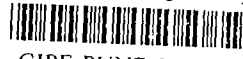


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Progress of the
Madras presidency
during the last

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MEMORANDUM
ON THE
PROGRESS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY
DURING THE LAST FORTY YEARS
OF BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

IN July 1890, Lord Connemara entrusted to me the task of examining whether the economic condition of the Madras Presidency has, on the whole, improved or deteriorated during the last 40 or 50 years of British administration and of writing a Memorandum on the subject. I was given to understand that the conclusions arrived at should be based not only on information officially on record but also on the results of independent inquiries. To ascertain whether any and what improvement has taken place in the condition of the masses of the population, it was, of course, necessary that an idea should be formed as to their condition in the past, and, for this purpose, I had to collect and read up a great mass of old reports. This took up a deal of time, and I was able to write only the preliminary portion of this Memorandum before the end of 1890. The departure of Lord Connemara to England and pressure of other official work led to the preparation of this Memorandum being laid aside for some time, and I was able to resume the work only in the latter half of 1891. Since then I have been more or less engaged on it, but as the work has had to be carried on in addition to my other official duties, it has not been possible to finish it earlier. The interval, however, has been utilized for collecting information on such matters as prices of commodities, wages of labour, &c., in order that it might be used for testing information obtained from official sources. The Government has permitted me to add another section to this Memorandum containing suggestions as to certain special measures to be adopted for the amelioration of the agricultural classes in connection with land settlements, agricultural banks, agricultural and industrial education, &c., and to revise the statistics given in the appendices to the Memorandum

with reference to the results of the last census. This will be done as soon as the results of the census become available, which will be very shortly, and the Memorandum will then be issued in a complete form.

2. I have endeavoured to make the statistics given in the memorandum as accurate as possible, but I can scarcely hope that I have fully succeeded. The information given as regards the state of things in former centuries, though derived from sources which are the best available, is admittedly imperfect, but this does not invalidate in any way the general conclusions arrived at.

3. The subject being many-sided, it is, of course, not possible in a first attempt to do more than break ground as regards the various questions dealt with. I have, therefore, printed as appendices to the Memorandum such official and other papers as throw light on the questions discussed, for purposes of easy reference in subsequent inquiries. This accounts also for the large quantity of statistical information and the large number of quotations given in the earlier portions of my Memorandum. Much of this information is new to the generation that is growing up, though not new to the generation that is passing away.

4. In conclusion, I wish to point out that the subject dealt with is the improvement in the *material* condition of the Presidency, and though there are other points of view from which the question of national well-being has to be considered, improvement in the *material* condition is the foundation on which improvement in other respects should be built up. I venture to think that if the question be impartially considered, there can be no two opinions as to the very great advance made by the country during the last 40 years.

MADRAS,
11th April 1892.

S. S.

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THE additional section containing suggestions as to measures to be adopted for the amelioration of the condition of the agricultural classes has now been completed, and the Memorandum is accordingly issued in a complete form.

I have made a few verbal changes in portions of the Memorandum already issued and added foot-notes in three or four places to make my meaning clearer on some points to prevent misapprehension. I have also given in the appendix extracts from a reply published by me in the *Madras Mail* to some criticisms which appeared in the *Calcutta Review* on the question of pressure of population and one or two important matters bearing on the condition of the agricultural population.

The statistics given in the appendices have been revised, as far as possible, with reference to the results of the last census. The Board of Revenue having furnished revised figures as regards the acreage of holdings for some of the earlier years, these have been adopted in the statement of acreage of holdings printed in the appendix. I have retained the life-table for the population of the Presidency taken from the census report of 1881, as the table prepared in connection with the census of 1891 relates to the population of the Madras city alone. The comparative table of persons classified under various occupations in 1871 and 1881 has also been retained unaltered, as owing to a radical change of classification adopted for the census of 1891, a comparison between the results of this census and those of the earlier censuses has not been found possible.

No pains have been spared to render the statistics as accurate as possible, but considering the great mass of figures

dealt with, it is not possible to say that all chances of error have been excluded. If any errors are brought to notice, I shall thankfully correct them and issue an erratum.

Though the work has outgrown the limits of a Memorandum, the original form has been retained, the object throughout being not so much to furnish cut and dry conclusions as to indicate the methods of investigation to be pursued and furnish materials as far as possible for forming a judgment as to the improvement which has taken place in the condition of the agricultural classes, and as to the further measures to be taken for their amelioration. On some of the subjects dealt with under the latter head, such as agricultural and technical education and widening the scope of local administration, my remarks are necessarily general, as my intention is to point out the necessity for increased attention in certain directions, and not to lay down the precise measures to be adopted, the determination of which must, of course, be based on a thorough investigation of the conditions of the localities to which they are to be applied. It is hardly necessary to add that the views I have expressed on these and other matters are my individual opinions submitted for the consideration of Government, and are not to be understood as reflecting the opinions of the Government itself.

I must in conclusion express my grateful acknowledgments to several gentlemen who have favoured me with the results of their observation and experience in connection with the inquiry forming the subject-matter of the Memorandum, and to Mr. Hill, the Superintendent of the Government Press, for the ready and willing assistance afforded by him in passing this work through the press. My thanks are also due to Mr. Cardozo, by whose kindness I have been enabled to prefix a map of the Presidency to the Memorandum.

PALMANÉE,
21st May 1893.

