars, and recorded in a Minute his opinion as to the expediency of exempting the Hill Zemindaries from the general regulations. Mr. Russel, Special Commissioner in the Northern Circars, after minute inquiries into the causes of disturbances then lately suppressed, and the policy needful for adoption in order that the recurrence of such outbreaks might be prevented, reported finally on this subject in 1836 and 1837. He observed that a system which was adapted to districts where the authority of Government is paramount could not fail to be inapplicable to mountainous tracts, where, up to that period and after a lapse of more than thirty years, the Government had in effect no police and no power. He proposed, as the course best calculated both to add to the weight and influence of the local authority, and to remove existing causes of irritation on the part of the Hill Zemindars arising from the unbending form of regulation

procedure, that those tributaries should be exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary Courts and placed exclusively under the Collector of the District, in whom should be vested the entire administration of civil and criminal justice, under such rules for his guidance as might be prescribed by orders in Council. This proposal was approved by the Government, and forms the basis of Act XXIV of 1839. It was further enacted that the Collector, as Agent to the Governor, should have the power of making commitments by warrant which is possessed by the Governor in Council by virtue of Regulation II of 1819, subject always to the orders of Government on each case. The present Agency embraces Jeypore, with those portions of the Zemindaries of Madgole, Pachipenta, Kurupain, and Meraing which lie within the hills and the hill mutas of Palcondah, those of Golgondah, and the Hill Zemindari of Kasipur. These tracts are Scheduled Districts in the same way as the Ganjam Maliahs.

PUDUCOTTAH STATE.

The Pudukottah State is surrounded by the British districts of Description. Tanjore, Trichinopoly, and Madura. Its gross revenue is about five lakhs of rupees, of which three lakhs are Inam and Jaghire and two lakhs are payable to the Rajah. The British Government has no treaty with Pudukottah, the Rajah of which is exempt from tribute, and has independent Courts of Justice. The Madras Government, however, receives petitions of complaints from his subjects and sends them for the report of the Political Agent, who is considered entitled to advise and remonstrate with the Rajah on all subjects of importance. The area of the State is about 1,046 square miles. The population, which is almost entirely agricultural, was 316,695 according to the census of 1874. The country is generally a flat plain, interspersed with a few small rocky hills, some of which are crowned by old forts. In the south-west hills and jungles are found, but elsewhere it is a well-cultivated tract, and there are 3,000 tanks, some of considerable size. The alienations of land revenue are extensive. Members of the Rajah's family hold 110,000 acres, 95,627 acres are held by temples, and 9,584 acres are held by alms-houses. The Inams held by Brahmins, and on various tenures of service, amount to 100,000 acres. Further particulars will be found below.

The first connexion of the British Government with this chieftain, History. then usually called Tondiman, was formed at the siege of Trichinopoly

in 1753, when the British army greatly depended on his fidelity and exertions for provisions. Subsequently he was serviceable in the wars with Hyder Ali and in the Poligar war, the latter being the name given to the operations against the usurpers of the large Zemindari of Shivaganga in the Madura District after the cession of the Carnatic. In 1803 he solicited as a reward for his services the favorable consideration of his claim to the fort and district of Kilanelli, situated in the southern part of Tanjore; this claim was founded on a grant by Pratap Singh, Rajah of Tanjore, and on engagements which were afterwards entered into by Colonel Braithwaite, General Coote, and Lord Macartney. The Government of Madras ceded the fort and district of Kilanelli, and the cession was afterwards confirmed by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, but with the condition that the district should not be alienated, and that it should revert to the British Government upon proof being given at any time that the inhabitants labored under oppressive government. Kilanelli yields a revenue of about Rupees 30,000 a year. The grant was also made subject to the yearly tribute of an elephant; this tribute however was not insisted upon, and in 1836 it was formally excused. The Rajah Vijaya Raghunath Tondiman died on the 1st February 1807, leaving two sons, the elder of whom, aged eleven, succeeded. During the minority of the young chief the Resident at Tanjore exercised a strict superintendence over the affairs of the State, and procured various reforms of system in the revenue, police, and judicial departments. As the Rajah increased in age, the interference with his affairs was gradually lessened, and about the year 1817 he was placed in charge of the whole administration. Rajah Vijaya Raghunath Rai Tondiman Bahadoor died in 1825 and was succeeded by his younger brother Rajah Raghunath Tondiman, who died on the 13th July 1839. He left two sons, Rajah Ramachandra Tondiman Bahadoor, aged nine years, and Tirumalai Tondiman, aged eight years. The former succeeded eventually to the chieftainship. Until 1841 the administration was conducted by the widow assisted by two ministers, but in that year, in consequence of representations of injustice by relations of the Rajah, the Resident at Tanjore was directed to make Pudukottah his occasional residence, and to take up the immediate superintendence and control of the business of the country, which was however to continue to be conducted by the ministers of the Rajah. The Resident, on the receipt of these orders, laid down rules for the guidance of the ministers, which prohibited expenditure beyond certain limits, and forbade the ministers to make grants of land, to assign produce, to create offices, or to increase or decrease emoluments, without his sanction; the rules prescribed also the mode in which public business

was to be carried on. In the same year the Residency at Tanjore was abolished, and the charge of Pudukottah was entrusted to the Collector of Madura. The administration of the State was prosperously conducted under the superintendence of this officer during the remainder of the minority; all debts were paid off, and a surplus invested in the funds of the British Government. In 1854, owing to disturbances in the country, originating in part in the irregular conduct of public business by the present Rajah, who had then recently come of age, the Governor in Council decided upon the system of administration now in force. That system is 1st, that the acts of the Rajah, through the Minister or Sirkele, shall be subject to the revision of the Political Agent with regard to all appointments and dismissals of public officers; 2nd, that, subject to the Political Agent's supervision, the Sirkele shall manage the finances, the Rajah being restricted to his privy purse allowances; 3rd, that there shall be a full yearly report of affairs; 4th, that the Political Agent shall expel from the territory all disorderly persons and evil counsellors. In 1865 the Political Agency was transferred from Madura to Tanjore, and in 1874 from Tanjore again to Trichinopoly.

There have been no regular treaties between the British Government and the Rajah, but in 1803 the fort and district of Kilanelli were granted to him by Lord Clive, the Governor of Madras, as mentioned above, and in 1862 a sanad was granted to him by the Viceroy Lord Canning, assuring him that the British Government would recognize the right of adoption, and that nothing should disturb the arrangement so long as the House should remain faithful and loyal to the Crown. In 1877 the Rajah adopted his third grandson by the only daughter of the junior Ranee Sahiba, and this adoption has been recognized and confirmed.

BANGANAPALLI STATE.

The Jaghire of Banganapalli situated in the Kurnool District was History. originally granted to Mahomed Beg Khan, eldest son of the Grand Vizier of Aurangzeb. It was afterwards confirmed by successive grants from Mysore and Hyderabad; and at the treaty of 1800 was conferred on Muzafar Mulk and his heirs in perpetuity. In 1825, in consequence of the disorders which prevailed in the jaghire, its management was temporarily assumed by the Company, and the Collector of Cuddapah was directed to examine the accounts of the chief and settle the claims of his creditors, to whom three-fourths of

the net revenue was allotted, and the dividends regularly paid by the officer placed in charge of the jaghire. In 1848, the accounts being closed, the jaghire was restored to Hussain Ali Khan, the eldest surviving heir. Hussain Ali Khan died before a sanad recognizing him could be issued. He was succeeded by his nephew Ghulam Ali Khan, the late chief, to whom in 1849 a sanad was granted renewing to him and to his heirs their former rights and privileges, with administration of civil and criminal justice except in cases involving capital punishment, and stipulating that no grant should be made without a written document distinctly specifying that each alienation should hold good during such period only as the jaghire should remain in the enjoyment of the grantor. All frontier duties were abolished. In 1862 a sanad was granted to Ghulam Ali Khan guaranteeing that the British Government would permit and confirm any succession to his State which might be legitimate according to Mahomedan law. In October 1868 Ghulam Ali Khan, c.s.r, died, and his nephew and son-in-law, Fatte Ali Khan Bahadoor, the present ruler, was recognized as his successor. Under the sanad granted to Ghulam Ali Khan and renewed in the name of the present chief, the jaghire is confirmed as an independent State free of peishcush and pecuniary demand, the chief being bound at all times to maintain faith and allegiance to the paramount Power. The civil jurisdiction of the chief is unrestricted; but in the administration of criminal justice he is debarred from mutilating criminals, and capital sentences must be sanctioned by the Madras Government before being carried out. The chief has recently been granted in perpetuity the title of Nawab.

Statistics.

The area of the jaghire is estimated at 206½ square miles, or 132,191 acres. Of this 54,171 acres are held on full assessment, and 38,578 acres are held on favorable tenure. There are only 29 acres of fully assessed land unoccupied. The remaining area, amounting to acres 29,413, is unassessed, and comprises hills, streams, roads, village sites, &c. The population of the jaghire was returned at 45,065 in the census of 1871. The land revenue amounts to Rupees 2,24,841, and the miscellaneous revenue to Rupees 9,798, but considerably more than half the land revenue is assigned as maintenance to members of the family. The jaghire contains some of the finest gardens in this part of the country, the mangoes and oranges of Banganapalli being celebrated. The Collector of Kurnool acts as Agent to the Madras Government; he does not, however, forward an administration report of the jaghire.

SUNDOOR STATE.

The State of Sundoor is situated nearly in the centre of the Bellary District. The area is roughly estimated at 140 square miles, of which more than a third is hill territory; it is also surrounded by a cordon of hills which completely isolate it from the neighbouring country. The administration is in the hands of a European Agent, who is the chief executive officer, and whose decisions on both the revenue and judicial sides are final. The law in force is substantially that of British India. The population of the State, not including the hill sanitarium of Ramandroog, is according to the recent census somewhat over 14,000, showing an increase on the census of 1865 of more than 1,000 persons. The average revenue from all sources somewhat exceeds Rupees 45,000. Of this sum about Rupees 24,000 is realized from land, about Rupees 18,300 from contracts of different kinds, and the rest from miscellaneous sources. The land revenue includes grants of land to dependents and service lands, and these are generally estimated at the highest figure; the contracts also form a somewhat precarious and fluctuating source of income. The following Inams are enjoyed:—Bramadaya, Rupees 4,571; Komaraswami Pagoda, Rupees 2,945; other temples, Rupees 2,332; Fakirs and others, Rupees 1,298; and sundry small jaghires, Rupees 1,360. In all, lands to the value of Rupees 12,506 per annum are alienated. Since November 1863 nearly a lakh of rupees has been paid towards the liquidation of debts; but, it is to be regretted, with less practical result than might reasonably be anticipated. The system of paying with one hand, and contracting fresh obligations with the other, has not yet been entirely abolished. Education is in a backward state, roads are still urgently required, and public buildings are wanted. The incubus of debt is a considerable check to efforts in these directions.

The present chief of Sundoor is Siva Shan Mukha Row. The founder of the family was Malloji Row Ghorepura, an officer in the army of the Bijapur State, whose son Biroji entered the service of the Rajah of Sattara. The Sundoor State had been previously held by a Beder Poligar, but Biroji's son Siddoji took Sundoor from the Beders, and his conquest was confirmed to him and his heirs by Sambhaji, the successor of Sivaji. Siddoji died in 1715, and was succeeded in Sundoor by his second son Gopal Row, whose fate is involved in obscurity. All that is known of the history of that time is that Sundoor was taken by Hyder Ali some time after his capture of Gooty in 1779; that he and his son Tippoo built the fort; and that Gopal Row's son, Siva Row, was killed in action in 1785 in a vain attempt

to recover his patrimony. In 1790 Siva Row's brother, Venkata Row, acting on behalf of his nephew Siddoji, drove out Tippoo's garrison, but did not attempt to occupy Sundoor till the fall of Seringapatam. The Peshwa then claimed the State as his own, and presented it to Yeswant Row Ghorepura, a distinguished officer of Scindia's army, who belonged to the same family. Yeswant Row did not take possession, and the widow of Siddoji, who died in 1796, adopted Siva Row, a son of Kandi Row the younger brother of Yeswant Row. The Peshwa made an unsuccessful attempt upon Sundoor in 1815; at his request in 1817 the British Government, in conformity with the provisions of the treaty of Bassein, sent a force under Sir Thomas Munro to reduce it, and in October of that year the fort and government were surrendered. Siva Row was compensated, on Sir Thomas Munro's recommendation, with a jaghire of Rupees 10,000. In 1818, after the failure of the Peshwa's government, Siva Row was restored to his State, and in 1826 received a sanad from Government confirming the lands of Sundoor to him and his heirs for ever free of peishcush and pecuniary demands. Siva Row was succeeded in 1840 by a nephew named Venkat Row, who died in 1861. His eldest son, the present chief, being then a minor, was not invested till 1863, when the sanad was renewed. The present chief has the entire management of the revenue and police of his State, and the duty of administering civil justice. He is bound at all times to maintain allegiance to the British Government, and to assist them against foreign or domestic foes, maintaining a watch over public peace and delivering up offenders who escape into his territory from British India. In the administration of criminal justice he is required to refer all cases calling for capital punishment for the orders of the Madras Government. He is held responsible to the British Government for the satisfactory administration of his State, and in case of misgovernment the Governor in Council has the power to take such measures as appear proper for the establishment of order and security. The title of Rajah has lately been granted in perpetuity to the chief. The Collector of Bellary acts as Government Agent, but does not submit an administration report.

Sanitarium of
Ramandroog.

Sundoor contains a very important hill sanitarium for Europeans in the plateau of Ramandroog. Permission was obtained from the Rajah in 1846 to establish a sanitarium there, and it has since been utilized chiefly as a convalescent depôt for the troops serving in the Ceded Districts. Ramandroog is distant from Bellary 38 miles, and from Secunderabad 270 miles. The station is built on an elevated plateau 3,150 feet above the sea-level, 1,825 above Bellary, and 1,200 feet above the surrounding plains. The greatest extent of the plateau is from north to south one and a half miles, and it varies in breadth from half to three-quarters of a mile. The general aspect of the

surface is undulating, the eastern ridge of the hill being more than 100 feet higher than the western; the ground gradually slopes down from the former to the latter, where in many places the descent to the western plains is very precipitous. Owing to this conformation no rain-water lodges on the hill. The soil on the plateau formed by the disintegrated rock is scanty, but sufficient in some spots on the west and south sides of the hill to admit of a certain amount of cultivation; on the eastern side the rock is generally bare. During the months of January, February, and March the air is cool, dry, and bracing, being generally 12° cooler than at Bellary during the same period. April and May may be called the hot months; when the mean of the thermometer is about 80°. The mornings and evenings during these months are however cool and pleasant, and towards sunset a fresh breeze sets in from the west. Early in April and during May partial showers fall; the air, except in the early mornings and evenings, is close and sultry, and the sky becomes cloudy. Towards the end of May banks of clouds are seen forming in the west, and occasional heavy showers of rain fall. This is soon followed by violent storms bringing in the south-west monsoon. Rain continues with occasional breaks till the middle of October, after which, to the end of the year, the rainfall is inconsiderable. During the south-west monsoon fogs cover the hills from sunset till 9 or 10 o'clock next morning, the thermometer in the early morning falling to 62° Fahrenheit. The damp chilly state of the atmosphere at this period necessitates the use of fires in barracks and houses. The north-east monsoon sets in about the middle of October, and a cold wind prevails from the north-east quarter till the end of February, when it gradually veers round to the south-west. During the south-west monsoon the sides of the hill and the ravines and nullahs at the base contain a large amount of decaying vegetable matter. After the rains are over the surface of the country rapidly dries up and the atmosphere becomes full of impurities; this probably accounts for the not unfrequent occurrence of malarious fever during the period of the year just mentioned. The rainfall is greater than in the plains, but seems to have fallen off in the last few years—a fact which is probably due to the unlimited destruction of trees and shrubs during the minority of the present Rajah. The climate of Ramandroog is suitable for cases of general debility, unattended by organic disease. Hepatic, cardiac, rheumatic, pulmonic and bowel affections appear to be aggravated by the climate, especially during the rains. All cases of glandular affections derive great benefit, and children of a scrofulous habit of body thrive remarkably. The depôt can accommodate 60 single men and 10 families. There are three good roads up to the Droog, one by Kettinhatti and Bavihalli, which is the one used by travellers from Bellary; one from Hospet; and

the third, the steepest of all, from Narayandevorkerra. There are about fifteen houses on the Droog belonging to Bollary residents. Two carriage roads run along the whole platform, and many good bridle roads have been cut along the sides of the hills to the north and south.

CONSULS, &c.

Consuls and
Consular
Agents.

At Madras the following Governments are represented by Consuls : America, Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and Sweden and Norway. At Cocanada, America, Austria, Bremen, France, and Germany are represented. At Tellicherry, France has a Consul. At Cochin, both France and Germany have Consuls. At Bimlipatam, Germany has a Consul. The French Consuls act under the authority of the Consul-General of France at Calcutta. The Madras Government have Consular Agents at the French settlements of Pondicherry and Karikal.

POLITICAL PENSIONS.

Carnatic
Pensions—
History of
Carnatic
Family.

The Musalmans first assumed the actual government of the Carnatic at the commencement of the last century, when the Emperor Aurengzebe, after conquering and annexing the independent Musalman kingdoms of the Dakhan, appointed Kasim Khan Nawab of the Carnatic. The Nawabs were subsequently appointed by the Viceroy of the Dakhan, subject to the confirmation of the Emperor at Delhi. Anwar ud Din Khan, the first Nawab of the present Arcot family, was the last Nawab appointed directly by the Viceroy, in the year 1744. In the general dissolution of the Mogul empire, numerous claimants to the dignities of the viceroys and nawabs started up; and Anwar ud Din Khan was killed in endeavouring to suppress a rebellion fomented by the French. The English espoused the cause of his son Muhammad Ali Khan, who afterwards assumed the title of Walajah, and by their aid he succeeded his father as Nawab in 1749. In 1795 he died and was succeeded by his son Umdat-ul-Umrah. The English had long been the virtual masters of the country, and the disadvantages of the double government being evident, they resolved to end it; and on the death of Umdat-ul-Umrah in 1801 the civil administration of the country was assumed with the collection of the revenues.

The Nawab was permitted to retain his state and title with a pension of one-fifth of the revenues: but the heir to the dignity, Ali Husain, refusing to sign the treaty relinquishing his rights, he was set aside, and his cousin, the son of Amir ul Umara, Nawab Muhammad Ali Khan, Walajah's second son, was raised to the titular dignity under the style of Nawab Azim ud Daula; he on his part engaging to comply with all the demands of the English Government. Azim ud Daula had two sons, Azam Jah and Azim Jah. He died in 1819 and was succeeded as titular Nawab by Azam Jah, who, dying in 1825, was succeeded by his son Ghulam Muhammad Ghous Khan. On the death of the latter in 1855 the title and dignity of Nawab was abolished and the allowance of one-fifth of the revenues resumed. Azim Jah, the uncle of the last Nawab, long claimed, as the legal heir, the right to succeed to the musnad; and in 1867 the Government compromised his claim by creating him hereditary Prince of Arcot, with a perpetual stipend and other privileges and immunities. He died in 1874 and was succeeded as Prince of Arcot by his eldest son Zahir-ud-Daula Bahadur.

The assumption of the internal administration of the Carnatic by the British Government in 1801, and the change in the succession, led to the grant of stipends to the different members of the families of the Nawabs Muhammad Ali Khan Walajah and Umdat-ul-Umrah, and to some of their officers and dependents. The total annual amount of these stipends at first granted was seven lakhs. Many additional grants to various claimants, distant relatives, connexions, or servants and dependents of these Nawabs were made subsequently, the last grant on this account being made in the year 1840. The aggregate amount of these subsequent grants was three lakhs of rupees per annum. The amount now paid on account of these stipends to the descendants of the original grantees has been diminished by lapses to little more than one lakh per annum. The continuation of Carnatic stipends of 1801 to the heirs of the stipendiaries is made entirely at the discretion of the Governor in Council, and is regulated by precedent and by the rulings of the Court of Directors. Some of the stipends latterly granted were given in lieu of jaghires or land assignments formerly given by the Nawabs but now resumed by the British; in these cases the stipendiaries retain the name of jaghiredars. Others of the stipendiaries are called yeomiahdars, as their stipends are the equivalents of yeomiah or daily allowances made to them by the Nawabs. In all matters relating to their stipends these persons come under the same rules as the other stipendiaries of 1801.

On the death of Nawab Ghulam Muhammad Ghous Khan in 1855, and the consequent resumption of the fifth of the revenues heretofore allowed to the titular Nawabs, the Government granted stipends to all

members of his immediate family and to all his chief officers, servants, and dependents. The total amount thus granted was upwards of five lakhs per annum, and the number of persons stipended was nearly five thousand, of whom less than one thousand now remain; the rest have been transferred to other places, have died or have commuted their stipends. The continuations of the stipends of members of the immediate family are made, under rules laid down by the Government of India, for two or three lives only; the stipends of all others are life grants, and cease absolutely with the deaths of the holders. In the latter case the local Government has discretionary power to continue a moiety of the stipends to widows. The total amount of the Carnatic stipends of 1855 now aggregates a little less than three lakhs thirty-one thousand per annum.

—Prince of
Arcot Family
Stipend.

The family of the late Prince Azim Jah of Arcot enjoy a perpetual stipend of a lakh and a half of rupees per annum, of which one lakh is divided among the members of the family, and the remaining 50,000 rupees is set apart as an appanage of the title in addition to the personal share of its holder.

—Carnatic
Agency, &c.

The whole of these stipendiaries are mustered and paid by an officer called the Government Agent and Paymaster of Carnatic Stipends. It is the duty of this officer to report lapses, and to submit for the consideration of Government distribution rolls of those who claim continuations from the lapsed stipends. A Receiver of Carnatic Property was appointed under Act XXX of 1858 to administer to the estate of the late Nawab of the Carnatic. He was also to pay persons claiming to be creditors of the late Nawabs, under the orders of the Supreme Court, with interest not exceeding six per cent. per annum. For the performance of these duties the Receiver was to receive a commission not exceeding 5 per cent. upon the value of the property collected by and distributed under the Act; by Act XXI of 1863 his duties were somewhat extended. From 1858 to 1875 the Receiver realized Rupees 20,29,700, and disbursed, under the orders of the Supreme and High Courts, Rupees 33,37,619. The subsequent transactions have been limited, and the Receiver's functions may, in point of fact, be said now to have ceased.

Other
political
pensions.

Other political pensions have arisen under various circumstances, as detailed in the following paragraphs. These are all paid by the revenue authorities of the districts in which the pensioners are permitted to reside.

—Kurnool
pensioners.

On the assumption of the Kurnool territory by the British Government in 1800 pensions were granted to the Nawab's personal family and such of his relatives and dependents as were in receipt of allowances from him and held jaghires resumeable at his pleasure.

The pensions so granted were all declared by the Government of India to be life-grants and amounted to Rupees 2,22,651-4-0 per annum. By the death of most of the recipients, and consequent lapse of their pensions to Government, the total amount of these pensions was gradually reduced till, on the 1st April 1875, it stood at Rupees 79,159-10-0, which was still further reduced to Rupees 75,123-10-0 drawn by 127 persons on the 1st April 1876. Of the last amount Rupees 1,860 were transferred to Hyderabad in the course of the year.

The "Two-Lakh Fund" was a sum of two lakhs of Star Pagodas set apart by treaty for the maintenance of the families and connexions of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sultan, and their dependents. There are at present 70 pensioners under this head, drawing an aggregate pension of Rupees 9,624-10-0 annually, with a clothing allowance of Rupees 1,255 per annum, the latter sum being enjoyed only by certain of the pensioners. The pensioners principally consist of the descendants of the officers of Hyder's and Tippoo's courts, whose present pensions have devolved to them by gradual lapses. Some are the relatives, and a few others the dependents of the widows of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sultan. Under this head is also paid a sum of Rupees 1,251 per annum, intended for the ceremonies over Padshaw Begum's tomb, the principal wife of Tippoo Sultan, and for other religious ceremonies known as the Ashar Fateahs.

The Mysore pensioners also are the descendants of the officers of Tippoo's court. They are so called in contradistinction to the Two-Lakh Fund pensioners, as their pensions are chargeable to the Mysore State. There are at present seventeen pensioners under this head, drawing an aggregate pension of Rupees 7,184-11-0 annually. A sum of Rupees 276 per annum is allowed for the performance of fateah ceremonies over the tomb of Goolam Ally Sadoor, one of the principal officers of Tippoo's court.

The late Goomsur pensioners were the members of the family of the late Zemindar of Goomsur, who had been implicated in disturbances raised in Goomsur and elsewhere in the Ganjam District. They were originally brought to Vellore in 1837, when they consisted of some twenty persons; the number has now been reduced by casualties, &c. to only one member, a concubine of the ex-zemindar.

The Palcondah pensioners, of whom there are five in number, are the members of the family of the late Zemindar of Palcondah. They were banished to the North Arcot District in 1834, and placed under restraint there to prevent their entering into intrigues with the disaffected adherents of the family in Palcondah and elsewhere in the Vizagapatam District. They consist of the son, two daughters and two widows of the Zemindar, and are in receipt of pensions amounting

in the aggregate to Rupees 2,928 per annum. They reside in the mahals in the Fort at Vellore.

—Cuttack pensioners.

The Cuttack pensioners are the members of the family of Rajah Pillay *alias* Lutchmee Narrain Bunge, a turbulent character who created disturbances in the Ganjam District. He was sent to Vellore in 1856 by desire of the Bengal Government, accompanied by his wife, a son, and two male relatives, and died in 1857. The present members of his family consist of his widow, his son, and his uncle. They are in receipt of a pension of Rupees 25 per mensem, or 300 Rupees per annum. They reside in a mahal in the Fort at Vellore, and are under surveillance.

—Madhiarjune Pensioners.

The Madhiarjune pensioners are the descendants and dependents of Pritapsing Gee, son of the late Ameer Sing, Rajah of Tanjore, who was dethroned by the British Government in favor of the late Sharfoji, Rajah of Tanjore, and whose seat of residence was transferred to Madhiarjune, seven miles from Combaconum. The chief of these is Yaikoji, the grandson of Ameer Sing, to whom no pension was assigned till the beginning of 1873, when, on the recommendation of the Madras Government, a monthly stipend of Rupees 1,000 was sanctioned for life only. The pensions to the other members of the Madhiarjune family were sanctioned by the Government of India in 1849. These pensions are administered in the Tanjore District.

—Tanjore Raj Pensioners.

Subsequent to the death of the late Rajah of Tanjore in 1875 and the annexation of the Raj to the British Dominions, Mr. H. Forbes and after him the Hon. H. D. Phillips were appointed Commissioners to settle its affairs and assign pensions to the several members of the late Rajah's family and dependents. The pensions now drawn were sanctioned by Government in 1859. Among the Tanjore Raj pensioners the principal personages now living are—

	Monthly Pension.
	Rs.
1. Her Highness M. Komakshiamba Bayi Sahib	1,000
2. Do. M. Aparupamba Bayi Sahib	800
3. Do. M. Ansumba Bayi Sahib	800
4. Do. M. Chinamba Bayi Sahib	800
5. Do. M. Gauramba Bayi Sahib	800
6. Do. M. Jayantamba Bayi Sahib	800
7. Do. M. Jijayamba Bayi Sahib	800
8. Do. M. Ramakumaramba Bayi Sahib	800
9. Do. M. Sayamba Bayi Sahib	800
10. Do. M. Dipamba Bayi Sahib	800
11. Do. M. Wunamba Bayi Sahib	800
12. Do. M. Yeswantamba Bayi Sahib	800
13. Do. S. C. Vijalamohana Mukta Bayi Amuliani Rajah Sahib,	
Princess of Tanjore and the daughter of the late Rajah	3,000
14. Sakwar Bayi Amman Raj Sahib, eldest sister of the late Rajah	281
15. Urahanyaghi Bayi, niece of the late Rajah	121

	Monthly Pension.
	Rs.
16. V. Ry. Sakaram Row Hambiroyi Mahite Sahib, son-in-law of the late Rajah	683
17. V. Ry. Protapa Rudramanai Row Ingie, nephew of the late Rajah	260
18. Sakawara Bayi, descendant of Tookoji, a former Rajah of Tanjore	236
19. The late Rajah's Seraglio called Mangalavilas, which at present consists of thirty-four ladies drawing a pension of from	70 to 150
Sharfoji Rajah's Seraglio called Kaliaumahal, which at present consists of eight ladies, each	79
Yaganatha Avarai, grandson of late Ladu Bayi, who was the chief of the Kaliaumahal ladies	445

There are besides these however a number of other relations of the Rajah and his servants and dependents in the several departments called "Daulah Panloke," "Hazur Panloke," "Lusker Padak," &c. Among them the highest pension drawn amounts to Rupees 150 and the lowest to Annas 12. In the case of the first fifteen pensioners in the list given above and that of the natural sons and daughters of the late Rajah the pensions are inheritable for two generations. In the case of the rest the pensions will cease with their lives.

Kandian pensioners are the descendants of two families which successively occupied the throne of Ceylon. They were in the early part of this century transferred to the Madras Presidency as a measure of State policy, and have since been maintained in the Tanjore District at the expense of the Ceylon Government. There are at present 25 pensioners. The highest pension drawn by one of them, the third ex-Queen of Vikra Simmala Rajah, is Rupees 125, and the lowest is Rupees 2-8-0 a-month. Several of these pensioners reside also in the Fort, Vellore.

—Kandian pensioners.

NON-POLITICAL PENSIONS.

The following is a list of civil pensions other than political pensions classified for purposes of account. It will be seen that it includes both non-official and official pensions. In the Accountant-General's Office all these pensions are grouped under two major heads "Allowances and Assignments" and "Superannuation and Retired Allowances."

Compensation	Compensation in lieu of lands and privileges resumed.
	Do. to private persons.
	Do. to pagodas and mosques.
Miscellaneous, i.e., other pensions and charitable allowances chargeable on revenue.	Salt and teddy compensations.
	Yeomahdars.
Superannuation Revenue.	Revenue.
	Ankari.
	Customs and Salt, &c.

Superannuation, Civil.	{ Law and Justice. Public Department. Post Office.
Do.	Marine.
Superannuation, Public Works Department.	
Compensation Allowances.	{ Pensioners of Native Pension Fund. Lingerkhana. Charitable Allowances of General Nature.
Gratuities.	

The titles of the non-official pensions indicate generally the mode in which they have arisen. Compensation money paid to mosques and pagodas is here specified, but will be mentioned again under the section on Public Endowments. The alienation of pensionary allowances by persons holding them is prohibited; on the other hand Collectors are authorized to see that families which are entitled to a share or to maintenance obtain their dues, and, if necessary, to make a proper partition themselves. Whether a non-official pension is hereditary or not depends on the circumstances under which it was originally granted. In most cases of hereditary pensions, the hereditary line is not allowed to be continued by adopted children, but even this is permitted in cases where the pension took its rise in compensation for land charitably granted and then resumed. Pensions which are not hereditary are often gradually reduced on each occasion of a succession. There are certain rules for the commutation of non-official pensionary allowances into a lump sum fixed at so many years' purchase according to age or circumstances, of which pensioners frequently avail themselves; the Government exercise their discretion as to disallowing commutation when the object appears to be an improvident one. The adjudication of claims to these pensions rests entirely with Government in the Pension Department. Non-official pensioners, unless specially exempted, are required to appear periodically before the Revenue authorities of the districts in which they are permitted to reside, for muster and inspection. Payment is made to pensioners at stated intervals by the same officers. The duty of reporting casualties among pensioners is imposed by Government on various officials, and rewards are offered for information as to casualties which have not been brought to the notice of these officials within three months after their occurrence. Official civil pensions are regulated entirely by the Civil Pension Code recently issued by the Financial Department of the Government of India; the Code contains clear instructions regarding the points mentioned above and several others. Certain minor Police pensions are administered under special rules in the Police Department. Covenanted Civil Servants, Judges of the High Court, and Chaplains are specially provided for in the Civil Pension Code.

Military pensions may be classified into European and Native. European pensions are—(1), Full, half, and short service pensions; (2), Invalid establishments; (3), Medical Retiring Funds; (4), Special allowances and pensions; and (5), Widows' and children's allowances. Under the first of these heads come pensions to officers of short service under the fund formerly called "Lord Clive's Fund," as well as full and half pay pensions to officers of the Indian Army and Staff Corps and Medical Department. The second head includes invalid pension to officers disqualified for active duties, but still equal to discharge of garrison duties, as well as to officers disqualified for both. Under the third class are included special annuities granted to a limited number of medical officers according to seniority. The fourth class comprises colonels' allowances, good service pensions for distinguished and meritorious services, and wound pensions and gratuities. The fifth class includes pensions to widows and children under "Lord Clive's Fund," under the old Madras Military Fund, and under the new Indian Service Family Pension Fund of 1875; also to widows and children under the charity branch of the old Madras Medical Fund. Native pensions are of three kinds—(1), Invalid pensions; (2), Wound pensions; (3), Family pensions. Pensions under the first of these classes are payable to Native officers and soldiers of over 15 years' service if declared unfit for further service, and of over 32 years' service irrespective of fitness or unfitness. The second class includes wound pensions and gratuities to Native officers, non-commissioned officers and rank and file according to scale. The third class includes pensions to the nominated heirs of soldiers killed in action or dying on foreign service. Military pensioners are paid monthly by the civil authorities of the districts in which they are allowed to reside: they are mustered once a year by Revenue Divisional Officers for the purposes of identification.

PUBLIC ENDOWMENTS.

Since the year 1817 the Government have assumed the more or less direct control of all endowments in land or money made by the British or previous Governments, or by private persons, for the support of religious or charitable institutions, or for public buildings, such as bridges, choultries, &c. By Regulation VII of 1817 the Board of Revenue was appointed to control all these endowments, subject to the general supervision of Government. So far as endowments for religious purposes were concerned this control was transferred by Act XX of 1863 from the Board to District Committees appointed by

Government. These have proved a failure, and the mismanagement and malversation of public funds have been so great that a revision of the law is again under contemplation. The supervision of endowed charitable institutions still rests with the Board. In most cases the institutions are allowed by the Board to remain under the immediate management of private individuals appointed as trustees by the founders, and the Board do not interfere so long as the object of the grant is duly fulfilled; where there has been neglect or irregularity on the part of the trustees the institutions have been placed under the management of Collectors acting as agents to the Board. Chuttruins constructed and endowed by Government are managed similarly by Collectors. The policy has latterly been to transfer all such charitable institutions as have been directly managed by Collectors, to Local Fund Boards, and it is under contemplation to place these Boards in charge also of the privately managed institutions; if this is done they will virtually take the place of the Board under Regulation VII of 1817. The British Government in some cases keep up the endowments of pagodas and mosques, the obligation to do so having been handed on to them by previous Governments. In deference to certain objections efforts have from time to time been made to convert all ready-money payments of this nature into assignments of land revenue. The arrangement has however been only very partially carried out owing to the general reluctance of landholders to have their revenues so assigned. It has now been settled that money allowances shall continue to be paid, but not from the Government Treasury. The payments are to be made in future direct to the trustees by the villagers concerned. They will do this out of the revenues due by them to Government by the system of what is called Beriz deductions, the Government taking so much off the demand. The actual paymaster is the village monegar, who pays for the villagers. The annual value of the land revenue assigned for religious and charitable institutions is about 29 lakhs of rupees, and the ready-money payments made by Government for the same institutions amount to about five lakhs; total 34 lakhs of rupees.

ESCHEATS, &c.

Escheats.

On a person dying intestate and without legal heirs his real property escheats to Government. Section 6, Regulation 7 of 1817 provides that such property shall be sold on the public account or otherwise disposed of at the pleasure of Government. Escheats of valuable

property often occur in Malabar; in other districts the instances are rare. Buildings are generally sold; ordinary assessed land is sometimes sold and sometimes given to occupiers on condition of merely paying the assessment; Inam land is resumed and fully assessed. In many cases the property is assigned by Government to persons having a natural though not a legal claim. The Board of Revenue are charged with the duty of bringing cases of escheat to the notice of Government; when the property is valued at not more than Rupees 50 they are authorized by Government to dispose of the case themselves.

When intestates leave personal property to which no proper claim is made, the ownership vests in Government. Under clause 7, Section 16, Regulation III of 1802, the Zillah Judges are to take charge of such property pending the orders of Government. In practice, when the value is small, the Collector takes charge and disposes of the property at his discretion.

PETITIONS.

The petition system, under which a person aggrieved with the action of any Government official appeals to the next higher authority by means of a petition and receives back a reply endorsed on his petition, either refusing or promising redress, assumes an unusual importance in this Presidency owing to the number of small holdings of land under Ryotwari, and the consequent multiplication of details in administering the land revenue. Most of the petitions presented to Government officials relate to land revenue. An aggrieved person may appeal in succession to the officers representing each grade in the department concerned, and may finally address in turn the local Government, the Government of India, and the Secretary of State. The three last named alone have prescribed certain rules checking the indiscriminate presentation of petitions; in all other cases there is no check beyond the discretion of the officer receiving them. In a few cases the quasi-judicial Regulations provide for appeals and impose limits on their presentation. In a recent year the Board of Revenue received 3,330 petitions; called for reports, that is to say, took evidence, in 230 cases; gave redress in 15 cases without calling for evidence; and gave redress in 43 cases after calling for evidence. In the same year the corresponding figures for petitions dealt with by Government, in all departments other than the Military and Public Works, were 2,413, 150, 53, and 49 respectively.

SECTION II.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAND.

GOVERNMENT AND ALIENATED LANDS.

(a).—HISTORICAL SKETCH.

Movement of races. THE early movement of races in Southern India seems to show an indigenous and mostly pastoral population, superseded by an invasion from the north of one or more immigrations of Hindu agriculturalists, and these again superseded by a further invasion from the north of a more military class of the same general race. The aborigines of the south remain still in a distinct form in the hill tribes, but these may very possibly represent only the most degraded form of the early civilization. The aborigines were Mongolian by race, Dravidian in speech, demonolators by religion, and in their occupations chiefly pastoral. The first invaders were cultivating Brahmins and herdsmen of the Aryan stock, and an admixture of these with different tribes of the aborigines gave the present southern nations. The cause of the first migration was probably the displacement of the pure Hindus in the north by another kindred race of different political constitution, of which the Rajputs are now the best known type. This race followed agriculture as their proper calling and had fixed property in land, but simultaneously showed an aptitude for arms. In their turn they moved south and are traceable successively in Guzerat, the western coast, and the extreme south of the peninsula. The Nairs of Malabar and the southernmost part of Canara and the Vellalars of Tinnevely are probably the most distinctive present specimen of the race. As far as the movement of races going to form a landed proprietary is concerned, the history ends with the Hindu migrations. Two Mahomedan and one British conquest have since taken place, and each has effected considerable change in the landed institutions of the country. But neither has affected the agricultural population itself. In speaking of Aryan immigrants superseding Dravidian occupants it is of course

understood that they superseded them only in the sense of being successful in introducing their own institutions and vocabulary. Upon the inflectional grammar of the Dravidian language or languages they produced no effect whatever, a certain proof of the vitality of the Dravidian race. In fact there is no such thing in the south of India as an Aryan Hindu race; the Hindus here are but Aryanized Dravidians.

Regarding the landed institutions of the aboriginal Dravidians little or nothing can be ascertained. They must have been chiefly a pastoral race, but the cairns belonging to this period, which are to be found all over Southern India, contain brass and iron implements of agriculture, and the old Tamil language contains words showing that agriculture was practised. The language also shows that they had kings occupying fortified habitations and ruling over defined districts. On the immigration of the Aryans forming the Pandyan and later dynasties they appear to have passed for the most part into the position of pre-dial slaves.

Aboriginal
landed
institutions.

The presence of the Hindu immigration in Southern India is first traceable in the springing up of organized village communities of the type found among the ancient Teutons of the west. Tribal arrangements may have given place to village communities among the Dravidians themselves before the appearance of the Aryans; but the presence of the type just mentioned is conclusive as to Hindu influence. In the early Hindu village system the village was governed by a headman, there was a highly concentrated system for regulating common affairs, and the division of labor was rigidly carried out in the practice of the different trades and professions by individuals receiving a regulated remuneration. Local taxes for common purposes were levied rateably. The ownership by the individual in the soil was at first weak, for the land being abundant was the property of him who liked to take it, and, there being more in reserve, occupation alone could give to the land but a slight marketable value. Ownership however gradually grew stronger as occupants closed in on the first settlers. The Government, as soon as any arose, limited its operations to taking from each individual cultivator a share of the produce. This primitive form of village corporation remains more or less intact in many places to this day, the only difference being that the lower orders have been to a considerable extent emancipated and that the Government have assumed the additional duty of assigning waste lands to new occupants. It will be noticed that the communistic principle is not fully developed in the village system here described. For instance there is no joint claim to the whole village area, including waste; and there is no combination to exclude strangers. If this

The most
ancient Hindu
village
system.

form of village community corresponds, as there seems little doubt that it did, with the first Hindu immigration of Brahmins and herdsmen, it appears that those races were content with little, and easily amalgamated with the aborigines in their arrangements regarding landed property.

The more recent form.

Another form of village community sprung up at a more recent date, instituted, it is supposed, by the quasi-military Hindus who represented the second set of Hindu immigrants. This form was the result of an occupation by a body democratic among themselves, but forming an exclusive oligarchy as regards the aborigines and others whom they found before them. The distinctive features of this system of village corporation, as opposed to that already prevailing in Southern India, were that the dominant race claimed a strong proprietary right in the whole of the village area, whether cultivated or uncultivated; that they gave no franchise to aborigines or strangers; and that in their own internal administration they had a tendency to communism, and adopted government by panchayat or committee in preference to that by a single headman. In other respects the arrangements were the same as in the more ancient form. The details of their land administration will be mentioned hereafter. The Government had no concern with the distribution of lands, and it is believed that they settled, not with the individual cultivator singly, but jointly with the village authorities. These communities also exist to this day, but their special characteristics have been much curtailed. The panchayets are of less importance than they were, and have generally given place to headmen. The rents to the dominant body survive in a few cases, only of what are called Swatantrams in the Chingleput District; and the rights to the waste, though still asserted by Mirasidars and Kareikárar in the southern districts, are recognised by Government only as a preferential claim, to be indulged under certain conditions and in common with other inhabitants of the village.

Ancient proprietary rights.

In the times of the early Hindu village communities proprietary rights, as defined by powers to alienate, existed to a very trifling extent. In the more ancient form of community, as has been said, tenures had no market value; and in the later and more democratic communities where rights were more decided, the land was not an individual but a common property, and one man could not without the consent of the others sell to a stranger. Still transactions occurred in the latter case among the members of the community themselves, which showed an individual ownership within that limit. Sales were not common, and mortgages were usually not foreclosable for a very long period; but the latter existed in abundance, showing a certain value in individual ownership of landed property. Individual property

in land sprung up earlier than elsewhere in the districts on the western coast, probably owing to the political circumstances which rendered the Government authority weak and the State demands light. The attitude of the Hindu rajahs with regard to the soil has been much discussed. It probably varied entirely with the circumstances of times and places. The object of Government is to obtain revenues for Government purposes. If it found communities so organized as to be able to farm the villages properly and to render the proper State dues, the Government would not interfere in the direction of the disposal of the lands claimed by the community. If it found an imperfect organization it would be forced to interfere in the disposal of the lands, especially of the waste lands, with a view to the proper development of the country and realization of the revenue. The tendency probably was for the villagers to lean more and more on the Government in these matters, and hence in many parts of the country the State interference became a regular institution. Still there is no evidence that any Hindu government ever took the step of ejecting an occupier; even if they failed to obtain their dues from him they limited their reprisals to personal torture or sale of moveable property. The sale law is not a native institution. The discussion whether the Indian governments are "proprietors" of the soil or not seems to be little more than a dispute about words.

By far the greater part of the laboring classes of the people must have been, during the early historical periods, in a state of acknowledged slavery. In Malabar and Canara, where the land became gradually the subject of distinct properties, the laborer was the personal slave of the occupier of the soil and was liable to be sold and mortgaged by him independently of his lands. In the Tamil country the slave was considered rather as attached to the soil. In the Telugu country only does slavery seem to have been weak. It must be noticed however that South Indian slavery was always domestic, and never the subject of foreign traffic. It even appears that in the Tamil country the Pariahs or Pallars, slaves attached to the Vellalars, and the Pullis, slaves attached to the Brahmins, used to claim hereditary landed property as the incident of their slavery. Slavery did not survive the Hindu period, except to a very limited extent. As long as the Government land-tax was moderately light, as it is believed to have been in the Hindu period, the proprietor could afford to maintain slaves and servants to cultivate for him. The Mahomedans are believed to have raised the land-tax and rendered it necessary for the landlord to work at the plough in his own person or with the help of his family. This is the explanation usually given, and there is probably some truth in it; it is by some however denied

that the land-dues of the Mahomedans were higher than those which obtained before their time. It is at any rate certain that slavery has gradually died out.

Early system
of land
revenue.

In the earliest times the land-revenue was the sole Government impost, and the revenue system of the country may be said to have been founded on the absence of taxation properly so called. This principle has been brought down to the present day with no very great modification, and has met with opponents. The oriental theory, as now interpreted, is that the portion of the produce of the land which is given by nature, as opposed to that which is produced as the interest of invested capital, is the proper source from which to draw revenue; and that if this be not alienated to individuals, or appropriated by them by prescription, the necessity of taxing labor or capital is obviated. This state of things is not inconsistent with the creation of private property in the occupation of land, in capital sunk in it, and in that portion of the rent which is allowed to individuals to give them an interest in the soil. The land-revenue was levied by all Hindu governments in the shape of a proportion of the gross produce fixed according to the capacity of different soils and the value of different products, or the commuted money-value of that proportion. There was no settlement for a succession of years or seasons, but each crop was divided as it was produced. The Metayer system of Italy and some other modern continental countries is but a repetition of this plan. The Government share was usually taken in kind under what is now called the Amany system. In those times when the boundaries of fields were ill-defined and the holdings very small and intermixed, and where it was the practice to thresh out grain at once after reaping, it was easier, and gave less opportunity for abuse, to divide the grain so threshed out than to calculate annual money-payments according to the quantity and quality of land actually cultivated. In certain cases, however, the value of the crop was estimated after reaping, and a portion of this value was paid in money to the State. This commutation system would naturally take the place of the other where joint settlements were made with villages. It was also considered more applicable to dry-land crops than to wet-land crops. The amount of the Government share in Hindu times was very fluctuating. The institutes of Menu would have it that the State should take of grain only "an eighth part, a tenth, or a twelfth, according to the difference of the soil, and the labor necessary to cultivate it." But it is quite certain that the average share under Hindu governments considerably exceeded these theoretical limits. The Hindu share was, as first mentioned, probably less than the Mahomedan share, but it must have been very much above the share of Menu, or it will be impossible to account for

the slow development of individual landed property. It is probable that in times of war the land demand was increased.