S. S.

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MADRAS PRESIDENCY




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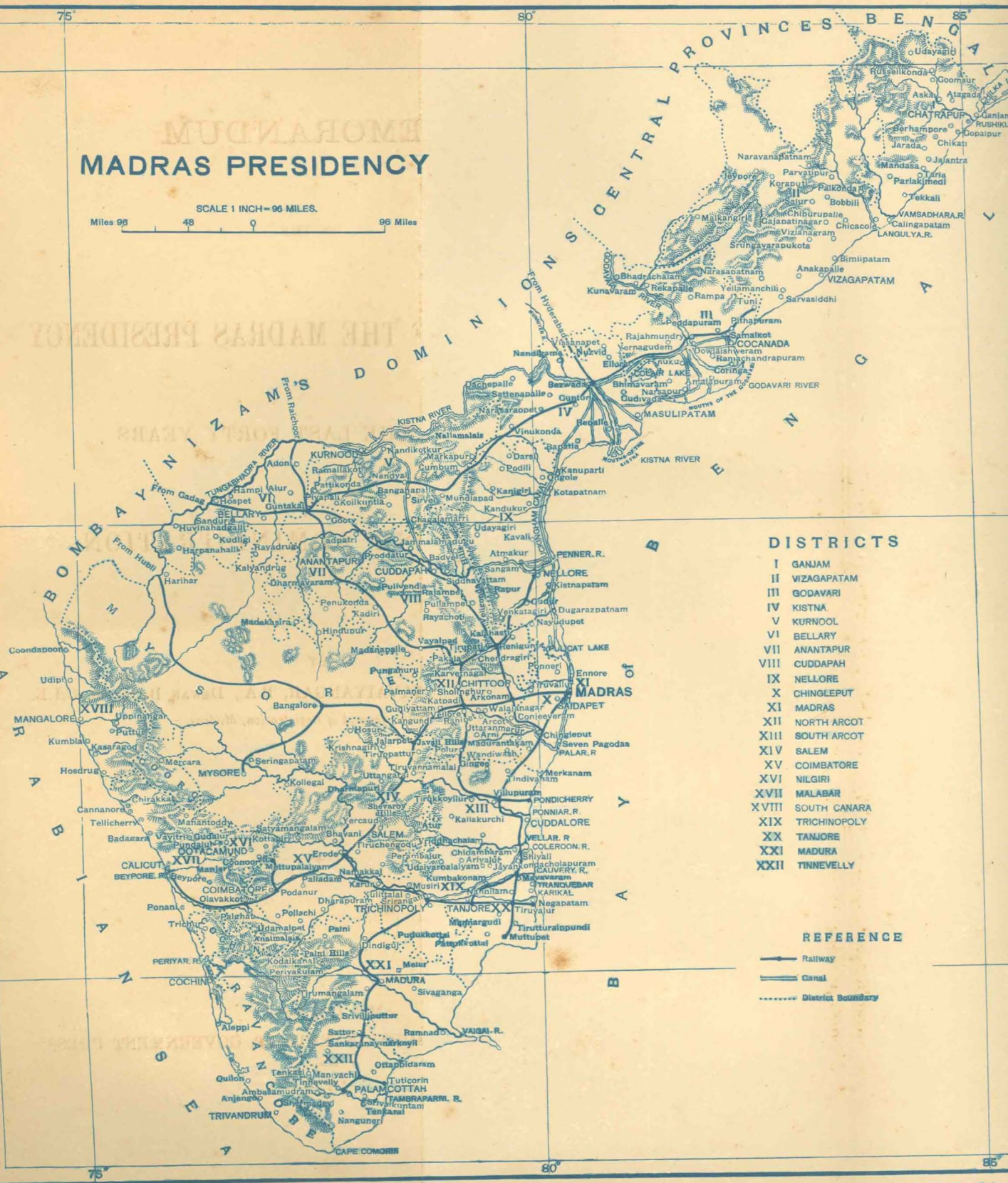
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DISTRICTS

- I GANJAM
- II VIZAGAPATAM
- III GODAVARI
- IV KISTNA
- V KURNOOL
- VI BELLARY
- VII ANANTAPUR
- VIII CUDDAPAH
- IX NELLORE
- X CHINGLEPUT
- XI MADRAS
- XII NORTH ARCOT
- XIII SOUTH ARCOT
- XIV SALEM
- XV COIMBATORE
- XVI NILGIRI
- XVII MALABAR
- XVIII SOUTH CANARA
- XIX TRICHINOPOLY
- XX TANJORE
- XXI MADURA
- XXII TINNEVELLY

REFERENCE

-  Railway
-  Canal
-  District Boundary



MEMORANDUM

ON THE

PROGRESS OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY

DURING THE LAST FORTY YEARS

OF BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.

BY

S. SRINIVASA RAGHAVAIYANGAR, B.A., DEWAR BHADUR, C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Registration, Madras.



MADRAS :

PRINTED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, GOVERNMENT PRESS,

1893.

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APPENDICES.

SECTION I.—THE STATE OF THE COUNTRY
AND THE CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE IN FORMER
CENTURIES.

(A.)—*Sketch of the Dynasties of Southern India extracted from "Lists of Antiquities, Madras," by Mr. R. Sewell, M.C.S*

In the earliest days of which we have any knowledge as to the sovereignties ruling the Continent of India, it appears that the great Maurya dynasty held the north, while the south was divided amongst the Pāndiyans of Madura, who governed the extreme south, the Cholas, who held the country to their north and east, and the Cheras (Keralas), who ruled over the tracts to their north and west. This was in the fourth century B.C. I say "it appears" because, although we are certain of the Mauryas (probably B.C. 325—188) and the Pāndiyans as existent in the time of Megasthenes (B.C. 302), we have only the fact of the Cholas and Keralas (or Cheras) being mentioned in the inscriptions of Asoka (B.C. 250) to verify their existence at that still earlier period. But tradition mentions no earlier kingdoms than those of Pāndiya, Chola and Chera in the south of India, and always speaks of them as contemporary. As we are certain of the Pāndiyān, therefore, in B.C. 302, we may safely place the Cholas and Cheras as far back as that date. The Keralas appear to have occupied the whole Western Coast under the gñāts, and it is probable that the Eastern Coast was also inhabited almost throughout its entire length; but there is no evidence of any kingdom having been in existence throughout the Dakhan, and it is quite possible that almost the whole of its entire area was waste (the *Dandakaranya*) or inhabited only by a few half-wild tribes under their own chiefs, such as those so often mentioned in the *Puranas*. It is necessary for students of history to remember that very large areas now cultivated and populated were absolutely waste—mere barren tracts of rock, forest, and wild plains—till comparatively modern times, and this seems especially to have been the case with the Dakhan country. It must not be forgotten, however, that the earliest Buddhist legends speak of the Kingdom of Kalingā as then in existence.

At some period subsequent to that of Asoka, the Pallavas appear to have grown into importance on the Eastern Coast, and they gradually increased in power till they constituted themselves a great kingdom, with extensive foreign trade, and proved a source of danger to the Cholas and their other neighbours. They appear to have held the entire Eastern Coast from Conjeeveram to the borders of Orissa. At present there is no evidence as to when they arose from obscurity into the dignity of a kingdom, but they seem to have been one of the principal southern powers when the first Chālukyas immigrated from Northern India about the fifth century A.D.

To the Mauryas in the north succeeded the Sanga dynasty (B.C. 188—76) and this was followed by the short Kanva dynasty (B.C. 76—31). The last of these kings being murdered, the Andhra or Andhra-briya dynasty succeeded, and ruled from B.C. 31 to A.D. 436. They were Buddhists, and it was by them that the magnificent marble *stupa* at Amarāvati was erected. About this period, *i.e.*, the fifth century A.D., began to grow into importance the Chālukyan sovereignty of the Western Dakhan, and it is in connection with the early Chālukyas that we hear of the Nalas (probably a Western Coast tribe), the Mauryas (possibly descendants of the earlier Mauryas) who inhabited part of the Konkana, the Sendrakas, Mātangas (apparently a barbarous tribe, perhaps aboriginal), the Kātachchuris, the Gangas of Maisūr, and the Ālupas or Āluvas, a tribe or dynasty apparently living to the south or south-west of the present Bombay Presidency. Early Chālukyan grants mention a number of other tribes, such as the Lātas (of *Latudesā* in the north of Bombay), Mālavās (of Mālwa), Gurjaras (of Guzerāt), &c.

The Chālukyas divided into two branches in the beginning of the seventh century, an eastern branch conquering the Pallava kings of the Vengī country, or tract between the Kṛishnā and Godāvāri rivers, and settling in that locality which they governed till A.D. 1023, the western remaining in their original home in the Western Dakhan.

The Chinese pilgrim Hiouen Tshang, who visited India, A.D. 629 to 645, gives a graphic account of the state of the country in his time.

The Kadambas now began to grow into importance, and they fought with and defeated the Pallavas of Kañchi and were perpetually at feud with the Chālukyas and their other neighbours. Their territory was in the south-west Dakhan and north Maisūr. About the same period we find the Rāshtrakūtas giving great trouble to the Chālukyas. It is as yet uncertain whether these Rāshtrakūtas were "an Aryan Kshatriya, *i.e.*, Rājput, race which immigrated into the Dakhan from the north like the Chālukyas or a Drāvidiyān family which was received into the Aryan community after the conquest of the Dakhan" (*Dr. Buhler*). The wars with the Rāshtrakūtas seem to have resulted in the complete downfall for two centuries (A.D. 757—58 to 973—74) of the Western Chālukyas and the consequent accretion of great power to the Rāshtrakūtas. The latter do not appear, however, to have attempted any conquests in the south. They were completely overthrown by the Western Chālukyas in A.D. 973—74, when the latter once more rose to great eminence. The overthrow of the Rāshtrakūtas, too, enabled the Ratta *Māhāmandalēsvaras* to assert themselves, and their dynasty lasted till about A.D. 1253. About the same period we find the Śilāhāras and Sindas rising into importance, and, like the Rattas, establishing independent dynasties which lasted for several centuries. The Śilāhāras were overthrown by the Yādavas of Devagiri about A.D. 1220, and the Sindas ceased to be heard of about A.D. 1182—83.

Little is known of the history of Southern India for two or three centuries immediately preceding the sudden rise of the Cholas to great power, which took place in the middle of the eleventh century. At the beginning of that century the Eastern Chālukyas held all the

country along the Eastern Coast from the borders of Orissa as far south as the borders of the Pallava country. The Pallava kingdom was a powerful one, possessing the coast from its junction with the Chalukyas down to the northern border of the Chola territories, *i.e.*, just south of Kañchi. The Cholas remained within their own borders and the Pāndiyans in theirs, while the Kongu kings, who governed (apparently) the old Chera country east of the Malayalam tracts along the coast, although they were still independent and powerful, were beginning to feel the effect of the attacks of the little kingdom of the Hoysāla Ballālas, then rising into power and destined to subvert many of the surrounding monarchies.

In A.D. 1023, by an intermarriage between the two dynasties, the Chola sovereign acquired possession of the whole of the Eastern Chalukyan dominions. This was followed, apparently at the beginning of the reign of his successor, Rājendra Kulottunga Chola (1064—1113), by the complete subversion of the Pallavas by the Cholas, and the annexation to the latter kingdom of their possessions. Rājendra also conquered the Pāndiyans, and established a short dynasty of "Chola-Pāndiyan" kings at Madura. A little later the Hoysāla Ballālas entirely overthrew the Kongu kings and seized their territories, so that the whole of the south of India passed at that time through a period of great political disturbance, which resulted in the Cholas obtaining almost universal sovereignty for a short period, checked, however, by the power of the Hoysāla Ballālas above the ghāts in Maisur.

This latter power was increased in importance by its conquest of the Kādambas and Kalachuris to its immediate north about the beginning of the thirteenth century, and by the downfall of the great Western Chalukyan dynasty about A.D. 1184, which was caused partly by its wars with the Kādambas and partly by the rise of the Ballālas. A little later the Cholas lost their northern possessions, which were seized by the Ganapatis of Orangal.

We now find ourselves in the thirteenth century, the three great southern powers being the Cholas and Pāndiyans—both seemingly losing strength—and the Hoysāla Ballālas, rapidly growing in power. What might have occurred it is needless to enquire, though imagination readily depicts the impetuous Ballālas sweeping down from the ghāts and succeeding in subverting the ancient dynasties of the plains; but a new power now appears on the scene, which was destined to acquire universal dominion in course of time—the power of the Musalmāns.

Delhi had been captured by the Ghazni Ghōrians in 1193, and a dynasty established there which lasted till A.D. 1288. The Khiljis succeeded (1288—1321), and Alau-d-din Khilji despatched the first Muhammadan expedition into the Dakhan in A.D. 1306. Four years later the Musalmān armies under Malik Kāfur swept like a torrent over the peninsula.

Devagiri and Orangal were both reduced to subjection, the capital of the Hoysāla Ballālas was taken and sacked, and the kingdoms both of the Cholas and Pāndiyans were overthrown. Anarchy followed over the whole south—Musalmān Governors, representatives of the old royal families, and local chiefs being apparently engaged for years in

violent internecine struggles for supremacy. The Ballālas disappeared from the scene, and the kingdoms of Devagiri and Orangal were subverted. A slight check was given to the spread of the Muhammadan arms when a confederation of Hindu chiefs, led by the gallant young Ganapati Rāja, withstood and defeated a large Muhammadan army; and the aspect of affairs was altered by the revolt of the Dakhāni Musalmāns against their sovereign in A.D. 1347, which resulted in the establishment of the Bāhmani kingdom of the Dakhan. But the whole of Southern India was convulsed by this sudden aggression of the Muhammadans, and all the old kingdoms fell to pieces.