Certain characteristics have been mentioned which are believed to have been broadly true of the whole of Southern India in ancient Hindu times. If a step forward is taken, and the approximately modern ante-Mahomedan period is considered, we find considerable variations in different parts of the country. For convenience sake we may roughly divide the country as existing at that period into three principal tracts, the Tamil Country, the West Coast, and the Telugu Country.

State of the
country
before the
Mahomedan
invasions.

The Tamil country lies between Nellore on the north and the most southern extremity of the East Coast, skirting the Mysore plateau on the eastern side. It was the scene of the three old Hindu dynasties of Pandya, Chola, and Chera. The exact limits of these kingdoms cannot now be traced, and without doubt was in a state of constant change. It is only known with certainty that they met near Caroor, about 40 miles west of Trichinopoly, a town which alternately passed into the hands of each of the rivals. Pandya is generally identified with Madura, Chola with Tanjore, and Chera with Salem. In the Tamil country the republican form of village community above mentioned was especially prevalent. On the first establishment of a Tamil village the rights of occupancy of the whole land were divided into a number of equal shares or "ploughs," and apportioned to the different members of the settling community. At the earliest stage it is probable that there was common cultivation, and that the net produce after payment of taxes was divided according to the shares. Subsequently individual cultivation seems to have been carried on, but the land to be cultivated by each was reapportioned by lot in the original proportions either annually or at every five, six, or ten years. In Tanjore, Tinnevely, Madura, Dindigul, and the other Tamil provinces south of the Coleroon, individual occupancy seems to have arisen at an early date. The division of lands was then considered permanent, and as far as occupation and cultivation went, the ancient collective tenure was converted into one of severalty. For all other purposes, however, the communistic principle still prevailed. A sharer could not sell his land without the consent of the community, and on the other hand the possession of a share, whether inherited or acquired by sale or mortgage, gave a proportionate claim to all incidents common to the village, as for instance the advantage arising out of mines or quarries, fisheries, forests, taking up of new waste, pasturage, &c. Gradually the shares became subdivided; but in the accounts of the village the original partition always remained, the small holdings being represented in terms fractional of the original shares, and the possessor of a reduced share possessing a corresponding share of the

The Tamil
Country.

communistic rights and duties. The name given to these communistic rights and duties was Kaniachi among the Vellalars. When the property fell into the hands of the Brahmins it was called Swastium. The same property when found in the possession of Mahomedans or Native Christians was called Mirási, the name now most usually employed in all cases; Mirás is an Arabic word, meaning inheritance or patrimony. Pasangkarei in Tamil and Sarwadáyam in Sanscrit are also terms for the same thing. In some instances, principally in Tanjore, the whole Mirási of a village was vested, either by purchase or otherwise, in the hands of one individual; it was then called Ekabhogam. The duties of the individual Mirásidars, as such, consisted of paying certain small taxes or "Merei" to the community for purposes of internal village administration. The following list taken from old accounts is illustrative of the nature of these taxes:—To feeding Brahmins on particular festivals; to lighting the village temples and gates; to expenses incurred on certain anniversaries; to feeding travellers and strangers, one meal to each; to repairing the village wall; to repairing the chief temple; to constructing a new gate for the village; paid to certain men for killing a tiger, &c., &c. The rights of the Mirásidars were more numerous than their duties, the institution being one for the assertion rather of the former than of the latter. Against the Government the Mirásidars asserted freedom from all interference in the apportionment of land within the village boundary, or in the management of village affairs; claiming the exclusive right to a hereditary possession and usufruct of the former and a hereditary authority in the latter. In Tondeimandalam lying between the south of Nellore and the Coleroon, or the country now comprising Chingleput and North and South Arcot, the Mirásidars claimed also as a perquisite a portion of arable land, called Grama Manyam, free of all Government demands. Against non-Mirásidars the claims of the Mirásidars were the same as those of any owner of landed property against strangers, the latter having no part in the corporation and being admitted to cultivate only on sufferance. Non-Mirásidars paid village taxes to the Mirási corporation, and these contributions eventually no doubt removed the necessity for the Mirásidars themselves making any contributions at all; at the present day we find the Mirásidars in some localities claiming such contributions from non-Mirásidars, in the form of a proportionate deduction from the gross produce of lands paying tax to Government, and this merely as a perquisite and without making any return for it. The village government was carried on by a panchayet, or body of five, and the headman was only president in a sort of council. The management of all internal details and the realization of the Government dues from the individual cultivator vested with this body or their delegates, and public opinion was no doubt the check on injustice.

The collection of the revenue cost the Government nothing. The demand was a maximum demand liable to remissions on the report of the village authorities. In early times each village was composed of a number of families claiming to be of the same brotherhood or class, and generally the villages in the same part of the country were of one tribe or subdivision of a tribe. The principal caste was that of the Vellalar, the professional cultivator. Non-Mirásidars were nearly always tenants of the Mirásidars collectively or severally, and in that capacity they were called Payakaries. Besides the village mereis, they paid an ordinary rent. The profit of the Mirásidar owner after paying Government dues was called Swamybhogum or landlord's profit. In many cases one family of tenants rented the same farm at a stipulated amount of share of produce for several generations, and thus gradually acquired a prescriptive right to remain and not to have their rents raised. They also gradually acquired rights of alienation. This class of tenants was called Ul-kudi or inside cultivator. Tenants who had not attained to such a position were called Para-kudi or foreign cultivator. These tenancies resembled very closely those of the *coloni* and *aratores* of the Roman empire. That the Mirásidars enjoyed a clear landlord's rent, and that individual property gradually arose, may be seen from deeds of sale belonging to the period. The Mirási system flourished as long as the Government demand was not excessive. The Mahomedan rulers are generally supposed to have augmented the land-tax to such a point as to have absorbed all landlords' rents, and to have reduced the Mirásidars to much the same position as an Ul-kudi. Tanjore retained the Mirási system the longest, and at the beginning of this century the landlord's rent was still about 25 per cent. of the crop. At the same period the Tinnevely rent had sunk to 13½ per cent. It should be mentioned, to render the description of the Tamil system complete, that Manyams or alienations of State demands on certain lands were already prevalent in the Hindu period. In these cases the alienation was either in favor of a village servant in accordance with custom and under the authority of the village register, when it was classed as Tarabadi; or in favor of some independent person under special grant from the ruling power, when it was called Sanad or Dumbala. The Mirásidars paid the Government tax on Manyam lands to the persons to whom the rights of Government were under these arrangements transferred. Occasionally the payee would himself get possession of the land, and pay the Government dues to himself; whether this was done with the consent of the Government, or only by accident and encroachment, is a point much debated.

The tract of country known to ancient Hindu geographers as Kerala —The West—
comprised the whole of the tract lying along the Western Coast and ^{ern Coast.}

under the mountains as far as Gokurna in North Canara. Travancore and Cochin were from the first under rajahs belonging to the land-owning class. Malabar was similarly ruled, but broke up in the ninth century into a number of petty principalities, among the chief of which was that of the Zamorins at Calicut, found still in authority by Vasco da Gama at the end of the fifteenth century. Tuluva, or Canara as it has erroneously been called by the British, was established as a separate Hindu dynasty held by the land-owning class; but in the twelfth century this dynasty made way for that of the Pandyan, and a century later for that of the Telugu-speaking kings of Vijayanagar, the representatives of the old Carnatic or Canara Empire. The characteristic of the whole of the Kerala country was the presence of a strongly developed personal and individual land-property, the absence of a Government tax on land, the absence of a concentrated village system such as obtained in the Carnatic, and the existence of a military tenure similar to the feudal system of Europe. The country was originally subdivided between a race of Brahmins, or priests called Namboories, and a military tribe called Nairs; these two holding in subjection the agriculturalists of the country, consisting of persons called Teers and others. The Nairs paid no land-tax, but attended the kings to the field with their retainers. The Namboories also paid no land-tax, but furnished the expenses for the support of the temples. In the ninth century a Zamorin of Calicut became a convert to Mahomedanism, and about this time a large colony of Mahomedan settlers of Arabian descent were allowed to occupy lands in Malabar. These Mahomedans, called Moplahs, were mostly merchants, and were equally exempted from payment of direct land-tax. In the absence of land-tax the kings of the country had considerable domains assigned to them, which were cultivated by slaves and yielded a sufficient revenue for household expenses. The subordinate chiefs maintained their own internal police arrangements, and, excepting in time of war, the personal expenses of the rajahs were not large. But they were not without other branches of revenue. A succession duty equal to 25 per cent. on the value of the estates was levied on Mahomedan subjects being land-holders. There were also import and export duties, mint duties, fines, escheats, confiscations, protection money received from persons of other states who claimed asylum, benevolences in the shape of offerings made to the crown at great festivals or on an occasion, and fees on marriages of important persons. There were also license-taxes, and royalties on gold ore, elephants, ivory, teak-trees, bamboos, and vessels wrecked on the coast. The inhabitants of the West Coast did not congregate together in villages, but resided in scattered habitations on their farms and in their gardens. For fiscal arrangements there were authorities in charge of defined tracts of country. The proprietary

right in the land differed from Mirasi right in being individual and not communistic. Whether enjoyed by the original Nairs and Namboories, or by the more recent Moplahs, it was equally called Jennum, or birth-right. The owners seldom cultivated their own lands, but let them out on limited leases to tenants called Patomkars. The Crown ceased to recognize the immunity from land-tax if an original Jennumdar once parted by sale with his right. Hence mortgage was the rule of the country, and sales scarcely ever occurred. The mortgagee again could not acquire the Jennum right by simply foreclosing; the landlord never losing the power of subsequently reclaiming his property by paying the principal, and being always entitled to some recognition of his ownership even if it were only given in the shape of a sheaf of corn or a pound of butter. The Malabar mortgages possessed another peculiarity in the principle of self-redemption. On the death of the owner of mortgaged lands, it was usual for the heir to furnish a new instrument recognizing the act of his predecessor, but on this occasion he was entitled to deduct 13 per cent. from the principal of the debt. Thus in a few generations the lands reverted to the ancient family proprietors. These were the primitive tenures of the West Coast, and as long as they were recognized by the governments, there can be little surprise that landed property so carefully protected should be strongly asserted by the holders. There is no trace that up to the time of the Mahomedan invasions there was any land-tax south of Tuluva, and in the southernmost part of Tuluva it must have been even then a very light one. The Tuluva country began to change its land-revenue features in the thirteenth century when invaded by the Pandyan king. On that occasion the original Nairs seemed to have been dispossessed in favor of a race of cultivators called Hullers, and in making the transfer of property the land-tax, such as it was, suffered an increase. It is reported that the new government required the grain to be husked before being delivered into the public stores, thus adding 10 per cent. to the impost. In A.D. 1336 when Tuluva came under the Rajah of Vijayanagar, the system was still further adapted to that prevailing in the north.

Regarding the Telugu country as it existed in the pre-Mahomedan period there is much less to say than regarding the two other main divisions of the Presidency; partly because it had less characteristic features, and partly because such special features as it possessed have been almost entirely obliterated by the subsequent Mahomedan and British occupations, and information on the subject is therefore very meagre. As far as can be ascertained, the village system in the Telugu country was more of the ancient non-republican form than in the more southern parts of the country. There are traces, however, in

—The Telugu Country.

certain parts, of a right akin to Mirási right in the ancient landholders whom the Mahomedans called Kadeem. It is known that a large proportion of the cultivators, if not all of them, possessed under the old rajahs the privilege of hereditary occupancy, and that their assessment was light. Hence the land must have been saleable. Traces of landed proprietorship are however by no means so clear as on the West Coast, or even as in Tondeimandalam. The hilly portions of the country seem to have been from time immemorial parcelled out among chieftains of the military class, who held hereditarily, exercised uncontrolled territorial jurisdiction within their limits, and appropriated the entire revenues subject to the condition of performing military service or other offices at the court of their superior rajah, at Cuttack or Vijayanagar for instance. In the plains were found a number of petty non-military Hindu rajahs, forming an ordinary landed aristocracy. These petty chieftainships obtained more or less all over the Presidency, but are the more noteworthy in the Telugu country, because it is there that they have been principally supported and incorporated into the revenue system by subsequent governments. The origin of these chieftainships was no doubt various, and while some represented old families, others were at the time of the Mahomedan invasions little more than Government officers for the collection of revenue in large tracts.

Mahomedan
invasions.

India has twice been subject to Mahomedan rule, once under the Turks after the invasion of Mahommed of Ghuznee in the eleventh century, and once under the Moguls after the invasion of Baber in the sixteenth century. On each of these occasions the southern part of the peninsula was overrun by the conquerors, though not to the same extent as more northern provinces. About the year 1300 Allahoodéen formally completed the conquest of the Deccan; and in the year 1347 we find direct Mahomedan authority extending as far south as the Kistna River. There is no accurate account of the mode in which the Turks raised supplies, but it was probably through the local Hindu chiefs. The occupation was strictly a military one, and the police and revenue administration still remained for the most part in the hands of the local chiefs. There is no distinct trace of any changes of the land revenue system. The Mahomedans were well content to leave such institutions as they found them, and indeed the only information now available as to the rates of taxation peculiar to the Hindus is that given by the Mahomedan historian Ferishta. It is asserted that the Turkish invasion had the indirect effect on landed property of forcing up the land demand exacted by the Hindu chiefs, and so of weakening private property. In the interval between the Turkish and Mogul dynasties a number of the Hindu kingdoms of the south were absorbed by Mahomedan kingdoms, the result of incessant petty wars.

This period saw the rise of the farming system, mere outside speculators taking the place in many cases of the old native rajahs. Where the Mahomedans found it inconvenient to deal with village communities and native rajahs were not at hand, they appointed farmers of the land revenue. Such men undertook the farm as a mere temporary speculation, without acquiring any local rights, claims or ties of any kind, and without interfering in any way with the existing rights of the cultivators. By the time that Akber succeeded to the throne in 1556, the conquest of the country was sufficiently confirmed to enable him to inaugurate measures of a more detailed nature for regulating the revenue system. Akber perfected the land settlement of his predecessor Shir Khan; and Malik Amber, an Abyssinian under the Mahomedan princes of the south, and Sevajee among the Mahrattas, carried out Akber's principles in a large portion of the south. The farming system had naturally led to abuses on the part of the farmers and to resistance on the part of the cultivators, and Akber was desirous of superseding it. He endeavoured to settle in all cases with village communities. With this object he surveyed and classified the lands in the villages, took the average produce of each class of land, ascertained the average price of produce for ten years past, and took one-third of the average gross produce paid in cash as the Government demand. In this way was calculated the amount to be paid by each village. At the same time a detailed statement was drawn up of the amount payable by each cultivator, for the guidance of the village authorities. The close similarity between these assessment arrangements and the assessment arrangements of the present day will be observed, and at the same time this important distinction, that village settlements have been abandoned. The assessment obtained under Akber's system was less than former assessments, but it was anticipated that the difference would be made up by increased punctuality of payment, for the joint responsibility of the community was the condition on which the reduced rates and other advantages were accorded to the villagers. The community managed their own affairs and disposed of their own waste. Under this settlement lands exempted from revenue were registered and inquired into, and those that were improperly held were resumed. Remissions were given on the occurrence of great calamities, but not otherwise. Payment was enforced by personal restraint and seizure of goods, but not by sale of lands. On the other hand the Government reserved the right to take land from those who would not cultivate and give it to others. The Mahomedan arrangements of this period were probably in many respects rather theoretical than practical, for a very short time afterwards the former farming system is found again re-established all over the country.

Early measures of the British Government.

When the administration of Southern India fell into the hands of the British the state of things was briefly as follows. Large farms were held by large renters called Zemindars, or in a few cases by native chiefs dating from the pro-Mahomedan period; certain single villages were farmed by the headmen; and in other villages the more perfect democratic communities made joint-bargains for lump payments. The part of the country first acquired, and where the first administrative steps had to be taken, was the Northern Circars, or the tract lying on the northern extremity of the present Madras Presidency between the sea-board and the Orissa hills. As little was known by the Company's servants about the tenures or settlements of the country the detailed administration was at first left entirely in the hands of the natives, the European officials merely keeping the books. The farming system was carried out even further than before. This administration was not successful. The Circars were divided into Zemindari lands, or land found in the hands of middlemen, and Havelly lands or lands not so found. At the outset the British put renters even into the Havelly lands. The Zemindars invariably sub-rented the lands to another middleman, and the speculators or renters put in by the British into the non-Zemindari lands had little regard for the welfare of the cultivators. In either case the actual cultivator retained a very small share of produce. This state of things lasted but a few years however, and in 1769 the Fort St. George Government took the detailed administration into its own hands and set about making improved settlements. The first step was to appoint Provincial Councils. They found the work too great, and did not effect much. The next step was the appointment by the Court of Directors of a Special Commission, or Committee of Circuit as it was called, consisting of certain members of the Madras Council, with instructions to make tours in the districts and institute inquiries into rights and interests. The instructions of the Court of Directors were conceived in a liberal and enlightened spirit, and were clearly and emphatically expressed. But this Committee was also a failure. The Provincial Courts did not sufficiently support its operations, and the middlemen did their best to create impediments. No fixed system was introduced. Annual leases were granted in the first instance, then settlements for three and five years. The Havelly lands were let in some cases on the village joint-settlement system, but the settlements were imperfectly made. In 1786 a Board of Revenue was established at Madras, on the pattern of the Board already existing in Bengal, and about the same time individual Collectors took the place of the Provincial Councils in the Circars.

Contemporary measures in Bengal.

In the same year that the Madras Government entered on the management of the Northern Circars, the Bengal Government assumed

that of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa; and experiments were conducted in the latter case in very much the same way as in the former. The Bengal Government however came earlier to a decision, and when Lord Cornwallis came to India as Governor-General in 1786 the plan of the permanent settlement with the Bengal Zemindars had already been arranged. An experimental settlement of the whole of Bengal for a ten-year period was announced in 1789, and in 1792 the experiment of a permanent settlement was declared to be confirmed.

The permanent alienation of the land revenue thus made to the Bengal middlemen had some supporters in Madras, and pressure was brought to bear on Madras by the Bengal Government to adopt the same policy in this Presidency. The Court of Directors wrote out to the same effect in 1795. The Madras Board of Revenue however reported that they were hardly prepared to recommend the perpetuation of the settlement, and that they required time for the collection of further information. In 1799 positive orders were brought off from England that Lord Cornwallis' permanent system was to be adopted throughout the Madras Presidency. On this occasion the Governor-General proclaimed his resolution to remove from office any public servant who evinced a want of zeal in fulfilling the intentions of Government. Eventually the Madras Government reported to the Supreme Government that they were possessed of materials for a permanent zemindari settlement in certain parts of the country. Lord Wellesley, who had by this time succeeded to the Governor-Generalship, directed the commencement of operations in the lands on the East Coast. A Special Commission was accordingly appointed, and between the year 1802 and 1804 the northern districts of Madras were permanently assessed. The lands already in the hands of Zemindars were confirmed to them in perpetuity, the assessment being fixed according to local circumstances. The Havelly lands were parcelled out into estates of a convenient size, yielding from 3,500 to 17,500 rupees annual rent, or in some cases more, and were sold as Mootahs or perpetually settled revenue farms, to the highest auction bidder. Regulation XXV of 1802 constituted both those descriptions of landholders "proprietors," and detailed the terms on which they held their property.

The country round Madras known as the Jaghire had been obtained from the Nawab of Arcot, partly in 1750 and partly in 1763, in return for services rendered to that State. The history of its settlement at the period now under notice is of special interest, inasmuch as it shows joint-village settlements made as late as the end of the last century, and only superseded by the forcible imposition of the permanent settlement. The Jaghire was placed in 1794 in the hands of Mr. Lionel Place, and it is to this gentleman that we are indebted for the first correct infor-

mation as to landed tenures in Southern India. The villages in the Jaghire were discovered by Mr. Place to be of the class already described as democratic or Mirasi. The villages, that is to say, were corporate bodies, with an internal municipal constitution, and with the land the property of the corporation. The land was sub-divided into shares which were saleable, and still retained all the value of real property. In each village there were besides the corporate members, cultivators holding as tenants of the corporation and having on their side prescriptive rights according to ancient agreements. Again there was a third class cultivating from year to year without other privileges than that of doing so. The distinction between the shareholder and the tenant consisted in the fact that the latter could not sell his rights of occupancy, nor enjoy any of the various immunities and advantages belonging to the former as a member of the corporation. Mr. Place in making his settlements, dealt with the whole communities and not with any particular individual, and left it to the villagers to assess themselves individually. Each village chose its own representative or representatives. There is every reason to suppose that the joint village settlements of Mr. Place would have proved successful. They were not allowed however even a few years' trial. Under the orders of the Court of Directors the Jaghire was permanently settled in 1802, the lands being divided into sixty-one estates bearing an assessment of from 7,000 to 17,500 rupees, and put up to public auction as Mootahia or proprietary estates.

Acquisition
of other terri-
tories.

Whilst these measures for the settlement of the more ancient territories of the Company were in progress, new territories were being added to the Presidency, and the question of land-assessment came up again for discussion in connexion with the parts of the country ceded to the English in the south. In 1792 the first war with Tippoo placed a considerable tract of country, comprising the Baramahl, or Salem as it is now called, Dindigul, and Malabar, in the hands of the English. The second war with Tippoo added Canara and Coimbatore. According to a treaty made with the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1800 the whole territory lying south of the Toongabudra and of the Kistna river after its junction with the former, was ceded in perpetuity, constituting what are now called the Ceded Districts. In 1801 all the possessions of the Nawab of Arcot in the Carnatic were made over to the British, thus carrying their possessions down to Cape Comorin.

Dealings
with the
Poligars.

In the lands thus newly acquired the same distinction was found as in the Northern Circars. That is to say, there were lands holding direct from Government, and lands holding through intermediary chiefs. The latter went in the south by the name of Poligars. They may be classed under three heads, as :—1st, descendants of the royal families of Vijayanagar, Conjeveram, and Madura; 2nd, the military

feudal chieftains of those sovereignties who had resisted the conquest of the Mahomedans, and had either retained by force, or through indulgence and tolerance, the estates which they had enjoyed under their ancient governments; 3rd, district collectors who had contrived to elude the immediate control of the Mahomedans, and who had gradually usurped the sovereignty of the districts. These distinctions were not recognized by the Mahomedans. All the Poligars were made to pay tribute and not according to any fixed principle, but according to the power of the government to enforce it. The management of their chiefships, and the control of their subjects, were left entirely to the Poligars; but they were almost always at war with their neighbours or in revolt against the State. Whenever the exactions of the Mahomedans were considered exorbitant they were resisted, and even if the dues were eventually paid, the Poligar took the earliest opportunity of reimbursing himself and of taking revenge by an attack on the villages holding direct of the Government. In many cases the Government ryots were obliged to compromise with the invaders by agreeing to pay a stipulated amount, denominated kavel or protection-money. This was, in fact, a sum paid to one Poligar to induce him to give protection against the encroachment of others. Under the systematic control of the British Government it was highly necessary to check the unbridled conduct of the Poligars, but having no knowledge of their true rights the Government were not always successful in dealing with them. Permanent settlements, which left about two-thirds or more of their estimated revenue, were made in the Chittoor, Kalastry, Venkataghiry, and Bomrauz Pollams; and most of those chieftains or their descendants still retain their hereditary estates. In the southern part of the Tamil country there were thirty-three Poligars, for the realization of whose tribute it was found necessary to appoint a separate European Collector. These Poligars fought desperately for what they conceived to be their rights, and their reduction forms a noteworthy incident in the military history of the Presidency. Of those chiefs who had held their patrimonial estates for several generations, we find in the year 1803 thirteen only still in possession; the lands of fourteen others were under charge of the European Collector, and six were forfeited, given away, or sold. In the districts ceded by the Nizam in 1800 there were eighty Poligars. These also resisted the Government, and had to be reduced to subjection by force of arms. In 1807 they were found to have been thus disposed of: Pensioned 2, holding a Jaghire 1, residing on their estates deprived of authority 23, managing their own estates 40, expelled by force 6, in confinement 8, total 80.

Turning to the settlement of the lands not held by Poligars, the first Settlement of case calling for special notice is that of the operations in Baramahl Baramahl.

showing the rise of the ryotwari system. In 1792 a Commission was appointed to take charge of the Baramahl, with Captain Read at its head. Captain Read was assisted by three junior Military officers, Macleod, Graham, and Munro, and by Mr. Hurdis, a Civilian. The military exactions of Tippoo are supposed to have disorganized the natural institutions of the country and to have impaired the efficiency of the village corporations. However this may be, it is certain that the new Commission directed their attention rather to individuals than to communities. In the Tahsildars of the period they found mere receivers of the revenue, and as the idea of dealing with village communities was not favored, there was no alternative but to deal with the individual cultivator. A system of individual settlements involved a detailed survey of fields, and this work was at once undertaken. The settlement also aimed at making moderate assessments and at guaranteeing them for a short period of years. Though the assessment was to be fixed for a period, every man was to be able to add to or throw up his lands annually. No increases were to be made in the assessment on account of improvements made by the ryot, such as digging of wells, building tanks, or converting dry land into garden or rice-fields. By 1798 the Commission had completely surveyed the Baramahl and determined the rents which should be paid on the ryotwari system. The average assessment per acre was on the dry lands in the southern division 2 rupees, in the centre $1\frac{1}{2}$ rupee, and in the northern division 1 rupee. On wet lands, it was in the southern division 11 rupees, in the centre $6\frac{1}{2}$, and in the northern division $5\frac{1}{2}$. The average rent was little more than 3 shillings an acre on the common soils, and the average contribution of each cultivator was about 70 shillings a year. The ryotwar system, as thus propounded, was approved in theory by the Directors in England, but it was treated as an experimental measure and no practical steps were taken for confirming it. In 1799 orders were received, as already mentioned, for a permanent Zemindari or Mutahtari settlement throughout Madras. In pursuance of this decree the Baramahl was divided in the years 1803, 1804, and 1805 into 228 revenue farms, which were sold by auction to the highest bidders. The numerous bankruptcies which occurred showed that there was some flaw in the system. A great many of the farmers failed in the second year after having pillaged the villages placed under them. The system could not be carried out, and a return was almost immediately made to ryotwari. The supporters of the Zemindari system asserted that it failed in Baramahl only because the assessments had already been fixed too high by Read's Commission. On the side of the village-settlement system it is said that no trial was made of it. The practical result however was that ryotwari prevailed. What is said here of the Baramahl applies for the most part to the history of adjacent parts

during the same period, for instance of Dindigul and Coimbatore. The Ceded Districts were brought under the ryotwar system by Colonel Munro a few years later.

The remainder of the Madras provinces consisted of Malabar and Canara. The ancient feudal system which existed in Malabar has already been mentioned. The country was in the hands of a race of rajas or military leaders, and their retainers the Nairs, holding in subjection the Teers, and other laborers, the ancient inhabitants of the country. Instead of the districts in Malabar being assessed at so many thousand pagodas, they were rated at so many men liable to be called to the field. At the peace of 1792 Malabar was ceded to the British Government by Tippoo Sultan. It had been first invaded by the Mahomedans under Hyder Ally thirty-four years previously; its invasion being invited in the first place by the Palghat Rajah to enable him to repel the attack of the Zamorin of Calicut. The landlords of Malabar did not yield readily, and in the struggles which ensued between them and the Mysore Government most of the ancient landed proprietors were either killed or expelled. In the year 1783 Arshed Beg Khan was put in by Hyder as Governor of Malabar, and his administration appears to have been more lenient and equitable than that of any of his predecessors. The principles of his assessment are said to have been as follows:—to the cultivator $5\frac{1}{2}$ tenths, to the proprietor $1\frac{1}{2}$ tenths, to the Government 3 tenths. Shortly after the cession to the British a committee, consisting of two Bengal and two Bombay servants, were deputed to make a settlement of the country; and their report, issued in 1793, consisting of several volumes, furnishes a full account of the district. In this province, where the landholders maintained that not only were they the proprietors of their estates, but that under the Native princes they had never paid a land-tax at all, the doctrine of State proprietary right to the land then prevailing and a claim to half the produce assumed in other places, were not likely to be acceptable. The Bengal and Bombay Commissioners found that in Malabar no such claims could be enforced, and they proposed to regulate the future demand by the assessment of Arshed Beg Khan. The first settlement, or rather realization of revenue, fell short of that amount by about 25 per cent., and an attempt to raise the rates caused an open rebellion, which lasted for some years and cost a heavy expenditure of lives and money. In 1800 the province was transferred from the Bombay to the Madras Government, and its management was made over to Major Munro, the advocate of ryotwari, who in effect introduced the ryotwari system there. One of the earliest of this officer's measures was a survey and assessment. These led to urgent complaints, which were unattended to, and which ended in another rebellion more violent than the former. The second rebellion

was suppressed, more by conciliation than coercion, and the result was the recognition on the part of Government of the proprietary right of the landholders to their estates. Peace being restored, the chief Brahmins and landed proprietors assembled at the Collector's invitation at his office, where they selected a committee from among themselves, to arrange matters for the future administration of the province. On this occasion the landholders agreed, after allowing 50 per cent. of the produce to the cultivator, to pay to Government a sum of money estimated at 20 per cent. of the gross produce themselves, retaining 30 per cent. as rent. It was decided that the assessment should be founded on the survey and assessment of 1800. Affairs remained thus for several years, but meanwhile many complaints were made as to the inequality of the assessment, the people not being satisfied with the arrangement of 1800. In 1817 Colonel Munro, who had been the principal agent in suppressing the last rebellion and in making the last settlement, was deputed to visit and report on the condition of the province; the chief result of the visit was a reduction in the assessment. It should be mentioned that there are no compact villages in Malabar similar to those in the Carnatic. The taluks in Malabar are divided into Amshoms, which are again subdivided into Deshams. Over each Amshom is a headman called Adhigari, associated with an accountant called Menon. These officials are paid by fixed salaries. The Deshams are presided over by honorary headmen called Mukyastans. The houses are scattered, and there is therefore no village-site.

Settlements
in Canara.

In Canara individual landed property was not so demonstrable a fact as in Malabar. The primitive constitution of the district had been changed at its conquest in the 13th century by the Pandyan kings, and subsequently by the kings of Vijayanagar. In later times it had been partially subdued by Hyder, whose exactions, continued and augmented by his successor Tippoo, are said to have impoverished the landlord class. When the British Government obtained possession, the saleable lands were few in number and limited in extent, and many of the landlords were reduced to the situation of laborers on their own estates. Still there could be no doubt with whom the Government should settle; proprietary rights were strong enough to render the question of employing middlemen or of making joint-rent village settlements quite unnecessary. Major Munro entered this district for settlement in 1800, and at once established a ryotwar system which was not subsequently modified. The extent of land in Canara for purposes of assessment has always been measured by the amount of seed it takes to sow it. The settlement for a share of the produce has always been in the name of an individual holder, against whose name in the public accounts is entered every charge to which he is liable. This is the holder's "wurg" or account, a word which has come to mean "holding"

in the Revenue system. Major Munro found this method of settlement obtaining, and continued it without change. No alteration was allowed in any man's wurg except on good cause being shown. No general survey of the district was introduced, but partial surveys were instituted for the purpose of obtaining general data for assessment. A complete register, called the Bijawari register, was formed of the extent, calculated by the seed, of each holder's wurg. The only difficulty was with the amount of the assessments. The settlement of Hurry Hur Roy, Rajah of Vijayanagar, made in the 14th century, was for a long time the standard assessment. Hurry Hur Roy took $2\frac{1}{2}$ katties of seed as the basis of the calculation, and assuming the proportion between seed and gross produce to be that of 1 to 12, he apportioned the gross produce thus:—to the landlord $7\frac{1}{2}$ katties, to the cultivator 15 katties, to the Government $7\frac{1}{2}$ katties. The Bednore Government left this assessment as they found it till 1618, when the Government share was increased by 50 per cent. The total jummah of Canara at the close of the Bednore Government amounted to pagodas 330,827. Hyder increased this to pagodas 533,202. Colonel Munro's settlement in 1800 amounted to pagodas 465,148; of this pagodas 284,603 was composed of the ancient land-tax or Shist, and pagodas 180,545 stood for extra assessments imposed by the Bednore and Mysore Governments, the extra imposts of the latter being called Shamil. The inequalities caused by the new British assessment were found in the course of a few years to be intolerable, and in 1817 a thorough investigation was instituted, ending eventually in the so-called Tharao assessment in 1819. The Tharao was a maximum assessment which the Collector could not exceed of his own authority, and was based on a detailed investigation of the collections on particular estates. The Tharao assessment was considered a moderate one when it was made, but it was a considerable time before the country attained even that standard, and constant remissions were necessary. The total amount of the Tharao assessment for the entire province of Canara was Rupees 15,24,879 on 34,216 ryots as against Rupee 16,72,607 of the ancient Beriz comprising both Shist and Shamil. Canara has since been divided into two separate divisions, the southern division only remaining with Madras, the northern division going to Bombay. The village arrangements in South Canara are somewhat similar to those in Malabar, each wurg having its house situated upon it. The headmen of villages are called Potails, and the curuams, of whom there is one for each group of villages termed Magane or Taraf, are called Shanbagues.

In the various experiments which were made during the first twenty years of the century in the mode of settlement for the land-revenue, the Zemindari and Ryotwari systems played the most important part. Trial of village-rent system.

The village joint-rent system was not however entirely overlooked. In 1808 this method was given a general trial in several districts on the authority of the Court of Directors. The Madras Board of Revenue were distinctly in favor of the system, and had not Colonel Munro been so much opposed to it, it is possible that it might have had a different fate. The plan was tried at first for a term of three years. The result was not entirely satisfactory. In many parts the head inhabitants, conceiving the assessment excessive and finding themselves obliged to ask for remissions annually, refused to rent their villages. Speculators then came forward and out-bid each other, so that the villages were rented at a sum beyond what they could yield, and the contractors failed. Still the Government were satisfied on the whole, and in many cases made a further ten-year settlement on the same principle. It was even proposed by some to make a perpetual village settlement. The ten-year settlement was not approved by the Court of Directors, but their objections arrived too late to be acted on. A visit to England however made by Colonel Munro had probably not been without its effect upon the opinions of the Court of Directors and the Board of Control; and towards the close of 1817 instructions were received at Madras for the abolition of the village system, and the confirmation in all practicable cases of the plan of ryotwar settlement with individual holders. It was alleged that the village system had been tried and had failed. The Revenue authorities declared that it had not been subjected to a fair trial, and that it had not failed. They alleged too that the Home authorities had decided hastily on insufficient evidence. "The judgment," the Board of Revenue wrote, "which has been pronounced in England against the village system, is founded on a very partial and unfavorable view of its results; for it does not appear that the authorities at home had, at the time when that judgment was passed, any information before them respecting any other portion of it than its commencement, the triennial settlement." And they urged that the result of that settlement was no test of the success or failure of the system, inasmuch as the lands had been subjected to an over-assessment, "founded upon the fallacious data of the Ryotwar collections."

Final
establishment
of Ryotwari.

The Ryotwar system was however by this time in favor at home, and orders were sent out for its reintroduction, in all possible cases, under certain modifications prescribed by the Court. At this period, in Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Rajahmundry, Masulipatam, Guntur, Salem, Chingleput, the Cuddalore District, and the Western, Southern, and Chittoor Pollams, the Permanent Zemindari system prevailed; in the Ceded Districts, Nellore, the two divisions of Arcot, Palnad, Trichinopoly, Tinnevely, and Tanjore, the village system had been introduced; and the ryotwar system was fully established only in Malabar, Canara,

Coimbatore, Madura, and Dindigul. The orders were carried out; and all the necessary preliminaries having been gone through, the village leases having expired, many of the new Zemindaries or Mootahs having lapsed or been bought in, the improved ryotwar system was declared to be established in Madras. Colonel Munro himself, who had been appointed to the chief place in the Government, took his seat in time to preside over the act of final establishment in the spring of 1820. Since 1820 there has been a periodic revision of the rates of assessment in ryotwari lands; a Special Commission has dealt with the whole question of Inam or rent-free lands; and various legal enactments have been passed for the protection of various landed interests or for the realization of the Government dues. In the broad policy of Government however as to tenures and settlements there has been no change.

(b).—PRESENT LAND TENURES.

Whatever be the correct theory of law or political economy as to the nature of the rights of Government in respect to land, an abstract question which has been much and perhaps uselessly discussed, it is quite evident that they must, as a Government representing the interests of the people at large, exercise a considerable amount of interference in affairs connected with the land. Whether this is called executive administration or exercise of a proprietary right is not of much importance. It is certain that a modern Government assumes large powers of interference under the unwritten traditional law of this and all other countries. The subject of land-tenures under Government will be classified here according to the extent to which the Government has parted with its own powers to control the disposal of, or the revenue demand on, the land; beginning with the cases of greatest alienation and ending with those of least. A classification according to either one or other of those two descriptions of control would have been preferable; but the subject is too complex to admit of such treatment. Following then this rough classification, the main cases to be considered will be those of:—(1) Perpetual freeholds, with fixed tenure, a title-deed showing property as against Government, and no demands representing either a land-tax or the share of the produce. Cases will be (a) holdings under recent rules for redeeming the land-revenue, (b) holdings under the rules for redeeming building-site quit-rents, and (c) holdings under the rules for redeeming enfranchised Inam quit-rents. (2) Holdings of enfranchised Inamdars, with a fixed tenure, a title-deed showing property as against Government, and a quit-rent fixed for ever, calculated at a beneficial rate. (3) Zemindaries dating from earlier than 1802, with fixed tenure, a sannad showing proprietorship

as against Government, and fixed land dues, with obligation for the Zemindar to enter into written engagements with his tenants, and subject to the law of primogeniture as to succession. (4) Proprietary estates, that is to say Zemindaries created under the authority of the Regulations of 1802, with the same conditions, but no law of primogeniture. (5) The so called Unsettled Palliems without a sannad, but with land demand fixed for ever. (6) Holdings of ryots under Ryotwari, with fixed tenure, but without a sannad expressly declaring proprietorship, and with a demand varying under certain special circumstances. (7) Inam holdings, given by Government as emolument or in charity, with no title-deed showing unconditional property, with a tenure dependent on the fulfilment of certain conditions the decision as to which rests with the Government, and with a demand calculated as under Ryotwari but at highly favorable rates, the difference between these and normal rates constituting the emolument. (8) Land held on special conditions as (a) on cowles, and (b) under the tope rules. (9) Unassigned lands still on the hands of Government, but to which, as part of village areas, certain persons have a preferential claim when application is made for their occupation. (10) Unassigned lands still on the hands of Government without any such restriction.

Perpetual
freeholds.

* Absolute and perpetual freeholds have not existed in this Presidency until quite recently, and can now be acquired only by taking the benefit of the rules for redeeming the land-revenue, building-site quit-rents, and enfranchised Inam quit-rents. In regard to the first and second of these modes of redemption, it must be observed that inasmuch as land-tax is the main constituent of public revenue it is not allowed to be redeemed universally. It is only allowed in the case of lands occupied for building purposes or intended for gardens and plantations, of lands on the Nilgiris, and the Pulny and Shevaroy hills, and of the coffee lands in the Wynad. In all these cases proprietors are allowed to redeem their land-tax, the rate of redemption being twenty-five times the sum annually paid on the land as assessment or quit-rent. The cost of survey and demarcation is borne by the person who redeems the assessment. In Zemindaries the Zemindar alone is given the right to redeem the land-revenue. In the case of ryotwari lands the proprietor holding directly from Government has alone the right. Applications for the redemption of land-revenue are disposed of by Collectors subject to an appeal to the Board of Revenue. On payment of the redemption money in full, with the cost of survey and demarcation, the party redeeming the assessment is furnished with a title-deed in a certain prescribed form. The third mode of redemption shown above introduces the question of the Inam tenures of this Presidency, but as these are described in detail under the head "Inam Commission,"

it is only necessary here to mention that Inamdars holding lands enfranchised from service or from Government resumption, but subject nevertheless to a quit-rent, may redeem that quit-rent in perpetuity at twenty years' purchase. The class of holders mentioned in this paragraph have of course unlimited powers of alienating, devising, or disposing of their land. It will be observed that the freehold is absolute against that demand of the Government only which represents the Government right to share the produce, and gives no immunity from other Government demands, such as for artificial irrigation, education, or such matters; in all of which cases the land may be subjected to separate cesses or demands. The land also will always be liable to attachment, in the same way as any other land, in the event of its becoming obnoxious to any legal penalty which authorizes its attachment or sale. The redemption in no way affects sub-tenures, right of occupancy, or other similar rights; and the freedom conferred is absolute only as against Government.

In the case of Zemindaries the land has been perpetually assigned Zemindaries by the Government, with a proprietary title, at any rate as against themselves. The land-dues however still remain as a charge on the land. The land-dues here are permanently paid, and may be taken therefore to be no longer a share of the produce but a tax. Zemindars hold under a "Sunnad-i-milkut Istimrar" and give in exchange a corresponding caboolat or acceptance. Zemindars are at liberty to transfer, without the previous consent of Government, their proprietary right in the whole or part, however small, of their Zemindaries to any person they please by sale, gift, or otherwise; and such transfers are to be held valid and to be respected by the courts and officers of Government, provided they are not repugnant to the Mahomedan or Hindu law or to the regulations of the British Government. In order to be valid against Government, and in order to liberate the transferer from his liability to Government dues, such transactions must be first registered in the Collector's office, and where there is a sub-division, the peishcush on the sub-divided portion must be adjusted by the Collector. The Government do not regulate the succession to Zemindaries. They sometimes interfere to recognize a *prima facie* claimant in cases of demise and pending decision of the law courts, but nothing more. The Zemindar is in most cases the owner of all waste land, or land not held by cultivators, within his estate, and he has certain powers of selling up cultivators for default of payment of land-tax which will be mentioned hereafter. The land being "permanently settled," that is to say, the land-revenue on it being fixed for ever, no increase of revenue accrues to the State as more and more land is brought under cultivation. Since the land-revenue on these estates was fixed their value has doubled, but the benefit goes to the Zemindar

alone. On the other hand the Zemindar's demand does not protect him from cesses for matters other than land-revenue proper. Zemindars have to keep up the regular establishment of village curnams or accountants; they appoint these officials, but a civil court alone can remove them. About one-fifth of the whole Presidency is under Zemindari. The obligations laid upon Zemindars in their dealings with their tenants will be described hereafter in treating of tenancy.

—Ancient
Zemindaries.

The principal of the ancient Zemindaries found by the British Government on its assumption of the country may be said to have been Vizianagram in the Vizagapatam District, Pittapur in the Godavari, Venkatagiri in the Nellore District, and Ramnad and Shivagunga in the Madura District; but there were numerous other large estates of the same sort, especially in the north. Those Zemindaries differ at the present moment from those subsequently created under Regulation XXV of 1802 in two respects only. In cases of succession by death the law of primogeniture obtains, the eldest son succeeding and the remainder of the family being entitled to no more than maintenance; and the Zemindar cannot encumber or alienate the estate beyond his own lifetime.

—Other
Zemindaries.

The private estates conferred under Regulation XXV of 1802 go by various names, as Proprietary Estates, Zemindaries, Muttahs, &c. They must not be confounded with Jaghires, Shrotriems, and other classes of Inam holdings; mere assignments of land-revenue already assessed by Government with no question of the Inamdars either farming the revenue or being proprietors of the land, and having no connexion with the Regulation just named. In the case of all estates which are not ancient Zemindaries, the ordinary Hindu rule of inheritance prevails. They are sub-divided and alienated freely like any other form of real property. The Government have no concern with regard to the succession.

—Details
regarding
Zemindaries.

A table in the appendix (Statement V) shows the names of all the Zemindars in the Presidency, with particulars as to their estates, according to the best information down to the present date.

Inams enfran-
chised, but
unredeemed.

Inamdars who have accepted the terms of enfranchisement, but have not redeemed the quit-rent payable on their lands, call for notice here. They pay quit-rent, but their tenure, as regards security of occupation without conditions, and fixity of land demand, is superior to that of any class of landholders other than those who have redeemed. They have full powers of alienation, while they are protected from the periodic revision of the ryotwari rates contemplated by the Revenue Settlement Department.

Poligar
estates.

Poligars hold in the southern and western portions of the Madras Presidency very much the same position as the Zemindars of the

northern districts. Originally Poligars were the descendants of officers of police and revenue agents of the Hindu sovereigns, who advanced themselves to the position of chiefs possessing military forces and strongholds. Gradually they reached the condition of tributary feudatories and proprietors of lands. Their historical relations with the British Government have already been described. All the Palliems have been assessed. Some have been granted permanent settlement under Regulation XXV of 1802, with sannads. The Palliems for which no sannads have been granted are called unsettled Palliems. Practically there is no difference between the settled and unsettled Palliems. The assessment is fixed and permanent in both cases and the succession is governed under the same principles. It was once considered that the holder of an unsettled Palliem had but a life interest in the Palliem, and that it was open to Government to dispose of the Palliem as they pleased on his death, but this view was not accepted by the Privy Council in a case recently decided by them. The Government have directed the issue of permanent sannads to the holders of all such unsettled Palliems as may be willing to accept them on the condition of continuing the tribute which they have been paying for upwards of fifty years. Most of the Poligars have accepted the sannads, but there are a few to whom they have not yet been issued. These latter then have a demand perpetually settled but no permanent title, and form a distinct class in the terms of the classification given above. There were formerly also a few estates called Palliems held for real or nominal police services to be rendered to Government in the districts of Nellore, North Arcot and South Arcot. These were settled by the Inam Commissioner and enfranchised as Inams.