This period, then, about the year A.D. 1310, is to be noted as the second great landmark in South Indian history, the first being about the period 1023—1070, when the Cholas became almost supreme over the south.

While the Bāhmani rebels were consolidating their kingdom in the Dakhan, another great power was being formed south of the Krishnā. This was the kingdom of Vijayanagar. Established on the ruins of the Hoysāla Ballālas and the other Hindu sovereignties, it speedily rose to a height of power such as no southern kingdom had yet aspired to, and it held the Muhammadans in check for two centuries. From 1336 till 1564 A.D. we have merely to consider, roughly speaking, two great powers—that of the Musalmāns north of the Krishnā and that of Vijayanagar to the south.

The Bāhmani kingdom fell to pieces at the close of the fifteenth century, being succeeded by five separate kingdoms founded by rival Musalmān leaders. Their jealousies aided the Vijayanagar sovereigns in their acquisition of power. In 1487 Narasimha of Vijayanagar completely subverted the Pandiyan country, Chola having fallen long before, and by the close of the fifteenth century the power of Vijayanagar was acknowledged as paramount through the entire peninsula. Small principalities existed, such as that of Maisūr, the Reddi chieftainship of Kondavidu south of the Krishnā (which lasted from 1328 till 1427), and the always independent principality of Travancore, but Vijayanagar was supreme. At the beginning of the sixteenth century Krishnadeva Rāya of Vijayanagar further extended the power of his house by the reduction of refractory chiefs far and wide, till his dynasty arose in his day to its greatest height of glory.

In 1564 (the third landmark) all this collapsed. The Muhammadan sovereigns of the Dakhan combined, and in one grand effort swept over Vijayanagar, sacked the capital, put to death the powerful chief who had ruled over the destinies of the empire, and for ever crushed out all semblance of independent Hindu power from the south of India. Even the very family that governed Vijayanagar divided, so that it becomes almost impossible to trace their history, and for a second time the whole of the peninsula was thrown into confusion.

Naturally the minor chiefs seized this opportunity for throwing off all fealty to their sovereign, and throughout the peninsula arose a large number of petty Poligars and small chieftains, whose quarrels and wars and struggles for supremacy kept the whole country in confusion for two and a half centuries. The only chiefs that attained to real power were the Madura Nāyakkas, formerly Viceroys of

Vijayanagar, who speedily became independent and reduced to subjection almost the whole of the old Pandiyan kingdom, their compatriots, the Nāyakkas of Tanjore, holding sway over *Cholaḍesa*. The Rājahs of Maisūr, too, became independent, and established a kingdom, though not a very powerful one.

Over all this distracted country the Muhammadans gradually pressed downwards, securing the dominion of the countries south of the Tungabadrā, and eastwards to the sea, and encroaching southwards till they had reached the southern confines of the Telugu country, by the middle of the seventeenth century, and by the beginning of the eighteenth were in power far south. The Mahrattas had established themselves in Tanjore in 1674 and remained there till the English supremacy. In 1736 the Musalmāns obtained possession of Madura.

The English, settled at Madras since 1639, now began to acquire more and more territory and power, and in the course of the century had conquered almost the whole of the south of India, the defeat of the Maisūr Musalmāns under Tipū Sultān in 1799 finally laying the peninsula at their feet.

(B.)—*Orissa under Hindu and British Administrations.*

Practically, the revenue-paying parts of Orissa under the Gangetic dynasty stretched from the Hugli to the Chilka, and from the sea to the Tributary States; a compact territorial entity of twenty-four thousand square miles. The province continues the same size to this day, having lost three thousand square miles on the north, towards the Hugli, and gained about an equal extent on the west, towards Central India. In the twelfth century, when the Gangetic Line obtained the kingdom, it yielded a revenue of £406,250³²⁶ a year. Besides the doubtful southern strip, they added 12,000 square miles of unproductive hill territory; and when in the sixteenth century they sank beneath the Musalmāns, the revenue remained about £435,000. An early Muhammadan Geographer of the sixteenth century gives the income of the parts of Orissa already subjugated by the Musalmān arms at £368,333³²⁷; and the official survey made by Akbar's Minister, *Circ*, 1580, gives the entire revenue of the province, including the tribute from the Hill States, at £435,319³²⁸. As the Muhammadans more firmly established their power, they gradually increased the taxation, and in the seventeenth century a detailed list of the Orissa fiscal

³²⁶ 1,500,000 Mārhas of gold. See note 309, p. 316. That is to say at the close of the Sivaite Dynasty. The area was only 11,000 square miles, but of the territory since added to it to make up the present province, about 12,000 square miles are Hill States paying a tribute of only about £6,000 a year. The few hundred square miles added on the north in Balasor are more productive, and the total revenue of the province may now be put down at £450,000

³²⁷ Sicca Rs. 3,400,000, or Company's Rs. 3,683,333. *Haft Ikhn*, a Persian MS, apud Professor Blochmann.

³²⁸ 160,733,237 dāms, which, at the official rates of conversion under Akbar, equal Sicca Rs. 4,013,330, or Company's Rs. 4,363,191. Prinsep's Tables, Thomas' Pathān Kings; As. Res. XV.

divisions shows a revenue of £537,495³²⁹. However the revenues might be deranged from year to year by tumult or rebellion, the nominal demand remained the same in the Imperial account books; and the Père Thieffenthaler, amid the Mahratta anarchy of the eighteenth century, was still informed that the province yielded £570,750³³⁰.

The revenue under the Gangetic line (1132—1532 A.D.), its last independent dynasty, may therefore be set down at £435,000 a year from the twenty-four thousand square miles of Orissa Proper. The southern strip had long ceased to yield any income to the Orissa kings. The present province, comprising an equal area, yields to the British Government, in round numbers, £450,000³³¹. But while the actual revenue remains about the same, its purchasing power has completely altered. Under the native dynasty, it sufficed to maintain a gorgeous court, a vast army, innumerable trains of priests, and to defray the magnificent public works of the Gangetic kings. Under the English it barely pays the cost of administering the province. The charges for collecting the revenue and protecting person and property amount to £339,696; the interest on one of the local public works, the Orissa canals, comes to £65,000 a year³³²; a single native regiment at Cuttaek costs £17,000; and a petty balance of £28,000 is all that remains over after paying the merely local charges of holding the Province. Orissa contributes scarcely anything to the general expenses of Government. It does not pay its share of interest on the public debt; it contributes nothing to the cost of defending the Empire; and hardly does more than support the charges of the local administration. Under the native dynasty, the same revenue sufficed to support an administration infinitely more minute, and, as regards its higher officials, infinitely higher paid. None of the English governing body in Orissa ever hopes to make a fortune; under the Hindu princes, Government employ was synonymous with assured opulence. Sixteen great ministers regulated the kingdom, with seventy-two deputies, and thirty-six separate departments of State. Under the English, the revenue of Orissa with difficulty maintains seven hundred sepoy; under the Hindu princes it supported, besides a peasant militia of 300,000 men, a regular army of 50,000 foot, 10,000 horse, and 2,500 elephants. About a vast militia being attached to the soil there can be no doubt; and if Hindu chroniclers have magnified the number of the regular troops, we know from the Musalmán annalists, that the Orissa king could at a moment's warning take the field with 18,000 horse and foot. But the public works of the Hindu dynasty attest the magnitude of their resources in a way that admits of no dispute. Thirty or forty-thousand pounds were not considered extravagant for an ordinary temple.

³²⁹ Sicca Rs 4,961,497, or Company's Rs. 5,374,955, under Sháh Jahán, 1627—1658, As. Res. XV. 213

³³⁰ *Selon Manouché*, As. Res. XV. 212. This sum may possibly have included outstanding arrears Mr Stirling, without stating any grounds, conjectures that it included also the revenue of the Northern Circars; but such a conjecture is opposed to the historical facts of the time, and to the recorded statistics about the Orissa revenue

³³¹ The area is 23,907 square miles, but it has lost the fertile tracts towards the Hugli and received in place of it an addition to its hill territory. In 1870 the total revenue was £464,861, but this included the extraordinary income-tax. £450,000 is a fair average in round numbers.

³³² 1½ millions sterling had already been spent on 31st March 1871.

The accumulations of one monarch³³³ are stated at £1,296,750³³⁴ and from this he set apart £406,250³³⁵ for the holy edifice of Jagannáth. A similar magnificence surrounded the private life of the Orissa kings. Their five royal residences (*Kataks*) still live in popular tradition; and although the story of the prince³³⁶ who died just as he had married his sixty-thousandth wife is doubtless a fable, yet it is a fable that could only be told of a great and luxurious court.

How came it that the same amount of revenue which made the Orissa kings so rich, now leaves the English Governors of the province so poor? I have already shown that the great influx of silver, which European trade poured into India, so decreased the value of that metal that it sank from $\frac{1}{10}$ th the value of gold in the twelfth century, to $\frac{1}{4}$ th or $\frac{1}{5}$ th six hundred years later. But even this decrease would not explain the affluence of the Hindu rulers of Orissa as compared with the poverty of the English. It is when we consider the value of silver as expressed, not in gold, but in food, that the explanation becomes clear. Nothing like a regular record of prices under the Gangetic dynasty (1132—1532) exists. But fortunately the maximum prices of food during the great famines, which in almost each generation decimated Orissa, have come down to us, with the proportion which those prices bore to the ordinary rates. In the famine at the beginning of the fourteenth century, unhusked paddy rose to sixty times its average rate, and sold from six shillings and eightpence to nine shillings per hundredweight³³⁷. In the next century, under King Kapilendra (1452—1479 A.D.), paddy rose to $62\frac{1}{2}$ times the ordinary price, and fetched from 6s. 11½d. to 9s. 11d. per hundredweight³³⁸. Stirling, one of our first Commissioners in Orissa, obtained an ancient paper showing the exact rates under the Gangetic dynasty. According to it, unhusked paddy sold from just under a penny to

³³³ Rájá Anang Bhim Deo.

³³⁴ 4,788,000 Máthas of gold.

³³⁵ 1,500,000 Máthas of gold. Purushottama Chandriká, As. Res XV.

³³⁶ Purushottama, in the Solar List of Kings, described on a previous page.

³³⁷ The following calculation, the first of the kind in Lower Bengal history, is submitted with diffidence to Indian statisticians. While I believe that the data here collected are absolutely correct, it will be seen that several elements of uncertainty exist. In the famine at the beginning of the fourteenth century, paddy rose to 120 *káhans* per *báaran*. The Orissa *báaran* will be found fully explained in my Stat. Acc. of Puri, App. 1, p. 16. The paddy *báaran* contains nominally about 9½, but practically 9 cwt. A *káhan* is 1,280 cowries, and 4 *káhans* or 5,120 cowries, were taken as the official rate of exchange per rupee when we first obtained Orissa (in 1803). Afterwards this rate was complained of, on the ground that a rupee cost 6 or 7 *káhans* instead of 4; and this formed one of the alleged causes of the Khurdha rebellion in 1817. (Mr. Commissioner Ewer's Report to Chief Secretary to Government, dated Cuttack, 13th May 1818, para 95, O.R.). At present the rate is 3,584 cowries to the rupee, the great difference being due to the fall in the value of silver which has rapidly gone on since we obtained Orissa; and so far as I can judge, the rate officially fixed in 1804 of 5,120 cowries per rupee was considerably under the actual rate of exchange. 120 *káhans* per *báaran* of 9 cwt. would be 6s. 8d. per cwt. at the rate of 4 *káhans* or 5,120 cowries per rupee, thus: 120 *káhans* = 30 rupees or 60 shillings; and if 60 shillings buy 9 cwt., the price of 1 cwt. will be 6s. 8d. On the other hand, if we take the lower or present rate of exchange at 3,584 cowries per rupee, 120 *káhans* per *báaran* will equal 9s. 6d. per cwt. If we take the exchange at the alleged old rate of 6 *káhans* or 7,680 cowries to the rupee, which I believe to be nearer the truth, the price would be reduced to 4s. 6d. per cwt. But in this and the following calculations I have taken the rates of exchange which would give the highest possible prices in the fourteenth century, so as to avoid the risk of overstating the rise in prices since then.