The ryotwari system of holding under Government has now been the principal tenure of this Presidency for half a century. It is difficult to define it in one or two words, but this only arises from the inapplicability to oriental tenures of the phraseology of European landed property. The terms of the engagement can easily be enumerated, and these terms are sufficiently well understood and practically acted on by the persons concerned. No serious difficulty has as yet arisen owing to any difference of opinion as to the interpretation of the ryotwari contract. In ryotwari tenure the Government deals with an individual, who is technically assumed to be acting on his own account and not to be a middleman. As he is usually a very small holder this is often actually the case. The Government allow a ryot, who has once acquired possession to remain in possession as long as he pays the Government dues. Even when he becomes a defaulter, they merely sell such portion of his land as is sufficient to cover the amount due, and under cover of a special law for so doing; they do not

dispossess him by any form of eviction other than that provided by the legislature under Madras Act II of 1864. If a ryot without authorization takes possession of waste assessed land the Government do not nevertheless evict him. In the particular case of a ryot taking possession of unassessed waste land, the Government reserve the right of putting on a prohibitory assessment; for here the land is very probably land which it is undesirable to cultivate. The Government concede to the ryot complete power to alienate the land by lease, mortgage, or sale, and only stipulate that, unless he formally registers such alienation with the Collector, he will remain liable for all Government dues on the land however accruing. The trees on putta lands are absolutely the property of the puttadars, and nothing is charged for them except in the case of palmyras in the district of Tinnevely. In Tinnevely the tree-tax can be redeemed by the payment of twenty years' assessment. The most important item in the yearly demand, namely the normal land-tax, is fixed in advance and is liable to revision according to present arrangements only once in every thirty years from time of first settlement. Even when a revision takes place it has been guaranteed that no increase shall take place on account of improvements made by the cultivator himself. The normal rate of land-tax is fixed, but every year numerous questions arise of concessions made or extra demands for extra benefits conferred; the settlement of these questions takes place at the annual Jummabundy. Moreover, the ryot has the power of yearly increasing, decreasing, or entirely abandoning his holdings; this has also to be attended to at the Jummabundy. The law courts have recently declined to recognize the proprietary rights evidenced by the power to create an easement against Government, in ryotwari holders not claiming as hereditary mirasidars and newly put in by the British Government; but this is believed to be a new doctrine. The ryotwari system has taken the place in most localities of the Mahomedan system of renting whole villages to a single individual and leaving it to him to sub-rent to the villagers. It is popular with the people, and creates an elastic revenue which expands as increasing population and prosperity cause more land to be taken up. On the other hand it must be observed that the absence of middlemen causes an enormous amount of detailed labor on the part of the Government.

—Principles
of settlement
of Ryotwari.

Though the State has a right to fix the land-tax at its discretion, it does so in accordance with certain principles. In ryotwari it is held that, with a few exceptions, its proper amount is half the value of the net produce of the land after the expenses of cultivation have been deducted from the gross produce. At the commencement of the ryotwari settlement the tax was determined in a somewhat rough-and-ready manner, which left many anomalies and inequalities to be afterwards rectified. The worst of these have been amended from

time to time, and at the present time there is a Survey Department which determines the exact area of villages and sub-divisions of villages (khandams) and fields, and a Settlement Department which calculates the rate of assessment for each in accordance with the "half net" principle. The calculation of produce and assessments thus revised are to be in force for thirty years. In Godavari, Kistna, and part of Kurnool an important deviation has been allowed from the "half-net" principle in the case of land irrigated by channels led from the great anicuts across the Godavari, Kistna, and Tungabudra. The land-tax there has been calculated as if the land were not irrigated, and the irrigation is charged for at a uniform rate per acre. * Further information regarding the Survey and Settlement Departments which underlie the whole ryotwari system will be found further on under the special sections allotted to those subjects.

It has already been mentioned that the Government have in times past furnished a title-deed setting out what is there called proprietary right in the case of all Zemindars either ancient or created within this century, and that they still continue to furnish such title-deeds to persons who redeem the land-dues in perpetuity by a lump sum payment. No such title-deed, however, is given to ryots holding under ryotwari, and they are left to make their own arrangements as to creating a title when they dispose of lands by private transaction. When first a ryot is put in possession of land he is furnished with a document called a putta. But this is liable to revision at each annual Jummabundy, and is merely a document to show that, according to the Government register, the ryot for that year holds, without relinquishment, such and such survey fields, or parts of them, and that the Government looks to that ryot and no other for the Government land-dues until further notice. As long as the ryot actually holds the land according to the terms of the register, it is of service to him, as showing that the Government will not attempt to put any one else in possession and will not exercise any powers of attachment or resumption of the land without first dealing with him; and the attachment to landed property is a sufficient motive to make this a very important consideration. In the law courts however a putta is very weak evidence to prove possession, inasmuch as there is nothing to show that the arrangement therein indicated has not been superseded by some subsequent private transaction, and even at the outset the Revenue officials in issuing a putta do not attempt to do more than give it to the person who has best *prima facie* claim to possession. Regulation XXVI of 1802, Section 3, declares that the court shall not recognize transfers of land other than those shown in the register of landed property, and the register coincides with the puttas issued; but this provision is held to make unregistered transfers invalid only as against

Government, and with reference to the Government dues. The putta in fact, as has lately been expressed by legal authority, does not assume to be any muniment of title, a subject on which the Government is silent; but is only a document indicating certain fiscal arrangements between the Government and the individual mentioned in it. The putta given to the ryot is his surety against Government. No document of acceptance is received by Government from the ryot, as it is considered unnecessary, the law making the land and its produce liable to attachment for arrears in the land-dues in preference to any other claim and whoever be in occupation. A register however called a Chittah, showing the settlement of each individual, is maintained in each village; ryots who are able to read are allowed to examine this register and can sign their names in it if they wish.

—Transfers
of Ryotwari
puttas.

Occasions will often arise when persons wish to transfer their ryotwari puttas to others. This the Government are always ready to do on production of agreements from both persons interested. In such cases the persons concerned prefer a joint application in the office of the Tahsildar of the taluk in which the land is situated. The Tahsildar publishes a notice thirty days in advance in the villages concerned, and if no objections are raised, he himself orders the transfer. A putta is then issued in the name of the transferee at the next Jumma-bundy. Meanwhile, as a rule, the new holder gets possession. In cases where transfer is sought under a decree from a Civil Court sanctioning the transfer, consent of the parties is of course unnecessary, nor is notice given to villagers. Looking to the fact that a transferee cannot obtain a putta except the transferer is willing to enter with him into a joint agreement to that effect, it has been suggested that a law should be passed for the protection of the transferee making registration of transfers in the Collector's register compulsory. It has not hitherto been thought, however, that the loss of the putta is of sufficient importance to the transferee to make it necessary to legislate. In the event of the demise of a person whose name is entered in the Government register, the Government themselves take steps to ascertain who is the proper successor. On the occasion of each demise the village curnam reports to the Tahsildar, and the Tahsildar reports to the Collector. In one or other of these reports, or in both of them, the name is given of the person or persons who appear *prima facie* to have the best claims to succeed, under the Hindu or Mahomedan law of succession as the case may be. The Collector, when satisfied, causes a putta to be issued in the name of the presumptive heir or heirs. The transfer of puttas is carried out as a departmental arrangement and under no legislative enactment. The most ordinary cases are where the son or sons succeed the father. Among Hindus property vesting in a person descends in the following order:—Sons, sons' sons, sons'

grandsons, wife, daughters, mother, father, brother, brothers' sons, paternal grandmother, paternal grandfather, paternal great grandfather, his sons, his sons' sons, the other ascending ancestors, and their sons and sons' sons in like order. The above is the ordinary line of succession. But there are various complications of law; for instance if an undivided member of a family dies, leaving only a widow and a brother, the latter succeeds in preference to the former. The Mahomedan law of succession is still more complicated. But the Revenue authorities do not strictly go into the details of law in issuing puttas to the heirs of the deceased individuals. The putta is issued to the *prima facie* heir or heirs, leaving the question of possession and other rights to be decided in Civil Courts. But when courts pass their decrees in regard to succession, puttas are issued by the Revenue authorities according to these decisions. The Hindu law of succession favors partition and creates very numerous sub-divisions in the puttas.

In both of the cases of transfer just named, whether that is to say — Joint puttas and divided puttas. the transfer is effected before or after death, occasions will arise when either two parties wish to be entered jointly and severally in a joint putta, or a person holding a putta desires to split it up and transfer part of it. The former case will arise occasionally when partition is inconvenient, as for instance when the heirs to a single deceased holder are joint widows; the State does not encourage joint puttas, but it raises no absolute objection if it suits the parties. The Government will not separate a putta once made joint without the consent of all the parties, even though one asserts a grievance. The latter case, where it is sought to subdivide a putta, is of course of constant occurrence. There were formerly certain regulations checking the splitting up of blocks or fields marked off by the peimash or Survey Department; but these were abolished in 1875, and there is now no limit to the smallness of a holding for which a Government putta will be issued. Inquiry is being made as to whether this entails inconvenience and whether a limit is desirable.

Assessed land will be vacant under various circumstances, as for instance, owing to its having never been occupied, or to its having been just thrown up by a ryot, or to its having lapsed to Government on a demise or at a revenue sale. When there are assessed lands in a village thus unoccupied, it is open to any individual, whether resident of the village or not, to apply for the land to be held by him under the terms of the ryotwari tenure. All applications by strangers are invariably communicated to the Mirasidars and other resident villagers so that they may have the refusal, and it is only when the Mirasidars and residents do not agree to take up the lands that they are given to strangers. When there are two or more applicants for the same land,

—Application
for Ryotwari
lands.

preference is given to the ryot whose land adjoins, and when there is no such claimant, to the first among the applicants who is a ryot of the village in preference to a stranger. But no preferential claim on the ground of possession of the adjoining land, or of the residence in the village, is admitted in favor of a ryot by whose relinquishment the land becomes unoccupied and available for allotment. In all cases Durkhasts for whole survey fields have preference over Durkhasts for portions only. The applications are in the first instance disposed of by the Tahsildar. From his decision an appeal lies to the Divisional Officer if made within thirty days; and from his decision again an appeal can be made to the Collector within thirty days. The Collector's decision is usually final, but where a Collector has passed the decision on appeal from a Tahsildar within his own division a special appeal lies to the Board of Revenue if made within forty days.

—Relinquish-
ment of
Ryotwari
lands.

Ryots are allowed to relinquish their lands provided they apply for permission to relinquish sufficiently early in the season to enable others to commence cultivation upon them. The dates up to which ryots are permitted to relinquish their lands in the several districts are shown below:—

South Canara	30th April of the fasli preceding for which relinquishment is made.
Malabar	
Ganjam	31st May do.
Vizagapatam	
Godavari	
Kistna	
Bellary	15th July of the fasli for which relinquishment is made.
Cuddapah	
Kurnool	
Nellore	
North Arcot	
Salem	15th August do.
Coimbatore	
Chingleput	
South Arcot	
Trichinopoly	
Tanjore	
Madura	
Tinnevely	

The dates vary so as to follow those of the first rains in each district. The lands relinquished must be accessible to others, otherwise the relinquishment is not accepted. For instance a ryot would not be permitted to retain all the fields in his holding except the centre one, as this would not be an eligible holding for another ryot.

—Ryotwari
on the West-
ern Coast.

The tenures and settlements as between Government and the payer of the land-dues are in Malabar and Canara professedly a mere form of ryotwari. The special arrangements which exist in those districts between the landlord and his tenants do not as a rule affect the Government, and in dealing with the occupant the Government ignore

as much as possible the existence of middlemen, or of interests other than their own. Sometimes, for instance, the Government puttadar in Malabar is a jenmi landholder with his tenants under him; and sometimes he is a Patomkar tenant owing his separate rent to a superior jenmi; but into this the Government do not go. Again in Canara, though the landlord's right or mûli-hak sometimes falls to Government by escheat, the Government are in the habit of taking steps for divesting themselves of it and of handing it over to the occupying ryot. In some respects, however, there are considerable differences between this sort of ryotwar settlement and the ordinary ryotwari settlement, even from the Government point of view. For instance there is no detailed survey in these districts, and the settlements are made not on fields but on holdings. Again, there are doubts how much waste lands are at the disposal of Government, a considerable portion being at present claimed as private property. Remissions again are never needed, owing to the certainty of the seasons and the lightness of the assessment. The ancient character of the proprietary rights enjoyed by West Coast landlords has already been seen from the historical sketch of land tenures. They are to the individual what the Mirasi rights of the Eastern Coast are to the community.

The Ooloogoo, Mottafysal and Amani systems of settlement involve questions of demand rather than of tenure. In all cases where the Government apply them, they apply them to the individual ryot, and they are therefore different forms of ryotwari. Details of the demand will be given hereafter.

A cowle is an agreement to hand over land without payment for a certain period, or on payment for a certain period of a diminished assessment gradually rising to full assessment. When the period is finished the holder becomes a ryotwari holder, but not before. In the meanwhile he is subject to the terms of the contract contained in the cowle. The cowle tenure is usually granted to induce cultivators to break up unpromising waste lands. Though much used between Zemindars, Inamdars, &c., and their tenants, cowles are not in frequent use by Government. Lands held under the tope rules hereafter to be described fall in reality, though not nominally, under this class of tenure. If the Government have good grounds under the contract for dispossessing the cowledar, they can do so and re-enter on the land. It will be noticed that this right is never claimed in the case of an ordinary Government ryot.

When the State has given up its right to the land-tax, or a portion of it, in favor of an individual or an institution, or to remunerate persons for performing certain duties, the grant is termed an Inam or Manyam. A very large number of such grants was made by former

Ordinary
Inam tenures
of land.

Governments, and it was a condition of most of them that they could not be alienated without the consent of the State, that they would escheat to Government on the failure of male heirs in the direct line, and that they might be cancelled on the occurrence of any lapse. In some cases the grants were to be resumed after a certain number of lives, that is to say after a certain number of successions by inheritance. Other Inams depended on the execution of certain religious observances, or the performance of certain State services. In 1858 a Commission was established to examine the titles of the possessors of Inams, and to enfranchise them if they wished by commuting for a moderate quit-rent the right of Government to prevent alienation, to resume, or to demand service. There are still certain Inam lands the holders of which have not accepted the terms of enfranchisement offered by the Inam Commission. These remain on the old and very restricted tenure. They are subject to favorably calculated dues on account of land-tax, but on the other hand they have a tenure very inferior to that of enfranchised Inamdars or even to that of ordinary ryotwar holders. They cannot alienate their land. Succession is prescribed as above shown in a definite way. They hold only on the fulfilment of certain conditions, and Government claims an absolute right to adjudicate as to the proper fulfilment of those conditions. In the case of Village Service Inams the tenure may almost be said to be at the pleasure of Government. Full particulars regarding Inams will be given under the heading of Inam Commission.

Farming the Revenue.

The principle of farming out the land-revenue in certain localities for a certain period has almost disappeared. Some rents, however, still remain. Thus in the Vizagapatam District the Hoongeram and Palconda Taluks are rented out on a lease of years to a mercantile firm. Reckoning these taluks and detached villages together there are throughout the Presidency 331 villages rented out, 87 in Vizagapatam, 231 in the Godavari, 12 in Chingleput, and 1 in North Arcot. A large number of these are hill-villages not surveyed and not touched by the Settlement Department. The old joint-rent system, where the villagers themselves took up the lease and were jointly and severally responsible, has now entirely disappeared. The last trace of it existed a few years ago in the hilly parts of the Godavari.

Mirasi rights.

The rights which go by the name of Mirasi must be mentioned here. They are not sufficiently strong to be classed as tenures or rights against Government, such as Zemindari or Ryotwari; but they are sometimes more than the mere preferential right to occupy new land hereafter to be mentioned, and they are recognized by the Government. The origin of mirasi rights in the Tamil country has been

already described in the historical sketch of land tenures. Nearly all that remains now of the special rights of the communal oligarchies is the claim by certain hereditary mirasidars in the Chingleput District to fees upon waste which may hereafter be brought under cultivation, and upon lands now occupied by non-mirasidars which may hereafter be thrown up and again re-occupied under the Durkhast rules. These fees, otherwise called Swatantrams, were formerly taken from the gross produce before the division of the crop, and were then paid to the mirasidars both by the ryots and by the Government. They are now made payable entirely by the ryots, liberal allowance having been made with these on arriving at the money rates of assessment charged on their lands. The Swatantram payable by the ryot under these circumstances is a yearly sum of two annas in each rupee of the Government assessment; this amount being held to represent the old average rate of 3 per cent. of the gross produce of the year. These fees are recorded by the Government in the land-revenue registers, and their collection is left to the mirasidars themselves. The total amount in the Chingleput District is very small, but the right is tenaciously held to, and represents what was in former days a highly important institution. There are some mirasi Swatantrams in Tinnevely, and possibly also in other districts, but Government has taken no steps to recognize them. It should be mentioned that the word mirasi means nothing beyond hereditary right, and that it is often applied to other rights besides the special right now under mention; it is applied, for instance, in the north to hereditary rights to village offices.

The unassigned land still in the possession of the State consists of all land which is not included in any zemindari, ryots' holding, or other land already given out by Government for occupation. If it lies, however, within the boundaries of a village, certain prescriptive rights are conceded to the villagers of that particular village, probably as a relic of the old village communal system, in the way of preferential claim to occupy; and this distinguishes the case for the purposes of the present classification from that of unassigned land not so situated. Unassigned land within a village will be either of the assessed class or the unassessed class. The mode in which assessed lands are applied for and taken up in the first instance has already been described. The unassessed land of a village is also at the disposal of the Government acting in trust for the interests of the village community. Subject to the instructions of the Government officers, certain portions are reserved for the gratuitous and communal use of the villagers, as the tanks, streets, channels, threshing-floor, burial-ground, cattle-stand, &c.; while in all cases except in the town of Madras and some places on the West Coast, a house-site, and a backyard with permission to cultivate garden produce in it, are provided gratuitously for each

Unassigned lands within villages.

family. The addition to or subtraction from the area of village-site is provided for by fixed rules. The unassessed waste lands of a village, which are not yet assigned, and which are not reserved for these special purposes, are offered for sale in convenient lots free of assessment, and subject only to local taxes. In Tanjore and Madras there are no such lands to be sold, and on the Nilgiri and Shevaroy Hills and in the Wynad the arrangements in nearly all cases fall under the head next to be mentioned. The following are the upset prices fixed for each district and lands are made over to the highest bidder above that price:—

Districts.	Forest Land.	Open Land.
Ganjam	2½ Rs. an acre	5 Rs. an acre.
Vizagapatam	5 " do.	For all kinds.
Cuddapah	5 " do.	2½ Rupees.
Kurnool	10 " for black cotton soil.	5 Rs. for all qualities of soil.
Nullamallays	5 Rs. an acre	2½ Rs. an acre.
North Arcot	5 " do.	2½ " do.
Trichinopoly	5 " do.	5 " do.
Madurai, Plains	10 " do.	2½ " do.
Do. in the hills	5 " do.	5 " do.
Tinnevely, Hill ranges	10 " do.	6 " do.
Do. in the plains, all kinds	2½ " do.	2½ Rs. an acre.
Coimbatore (except Nilgiris)	5 " do.	5 " do.
Salem (except Shevaroy)	5 " do.	5 " do.
South Canara, Hill ranges	10 " do.	2½ " do.
Do. plains	5 " do.	2½ " do.
Godavari	2½ " do.	For all kinds.
Kistna	5 " do.	2½ Rs. per acre.
Nellore	5 " do.	2½ " do.
South Arcot	5 " do.	10 Rs. per acre for the more open and level lands, exclusive of Wynad.
Malabar	5 " per acre for Poonam land.	

No lot within a village is allowed to exceed 10 acres except under orders of Government, but one person may bid for contiguous lots. The lots are as far as practicable in parallelograms. In selling the land the existing and customary rights of Government, of other proprietors, and of the public in existing roads and paths, and in streams running through or bounding the lands are carefully reserved, and when the sale is completed and money paid, a formally drawn up title-deed is granted to the purchaser by Government. The land is surveyed and demarcated before the sale, and its cost is borne out of the sale-money if there be any purchaser, and if there be no purchaser by the first applicant at whose instance the survey has been undertaken. The first applicant has in all cases to make a deposit covering the cost of survey. Due notice is given to the public before sale, and any claims put forward are disposed of on their merits. The Government can of course alienate the unassessed land, if they wish, by putta or cowle in the ordinary way, instead of selling the land in the manner just described. This is indeed in practice almost the only course, as far as land in the plains is concerned. The rules apply

* The delta lands are excepted from this ordinary operation of the rules.

virtually only to hilly tracts, there being no stretches of unassessed waste in the plains.

Unassigned land outside the limits of any village as defined by Custom or the Survey Department is absolutely at the disposal of Government. Such portions of land are very limited on the plains, which are fully occupied by village communities, but they abound on the hill ranges where the indigenous tribes have established only a very partial occupation, and where general occupation is only just springing up. The alienation of lands lying outside villages will fall in a few cases under the rules described in the last paragraph. On the Nilgiris and Shevaroy, and in the Wynad, however, there is a special provision that there shall be no upset price except the cost of demarcation and survey, and that the lands shall be liable to assessment. Thus forest lands are free of assessment for five years on the Nilgiris and for three years in the Wynad, after which they are assessed at Rupees 2 per acre. Grass-land is liable to an assessment of 8 annas per acre from the date of appropriation. On the Shevaroy Hills all lands are liable to a uniform rate of 1 rupee per acre from the date they are taken up. In any of these cases the annual assessment may be redeemed at 25 years' purchase as already mentioned.

In a ryotwari country the most important considerations connected with land tenures are those which concern the relations of Government with persons holding immediately from it. The system of tenancy under such land-holders is however fully developed, and is even a matter in which Government is concerned, the interference of the Revenue officials between land-holder and tenant being often required under the law. In the districts on the East Coast lands are rented out by the land-holders either for a fixed annual payment in money, or for a share in the produce, which is generally half. Ordinarily dry and garden lands are rented for money, and irrigated lands for a share in the produce. Except in large zemindaries, where rights have grown up from long possession, private tenants as a rule are tenants at will, and the leases are from year to year.

On the West Coast tenancies are more permanent and lands are generally leased out for a number of years. In South Canara tenancies are of two kinds, Mulgueni and Chalgueni. The mulguenies are permanent tenants under the mulavargdar or landlord, paying a fixed and invariable rent. These tenancy rights have been for the most part obtained from the landlord as grants in perpetuity, on the payment of a fine and on condition of paying annually a specified rent. Such tenants cannot be ousted except for non-payment of rent, and even in this case not till they have been fully recompensed by the landlord for the permanent improvements they may have made on the

lands. Subject to payment of rent they are at liberty to sub-rent, mortgage, or sell their interest, and are rather a description of subordinate landlords than mere tenants. On failure of heirs the title lapses to the landlord. In granting land on mulgueni tenure conditions are now often imposed which are never found in the ancient deeds, *e.g.*, that the right shall not be alienable, and that on the rent falling into arrears, or the trees standing on the land being wilfully destroyed, the lease shall be forfeited. The chalguenies are temporary ryots under the mulavargdars or mulguenies; their lease is for a limited term, usually one year, or even at will. In the case of these tenants the landlord has the right to raise the rent or oust the tenants whenever he pleases, when no period is fixed, after however reimbursing him for all permanent improvements made by him. Practically the tenants are seldom ousted unless they are heavily in arrears. In some large estates there is an intermediary tenancy, when the tenants have no written leases but are in practice treated as mulguenies. The rents of mulguenies and chalguenies are paid either in money or a certain quantity of grain, and never by a share of the crop as in other parts of the Presidency. In Malabar the tenures under which lands are held by tenants are Kanom, Panayam, Kuyikanom, and Verumpattom. In the first two cases the tenant has some pecuniary interest in the land. In the case of Kanom the rent is paid to the jenmi after allowing the tenant a deduction on account of the interest on the sum advanced and the Government revenue of the land. This kind of case generally extends over a period of 12 years, on the expiration of which it is renewed or revoked according as the jenmi and the tenant are on terms good or bad with each other. If the deed is renewed the jenmi is entitled to a fee or allowance calculated at 20 per cent. or more on the amount originally advanced. The sum so paid will not be shown in the deeds, nor will it be returned to the tenant at any time. If the jenmi desires to resume the land, he has to make over to the tenant the whole of the deposit money and the customary value of any improvements which may have been effected by the tenant. This cannot be done before the expiration of the term of 12 years. If meanwhile the land deteriorates through the neglect of the tenant, he shall have to give compensation to the jenmi for the damage thus sustained. In the case of Panayam, land is given possession of as security for a certain amount advanced. Rent is paid to the jenmi after deducting the interest on the sum advanced at the rate specified in the deed. In some cases when the deed provides that the mortgagee should pay the Government revenue, a sum on this account is also deducted from the rent payable to the jenmi. When there is no period prescribed in the deed, the jenmi may whenever he likes take back the land on payment to the

mortgagee of the sum advanced. These mortgagees are not generally allowed to make improvements on the land. Unoccupied waste parambas are leased on Kuyikanom right generally for 12 years, and sometimes for longer periods, for the purpose of raising buildings and plantations thereon; when the land is returned to the jenmi on the expiration of the term the value of improvements made by the tenant is paid to him. In this as well as the two foregoing cases the right possessed by the tenants on the lands held by them is transferable. The death of either tenant or landlord does not affect the lease when there are surviving members in the family of either. Another kind of lease called Verumpattom or simple lease is generally for one year, and sometimes for longer periods, and is terminable according to the terms shown in the deed. A rent, generally two-thirds of the produce of the land, is annually paid by the tenant to the landlord. In the case of leases for longer periods than one year the landlord receives in advance the rent for a certain period not exceeding one year. The tenant receives no interest for the amount thus advanced, but on the termination of the lease the said amount is either repaid to the tenant or credit given him for the same against the rent due by him. There is also another kind of lease known as Undaruthi, under which the landlord receives in advance the rent for a certain number of years and the land is let out to the tenant for the same period. The tenant has no more payments to make to the landlord. When the period expires the land is returned to the landlord. This kind of lease is generally applicable to parambas and plantations.

The Government are not concerned in any way in transactions connected with land other than those already mentioned. It may be observed, however, that private mortgages are exceedingly common. Sums of money are frequently advanced upon landed security, the condition being generally that the mortgagee shall enter and enjoy the land for a definite period, though sometimes it is arranged that the mortgager shall hold as a tenant of the mortgagee during the term, and sometimes the lands are hypothecated simply. Sub-mortgages are frequently made on the East Coast. It is not customary for an outgoing mortgagee to claim compensation for improvements. Private sales of land again take place, but by no means so frequently. Mortgages are most numerous on the West Coast, especially in Malabar, for reasons already given. It is there considered disgraceful to sell absolutely the jenmi right, *i.e.*, birth-right or proprietorship. There are several kinds of Malabar mortgages, the principal being Otti and Adima Jenm. The peculiarity of the latter mortgage is that the sum borrowed is not mentioned in the deed, and that its use is confined to Rajas, Numburies, and heads of villages. In South Canara land and produce are separately mortgaged. If the land itself is mortgaged no

interest is demanded. The mortgager is sometimes permitted to reside upon the estate and allowed to cultivate a small portion in the capacity of a tenant, but the mortgagee pays the Circar rent and transacts the whole business of the estate as if he were the proper owner. The mortgage bond always contains a clause that as soon as the sum borrowed is repaid the land is to be returned to the mortgager, the latter paying the expenses of all improvements. A certain portion of the produce of estates is frequently mortgaged for the discharge of interest on debts. In this case it is stipulated that a certain quantity of rice is to be paid annually, but that the person receiving the rice shall be allowed no interference with the estate. Should the mortgager fail in the payment, the land itself is to be made over to the mortgagee. The first of these Canara mortgages is termed Bogiadhy or living mortgage, the other Toradoovoo or dead mortgage.

Number of
landed
proprietors.

The number of persons who own property and who are independent of labor, as returned in the census schedules, is 176,580, or 1.1 per cent. of the male population. They are most numerous in the Tanjore District, where 7.7 per cent. of the males are so entered. In the Godavari District this class forms 3 per cent. of the population, while in Tinnevely and Coimbatore only 0.04 and 0.02 per cent. are so returned. The Brahmins figure out of all proportion to any other class as holders of property; 64,545, or 11.7 per cent. of their numbers, being included under this head. The Kshatriyas have 3.1 per cent. The Chetties, who have their capital mostly laid out in trade, have only 0.5 per cent. The Vellalers or cultivating castes have only 1.6 per cent., but many of these are wealthy, though they hold their lands only on ryotwari tenure. The writer or accountant castes are considerable holders of property in the districts of Vizagapatam and Tanjore, where 22.4 and 31.4 per cent. respectively of their numbers are so classed.

(c).—THE COLLECTION OF THE REVENUE.

Amount of
land revenue.

The following list shows the total collections of land revenue in this Presidency for the last fifteen official years, taking £1 to be equal to 10 rupees. In 1866-67 there were only eleven months, because the date of commencement of the next year was altered from the 1st May to the 1st April:—

	£
1861-62	4,112,588
1862-63	4,206,493
1863-64	4,290,145
1864-65	4,181,162
1865-66	4,291,766
1866-67	3,634,166

	£
1867-68	4,239,705
1868-69	4,058,757
1869-70	4,476,056
1870-71	4,393,351
1871-72	4,435,341
1872-73	4,688,448
1873-74	4,446,693
1874-75	4,632,063
1875-76	4,539,657
1876-77	3,296,575
1877-78	3,494,884
1878-79	4,948,524

It is impossible to exhibit, with any approach to accuracy, the ratio of the Imperial Land Revenue to the actual gross produce of the whole country and the net assets of land. No information exists as to the actual gross produce of lands paying land revenue to Government, nor is it possible to collect such information. Though the land-tax was imposed, theoretically at least, on a share of the gross produce of the land, this share or its commuted value has varied greatly in different districts and at different times. The principle on which the land-tax of ryotwari districts is at present undergoing revision and re-settlement, preceded by a scientific survey, is that it should in no case exceed 40 per cent. of the gross produce in the case of lands for which irrigation is provided at Government cost, or one-third of the gross produce in the case of lands not so irrigated. These proportions are found to be nearly equal to half the net produce. If all the land were ryotwari it might be roughly assumed that the revenues amounted to half the net produce, but much of it is held at a favorable quit-rent or permanently settled, and in these cases the sum paid to Government bears no fixed proportion to the produce. The rate per acre of the land-tax on ryotwari land varies very widely in the different districts. In those where the new survey and re-settlement have been introduced the rate varies from 6d. to £1 4s., and the number of rates for a whole district does not exceed 35. In districts where the land assessment is still imposed as at the beginning of the century, the rate on irrigated land is occasionally as high as £3 10s. and that on unirrigated land as high as 9s. The minimum rates on both kinds of land in these districts are fractions of a shilling, and the total number of rates in a district is as large as 885. Taking an average of the whole Presidency, the rate per acre does not exceed 2s. 3d. on unirrigated land or 9s. 6d. on irrigated land.

Appendix Statement No. VI gives various particulars regarding the land-revenue and land-cesses therewith allied, calculated for a recent average fasli year. The following abstract shows incidences per acre and per head calculated for the same period, and compared with other parts of British India:—

Further par-
ticulars as to
land-revenue.

	Per Acre of gross Area.	Per Acre of revenue-paying cultivable Area.	Per Acre of revenue-paying cultivated Area.	Per adult Male Agri-culturist.	Per Head of Total Population.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
1. Bengal and Assam ...	0 4 8	...	...	3 5 6	0 9 10
2. North-West Provinces ...	0 14 8	1 7 6	1 14 6	8 1 7	1 8 10
3. Ajmere ...	0 3 8	...	...	...	1 4 2
4. Oude ...	0 14 8	1 4 7	1 12 3	...	1 4 0
5. Punjab ...	0 5 2	0 10 11	1 2 9	...	1 3 2
6. Central Provinces ...	0 1 10	0 3 8	0 7 2	8 7 10	0 12 6
7. Benar ...	0 7 8	...	...	11 15 2	2 6 5
8. Mysore ...	0 6 11	1 7 10	1 10 0	10 14 3	1 7 8
9. Coorg ...	0 3 6	1 10 3	2 12 10	20 2 10	1 10 11
10. British Burmah ...	0 1 3	1 1 8	2 2 1	11 13 0	1 10 2
11. Bombay ...	0 6 4	0 14 3	1 2 1	17 11 8	1 14 11
12. Madras ...	0 9 2	1 8 6	1 13 2	{ 6 13 6 } { 18 12 6 }	{ 1 8 11 }

The incidence of rent, that is to say, the incidence of all payments to Government, and to other landlords if any, in the Presidency of Madras may be taken as Rupees 2-2 per cultivated acre and 2-2-4 per head of population. Appendix Statement No. VII shows the land-revenue demand per acre, divided under the heads of dry and wet land.

The demand on permanently settled estates.

The land-revenue demand on all Zemindaries, Mootahs and other proprietary estates is fixed once for all, and no remissions are granted for loss of crop or other reasons. There is, therefore, no special yearly investigation and settlement as in the case of Ryotwari holdings. Slight variations, however, occasionally occur. For instance lands forming part of a Zemindari are sometimes taken up by Government for public works. Again the collection of Government quit-rents on Inams situated in the Zemindaries is sometimes transferred to the Zemindars, who add the amount to their peishcush less 10 per cent. for the trouble of collecting. In such cases the necessary adjustments are made by the Collectors and reported to the Board of Revenue. Water-rates are also charged on Zemindari lands when water is used from sources of irrigation newly created by Government. The charge is made only on lands actually irrigated every year; but where the Zemindars consent, a composition is made with them for a term of years. Where existing works have been superseded by the new works, full allowance is made for the area previously irrigated by the former. For instance in the case of the Nedavole Zemindari in the Godavari, where the Government anicut works have obstructed the Zemindar's ancient sources of irrigation, the estate has been allowed to irrigate under the anicut channels free of charge 25,881 acres of land, which was formerly irrigated, or considered capable of being irrigated. The charges for water-rate go under the general technical head "Miscellaneous Revenue." The jumma or peishcush paid by Zemindars has

* Adult above 12 years.

† Adult above 20 years.

usually been fixed in the first instance at two-thirds of the gross estimated collections from the cultivator.

The whole question of the demand on Inam lands would naturally be treated here. Technically however, it is only the quit-rent on whole Inam villages, or "Shrotriems" as these are called, that is treated as a separate item, quit-rent on other or "Minor" Inams falling under the head Miscellaneous Land-revenue. The quit-rent on Inam villages is a fixed revenue, and no remissions, as a rule, are granted. Variations will however occur in the same way as in Zemindaries on account of lands being taken up by the Government for public purposes, or on account of water-rate, &c.; or again in the event of the holder relinquishing land. The quit-rent on Inam lands is usually called jodi in cases where it represents the old quit-rent as opposed to that recently imposed by the Inam Commission.

The quit-rents derived from building sites fall naturally for mention here. They are grouped, however, technically under Land-revenue Miscellaneous, and will be explained hereafter.

The actual rate at which the land is to be assessed under Ryotwari is fixed for a period of thirty years by the Revenue Settlement Department. But the ryot has the liberty, as already explained, of contracting or extending his holdings; and the Government undertake to grant remissions of land revenue, and assume the right to make extra charges under certain circumstances. There are therefore considerable variations from year to year to be attended to at the yearly settlement of accounts. The ryotwari settlement is formed by adding to the assessment of the holdings (1) the charge on account of second-crop cultivation, and (2) water-tax on ryotwari lands; and deducting therefrom (1) the assessment of waste remitted, (2) occasional remissions, (3) fixed remissions, and (4) deductions on account of village establishments and sundry other purposes. Sundry items classed as Miscellaneous revenue are afterwards added to the demand.

The Jumma-bundy just mentioned generally takes place after December, by which time most of the important crops have been harvested and most of the changes likely to take place in holdings are ascertained. The different places where it is to be conducted, mostly four or five in each taluk, are previously notified, the village officers concerned are summoned, and ryots who have any representations to make are invited to attend. The settlement officer is usually the revenue officer in charge of the rovenue division. It is the duty of the Tahsildar to see that all the village accounts are ready before the date fixed for the Jumma-bundy, and this is usually carried out by causing the Carnams to come to the taluk cutcherry two or three weeks in advance and there finish whatever is incomplete in their accounts. The principal

The demand on Inam lands.

Quit-rents on building sites.

The demand in ryotwari holdings.

The annual Jumma-bundy.

accounts which the Carnam brings with him to the Jummabundy are the Adangal, No. 4 of the village accounts, or account against each field, taking the fields according to the peimash or latest survey; the rain-account, No. 2 B, or account of supply of irrigation-water; and the statement of monthly cultivation, No. 1, or account of cultivation in each field, used to check the Adangal. Arrived at the taluk cutcherry the Carnam prepares the different extracts required for that cutcherry or for the settlement officer himself. When the accounts are ready the settlement officer proceeds to the different stations already fixed, and passes orders on the accounts, in the presence as far as possible of the inhabitants of each village. The statements placed before the settlement officer vary in different districts, but the following may be taken as a sample list:—No. 8 of the village accounts, or Vajâpatti, that is to say list of remissions proposed by the Carnam in accordance with the established rules; a water-rate statement for each village, that is to say recommendations for the charge or remission of water-rate; a taluk statement for orders in cases of unauthorized cultivation of either poramboke or assessed waste, as also in cases of excess or deficient extent found on measurement; a taluk statement, for orders in cases arising out of cowles, and other special puttass; No. 6 of the village accounts, for orders as to the rate of assessment in cases of poramboke land being newly taken up after permission; and a taluk statement showing miscellaneous cases sent up for orders by the Tahsildar. In the last column but one of all these statements are entered remarks and recommendations by the Tahsildar. For instance as regards wet land remission he will enter in abstract the general particulars of the block of irrigation to which the field in question belongs; thus total holdings and total left waste under that branch of irrigation, how many months' supply the tank (if it is a tank) is built for, and how many months' water it has received; whether the population has diminished or not since last year; whether the holder of the field has any special claims for indulgence; and any other matters which may occur. The settlement officer writes his final orders in the last column. The statements, as disposed of for each village by the settlement officer, are taken away to the taluk cutcherry, and the orders entered are there put in force. The next step is for the Carnam to prepare the Chittah, No. 5, in the village accounts, or ledger of accounts against each putta; this evidently consists merely in taking out entries from the field register or Adangal, as modified by the orders of the settlement officer, and booking them against the different puttass. After the chittah is prepared it is checked by the taluk gumastah, and is signed and stamped by the Tahsildar. In practice a great part of the chittah will be already written up before the Carnam comes to Jummabundy. From the chittah as finally

signed in the taluk cutcherry, the Carnam writes up all such puttass as require renewal or to be modified or newly issued, and these are checked by the taluk gumastahs and signed and stamped by the settlement officer. According to the usual practice, no putta is renewed or modified or newly issued except at the time of Jummabundy, even though sanction for such proceedings may have been given during the current work of the preceding months of the year. Renewal of a putta can only be necessary when either the old putta has been lost, or when it is full and has no room for further entries. As a rule the yearly changes take the form of modifications, that is to say of new entries entered under the old entries, with a signature for the new entries. Changes in a putta are necessitated, either in order to change the name, the last holder having died (poûthi) or having relinquished (sôthi); or in order to change the account items, the water-rate or land-assessment, or special cess or other item being different this year from last (jâst and cammi.) When land is newly taken up (darghast), entirely new puttass have to be issued. Properly speaking the Carnam should obtain at the hands of the ryots concerned all old puttass which require renewal or modification, and bring those to the taluk cutcherry to be destroyed; but this is not always done, the putta of the latest date being held to supersede all previous puttass. The puttass after being signed by the settlement officer are handed back to the Carnam, and it is his duty to distribute them to the ryots. The fluctuations involved in the proceedings of the yearly settlement are not allowed to interfere with the current collections. By rights a ryot must up till the date of Jummabundy pay his kists as if the demand was the same as for last year; but in practice amounts which are known to be under decision are allowed by the monigars to stand over. Similarly when a transfer is known to have taken place, collections will in practice be made in advance of Jummabundy from the new holder. When the Jummabundy is completely finished certain other abstract accounts are prepared by the Carnam, which need not here be particularized. Cultivation made after the Jummabundy, but appertaining to the fasli then in question, appears under Land-revenue Miscellaneous, and is treated as a separate item of revenue. Remissions granted after Jummabundy are similarly not shown in the accounts of the year, but the amounts involved are written off the accounts as irrecoverable with the sanction of Government in the following year.

The standard rates of assessment are determined by the Revenue Settlement Department, as hereafter described. Briefly speaking the lands are first classified according to their soils, and the grain values of each soil are determined by actual experiments taken over a large area and with the help of other extraneous information. From the

—Standard rates of assessment.

grain value thus determined a deduction is made on account of unfavorable seasons and cultivation expenses, and the remainder, which represents the net produce, is halved. From this half a small deduction is again made on account of unprofitable areas, and the remainder is commuted into money at a fixed rate, which represents the average value of the grain for a series of years sufficiently long to balance the ordinary fluctuations of seasons and other temporary causes. The money-rates thus obtained approximate as nearly as possible to half of the value of the net produce.

—Second
crop culti-
vation.

In fixing the standard rates of assessment the irrigated lands are presumed to yield but one crop, and when a second crop is raised on them with the aid of Government water half the standard rate is charged in addition. In some cases however this charge has already been commuted at the old peimash or by the Settlement Department into a fixed payment consolidated with the ordinary assessment, and this consolidated sum is then paid whether the second crop is raised or not. The object of the latter arrangement is to save Government the trouble of instituting a scrutiny into the extent of second-crop cultivation each year, and to save the ryots from interference on the part of petty revenue officials. To make the arrangement acceptable to the ryot, the composition rates are somewhat lower than those charged when the payment for second crop is left optional. The ryots do not make any payment if the second crop in question is raised without the aid of Government water. For instance, a dry crop raised as second crop in land classed as irrigated is not liable to any charge. It happens but seldom that private irrigation is applied to wet lands. In the case of unirrigated lands the ryot is competent to raise any number of crops, for though the soil has been used more than once in the year Government water has not been supplied to it. The charge for second-crop cultivation is in fact a water-rate, though not so called; it has really no reference to the more or less frequent use of the soil. Irrigation under private wells is not as a rule liable to any charge, but wells within the ayacut are considered to draw water from the tank and a charge is therefore made. It has already been mentioned that second-crop assessment is charged where necessary on irrigated Inam lands.

—Water-tax. Water-tax technically so called is charged whenever lands classed and assessed as unirrigated are irrigated by the aid of Government water. The rates vary with reference to the usage of the locality, to the character of the irrigation, to the time for which the irrigation is required, and to the nature of the crop raised; and run from 8 rupees to 14 rupees per acre. In the delta taluks of the Godavari and Kistna and in some of the taluks of Kurnool all the lands are assessed at dry rates, and the whole charge for water appears therefore under water-tax. Govern-

ment water-tax imposed on Inam lands, or in Zemindaries, does not come technically under this head, but under Land-revenue Miscellaneous.

Under the head of Waste Remitted are technically included all deductions from the land-demand made on account of land left absolutely waste; that is, in which no crop has been put down. It is a remission of the full assessment, is made only where cultivation has been impossible on account of the usual supplies of Government water having been deficient or in flood, and is not given in the case of land classed as unirrigated. Any neglect to cultivate on the part of the holders invalidates the claim to remission.

—Waste
remitted.

Waste remitted is in reality an "occasional" remission, inasmuch as it depends on the season. Being however usually a large item it is treated technically as a separate head. The occasional remissions, technically so-called include all remissions dependent on the nature of the season, other than that for absolute waste. They consist of the following items:—(1) shavi or withered crops; (2) panyboodthy or payamali, that is to say land flooded and injured by water; (3) palanas-tham or loss of produce; (4) thirvakammy or difference between wet and dry assessment; (5) fasalkammy or second crop not cultivated; (6) remissions allowed on the introduction of new rates of assessment; (7) miscellaneous remissions. Remissions under items 1 and 2 are as a rule granted on irrigated lands only when the crop is totally lost owing to either deficiency or excess of water, and provided only that such excess or deficiency has not been occasioned by any act or neglect of the person to whom the land belongs. Remissions for partial loss of crop under item 3 are only granted in districts which have not been settled by the Settlement Department; these also are confined to irrigated lands. In granting the remissions last named no attempt is made to estimate individual losses, but the remission is granted in the form of a certain percentage taken off from the assessment of the lands in which the crop is lost, the percentage being determined with reference to the extent of the average loss sustained in the adjacent tracts. Remissions are not granted on unirrigated lands except in very exceptional years and under very exceptional circumstances and with the previous sanction of the Board of Revenue. The remission under item 4 is granted when a dry crop is put down on land classed and assessed as irrigated, but which otherwise would have been left waste. In such cases the dry crop assessment alone is levied, and the difference between that and the assessment chargeable on irrigated land is remitted. The remission under item 5 is granted where the land is assessed for two crops, but it has not been possible to raise a second crop for want of water. This remission occurs chiefly in districts not yet visited by the Settlement Department, where the rates are high. In the districts

—Occasional
remissions.

which have been settled by that department the collection of the whole assessment is enforced as a rule when the principal crop is raised, whether the second or inferior crop is raised or not. But if the principal crop fails or is not raised, and only an inferior crop is grown, then the second crop assessment is remitted. Remissions under item 6 are altogether of an exceptional character. They are granted with the special sanction of Government when any newly fixed rates of assessment are particularly high, and when their gradual introduction is considered desirable. The miscellaneous remissions consist of various sundry items, such as those granted on account of lands cultivated having been taken up for public works or for the Forest Department, on account of lands washed away by rivers, &c., &c.

—Fixed
remissions.

“Fixed remissions” are remissions which are granted for reasons other than those relating to the season. They consist of the following items:—(1) Remission granted for labor involved in reclaiming lands. This is mostly granted for lands situated on a high level in consideration of the difficulty of bringing them under wet cultivation. (2) Remission granted on the ground that the standard rates in unsettled districts are too heavy. The old pynash assessments having in some districts been heavy, certain reductions were made in the rates of assessment. The difference between the old and reduced rates appears as remission. (3) Remission granted to privileged classes; that is to say, remissions allowed to certain classes of persons who by custom or caste are prevented from cultivating lands themselves. These are fast disappearing with the introduction of the new rates of settlement, which do not recognize any class privileges. (4) Remission granted on account of irrigation by lift. This is granted for cultivation raised on high level wet lands by baling or other mechanical contrivances. (5) Remission granted under the tope rules. As an encouragement to the formation of topes or small woods, persons are allowed to plant trees under certain conditions free of assessment for 20 years. At the end of that period the land is assessed if retained in possession of the planter, but left unassessed if the tope is thrown open to the public. The assessment remitted during the 20 years is shown under remissions. As a rule the land granted on these terms is one that has been waste for more than 10 years. If the trees are planted on land usually cultivated no remission is granted. (6) Remission granted for maintaining irrigation works. This is called technically “Dasbundum,” and is an allowance made in the shape of remission of revenue in compensation for the construction of tanks, wells, and channels, and for the repairs of such works. (7) Remission on grass lands. Ryots in Coimbatore, and on a portion of the Nilgiris, are allowed to hold an extent equal to one-fourth of their holdings at one-fourth of the full assessment for purposes of pasture. The difference between the full

and quarter assessment is treated as remission so long as the land is allowed to lie fallow and actually used as pasture. When once cultivated it is charged with full assessment, and this is maintained whether the land is thenceforward cultivated or used for pasture again. No new lands are now granted under this tenure. (8) Cowle remissions. Lands which have been long lying waste, or which require outlay of capital or labor to bring them under cultivation, are allowed to be taken on easy terms for a number of years; they are either free of tax or subject to a favorable assessment, and the difference between the standard assessment and the assessment actually charged is shown under remissions. (9) Remission granted on forest lands taken up for cultivation in the Nilgiris and in Malabar. Forest lands taken up in the Nilgiris and in Wynad for coffee or other plantations are not charged with assessment for five and three years respectively in consideration of the preliminary expenses necessary for the plantations; and as a remunerative crop is rarely obtained until after the lapse of those periods. For the periods mentioned the assessment of the lands is shown under remissions. (10) Miscellaneous. This consists of various small items, such as landlord's share on escheated lands sold, remission of assessment in favor of pagodas, &c., &c.