³³⁸ 125 *káhans* per *báaran* of 9 cwt., i.e., 6s. 11½d. at 4 *káhans* or 5,120 cowries per rupee; and 9s. 11d. at the lower rate of exchange of 3,584 cowries per rupee.

$1\frac{7}{8}$ of a penny per hundredweight³³⁹, husked rice at $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $3d.$ per hundredweight³⁴⁰, and cotton at from $2s. 1\frac{1}{4}d.$ to $3s. 0\frac{1}{4}d.$ per hundredweight³⁴¹.

From the above calculations we cannot take the price of paddy under the Gangetic line (1132—1532 A.D.) at above $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per hundredweight. It was probably less. Paddy now costs on the field in Orissa a shilling per hundredweight, or at least eight times its ancient price. An almost equal depreciation in the value of silver has gone on in other parts of India. Thus, in Upper Hindustan, under Alá-ud-din (1303—1315 A.D.), the officially fixed rate of barley was a little under sixpence per hundredweight³⁴², and of peas fourpence half-penny a hundredweight³⁴³. In the latter part of the century, under Féroz Sháh (1351—1388 A.D.), the price of barley remained exactly the same, viz., sixpence per hundredweight³⁴⁴. But no sooner did the tide of European trade set in, than the value of silver fell, and at the time of Akbar (1556—1605 A.D.) the price of barley rose to $9\frac{1}{4}d.$ per hundredweight³⁴⁵. The price of barley in the same localities is now, on an average, about three shillings and sixpence per hundredweight retail, or seven times what it was throughout the fourteenth century.

We may therefore fairly assume that, as estimated in the staple food of the country, the value of silver in Orissa has fallen to $\frac{1}{8}$ th of its purchasing power. Wages were regulated then, as now, by the price of rice, and in fact were mostly paid in grain. The Gangetic dynasty of Orissa (1132—1532 A.D.), with a revenue nominally the same as our own³⁴⁶, were therefore, as regards the home products of the country, and their ability to keep up armies and pompous retinues, eight times richer than we are. The reason clearly appears why a revenue which now barely defrays the charge of collection and the cost of protecting person and property, with one or two absolutely necessary public works, formerly supported a great standing army, a wealthy hierarchy of priests and ministers of State, and a magnificent royal court. As the native dynasty had practically eight times more revenue

³³⁹ Two káhans per bharan of 9 cwt., *s e*, just under a penny, at 6 káhans per rupee, $1\frac{1}{8}d.$ at 4 káhans, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ of a penny at 3,584 cowries per rupee.

³⁴⁰ Ten cowries per Cuttack seer of 105 tolas.

³⁴¹ One *pan* and 10 *gandas* per seer. If, as seems possible, the rate in ancient times was at six or seven instead of 4 káhans to the rupee, these prices would be a full third less, and the depreciation in the value of silver would be about one-twelfth instead of one-eighth of its former purchasing power.

³⁴² Four *jítals* per *man*. The *jítal* was $\frac{1}{8}$ of the silver Tanká of 175 grains, or say $\frac{1}{8}$ of the present rupee, or a farthing and a half. The *man* of that period contained 28 8 lb. avoirdupois. As barley cost 4 *jítals* or six farthings per 28 8 lb., the price was a little under six pence per cwt. For a full discussion of these weights, see Mr. Thomas' *Pathán Kings of Delhi*, p. 161, ed. 1871.

³⁴³ Three *jítals* per *man*

³⁴⁴ Four *jítals* per *man*

³⁴⁵ 8 *dáms* per *man*. The *dám* was officially reckoned at $\frac{1}{10}$ of a rupee, the *man* then contained 55 467 lb. avoirdupois.

³⁴⁶ The revenue under the Gangetic line may in round numbers be set down at £436,000, and under the English at £450,000 a year. With regard to the present price of paddy, the people consider eight annas a cheap rate for a Cuttack *man*, containing 107 lb. avoirdupois; or as nearly as may be, a shilling a hundredweight. This is the rate on the field, and as will be seen in my *Statistical Accounts* (Appendices I, II, and IV), the retail price varies in different localities. In Puri district I found that an ordinary rate in good seasons was 210 lb. for two shillings. In Balasor town the price has varied from 240 lb. per rupee in 1850, to 140 in 1870. These are the prices of the common sort of unhusked paddy, the staple food of the people.

to spend than we have, so they practically took eight times more from the people. That is to say, their revenue represented eight times the quantity of the staple food of the province which our own revenue represents.

The truth is, that a whole series of intermediate rights has grown up between the ruling power and the soil. I shall show in the next volume how the native kings of Orissa enjoyed the undivided ownership of the land. Instead of a long line of part-proprietors stretching from the Crown to the cultivator, as at present, and each with a separate degree of interest in the soil, the *plenum dominium* was firmly bound up and centred in the hands of the Prince. The growth of these intermediate rights forms the most conspicuous phenomenon in the history of Orissa under its foreign conquerors. For centuries, under the Musalmáns and Mahrattas, the unhappy province knew no Government but that of the sword; yet the very roughness of the public administration allowed private rights to spring up unperceived, and to harden into permanent charges upon the soil—charges which its native Princes would never have tolerated. Thus from long anarchy and misery a fair growth of rights has blossomed forth, and the magnificence, which the Hindu Princes of Orissa concentrated upon themselves, is now distributed in the form of moderate prosperity among a long-descending chain of proprietors, each with his own set of rights in the land.

* * * *

It is to such miscellaneous imposts as the stamp revenue and salt tax that the British Government of India has to look for the means of carrying on the administration. The native dynasties trusted almost entirely to the land revenue. They managed to raise an annual income variously stated at from £406,250 to £570,750, or say £450,000 a year, between the twelfth and the eighteenth centuries. This almost exactly corresponds, in figures, to the total revenue which, by a great machinery of miscellaneous imposts, we now collect from the province. In actual purchasing power, it amounted to seven times our present revenue, and supported the magnificence of a Hindu Court, with a standing army, an opulent hierarchy, and a costly civil list. Under British rule, the Orissa revenue barely suffices for the charges of the local administration.