Sundry Deductions, otherwise called Beriz Deductions, are in reality of two classes, though not so arranged technically. In the one case the principle is that the Government abandons a certain amount of the land-demand in consideration of the ryot discharging certain liabilities hitherto discharged by Government. Such are payments of fees or salaries to village servants and of stipends to Inamdars. In the other case certain sums which are due from the ryot, and which have been hitherto consolidated with the land-demand, are now separated from it, and the ryot is directed to pay them elsewhere. An example of the latter is the road-cess in the Kistna. The subtraction from the land-demand is a convenient way of adjusting accounts, and is an old practice in this Presidency. Sometimes a deduction will represent a transaction under both of the heads just mentioned; as for instance where a deduction on account of village service represents partly the sum hitherto contributed by the ryot and partly the sum granted by the Government. The amounts deducted are properly speaking paid by the ryots direct to the persons or authorities to whom they are due. But practically the village officers collect the amounts.

—Sundry
deductions.

In speaking of West Coast tenures between Government and land-holders it was mentioned that in form the agreement was a ryotwari agreement. The details of the demand made, however, show the peculiarity of the situation. Thus the average assessment in Malabar is Rupees 1-9-5 for dry land and Rupees 3-0-3 for wet land, compared to an average for the whole Presidency of Rupees 1-1-0 for the former

—The
demand on
the West
Coast.

and Rupees 5-9-3 for the latter. The excess in the case of dry land is due to the fact that all the more valuable permanent garden produce is classed in Malabar under this head. The assessments, therefore, are very low and tacitly allow the existence of middlemen and of other interests besides those of Government. The wet cultivation exceeds that of any other district except Tanjore, and would, if assessed at the ordinary rates of other ryotwari districts, produce probably double the revenue. In Canara too ample provision is left for a landlord's share. The fiscal division of estates in Canara is noticeable. Bhurty means full or paying the entire Tharao demand. Kumbhurty means paying less than the full Tharao demand. The kumbhurty is again subdivided into (a) Board Shifarish, or estates which owing to natural disadvantages never can be expected to pay the full demand, and are entered in the accounts as doubtful, but are practically treated as with reduced demand; (b) Tanki, or estates on which it is uncertain under present circumstances whether the full assessment will be leviable in the future and which are consequently kept under investigation and settled annually according to the circumstances of each case; this sub-division again includes a large proportion of estates (Kayam Kammi), on which a certain amount of assessment has been fixed according to their present capacity, but which may still be able to pay the full assessment hereafter; and (c) Waida, or estates which after a certain definite period will be able to pay the full demand, and will be required to do so. The settlement officer leaves Bhurty and Board Shifarish as he finds them, and settled in the lump; he deals with the Tanki at his discretion; and in the case of Waida there is usually an annual increment, to be decided by the settlement officer, by which the estate is to be brought up to Bhurty and Kumbhurty. Practically the same village agency is employed on the West Coast as in other parts of the country. It should be mentioned that the low assessments of Malabar have proved a serious difficulty in levying cesses which are proportioned to the assessment. The important Local Fund Cess is a case in point and yields a very poor revenue. In Zemindaries the Local Fund Act has specially provided for assessing the cess on the rents paid by ryots to Zemindars and taking the amount from the Zemindar, and the application of this to Malabar would give a higher cess-revenue. But this has only quite recently been legalized. One of the principal difficulties in this case is the decision as to who is in such case the person to be dealt with analogous to the Zemindar, land-ownership being on the West Coast in a very confused state.

—The demand under Amany.

In some localities wet crops are still divided between the Government and the ryot under the Amany system. The share of Government in the produce varies according to usage, but in the majority of cases

it is 50 per cent. of the gross produce *minus* fees paid to village servants. The crop is cut under the personal inspection of Government officers, and the gross produce is divided by actual measurement. After division the Government share, which is called the Rajabhogam or Melvaram, is sold and the proceeds are carried to the credit of Government. It will be understood that the settlement in these cases is still with the individual ryot, on the ryotwari system. The Amany method of settlement and collection represents the traditional method peculiar to the Hindus under their own rulers. Apart from the machinery of collection, it will be seen that it differs from the method of the English Government in that it settles on the basis of dividing the gross instead of the net produce. Amany is still a favorite system between Zemindars and their tenants, and estates coming under the Court of Wards frequently bring this mode of settlement with them. The British Government have not encouraged it. It would be impossible at the present day to keep in hand the large establishment that would be necessary. Moreover the ryots are said to dislike Amany, as the crops cannot be taken in until measured by the Government official, and have often to lie on the ground till damaged. There are at the present moment only seven Government villages in the Presidency in which division of the produce takes place, namely, five in Madura and two in Tanjore. The total revenue of these is Rupees 6,000.

The demand under Ooloogoo differs from that under ordinary ryotwari in this, that the Government dues vary to a certain extent with the current prices of grain. The grain is commuted for a money-value, but not for an absolutely fixed value. The commutation rate is founded on the price of past years, but all increase of price of over 10 per cent. above the standard is added to the demand, while all decrease of more than 5 per cent. under the standard is remitted to the ryot. If the ryots are dissatisfied with any year's settlement they can claim division of produce. There are therefore no remissions on account of the season. Ooloogoo holdings obtain now in only one small hamlet in Tanjore, the revenue of which is Rupees 3.

Revenue due to Government by renters of estates is collected in the same way as that due by any ordinary ryot under the ryotwari system, with the difference that the lands in the villages rented are not sold for arrears unless they are the property of the renters. The renter's right is saleable, but it is seldom sold as generally the sale of their personal property is sufficient to secure the revenue.

Under the head of Land-Revenue Miscellaneous are included all charges pertaining to lands other than those held by ryots under the ryotwari system, or lands held by Government ryots under certain

—The demand under Ooloogoo.

The demand in estates rented out.

Land-revenue Miscellaneous.

peculiar circumstances. They are liable permanent garden produce on Sundry Inams. This is charged on Inams smaller than the Inam Commission. The wet cultivation exceeds Zemindari and Inam in Tanjore, and would, if assessed at the made only when the irrigated districts, produce probably double the not already entitled to the provision is left for a landlord's share. (3) Land cultivated but in Canara is noticeable. Bhurty means revenue brought to the demand. Kumbhurty means paying puttas, but belonging to demand. The kumbhurty is again sub-cultivated without Shifarish, or estates which owing to natural up without application be expected to pay the full demand, and are settlement and disposal as doubtful, but are practically treated as with case inquiries cannot be made, or estates on which it is uncertain under delayed for any other whether the full assessment will be leviable in (5) Fees for servants are consequently kept under investigation and collected, in addition to the circumstances of each case; this whom processes a certain amount of assessment has been fixed is mainly derived from present capacity, but which may still be able to pay in consequence of the present hereafter; and (6) Waida, or estates which (7) Grazing-tax definite period will be able to pay the full demand, grazing farms in the district to do so. The settlement officer leaves Bhurty and Madura. The settlement officer leaves Bhurty and Madura. The settlement officer leaves Bhurty and Madura. (8) Rent is at his discretion; and in the case of Waida there rivers do not come under ryot, to be decided by the settlement officer, and this is the amount of their agency is employed on the West Coast as lands. This consists of rent of ryot. It should be mentioned that the low sale proceeds of trees. The tree proved a serious difficulty in levying lands not held under puttas. Pe to the assessment. The important Local such a tax can only use or sell the and yields a very poor revenue. In and sell the toddy being the per cent has specially provided for assessing (10) Quit-rent and ground-rent in the ryots to Zemindars and taking the exception of the cases mentioned and the application of this to Malabar nothing similar in the districts. But this has only quite recently form of land revenue. (11) Cultivation is the person to be dealt with analogous is the revenue charged on unassessed being on the West Coast in a very improperly cultivated. (12) Rent of garden divided between the Government waste lands sold by Government. (13) Salt. The share of Government in This revenue is derived by the cultivation of salt, but in the majority of cases hills. The cultivation is not permanent and no

it is 50 per cent. of the gross produce, the produce of Amendivi servants. The crop is cut under the peep these islands coconut is ment officers, and the gross produce is division is collected. The After division the Government share, which to Government at a fixed or Melvaram, is sold and the proceeds are sold and realize Government. It will be understood that the monopoly. (16) Excess is still with the individual ryot, on the ryotwari erroneously made method of settlement and collection represents indeed. (17) Quit-rent peculiar to the Hindus under their own rules lands are given on machinery of collection, it will be seen that it is of being treated as of the English Government in that it settles on private estates under the gross instead of the net produce. Amany is a division of 1½ per cent. between Zemindars and their tenants, and estates managed Court of Wards frequently bring this mode of settlement crops culti- The British Government have not encouraged it. then brought to ac- sible at the present day to keep in hand the largents. (21) Revenue would be necessary. Moreover the ryots are said lands placed under as the crops cannot be taken in until measured in non-appearance of official, and have often to lie on the ground till the assessment of at the present moment only seven Government villages revision of village dency in which division of the produce takes place revenue Miscel- Madura and two in Tanjore. The total revenue of Village Service ed by burning in • 6,000.

The demand under Ooloo goes differs from the survey establishment ryotwari in this, that the Government dues vary (24) Russums or fees with the current prices of grain. The grain rents made by certain money-value, but not for an absolutely on to their peishcush. (25) Tax rate is founded on the price of past year, the limit allowed. (26) Chunam over 10 per cent. above the standard, giving out the right of collecting decrease of more than 5 per cent. on charge for water on miscellaneous ryot. If the ryots are dissatisfied lands, otherwise non-Inam lands. claim division of produce. The ryot on lands for which puttas are account of the season. Ooloo goes included under Miscellaneous Revenue. small hamlet in Tanjore, the ryot is the license fee paid for fishing chanks.

Revenue due to Government. Deposits are forfeited for various same way as that due by an auctioneer in a revenue sale deposits a certain with the difference that the complete the sale by paying the full sum for arrears unless they are forfeited his deposit. (30) Revenue from right is saleable, but it is in dry items. These consist of various small personal property is sufficient.

Under the head of Special products a Special cases of assessment. charges pertaining to as formerly levied; this is now abandoned, and ryotwari system, or ed and not its products. Tank-beds may not be

peculiar circumstances. They consist of the following items:—(1) Jodi on Sundry Inams. This is the quit-rent or favorable assessment charged on Inams smaller than a village at the time of the grant or by the Inam Commissioner. (2) Charge for water on Zemindari and Inam lands. This is a charge made for supplying irrigation to Zemindari and Inam lands from Government works. The charge is made only when the irrigation supplied is such as the landholders are not already entitled to in virtue of grants or original settlement. (3) Land cultivated but not included in the Jumma bundy. This is the revenue brought to account after the annual settlement and issue of puttās, but belonging to the then current fasli. (4) Assessed land cultivated without Durkhast or permission. Assessed lands taken up without application and sanction are inquired into at the annual settlement and disposed of according to their merits. But if in any case inquiries cannot be completed within the year, or if puttās are delayed for any other cause, such lands are shown under this item. (5) Fees for service of revenue processes. This is the amount collected, in addition to the assessment, from revenue defaulters on whom processes are issued, to meet the cost of the establishment entertained for that purpose. (6) Revenue from rented villages. This is mainly derived from persons to whom villages have been rented out in consequence of some difficulty in introducing a ryotwari settlement. (7) Grazing-tax or grass-rent. This revenue is derived by the sale of grazing farms in villages, principally in the districts of Nellore, Kistna and Madura. The total amount in the Presidency is about Rupees 1,41,000. (8) Rent of islands situated in rivers. Lands in islands in rivers do not come under ryotwari settlement; they are leased out and this is the amount of their rental. (9) Tax on trees on unassessed lands. This consists of rent of palmyra trees, rent of fruit trees, and sale proceeds of trees. The trees are the scattered trees standing on lands not held under puttās. Persons holding palmyra trees under such a tax can only use or sell the fruit and leaf, the right to draw and sell the toddy being the prerogative of the Abkari contractor. (10) Quit-rent and ground-rent in the town of Madras. The houses and lands in the town of Madras are subject to a quit-rent. With the exception of the cases mentioned below under No. 17 there is nothing similar in the districts. Quit-rent in Madras is in fact a special form of land revenue. (11) Cultivation of Poramboke lands. This is the revenue charged on unassessed or reserved lands, when improperly cultivated. (12) Rent of gardens and topes which have become the property of Government. (13) Sale proceeds of unassessed waste lands sold by Government. (14) Revenue from hill villages. This revenue is derived by the cultivation of lands on the slopes of hills. The cultivation is not permanent and no puttās are therefore

issued. (15) Revenue derived from coir, the produce of Amendivi Islands attached to South Canara. In these islands coccanut is nearly the only product, and no land assessment is collected. The islanders are compelled to sell all their coir to Government at a fixed rate, lower than the market rate. The Government sell and realize a profit. The arrangement is similar to the salt monopoly. (16) Excess collections over the demand. This is overpayment erroneously made by the ryots and which is to be eventually refunded. (17) Quit-rent on bungalows and gardens. In some special cases lands are given on favorable assessment for buildings, instead of being treated as ordinary ryotwari lands. (18) Commission on private estates under the management of the Court of Wards. A commission of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is levied by Government on the revenue of the estates managed by the Court of Wards. (19) Water-tax on summer crops cultivated at the close of the preceding fasli, and not then brought to account. (20) Revenue fines imposed on revenue servants. (21) Revenue from sequestered Inams, or the assessment of Inam lands placed under attachment for various reasons, for instance the non-appearance of Inamdars for settlement. This item also includes the assessment of Service Inams kept under attachment pending the revision of village establishments. The assessment credited to Land-revenue Miscellaneous temporarily though eventually transferred to Village Service Fund. (22) Cultivation of jungle tracts newly cleared by burning in South Canara. The cultivation is not permanent and therefore puttās are not issued annually. (23) Recoveries of cost of Survey establishment lent to private estates under Court of Wards. (24) Russums or fees collected from Zemindaries, &c. These are payments made by certain Zemindars according to usage in addition to their peishcush. (25) Tax on house-sites and backyards exceeding the limit allowed. (26) Chunam shell-rent, or rent derived by farming out the right of collecting shells for making chunam. (27) Charge for water on miscellaneous Jeroyati lands, otherwise Ayan lands, otherwise non-Inam lands. This is the charge made for water on lands for which puttās are not issued, but which are included under Miscellaneous Revenue. (28) Chank-shell farms. This is the license fee paid for fishing chanks. (29) Revenue deposits forfeited. Deposits are forfeited for various causes. For instance, a purchaser in a revenue sale deposits a certain amount, but if he fails to complete the sale by paying the full sum within the prescribed time he forfeits his deposit. (30) Revenue from Amany villages. (31) Sundry items. These consist of various small items too numerous to mention.

A few special points remain for notice. On special products a special assessment was formerly levied; this is now abandoned, and the land alone is taxed and not its products. Tank-beds may not be

cultivated; if a ryot improperly occupies, remissions are refused, or prohibitory assessment is imposed, to compel him to relinquish. For river-bed cultivation the same remark applies; there are no special rules. When wet land becomes no longer irrigable from one cause or another, the Collector has authority to class it as dry. When land is found on measurement to be in excess of what it was assumed to be in the register, 10 per cent. margin is allowed, but if it is over that the assessment is revised, and the amount exceeding the 10 per cent. is charged for. The same rule is followed in granting remissions; when a deficiency is found to exist as compared with the register; that is to say, remission is granted only on such portion of land as is more than 10 per cent. below the registered amount. In the case of lands under private tanks the ayacut is as a rule entirely held by the owner of the tank, and he pays a special rate for the entire area, viz., Rupees 2½ per acre in most districts. If a portion of the ayacut is held by the ryots, the charge for water supplied must be the subject of private arrangement. No additional charge is made on account of irrigation under jungle-streams and natural pools, provided that Government has incurred no expense in their improvement, and provided that the use of water does not interfere with the supply to any Government work.

Land revenue according to the land from which it is derived.

Almost all the land revenue is derived from the lands elsewhere described as assessed lands. The following items however and some others are realized from the unassessed waste:—(1) Tax or rent of scattered trees; (2) Chank rent; (3) Chunam rent; (4) Fish-rent; (5) Rent on lime quarries; (6) Quit-rent on land for houses in the town of Madras and the district of South Canara. These all fall under the technical head of Land-revenue Miscellaneous.

Assessment on lands containing minerals.

Applications for mining are rare, and the question of assessment on lands so applied for is treated specially in each case. The question of the right of landholders to mineral wealth obtained from the soil is under discussion, and possibly resort will be had to legislation.

Revision of Ayacut.

In many cases the so-called irrigable ayacut under a work of irrigation is not really irrigable. In some cases on the other hand a larger extent of land is irrigated than is registered as irrigable. The Settlement Department in some districts and Collectors in others are now engaged in revising ayacuts with reference to the actual capacity of the tanks and the extent cultivated within the last five years. Particular cases are seldom dealt with in the ordinary course of the land administration.

Sub-division of assessment.

The mode in which the sub-division of landed property is permitted has been already described, and it has been mentioned that the transactions are not valid against Government until the assessment on

the sub-divided portions has been adjusted by the Collector. The principle observed in all cases is that the original peishcush or assessment is not to be disturbed, but is to be taken as a total and rateably sub-divided according to the new sub-divisions. In Zemindaries and Inam lands the new proportions are based on the present estimated value of the lands, and in ryotwari holdings they are based on the assessment already fixed on such lands.

The peishcush of large Zemindaries is generally paid into the Collector's treasury, and that of small Zemindaries and Inam villages into the taluk treasury. Other items of land revenue are paid in the villages to the monigar. Payments are not collected, but brought by the parties. The money is received in the first instance by the monigar, who gives a receipt for it in a prescribed form. According to the rules the carnarn also should sign the receipt in token of having then and there made the corresponding entries in the village accounts. Where there are several villages however and several monigars to a single carnarn, the latter cannot always be on the spot to sign the receipt taken away by the ryot. The monigar having received the money, goes to the carnarn and has the sum entered in the day-book, No. 10 of the village accounts. The carnarn subsequently credits the individual in the account kept in the name of different puttadars, No. 3 of the villag series, and also enters the item in the abstract Demand, Collection, and Balance statement, No. 11, which he keeps in the name of the different puttadars for his own information in the village. When this is completed he prepares an advice-note, or Irasal-namah, No. 12, for the use of the monigar, and the monigar despatches the money then and there with No. 3, No. 10, and No. 12 abovementioned, to the Tahsildar's treasury. No. 10 and No. 12 go in duplicate, No. 3 and one of the copies of Nos. 10 and 12 are initialled by the Taluk Sheristadar and returned by the bearer to the monigar. When the money is first brought in by the ryot it is the business of the shroff to examine the coin, and see that it is correct. The accounts here shown, when regularly kept, furnish the taluk officials with immediate information as to which ryots have paid to date and which ryots are in arrears, so that they can immediately after receipt of each remittance issue then and there, if they wish, the first demand-notice in coercive process. It is sometimes even the practice for the carnarn to fill in and send up with the remittance a coercive process form for every ryot in arrears at that date. The remittances from the village to the taluk office take place generally once a month after the corresponding ryotwari kist has fallen due; but sometimes the remittances are made more frequently. During the month the cash collected is kept by the village monigar in his own house at his own risk. In the case of Zemindaries and other perma-

nently settled estates, the payments are made according to the varying instalments mentioned in the sannads, but in the case of all other revenue the following instalments are observed :—

Districts.	Proportion of Annual Tax payable by the 15th of each Month.							
	15th November.	15th December.	15th January.	15th February.	15th March.	15th April.	15th May.	15th June.
Ganjam	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Vizagapatam	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Godavari	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Kistna	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Nellore	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Cuddapah	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Kurnool	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Chingleput	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Bellary	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
North Arcot	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
South Arcot	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Kar	...	6	7	...	...	...	...	...
Samba	...	6	7	...	...	...	...	...
Tanjore	...	6	7	...	...	...	...	...
Dry	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Do.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Do.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trichinopoly	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Madura	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Coimbatore	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Nilgiris	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Tinnevely	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Salem	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
South Canara	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...
Malabar	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...

Advances to ryots.

Advances called tuccavi used to be made to Government ryots for mere cultivation expenses, but the system was found open to abuse and has now been given up. No advances to ryots are made at present except under the Land Improvement Act. (India No. XXVI of 1871.) Under this Act advances on interest at 6½ per cent. per annum are made by Government to landlords and tenants desiring to make improvements in their lands on certain conditions as to due execution of the work, and repayment of the advance. Works for which advances are made and the accounts kept on the works are to be open for inspection by Government officers at all times. If the persons who receive the advance fail to perform the conditions under which it was granted, the Collector has power to recover under the Act the whole advance or such portion as has been granted.

The acquisition of land for public purposes.

When land is needed for a public purpose or for the purposes of a company, it is usual in this Presidency to take it by an amicable arrangement with the owners, the procedure laid down in the Land Acquisition Act being applied only in cases where the owners will not

* On half the cultivation if the cultivation up to October is below 50 per cent., and on actual cultivation if more.

+ On the remainder.

† On wet and dry lands in Kallugallage or joint-rented villages of Tiruturaipundi Taluk.

agree to reasonable terms, or where there is a doubt in regard to title. If the law is applied the procedure is as follows :—A declaration is first made under the signature of the Secretary to Government or other officer duly authorized that such and such land is required for public purposes; the Collector then gives notice to the public and to parties concerned, stating that the Government intends to take possession of the land, and that claims to compensation must be made to him on a date and at a place specified. On the date fixed the Collector inquires into the value of the land and determines the amount and tenders it to the person interested; if the parties agree to the amount, the matter is at once settled and the Collector takes possession of the land. If the offer is not accepted and the Collector is unable to agree with the parties, or if there is any question regarding the title of the parties interested, the Collector refers the matter to the Civil Court, which, with the aid of assessors, determines the amount of the compensation payable. In determining the compensation the market-value at the time of awarding compensation, and the damage, if any, sustained by reason of severing such land from the owners of other lands are taken into consideration, but not the urgency which has led to the acquisition, nor the disinclination of the party interested to part with the land acquired. An appeal is provided against the award made by the Court. Payment is made to the owner by the Collector according to the award, or if there has been an appeal according to the decision on such appeal; possession of the land is then taken. If land is required only temporarily, the Government directs the Collector to procure the occupation and use of the land for such term as may be necessary not exceeding three years. On the expiration of the term the land is restored to the owner, with such compensation as may be necessary for any damage done and not provided for by the original agreement. If the land becomes permanently unfit for use the Government takes the land as if it was permanently required for a public purpose or for a company. In case the Collector and the owner of the land differ as to the condition of the land at the expiration of the term, or to any matter connected with the agreement, the Collector refers the matter for the orders of the Court.

When land revenue due to Government falls into arrears it is recovered under Madras Act II of 1864 together with interest at 6 per cent. and costs of process, by the Collector or his deputy, by the sale of the defaulter's movable property including uncut crops or immovable property including buildings on land, or by execution against the person of the defaulter. In the case of Zemindars holding under a Sannad Mulkyat Istimrar, the personal property must, under the terms of the sannad, first be sold, and the land only in the event of the first measure not proving sufficient. In the case of other defaulters,

Coercive measures.

the Collector may at his discretion sell either the movable or immovable property or both. If there is any doubt as to ownership, the Collector will naturally attach the land in preference. Before any property is attached for arrears, due notice is given to the defaulter, and another notice is served previous to sale. Sometimes, though rarely, the arrear is realized by not selling the land, but by keeping it under Government management and appropriating the proceeds. Persons other than the defaulters who may be interested in the land can have the sale stopped by payment of the arrear. There is now no restriction as regards the distraint of implements of husbandry. The sale of land is at the discretion of the Collector, and he is not bound to recognize any transfers except such as have been registered in his office. The sale does not prevent the defaulter from collecting balances of rent due to him by under-tenants for periods anterior to the sale. Land may be purchased Benamee; that is, the defaulter himself or any of his friends may purchase it when put up for sale. The former law forbade this. The land revenue has the first claim on landed property against all other creditors, and the crops of an under-tenant are not protected, except that the latter has subsequent redress. When a purchaser buys land at a revenue sale, he does so taking the land free of all encumbrances; that is to say, land passing through a revenue sale (as opposed to a Civil Court sale) becomes purged of all previous claims, even including the Government assessment due to date. Certificates of sale are issued to the purchaser, and the Board of Revenue receive a statement of sales; no sanction to sales is now required except in the case of Zemindaries, and these require the sanction of Government. There is provision for enforcing the certificate and giving possession to the purchaser. In some cases Government buy the land for themselves. When the arrears cannot be liquidated by the sale of the property of the defaulter, and there is reason to believe that he is wilfully withholding payment of the arrears, or has been guilty of fraudulent conduct in withholding payment, the defaulter is liable to be arrested and imprisoned for a period not exceeding two years if the arrear exceeds 500 rupees, not exceeding six months if it is at that amount or below, and not exceeding three months if it is 50 rupees or below. Such imprisonment does not extinguish the debt. When the revenue is paid in kind the crop is not allowed to be removed until division has been made. The above procedure is applicable not only to arrears of land revenue, but to all advances made by Government, for cultivation or other purposes connected with the revenue, to all fees due to village servants employed in Revenue and Police duties, and to all cesses imposed upon the land. Process servers are as a rule specially paid peons; heads of villages are however bound to serve process also. The extent to which coercive process is employed

in the collection of the land-revenue is, on the whole, not large. There has certainly been a very large increase of late years in the number of legal processes issued for this object, but the fact is that formerly the law was not used, while coercion took place nevertheless. Moreover the provisions of the present law are so lenient that it suits the convenience of ryots to allow process to be issued though they intend ultimately to pay. The interest charged on arrears has been reduced by Act II of 1864 from 12 per cent. to 6 per cent., and the ryot now gains rather than loses pecuniarily by waiting for a better market, or leaving his money out at interest, while the process is running. Taking the absolute results, and without reference to the history of the working of the law, there are no grounds for dissatisfaction. In the recent Faslî 1282 recourse was had to coercive process for recovering land-revenue arrears amounting to £250,000. The ryotwari demand of that year was 4½ millions, so that the arrears were 5½ per cent. on the revenue. Of the £250,000 all were made good before sale except £45,000 or 1 per cent. of the demand. It may be said then that 95 per cent. of the land-revenue is realized without trouble, and that 4 per cent. more can be recovered with only the trouble of formally demanding it.

Zemindars, Shrotriendars, Jaghiredars, Inamdars, and persons farming lands or land-revenue under Government, are authorized by Madras Act VIII of 1865 to recover their rents under a summary process, provided that the landlord and the tenant have exchanged puttas and muchilikas or written agreements in regard to the terms on which the land is to be held, and provided the summary powers are sought to be exercised within one year from the time when the rent becomes due. The Government, that is to say in these cases, assists the landholder to recover from his tenants. And it at the same time excludes the Civil Courts from jurisdiction. The landholders are allowed to exercise summary power even where no puttas and muchilikas are executed if both parties have agreed to dispense with them. Landholders holding under ryotwari settlements, or in any other way subject to the payment of land-revenue direct to Government, and all other registered holders of land in proprietary rights who have not yet been mentioned, are given the benefit of the Act if they have taken an agreement in writing from their tenants, but not otherwise. If the rent remains unpaid at the time when, according to any written agreement or the custom of the country, it ought to have been paid, the landholder is authorized to distrain, upon his own responsibility and with the aid of the Police if necessary, the crops and movable property of the tenants, after giving due notice; but he is bound to send within ten days a written notice to the Collector or other officer duly

empowered in that behalf, showing the details of the property distrained, to enable the Collector to have the property appraised. Tenants are allowed to prefer an appeal to the Collector against wrongful distraint, but the appeal must be made within thirty days from the date of the distraint. If the appeal is established the Collector orders the property to be restored, but if no appeal is made, or, if having been made it is rejected, the Collector on the application of the distrainer authorizes the public officer duly appointed in that behalf to cause the sale of the movable property, which is accordingly sold by him after due notice. Where the tenant has a saleable interest in the land, this also is sold under the rules laid down for the sale of the movable property. When there is no property or it is insufficient, the landholder can apply to the Collector for a warrant authorizing him to eject the tenant and to enter on the land; a warrant is accordingly granted and entrusted to a Police officer. If no appeal is made to the Collector within fifteen days after the warrant is served, or if an appeal has been made and it is decided against the defaulter, the police officer places the landholder in possession of the land. The landholder is also competent to apply for a warrant for the personal arrest of the defaulter, which is granted if the Collector is satisfied that the defaulter is wilfully withholding payment or has been guilty of fraudulent conduct in order to evade payment; but no defaulter can be imprisoned for a longer period than two years, whatever the amount of arrear may be. It is open to the landholder either to exercise the summary powers above referred to, or to recover his rent in the ordinary courts of law like any other debt.

(d).—ESTABLISHMENTS.

Village officers.

The basis of the system of Revenue administration is found in the village corporations, which, as already stated, have existed from time immemorial, and in many respects still retain their vitality. In almost every Hindu village there are twelve village servants, called the Barabuloti or "twelve men," who perform all needful public offices. The following is the list. The first five only render service to Government, or are recognized as parts of the Revenue administration:—
1, Headman; 2, Carnam or Accountant; 3, Shroff or Notagar; 4, Nirganti; 5, Toty or Taliary; 6, Potter; 7, Smith; 8, Jeweller; 9, Carpenter; 10, Barber; 11, Washerman; 12, Astrologer. The headman, who goes by various names, such as monigar, potel, naidu, reddy, peddacapu, natamgar, &c., is an important officer; he represents the Government in the village, collects the revenue, and has also magisterial and judicial powers. As a Magistrate he punishes persons for petty assaults and affrays; and as a Judge he tries suits for sums of money or other personal property up to Rupees 10 value, there

being no appeal against his decision. With consent of the parties he can adjudicate civil claims up to Rupees 100 value. If parties consent, he can summon a punchayet, who will then adjudicate on suits without limit as to value, and also without appeal. The headman is generally one of the largest landholders in the village, and as a rule exercises much influence over the inhabitants. Acting as a Judge he is styled Munsif. In some cases the custom of the place separates the munsifship from the monigarship, and sometimes more than one monigar is appointed for a village. The duties of the headman are defined in Regulation XI of 1816, but its interpretation in reference to his Police duties has caused doubts. The carnam is the village accountant and is a very important ministerial officer. The accounts kept by him will be described hereafter. The shroff is found only in certain villages; his duty is to test the money paid in by villagers to the headman on account of Government. The nirganti has charge of the irrigation of village lands where there is irrigation from tanks or channels. Some villages however have irrigation but no nirganti, the work being done by the village peon or by the cultivators themselves. The village toty, otherwise taliary, vetty, or ugrany, is simply a village peon acting under the orders of the headman. This office is generally held by the lower class of the community. The taliary is sometimes a separate official acting in the capacity of watchman. The remainder on the list are the artizans necessary to the internal conduct of a village community. In the revisions of Governmental village establishments which will shortly be mentioned, considerable changes have been made even in the assignment of duties and names of the officials.

When village offices are hereditary, as is the case in most localities, heirs succeed in the usual course, under the terms of the native law of inheritance, which is modified only to the extent of precluding partition. In the case of offices other than those of headman, carnam, nirganti, vettian and toty, the villagers manage their own affairs, the parties filing suits if they please before the Collector under Regulation VI of 1831. In the case of the offices just mentioned the succession is regulated by the Collector. With reference to the rights and fitness of the several claimants to office the native law of inheritance is attended to as far as is possible. Females and minors may in special cases succeed, appointing gumastahs or proxies with the sanction of the Collector. Adoption is recognized or not recognized in the usual way under the law. If any person having an interest desires a more formal inquiry, he may file a suit under Regulation VI of 1831 before the Collector. This officer will then issue process to parties and witnesses and hold a quasi-judicial inquiry. Disobedience to the summons can be punished under Sections 172 to 174 of the Penal Code. The Civil Procedure Act does not apply to cases tried in this way, and

Succession to village offices.

there is no law for awarding costs. The Government of India have exempted these cases from the Court Fees Act; stamps are therefore unnecessary. Section 3 of Regulation VII of 1828 gives Collectors power to revise the proceedings of their subordinates under this Regulation without limit of time; but three months has been fixed departmentally as the period for appeal. When a case is heard by a divisional officer, the parties may appeal to the Collector or to the Board direct, whichever they prefer. When the Collector has made a decision on appeal, this does not bar a further appeal to the Board of Revenue, or from them to the Government. There is no provision for enforcing orders passed under this Regulation, nor for ousting adverse occupants; but in practice the orders of the Tahsildar are not disobeyed. A Bill has been drafted to grant the requisite powers. The procedure throughout is somewhat informal, but the Regulation proposes rather to be a measure of State administration than of adjudication of private claims. Collectors are instructed to respect possession extending over more than three years against any ordinary claim on grounds of hereditaryship; though there is no objection to their putting on record a statement of opinion that in the event of the demise of the present occupant, the claimant will have a right to secure a reversion of the office. Collectors have the power of dismissing village officers for misconduct. The same questions then arise as in the case of succession by demise. An heir may succeed if no way concerned in the offence; or if this arrangement is not practicable a temporary appointment of a stranger may be made to last during the lifetime of the person dismissed. The Civil Courts are forbidden by law to take cognizance of any questions of a nature provided for by Regulation VI of 1831. Carnams in Zemindaries are provided for separately by Regulation XXIX of 1802, and placed under the jurisdiction of the Civil Court; they do not fall under Regulation VI of 1831 and the Collector does not regulate the succession to office.

Emoluments
of village
officers.

The non-Governmental village servants are almost wholly paid by fees from the villagers direct. In some cases, however, where the Government have in former days given Inam lands to such servants, these are continued. No new grants or allowances are made by Government to such servants. The Governmental village servants are paid in some cases by the enjoyment of Government land rent free or on a trifling assessment called *jodi*, in some cases by having assigned to them the State dues payable by some third person occupying land, in some cases by contributions of grain or money made by the villagers themselves irrespective of the land-revenue, and in some cases by salaries direct from Government. When land questions are involved in the emoluments of office, disputes are frequent and are decided usually by suit before the Collector under Regulation VI of 1831.

The most frequent cause of dispute is the question whether the village officer's case falls under the first or the second of the heads given above; that is to say whether he is to be put in possession of the land assigned to the office, or whether he is merely to be given the right to receive the Government assessment money from the hands of the occupant. This will depend very much on the terms of the original grant, which was often made before the Fysal or original settlement of the British Government, and is thus involved in obscurity. The general question as to whether the land itself or the assessment only constitutes properly the emoluments of a village servant, has been much discussed; it has been decided in practice to adjudicate each case on its merits and with regard to its past history as far as this can be ascertained. Regulation VI of 1831 renders it illegal to make any formal alienation of Inam emoluments; until recently however the law was frequently evaded. The present cost of the village establishments in land and fees is about 47 lakhs of rupees.

The system of payment by Inams from Government or by *Merahs* from villagers has for some years been regarded as objectionable, and the tendency has been to substitute salaries from Government in all cases. Act IV of 1864, which may be applied on occasion to different districts, was passed to enable the Government when they took over the entire charge of the village servants to recover from the villagers, in the form of a land-cess not exceeding one anna in the rupee on their assessment, the amount of the fees which they originally contributed in private. The Inam rules, which may be applied from time to time, provide for raising the beneficial rate of assessment on lands hitherto Inam, while withdrawing some of the State claims on the lands and giving an absolute ownership in them to the present occupant. By a combination of these two measures the Government have had it in their power to make a complete revision of the village establishments in the direction of substituting stipends for other forms of emolument. The opportunity has been taken to revise the establishments as well as the emoluments, and to get rid of irregular claimants to the latter. The revision of village establishments is being carried out in a detached way in different localities; it has hitherto followed the operations of the Revenue Settlement Department, but in future it is to be carried out *pari passu* with the settlement. The salaries in the revised establishments are paid from a fund called the Village Service Fund. To this are credited all the new quit-rents which come in from the enfranchised lands, formerly Inam and paying little or nothing; the proceeds of the cess under Act IV of 1864 where imposed; and contributions made by Government in lieu of lands and fees formerly appropriated to this purpose but since resumed by Government. The

Revision of
village estab-
lishments.

practical effect of the revision may be seen from the two following examples. A village servant is, we will suppose, in the enjoyment of Government land; and his emolument consists in his paying no assessment on it or only a nominal jodi. Under the revision he will receive a salary instead of this emolument. Special terms will be made with him as to the land. The terms will be that Government will make him proprietor of the land, which will thenceforward have no further connection with the office, and be an alienable piece of property belonging to the individual; while the Government will thenceforward tax the land with land-revenue, amounting however not to the full amount, but only five-eighths of the amount. The special terms are granted in consideration of the long period during which these lands have been looked on by the people as quasi-private property. A village servant again, we will suppose, derives his emoluments from the payment to him by a third person of the assessment properly payable to Government; that is to say, the village servant is paid by what is called Tirvei-manyam and not by what is called Nila-manyam. In this case, if enfranchisement is applied, the occupying ryot or third person continues to pay to the village servant in whose name the Inam has been enfranchised the full assessment, and the Inamdar pays to Government five-eighths assessment, keeping three-eighths; the ryot neither loses nor gains. Owing to illegal alienation, and to irregular applications of the Hindu law of partition of property on demise, many superfluous claimants to village service emoluments have arisen. In some localities a number of persons divide the emoluments in this way, one of the number only being the actual working officer. When such persons can show a long prescriptive enjoyment of their emoluments, however erroneously acquired in the first instance, they are allowed to enfranchise on five-eighths assessment. The rules indeed have been very liberally interpreted, and in many cases even a single year's possession has been respected and the possessor allowed to enfranchise. The fees from villagers are, as has already been said, no longer paid in these cases; the Government make good the fees to the officers in the salaries which they give them, and take from the villagers a one-anna cess to recoup themselves. In revising village establishments small villages are clubbed together in order to reduce the establishments where necessary with reference to the assets available for payment, but care is taken that the clubbing is not carried too far, so as to cause inconvenience to the communities concerned. A resident Munsif is provided for each village, and the wishes of the villagers are as far as possible consulted in carrying out the clubbing. In the revision, the number of servants is generally reduced, but their remuneration is, as a rule, improved. When revision has fully taken place it is evident that

there will remain of the numerous land disputes now occurring under Regulation VI of 1831 only a few in connection with the artisan non-Government village offices. Offices will however still remain hereditary where they are so at present, and cases of succession will still be triable under the Regulation. The districts in which the revision has been already carried out, or in which it is now being introduced, are Godavari, Kurnool, Tinnevely, Salem, Chingleput, Nellore, and Trichinopoly. Revision will shortly be carried out in the Kistna. In Tanjore the village establishments were to a certain extent revised in 1867, but the Village Cess Act, No. IV of 1864, was not brought into force, the existing assets of the district being sufficient. In the remaining districts the old system still continues. The rates of salary allowed in the revision are variable, but the following for Kurnool, the Godavari, and Trichinopoly, may be taken as specimens:—

Description of Servants.	Kurnool.			Godavari.			Trichinopoly.		
	Revenue.	Number of Men for each Village.	Rate per Annum.	Revenue.	Number of Men for each Village.	Rate per Annum.	Revenue.	Number of Men for each Village.	Rate per Annum.
Vettians.	Up to Rs. 750 " 1,500 " 4,000 Above 4,000	1 2 4 4	48 rupees for each Vettian.	Up to Rs. 1,000 " 3,000 " 6,000 " 9,000 Above 9,000	1 2 4 5 5	48 rupees for each Vettian.	No scale.	It is not known how many Vettians were allowed for each village.	36 rupees for each Vettian.
Niruntas.	None.	...	...	No scale.	Not known.	48 rupees per annum.	None.	...	...
Tahsildars.	No scale.	Not known.	48 rupees each for 2,470 Tahsildars and 60 rupees for 22 Tahsildars.	No scale.	For 74 villages at one Tahsildar each, and for 29 villages at 2 Tahsildars for each were allowed.	Rupees 48 per annum.	No scale.	The number given for each village is not known.	36 rupees per annum.

Description of Servants.	Kurnool.		Godavari.		Trichinopoly.	
	Scale with reference to the Revenue of each Village.	Rate per Annum.	Scale with reference to the Revenue of each Village.	Rate per Annum.	Scale with reference to the Revenue of each Village.	Rate per Annum.
Munsifs or Munsifs.	Up to Rs. 5,000	Rs. 60	Up to Rs. 500	Rs. 18	No scale.	Rs. for each Munsif without reference to the revenue of the village.
	" " 7,000	84	" " 1,000	24		
	" " 9,000 and upwards.	96	" " 1,500	36		
	" " 120	120	" " 3,000	48		
	" " 144	144	" " 5,000	60		
	" " 240	240	" " 7,000	72		
1 Reddy for Nundial Village.			" " 9,000	96		
1 Town Munsif		300	" " Above 9,000	120		
			" " 22,000	144		
Carnams.	Up to Rs. 1,000	Rs. 60	Up to Rs. 1,500	Rs. 60	Up to Rs. 1,000	Rs. 72
	" " 1,500	72	" " 2,000	84	" " 2,000	84
	" " 2,000	84	" " 3,000	96	" " 4,000	96
	" " 3,000	96	" " 4,000	108	Above 4,000	108
	" " 4,000	108	" " 5,000	120		
	" " 5,000	120	" " 6,000	132		
	" " 6,000	132	" " 7,000	144		
	" " 7,000	144	" " 8,000	156		
	" " 8,000	156	" " 9,000	168		
	" " 9,000	168	" " Above 9,000	216		
	Above 9,000	180	" " 22,000	240		

Taluku.

There are in all 27,181 villages excluding those in permanently-settled estates, and these are distributed into 157 taluks, each of which is controlled by a Tahsildar. The following statement shows the number of taluks in each district:—

Districts.	Number of Government Taluks.
Ganjam	3
Vizagapatam	2
Godavari	10
Kistna	11
Nellore	9
Cuddapah	11
Bellary	15
Kurnool	8
Madras	1
Chingleput	6
North Arcot	9
South Arcot	8
Tanjore	9
Trichinopoly	5
Madura	6
Tinnevely	9
Coimbatore	10
Nilgiris	1
Salem	9
South Canara	5
Malabar	10

Excluding the three exceptional taluks of Madras, the Nilgiris, and Cochin; an average taluk may be said to contain about 200 villages, a population of about 150,000, a land-revenue of about Rupees 2,50,000, and an extent of about 700 square miles.

Taluku are divided into five grades according to their importance. The Tahsildar's establishment consists of a Serishtadar, Clerks, Revenue Inspectors, and servants. The Serishtadar is in immediate charge of the Taluk Treasury, as also of accounts, abstracts, registers, and periodical returns. The Clerks, of whom there are eight or nine, prepare the accounts, bills, abstract cultivation statements, season and other returns, village abstracts of demand, collection, and balance, settlement accounts, registers, &c., attend to correspondence, aid in magisterial work, and have charge of the office records which under the ryotwari system are voluminous. The Revenue Inspectors, of whom there are three or four, are in charge of portions of taluks and itinerate constantly from village to village seeing that the work of the village officers is properly performed, and conducting such local inquiries as may be considered necessary by the Tahsildar. Every Tahsildar is also a Sub-Magistrate. In this capacity, and also to a limited extent in his revenue work, he is assisted by officers styled "Deputy Tahsildar and Sub-Magistrate," who are established in important towns and outlying portions of taluks. Some of these officers are also placed in charge of large estates which do not fall within the jurisdiction of any Tahsildar. Each has a small establishment. The actual cost of all these establishments, according to a recent computation, was Rupees 14,64,732. Appendix Statement No. VIII shows the location and pay of all Tahsildars and Deputy Tahsildars.

The 157 taluks are distributed amongst twenty-one districts, two of which, namely Madras and the Nilgiris, being of an exceptional character, contain only one taluk each. The extent and revenue of each is shown in the following statement:—

Districts.	Extent.	Population.	Collection from all sources in a recent average Revenue year.
	SQ. MILES.		RS.
Ganjam	8,313	1,520,088	33,01,554
Vizagapatam	18,344	2,159,189	24,11,916
Godavari	7,109	1,620,634	54,51,537
Kistna	8,036	1,452,374	56,74,860
Nellore	8,482	1,376,811	37,60,770
Cuddapah	8,367	1,351,194	23,74,878
Bellary	11,007	1,668,006	31,34,599
Kurnool	7,358	959,640	19,43,937
Madras	27	397,552	34,15,747
Chingleput	2,753	933,184	50,06,804
North Arcot	7,139	2,015,278	31,48,400
South Arcot	4,873	1,755,817	45,00,021
Tanjore	3,654	1,973,731	74,86,496
Trichinopoly	3,515	1,200,408	18,30,510
Madura	9,502	2,266,615	40,12,993
Tinnevely	5,176	1,693,959	48,96,326
Coimbatore	7,432	1,763,274	80,20,273
Nilgiris	749	49,501	1,38,708
Salem	7,453	1,966,995	28,12,210
South Canara	3,902	918,352	22,04,630
Malabar	6,002	2,261,250	40,35,616

Each district contains on the average, excluding Madras and the Nilgiris, 7,285 square miles and 1,624,306 inhabitants, and has a

revenue of Rupees 37,56,828. The revenue from all sources, instead of from land-revenue alone, is shown in this statement, because the establishments are required to administer all.

District
officers.