Had we dealt with the land as the Native rulers did, and considered it the inalienable property of the State, the land-tax might possibly still have sufficed. But under our more liberal policy of developing private rights in the soil at the expense of the public burdens upon it, the land-tax has become wholly inadequate to the cost of Government. In 1829—30, the land revenue of Orissa amounted to £158,965. In 1836—37, the Government leased out the province for thirty years; and in 1867 the Legislature renewed that settlement for another period of thirty years. It now amounts to £168,286, and no further increase can be hoped for till the end of the century. Meanwhile, the bare cost of Local Government amounts to £422,000 a year; and before the end of the century it will in all probability exceed half a million. Before the expiry of the present leases, the land-tax will yield less than one-third of the merely local expenditure.

If, therefore, the province is to pay its way, Government will be under a constant necessity of raising additional revenue by means of the miscellaneous imposts which are so distasteful to an Indian people.

This difficulty was partly inevitable. No materials have come down showing the precise proportion of the produce of the soil which the ancient Orissa Dynasties took. Many conflicting traditions exist on the subject, and doubtless the proportion varied in different parts of the country. The rich delta of Orissa could afford to pay a larger share to the Prince than less productive arid tracts; and, as a matter of fact, the Rájáh of Parikud, who still maintains his fiscal independence, takes exactly three-fifths of the crop. He, however, like other Hindu Princes, dealt with the cultivators direct. We, on the other hand, have allowed a whole series of intermediate holders, each with his own set of rights, to grow up between the State and the actual husbandmen; and practically not one-tenth of the harvest reaches the public treasury. The following figures will, I think, establish this fact. The three Orissa districts contain 7,723 square miles, or 4,942,720 acres. At least one-half of this, or say two million and a half of acres, are under cultivation. The value of the ordinary crops varies from 10s. to £1 16s. Taking the low average of 15s., the total value of two million and a half of acres would amount to £1,875,000; and a land-tax of ten per cent. would yield £187,500. Now the actual land-tax from all sources amounts to £168,286. While, therefore, a Hindu Prince like the Rájáh of Parikud takes three-fifths as his share of the annual produce of the soil, the British Government obtains not one-tenth of it.

This difference is partly due to the liberality of our land settlement, partly to the growth of intermediate holders; but it is also in a large degree due to the fact that we take our rent in money and not in kind. The rent-roll of an Orissa estate, when offered for sale in the market, is now found, as a rule, to be double its Government land-tax. Of course, extreme instances occur on both sides, but native gentlemen and native officers have alike assured me that this is below rather than above the average. In settling with the landholders in 1837, the Company allowed gross reductions to about one-third of the rent for the charges and risks of collection³⁴⁷. The extension of cultivation, with the natural rise in rents, has doubled the landholder's profits during the past thirty-three years; so that, as above stated, the proprietor now generally realizes at least as much again as he pays to Government. The landholder, in his turn, collects from the cultivator as rent from one-half to one-quarter of the actual yield of the land, or say one-third. Government, therefore, as it only receives at most one-half of the landholder's collections, cannot get more than one-sixth of the net yield of the soil. In reality it receives much less. For it takes its share, not in grain, but in silver, which is constantly depreciating in value. This circumstance further decreases by nearly one-half the share which the State actually obtains, and reduces its one-sixth to one-tenth or one-twelfth of the produce of the land. I have shown, on what I believe to be irrefragable evidence, that the purchasing power

³⁴⁷ The theoretical allowance was ten per cent., but the various extra allowances raise it to between thirty and forty per cent. in Orissa—*vide* Vol. I, p. 53.

of silver in India has fallen during the last five hundred years to one-seventh of what it was in the thirteenth century. I propose, very briefly, to prove that this decline, at least in Orissa, is still going on, that it has proceeded at a rapid rate during the present century, and that at the present moment it continues unchecked.

The period of anarchy which preceded our accession in Orissa in 1803 has left few memorials behind it. But I have brought together, from the archives of the adjoining district of Ganjam, a series of papers which illustrate the state of prices a hundred years ago. My materials commence with the year 1778, and they show the average price of unhusked rice, except in years of famine, to have been about 8*d.* a hundredweight, and the price of husked rice 1*s.* 4½*d.* ³⁴⁸ In Orissa the cost was always about one-third less, and indeed Ganjam imported a large portion of its rice-supply from Puri and Cuttack. This would show the price of paddy in Orissa to have been under 6*d.* a hundredweight; and when we obtained the province in 1803, 6*d.* a hundredweight was considered rather a high price. A shilling per hundredweight is now reckoned a cheap rate for paddy bought on the field at harvest time. In 1771 a bullock sold for 10*s.* which would now cost at least 24*s.*, and a sheep from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* whose present price would be at least 4*s.* The whole evidence to be derived from the official records shows that the average price of staple commodities towards the end of the last century was less than one-half their present rates. The wages of laborers bore the same proportion, and palanquin-bearers cost 4*s.* a month who now receive 8*s.*

We have, however, another means of ascertaining the decline in the purchasing power of silver. From time immemorial Orissa, like some other parts of India, has used a local currency of *cowrie*. When the province passed into our hands in 1803, the public accounts were kept and the revenue was paid in these little shells. In granting liberal leases to the landholders, however, we stipulated that they should henceforth pay their land-tax in silver, and fixed the rate of exchange at 5,120 *cowries* to the rupee. For many years after our accession the proprietors bitterly complained that the rupee was worth much more than this rate, and that, in order to make up their revenue in silver, they had to pay the village banker from 6,400 to 7,680 *cowries* per rupee. This was alleged as one of the causes of the Khurdhá rebellion in 1817; and although the hardships may have been exaggerated, the common rate seems to have been from 6,000 to 7,000 *cowries* per rupee. But during the last seventy years the value of silver has steadily declined, and a rupee now only purchases 3,584 of these little

³⁴⁸ In 1778 the price of paddy in Ganjam varied from 7*d.* to 7½*d.* per cwt. .

.. 1779	7 <i>d.</i> to 7½ <i>d.</i> .
.. 1780	7½ <i>d.</i> to 8½ <i>d.</i> .
.. 1781	(a year of scarcity)	it rose to	8½ <i>d.</i> .
.. 1782	9½ <i>d.</i> .
.. 1783	from	9½ <i>d.</i> to 9¾ <i>d.</i> .
.. 1784	(a year of famine)	it sold at the almost nominal rate of	11 <i>d.</i> .		
.. 1785	it fell to	8 <i>d.</i> .
.. 1786	8½ <i>d.</i> .
.. 1787	8½ <i>d.</i> to 9¾ <i>d.</i> .