The districts were controlled on the 31st March 1876 by twenty Collectors and a Commissioner,* sixteen Sub-Collectors (called in two cases† Principal Assistants), eighteen Head Assistant Collectors (called in two cases Senior Assistants), three Special Assistants, eight Passed Assistants, and eight Unpassed Assistants (all of whom, with the exception of two Special Assistants, belong to the Covenanted Civil Service), assisted by fifty-four Uncovenanted Deputy Collectors. There are nineteen District Treasuries; and the average revenue being Rupees 37,55,828 as already shown, and the average disbursements considerable, a Deputy Collector is required for each. A Deputy Collector is in charge of the Salt Department in each of the twelve maritime districts. The Deputy Collectors on general duties assist the Collectors and their Assistants in revenue administration and magisterial work, except the Deputy Collector of Madras who is not a Magistrate. When an Assistant Collector has passed a certain examination in law and languages he is said to be a Passed Assistant, and may be placed in charge of one or two taluks. Until he passes he is attached to some superior officer to learn his work. The Special Assistants, of whom one is a Covenanted Civilian and the other an Officer of the Staff Corps, assist the Agents to the Governor in Vizagapatam and Ganjam. The Head Assistant Collectors hold independent charge of two or three taluks, but are subject to the complete control of their Collectors. The Sub-Collectors, who are also Magistrates, have larger charges, and are more independent. Their establishment consists of a Serishtadar or Manager, and Clerks and servants. The Collectors, who are also Magistrates, have each a territorial charge immediately under them, and exercise a general control over their Sub-Collectors, Assistants, and Deputy Collectors. They superintend and control all persons engaged in the administration of the revenue; they are responsible for the Treasury to which the taluk collections are sent, and which keeps and dispenses a large stock of stamps; they see that the revenues are punctually realized, and that when arrears accrue, the proper processes are resorted to for recovering them; they manage estates of Minors under Regulation V of 1804; they determine boundary disputes under Regulation XII of 1816; they try cases of malversation under Regulation IX of 1822, and claims to village offices under Regulation VI of 1831; they decide rent cases between landlords and their tenants under Madras Act VIII of 1865; they take a chief part in the administration of Municipalities under Madras Act III of 1871,

* Of the Nilgiris.

† Ganjam and Vizagapatam.

and of Local Funds raised for roads and communications, primary education, hospitals, and sanitation under Madras Act IV of 1871; as Agents to the Board of Revenue under Regulation VII of 1817 they are responsible for the due appropriation of endowments; in maritime districts they control the sea customs; finally, they are expected to be thoroughly acquainted with the state of Native feeling in their districts in regard to the policy and measures of Government, and to be the advisers of Government with respect to police, public works, education, sanitation, and the miscellaneous matters which conduce to the welfare of their districts. A Collector's establishment consists of (1) a Serishtadar managing the Native Correspondence Department; (2) the English Correspondence and General Account Department; (3) the Treasury and Stamp Department; (4) the Press Department; (5) Miscellaneous office servants. The Deputy Collector in charge of the Treasury supervises the second, third, and fourth departments, and a Head Clerk is in immediate charge of the second department. One-fifth of the costs of all the establishments which have been described is considered chargeable to Law and Justice on account of the magisterial work performed by them, and the rest to Land-revenue. Collectors of districts are competent on their own authority to suspend from office or dismiss any servant of inferior grade to that of Deputy Tahsildar, Tahsildar, Subdivision Serishtadar, or Head Serishtadar. The nomination to the offices just specified vests in the Collector. The Board's sanction however is required for the appointment of Head Serishtadar and Subdivision Serishtadar, and that of Government for the appointment of Tahsildar and Deputy Tahsildar. In the case of Tahsildars, transfers involving a reduction of salary or suspension can only be made under the orders of the Board; in the case of Deputy Tahsildars, reference to the Board is not necessary. Tahsildars and Deputy Tahsildars can be dismissed only under the orders of Government. Collectors may dismiss Taluk Serishtadars on their own authority, reporting that they have done so to Government in order that the sanction given to their employment as Magistrates may be revoked. Collectors may suspend Tahsildars for grave offences, but a report must then be made to the Board within twenty-four hours. Collectors are competent to inflict fines upon any of their subordinates, but the amount cannot exceed Rupees 10 without the previous sanction of the Board. Appendix Statement No. IX at the end of this volume shows in detail the charges of different divisional officers throughout the Presidency, with their head-quarters, &c.

The whole of the machinery just described is controlled by a Board of Revenue, consisting of three Members, a Secretary, a Sub-Secretary, a Serishtadar, two Assistants, a Manager, Clerks and servants. The first duty of the Board is to secure the punctual collection of the

revenues; to manipulate and record all statistics with regard to population, agriculture, exports and imports, health and the condition and advancement of the country; to manage the expenditure of Local and Special Funds; to take charge of the estates of Minors as a Court of Wards; to secure the proper application of endowments; and to decide the frequent appeals which result from a system in which the Government is concerned directly with peasant proprietors. To compare the Board of Revenue with departments of Government in England, it may be said that it performs the duties undertaken there by the Board of Customs, the Board of Inland Revenue, and the Commissioner of Woods, Forests and Land Revenue, as well as much of the work that devolves upon the Treasury. In communication with the Survey and Settlement Departments, which are subordinate to it, it carries on work similar to that of the Copy-hold Enclosure and Tithe Commission in England. It takes the place in many respects of the Board of Trade, the Commission of Fisheries, and the Warden of the Standards in stamping weights and measures. Under Regulation VII of 1817 it acts the part of the English Charity Commissioners. In auditing charges connected with the administration of the revenue and the smaller local funds it does the duty of the London Audit Office. In four-fifths of the Presidency where the land is held direct from Government by peasant proprietors it does the work which is done on a smaller scale by the Duchy of Cornwall Office for the estates of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales in the County of Cornwall. In its capacity as Court of Wards under Regulation V of 1804 and as a guardian of endowments under Regulation VII of 1828 it does work which in England devolves upon the Court of Chancery.

(c)—ACCOUNTS.

Village
Accounts.

The old system of accounts in Government villages was extremely complicated and cumbrous, and a thorough revision was made in 1855 by Jeyaram Chetty, then Head Serishtadar to the Board of Revenue, under the orders of Government. A complete uniform system of accounts was then prescribed, but since that date there have been various changes in the Revenue administration, such as the introduction of the survey and settlement in several districts, the settlement of Inam lands, the abolition of moturpha or profession-tax, the discontinuance of the Ooloogoo renting system in Tanjore and Tinnevely, the abolition of garden rates, the creation of Local Fund Circles, and the like, these seem to call for a further revision of the accounts, and the matter is now under consideration. The village accounts at present kept are divided into permanent, daily and monthly, annual and quinquennial. The most important of the

permanent accounts is the register of fields showing their size, description, assessment, and other particulars, as decided by traditional records or by the new Survey and Settlement Departments in districts in which they have worked. This is in fact the topographical map of the village reduced to the form of a statement. The other permanent accounts are abstracts of the field register and registers intended to show in one view the revenue and other particulars of the village for a series of years. The daily and monthly accounts show the progress of cultivation and the progress made in collecting the State dues. They also include a rain register and a register of births and deaths in the village. The object of the annual accounts is to adjust the yearly demands between the State and the ryot. Owing to the nature of the ryotwari system the demand necessarily varies each year. The Carnam has to note down all the lands newly occupied by the ryots and those given up, to record the extent actually cultivated and that left waste, to notice the claims of the ryots to remissions for loss of crops or waste from causes beyond their control, and to register the extent of second crop raised on single crop lands, and of Government water used for lands classed as unirrigated in the accounts. All this information is exhibited in the annual accounts which are checked by the taluk officials, chiefly by an officer called a Revenue Inspector, and with reference to these accounts and such other inquiry as is held by the Collector or his Assistant at the annual Jumma-bundy or settlement, the revenue demand payable by each ryot is determined. The quinquennial accounts are purely statistical. They show the rent-roll, the population, the number of ploughs and live-stock, and the number of irrigation works in repair in the village. All these accounts which are twenty-four in number with twelve enclosures are prepared on paper and are written in the vernacular of the district, the figures however being in English. Some of the registers are kept in the village, and others are sent to the taluk periodically for deposit.

The accounts kept at the taluks or head-quarter stations of Tahsil-Taluk dars are prepared for the most part on the same principle as the village Accounts. accounts, substituting items of whole villages for those of individual holdings. The only accounts of importance in regard to which individual particulars are kept at the taluk head-quarters are the statements showing arrears outstanding against each ryot at the time of the yearly settlement, these being prepared with a view to decide whether the arrears should be recovered in the ordinary course, or remitted and written off as irrecoverable for any special reason. Accounts are kept relating to stamps and progress of revenue work which do not appear in the village set of forms. The taluk accounts were last revised in 1858, when a manual was prepared. A further revision is in contemplation for the reasons given with regard to village accounts.

Huzur
Accounts.

Collectors furnish accounts to the Accountant-General and Board of Revenue according to forms which have been prescribed from time to time. There is no manual. The accounts sent to the Accountant-General are almost all monthly and relate to actual receipts and disbursements in the district. Those sent to the Board are monthly, annual, and quinquennial. Monthly the Collector sends to the Board a statement showing the area cultivated, the demand, collection, and balance statement of all sources of revenue and a report on season and prices. Annually he furnishes a report on the settlement of the year called the Jumabundy report, accompanied with detailed statements showing the area occupied, the area actually cultivated and irrigated, the gross demand payable, the remissions granted with particulars, the amount and particulars of miscellaneous revenue, the actual collections, the extent of coercive processes used, and the arrears and the amount of arrears requiring to be written off the accounts. He also furnishes the Board annually with separate statements showing the several crops raised and the extent under each crop, the revenue raised under each important work of irrigation, and the works of irrigation requiring repairs; quinquennially statistical information is given in regard to the number of ryots and agricultural stocks, rent-roll, population, sources of irrigation, and the extent of the cultivable lands available for cultivation. There are various other statements sent by Collectors to the Board, but they are not of sufficient importance to require mention. Collection of statistical information on a still more comprehensive scale is under contemplation.

SURVEYS.

History
of the
department.

Before the year 1853 no regular Revenue Survey had been attempted in the Madras Presidency, and the only maps were those prepared by the Military Institution between the years 1805 and 1820. As regards field measurements, the land-revenue demand was either based on Carnams' unchecked statements, or on measurements made in haste and with imperfect machinery. In the year 1853 an experimental survey of villages in the South Arcot District was instituted. During the two succeeding years the subject of a general survey of the Presidency was fully discussed, and in December 1856 the Court of Directors sanctioned a definite scheme. In 1858 a Superintendent of Revenue Survey was appointed, an establishment sanctioned, and work commenced. The original scheme has since been considerably extended, and the settlement and demarcation of boundaries, as well as the

topographical survey of all zemindari and hill tracts, are now part of the duties of the department.

The survey as now organized is conducted on the accurate English Nature of method, and is, as far as is known, the only Indian revenue survey, work. except those in progress in certain districts of the North-West Provinces, which is based on rigorous principles in every detail. It combines the operations of a revenue or cadastral survey with those of a perfect topographical survey on a trigonometrical basis. The revenue survey proper, with few exceptions, is confined to villages in which land-tax is paid to Government on the ryotwari system. Villages other than these, ranges of hills, and tracts of waste land or forest of inferior value are excluded from the minute detailed field survey, and are topographically surveyed on a scale of 4 inches to the mile for detached zemindaries and aghrahams, 2 inches and 1 inch to the mile for large zemindaries and excluded tracts, and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to the mile in the case of exceptionally wild and unhealthy country. The operations in Government lands are as follows. The village boundaries are first settled, every conspicuous turn of the line being permanently marked with stone; then disputes are disposed of, irregular boundaries are adjusted, very small villages are amalgamated, and very large villages are subdivided. After these preliminaries the boundary of each field is pointed out by the Carnam and is demarcated in accordance with his putta accounts and revenue records. The field boundaries are permanently marked with stone and every holding is registered. The law regarding boundary marks is contained in Act XXVIII of 1860. Main circuits of from 50 to 100 square miles are traversed with the theodolite chain, the angular work being checked by observations for azimuth at about every 50 stations. Village boundaries are also surveyed by theodolite, and check lines within the village forming minor circuits of from 100 to 200 acres are run. While the boundary work is being set up by traverse and plotted, the fields are measured by chain in triangles, so that when the measurement books are received in office, the map is ready to receive the fields. After correction of any errors that may be found to exist, the area of each field is measured on the plan by computing scale, and the sum of the areas so obtained is compared with the traverse area. In zemindari and hill tracts, the details are put in by plane table. The village map is then sent out for insertion of topographical details. It shows eventually the limits and area of every field, with a record of the nature of tenure, cultivation, present assessment, name of ryot and source of water supply if irrigated. The village maps are compiled into taluk maps, on a scale of 1 inch to a mile, and these form the materials for district maps. The district and taluk maps are compiled in the Central Survey Office at Madras. At the request of the Surveyor-General of India, the

results of the Madras Survey are being recast in such a form as to be available for the revision of the Atlas of India. Village maps are reproduced by lithography for the use of the Settlement Department. Taluk and district maps are also lithographed; photo-lithography has been in use in the Survey Office since 1873. The following scales for the preparation of maps are in use:—Village maps, 5 chains to 1 inch, or 1 mile to 16 inches; Taluk maps, 1 mile to 1 inch; and District maps, 2 miles to 1 inch.

Progress to date.

The Presidency contains approximately 141,429 square miles, and up to the close of the official year 1878-79 the progress shown in the statement at foot had been made. The average size of a field is about 2 acres. The average error in the village maps, shown by the test of comparing the work with that of the great trigonometrical survey is 7.61 feet per mile. The measuring work of the survey is followed by the equally important operation of classing the fields with reference to the productiveness of their soils. This is the work of the Revenue Settlement Department next to be described:—

	S. Miles.
Villages surveyed on 16-inch scale	48,478
Zemindari and hilly tracts surveyed on 4, 2, and 1-inch scale	41,195
Topographically surveyed by a party from Bengal ...	3,000
Total surveyed ...	44,195
Remaining to be surveyed ... { Revenue	10,112
Topographical	41,644
Maps.	
Village maps published	17,470
Taluk maps published	89
District maps published	7

REVENUE SETTLEMENT.

History and nature of the department.

The principle adopted in this Presidency in the settlement of holdings other than those already permanently settled under the Regulation of 1802 is to fix a money-assessment founded upon due consideration of all the circumstances of the district, and to declare this assessment liable to revision after 30 years. A period is named as the Government reserve the right to derive benefit in the future from a share of the increased value conferred on the land by improved administration, the construction of public works, especially works of irrigation and railways, and the improved price of agricultural produce. The settlement is effected from time to time in different parts of the country.

A revision of the land assessment of the Madras Presidency was undertaken in 1858 by Mr. Newill, who was then appointed Director of Revenue Settlement. This revision commenced in the South Arcot and Godavari Districts, and was shortly afterwards extended to the Kistna District. In South Arcot only the Chilambaram Taluk and part of the Cuddalore Taluk were completed in 1861, but the whole of the Godavari and Kistna Districts were settled in 1866-73, the settlement of the Trichinopoly, Salem, and Nellore Districts was made in 1865, 1873, and 1874, and Kurnool proper, excluding two taluks lately transferred from Cuddapah, was settled in 1872. Operations were further extended to the Tinnevely, Chingleput, Cuddapah, Coimbatore, and Ganjam Districts, and these are now far advanced towards completion. The Settlement Department at first consisted of three parties under Deputy Directors, who were required to demarcate the village and field boundaries in advance of the Survey, and to ascertain the value of the lands as a preliminary to revising the assessment. The former was a tedious process, involving much arbitration and the investigation of many disputes. A patch of waste land in the plains, or a few acres of barren hill side, were disputed by rival villagers with a tenacity fostered by years of factious contention; and though the possession, when gained, could often be of no possible use, the claim of either party had to be carefully considered, and the work in that spot delayed until the matter was finally settled. The requirements of the Survey, too, were not sufficiently known; and the marks erected, in many cases, were temporary and destructible, and had frequently to be renewed by others of a more permanent nature. This unsatisfactory work continued to occupy much time and attention until the Godavari, Kistna, Kurnool, Nellore, Salem, Trichinopoly, and Tinnevely Districts were demarcated and surveyed, when the demarcation of boundaries was made over to the Survey Department. This was in 1864. When freed from demarcation the Settlement Establishment was able to turn full attention to its legitimate work of revising the land assessment. To do this it was necessary to obtain a general view of the characteristics of each district about to be settled; to ascertain particulars of the climate, rainfall, and physical features of such tracts or divisions as might differ from each other distinctly; to search the Collector's records for information relative to the past history of the districts, their years of plenty or famine, their lands, tenures, mode of taxation, and cause of their gradual progress; to study the relative values of such sources of irrigation as they might possess; to determine how different tracts were affected by roads, canals, market towns, hill ranges or seaboard; and to acquire a general idea of the prevailing soils in each tract, and the relative value of such black or red loam, sand, or clay as might be found to exist. Each taluk was next visited, and the Revenue

officers and leading ryots assembled, and their opinion asked regarding the relative values of villages under such and such irrigation, or in such and such a position; information was also recorded as to the payment of labor, the method of cultivation pursued, the crops grown, the mode of disposal of surplus grain, and the markets mostly frequented. The villages were next formed into groups, with reference to their several advantages of irrigation, climate, soil, situation, &c., and a series of experiments was made to ascertain the yield of the staple grains. When this was determined a table was framed showing the yield of each class of soil, and this yield was converted into money by an average struck on twenty years' market prices, with some abatement for traders' profits and for the distance that the grain usually had to be carried. From the value of the gross produce thus determined the cost of cultivation was deducted, and the remainder or net value of the produce was then divided, and one-half taken as the Government demand on the land. The work so far was done by the officer at the head of each party, but in the mean time his native establishment has been employed in going over the villages and classifying the land according to soil and circumstance. This operation was carefully watched and checked by the head of the party, who eventually prepared a scheme for the settlement of the whole, or part of a district, and submitted it for the sanction of Government. In the manner just described 21 schemes, or estimates of financial results, have been submitted up to date, and on sanction accorded by Government the settlement has been introduced in the whole or part of 12 of the 22 districts of the Presidency. This settlement is not only an acreage charge on the lands in each ryot's holding, but it fixes the charge on each acre of waste likely to be cultivated hereafter, and as an average district contains 120,000 ryots and some 10 lakhs of fields, the work of introducing the settlement by issuing puttass, hearing appeals, and affording relief where needed is one of the most important parts of the process. In the district first settled it was thought sufficient to accept existing entries in the Government account, and to issue the puttass in the names in which they then stood, but latterly more has been done, and the opportunity of taking the settlement has been taken advantage of to divide the land, to allot necessary grazing grounds, to transfer land from one settlement founded by the Government to another, or vice versa, and to change the names of deceased ryots or vendees. A period is now being put in the future, when this has been done, a register showing the number, name, and value of the land by improvement, soil, irrigation, and name of the puttadar of each village, and 30 copies of each register of agricultural land in different taluks have been printed and distributed, one-third for sale to the ryots, one-third for official use, and

one-third for reserve in store. The cost of settlement has been from the commencement to date Rupees 63½ lakhs, or Rupees 5,17,923 for each finished district, or Rupees 1,375 per village, or 4 annas per acre. The work is necessarily slow; the average district of 1,200 villages and 120,000 puttadars has occupied nine years to settle, but the work has been complete, and the figures furnished in the registers admit of revision, should such be necessary, on the expiration of the term of this 30 years' settlement without again going through the processes on which these figures are based. On the whole there is an increase in the revenue derived from raising the rates of assessment and the taking up of the waste. The additional revenue drawn from the finished districts is now Rupees 7,80,025 above the assessment of the year preceding that in which they were settled; this is equivalent to a present return of 19 per cent. on the outlay, and this return is likely to increase as more waste land is brought under cultivation.

The cost of the settlement of the eight districts completed up to the end of 1878-79 is Rupees 41,43,386, and that of the survey of the same Rupees 49,80,518, total Rupees 91,23,904. The increase of revenue by the survey settlement in these districts is Rupees 7,80,025 or 9 per cent. on the outlay.

INAM COMMISSION.

The origin of Inam tenure can be traced to a very remote antiquity in Southern India. The gift of land is enjoined by the Hindu Shastras as the most meritorious of charities, and every Hindu sovereign was therefore ambitious of distinguishing his reign by the extent and value of the lands he alienated in Inam to the religious classes of the community. Inam grants were generally made in a solemn and impressive manner. They were engraved on copper-plates or slabs of stone and were declared to be irrevocable "so long as the sun and moon endure;" a heavy curse was invoked on those who disturbed the tenure, while great merit was ascribed to those who maintained and confirmed it. The gift of land was a distinct feature of the Hindu sovereigns of Bijayanagar, the rulers of the Vijayanagara empire, the past rulers of the Mahratta princes who held power at Tanjore, and the chieftains of Orissa who for many centuries held sway over the greater part of the Northern Circars, were of the same nature. During the period of anarchy which followed the fall of the Native dynasties and which continued, though in a less degree, after the establishment of the Mahomedan rule in South India, the power of granting Inams for numerous miscellaneous purposes was assumed by various petty taluk was

chiefs, officers of Government, and others, who alienated the revenues to a considerable extent. Numerous minor Inams of this description were granted by Zemindars, by Faujdars, and even by renters in the Northern Circars; while the Poligars of the Ceded Districts and the southern provinces of the Presidency were even more liberal. Though it was not the principle of the Mahomedan rulers to regard alienations of revenue as permanent and binding, their policy with regard to Inam tenures was practically lenient, and they generally respected the more ancient grants held by Brahmins and on account of temples. They also made liberal fresh grants, not only to their own immediate relatives and followers, the higher ranks of their civil and military officers and the religious classes of their own faith, but also to the Hindus and their religious institutions. Thus the effect of the Mahomedan rule was to add greatly to the already existing large extent of land exempt from the payment of revenue. Another period of political confusion ensued during the latter part of the last century when the supremacy in Southern India was contested between the British, the French, and the various local powers, which did not subside until the different treaties between the years 1750 and 1801 brought into the possession of the East India Company the whole of the present Madras Presidency. There is good reason to suppose that a large extent of land was granted as Inam during this intermediary period by parties who had not the least authority to make such alienations. During the earlier years of British rule the Government of the day, following the custom of the country, adopted the practice of rewarding meritorious services by grants of Jaghires, and thus many villages were alienated either in perpetuity or for a stated number of lives. This practice however gradually fell into disuse after the receipt of the despatches from the Court of Directors, dated 2nd January 1822 and 27th May 1829, in which they expressed their opinion of the superior propriety of money pensions to grants of land on all ordinary occasions, and directed that grants of land should be restricted to special cases. It was not unusual for the earlier Collectors to grant Inams of their own authority for various purposes, but the extent of land so alienated was comparatively trifling.

Early
measures by
British.

The enormous sacrifice of State revenue involved in these arrangements attracted the attention of the British administration at a very early period, and caused a recognition of the importance of a general inquiry into titles to rent-free lands. The enactment of certain laws followed, and several orders were issued on the subject; these however led to no practical results. Steps were certainly taken to prevent the diversion of Inams from the purposes for which they were granted in 1831; but it was not until 1845 that active measures were adopted to assert the reversionary rights of Government in property of this

description. A prohibition was then issued against the devolution of Inam property by adoption unless due notice to Government was given, and it was further proposed to limit the continuance of charitable grants to the lives of existing holders, on the ground that it was objectionable in principle that a portion of the land-revenue should be set apart for the maintenance of a class of persons who had no legitimate claim on the State. The more liberal policy, which was afterwards adopted in dealing with these tenures, may be ascribed to the discussion regarding the inadvisability of disturbing long existing rights in landed property, which arose out of the insurrection of one Nursimha Reddi in the Cuddapah District. The rules at first laid down for dealing with claims to succeed to Inam lands resulted in charging the district officers with numerous investigations of a complex and difficult character, which they found it difficult to deal with concurrently with their regular duties; the state of uncertainty in which this description of property was placed gave rise to a feeling of irritation and insecurity on the part of the holders, and the initiation of the general survey and revision of the assessment eventually led to definite proposals being made to the Home Government for the appointment of a special commission to deal with all tenures of this description.

The Madras Inam Commission was accordingly established on the 16th November 1858 during the administration of Lord Harris, and Mr. G. N. Taylor, who was appointed Commissioner, shortly after proceeded to Bombay to learn, by personal conference with the authorities there, the details connected with the working of the Inam Commission in that Presidency and with the proposed plan of treating Inam tenures for the future. In his reports Mr. Taylor proposed certain modes of procedure the object of which was to carry on the necessary registration through the district revenue agency either under the orders of the Inam Commissioner or of a member of the Board of Revenue. While the subject was under consideration, Sir Charles Trevelyan arrived and assumed the Government of Madras. The first question which engaged his attention was the settlement of the Inams of the Presidency, and in his minute of the 13th May 1859 he propounded certain rules by which the principles enunciated by the Court of Directors were to be practically applied by the Inam Commissioner in the investigation upon which he was about to enter. His scheme was of a more liberal nature than that already proposed by the Madras Government. The basis of his proposals was that when it should be proved that land had for fifty years been in the possession of a person, or of those through whom he claimed, without the payment of land-tax, such length of possession should be held to be a good title to that land as Inam, whatever might have been the origin of the possession. The entries in the Revenue Accounts were to be considered as sufficient

evidence of possession without the production of other proofs, and where the failure of proof of fifty years' possession was owing only to lapse of time, the Inamdar was to be allowed the same advantage as if possession had been proved for the full term. When the title to an Inam based on length of possession was once established, it was then to be open to the owner of an Inam held for personal benefit either to retain the Inam according to his actual tenure subject to the liability of lapse and without the power of alienation; or to enfranchise it by payment of a moderately substantial annual quit-rent or a single fixed sum equal to so many years' purchase of the quit-rent. The quit-rent was to be estimated in terms particularly favorable to the Inamdars in order to induce them to take advantage of the arrangement afforded. With regard to Service Inams, those that were attached to services still required were to be continued intact; but where the services were such that they could not be made available for any useful public purpose the holder was to be enfranchised, and the land was to be fully assessed, still giving the holder the opportunity of commuting as above. As regards lands forming endowments of temples and mosques held in remuneration for services to be rendered therein, these were to be confirmed on their existing tenures, and to be resumable only when the object for which they were held had ceased to exist. All questions of disputed right between individuals relating to Inams were to be settled according to the established forms in the ordinary Courts of Justice. The claims of Government upon Inams previously to enfranchisement were to be determined by the officers of Government; but after enfranchisement the Inams were to be in every respect under the protection of the Courts of Justice.

Work of the
Commission.

The operations of the late Inam Commission were conducted on these principles. Full information was prepared regarding the Inams of each village by the taluk and village officers, and the Deputy Collectors of the Commission inspected documents and took such further evidence as seemed proper, recording details in an English register in which the rate for enfranchisement was calculated and the acceptance or refusal of the Inamdar recorded. These registers were subsequently forwarded to the Commissioner for review and confirmation and for the issue of a title-deed. The progress of the work was at first somewhat impeded by the ignorance and mistrust of the people, as the imposition of the additional quit-rent was viewed as merely a step in the direction of the full assessment of all Inam property; but when the really liberal character of the settlement became generally known opposition ceased, and the operations of the Commission proceeded with a rapidity hitherto unknown in the investigation of Inam titles.

Classification
of Inams.

The Inam tenures of this Presidency may be divided into nine classes:—I, Those held for the support of religious institutions and

for services connected therewith; II, Those held for purposes of public utility; III, Those held for the support of works of irrigation yielding public revenue; IV, Those held by Brahmins and other religious classes for their personal benefit; V, Those held by the families of Poligars and those who filled hereditary offices of trust under former governments; VI, Those held by the kinsmen, dependents and followers of former Poligars and Zemindars; VII, Those connected with the former general police of the country; VIII, Those held for ordinary Village Revenue and Police service; IX, Those held by various descriptions of artisans for services due to village communities. Each class will be noticed in the above order.

A considerable portion of the Inam tenures in the Presidency belongs Class I. to the religious institutions of the country, both Mahomedan and Hindu. A recent computation gives the extent at acres 1,458,081 and the Government value or assessment at Rupees 24,22,467. They are held either directly for the support of the institutions or for various services to be rendered therein. There is hardly a village of any importance in the country which does not possess its two temples, one to Vishnu and the other to Siva, and which has not also its tutelary village deity known under a variety of names. The Inams of this description are therefore by far the most numerous, though the value of each taken by itself is often inconsiderable. With the exception of the pagoda of Jagannath, which though not within this Presidency enjoys extensive Inams in the district of Ganjam, there are very few temples of note in the Northern Circars, nor are there any of much celebrity in the Ceded Districts excepting the temples at Hampi and Sandur. By far the larger portion of the Inams belongs to the pagodas in the Southern Districts, such as Tripatty, Conjeveram, Srirangam, Rameswaram, and Madura. The valuable endowments attached to the different Mathams, or spiritual headships of the three leading sects of Brahmins, are also included under this head, and are to be met with in nearly all the districts of the Presidency. There are besides throughout the country minor religious institutions not presided over by Brahmins, which enjoy Inams of more or less value. These belong to Bairagis and Pandarams or religious mendicants, and Jangams or priests of the Lingait sect. The Mahomedan institutions are of a less varied character, and are generally in a decaying condition throughout the country. They consist chiefly of mosques or places of public worship, Takyas or residences of Fakirs, and Darghs or shrines of Mahomedan saints. The endowments attached to Christian churches are very few and occur only in the districts of Tinnevely and Tanjore.

A great variety of Inams falls under Class II, which embraces those Class II. held for the support of Chattrams, Water-pandals, Topes, Nandava-

nams, or Flower-gardens, Wells, Ponds, Tanks, Bridges, Village Schools, and Veda Patasalas or schools for teaching the Vedas. The extent was recently computed at acres 156,949 and the assessment at Rupees 3,07,912. The object of the greater part of these grants is the provision of water and shade, both wants of the first importance in a tropical country. Bridges and Village Schools endowed with Inams are few in number. Schools for teaching the Vedas are also not numerous and may be said to be falling into disuse.

Class III.

The Inams of the third class usually known as Dasabhandams are confined chiefly to the Ceded Districts, the western portions of Guntoor, Nellore, North Arcot and Salem. The extent has been computed at acres 24,824 and the assessment at Rupees 1,40,715. They were granted as a recompense to private individuals who constructed tanks, wells, and river-channels by means of which the revenue of the State was augmented. The extent and value of the Inam were in proportion to the capital expended on the work and the outturn in revenue. These grants are of two descriptions, "Khanda Dasabhandams" or Inams given in specific localities, and "Shamilat Dasabhandams" or the allowance as Inam of a certain proportion of each year's cultivation under the work in question. Inams of the latter description have not been brought on the Inam registers as they had no locality. In all ordinary cases Dasabhandamdars are under the obligation of maintaining the works of irrigation in due repair. In some cases such a condition was either not attached to Dasabhandam Inams or it had not been enforced for a long time. Such Inams have been treated and enfranchised as personal grants. In the Ceded Districts certain Wudders or tank-diggers held Inams for the service of executing the ordinary repairs of large Government tanks. Under the present organization of the Public Works Department the Wudders occupied an anomalous position, and the services attached to their tenures were reported to be very inefficiently rendered. Their Inams have consequently been enfranchised under the rules.

Classes IV and V.

The Bhatta-vritti and Khairati Inams held respectively by Brahmins and Mahomedans for subsistence form nearly one-half of the Inams of the Presidency. The extent has been given at acres 3,694,394 and the assessment at Rupees 54,89,928. As has been already remarked, the grant of Inams to Brahmins is of very great antiquity. The Mahomedan rulers also freely alienated lands to the religious classes of their own faith. These grants may be said to represent the accumulated chartities of the sovereigns and chiefs of the country from the most remote times. The Inams held by the families of dispossessed Poligars in the Ceded Districts and the Baramahal, and of the ancient Kanungos, Desbandyas, and Desmukhs, who have been permitted

enjoy certain lands free of all conditions of service to Government, have been all now treated as personal. When the Polliems were reduced at the cession of the territories to the East India Company, certain pensions and Inam lands were granted to the ex-Poligars for their subsistence. Although a vague impression appears to have prevailed at the time that they were liable to be called out for police service during emergencies, the occasion for such services very seldom arose, and the Inams have been practically enjoyed as personal. The Kanungos were the Provincial, and the Desbandyas the District, Registrars or Revenue Accountants. The Desmukhs were chief officers of police and revenue, corresponding generally to Zemindars. Their offices were abolished at a very early stage of the British administration, and the Inams granted to or allowed to be held by them being of a personal character have been enfranchised like ordinary Inams.

The Inams held under Class VI are considerable in number and Class VI. value, chiefly in the Northern Circars and the Southern Paleiyams of Madura. Before their cession to the British these countries were mostly held by Zemindars or Poligars who exercised the powers of sovereignty within their limited estates. They alienated lands not only for the maintenance of Brahmins and of their own relatives and dependents, but also to a large number of their household servants and to numerous men of rank of their own caste. Whole villages were held on conditions of service, which was neither rendered nor called for under the British administration. Of this character were the Bissois and Doratanams in the hill tracts of Ganjam and Vizagapatam, the Mukhasas of the Kintna District, the Amarams of North Arcot, the Umligas of Salem, and the Jivitams of Madura. All these tenures have been now enfranchised, a higher rate of quit-rent being charged on those which were held on the condition of actual service. Several miscellaneous Inams, such as those held by Desayis, Nattars, Settis, and other heads of castes, and by certain classes of servants known as Tambalas, Anakalas, Matipatis, and Jirars in the Ceded Districts, the services connected with which have long ceased to be required, have been also enfranchised and converted into private property.

The seventh class comprises the Inams held by the Kattubadis, a Class VII. class of peons who discharged police, military, and not unfrequently, revenue duties. They were called into existence by the Poligars, who remunerated them by assignments of land and paid them batta also while on actual service; they were chiefly employed in the hilly and inaccessible parts of the country. On the introduction of the British rule they were generally left in quiet possession of their Inams and were but seldom called out for duty. The Inams of this class have now

been all enfranchised. The Kattubadis are found in the greatest numbers in the Ceded Districts and North Arcot.

Classes VIII and IX.

The Inams embraced in the eighth and ninth classes are those of the village servants, revenue and police, and of the village artizans. These were simply recorded by the officers of the late Inam Commission. The latter were continued on the existing tenure, and no steps could be taken in regard to the former until some decision was come to as to the principles on which the village establishments of the Presidency were to be revised and remodelled. The operations which have since taken place with regard to the revision of village establishments have been fully described in a previous division of this Section.

Miscellaneous operations of Commission.

In addition to dealing with Inams proper, the Commission investigated and disposed of a large number of anomalies which had for some time disfigured the revenue system of the Presidency. These latter measures have greatly tended to simplify the revenue administration of the several districts, and the discussion and final decision of many long-disputed rights between the Government and Zemindars, between Zemindars and Inamdars and their tenants, have facilitated the revenue procedure of district officers in no small degree.

Close of the Commission.

The Inam Commission continued as a separate department up to November 1869, when, the bulk of the work having been completed, and under a pressing necessity for the reduction of Imperial expenditure, it was resolved to abolish the department, and the Inam Commissioner was ordered to submit his general report. The work which remained to be done was entrusted to a member of the Board of Revenue, who was appointed Inam Commissioner *pro forma* and to satisfy legal requirements. By the 1st July 1870 some 28,000 further cases were disposed of, and the work which remained at the time of transfer was got through; but it was found necessary to continue the appointment of a member of the Board as Inam Commissioner. References are still continually made by Collectors in Inam matters, scattered cases still occur which have remained undisposed of owing to the absence of parties or other causes, and title-deeds for Village Service Inams enfranchised on the revision of the establishments coincident with new settlement have to be issued.

General results.

The total number of Inams confirmed, the quit-rent charged by the Inam Commission, and the cost of the Commission from its commencement to the present date are shown below :—

	Total Number of Inams.	Area.	Assessment.	Old Jodi	Quit-rent newly charged.	Cost.
From the commencement up to 30th June 1866.	367,427	ACRES. 5,977,305	RS. 90,90,881	RS. 842,765	RS. 10,62,767	RS.
From 1st July 1866 to 31st March 1878.	39,530	277,022	7,93,324	57,337	1,84,747	13,35,947
From 1st April 1878 to 31st March 1879.	47	1,252	1,671	58	354	
Total ...	407,004	6,255,579	98,85,876	900,160	12,47,868	13,35,947
					Assessment of Inams fully assessed up to 1866.	1,13,962
					Assessment of Inams fully assessed since.	5,317
					Total ...	13,67,147

Of the above-mentioned amount of quit-rent newly charged, Rupees 3,46,614* represent the sum charged on Village Service Inams enfranchised. The general success which has attended the proceedings of the Commission can best be judged by the very large proportion of those interested who accepted the terms proffered by Government. It appears from the figures given down to 1866 by which time the bulk of the work had been completed, that these terms were declined in only 6,588 cases, and that the rejections involved the temporary annual loss to Government of not more than Rupees 35,885; this sum was the quit-rent fixed for enfranchisement, and represents a little less than 3½ per cent. on the whole amount of additional quit-rent imposed. The provisions in the rules authorizing the conversion of the absolute tenure on enfranchisement into a freehold by the redemption of quit-rent at twenty years' purchase was taken advantage of to a very trifling extent, only Rupees 666 of quit-rent having been redeemed in this way down to 1866. No other result was to be expected as 12 per cent. may be viewed as the ordinary rate of interest procurable among Natives of the country for money lent on undoubted security. They would hardly therefore be likely to invest largely in redemption of quit-rent which would return but 5 per cent. on the capital sunk. It will be seen that the total cost of the Commission since its formation has scarcely exceeded 13 lakhs of rupees; a sum the reverse of excessive when the highly satisfactory results attained are considered. Landed property in which not less than two and a half million persons are in some measure interested, and extending to nearly 6½ millions of acres in

	RS.
Godavari	1,25,320
Kurnool	2,11,612
Trichinopoly	8,827
Tinnevely	855
Total ...	3,46,614

area, which was lately held on defective and doubtful titles, and which paid to the revenue less than one-tenth of the regulated land assessment, has now been confirmed to the holders on indefeasible Government titles; and the measure has resulted in a clear gain to the revenue of about 13½ lakhs of rupees per annum. The alienation of State revenue has been considerably reduced, and at the same time contentment has been diffused throughout the whole body of the Inamdar.

WARDS' ESTATES.

Court of
Wards.

Under Regulation V of 1804, the Members of the Board of Revenue are constituted a Court of Wards with authority to take charge of property devolving by succession on heirs incapacitated by minority, sex, or infirmity, from administering their own affairs, provided that the heirs concerned be persons paying revenue or rent direct to Government. In cases where lunacy may occur at some time other than that of succession, the Collector of the district is empowered by Act XXXV of 1858, Section 3, Clause 2, to move the Civil Court to put the estate under charge of the Court of Wards. Property under the Court cannot be attached or sold for arrears of public revenue; if one year shows a loss in the collections, the deficiency to the public purse has to be made good by the surplus collections of other years. The first step in assuming charge must be sanctioned by Government, but subsequently to that the Court of Wards administers the estates on its own responsibility. The estates are restored when, in the opinion of the Court, the disability has ceased. The estates are managed through Collectors, who employ special establishments at the cost of the estates. A paid manager appointed under the Act to take charge of the property forms part of every establishment. There is also in all cases a guardian, paid or otherwise, whose duty it is to attend to the private affairs of the ward and to administer that part of the income which is set apart for the ward's private use. A commission of 1½ per cent. on the revenues, deducting from these all establishment and maramut charges, is paid into the public funds as consideration for general supervision. Important public works which require execution on the estate have been hitherto carried out, under sanction of the Government, by the Public Works Department, the Public Works executive staff up to the grade of Overseers being provided for in the estimate, and the supervision being gratuitous. In minor cases the Collectors have carried out the works themselves with special and sometimes temporary engineering establishments. It is in contemplation that the

Court should employ its own public works establishments hereafter in all cases. They have already Engineers of their own in Parla Kimedi, and in Ramnad and other estates in the Madura District. Each estate sends up an annual budget to the Court, to be dealt with separately. The funds as raised from the estate are paid into the Government treasury, and accounts are there kept for each estate. The public funds cannot be indented on by an estate except by special loan. When the accounts show a large deposit for any one estate at any treasury the amount is remitted to the Bank of Madras through the Court. The Court keep a separate account for each estate, but the Bank of Madras keep only one account in the name of the Court. Surplus funds are invested in Government paper. In the management of the funds of an estate under the Court, the object held in view is rather to improve the estate than to attempt to accumulate savings so as to make a purse for a ward on his succeeding to the estate in person. Under Act XXI of 1855 the Court have also control of the education of every male minor whose property has been taken under their management with that of such minor's younger brother or brothers. The wards are generally educated, either by a tutor or by attending school, at the head-quarters of districts, where they can be under the eye of the Collector. There is a penalty for aiding and abetting the marriage of a minor made without the consent of the Court. Disqualified proprietors cannot adopt children without the Court's consent. Appendix Statement No. X at the end of this volume shows the estates under management at the end of Fasli 1287, with the names, age, and sex of the wards, the date of assuming management, date when they will probably be restored, and the rent-roll according to the best information.

SECTION III.

PROTECTION.

LEGISLATING AUTHORITY AND
GOVERNMENT LAW OFFICERS.

Council for
making laws
and regula-
tions.

UNDER the Indian Councils Act of 1861 (24 & 25 Victoria, Cap. 67), the local legislating authority for the Presidency of Madras is vested in the Governor in Council; the Council, at meetings held for the purpose of making laws and regulations, consisting of the Ordinary Members with the addition of the Advocate-General and such other persons, not less than four or more than eight in number, as the Governor may nominate. Not less than one-half of the persons so nominated are non-officials. At a meeting of the Council for this special purpose, the Governor, or in his absence the Senior Civil Ordinary Member of Council, presides, and business can only be transacted if the Governor or some Ordinary Member of Council and at least four other Members are present. In the case of a difference of opinion the President has, if necessary, a casting vote. The business of the meeting is confined to the consideration of measures already introduced into the Council, or to granting sanction for the introduction of new measures. No measure affecting the public revenues can be introduced without the previous sanction of the Governor. Every law or regulation made by the Council must, before it comes into force, receive the assent of the Governor in the first instance, and subsequently that of the Governor-General, and is eventually subject to be disallowed by the Crown.

—Limits of
its jurisdic-
tion.

Except with the sanction of the Governor-General previously obtained, no measure can be introduced, (1), Affecting the public debt of India, or the customs duties, or any other tax or duty now in force and imposed by the authority of the Government of India for the general purposes of such Government; (2), Regulating any of the current coin, or the issue of any bills, notes, or other paper currency; (3), Regulating the conveyance of letters by the Post Office or

messages by the Electric Telegraph within the Presidency; (4), Altering in any way the Penal Code of India as established by Act of the Governor-General in Council, No. XLV of 1860; (5), Affecting the religion or religious rites and usages of any class of Her Majesty's subjects in India; (6), Affecting the discipline or maintenance of any part of Her Majesty's Military or Naval Forces; (7), Regulating patents or copyrights; (8), Affecting the relations of the Government with Foreign Princes or States.

Rules for the conduct of business at the Meetings of Council have been made under the provisions of Section 37 of the Act. The most important of these relate to the introduction of Bills. When leave has been obtained for the introduction of a Bill either from the Council when sitting or from the Governor during the adjournment, the Bill is printed, together with a Statement of Objects and Reasons, and a copy is furnished to each Member of the Council. On the day fixed for the introduction of a Bill, or on any subsequent day, the principles of the Bill and its general provisions may be discussed, and if necessary it may be referred to a Select Committee for report. All reports of Select Committees, as well as the Bill and the Statement of Objects and Reasons, must be published in the Official Gazette, and copies furnished to all the Members of the Council before the measure is brought up for final consideration.

The principal law officer of the Government is the Advocate-General. His duties, briefly put, are—(1), to advise the Government upon legal matters referred to him; (2), to appear for the Government in legal proceedings on the Original Side of the High Court in which the Government is interested; and (3), to appear at the Madras Sessions and prosecute in cases of murder, counterfeiting coin, and offences by Government servants against the Government.

The duties of the Government Pleader as at present constituted are—(1), to appear before the High Court, Appellate Side, when instructed to do so by Government in all appeals in suits in which Government or officers of Government are parties; (2), to appear before the same tribunal in support of convictions in criminal appeals when directed to do so by Magistrates or by the High Court, or in appeals from orders of acquittal when directed to do so by Government; (3), to appear for Government in civil or criminal cases in Mofussil Courts when instructed to do so; (4), to advise Government or the Board of Revenue on legal questions arising out of suits, &c., in the mofussil.

The Crown Prosecutor is Standing Counsel to Government in criminal cases arising within the original jurisdiction of the High Court. It is his duty to appear for the prosecution on behalf of Government and conduct all the cases at the High Court Sessions; except that in

cases of murder, and certain other serious offences, in which the Advocate-General is required to appear on behalf of Government, he acts as the Advocate-General's junior. It is also the duty of the Crown Prosecutor to appear as Counsel for Government and conduct Government prosecutions before the Presidency Town Magistrates; the Government Solicitor furnishing him with the necessary briefs. The Crown Prosecutor is the officer to whom commitments for trial before the High Court are made by the committing Magistrates. The Crown Prosecutor is also ex-officio Public Prosecutor for the purposes of the Presidency Magistrates' Act, 1877, and, as such, when directed by the Government to do so, presents appeals to the High Court from orders of acquittal, or dismissal, or discharge, made by Presidency Town Magistrates.

Government
Vakeels.

To each District Court is attached a Government Vakeel, who is a member of the local Bar. He is required to appear and act in all Government suits in the Courts of the District Judges' stations. Besides the regulated fees in each suit he receives a salary of Rupees 21 a month.

Government
Solicitor.

The functions and duties of the Government Solicitor are shortly these:—to advise the different departments and officers of Government in matters on which the opinion of the Advocate-General may not be required; in cases where that officer's opinion is required, to lay the papers before him, and on receipt of his opinion to forward a copy of it to Government; to prepare contracts for the several departments of Government, and all deeds and conveyances to Government; to furnish the Crown Prosecutor with the necessary briefs in Police cases in which that officer has to appear, *i.e.*, all cases in which the prosecution is instituted or carried on by or under the orders or with the sanction of Government; to appear at the Police Courts and instruct the Crown Prosecutor in such cases; to send the necessary briefs to the Advocate-General for the quarterly Sessions of the High Court in all cases of murder, coining and other cases in which the Crown is immediately interested, and to appear in Court on the trial of such cases; and to institute, defend and conduct all civil suits and proceedings by or against Government, and where the sanction of Government has been obtained by or against its officers.

Clerk of the
Crown.

The duties of Clerk of the Crown are—(1), to draw up indictments against prisoners committed to stand their trial at the High Court Sessions; (2), to make copies of all depositions, exhibits, &c., for prosecuting and defending Counsel, or others employed in prosecution or defence; (3), to draw up warrants, and sentences passed on prisoners during the sessions; (4), to prepare lists of special and petty jurors, and settle all doubtful cases arising under the lists; (5), to draw up

and issue jury rules; (6), to take recognizances of witnesses, and bail bonds of prisoners; (7), to issue subpoenas for all witnesses on behalf of prisoners in jail, prosecutors, and the Crown; and (8), to register the proceedings of Courts-martial.

The Administrator-General is appointed by the local Government, and must be a member of the Bar of England or Ireland or of the Faculty of Advocates in Scotland. He is not an officer of the High Court, but obtains from that Court letters of administration authorizing him to deal with and dispose of estates committed to his custody. The jurisdiction of the Administrator-General extends over the whole Presidency including Travancore, Cochin, Pudukottah, Bunganapalli, Sundur, and the Nizam's Dominions. He gives general security to the Secretary of State for the due execution of his office, and no special security is required to be given by him to the High Court when administrations are granted by that Court to him. The duties of the office are detailed in Government of India Act II of 1874. Under Section 15 the Administrator-General is entitled generally to letters of administration, unless they are granted to the next of kin of the deceased. By Section 16 he is required within a reasonable time after he shall have had notice that a person has died (other than a Hindu, Mahomedan, or Buddhist, or a person exempted under the Indian Succession Act, 1865, Section 332, from the operation of that Act) and that the deceased has left assets within the Presidency, to take steps to apply for letters of administration, and this whether the deceased has left a will or not provided that the assets are of greater value than Rupees 1,000, and provided that no person shall within a month after the death have applied within the Presidency for probate of a will or for letters of administration of the estate. If the assets do not exceed 1,000 rupees in value in the whole, the Administrator-General is not bound to act, but he may either grant a certificate of administration to some person entitled to a share of the effects of the deceased or take charge of the estate himself without letters of administration. In certain cases such as where danger is to be apprehended of misappropriation, deterioration or waste of an estate, the Administrator-General may be directed by the Court to apply for letters of administration to the effects of any person whether Hindu, Mahomedan, Buddhist or not, and power is also given to the Administrator-General to collect and hold all such assets until the right of succession or administration is ascertained; and if no person appears according to the practice of the Court and entitles himself to probate of the will, or grant of administration as next of kin of deceased, or if the person obtaining the order of administration neglects to give the security required of him, the Court is bound to grant letters of administration to the Administrator-General. Any private executor or

administrator may, with the consent of the Administrator-General, by an instrument in writing, under his hand, transfer all estates, effects, and interests vested in him by virtue of such probate or letters to the Administrator-General, and the Administrator-General shall have the rights and be subject to the liabilities which he would have had and to which he would have been subject if probate or letters of administration had been originally granted to him. As soon as the Administrator-General takes charge of the estate, the fact is advertised in the Gazette and in the public papers, and creditors are called upon to prove their claims. They are required to state the amounts and other particulars, and to support their claims by such evidence as, under the circumstances of the case, the Administrator-General is reasonably entitled to require. If a claimant fail to do this within one month of the date of the institution of any suit he is liable to pay the cost of the suit, and if in any suit judgment is pronounced in favor of the plaintiff, he is nevertheless entitled only to payment out of the assets equally and rateably with the other creditors. The Administrator-General like any other executor or administrator keeps the assets for a reasonable time to answer the claims of creditors. This time is fixed at one year, but where the case permits of it, the account is closed earlier. Like any other executor or administrator he is bound to pay all creditors rateably or preferentially according to the law governing the distribution. No claim can be made upon him in respect of any assets paid or delivered by him to any legatee, or to any person entitled on distribution without notice of the claim. The following are preferential payments:—(1), Funeral expenses; (2), death-bed charges; (3), fee for medical attendance; (4), board and lodging for one month prior to death; (5), expenses for obtaining probate or letters of administration; and (6), wages for services rendered to deceased within three months of his death by any laborer, artizan, or domestic servant. After this comes payment of other debts, which are on an equal footing. The Administrator-General is bound to keep the accounts prescribed by the Act and to allow persons entitled so to do to inspect them. He is bound to furnish half-yearly schedules of estates under his charge in form prescribed by the Act, and these schedules are published in the *Fort St. George Gazette*. Three copies are sent to Government for transmission to the Secretary of State for India for the information of persons in England who are interested in the matter. The Administrator-General of Madras is entitled to a commission of 5 per cent. (except in the case of officers and soldiers dying on service when the commission is 3 per cent.) on the assets, and no person other than the Administrator-General acting officially is entitled to charge any commission or agency charges for any thing done as executor or administrator under any probate or

letters of administration granted by the Supreme or High Court in Madras since the passing of Act II of 1850, or by any Court under the Indian Succession Act, 1865.

The Sheriff of Madras is appointed by the Governor in Council under the same Letters Patent which established the Supreme Court of Judicature at Madras in 1800. That portion of those Letters Patent which relates to the office of Sheriff of Madras has not been repealed by the Letters Patent establishing the present High Court. The appointment is an annual one and dates from the 20th December. The duties of the Sheriff, as defined by the Letters Patent of 1800, are "to execute all the writs, summonses, rules, orders, warrants, commands, and process of the Court, and make return of the same together with the manner of the execution thereof to the Court." Section 636 of the Code of Civil Procedure, however, provides that "Notices to produce documents, summonses to witnesses, and every other judicial process issued in the exercise of the ordinary or extraordinary original civil jurisdiction of the High Court, and of its matrimonial, testamentary, and intestate jurisdiction, except summonses to defendants issued under Section 64, Writs of execution and notices under Section 553 (Notices of Appeal) may be served by the Attorneys in the suit, or by persons employed by them, or by such other persons as the High Court by any rule or order from time to time directs." Rule 15 of the Rules of the High Court, Madras, Original Side, dated the 3rd May 1878, contains a similar provision, with a proviso that "parties appearing in person must cause all notices, summonses, writs, and other process to be served by the Sheriff." The Sheriff also serves summonses to witnesses and executes attachments and other process issued by the Court for the relief of Insolvent Debtors and by the Crown Side of the High Court. He presides over the preparation of the annual lists of persons qualified and liable to serve on juries, and issues summonses to the jurors who are to serve at each quarterly Criminal Sessions of the High Court. He attends personally in Court during the continuance of the Sessions, and is responsible for the maintenance of discipline and order in Court. He convokes and attends personally at public meetings.

The office of Coroner of Madras was first created about the year 1800. The duties are now regulated by the Coroner's Act, No. IV of 1871, under which the Coroner has to inquire into cases of death occasioned by accident, homicide, suicide, or suddenly by means unknown, and into the cause of the death of any person being a prisoner dying in jail. The Police authorities bring to his notice all cases of death occasioned in the way just mentioned, and he thereupon orders a jury to be assembled at the spot where the body is and holds an inquest on

view of the body. Madras is divided into four Medical districts, and the Surgeon in charge of the district in which an inquest is to be held is generally summoned by the Coroner to give professional evidence. The Coroner's jurisdiction extends over an area of 28 miles and is conterminous with the Presidency Police and Municipal limits. Murders in the Presidency town are rare, for during the eleven years 1866 to 1876, only 35 cases have occurred in which the Coroner has been called upon to hold inquest. Drowning seems to be the mode most resorted to by suicides; since the year 1868 to the end of 1876 there have been 212 cases. During the same period there have been 26 cases of suicide by hanging, and only 8 by cutting the throat. Suicide by poison shows only 13 cases during this period. During the first twenty years after the creation of the office 413 inquests were held, or an average of about 20 a year. For the twelve years from 1840 to 1852 there was a total of 1,217, or an average of 101 a year. For the twenty years from 1853 to 1872 the number had reached 3,403, or an average of 170 a year. For the four years from 1873 to 1876 the total number of inquests was 707, or an average of 176 a year. The number of inquests held in the two years 1877 and 1878 was 497 or an average of 248½ a year, exclusive of 65 adjournments.

POLICE.

History of the department.

The present Police organization in the Madras Presidency has been in existence for a little less than twenty years. The report of the Torture Commission in 1855 made certain what had for some time previously been a matter of rumour and discussion, namely that there was urgent necessity for Police reform in this Presidency. The Mofussil Police then existing were described by the Commission in very disparaging terms and a reform was at once projected. The Court of Directors in 1856 concurred in the views put forward by the Local Government, and the establishment of a department distinct from the Revenue and Magisterial departments, consisting of a Chief Commissioner with 20 District Superintendents and 20 Assistant Superintendents was sanctioned in a despatch of 9th June 1857. Mr. William Robinson of the Madras Civil Service, who had minutely studied the question of police organization in England and elsewhere, was appointed Chief Commissioner in 1858 and subsequently took the designation of Inspector-General of Police. The new constabulary was introduced in the District of North Arcot in 1859, and early in 1860 the work of reorganization was extended to all districts except those of the Northern

Circars, where the measure was postponed till 1861. The new force was organized very much on the Irish model.

The force as now constituted consists of—

Total strength of force.

Inspector-General and Supervising Staff (3 Deputy Inspectors-General and 1 Assistant Inspector-General) ...	5
Commissioner and Deputy Commissioners, Madras Town ...	3
Superintendents ...	20
Assistant Superintendents ...	20
Inspectors ...	388
Sub-Inspectors ...	31
Constabulary of all ranks ...	22,691
Office Establishments and other servants (not Police Officers) ...	246
Total ...	23,404

Of the above the following are employed on purely State services :—

Salt Preventive Force ...	1,897
Land Customs Force ...	170
Jail Guards ...	1,143
Total ...	3,210

In addition to the above, 179 Policemen are supplied to banks, public companies, and private individuals on payment. The highest rank of constable is Head Constable, and the Constables below that grade are divided into 1st class, 2nd class and 3rd class. The Sub-Inspectors are a probationary grade.

The whole Police force of the Presidency, including the Police of Distribution the City of Madras, is under the direction and control of the Inspector-General of Police. The detailed management of the Police of the offices. Madras Town is entrusted to the charge of a Commissioner of Police with two Deputy Commissioners under him. The mofussil districts are formed into ranges, and each range is placed under the immediate supervision of a Deputy Inspector-General. There are three ranges embracing each several districts as follows :—

Northern Range	Ganjam. Vizagapatam. Jeypore. Godavari. Kistna. Nellore. Bellary. Kurnool.	Southern Range	Tanjore. Trichinopoly. Madura. Tinnevely. Salem. Coimbatore. Malabar. South Canara.
Central Range	Cuddapah. North Arcot. Chingleput. South Arcot.		

Each district is under the immediate management of a Superintendent, who has one or two Assistants according to the area, population, and local circumstances. Each district is divided into several divisions

corresponding, as far as possible, with the boundaries of the revenue taluks and ranges of Subordinate Magistrates, and each division is in charge of an Inspector of Police. The chief office of the whole Police is at the Presidency Town, under the immediate charge of the Assistant Inspector-General with an office establishment. The district offices are at the head stations of the district, under the immediate management of the Superintendent, who is allowed an Inspector styled the Head-quarter Inspector, with a number of Police subordinates employed for the transaction of office work. The head station of a taluk is selected as the central station of the Police division, and also the head-quarters of the Divisional Inspector.

Discipline.

The members of the force are regularly drilled, and the corps generally is so organized as to be capable of supplying on an emergency a small body of irregulars for quasi-military purposes. The drill is that for the Native Army up to manual and platoon exercises, with the addition of baton exercise and lining streets to clear crowds. Punishments of the force are by conviction before Magistrates under the Police Act No. XXIV of 1859 and the Penal Code, or else by departmental notice. No Police officer convicted by a Criminal Court of any offence and sentenced to imprisonment is re-admitted to the service without the special order of the Inspector-General. Even if acquitted under such circumstances a Police officer is liable to be discharged from the service on the ground that there is moral evidence of his guilt. Police officers sentenced by a Criminal Court to fine without other punishment are not on that account dismissed, unless the circumstances of the case are such as render it necessary. Departmental punishments are made by black marks, fine, reduction, and dismissal. All punishments are entered in a default book. Appeal in all cases lies from the decision of the Superintendent to the Deputy Inspector-General and from him to the Inspector-General.

Uniform.

The uniform of the force is worn at all times by every individual of the force, unless temporarily dispensed with under special orders and for the better performance of some special duty. Two suits of white drill clothing are supplied to each Constable and Head Constable yearly. Inspectors, District Superintendents and their Assistants supply their own uniform according to an approved pattern. The different grades below Inspectors are distinguished by badges as in the Native Army. One-third of the force is armed with smooth-bore carbines, and two-thirds with swords. Every man is provided with a baton. The jail guards and reserve at district head-quarters are armed with carbines. Every article of dress or appointment, lodgings, &c., which may have been supplied to a Police officer at public cost has to be immediately delivered up or vacated when he ceases to belong to the Police force or has been suspended.

At the head-quarters of each district is a school supervised by a specially selected Inspector or Head Constable, and through this all recruits have to pass before being sent to divisions. Station-house Officers are called in from time to time to go through the examination prescribed for their rank. Three courses are laid down.

Every member of the constabulary is enlisted on condition of serving and residing wherever he may be required; but for practical purposes the general body is broken up into district corps, and is recruited and worked as so many separate bodies within their respective districts. The men are generally for obvious reasons retained within the districts with which they are respectively best acquainted. Physical fitness has to be certified to by the Zillah Surgeon. No man is entertained who is older than 25 years, except under special circumstances, and then only under sanction of the Inspector-General. A Police officer devotes his whole time to the Police service, and takes part in no trade or calling unless expressly permitted. He conforms himself implicitly to all rules which are from time to time made for the regulation and good order of the service. No Police officer is allowed, under any pretext whatever, to have money transactions with any other Police officer. They may not withdraw from the service without distinct permission, or until the expiration of two months after giving warning of their intention to do so. They may not on any occasion, or under any pretext whatever, directly or indirectly take or receive any present, gratuity or fee without the express permission of the District Superintendent. The District Magistrate is invariably consulted with regard to the entertainment of Inspectors, and his opinion is submitted to the Inspector-General of Police through the Deputy Inspector-General of Police with the nominal roll, which is not passed unless this preliminary step has been taken. The examination for Inspectors is one of the Uncovenanted Service Special Tests. It is the same as that for Sub-Magistrates, with the addition of a departmental paper. The District Superintendents of Police are entertained as probationers at first. Before being declared qualified for the service they are required to pass such an examination as proves that they possess a really good colloquial familiarity with the vernacular of the district. They are likewise required to pass an examination in Criminal Law and Law of Evidence. Assistant Superintendents are required to pass the same examination tests as Superintendents.

The men are taken as they present themselves from the local rural and agricultural classes provided they come up to standard measurements, which are generally the same as those for the Native Army, and provided they can read and write. Low caste men are rarely enlisted unless in exceptional places, as for instance in hill tracts. The army

Enlistment,
appoint-
ments, &c.

Classes from
which
recruited.

for some while furnished the Officers, and a few retired British Officers have joined since that supply ceased; but at present there is no recognized source from which Officers can be regularly drawn. The following statement shows the castes of Police men admitted during an average of three years, 1876 to 1878 :—

Districts.	Christians.	Mahomedans.	Hindus.							Hindus of all other castes.
			Brahmins.	Rajpoots.	Nairs.	Teers.	Oryahs.	Pariahs.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Madras Town	79	335	37	56	...	...	...	106	677	
Ganjam	10	80	5	8	...	...	517	10	666	
Vizagapatam	15	116	50	16	...	...	121	18	984	
Jeypure	4	12	6	7	...	...	192	1	198	
Godavari	18	439	28	28	...	...	...	34	779	
Kistna	9	435	55	49	...	...	...	2	713	
Total ...	65	1,082	150	108	...	...	830	65	3,340	
Nellore	13	589	38	69	...	...	...	4	645	
Kurnool	8	516	46	79	...	...	...	1	599	
Bellary	22	626	67	56	...	...	...	27	638	
Cuddapah	9	540	32	36	...	...	...	1	563	
North Arcot	19	536	48	37	...	...	...	10	874	
Chingleput	65	339	15	24	...	...	...	20	568	
South Arcot	38	441	16	36	...	...	...	8	671	
Total ...	174	3,587	262	337	...	...	...	71	4,367	
Tanjore	34	139	21	24	...	...	...	...	1,220	
Trichinopoly	23	210	14	14	...	...	1	10	583	
Madura	21	320	28	8	...	...	...	10	851	
Tinnevely	79	190	8	...	...	...	...	5	728	
Salem	23	406	110	21	...	...	...	3	601	
Coimbatore	29	321	70	40	...	...	...	6	604	
Nilgiri	13	67	2	8	...	...	...	4	69	
Malabar	68	*228	3	21	1,035	213	...	19	*30	
South Canara	168	*120	29	22	1	78	12	...	†302	
Total ...	463	1,991	235	158	1,036	291	13	57	5,078	
Grand Total ...	781	6,995	734	659	1,036	291	843	299	13,452	

Pay and
privileges.

The following is the scale of pay for the force :—

	RS.	A.	P.
Inspector-General of Police	2,500	0	0
Commissioner of Police, Madras Town	1,500	0	0
Deputy Inspectors-General of Police	1,200	0	0
Superintendents of Police, 1st Grade	1,000	0	0
Assistant Inspector-General of Police	900	0	0
Superintendents of Police, 2nd Grade	800	0	0
Deputy Commissioner of Police, Madras Town	750	0	0
Superintendents of Police, 3rd Grade	700	0	0
Assistant Superintendents of Police, Hill Range	600	0	0
Native Deputy Commissioner of Police, Madras, and Assistant Superintendents of Police	500	0	0
First-class Inspectors acting as Asst. Supt. of Police	400	0	0
Inspectors of Police, 1st Class	200	0	0
Do. 2nd Class	150	0	0
Do. 3rd Class	100	0	0
Head Serjeant, Madras Town	85	0	0

* Includes 88 Moplahs.

† Including 7 Moplahs.

	RS.	A.	P.
Inspectors of Police, 4th Class	75	0	0
Serjeants, Madras Town	60	0	0
Chief Constables, Coimbatore and Trichinopoly	55	0	0
Sub-Inspector, Ooty	52	0	0
Inspectors of Police, 5th Class	50	0	0
Do. 6th Class	40	0	0
Sub-Inspectors	30	0	0
European Head Constables	37 to 30	0	0
Head Constables, 1st Grade	25	0	0
Do. 2nd Grade	20	0	0
Do. 3rd Grade	15	0	0
Do. 4th Grade	12	0	0
Constables, 1st Class, Madras Town	9	0	0
Do. do. in Districts	8	0	0
Do. 2nd Class	7	0	0
Do. 3rd Class	6	8	0
Village Watchers	3 to 2	8	0

Every Inspector is mounted and a part of his salary is received in the form of horse allowance. Military officers come under the general furlough regulations. The Officers who are not military men and all others whose pay is 20 rupees per mensem come under the leave rules for the Uncovenanted service. Constables and the lower ranks are granted occasional casual or sick leave by Superintendents according to circumstances. The Superannuation Funds established under Acts XXIV of 1859 and XIII of 1856, and amalgamated together by Act VIII of 1867, have been abolished by Act X of 1869. To members of the Police Force on pay above Rupees 20 a month pensions and gratuities are awarded under the rules applicable to Uncovenanted servants of Government in other departments; except that service in the Police counts under a special rule of the Pension Code as eligible service, even though the man rose from the ranks on pay below Rupees 10 a month.

The lower ranks, Head Constables and men, are required to reside in lines or huts near together, and in the immediate vicinity of the station-house wherever possible. This arrangement is indispensable for proper discipline and supervision, and in order that the men may be at hand to meet emergency and ordinary duty. Hutting is provided by Government and rent is charged to provide for the necessary repairs. Inspectors of all grades generally provide their own lodging, but are required to reside within the limits of their range of duty, about which they are expected to be continually moving. Where quarters have been built by Government, Inspectors pay rent.

The duties undertaken by the Police are, the preservation of the peace, the prevention of crimes and offences, the detection and apprehension of offenders, the discovery of stolen property, the collection of evidence against persons accused of grave crimes and the bringing them before the Magistracy and Courts, the apprehending and watching of

vagrants and suspicious characters, the patrol of the country and public roads, the prevention of nuisances, laying information before the Magistracy of offences of a public nature committed against any existing law, the inspection and verification of weights and measures, the management of public pounds, the service and execution of summonses and warrants and other lawful processes and orders issued by the Magistracy or Courts in any criminal matter, the safe custody of prisoners under trial or remanded by the Magistracy, escort and guarding of treasure and convicts, and maintaining a constant observation of every part of the country with a view to daily transmission and mutual communication of authentic intelligence on matters of public importance. Besides these ordinary duties, the Police undertake the guarding of jails, the guarding of salt-pans and platforms, the prevention of smuggling on foreign frontiers, the guarding of distilleries under the Excise Act, the protection of marine traffic in the harbour of Madras, and the working of the Municipal, Cantonment, and Contagious Diseases Acts. The duties formerly performed by the Meriah agency in Ganjam are now performed by the Police, who occupy all the hill tracts in the Northern Circars. The Police also hold all the frontier posts formerly held by detachments of Madras troops.

Particulars
as to detec-
tion.

There is no separate detective branch. In grave cases where the ordinary Police fail to obtain clues, officers of superior rank and special aptitude are detailed to work them. A careful and accurate registration of known depredators, wandering gangs, and of the criminal classes generally is maintained throughout the Presidency, and is of the greatest assistance in tracing crime. The Village Police are also of much use.

Particulars as
to inquiry.

The Police make inquiries as far as possible by means of personal investigation, as opposed to the practice of summoning parties to the station-house. If a disclosure be volunteered by any person in the custody of a Police officer, the latter makes a memorandum of the nature of the disclosure, in the precise words used by the prisoner. The Police officer reads the memorandum over to the prisoner if possible, but does not take the prisoner's signature on the paper. The memorandum is made with a view to the Police officer refreshing his memory as to the precise words used, in the event of his being required to give oral evidence of the admissions made, under Section 27 of the Evidence Act. The Police are directed never to prosecute upon a confession alone, however spontaneously given. The only use they are allowed to make of admissions made by the accused is to follow up the clue so given.

Particulars
as to arrest
and report.

"Cognizable" crime is defined by the law, and is such as the Police may inquire into without reference by magisterial authority. "Uncognizable" crime can be investigated by the Police only on receiving orders

from the Magistracy. The former consists as a rule of grave offences against the person, property, or the State; and are mostly the cases in which the Magistracy are instructed ordinarily to issue a warrant in the first instance for the apprehension of an offender. The latter consist of minor offences, and are such as the Magistracy are directed ordinarily to issue summonses for. The following table shows Police procedure as to arrest, report, &c., under cognizable cases, non-cognizable cases, and cases where parties are detained by the Police:—

Case true or false.	Accused, arrested or not.	Procedure.	Report to whom sent.
<i>Procedure in Cognizable Cases.</i>			
True ...	Arrested ...	1 Send original complaint or Magistrate's reference with received charge sheet and prisoner to	Magistrate having jurisdiction.
True ...	Not arrested	2 Send original complaint or Magisterial reference with an occurrence report giving details as far as known to	Do.
		3 N.B.—In all cases of crime send special crime memo. to head-quarter office. In sub-division, send to Assistant Superintendent.	
		4 Supplemental occurrence reports to head-quarters need only be sent in very serious cases where deemed requisite.	
*False or true but evidence insufficient.	Arrested ...	... Release prisoner, send original complaint or Magistrate's reference with bail-bond and referred charge sheet fully recording reasons for disbelieving the case to the Magistrate through the Inspector. Inspector will give such orders as he deems fit to his Station-house Officer on a separate paper, and having recorded a copy thereof on the referred charge sheet will transmit all the papers without delay to the	Magistrate having jurisdiction, Section 125.
False ...	Not arrested	5 Send original complaint or Magistrate's reference with referred charge sheet to Magistrate through Inspector who will act as in Rule 4.	Magistrate having jurisdiction, Section 147.
<i>Procedure in Non-cognizable Cases referred by Magistrates.</i>			
True ...	Not arrested	6 Send Magistrate's reference with occurrence report to	Magistrate by whom case was referred.
False ...	Do. ...	7 Send Magistrate's reference with referred charge sheet to Magistrate through Inspector who acts as in Rule 4 to	Do.
<i>When the accused is detained under Section 93.</i>			
	Detained ...	8 If the real name and address be not ascertained within 24 hours, send the accused with original complaint or reference and received charge sheet to	Magistrate having jurisdiction.
		9 If the real name and address have been ascertained within 24 hours, release him forthwith on his own recognizance, which with original complaint or reference and received charge sheet send to	Do.

Particulars
as to attend-
ance at
Courts.

Each superior officer in charge of a case sees it through the Court of the Magistrate trying it. Superintendents and Assistants are specially enjoined to attend the monthly criminal sessions at head-quarters.

Particulars
as to salt.

The Salt Police are to a certain extent a separate body to whom the ordinary rules of the department as to height, reading and writing, drill, &c. are not made so strictly applicable. A portion of the Salt Police are enlisted during the manufacturing season only, and when it is over they are discharged.

Particulars
as to jails.

At each jail there is a permanent Police guard furnishing the usual fixed number of sentries over the buildings day and night, and this is relieved weekly. Guards are also furnished by the Police over gangs extramurally employed at the rate of one Policeman to seven convicts. The following is a statement of prisoners and guards on an average for the three years 1876 to 1878 :—

Ranges.	Districts.	Average Number of Prisoners.	Police Guards.	
			Number.	Cost.
1	2	3	4	5
Northern Range.	Madras City	604	60	Rs. A. P. 6,868 14 6
	Ganjam	417	71	5,792 12 9
	Vizagapatam	484	80	6,451 2 8
	Jeypore	...	...	...
	Godavari	1,255	104	8,624 3 9
	Kistna	383	56	5,134 7 1
	Total ...	2,430	311	26,002 10 3
Central Range.	Nellore	914	131	13,159 7 2
	Kurnool	623	91	8,273 0 5
	Bellary	1,088	140	14,491 11 11
	Cuddapah	403	66	5,970 9 4
	North Arcot	1,337	165	16,330 4 7
	Chingleput	362	57	4,336 1 11
	South Arcot	781	94	7,784 7 3
	Total ...	5,548	744	60,815 10 7
Southern Range.	Tanjore	355	49	4,254 0 1
	Trichinopoly	1,550	175	16,809 9 0
	Madura	926	96	8,789 6 5
	Tinnevely	309	75	7,173 9 6
	Salem	1,381	153	16,869 7 2
	Coimbatore	1,607	191	18,929 0 2
	Malabar	1,365	185	17,357 14 1
	South Canara	152	23	1,805 10 0
	Total ...	7,945	952	91,766 1 5
	Grand Total ...	16,976	2,067	1,94,253 4 0

Particulars
as to inquests.

In all cases of death from unknown, violent, and suspicious causes, an inquest is held by the village headman, and is attended by the Police who are bound to render every assistance to the magisterial authorities.

Particulars
as to orderly
duty.

Orderlies on a sanctioned scale are furnished by the department to all Magistrates. They are employed solely for official purposes. They are relieved weekly.

All processes of a criminal nature are served by the Police. 400 Particulars men were in 1878 added to the force to enable this duty to be better as to process-
serving.
performed than before. The pay of these men is more than covered by the fees charged for the process. The following is a statement of processes served on average for the three years 1876 to 1878 :—

Ranges.	Districts.	Processes.	Ranges.	Districts.	Processes.
Northern Range.	Madras City	19,926	Southern Range.	Tanjore	39,645
	Ganjam	23,501		Trichinopoly	16,926
	Vizagapatam	21,683		Madura	31,286
	Jeypore	925		Tinnevely	21,137
	Godavari	24,294		Salem	19,720
	Kistna	16,531		Coimbatore	26,833
	Total ...	86,994		Nilgiri	1,478
Central Range.	Nellore	14,941		Malabar	26,362
	Kurnool	14,419		South Canara	12,718
	Bellary	14,419			
	Cuddapah	26,767			
	North Arcot	20,436			
	Chingleput	11,530			
	South Arcot	20,032			
	Total ...	140,531		Total ...	190,105
				Grand Total ...	437,556

The Police Department compile all the statistics required by Collection of Government under the head of Crime and Offences, and portion of the statistics.
statistics required under the head of Criminal Justice. For these matters see the two Sections of this volume given hereafter bearing those two titles.

CRIME AND OFFENCES.

A section on Police in the Government Administration Reports deals with the results under detection of criminals and offenders, and a section on criminal justice deals with the results under their punishment. A separate section has also been opened in the Administration Reports for results under the occurrence of crime and offences. For statistics under the latter head the Government rely entirely on the Police Department. Crimes are first reported to a Police station-house either by the village magistrate, or by beat constable, or by the complainant. Sometimes occurrences are first heard of through general rumour. Occurrences are first entered in the station-house register. The station-house officer then sends an occurrence report to Police district head-quarters. The same occurrences are also entered in the station-house report of the day, which is sent to the Division Inspector, who after checking it sends it to the head-quarter office. Crime reports are checked daily

in the district office and arranged according to divisions and according to classes of offences. Subsequent information received in Inspectors' diaries, in charge sheets, referred charge sheets, &c., is also filed with the above. Each Division Inspector keeps a crime register and enters in it all crimes communicated to him through the daily station-house reports, subsequent proceedings being entered as they occur. On the 1st of each month the Inspector prepares an extract from his crime register showing all offences reported during the previous month. About the same time he receives a monthly "B" file from the Magistrate of his division or taluk, in which is entered all cases charged before the Magistrate by the Police, and also all cases directly taken up by the Magistrate and the results in these cases. The Inspector checks the "B" file with his register, and if there is any difference he adjusts it with the Magistrate. He then gives a register number to all Police cases entered in the "B" file, for facility of reference in the ledgering department of the district office, and despatches the "B" file together with his crime extract to district head-quarters on or before the 12th of each month. The crime extracts received from Inspectors are compared in the head-quarters office with the crime reports already arranged and filed, and also with "B" forms. Objections and differences, if any, are noted on both extracts and reports, and the crimes are then ledgered. Subsequent proceedings and results are entered in the ledger from the "B" file. Crime reports, crime extracts, and "B" files, in which further information or explanation of differences is required, are returned to the several officers concerned, and on receipt of reply adjustments are made in the ledger. To ensure the correctness of the ledger in the head-quarter office a return of all grave crimes is prepared and published in the District Police Gazette quarterly or half-yearly, and Inspectors have to report whether this return corresponds with their registers. Results in cases of appeal to High Court are reported to the District Superintendent of Police by the District Magistrate and duly entered in the crime ledger. Finally the annual statements compiled in district Police offices are subjected to scrutiny in the statistical department of the chief office at Madras, and every discrepancy or apparent inaccuracy is referred back to the district for explanation. From the central office the returns are made to Government. In the town of Madras the Commissioner of Police or his deputy sits at the High Court during the sessions and takes a note of all convictions and sentences passed.

Crime for 3
years.

The following abstract table shows the crime which occurred in the three years 1876 to 1878 under the Penal Code and Special and Local Laws. The year 1877 was however exceptional as to total amount, being the year of the famine:—

Ranges.	Districts.	Cases.		Persons.		Property.	
		Reported.	Detected.	Arrested.	Convicted.	Lost.	Recovered.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Northern Range.	Madras City	30,825	25,146	48,314	30,099	64,018	30,901
	Ganjam	7,719	3,461	15,348	6,838	53,829	18,168
	Vizaspattam	7,820	3,950	17,373	8,746	68,051	21,825
	Jaypore	824	470	1,234	787	12,619	4,016
	Godavari	6,869	3,257	17,867	5,776	97,633	23,267
	Kistna	7,954	3,740	14,603	6,703	72,374	15,672
	Total	30,623	14,878	65,937	23,850	365,406	82,949
Central Range.	Nellore	9,484	4,313	15,908	8,501	91,780	16,872
	Kurnool	5,425	3,004	9,025	5,734	120,639	27,008
	Belary	13,325	5,893	22,552	15,331	211,270	45,030
	Cuddapah	6,524	3,520	13,040	6,132	145,336	25,774
	North Arcot	12,152	6,300	19,807	9,821	150,619	30,276
	Chingleput	8,162	5,321	13,933	8,665	62,810	12,707
	South Arcot	10,071	5,221	19,225	8,080	95,502	13,709
	Total	65,693	37,272	114,450	62,204	874,316	174,378
Southern Range.	Tanjore	12,894	7,148	24,127	9,265	93,014	10,747
	Trichinopoly	7,523	4,338	15,233	7,371	44,812	10,868
	Madura	15,833	9,636	25,911	13,848	161,931	34,065
	Tiraveilly	7,491	4,735	14,976	7,818	105,594	15,940
	Salem	9,355	5,854	18,114	10,709	90,132	27,323
	Coimbatore	10,609	4,954	17,908	8,174	69,547	21,043
	Nilgiri	1,524	835	1,970	1,214	9,622	3,305
	Malabar	12,720	5,494	24,177	8,620	149,367	29,611
	South Canara	3,951	1,658	7,189	2,512	38,221	9,955
	Total	80,405	44,732	140,656	69,501	782,241	162,757
	Grand Total	216,421	122,023	379,427	190,654	2,027,391	451,075

CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

In former years there was a Supreme Court, presided over by Old Sudder Barrister Judges consisting of a Chief Justice and one or more Puisne Judges appointed by the Crown, which exercised jurisdiction within the limits of the city of Madras. For the supervision of criminal justice administered in the Mofussil by the Company's Judges and Magistrates, there was again a Superior Court called the Foujdary Adalat which sat at the Presidency town. This latter Court was presided over by a chief and four other Judges, being covenanted civilians of experience taken from the judicial branch of the service. The Chief Judge was practically Honorary President of the Foujdary Adalat, being one of the two Civilian Members of Council. Appeals from the Courts in the Mofussil lay to the Foujdary Adalat. On the direct assumption of the government of the country by the Queen these two Courts were abolished as such, and were, by 24 and 25 Vic., Cap. 104, merged in one High Court of Judicature, with original and appellate jurisdiction, and presided over by a Barrister Chief Justice, and four Puisne Judges, one of whom is a Barrister and all of whom hold their appointments direct from the Queen.

High Court,
Criminal
Side.

The High Court exercises ordinary original criminal jurisdiction within the limits of the city of Madras, and tries all cases committed to it by the City Magistrates. Its procedure, in the exercise of its original criminal jurisdiction, is now governed by Act X of 1875, entitled the High Court's Criminal Procedure Act. By this Act it is empowered to hold sittings on such days and at such convenient intervals as the Chief Justice from time to time may appoint. These sittings are presided over by a single Judge and are known as Sessions, usually held once a quarter. All prisoners committed to take their trial before the High Court are arraigned at these Sessions, and the trial is held before a jury consisting, under the new procedure, of nine persons, three of whom are usually Europeans. The relations between the Judge and the jury are the same as in English law. Juries are of two kinds, common and special. All ordinary cases are tried before a common jury; but capital cases and special cases, usually those in which the Crown is directly interested, and for which it prosecutes through the Advocate-General, are tried before a special jury. Under Section 50 of the High Court's Criminal Procedure Act the High Court has power to sit at any place outside the Presidency town, and in any such case juries have to be empanelled under special arrangements. There is no appeal from a criminal trial before the High Court. By its Letters Patent (Clause 24) the High Court may exercise extraordinary original criminal jurisdiction over all persons within the jurisdiction of any Court subject to its superintendence, and may at its discretion, try any such persons brought before it on charges preferred by the Advocate-General, or by any Magistrate, or by any other officer specially empowered by Government in that behalf. European British subjects are committed by Justices of the Peace to take their trial before the High Court. The High Court has now no power to issue a writ of *habeas corpus*, but it has somewhat analogous powers under Section 148 of the High Court's Criminal Procedure Act; under this provision the High Court may direct a prisoner to be brought before it to be bailed or examined as a witness, or for other purposes. By its Letters Patent the High Court is also invested with Admiralty and Vice-Admiralty jurisdiction. As a Court of Appeal and Revision, the powers of the High Court are prescribed by the Criminal Procedure Code, Act X of 1872, as amended by Act XI of 1874. Appeals from the Session Courts in the districts lie to the High Court and are heard and determined by two Judges; but in case they differ in opinion, the difference of opinion must be settled by adding one or more Judges to the bench to hear and determine the appeal. All sentences of death must be confirmed by the High Court. There is no appeal on the part of the prosecution from a judgment of acquittal; but the Local Government are empowered by Section 272 of the Code of Criminal Procedure to direct an appeal to the High Court from such a judgment.

There is also no appeal from convictions in summary trials of certain offences held by 1st-class Magistrates or benches of Magistrates with first-class powers, where the sentence does not exceed three months' imprisonment, or fine of 200 rupees, or whipping only, nor from sentences passed by such Magistrates or by Session Judges in which the imprisonment awarded does not exceed one month, or the fine inflicted does not exceed 50 rupees, or where the sentence is for whipping only. Under Chapter XXII of the Code of Criminal Procedure, the High Court exercises powers of superintendence and revision over all the Criminal Courts of the Presidency, in the matter of framing rules for their guidance, of revising their calendars and sentences, of calling for their records, and of annulling, suspending, or modifying their sentences.

In each of the districts of the Presidency, except in Malabar where there are two Courts, there is a single Sessions Court presided over by the District Judge who, in the exercise of his criminal jurisdiction, is styled the Sessions Judge. Sessions Judges are appointed and removed by the Governor in Council by virtue of the powers vested in him by Section 9 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. In the Nilgiris the Commissioner is the Sessions Judge. The Sessions Court cannot take cognizance of any offence as a court of original jurisdiction unless the accused person has been committed to it by a competent Magistrate, except when the offence has been committed before itself or under its own cognizance, and is an offence of a specified class exclusively triable by a Sessions Court. Trials before a Court of Session are usually held with the aid of two or three Assessors, whose verdict however the Judge is empowered to set aside. Trials by jury also may be held before a Sessions Court, but only in those districts to which the jury system has been extended by the Government. As yet the jury system has not been extended beyond the five districts of North Arcot, Cuddapah, Godavari, Tanjore, and Vizagapatam, and in the latter case only to part of the district, as it is difficult to procure the services of a sufficient number of qualified persons in the other districts. The crimes tried by juries are theft, robbery, and gang robbery, house-breaking, and receiving or concealing stolen property; and it is to this careful selection of offences that the measure of success hitherto attained is chiefly attributable. The Sessions Court has power to pass the maximum punishment prescribed for each offence by the Penal Code, and, except in the case of death, its sentences are effectual without further reference, subject only to appeal to the High Court. All capital sentences must be confirmed by the High Court. The Sessions Court is also an Appellate Court, as to it lie all appeals from the decisions of the District Magistrates or other Magistrates of the first class.

Below the Courts of Session there are three grades of Criminal Courts, Magisterial, presided over by Magistrates of the first, second, or third class. At Courts.

the head of each district is the District Magistrate, who is also the Collector of the district. This officer is a Magistrate of the first class, his magisterial jurisdiction extends throughout the district, all the other Magistrates in the district are subject to his control, and he has the power of allotting the criminal work of the district among the different Magistrates subordinate to him and of defining their local jurisdiction. A district is divided into divisions, consisting each of so many taluks. At the head of each division is usually one of the Covenanted Assistants of the Collector and District Magistrate, who is invested with first-class powers, is styled the Division Magistrate, and has control over the subordinate Magistrates within his division. The Sub-Collector of the district, however, although a Divisional Magistrate, is styled the Joint Magistrate. The Deputy Collector on general duty, an Uncovenanted officer, is also a 1st-class Magistrate, and is usually in charge of a division. Each taluk is under the magisterial control of the Tahsildar, who, for that purpose, is usually vested with the powers of a 2nd-class Magistrate. He is assisted by his Sheristadar who has third-class powers. In larger taluks the Deputy Tahsildar is likewise vested with the powers of a Magistrate of the third class; and in large towns there is a special Town Magistrate with second or third class powers as the case may call for. All these Magistrates have various powers of ordering search, commitment, taking of bail, &c.; but their punitive powers are limited as follows. A Magistrate of the first class may pass sentence of imprisonment not exceeding two years, fine to the extent of 1,000 rupees, and whipping. A Magistrate of the second class may pass sentence of imprisonment not exceeding six months, fine not exceeding 200 rupees, and whipping. A Magistrate of the third class may pass sentence of imprisonment not exceeding one month and fine not exceeding 50 rupees. In addition to his other powers, a 1st-class Magistrate may hear appeals from the decisions of Magistrates of the second and third classes when so empowered by the Government. All European Magistrates of the first class are invested with the powers of a Justice of the Peace to enable them to deal with European British subjects. Except in the Presidency town, no Justice of the Peace can, under Section 72 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, inquire into a complaint or try a charge against a European British subject unless he is himself a European British subject. Justices of the Peace are appointed by the Governor in Council under Act II of 1869; and by Section 5 of this Act they have power to commit for trial European British subjects to the High Court or Court prescribed in that behalf by the law in force, and to do all other acts appertaining to the office of a Justice of the Peace. In the Presidency town the Magistrates now sit and exercise jurisdiction under a special Act called the Presidency Magistrates' Act IV of 1877. Their powers are co-extensive with

those of a 1st-class or District Magistrate under the Code of Criminal Procedure. They are all Justices of the Peace, and one of them is styled the Chief Magistrate with power to regulate the conduct and distribution of business, to appoint the time of sittings, and otherwise to control the business of the Magistrates. They are not now called Magistrates of Police but Presidency Magistrates. The Commissioner of Police who, with two Deputies, administers the Police of the town of Madras subject to the authority of the Inspector-General of Police, is invested with the powers of a Magistrate and Justice of the Peace under the provisions of Madras Act VIII of 1867. He does not, however, ordinarily exercise magisterial powers. He may do so on emergency, but ordinarily his powers are limited to preserving the peace, preventing crimes, detecting, apprehending, and detaining prisoners with a view to their being brought before a Magistrate. Military Cantonments are administered by Cantonment Magistrates. These are, as a rule, Officers of the Army, and are invested with the powers (first class) of a Magistrate of a Division of a District within the meaning and for the purposes of the Code of Criminal Procedure. They are appointed by Government under Madras Act I of 1866. The Government have recently appointed certain persons in different towns to be Honorary Magistrates; these sit as Benches with the Stipendiary Magistrate as their President for the trial of certain offences. All Magistrates are appointed by the Governor in Council under Section 9 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. The lowest class of officers vested with criminal powers are the heads of villages, sometimes called Village Munsifs, who, under Regulation XI of 1816, are empowered to take cognizance of petty offences of assault and abusive language, and to punish the offenders by imprisonment in the village choultry for twelve hours; or if the offenders are of the lower castes, by putting them in the stocks for not more than six hours.

PRISONS.

The general superintendence of the jails throughout the Presidency Organization rests with the Inspector-General of Jails, appointed under Act V of 1869. The Inspector-General of Jails is ex-officio visitor of all Lunatic Asylums in his jurisdiction. He also inspects and reports upon criminal lunatics confined in any jail under him by order of the Government under Section 431 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, such report being necessarily made once in every six months. The charge of central jails is assigned to superintendents specially selected and appointed by Government. The superintendent has immediately under him a disciplined staff of jailors and warders; there are also office clerks and store-keepers, and a small staff of artisans to

instruct the prisoners in their various trades. There is also a medical officer with one or two hospital assistants. The executive management of the jail in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labor, expenditure, punishment and control generally rests with the superintendent, subject to the authority of the Inspector-General of Jails. The superintendence of district jails is vested in the Civil Surgeon of the district, and the nomination to those appointments rests with the Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department. The general control and superintendence of subsidiary jails is vested in the Magistrate of the district, but the executive charge in this case is vested in the Sub-Magistrate or other chief magisterial officer to whose office the subsidiary jail is attached.

Inspections.

The Inspector-General inspects prisons in which Europeans and Americans are confined once in six months; and all other jails, with the exception of subsidiary jails, once in every year. In the course of his tours he takes the opportunity to inspect as many of the subsidiary jails as possible. In addition to the detailed and periodic inspections by the Inspector-General, the Sanitary Commissioner inspects the central and district jails from time to time with the special object of ascertaining and reporting on their sanitary condition. The Sanitary Commissioner's services are also employed in cases of outbreak of epidemic disease or unusual sickness. In like manner the Deputy Surgeon-Generals visit and report on the jails of their circles. In addition to the precautions just mentioned official visitors are appointed by Government to all the central and district jails, and these officers are bound to visit the jails in their charge at least once in every month. The official visitors are the Session Judges, Magistrates, Joint Magistrates and Head Assistant Magistrates of the several districts in which the jails are situated. It is the duty of all official visitors other than the Session Judges to inspect the subsidiary jails situated in their charges. The results of the inspection made by the official visitors are recorded and transmitted to the Inspector-General of Jails, who passes such orders as he may think necessary.

Jail accommodation.

The prison accommodation in this Presidency is as follows:—7 Central Jails, including the Penitentiary at Madras; 29 District Jails, including the European Prison at Ootacamund; 308 Subsidiary Jails; and 1 Jail for civil debtors at Madras. Central Jails are divided into two classes; the first class to contain 1,000 convicts and upwards, and the second class to contain less than 1,000 convicts. There are four first-class and three second-class Central Jails. The first-class Central Jails are Rajahmundry, Vellore, Trichinopoly, and Coimbatore. The second-class Central Jails are Salem, Cannanore, and the Penitentiary. Two abstract statements are appended showing the number of persons the different jails in this Presidency are constructed to contain. In the case of subsidiary jails the information is given by districts:—

STATEMENT I.—Accommodation in each Central and District Jail.

Jails.	Capacity of the Jail Barracks at 40 Superficial Feet per Head.			Daily Average Number of Prisoners of all Classes.			Total Population (all Classes of Prisoners included).			Maximum Population on any one day.		
	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.
Russalkonda	130	3	133	163-31	1-96	165-27	501	13	514	208	4	212
Berhanpore	160	32	192	318-21	19-44	337-65	1,545	136	1,681	432	41	473
Vizagapatam	291	18	309	474-94	62-50	537-44	2,690	587	3,277	633	110	743
Rajahmundry Central	992	48	1,040	1,127-74	64-86	1,192-60	1,438	131	1,569	1,191	90	1,281
Do. District	88	18	106	264-30	9-85	274-15	1,291	122	1,413	377	17	394
Masulipatam	106	4	110	134-31	4-44	138-75	739	39	778	252	5	257
Guntoor	105	15	120	263-72	16-09	280-81	1,201	91	1,295	357	26	383
Nellore	248	6	254	393-49	37-62	431-11	2,717	215	2,932	1,216	55	1,271
Kurnool	123	3	126	684-42	38-79	723-21	2,455	192	2,647	894	66	960
Bellary	411	40	451	1,771-49	66-03	1,837-52	5,598	342	5,940	2,031	108	2,139
Cuddapah	222	8	230	498-66	19-38	518-04	1,841	98	1,939	669	23	692
Chittoor	254	22	276	492-75	39-03	531-78	2,956	251	3,207	958	86	1,044
Vellore Central	1,687	99	1,786	1,065-60	51-49	1,117-09	1,316	93	1,409	1,111	52	1,163
Do. Camp	...	...	...	658-66	...	658-66	1,566	...	1,566	727	...	727
Salem Central	597	34	631	1,630-92	57-49	1,688-41	4,993	346	5,339	2,082	93	2,175
Guindy	88	...	88	72-61	...	72-61	267	...	267	129	...	129
Chingleput	130	29	159	327-33	20-16	347-49	1,472	122	1,594	368	26	394
Cuddalore	345	13	358	1,086-46	22-31	1,108-77	3,202	38	3,240	1,331	23	1,354
Tranquebar	116	8	124	140-39	12-80	153-19	710	76	786	174	22	196
Tanjore	169	28	197	223-05	19-04	242-09	1,248	66	1,314	296	20	316
Trichinopoly Central	1,956	59	2,015	1,677-87	71-11	1,748-98	1,606	310	1,916	1,100	105	1,205
Do. District	205	10	215	265-20	-15	265-35	1,301	5	1,306	341	1	342
Do. Camp	...	...	...	677-83	...	677-83	1,683	...	1,683	904	...	904
Madura	474	35	509	1,120-56	44-34	1,165-40	4,250	245	4,495	1,961	88	2,049
Tinnevely	77	19	96	461-01	24-82	485-86	2,003	129	2,132	572	34	606
Cochin	29	8	37	3-93	...	3-93	43	...	43	11	...	11
Calicut	221	9	230	258-66	8-95	267-61	1,461	46	1,507	304	10	314
Tellicherry	161	5	166	118-76	5-30	124-06	683	20	703	158	8	166
Cannanore Central	830	39	869	839-83	...	839-83	1,072	...	1,072	879	...	879
Mangalore	223	15	238	195-86	17-07	212-93	724	69	793	236	19	255
Palghat Fort	600	...	600	340-91	...	340-91	912	...	912	428	...	428
Coimbatore Central	1,094	52	1,146	1,366-27	31-76	1,398-03	1,779	50	1,829	1,436	32	1,468
Do. District	180	...	180	436-44	26-63	463-07	2,338	119	2,457	642	36	678
Ootacamund do.	201	12	213	142-09	7-86	149-95	406	81	487	174	32	206
European Prison	35	...	35	24-57	...	24-57	61	...	61	32	...	32
Penitentiary	676	57	733	735-02	101-23	836-25	1,926	1,150	4,946	839	128	967
Debtors' Prison, Madras	40	8	48	20-39	1-52	21-91	483	42	525	36	2	38
Total	12,274	776	13,050	20,456-91	903-73	21,360-64	64,422	3,350	67,772	...	...	...

STATEMENT II.—Subsidiary Jail Accommodation in each District.

Districts.	Number the Jails will hold.			Average Daily Number of Prisoners in all the Jails put together.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Ganjam	168	110	278	120-75	29-00	149-75
Vizagapatam	194	147	341	177-31	40-60	217-91
Godavari	118	73	191	69-62	11-72	81-34
Kistna	159	82	241	98-77	24-13	122-90
Nellore	188	70	258	116-93	16-64	133-57
Kurnool	133	76	209	140-27	25-21	165-48
Bellary	147	61	208	71-32	12-16	83-48
Cuddapah	137	46	183	99-34	8-12	107-46
North Arcot	263	104	367	183-70	21-15	204-85
Salem	239	116	355	180-36	25-96	206-32
Chingleput	305	145	450	93-15	12-98	106-13
South Arcot	273	106	379	154-56	21-03	175-59
Tanjore	243	142	385	117-03	15-99	133-07
Trichinopoly	220	83	303	61-15	6-34	67-49
Madura	225	67	292	179-63	32-09	211-72
Tinnevely	168	54	222	102-79	12-87	115-66
Malabar	270	125	395	121-88	5-50	127-38
South Canara	126	50	176	33-14	7-89	40-94
Coimbatore	198	89	287	157-55	17-60	175-15
Nilgiri Hills	12	12	24	3-59	5-1	8-59
Total	3,697	1,749	5,446	2,263-92	347-43	2,611-37

Arrangements
for reception
of prisoners.

The central jails, with the exception of that at Salem and the Penitentiary at Madras, are intended for the reception of prisoners sentenced to rigorous imprisonment for periods in excess of twelve months. The jail at Salem and the Penitentiary receive short-sentenced prisoners in addition to those of the description just specified. All prisoners sentenced to imprisonment for periods exceeding thirty days are committed to district jails, and such of them as are long-sentenced prisoners are transferred to the central jail of the circle at the expiration of their time of appeal. At the stations where the central jails are situated, prisoners sentenced for periods extending beyond one year are committed direct to these jails. Transfers are made periodically by the central office in the following manner. Superintendents of district jails enter in their monthly return of convicts a memorandum showing the number of long-sentenced convicts in their jails, and also the number whose time for appeal has expired; these memoranda are compared with the returns from the central jails, and the transfers are then ordered accordingly. Every convict is sent to the central jail of his own district, unless it is found necessary to send him elsewhere owing to want of accommodation or for some other reason. The central jail at Cannanore is utilized also for the reception of Madras convicts sentenced to transportation but who are not to be deported. Subsidiary jails are places of confinement for persons committed to custody pending preliminary investigation before the Magistracy, and for criminal prisoners sentenced to less than one month's imprisonment.

Penal labor.

Penal labor is carried out in the most complete way in central jails. Convicts on first admission into central jails are put to the hardest description of labor for which they are fit, are gradually promoted to work of a less severe character, and finally are sent to the manufactories. The intramural labor of central jails other than that of the manufactories consists in sawing timber, in making ordinary repairs to the prison buildings, in drawing water, and in conducting ordinary menial duties. The extramural labor consists in quarrying and carting stone and lime, in digging gravel, in excavating tanks and wells, in ploughing and tilling jail lands, in gardening and husbandry, and in hauling dry earth for conservancy purposes. Most labor however in central jails is intramural. The employment of prisoners in district jails is of a somewhat different character from that of prisoners in central jails, inasmuch as it is not so strictly intramural. Industrial labor must always be carried on at a disadvantage when a prisoner is sentenced to a short term, and the difficult problem in these cases arises, of providing suitable employment which shall at once fulfil the necessary conditions of really punitive labor and at the same time be remunerative. District jail labor is however approximated to central jail labor

as much as possible. In subsidiary jails it is the duty of the officer in executive charge to give effect to sentences of rigorous imprisonment by providing penal employment as best he can within the precincts of the jail enclosure. With the exception of stone breaking and road making little can be done in subsidiary jails. Gangs of prisoners are occasionally hired by Municipalities. Grants of convict labor are also sometimes made by order of Government to those bodies without payment on sufficient reason being shown. In these cases the gangs are employed in such work as making and repairing roads, in clearing drains, in filling up ditches on works of reclamation of land, in digging tanks, removing prickly-pear, &c.

Jail manufactures have been considerably extended during the last few years, and much attention continues to be bestowed on this branch of jail administration; not only with a view to recouping, as far as possible, the cost of the prisoners' custody and maintenance in prison, but also to afford the prisoner himself the means of livelihood on leaving the jail. On the other hand the employment of prisoners on useful trades and manufactures is not allowed to interfere with the enforcement of discipline and the exaction of a proper amount of penal labor. Endeavors are specially made to utilize prison labor for the production of articles required by the public service. A large quantity of cotton cloth, woollen blankets, boots and sandals is supplied annually for the Police. Other public departments are supplied with carpets, tent materials, horse blankets and carpenter's work. Printing and book-binding is executed in the Penitentiary at Madras under the supervision of the Superintendent of the Government Press. European convicts and military prisoners confined in the Presidency jail and in the European prison at Ootacamund are employed in coir mat making and coir picking, in carpenter and smith's work, in boot and shoe-making, and in weaving cotton-goods.

The rules under which remission is granted may be explained briefly as follows. The sentence is represented by marks, at the rate of six marks a day, and generally speaking every convict sentenced to rigorous imprisonment for eighteen months and upwards is credited with an additional mark or half mark per diem for extra industry. Before being permitted however to earn any extra marks the convict must undergo a period of probation equal to one-sixth of the sentence, and while under this probation he is put to the harder description of prison labor. In no case can the period of probation be less than one-sixth of the sentence; but it may be longer, as a convict who misconducts himself is liable to be fined a certain number of marks, which will retard his advancement by an equivalent number of days. When a convict has passed through his term of probation,

Remission
system, &c.

he is admitted into the third class and may then commence to earn extra marks as above mentioned towards a partial remission of his sentence. Should he be particularly industrious and should he not be reported for any breach of jail rules, he is allowed to earn one extra mark per diem; for lesser industry he is allowed one half mark per diem. A convict must remain in the third class at least six months, after which if he has earned the prescribed number of marks he is promoted to the second class. He must remain at least four months in the second class, after which period if he has not forfeited any marks by misconduct or idleness he is promoted to the first class. When a convict has earned in the first class the prescribed number of marks, which cannot be done without earning full marks every day for one year, he becomes eligible for appointment to the lowest grade of convict servant. Besides the ordinary remission he may earn in the class last named he is allowed to reckon additional remission at the rate of one month a year. After a year's service in this grade he is eligible for the post of convict warder, in which grade he may earn additional remission at a rate not exceeding two months a year. The remaining grade of convict servant is that of work overseer, whose privileges are the same as those of the convict warder. Promotion to each of these classes is followed by certain privileges consisting in more frequent communication by visit or letter with friends, and in the earning of a higher gratuity of money to be paid on a prisoner's discharge. Each class wears its own distinctive badge. The privileges are necessarily very limited in amount, but still they offer inducements which are sought after. No remission is granted for conduct alone. It is only on the presumption of good conduct that convicts are allowed to acquire advantages by their industry. If their conduct is indifferent or bad, they are liable to be fined a certain number of marks according to the nature and degree of the offence, and can thus forfeit by misconduct the remission they may have gained by their industry. The discipline observed in jails towards re-convicted and habitual offenders does not differ from that observed towards other prisoners. Re-convicted prisoners are not debarred from earning remission, and in this respect the previous career and character of a prisoner makes no difference in the treatment he is subject to. It rests with the Criminal Courts of justice in awarding the sentence to take into consideration whether the prisoner has been previously a criminal, and it is not left to the discretion of the prison authorities to enhance the severity of the punishment.

Punishment
for miscon-
duct.

Acts of misconduct are followed by forfeiture of remission, degradation to a lower class with loss of privileges, separate confinement, reduction in diet, corporal punishment and other punishments. The power of punishing a prisoner for breaches of prison rules resides only

in the Superintendent. The limits of punishment are laid down in the Madras Jails Act and in the Jail Code. Criminal offences committed in jail are punished by the Courts of Justice, with the exception that no person who has been once punished under the provisions of the Madras Jails Act can be again punished for the same offence in any other way, or by any other authority. The Superintendent of the jail is legally bound to record the particulars of all offences and punishments in a prescribed form.

The diet of prisoners is fixed at the minimum necessary to enable a man to execute the work required of him; if he should be idle and not execute his work, the amount of food is reduced. Care is taken to provide a daily issue of wholesome vegetables and condiments. Although the diet is wholesome in character and sufficient in quantity, it is recognised as being coarse food, and nothing partaking of the nature of indulgence enters into its composition.

To nearly every jail is attached a garden in which the vegetables required for consumption by the prisoners are grown. The jail gardens provide suitable occupation for the elderly, infirm and convalescent convicts.

The education of prisoners in jails is regulated by the prison rules. It is of an elementary character, and care is taken that it shall not lead to relaxation of sentences, or to interference with the regular duties and work of the jail.

Young criminals sentenced to more than three months' imprisonment are generally transferred to the nearest central jail. In all central jails, except Salem, there is separate accommodation for juveniles. Those sentenced to shorter terms of imprisonment are confined in the district jails. In some of these the accommodation for juveniles is still unsatisfactory, but in all the new district jails a separate block has been provided. Under the existing law, Section 318, Act X of 1872, a youthful offender sentenced to imprisonment may be confined in a reformatory for such period as his sentence continues. It is under contemplation to establish in the vicinity of Madras a Reformatory school for juveniles under the provisions of Act V of 1876. The impediments in the way of establishing the Reformatory are purely financial.

The following table shows the death-rate amongst all classes of prisoners in the jails of the Madras Presidency for the last twenty years. When it is considered that the bulk of the criminal population is composed of men with constitutions impaired by excess, the statistics of mortality show favorable results. The death-rates during 1877 and 1878 were exceptional on account of the famine.

Years	Average Daily Number of Prisoners of all classes.	Number of Deaths amongst all Classes of Prisoners.	Death-rate per thousand of all classes of Prisoners.	Mean of each triennial period.
1859-60	6,098	506	82.9	81.1
1860-61	5,238	390	67.4	
1861-62	6,687	622	93.0	
1862-63	7,537	676	89.4	108.7
1863-64	7,432	824	109.9	
1864-65	7,355	928	127.0	
1865*	8,150	1,055	129.4	95.8
1866-67	9,888.86	1,134	115.6	
1867-68	9,668.43	410	42.4	
1868-69	10,152.61	337	33.1	33.8
1869-70	9,933.39	388	39.0	
1870	9,621.47	261	27.4	
1871	9,364.47	173	18.4	22.9
1872	9,376.84	208	22.1	
1873	9,314.81	264	28.3	
1874	9,923.23	266	26.8	36.0
1875	9,890.69	386	39.0	
1876	10,926.25	464	42.4	
1877	20,678.90	3,593	173.7	...
1878	21,349.77	2,658	125.6	

CIVIL JUSTICE.

High Court,
Civil Side.

The administration of Civil Justice is under the exclusive superintendence of the High Court, constituted by 24 & 25 Vic., Cap. 104, and by Letters Patent. The High Court consists of a Chief Justice and four Puisne Judges; the Chief Justice and one of the Puisne Judges being Barristers appointed by the Queen from the Bar of the United Kingdom, and the other Judges being experienced members of the Civil Service (covenanted or uncovenanted) appointed by Her Majesty on the nomination of the Local Government. The High Court exercises ordinary original jurisdiction over all suits the cause of action in which has arisen within the limits of the city of Madras, and it exercises appellate jurisdiction over all Civil Courts established throughout the Presidency. Original cases in the High Court are decided by a single Judge, from whose decision there is an appeal which is ordinarily heard and determined by a division bench consisting of two Judges. In the same manner appeals from the Mofussil Courts are heard and determined by a division bench of two Judges; but in any case in which the two Judges differ in opinion, the appeal is re-heard and finally determined by a full bench consisting of three or more Judges. By its Letters Patent the High Court possesses powers of extraordinary original jurisdiction, in the exercise of which it can call up and determine any suit within the

* For the calendar year.

jurisdiction of any Court subject to its superintendence. By clause 18 of its Letters Patent (1866) it has power to hold sittings under a single Judge for the relief of insolvent debtors at Madras; such Judge exercising, within and without the city of Madras, such powers and authorities with respect to original and appellate jurisdiction and otherwise as are constituted by the laws relating to insolvent debtors in India. By its Letters Patent the High Court also possesses Admiralty, Testamentary, and Matrimonial jurisdiction.

All small suits of 1,000 rupees and below that value within the Presidency town are cognizable, and may be summarily determined by the Madras Court of Small Causes sitting under Act IX of 1850, and the amending Act XXXVI of 1864. The Court consists of a First Judge who must be a Barrister-at-Law, and three other Judges who are as a rule appointed from the ranks of the Uncovenanted Service. This Court may also try actions of more than 1,000 rupees in value, under Section 3 of the amending Act, if the parties consent to the jurisdiction of the Court. It is not intended that the Small Cause Court should try questions involving title, or affecting immovable property, but it may deal with title incidentally arising in the disposal of suits within the pecuniary jurisdiction of the Court, such as suits for house and ground rent, trespass, &c. It may also deal with title in cases of ejectment tried under Section 91 of Act IX of 1850. But the decision of the Small Cause Court in no way debars the parties from carrying their dispute into the High Court, so far as it affects title to landed property, there to be enquired into and determined in the regular way. The Small Cause Court also possesses insolvency jurisdiction under Chapter XX of the Civil Procedure Code.

In each of the districts into which the Presidency is divided there is a chief Court styled the District Court, which is presided over by a District Judge appointed from the Covenanted Civil Service. In the Districts of Tanjore and Malabar there are two Courts of this class, styled respectively the District Courts of North Tanjore and North Malabar and the District Courts of South Tanjore and South Malabar; and in the Nilgiris the chief Court is that of the Commissioner, who sits as the District Judge under a special enactment. The District Court is both an Original Court and an Appellate Court, and by Section 27 of the Madras Civil Courts Act III of 1873 the District Judge is vested with general control over all the Civil Courts of whatever grade established in his district, subject however to rules prescribed for the purpose by the High Court. All appeals in suits decided by the inferior Courts in which the amount litigated is 5,000 rupees and less, lie to the District Court; but where the amount or value of the subject-matter of the suit exceeds 5,000 rupees, the

appeal lies to the High Court direct under Section 13 of the Act above mentioned.

Subordinate
Judges'
Courts.

The Court next in importance to that of the District Judge is the Court of the Subordinate Judge, formerly styled a Principal Sadr Amin, who is usually a native officer belonging to the Uncovenanted Service. The pecuniary jurisdiction of this officer is co-extensive with that of the District Judge, whose Assistant he really is in the disposal of original and appellate work. Subordinate Judges are appointed to districts in which the civil work is unusually heavy. There is one Subordinate Judge in Bellary, Godavari, South Arcot, Madura, North Tanjore, Tinnevely, North Malabar and South Canara; two in each of the districts of South Tanjore and South Malabar; or twelve Subordinate Judges in all. Although the jurisdiction of a Subordinate Judge is as large as that of the District Judge, the latter is empowered by law to remove to his own Court any suit or appeal which he may for any reason see fit to dispose of himself; and in the same manner the District Judge is empowered to refer to the Subordinate Judge for disposal any suit or appeal filed in the District Court. By Section 28 of the Civil Courts Act the Government may invest any or all of these Subordinate Judges with the jurisdiction of a Judge of a Court of Small Causes for the summary trial of suits up to the amount of 500 rupees; as a fact most of the Subordinate Judges are invested with such powers.

Up-country
and Military
Small Cause
Courts.

At the three stations of Cuddalore, Madura, and Combaconum there was down to 31st March 1879 a Court of Small Causes held under Act XI of 1865, with ordinary jurisdiction over small suits up to 500 rupees in value, but which jurisdiction the Government might extend to 1,000 rupees. These Judges were also invested with the powers of a Subordinate Judge for the trial of suits of any value by regular procedure, the decisions in which were accordingly open to appeal. The Judges at Cuddalore and Madura were members of the Covenanted Service, and the other Judge belonged to the Uncovenanted Service. These three posts were however abolished on 1st April 1879. In Military Cantonments the Cantonment Magistrate is generally invested by Government, under Madras Act I of 1866, with the powers of a Court of Small Causes with a pecuniary jurisdiction not exceeding 500 rupees.

District
Munsifs'
Courts.

As a Court proper, with all the function of a regular judicial tribunal, the Court of the District Munsif is the lowest in grade, but it is at the same time the most important to the country, as it is widely distributed, and is thus the chief Court of first instance open to the people. There is generally one such Court at the head-quarters of every taluk of a district, and the District Munsif's territorial jurisdiction

is as a rule coterminous with the taluk. The District Munsif is usually a native officer of experience who has risen in the subordinate ranks of the Judicial Department; but of late years he has been appointed in many instances from the ranks of the native bar, having previously undergone a "special test" examination as prescribed for the grade. The District Munsif's jurisdiction extends to suits the value of which does not exceed 2,500 rupees; and in most cases he is invested with a Small Cause jurisdiction over suits up to 50 rupees in value. There are at present 113 such officers located at different stations in the districts.

A still lower Court is that of the Village Munsif, established by Regulation IV of 1816, to meet the simple requirements of a village community. The head of the village is under the Regulation *ex-officio* Village Munsif; local custom however sometimes has it otherwise. The Village Munsif's judicial powers extend to suits for personal property up to 10 rupees, his decisions not being open to appeal; if the parties consent, he may try and determine similar suits up to 100 rupees in value in the character of an arbitrator, and when the litigant villagers wish such a course, he has power under Regulation V of 1816 to summon a punchayet, generally of five persons, to decide suits for personal property without limitation as to value. Under Regulation XII of 1816 Collectors of districts may summon punchayets through the Village Munsifs, and may, with the consent of parties, refer to such punchayets the settlement of suits respecting the occupying, cultivating, and irrigating of land between proprietors or renters and their ryots; as well as claims to crops and lands and cases of disputed boundary.

Collectors, Sub-Collectors, and Assistant and Deputy Collectors in charge of a Division sit as Revenue Courts and exercise judicial powers under the following Regulations:—(a), Regulation IX of 1822 and Act XXXVI of 1837, on charges against native servants of the Collector's public establishment, heads of villages, curnams and their gumastahs and other village officers and servants, for exacting or corruptly receiving money for the performance of official acts, levying unauthorized cesses or extra collections for their private use, embezzling public money or other public property, falsifying, destroying, or concealing public accounts or other documents relating to the receipt or expenditure of public money or other public property; (b), Regulation VI of 1831 regarding claims to hereditary village offices in the Revenue and Police departments, and to the emoluments attached to these offices; the ordinary Courts have no jurisdiction in regard to such claims; (c), Act VIII of 1865, Madras, regarding disputes between landlord and tenant in which no question of title is involved. The

Revenue Courts have power under the latter Act to enforce the terms of a tenancy to compel the exchange of puttas and muchilkas, to settle the rates of assessment or rent, to order sales under distraint, to award compensation for damages in such distraint, to arrest defaulters, and to eject tenants. These Courts, however, do not possess jurisdiction when any question of title to the land itself is raised in the course of such a suit.

Suits against Government and Government Officers in the Revenue Department.

When a suit is instituted against Government, or against Collectors or their subordinates for acts done in their official capacity, a report containing the facts of the case, for the accuracy of which the Collector is responsible, is submitted to the Board of Revenue with copy of the plaint and of the draft answer which it is proposed to file. When the Board consider the suit defensible they are empowered to sanction its defence at the public cost unless the value of the suit exceeds Rupees 1,000, or unless there is some important principle involved, in which cases the matter is submitted for the orders of Government. Difficult and doubtful cases are referred for the advice of the Government law officers. In simple suits between Government ryots for the transfer of putta in which the Collector is made a defendant *pro forma* in view to registration, the defence may be undertaken by him without reference to higher authority. When a suit is decided the result must be reported to the Board and copy of the decree and judgment submitted, and when the decision is adverse to Government the report must be submitted in time to admit of orders being passed as regards an appeal if such course is deemed advisable. No formal application is required for sanction to defend suits regarding claims to waste lands under Act XXIII of 1863, but a report of the institution of the suit is submitted for the information of Government. Suits against Government and Collectors are chiefly of the following description: (a), for the cancellation of sales for arrears of revenue under Madras Act II of 1864; (b), for transfer of puttas and registration of lands; (c), disputes regarding irrigation rights; (d), claims to waste land assigned by Government to parties under the rules for the disposal of assessed waste; (e), claims to house sites in the gramamattam or village site.

REGISTRATION OF ASSURANCES.

History of the department.

In the year 1834 the Court of Directors of the East India Company proposed the enactment of a law making registration of deeds relating to immoveable property compulsory under such penalties and safeguards as might be deemed requisite. Legislative proposals were accordingly made, and the subject was referred from time to time to

various Committees, until in 1864 a Bill containing the main substance of the present law on the subject was passed as Act XVI of 1864. This Act has since undergone several modifications (*vide* Acts IX of 1865, XX of 1866, XXVII of 1868, and VIII of 1871), and the law as at present administered is contained in Act III of 1877.

The Act just mentioned provides the machinery necessary for registration, lays down the duties and powers of the different classes of officers, declares what are the registrable documents and the effects of registration and non-registration, and prescribes the mode, time and place of presentation and registration. The principle of the Act is the same as that of the law previously in force, No. VIII of 1871, but the new enactment has effected several detailed alterations. The main feature in the Registration law is the distinction of registrable documents into those which must be registered in order to obtain validity or what are called compulsory documents, and those which it is in the option of the parties to register or not as they think fit. Documents under the first head lose all validity if not registered. In the case of documents falling under the second head it is provided that a registered document of the same class shall take priority over a non-registered one. To remove a technical doubt the present Act also provides that all registered documents, whether compulsory or not, shall take priority over non-registered documents.

For registration purposes the Presidency is divided into 21 districts and 271 sub-districts, the districts being coterminous with the limits of the Revenue Collectorates. The sub-districts are also, as a rule, co-extensive with the taluks and the divisions of Deputy Tahsildars and Sub-Magistrates. The Government were originally in favor of employing the existing Judicial Agency, wherever practicable, in performing the work of registration, but the idea after due consideration was abandoned. The department is now administered by 21 Registrars and 271 Sub-Registrars under the control and supervision of an officer styled the Inspector-General of Registration. A few of the Registrars are Deputy Collectors in charge of the District Treasuries, but the majority of them are officers specially appointed. Of the Sub-Registry offices 166 are at present presided over by Taluk Srishtadars and Sub-Magistrates, and 105 by persons specially appointed; but as registration increases and the offices become self-supporting, the Revenue Officers whose own proper duties are sufficiently onerous and who are unable to pay due attention to their registration work are being gradually relieved by the appointment of a duly qualified special agency. Originally all Registering Officers and their establishments were paid by a commission on the fees collected, but this mode of remuneration is being superseded by a system of fixed salaries and commission. The Official Registrars were divided into

three grades and remunerated by certain fixed allowances in addition to their salaries as Deputy Collectors; but the Special Registrars, who are Sub-Registrars as well at the head-quarters of the districts to which they are appointed, are paid by fixed salaries varying from 50 to 500 rupees, and by a commission of 20 per cent. on the amount of fees collected by them after the first 30 rupees. The Special Sub-Registrars who are distributed into six classes are also remunerated partly by a fixed salary and partly by commission; the former ranging from 30 to 100 rupees, and the latter being at the same rate as that allowed to the Special Registrars. The official Sub-Registrars receive a commission of 20 per cent. as personal remuneration on the fees they collect and 24 per cent. for their establishments. The Special Registering Officers are, as a rule, chosen from among the graduates and under-graduates of the Madras University, and they are required to acquire a practical knowledge of their duties in the central office before taking up their appointments.

REGISTRATION OF JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.

Nature of Government control.

Joint-Stock Companies are registered under the Indian Companies' Act, 1860, or formed under some other Act or constituted by Royal Charter or Letters Patent. In the two latter cases the Companies are subject to the terms of the special enactment, charter, or letters patent, under which they are respectively constituted. Most Companies, however, are registered under the Indian Companies' Act of 1866, and under this enactment are controlled by a Registrar appointed by Government. The accounts of such Companies are audited and rendered yearly, and the documents relating to them, which are kept by the Registrar, are open to the public on payment of a fee. The Registrar sees that the Memorandum and Articles of Association are in accordance with the Act, and that the documents required to be furnished to him are duly sent in.

MILITARY.

General constitution of the Army.

The constitution of the Madras Army is as follows:—

- 2 Regiments of British Cavalry;
- 2 Batteries of Royal Horse Artillery;
- 11 Batteries Field Artillery;
- 6 Batteries Garrison Artillery, of which one is a Heavy Battery stationed at Secunderabad and one a Mountain Battery at Tonghoo;
- Regiments British Infantry;
- The Queen's Own Sappers and Miners, consisting of 10 companies;

- 4 Regiments Native Cavalry;
- 40 Regiments of Native Infantry.

Of the above force

- 5 Batteries of Artillery;
- 2 Regiments of European Infantry;
- 1 Company of Sappers and Miners; and
- 5 Regiments of Native Infantry serve in British Burma; and
- 1 Regiment of Native Cavalry and
- 5 Regiments of Native Infantry in the Bengal Presidency.

The Army is divided into 3 Divisions and 6 Brigades as under. The commands of 1 Division and 2 First-class Brigades are held by officers of the British service, and those of 2 Divisions, 2 First-class, and 2 Second-class Brigades by officers of the Indian service.

Divisions.

- Hyderabad Subsidiary Force.
- Mysore Division.
- British Burma Division.

First-class Brigades.

- Centre District.
- Nagpore Force.
- Ceded District.
- Northern District.

Second-class Brigades.

- Southern District.
- Malabar and Canara.

The executive of the Commissariat Department consists of 1 Commissariat-Commissary-General, 1 Deputy Commissary-General, 5 Assistant, 6 Deputy Assistant, and 11 Sub-Assistant Commissaries-General. The headquarters and the principal office and stores are at Madras. The Amrut Mahal, or Government Cattle Breeding Establishment, at Hoonsoor in Mysore, is under the control of this department, and supplies draught bullocks for the army, the herds maintained averaging about 10,000 head of cattle.

The head-quarters of the Ordnance Department is also at Madras and is under the administration of the Inspector-General of Ordnance and Magazines, 1 Deputy Inspector-General, and 5 Commissaries of Ordnance. The Gun Powder and Gun Carriage Factories, each under a Superintendent, are at Madras. A Bullet Factory is attached to the Gun Carriage Factory, and a Laboratory and Percussion Cap Factory are maintained at St. Thomas' Mount. The Camp Equipage Depot is at Madras. There are Armories at Fort St. George, Rangoon, and Secunderabad, and Depôts at Bangalore, Nagpore, Bellary, St. Thomas' Mount, and Tonghoo.

The Army Clothing Department is located in Madras, and supplies Army the whole of the Madras Army, European and Native. The material is obtained from England and is made up under contract by native workmen. The sewing machine is now largely used.

The Remount Depot at Oosoor, about 30 miles from Bangalore, is Remount. under the superintendence of an Agent, assisted by a Veterinary

Surgeon and a small European staff. It contains accommodation for 1,000 horses. The average number of horses purchased annually is about 600, a large proportion of which are Australians, which are principally required for Artillery and British Cavalry. The Northern and Persian horse is generally allotted to the Native Cavalry. The average price paid to dealers per horse is about Rupee 530, and, on transfer to the ranks, their assumed value is Rupees 30.

Medical.

The Medical Department consists of two branches, the British and Indian. The former has 1 Surgeon-General, 3 Deputy Surgeons-General, 39 Surgeons-Major, and 28 Surgeons. The duties of this branch are connected solely with the medical care of the European troops. The Indian Medical Department has 1 Surgeon-General, 6 Deputy Surgeons-General, 86 Surgeons-Major, and 94 Surgeons. A large proportion of the officers and subordinates of the Indian Medical Department are employed on civil duties, and the medical care of the Native troops is also provided for by this department. The Government are kept informed of the state of the health of the army by periodical returns furnished by the Surgeon-General of both departments, and by the reports of the Sanitary Commissioner. Further particulars on these heads will be found in Chapter VI.

Educational.

The army schools, which are maintained for both European and Native troops, are under the management of a Commissioned Superintendent, 1 Assistant Superintendent, and Sub-Inspectors.

Pensions, &c.

The head office for the payment of pensions and family payments is at Madras. The number of pensioners throughout the Presidency is about 30,000, and the number of families receiving remittances from the troops in Burmah and beyond the frontier is about 7,000. They are all paid monthly.

MARINE.

Marine department.

The Marine Department of the Presidency is presided over by the Master Attendant of the Port of Madras. The local executive duties in connection with the conservancy of the port, as well as those of Shipping Master, are performed by the Deputy Master Attendant. The Head of the Marine Department is the adviser of Government on all marine matters, and is vested with the control and audit of the marine expenditure pertaining to his own department, or incurred on account of freight and passage in connection with the Military and Civil offices. It is his duty to exercise a general superintendence over vessels engaged for the conveyance of Government troops, passengers, stores, specie, or mails. He is also Registrar-General of Shipping for the Presidency, and Superintendent of Marine for the whole seaboard. The duties of out-port Masters Attendant and Conservators are similar to

these of the Deputy Master Attendant at Madras. They are required to enforce obedience to all port rules, and see that the provisions of the Conservancy, Passenger and Merchant Shipping Acts, Imperial and Indian, are properly observed. They enforce quarantine regulations, and by virtue of their office are Government Surveyors of Shipping. They sit also as nautical assessors in Courts of Inquiry held with reference to shipwrecks, and are Landing and Shipping Agents for Government consignments. Some of these officers are Magistrates of the first or second class and Justices of the Peace, their functions in this respect being as a rule confined to the trial or adjudication of offences against maritime law; though in some instances they have also to deal with criminal cases in which European British subjects are concerned. An alphabetical list of all the ports in this Presidency is given below. A list arranged by districts will be found in the Revenue Board's (volume) Standing Orders:—

No.	Names.	No.	Names.	No.	Names.
<i>British Indian Ports.</i>					
1	Chief Port, Madras.	50	Gopalapatam.	99	* Padubidri.
2	Adrampatam.	51	Gopaulpore.	100	Pakala.
3	Ammapatam.	52	Ipuralent.	101	Pamanji.
4	* Attakayi.	53	Iskapalli.	102	* Parapanna.
5	* Attangudi.	54	Itamukkala.	103	* Parapanangadi.
6	* Attuparam.	55	Juvadinne.	104	* Pasipatam.
7	Balagarai.	56	* Kanuparthi.	105	Thuniben.
8	Baindur.	57	* Kapatt.	106	Pentacotta.
9	* Balapatam.	58	Kasargodi.	107	Penumudi.
10	Bapanapadu.	59	Katacheri.	108	* Pillaimadam.
11	Barkur.	60	Kattumavadi.	109	Point Calimere.
12	* Barkal.	61	* Kavvayi.	110	Ponani.
13	* Belal.	62	Kilakarai.	111	Ponnappudi.
14	* Bondamurlanka.	63	Kolliempalliem.	112	Porto-Novo.
15	Beyoor.	64	* Kolam.	113	* Pudi.
16	Bilalipatam.	65	* Kottaiikal.	114	Pudimadaka.
17	* Bodivandipalem.	66	Kottapatam.	115	* Pudiangadi (Malabar).
18	* Cadalondi.	67	Kottapalem.	116	* Pudiangadi (do.).
19	Calicut.	68	Kottapatam.	117	* Pudupatam.
20	Calicutpatam.	69	Krishnapatam.	118	Pundi.
21	Callayi.	70	Krishnapatam.	119	Quilandi.
22	Cannanore.	71	Kulasegarapatam.	120	Rampatam.
23	* Carungadu.	72	Kundapur.	121	* Rameswaram.
24	* Caup.	73	* Kurkayi.	122	Shirur.
25	Chennayapalem.	74	* Kuttayi.	123	Sonapore.
26	* Chombayi.	75	* Madayi.	124	Sundrapandiapatam.
27	Chowghat.	76	Malpattu.	125	* Talayi.
28	Cochin.	77	* Malpe.	126	Tanur.
29	Cocanada.	78	Mandapam.	127	Tellicherry.
30	Coilpatam.	79	Mangalore.	128	* Terupalancudi.
31	* Conada.	80	* Manjeshwar.	129	Tirumalavasal.
32	* Coringa.	81	* Marakayapatam.	130	Tondi.
33	* Covelong.	82	* Masulipatam.	131	Toputurai.
34	Cuddalore (South Arcot).	83	* Merkanam.	132	Tranquebar.
35	* Cuddalore (Malabar).	84	* Molankadava.	133	* Trikodi.
36	Oumbila.	85	Merutota.	134	Tummalapent.
37	* Damodarapatam.	86	Mottupalli.	135	Tupli.
38	* Darmapatam.	87	* Mudiapatam.	136	Tuticorin.
39	Devipatam.	88	Mulki.	137	* Uchil.
40	Dugaraupatam.	89	* Muttungal.	138	* Udiavar.
41	* Elatur.	90	Muttupettai (Tanjore).	139	Udipi.
42	* Eranganagundu.	91	* Muttupettai (Madura).	140	* Uppada.
43	* Ennore.	92	Nagayalanka.	141	* Vaippar.
44	* Ermal.	93	Nagore.	142	Valanganj.
45	* Ervadi.	94	* Nambidalai.	143	* Valanokkam.
46	* Etticolum.	95	Narsapur.	144	* Vedalai.
47	* Ezhara.	96	Nayakankotta.	145	* Vellangode.
48	Gangadipalem.	97	Negapatam.	146	Vizagapatam.
49	Ganjam.	98	Nizampatam.		

The places marked with an asterisk * show ports in which there is no trade at present, but which are authorized places for the landing and shipment of goods.

No.	Names.	No.	Names.	No.	Names.
<i>Non-British Indian Ports.</i>					
<i>Travancore.</i>		7	Manakulam.	15	Quilon.
1	Allepey.	8	Mangalamarattupala.	16	Velinjam.
2	Anjengo.	9	Fallopport.		
3	Colachel.	10	Paranur.		<i>Cochin.</i>
4	Katur.	11	Puar.		
5	Kayankulam.	12	Punthorai.	1	Cranganore.
6	Manakudi.	13	Poracand.	2	Maliyapuram.
		14	Pattanam.	3	Narrakal.
<i>French Ports.</i>					
1	Karikal.	3	Pondicherry.		
2	Mahe.	4	Yanam.		

Tinnevely
chank and
pearl
fisheries.

The pearl and chank fisheries in this Presidency are connected with the Marine Department, inasmuch as they are under the superintendence at present of the Master Attendant of Tuticorin; they are treated however as a branch of revenue and are administered by the Revenue Board. The Tinnevely chank or conch-shell fishery was some years ago carried on under Government management, the shells being sold to private persons who exported them to Bengal. Afterwards a change was made in the management, and the right of fishery was sold for a term of years. This plan was found to be undesirable, and in 1861 a system of licenses was introduced, which continued up to 1876, the annual revenue realized being between Rupees 4,800 and 6,000. Since 1876 the fishing has again been conducted under Government management. The gross receipts from the fishery in 1877-78 were Rupees 31,267, the expenses were Rupees 8,363 and the net profit was Rupees 22,904. The divers in the year just named were paid at the rate of Rupees 20 for 1,000 shells, and the prices obtained by Government were Rupees 91 for 1,000 shells if in good condition and Rupees 10 if "tight," that is to say, exceeding a certain size and worked. The pearl banks on the Tinnevely coast are of very ancient origin. The old head-quarters were at the Ramnad promontory, but for the last two centuries the head-quarters have been at Tuticorin, ninety miles north-east of Cape Comorin. In 1822 the Tuticorin pearl fishery contributed about Rupees 1,30,000 to the revenue, and in 1830 the yield was worth about Rupees 1,00,000. Between this and 1861 there were no fisheries, as the beds seemed to be exhausted. The causes assigned were the widening of the Paumben channel which increased the current and the interference of the chank divers. In 1856 an examination was made, the results of which showed the possibility of a fishery in 1861. Two fisheries actually

took place in 1861 and 1862, the total amount realized being Rupees 3,78,581; since then, although oyster spat has on several occasions fallen on the banks, and hopes have been entertained of lucrative fisheries, they have all ended in disappointment, the young oysters being destroyed by predatory fish which abound in these seas. No means have yet been devised for preventing this and for the present all hopes of profitable fisheries have been abandoned. The pearl fisheries are conducted entirely on account of Government, the divers employed being given one-third of all oysters they bring up subject to certain rules. The Government share of the oysters is sold by auction at so much per 1,000. The steamer *Margaret Northcote* and the boats *Pearl* and *Edith* form a guard establishment at the pearl banks, the steamer being used for other duties when not required for inspection there. No crows are at present entertained for the *Pearl* and *Edith*, and the latter boat has been lent to the Marine Department at Paumben until her services are again needed.

AGRICULTURAL PROTECTION.

The Government offer rewards for killing elephants, tigers, cheetahs, Wild animals, bears, wolves and hyenas. Collectors pay the rewards on production of the skin, or other satisfactory evidence. Cheetahs and hyenas form the most frequent cases.

Road avenues are in most cases under the charge of the Local Fund Road avenues Boards, nearly all the roads in the country being undertaken by them. Where this is not the case, Collectors take charge of the avenues.

SECTION IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

AGRICULTURE.

Description
of cultivable
lands.

THE land in every Government village, as plotted out by the old original Peimash or Survey, or by the operations of the recent Revenue Survey and Settlement, falls into two main divisions, the uncultivable portion and the cultivable. The former goes by the general name of poramboke, and consists of various classes of land which from one cause or another are uncultivable or not likely to be cultivated, such as hills, rocks, jungles, and other lands not naturally cultivable; and of lands reserved for public purposes, viz., village sites, roads, beds of tanks, channels, cattle stands, burial grounds, &c. As has already been explained in Section II no revenue is realized from poramboke lands, except a few miscellaneous items; it is not classified or assessed by the Revenue Settlement Department, and it is only surveyed by the Survey Department when it consists of small blocks interspersed in cultivable lands. In the case of all portions of a village area which are considered to be in any way likely to be cultivated, whether on the irrigated or unirrigated system, the land is surveyed and marked off into distinct numbers or fields by the Survey Department, each field is examined and classified by the Revenue Settlement Department, and the amount of Government due or assessment chargeable thereon is fixed and placed on record. Any one taking up this land knows in advance that he will have to pay so much and no more in the form of Government assessment upon it; this land is consequently called the assessed land, or sometimes the ayacut or cultivable area of the village. Assessed land will, of course, include Inam lands, though the terms made with the Inamdar are for the moment special, and full assessment is not levied. It is not often that the whole of the assessed land in the village has already been taken up by cultivators. In each village there may be said therefore to be a portion of assessed land which is offered but has not yet been taken up, and which forms the

margin of cultivation, being always of poorer soil than the rest of the ayacut; this is otherwise called assessed waste. Villages have communal rights of grazing over assessed waste. Deducting this portion, the remainder of the ayacut consists of lands in the occupation of cultivators, and for the most part actually cultivated by them; this is called the cultivated area. In some cases the lands will from one cause or another be left temporarily waste by the occupiers, who will not nevertheless resign them. These occasional waste portions are ascertainable from the cultivation accounts; they can therefore be deducted and the remainder will represent the area actually under crops. The following figures show to a certain extent the proportion of acreage belonging at a recent date to each of these four main classes of lands for an area of, say, 65,664,000 acres. The whole area of the Presidency is 88,523,520 acres, but the balance consists of lands for which particulars of cultivable or uncultivable lands are not known, lands lying outside villages, forest lands, &c. The four classes of lands are of course locally interspersed, and the division is merely a paper division:—

	ACRES.
1. Poramboke or uncultivable	23,964,160
2. Assessed waste not occupied	14,183,329
3. Assessed land occupied but not cultivated	
4. Assessed lands under crops	27,516,511
Total	65,664,000

The greater part of the Madras Presidency is covered with soils that were originally formed by the disintegration of rocks of the metamorphic and igneous systems. The soils derived from the rocks of the first-mentioned system, gneiss, mica, quartz, &c., which prevail the most widely, are very inferior; especially when, as is the case in many parts of Southern India, they occur as sedentary soils, that is to say, when they rest on the rock from which they were originally formed. The extensive ranges of mountains known as the Pulneys, Anamalais, and Nilgiris are composed of granitic rocks, the decomposition of which, especially where the felspar occurs as orthoclase, affords a productive soil in situations where the rainfall is not excessive. The minor ranges of hills, of which there are many scattered over the Presidency, consist chiefly of syenite and quartz rocks; the former yields on decomposition a productive soil, but the soils derived from the latter are always inferior, and sometimes perfectly sterile. The area of sedentary soil derived from inferior rocks is very considerable, but it fortunately happens that owing to the gigantic scale on which the forces of nature have operated in Southern India, there is a wide extent of transported soils, formed of the disintegrated portions of the rocks of other formations. Of this class is the black cotton soil,

Distribution
of soils, as
affecting
agriculture.

an alluvial soil met with all over the Presidency, sometimes in isolated patches of only a few acres in area, and sometimes in large plains of hundreds of square miles. The depth of this soil varies from 12 inches to from 12 to 15 feet. It is closely allied to the black earth of Southern Russia, and evidently occupies the sites of dried-up lakes. Its most characteristic form is a black or bluish mud, tenacious in wet weather and deeply seamed in dry weather. From its unusual power of absorbing and retaining moisture, this soil is on the whole in great request. It contains very little organic matter, usually not more than 4 per cent. It frequently has underlying it a deposit of concretionary lime-stone, which, if the soil is shallow, reduces its agricultural value considerably. Another characteristic soil met with in all parts of the Presidency is the red soil, so called from its peculiar red appearance, derived from a large admixture of the peroxide of iron. This soil differs very considerably in its character; in some places forming extensive plains with a hard crusted surface almost incapable of producing even indigenous vegetation and verging on laterite, and in other places being friable, open, easily worked, very hygroscopic from the oxide of iron it contains, and generally fertile. As a rule, the most fertile tracts of land occupy low situations; most of them are of alluvial origin, and from the facilities they afford for irrigation, they generally form the irrigated area. The land most in need of irrigation from its extreme dryness and the natural poverty of its original constituents, is obviously the most difficult to provide with irrigation water, but such land constitutes three-fourths of the food-producing area of the country.

The seasons
with refer-
ence to
cultivation.

The most important cultivating season of the year in the greater part of the Presidency begins with the first rains that inaugurate the north-east monsoon; this is generally about the end of September, the sowing month being October and the harvest month February. Over the other portions of the Presidency the crops are raised under the influence of the rains accompanying the south-west monsoon, and in this case the sowing is performed in the months of April and May, while the crops are harvested in August and September. All cultivation, whether artificially irrigated or not, depends more or less on the monsoon seasons. Land irrigated from wells is naturally the least so, and land irrigated from tanks, which do not in all cases get their supply from the immediate rainfall, are more independent than unirrigated land. The unirrigated land is absolutely dependent on the falling rain. Irrigated land, especially that under wells, has sometimes two crops in the year. Two crops can be got off unirrigated land only in certain highly favored localities.

Treatment of
irrigated land.

Irrigated land forms about 15 per cent. of the area under occupation. It is watered exclusively from rivers, river channels, and tanks, and in most instances the water flows upon the land by gravitation.

The area of land irrigated directly from rivers is extremely small compared with the area watered from river-channels. The reason of this is that the beds of most of the rivers on the plains are so frequently changed, or are situated in such deep valleys that it is difficult to get the water thence to the cultivated land. Hence the practice of putting dams or anicuts across rivers. Dams are constructed where there is space for the storage of water, and where the water can be raised to a height sufficient to command a suitable area of arable land. Probably the supplies of river water might with advantage be cut off further inland than at present. From the dams the water passes along channels to the cultivated land; the beds of these channels being kept so high that the water will flow by gravitation through sluices into the minor distributing channels. In many instances the irrigation water cannot be secured at a sufficient height, and the water is then raised from the channel by a picottah or similar means. Tanks are always placed in situations where the surface drainage of a more or less considerable area of country naturally flows or collects. Sometimes they are natural and form shallow lakes; but as a rule they are artificial and occupy a situation on land having a slight slope. In selecting the position for a tank the object is to secure for the upper slope a large collecting area and to command on the lower slope a sufficient area of arable land for watering by gravitation. Artificial tanks are always more efficacious than natural tanks equally supplied with water, because the land irrigated from the artificial tank is from its position generally well drained, while that irrigated from the natural tank is frequently altogether without drainage, being but a portion of the bed of some original lake. The only crop grown on this description of land is paddy. Where an abundance of water is available throughout the year, two crops are grown annually, but most of the land as already said produces only one crop. The irrigation water is usually supplied on each occasion to a depth of from 4 to 6 inches, and the supply is made according to its abundance on every day, every other day, or every third day, during the growth of the crop. A depth of from 8 to 12 feet of water may be taken as the common consumption in the growth of a complete crop of paddy. In many parts of the Presidency the practice is to sow the paddy broadcast on a semi-liquid soil which is brought into this state by frequent waterings and stirrings. The practice is also common of transplanting young seedling paddy plants from nursery beds into the field. Beyond weeding and watering, the paddy land receives no attention while under crop. Some varieties of paddy are six months on the ground, others only four months. The crop is cut when dead ripe, and is thrashed by striking the sheaves on a log of wood or by the treading of cattle. The agricultural practice in dealing

with irrigated land is said to be capable of improvement in the direction of a more economical use of the water; as long however as the ryot is unable to apply manure to his irrigated land he is under the necessity of using a large quantity of irrigation water in order to secure silt in its place. There are many practical difficulties in the way of procuring manure; there is also a deficiency of capital to invest in it.

Treatment
of unirrigated
land.

Eighty per cent. of the food-producing area of the Presidency consists of dry land. A very large area of this tract is covered by soils of the lowest value; there are however considerable areas of really good soil. The dry lands are in the hands of poorer cultivators than the wet lands, and it is probable that their cultivation is more susceptible of improvement than that of the wet lands. The black soils are usually cropped with cotton and cholum. The red soils are variously cropped; in some districts they constitute the chief cotton-producing areas, but when good they are cropped with the different cereals. The grey soils produce varagoo, korraloo, and inferior cumbu, cholum, &c. Sometimes two or even three crops are sown simultaneously on the same ground, so that if one fails the other may succeed; choice being made of crops that do not all bear at one time. The crops grown on the unirrigated land are sown both broadcast and in lines, but the former is more usual. The tillage consists usually of ploughing in various directions; the native plough stirs but does not turn over the soil and seldom penetrates to a greater depth than three inches. The seeding is always heavy, and there is probably a waste of seed. The actual operation of sowing is either performed by broadcasting the seed over the land by the hand, or by the aid of a drill formed of three or four bamboo tubes connected at the top to a fixed hopper into which the seed is placed and from which it passes through the bamboo tubes into the soil. During the growth of the crop but little is done in after-cultivation or hoeings. The crops are all harvested by the hand, the work being paid for in kind.

Treatment of
pasture land.

Grass is encouraged to grow spontaneously in all parts of the village area where it will not interfere with other crops, but special grass-crops raised from seed, or developed by irrigation, are as yet very rare in this Presidency, the remuneration not proving sufficient. Ryots will frequently leave permanently uncultivated the least productive portions of their holdings for the sake of giving a better pasture to the live-stock required for farm labor than is to be got in the poamboke land. Or they will leave the land temporarily fallow in the same way, with a view to combining pasture with passive fertilization of the soil. With the exception however of certain cases, yearly diminishing, where a light assessment is placed on arable land reserved for pasture, the ryots have to do this at their own expense, paying full assessment

for the lands thus employed. The principle of deriving remuneration from grass and fodder crops in the form of farm manure will doubtless be more acted upon as capital increases. There is no want of intelligence on the part of the cultivator.

Garden land is land irrigated with water artificially raised from wells, tanks, or other sources. The crops usually grown are those that will mature satisfactorily with from five to eight waterings in a month. Treatment of
garden lands.

The water is raised by cattle-power and manual-power only, horse-power or steam-power being not yet in use. For very low lifts a bale is used, that is to say, a bucket suspended by two ropes, one of which on either side is held by a man. In baling the bucket is allowed to drop into the water and when full swung up to the height needed, where a third man who stands in the water catches and capsizes it. For higher lifts, up to about 12 or 13 feet, the picottah is used. This is a horizontal pole balanced on an upright post of a height regulated by the length of the horizontal pole. The arrangement is something like that of the ordinary weighing balance. At the end of the horizontal pole which projects over the water, an upright rod is attached, generally of bamboo, and to the lower end of this the bucket is fastened. In working the picottah, an alternate up-and-down motion is given to the arms of the horizontal pole, a bucket being brought up each time the pole dips and rises. The motion is generally produced by the backward and forward walk of a man along the pole; as he advances along the pole towards the water the bucket dips and fills, and as he walks back in the contrary direction, it rises to the required elevation, and is there guided and capsized by another laborer. Where the lift is great two and sometimes three men are employed on the horizontal pole. In cases where the lift is moderate a man on the pole is frequently dispensed with, a heavy ball of clay only being attached to the end of the pole opposite to that at which the bucket rod is attached. In this case a single man stands over the well, pushes down the bucket, guides it, and capsizes it at the point of discharge. For low lifts the picottah works at a very moderate cost, especially when worked by the cultivator himself. The picottah in use in different districts varies in construction. In well lifts, which are too high for the picottah, that is to say for depths from 12 to 40 feet, the "Single Mhote" is usually employed worked by cattle. This arrangement consists of a horizontal roller fixed over the well on uprights of three or four feet in height while a rope travels over the roller; at one end of the rope a skin bucket is attached, and the other end is fastened to the yoke of a pair of cattle. At the place where the water is to be discharged from the bucket there is a cistern, and in front of the cistern an inclined path of 20 or 30 feet in length according to the depth of the water. When raising the water the cattle walk down the slope, and when the bucket descends to the water

they are backed up again. In this way, the cattle alternately ascending and descending the slope, the bucket is filled and brought to the surface. The arrangement is very simple, but is rude and probably trying to the cattle, the backward journey being often up a very steep slope. The cost of raising the water by this method is high. An improved lift has lately been introduced, by the aid of which it is anticipated that the water will be raised at one-half the cost. It is very desirable that garden cultivation should be extended, as a check on disastrous consequences of long continued droughts. At present about two per cent. of the occupied area of the Presidency is what is called "garden land." The crops grown are tobacco, sugar-cane, chillies, wheat, the ordinary cereals, &c.

Rotation of
crops and
fallows.

There is no established system of rotatory crops, but the principle of not overstraining the resources of the soil is fully understood by the ryots. A crop requiring little nourishment generally succeeds an exhausting crop, and fallows are common in the case of inferior soils. The liberty allowed to the ryots of relinquishing and taking up lands frequently brings the principle of leaving lands fallow into imperceptible play. Rotation and fallows are practised mainly in regard to unirrigated lands, and irrigated lands planted with sugar-cane; in the ordinary irrigated lands, which generally consist of small holdings, manuring is more frequent and is considered sufficient to secure a good crop without rotation. Considerable care is bestowed on manuring garden lands under wells. Lands near villages are better manured than those at a distance, for obvious reasons.

Proportions
of different
cultivations.

The following statement shows the proportion actually existing between different species of crops throughout the Presidency at a recent date:—

Cereal food-grains	75.6
Pulses	9.8
Oil seeds	5.2
Garden crops	1.8
Indigo	1.4
Cotton	6.2
	100

The following distribution has been suggested as what would probably best suit the requirements of the country generally:—

Under Restorative crops	5.3 per cent.
„ Exhaustive do.	75.5 „
„ Fallow or water	19.2 „
„	100.0 „

Cotton
cultivation.

The following statement giving the acreage under cotton in each district during a recent average year will show the cotton-producing powers of the different parts of the Presidency:—

Districts.	Acres.
Ganjam	3,302
Vizagapatam	13,107
Godavari	10,348
Krishna	219,267
Nellore	18,378
Cuddapah	76,074
Bellary	335,596
Kurnool	243,637
Madras	...
Chingleput	3
North Arcot	263
South Arcot	16,303
Tanjore	4,061
Trichinopoly	6,731*
Madura	95,101
Tinnevely	281,569
Coinbatore	184,517
Nilgiris	...
Salem	12,630
South Canara	164
Malabar	...
Total	1,571,537

During the last few years several experiments have been made with cotton of different varieties on the farm at Saidapet. The soils of the farm are very sandy, insoluble silica constituting nearly 90 per cent. of their entire weight, while the percentage of plant-food they contain naturally is extremely small. These soils are therefore much inferior to the "cotton" soils of Southern India, which are alluvial in their character and contain a moderately large percentage of clay and organic matter. It was only by the judicious use of manure that fair results were obtained in cotton culture at Saidapet. The following varieties of cotton were experimentally grown with the results noted:—
WESTERN.—A 5-acre field sown with this variety of cotton and maize in alternate lines yielded 1,766 lb. of seed cotton equal to 352 lb. per acre, and this was in addition to a fair crop of grain and straw from the maize plants that grow in alternate lines with the cotton plants. HINGINGHAUT AND BUNIE.—These varieties are grown largely in Bombay, where they are said to be highly appreciated. At Saidapet the results obtained with them differed but little from those yielded by ordinary "Western" seed. YCA VALLEY.—This valuable species of cotton grows well at Saidapet and produces a lint that is long, white and silky, resembling very much the cotton lint imported into England from the Fiji Islands. But unfortunately the Yca Valley cotton plant has almost died out at Saidapet from the repeated attacks of a borer which confined its depredations to this species of cotton. Arrangements are, it is believed, in operation for obtaining a fresh supply of seed

* Does not include area of cotton cultivated with other crops.

from Brazil. NEW ORLEANS.—This species of cotton has been grown with considerable success at the farm, a return per acre of from 100 to 180 lb. of clean lint in addition to a fair crop of maize having been frequently obtained. This species of cotton is probably peculiarly adapted for cultivation under an improved system of farming; indigenous varieties are very liable to run to stem and leaf under the influences of manure, while the returns from this species of cotton are always large when manure is liberally used. The plant seems however to have two or three objectionable characteristics; it bears at very uncertain intervals, and produces gatherings that vary greatly in amount, while the harvest is spread over several months, thus necessitating a considerable expenditure in gathering the crop and in keeping down the weeds, which from the open shade the cotton affords grow very freely amongst it; but these defects also, to a certain extent, characterize indigenous varieties of cotton. Crops sown in September do not begin to bear until the following March, and the plants must remain on the ground until the end of August or the beginning of September to admit of a fair return being obtained. As in the Cotton States of America the sowings are made in April and May, and the whole of the harvest is over before the end of December, it is probably desirable that a supply of fresh seed should be obtained from the Southern States, preference being given to the Mexican variety, from which the true New Orleans variety is said to have originated. It is said that the ordinary black seed New Orleans cotton was introduced into America from India. It appears desirable that a maize or cholam crop should always be sown with the cotton crop in alternate lines; in this way the food-producing area of the country is not lessened by a larger area of land under cotton, nor will the returns from the area under cotton be materially diminished if the cultivation is properly conducted. The cholam and maize plants grow upright and do not interfere with the early growth of the cotton plants, and before the cotton plants begin to throw out lateral branches, the maize or cholam will be ready for harvesting. The New Orleans plant was treated as a biennial, but the results were not satisfactory, the cotton of the second year being much less in quantity, while its fibre was harsh and short. EGYPTIAN.—This species of cotton has yielded very fair results at Saidapet, though as yet it has been cultivated there only on a very limited scale. Its cultivation is somewhat costly, as the plant throws out many lateral branches, thus preventing the use of cattle in weeding the land; but it is hoped that by sowing only the seed of the most upright-growing plants this habit may in time be overcome. The lint produced is soft and silky, and it separates readily from the seed. The experiments above described afford ground for thinking that with due care and a judicious use of manure the cultivation of foreign cotton of finer quality than the indigenous cotton

of local origin can be successfully introduced into this country. It is desirable, however, that further experiments should be tried on a larger scale both on the Government Farm at Saidapet and on the District Farms when established, and the matter engages attention.

The following is a statement for indigo similar to that given above for cotton:—

Districts.	Acres.
Ganjam	996
Vizagapatam	3,803
Godavari	1,739
Kistna	42,975
Nellore	57,519
Cuddapah	62,824
Bellary	10,358
Kurnool	40,556
Madras	...
Chingleput	5,157
North Arcot	13,728
South Arcot	61,318
Tanjore	472
Trichinopoly	837
Madura	72
Tinnevely	245
Coimbatore	...
Nilgiris	...
Salem	2,987
South Canara	...
Malabar	...
Total ...	304,676

The cultivation of wheat in this Presidency is very limited, and is chiefly confined to six districts as shown below:—

Districts.	Acres.
Kistna	2,145
Cuddapah	2,293
Bellary	3,397
Kurnool	5,537
Coimbatore	2,108
Nilgiris	3,199
All other districts	667
Total ...	19,346

The quantity of wheat exported to foreign ports and British ports beyond the Presidency during 1875-76 was 8,764 cwt., value Rs. 36,292.

The principal coffee tract of Southern India is along the Western Coast, and coffee estates extend in nearly an unbroken line along the summits and slopes of the Western Ghats from the northern limits of Mysore down to Cape Comorin. The only portions of the area within the limits of the Madras Government are the Wynad tract and the Nilgiri Hills. Coffee plants were introduced as a curiosity into the Wynad

about fifty years ago by Major Bevan; the first regular plantation was opened out by Mr. Glasson in 1840 on a hill at Manantoddy, and was soon followed by others. Nearly all the land taken up at this period was what is known as grass or bamboo land, and in consequence most of the estates proved unprofitable. Of many of them not a trace except the ruins of bungalows remains at the present day. After the first attempts coffee cultivation was transferred to South Wynad. For ten or fifteen years it made little progress. In 1855 and 1856 a number of new estates were opened out, some too hastily and consequently with little success. In 1862 the return showed 9,932 acres under cultivation. In 1865 there were 200 estates covering 14,613 acres. An official inquiry was made on the subject of Wynad coffee in the year 1868, and according to the returns then made the average was 29,909.08, of which 21,479.54 acres were held by Europeans and 8,429.54 acres were held by natives. Subsequent returns have shown no increase in the acreage until quite recently when high prices have stimulated cultivation. At the present moment there are about 32,000 acres of matured plants, 10,000 acres of immature plants, and 27,000 acres of land taken up for planting, but not yet planted. The average yield per acre in the Wynad is said to be about 200 lb., and the cost of cultivation about Rupees 250 per acre. The following table showing the quantities of Wynad coffee shipped on the Malabar Coast during a period of twelve years indicates nearly all the crops, as very little passes out by Mysore or Coimbatore:—

Years.	Cwts.
1856-57	32,658
1857-58	16,204
1858-59	36,934
1859-60	49,680
1860-61	48,742
1861-62	51,080
1862-63	43,907
1863-64	91,947
1864-65	110,548
1865-66	125,891
1866-67	66,552
1867-68	123,911

Coffee cultivation on the Nilgiris was reported on in 1872. A large area of land on the Nilgiris has proved to be admirably suited for the cultivation of the coffee shrub. Not less than 19,600 acres are now under coffee plantations, besides 8,951 acres taken up for planting. Twenty years ago the area under coffee did not much exceed 500 acres. This great increase is entirely the result of private enterprise, and has added much to the prosperity of the Nilgiris, while at the same time benefiting the districts immediately adjoining. In the establishment of these coffee estates a property has been created worth about five millions of rupees, on which the annual expenditure cannot be less

than two millions of rupees. Of the total expenditure about one-third is for the payment of wages to coolies; and most of this is carried into the low country, either in payment for food grains consumed by plantation coolies, or as cash carried by the coolies themselves when they return to their homes. Estimating that the sum sent into the low country in this way represents annually Rupees 6,00,000, this will support about 14,000 families of laboring people. Moreover in carrying coffee to the coast, and sorting, packing, &c., a large amount of other labor is employed. Until a few years previous to 1850 the coffee plantations on the Nilgiris were found only on the eastern slopes, but they have now been extended to the southern, northern, and north-western slopes; there are also some extensive plantations in the Oucherlony Valley and in the neighbourhood of Coonoor. Coffee cultivation is also carried on on the Shervaroy Hills in the Salem District, where nearly 5,000 acres are under the crop, and a similar area of land has been taken up for planting; on the Pulney and Sirumalai Hills in Madura, where nearly 3,000 acres have been planted and a considerable area has been taken up for planting; and in the Tinnevely and Coimbatore Districts, in the former of which there are about 2,000 acres under coffee and in the latter about 800 acres. The total area under coffee in the Presidency is as follows:—mature plants, acres 5,74,951; immature plants, acres 1,46,251; taken up for planting but not yet planted, acres 43,821. The total approximate yield is 12,806,195 lb., or about 110 lbs. per acre.

Tea cultivation has not the same interest in Southern India as coffee cultivation, and there are few plantations except on the Nilgiris. The tea plant was introduced on these hills nearly forty years ago, but it is only during the last ten years that any real progress has been made in the cultivation. The experiments made between 1835 and 1840 were useful in proving that the tea plant would thrive on the hills, but little else resulted from them, though the opinions frequently expressed by Mr. John Sullivan and Monsieur Perrottet, and founded on these experiments that the greater part of the district was well suited for tea culture, have now been proved to be accurate. It is difficult to account for the little interest that was taken in tea cultivation previous to 1865, for there was evidence that the plant would succeed well. At the present time the area under tea is as follows:—

	Acres.
Mature plants	1,907
Immature do.	1,362
Taken up for planting, but not yet planted	3,551

The oldest estates are planted with tea of the China variety; those that have recently been opened, on situations not too exposed, are

generally planted with the Assam variety, or with plants produced from a cross between the China and Assam varieties. The China variety is the most hardy and best adapted for high and exposed positions, but grows slowly, and produces very little leaf. The Assam variety is suited only for sheltered situations on rich fertile soil; when so circumstanced it grows rapidly, and is a large producer of leaf. The hybrid is the most generally useful, combining the leaf-producing quality of the Assam with the hardihood of the China variety. Most of the tea estates on the Nilgiris are on land which was formerly under grass; such land especially, if heavily covered by ferns, gives good results, but shola land is preferred when it can be obtained equally well situated, as on such land the shrub grows with much greater rapidity, and gives earlier and heavier flushes of leaf. The plantations are generally small, ranging from 50 to 80 acres in extent, and besides these there are numerous gardens varying from plots of a single acre up to 15 or 20 acres. The bulk of the plantations appear to have been started as experimental plots, and gradually increased until they have reached their present area. They are generally not well arranged, and are ill-provided with buildings; many are altogether without buildings, being worked in connection with some other estate. The approximate yield for the year 1877-78 was 226,389 lb. or 118 lb. per acre. The cost of cultivation varies from Rupees 100 to Rupees 130 per acre, so that in this industry alone Rupees 3,00,000 are annually expended, besides the cost of manufacture, which is about 2 annas per pound.

Tobacco
cultivation.

Tobacco cultivation in this Presidency has recently been the subject of an official inquiry. Tobacco is grown more or less throughout the Presidency, with the exception of Malabar and the Hill Ranges; but the chief localities of production are the alluvial lands of the Godavari District, where is grown the well known "Lunka" tobacco (so named from the lunkas or river islands on which it is cultivated), and parts of the Coimbatore and Madura Districts, from which the Trichinopoly cheroot manufacturers draw their supplies of raw material. The plant is grown on almost every description of soil, from black loam to sand, and from irrigated land to high arid sites. Alluvial lands are preferred; then high ground, and such places as deserted village sites, and back-yards of houses, the latter on account of the salts impregnating the soil, and also probably for convenience of position as regards manuring and watching and curing the produce. Of the more esteemed tobaccos used for European consumption, the best of the Godavari produce is grown on these alluvial lands which receive rich deposits of silt in the river floods and are out of the influence of the sea-freshes; while the Dindigul tobacco is produced on a carefully cultivated red loam to which an alluvial character has

been artificially imparted. Some of the highest priced tobacco is grown on rich dry land under irrigation, but this while suited for chewing, is too coarse in texture of leaf and too pungent in flavour for smoking. In some parts irrigation is practised and in others it is dispensed with; only a small quantity of water is supplied to the plant, and as a rule not by gravitation, but by mechanical appliances, and preferably from wells of brackish water containing potassic salts. Excessive damp is prejudicial, and the seed-beds and soil generally are superficially drained or stand high. The crop while young is gently watered by hand, and heavy rains detract from the quality of the tobacco, the tobacco grown on ordinary irrigable lands being generally inferior. The manures used are the droppings of sheep and goats penned on the land previously to cultivation, cattle-dung and urine, ashes and sweepings. In Nellore salt-earth is used. The manures are very plentifully applied to all soils except alluvial lands. The seed is invariably sown in seed-beds. The seasons of cultivation vary according to local climatic considerations. As a rule, sowing commences after the local rains from July to October, though tobacco is sometimes grown as a second crop commencing in January. The site of cultivation is thoroughly ploughed and manured, the seed germinates in some eight days after sowing, and the seedlings are transplanted in the course of some six weeks on attaining a height of five or six inches, into holes a foot to a yard apart, sometimes in ridges, sometimes on the flat surface of the field. In some localities the seed-beds and young plants are protected from the extreme heat of the sun by means of mats, &c., and all leaves except ten or twelve are nipped off to strengthen those left; the flowers are also promptly nipped off with the exception of those purposely left for seed. The leaves begin to ripen in the course of some two months from transplantation, and as soon as one or two turn colour, the whole crop is collected. This is effected generally by cutting the stem with a knife, though in Ganjam and the alluvial lands of Vizagapatam the leaves are nipped off separately, and in part of Tanjore some leaves are first plucked in January and the stem and remaining leaves cut down in May or June. As a rule no second crop is gathered, and where the after sprouts are collected at all they are of very inferior quality. The process of gradually drying and fermenting is effected by modes slightly differing in detail. In Nellore, for instance, the cut leaves are hung in the sun for two days, put in heaps, turned over every two days, and ranged in layers for twenty days, during which time they are frequently turned. They are then tied in bundles, dipped in water, sweetened with date jaggery, and are then ready for sale. In other parts, as in the Salem District, the plants are left a day or two in the field, then exposed to the sun and dew alternately for a week, then wrapped in straw and buried in

the ground for a week, after which the leaves are stripped from the stems, made into bundles, placed in straw, and put under heavy weights, with their ends exposed for six weeks, the piles in which they are laid being opened and turned every other day. In other localities the leaves, after drying in the fields for a day or two, are hung over poles or ropes, preferably in the shade, in regular drying sheds or in the cultivators' houses, and subsequently stacked in heaps, which are opened out and pressed together again at stated intervals until the requisite curing is effected. Occasionally the leaves are sprinkled with jaggery water or an infusion of the *Cassia auriculata* while drying, and in Coimbatore the festoons of leaves after being strung are hung up on the milk-hedge (*Euphorbia tirucalli*) to acquire thence a flavour. State interference has been suggested in the case of this industry, but the Government have decided otherwise. Such interference has not been found necessary with indigo or coffee, and it was relinquished in the case of tea when that industry had made much less progress than tobacco has at the present time. The tobacco grown in this Presidency is at present inferior; but it seems clear that this is mainly due to the fact that there is a great demand for the coarse article, and that it is found to pay better to grow a large quantity of inferior leaf than to grow a smaller quantity of superior leaf. European capital would, however, doubtless improve the curing processes. The statistics of the tobacco industry lately obtained are too voluminous to be here inserted.

Agricultural
condition of
ryots.

Nearly one-half of the whole number of persons shown by the last census as in employment, that is to say, 4,878,890 persons, are given as cultivators. These are adult males above 12 years of age, and peasant proprietors holding land either under Government directly or under Zemindars, &c. The number of holders of Government puttas was at the last census 2,392,064 only, but one putta often includes several members of the same family. Every section of the community, from the Brahmin to the Pariah, and Hindu or Mahomedan, is represented in the list of cultivators. The desire for holding land is as strong as in any other part of the world. Of late years and consequent on the gradual abolition of domestic slavery, the lower orders of the Hindus have become farmers on their own account to a larger extent than before, and their position has improved. The direct taxes to which an agriculturalist in this Presidency is now liable are very numerous, but though the multiplicity of the present taxation is no doubt an unwelcome substitute for the simplicity of the old taxation, all the present taxes and imposts put together amount to no more than the old land assessment. The rise in prices of late years has improved the position of the agriculturalist, and it may be hoped that with increasing resources more capital may be invested in

the development of the soil. The most needy cultivators are those who hold the dry lands.

In addition to the great body of small farmers upwards of two millions of adult males are returned by the census as "laborers," and probably more than three-fourths of these are employed in connection with the cultivation of the land. These represent for the most part the classes of the community who were formerly prædial slaves. The principal caste engaged in inferior agricultural labor is that of the Vannians. Throughout the greater part of the Presidency the agricultural laborer receives his wages in the form of farm produce; and it is only near large towns that money wages are paid. The rate of hire varies from one to two Madras measures of grain per day, the higher rate being that usually given for occasional labor and the lower rate that for long engagements. These two classes of laborers differ very much in their circumstances. The latter have little liberty, being usually in debt to their employers on account of the advance made to them on first taking service. The casual laborer, on the other hand, finds living precarious; he meets with regular employment only at the busy seasons of the year, and during the remainder of the year has to depend upon such work as he can secure on the roads and other public works, or upon the small earnings to be made by selling fuel, grass, &c. in the large villages and towns. It is usual for the wife and other members of the laborer's family to contribute their earnings. The following statement shows the rate of wages of agricultural laborers obtaining in June and December of a recent average year. Wages of certain other laborers have been added for illustration:—

Districts.	Average Wages per Month.											
	Prevailing at the end of June 1875.						At the end of December 1875.					
	Able-bodied Agricultural Laborer.		Syce or Horse-keeper.		Common Mason, Carpenter, or Blacksmith.		Able-bodied Agricultural Laborer.		Syce or Horse-keeper.		Common Mason, Carpenter, or Blacksmith.	
	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.	RS.	A.	P.
1. Ganjam	3	0	0	6	0	0	7	8	0	3	0	0
2. Vizagapatam	4	8	0	6	0	0	9	12	0	4	8	0
3. Godavari	6	0	0	6	0	0	12	0	0	6	0	0
4. Rytma	7	5	0	7	0	0	12	8	0	7	3	0
5. Nellore	6	0	0	6	0	0	15	0	0	3	8	0
6. Cuddapah	7	8	0	6	0	0	22	8	0	7	3	0
7. Bellary	4	0	0	6	0	0	15	0	0	4	0	0
8. Kurnool	4	0	0	6	0	0	11	0	0	4	0	0
9. Madras	6	8	0	5	8	0	9	6	0	5	8	0
10. Chingleput	3	12	0	5	0	0	10	5	4	3	0	0
11. North Arcot	4	0	0	7	0	0	15	0	0	4	0	0
12. South Arcot	4	0	0	5	0	0	11	4	0	4	11	0
13. Tanjore	4	11	0	6	0	0	11	13	4	4	8	0
14. Trichinopoly	4	8	0	6	3	0	9	11	0	4	0	0
15. Madurai	6	0	0	7	0	0	20	0	0	6	0	0
16. Tirunelveli	6	0	0	6	0	0	14	6	0	6	0	0
17. Coimbatore	4	0	0	6	0	0	15	0	0	5	8	0
18. Nilgiris	7	0	0	8	0	0	25	0	0	7	0	0
19. Salem	2	8	0	5	4	0	16	14	0	2	8	0
20. South Canara	7	8	0	6	0	0	20	10	0	7	8	0
21. Malabar	7	8	0	7	0	0	15	0	0	7	8	0

The wages of agricultural labor have increased during the last quarter of a century, though not in proportion to prices. Where wages are paid in grain it is evidently difficult to secure progressive rates.

Particulars
for total agri-
culturists.

The total number of agriculturists, regarding these as cultivators, laborers, and property-holders combined, is about 7 millions. Thus taken, the proportion of adult male agriculturists to the adult male population, exclusive of Jeypore, the Ganjam Maliahs, Banganapally and Sundur, for which information in regard to the number of agriculturists, &c. is not available, is 71.7 per cent., while the same to the total population of the Presidency, exclusive of the tracts noticed above, is 23.1 per cent. The average is about the same in all the districts. In other parts of India, where, however, male agriculturists above 20 or 15 instead of 12 years of age have been taken as adults, the proportions of adult agriculturists to the total population compare as follows:—

	Total Population.	Adult Male Agriculturists.	Per- centage.
1. Madras	30,775,373	* 7,127,072	23
2. Berar	2,231,565	+ 418,823	20
3. North-West Provinces	30,781,204	† 5,891,592	19
4. Bengal and Assam	64,727,543	† 11,795,677	18
5. Mysore	5,055,412	+ 637,113	12
6. British Burmah	2,747,148	+ 379,913	14
7. Bombay	16,849,296	+ 1,781,736	10
8. Central Provinces	8,201,519	+ 756,350	9.2
9. Coorg	168,312	+ 14,652	8

The above comparison is not strictly correct, as the standard of age taken for adults is not the same in all provinces. The exact number of male agriculturists between 12 and 20 years included under adults in this Presidency is not known; but, supposing that the number is in the same proportion as the total number of males between those ages is to the total male population, the proportion of male agriculturists above 20 years in Madras to the total population will be about 18 per cent.

Live-stock,
treatment
and present
condition.

The agricultural live-stock of this Presidency consists of cattle, sheep, and goats, horses being almost entirely unrepresented. Cattle are kept for draught, for the dairy, for breeding, and for manure purposes; they are hardly ever fed or fattened for slaughter as in other countries, the meat market being supplied chiefly by the slaughter of worn-out draught cattle, old or barren cows, &c. There are three well distinguished breeds of cattle. The largest is a heavy framed, coarse, slow working bullock of white color, bred chiefly in the Nellore District; the second is a smaller, lighter, more active, and better shaped animal, well adapted for draught purposes, and containing some of the blood

* Adults above 12 years of age.

† Adults above 20 years.

‡ Adults above 15 years.

of the celebrated Amrhat Mahal breed; the third is a small black and white and red breed, found throughout the whole of the southern portions of the Presidency. The average live weight of a South Indian bullock is about 350 lb. The sheep yield on the average about 25 lb. of mutton per head. The yield of wool, which is always largely mixed with hair, is usually not more than 1 lb. in the year per head. There are three well marked breeds of sheep. The first is a small-framed animal, with a covering of black or white hairy wool; the second is about the same size, red in color, but destitute of wool, and covered only with short coarse hair; the third is a long legged goat-like animal, characterised by two tassels dependent from its neck, of larger size than the two first named, but producing coarse mutton and no wool. The large losses of cattle from the occurrence of preventible diseases have attracted the attention of Government, and the provisions of the Cattle Diseases' Act have been applied to some districts. At present however there is no agency for enforcing its provisions other than the ordinary Revenue establishment. Attempts are at the present moment being made in Europe to secure the services of a competent Veterinarian to fill the post of Inspector of Cattle Disease.

Fairs and markets are held periodically throughout the Presidency, the latter generally weekly or bi-weekly, and the former on the occasion of different festivals. At the fairs, in addition to the usual sale of agricultural produce, considerable numbers of farm-stock are brought together, especially in the breeding districts. The markets are on a very much smaller scale, and grain and petty articles of domestic use constitute the chief articles of trade. The produce brought for sale to a market is in most instances of no greater bulk than a cooly-load; and live stock is seldom offered.

The prices of food-grains are ascertained by local inquiry at the head-quarters of Tahsildars and Deputy Tahsildars and reported to the Board of Revenue once a month. The number of local measures of capacity per rupee is given in these reports. The measures are converted in the Board's office into seers' weight of 80 tolas, and a general statement is then published in the Fort St. George Gazette. Once a fortnight a statement is sent to the Government of India for publication in the Gazette of India showing the prices prevailing at the head-quarters of each collectorate. Formerly in this statement retail prices alone were quoted. Arrangements however have now been made for quoting wholesale prices also. These will be the prices at which in great trading markets large transactions are effected between the holders of considerable stocks of grain, &c., and traders purchasing from them; but they will not necessarily represent the prices at which the agricultural community dispose of their produce. The grain

markets are now much steadier than they were some years back. The years 1874-75 and 1875-76 may be taken to have been average years; the average retail prices of the principal articles of food for the whole Presidency in those years is shown below :—

Items.	1874-75.	1875-76.
Price of rice, 2nd sort, seers of 80 tolas per rupee	15-2	16-0
Do. paddy, do. do.	27-2	24-6
Do. cholam, do. do.	25-7	26-6
Do. cumboo, do. do.	26-0	26-4
Do. ragi, do. do.	27-9	27-9
Do. varegu, do. do.	37-0	39-6
Do. wheat, do. do.	10-7	11-4
Do. salt, do. do.	15-7	15-8
Do. cotton, per candy	111	104

General
agricultural
statistics.

General statistical information regarding agriculture is now available to Government on the following subjects:—(1) Area cultivated and uncultivated; (2) Area irrigated from Government sources; (3) Crops cultivated and area under crops; (4) Prices of food grains, and (5) Price of labor. This information is not quite sufficient, and even as much as this is not available for Zemindari and Inam villages. The question of collecting agricultural statistics on a more extended scale, especially in such matters as the amount of food production in the country each season, the average yield of land per acre, the average rent per acre of each crop, the consumption of the several districts, and of exports or imports of grain by land, &c., was referred to the Board of Revenue for consideration in 1876. It was estimated then that additional establishments, costing 2½ lakhs of rupees per annum, would be required to secure proper supervision and for tabulation of results. This matter is still in abeyance.

Direct
Government
operations.

The Government Agricultural Department in this Presidency is confined at present in great measure to the operations connected with the Government farms already established or hereafter to be established. The officers of the department are however available for making tours, for answering references from districts, and for many miscellaneous duties in connection with agricultural questions. The proposed extension of agricultural education in connection with the department will be mentioned in the next paragraph. The department is now under the control of a Superintendent, who is placed immediately under the orders of the Board of Revenue. He has two Assistants who have received an agricultural training in Europe, and also certain office establishments; the cost of this establishment and of such experiments as are made from time to time is met partly by a Government grant and partly from receipts in the farm and certain Local Funds. At present there are only two Government farms in operation, both situated at Saidapet close to the Presidency town, and in fact forming practically

but one farm. It is intended gradually to open similar farms in other districts. Four have actually been sanctioned, but from various causes none of them has yet been opened. The idea of establishing Government farms in this Presidency originated in 1864, and a small farm was established in 1865 at Saidapet under the management of a committee. The success which attended the experiment induced the Government to take it under their direct management, and to extend its operation; hence the present Saidapet farms. These institutions have been concerned with too many tentative measures to be capable of showing a commercial success, but many important agricultural experiments have been made, and some have produced encouraging results, in indicating the general direction in which improvements can be effected in the agricultural practice of this Presidency. Attention has been given to subsoil drainage, improved tillage, the restoration of exhausted soils, economy, and the proper utilization of irrigation water; the fertilization of arable soils by the use of lime, saltpetre, oil-cake, poudrette and other manures available in Southern India, but now unused by the ryot; the introduction of new crops, suited to the climate of India and adapted for cultivation under an improving agricultural practice, such as maize, Sorghum saccharatum, Carolina paddy, Guinea grass and other grasses, New Orleans cotton and other superior varieties of cotton, tobacco of sorts, &c.; the production of live fences, in view to affording protection, shelter and fuel; the introduction of water-lifts, barn machines, carts, ploughs, cultivators, cattle-hoes, reaping knives, &c. of improved construction, and the improvement of similar kinds of machines and implements now in use in this country; improvement of the live-stock of the country by careful breeding and feeding, and by introducing and acclimatizing new breeds; with other matters.

Between the first opening of the Experimental Farm and the end of the year 1875 several apprentices joined the institution, an apprentice meaning here a student drawing from the institution a small stipend. These apprentices were either Eurasians or Hindus, the former generally the sons of old soldiers resident at Pallavaram or St. Thomas' Mount. In establishing this class, the intention was merely to afford an opportunity to a few young men to make themselves acquainted with the routine out-of-door duties of the farmer. In 1871, in order to provide the necessary agency for carrying on the District Farms, another apprentice class was established. This second class was better paid and was established in view to training Superintendents for the District Farms. The young men of both classes came to the farm ignorant of agriculture, and as the training was entirely out-of-door and mechanical, they made but little progress towards gaining a real knowledge of this subject. As it appeared to be established that youths

—Agricultural
education.

trained under such a system could not be usefully employed in the districts in spreading agricultural knowledge, or in conducting agricultural operations of any complexity, it was decided in 1876 to establish a School of Agriculture at Saidapet. The work of the institution has been going on now for three years, and one class of students has recently completed their full course of instruction. A chemical laboratory has been erected, lecture and class rooms, a Veterinary Hospital, and an Agricultural Museum, &c. are contemplated. The institution is attached to the Educational Department and placed under the direct management of the Superintendent of Government Farms, who is assisted in lecturing by officers of the Madras Medical College and others. The instruction extends over three years, and embraces a thorough study of Agriculture and of such portions of Chemistry, Geology, Zoology, Botany, and the Veterinary Art as bear on the theory and practice of Agriculture, Farm Book-keeping, Land Surveying, Mensuration and Drawing. The students, before admission, must have passed the Matriculation Examination or the General Test Examination, or the Special Entrance Examination of the Institution. Candidates must be above 16 and below 24 years of age. The course is entirely free. A considerable number of Stipendiaryships and a few Scholarships have also been established, and the regulations provide for the gratuitous admission of school teachers and others to certain special courses of lectures. Those who obtain no stipendiaryship or scholarship pay their own expenses, but no fee is demanded from them. Judging from the number of applicants and the qualifications of the present students there are grounds for believing that it will amply fulfil the object for which it has been established. Some of the present students intend to settle on the Nilgiris as farmers, others similarly on the plains in the ordinary course. Some hope to get employment as agricultural teachers under the Government or under Zemindars or in Native States. The estimated annual cost of the institution is Rupees 20,000, not including the salary of the Superintendent or his Assistants.

Under Native Governments and for a long time after the British took possession of the country, no expenditure appears to have been incurred on account of Cattle Shows. Public exhibitions however of cattle and useful productions of all kinds in agriculture, manufacture, minerals, and arts were held in several districts of the Presidency in 1855, 1856, 1857, and 1859, at an annual expense varying from Rupees 13,000 to Rupees 35,000. The last general agricultural exhibition was held in 1874, since when, owing to various circumstances, it has not been possible to hold any.

GOVERNMENT HORTICULTURE.

The Ootacamund Botanical Gardens were opened during the Governorship of the late Marquis of Tweeddale, and cover an area of 51.45 acres. The professed object of the gardens is—1st, The improvement of horticulture in this Presidency by the dissemination of information; 2nd, The introduction and acclimatization of vegetable productions of Europe and other parts of the world hitherto unknown in India; and 3rd, The distribution of good seeds and plants. In 1871 these gardens, which had hitherto formed a part of the charge of the Superintendent of the Chinchona Plantations, were placed under a separate officer, and their importance was further recognized by a more liberal allotment of funds.

The Kullhatty Garden is maintained as a branch of the Ootacamund Botanical Gardens. It is adapted for the ripening of vegetable and flower seeds as it enjoys a drier and a warmer climate than that at Ootacamund.

The Burliar Branch Garden was purchased by Government in 1871 for the sum of Rupees 2,000. The garden is in charge of the Superintendent of the Garden at Ootacamund, and is worked out of funds provided in the budget for the latter. It is situated at an elevation of 2,500 feet above sea-level, and the extent is 8 acres. The object of its acquisition was to extend the culture of the Ipecacuanha plant which was found not to flourish at Ootacamund. The locality was believed to be specially adapted for the growth of West India plants, as well as those from the Straits and the Eastern Archipelago. The experience of the past five years has proved that the garden is well adapted for the purpose contemplated. The lease of the privilege of collecting fruit from the trees amounts to Rupees 300 per annum. Liberian coffee has been experimentally introduced here, and the trees are growing well.

In the early part of 1874 the Government opened a pleasure ground at Coonoor. The plot is about 30 acres. The outlay to the 31st March 1879 has been Rupees 16,800-10-1, provided exclusively by Government. This garden, which is styled "Sim's Park," in memory of Mr. J. D. Sim, late of the Madras Civil Service, possesses a rich soil and abundance of water, and is interspersed with natural sholas. The whole now affords a very attractive appearance.

A donation of Rupees 250 per mensem is paid to the Agricultural Society at Madras and an annual contribution of Rupees 500 is made for prizes for agricultural and other products, such as cotton, tea, cereals, forage, gums, resins, dyes, shade and avenue trees, &c.; special payments are also occasionally made.

Medicinal
Garden at
Ootacamund.

A medicinal garden was opened at Ootacamund in 1877, agreeably to a suggestion made by the Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department. It is about 5 acres in extent, and is cultivated with medicinal plants for supply to the Medical Department. So far as it has gone the experiment has proved a success.

HORTICULTURE—CHINCHONA.

Government
chinchona
plantations.

The object of the Government Chinchona Plantations is the provision of an abundant and cheap supply of the febrifuge for the use of hospitals and troops in India, and the spread of Chinchona cultivation throughout the hill districts. In 1859 Her Majesty's Government engaged the services of Mr. Clement R. Markham for the special duty of introducing the Chinchonas into India. He started on an expedition to South America in the early part of 1860 and arrived in India at the end of the same year with the first instalment of Chinchona plants. These plants were in an unhealthy state when they arrived at Ootacamund. In July 1861 the experiment was entrusted to Mr. McIvor, and ever since the plantations have made satisfactory progress and proved a decided success. There are three plantations at Neddivuttum, the *Denison*, the *Kilgroston*, and the *Napier*; two at Pykara, the *Wood* and the *Hooker*; one at Ootacamund, the *Dodabatta*; and one at Mail-koondah, the *Stanley Estate*. The last-named was abandoned in 1871 with a view to ascertain whether the Chinchona could be left to nature. The experiment has proved a failure and the *Stanley Estate* is exterminated. Out of 65,000 trees estimated to have been planted, about 10,000 remain alive. The growth of these trees appears to have been checked by the rapid undergrowth of bramble and other scrub. The six working estates cover upwards of 850 acres, base measurement. The number of Chinchona plants permanently established on these plantations is 569,000 as per enumeration in 1878, of which the *Officinalis* and *Succirubra* number over a quarter of a million each. Operations of late years have been restricted in a great measure to conservancy, and the experimental cultivation of the rarer and more valuable varieties of Chinchona. The first yield of the plantations was in 1872, when the trees planted at the commencement of the enterprise were twelve years' old. The outturn was 7,294½ pounds of dry bark which realized Rupees 7,294-8-0. The prices varied from 2s. 3d. per pound to 2s. 10d., or an average price of 2s. 6½d., which must be considered satisfactory. A second consignment of 23,646 pounds of dry bark was made in the spring of 1873, which sold for Rupees 34,900. The average price realized was 3s. 2½d. per pound. The third consignment

went to England in 1875. The quantity despatched was 28,659 lb. and sold for Rupees 28,659; the average price per pound was 2s. 1d. The next consignment of 63,600 lb. was remitted last January and realized Rupees 1,05,974. Three further consignments of 88,708 lb., 132,951 lb. and 103,444 lb. were shipped to England in the years 1877, 1878, and 1879 respectively, the two former realizing Rupees 3,41,272 and Rupees 3,79,789. In 1877 "Renewed" crown bark fetched the high price of 15s. 8d. per pound. In addition to the above the plantations furnished the Quinologist with 362,050 lb. of green or 111,481½ lb. dry bark, valued at 95,500 rupees. The total receipts on the estates up to 31st March 1879 aggregate Rupees 987,658. The outlay to 31st March 1879 including the cost of convict labor and interest on capital is Rupees 15,07,444. In another two or three years the whole of the capital invested by Government, together with interest thereon, will have been recouped to Government, and there will remain an annual clear profit of about three lakhs of rupees.

When Mr. Markham visited Ootacamund in January 1876 he suggested the appointment of a Quinologist to investigate on the spot various questions connected with the elaboration of alkaloids, the harvesting of the bark, the most economical and efficacious mode of preparing the febrifuge, &c. The services of the same officer were also to be turned to profitable account in utilizing the medicinal plants of India generally. This was carried out, and the office continued in existence to the end of 1875, when it was abolished. The Quinologist's Department has cost the State Rupees 1,28,684 made up of the following items:—Salary Rupees 77,366, plant, materials, and building Rupees 33,193, and establishment Rupees 18,125. The returns from this department have been 922 lb. of "Amorphous Quinine," manufactured out of 362,050 lb. of chinchona green bark and valued at Rupees 59,930, or at the rate of 130 shillings a pound.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

The development of the mineral resources of this Presidency is at Government present in its infancy, and there is no special Government agency. operations. Inquiries and investigations have however been made on several occasions. The Government of India have expressed an opinion that when waste land is sold actually for cultivation no special reservation of a Government right to a share in its mineral wealth should be made, but that land known or strongly believed to contain mineral

went to England in 1875. The quantity despatched was 28,659 lb. and sold for Rupees 28,659; the average price per pound was 2s. 1d. The next consignment of 63,600 lb. was remitted last January and realized Rupees 1,05,974. Three further consignments of 88,708 lb., 132,951 lb. and 103,444 lb. were shipped to England in the years 1877, 1878, and 1879 respectively, the two former realizing Rupees 3,41,272 and Rupees 3,79,769. In 1877 "Renewed" crown bark fetched the high price of 15s. 8d. per pound. In addition to the above the plantations furnished the Quinologist with 362,050 lb. of green or 111,481½ lb. dry bark, valued at 95,500 rupees. The total receipts on the estates up to 31st March 1879 aggregate Rupees 987,658. The outlay to 31st March 1879 including the cost of convict labor and interest on capital is Rupees 15,07,444. In another two or three years the whole of the capital invested by Government, together with interest thereon, will have been recouped to Government, and there will remain an annual clear profit of about three lakhs of rupees.

When Mr. Markham visited Ootacamund in January 1876 he suggested the appointment of a Quinologist to investigate on the spot various questions connected with the elaboration of alkaloids, the harvesting of the bark, the most economical and efficacious mode of preparing the febrifuge, &c. The services of the same officer were also to be turned to profitable account in utilizing the medicinal plants of India generally. This was carried out, and the office continued in existence to the end of 1875, when it was abolished. The Quinologist's Department has cost the State Rupees 1,28,684 made up of the following items:—Salary Rupees 77,366, plant, materials, and building Rupees 33,193, and establishment Rupees 18,125. The returns from this department have been 922 lb. of "Amorphous Quinine," manufactured out of 362,050 lb. of chinchona green bark and valued at Rupees 59,930, or at the rate of 130 shillings a pound.