After that year followed a series of famines and disturbances, which completely disorganized prices, and for a time put a stop to importations. The years from 1789 to 1792 are still spoken of as the period of the first Ganjam famine under our rule.

shells³⁴⁹. In 1804 the official exchange was 5,120, and the practical rate of exchange from 6,460 to 7,680.

The purchasing power of silver in Orissa has, therefore, declined to one-half during the last seventy years, whether estimated in the local currency or in the staple food of the province. The depreciation has of late been accelerated by the vast amount of specie expended upon the irrigation enterprises, and by the large payments in silver which have been made to Orissa for rice and other products since the canals opened up the seaboard. These great works practically date from the year 1860, and during the twenty years between 1850 and 1870 prices have risen from one-third to one-half. Thus to take the town of Balasor, which exhibits the rise in its extreme degree. In 1850 the best unhusked paddy sold at 168 pounds per rupee; in 1870 at 84 pounds, or just one-half. Fine cleaned rice was 100 pounds per rupee in 1850; 80 pounds in 1860; and 40 pounds in 1870. Common rice has not risen quite so much, as the cultivation has in the meanwhile extended. It was reported at 120 pounds per rupee in 1850; 100 pounds in 1860; and 70 pounds in 1870. Wheat sold at 33 pounds per rupee in 1850; 29 in 1860; and 18 in 1870.

The rate of wages has risen in proportion. In Balasor, unskilled laborers earned a penny halfpenny a day in 1850; they now get from twopence halfpenny to threepence. Carpenters' wages were in 1850 threepence a day; they are now fivepence farthing. Smiths and bricklayers could be had at threepence three farthings in 1850; they now earn sixpence. If we take the two other large cities in Orissa, Cuttack and Puri, the same results appear. In Cuttack, day-laborers received twopence farthing in 1850; they now obtain threepence three farthings. Smiths got fourpence halfpenny in 1850; they now earn sixpence. Bricklayers' wages have risen more rapidly, or, from twopence farthing in 1850, to sixpence in 1870. In Puri, the money wages are officially returned at the following rates; unskilled laborers in Puri town, fourpence a day; in the rural parts twopence halfpenny. Their wages twelve years ago were twopence halfpenny in the town, and three halfpence in the country. In 1860, smiths and carpenters got threepence three farthings in the town, and twopence in the country; they now get sixpence a day in the town and threepence three farthings in the country. Bricklayers, who used to get fourpence halfpenny in the town twelve years ago, now get sevenpence halfpenny.

Within the last twenty years, therefore, the price of food in the large city of Balasor has almost doubled; and throughout the whole province, so far as statistics exist, it has risen by about one-third. The rates of wages have also increased by upwards of one-third during the same period. That these results are due, not to any altered degree of pressure of the population on the land, or in their demands on the food of the province, is clear from the following fact. While town wages, which are paid in money, have thus risen, agricultural wages, which are paid in kind, have remained absolutely the same. The field-laborer has always earned a lower wage than unskilled workmen in the towns. In 1850 he received from twelve to fifteen pounds of unhusked

³⁴⁹ The rate, of course, varies, but I am informed that 14 *gandas* or 56 *cowries* per pice has of late been the ruling exchange in the larger marts. This gives 3,584 to the rupee.

paddy per diem according to the locality ; and at the present day he receives exactly twelve to fifteen pounds according to the locality. *All wages that are paid in money have risen by more than one-third ; all wages that are paid in kind remain the same.*

These, it should be remembered, are the results of only twenty years. During this brief period, silver has lost more than a third of its purchasing power, whether expressed in wages, or in the staple food of the people. Indeed, one District officer reports to me that the price of food has doubled within twelve years. The public revenues have been depreciated to at least one-third of their former purchasing power, whether expressed in wages or in grain. I have already shown that the value of silver, as estimated in the popular or cowrie currency, has fallen thirty per cent. ⁵⁰ since 1804, even calculated at the rate of exchange which Government then arbitrarily fixed in its own favour. If computed according to the actual rate of exchange then current, it has decreased by one-half. Had our first administrators contented themselves with taking payment in silver at the current rate of the cowrie exchange, the Orissa land-tax would now have been double what it is at present. But had they resolved to collect it at a grain valuation, according to Akbar's wise policy, it would now be more than double ; for the prices of food have rather more than doubled since 1804. The system of paying the land-tax by a grain valuation appears to me to be the best means of giving stability to the Indian revenues. In Orissa, it would have enabled us to reduce the salt duty to the easy Madras rate ; it would have saved the necessity of an income-tax altogether ; and by shorter leases, it would now yield as large an income as the total which we extract by a variety of vexatious burdens.

The experience of the past few years shows that the fall in value of silver still continues. Every morning the Government of India wakes up poorer than when it went to bed the night before. A lakh of rupees in 1850 represented a great deal more in actual purchasing power than a lakh of rupees in 1860 ; and a lakh of rupees in 1860 represented a great deal more than it did in 1870. Apart, therefore, from the cost of increased efficiency in the administration, the English in India must inevitably go on increasing the miscellaneous public burdens so obnoxious to the people, as long as the land-tax is calculated in silver. The one remedy is a grain valuation, either struck annually or revised at intervals of about five years. It might be possible to suggest several sources of revenue, such as a duty on *Pān*, the aromatic leaf that the people chew instead of tobacco, which would be less unpopular than the income-tax. But miscellaneous imposts, however unobjectionable in themselves, are mere makeshifts and stop-gaps in a fiscal system like that of Bengal. The secret of making India pay is the due conservation of the land-tax ; and in order to conserve the land-tax, it must be estimated, not, as in Orissa, upon the so-called rent of the landholder, but upon the actual produce of the soil. Until this necessity is realized and acted upon, every few years will bring a fresh set of financial embarrassments. Under the present system, without adding a single Judge, or Magistrate, or officer of any sort to the Civil List ; without granting one of the administrative improvements

⁵⁰ I e., $\frac{3,584}{6,120} = 70$ per cent, showing a decrease of 30 per cent.

which India's rapid advance in civilisation suggests; without undertaking any of the rural public works which a tropical country so urgently requires; without allowing a rupee for bringing our materiel of war up to the modern European standard; the Indian Government will find at the end of each ten years the revenue which sufficed at the beginning of the decade altogether insufficient at the close of it.—*Hunter's "Orissa."*

(C.)—*Extract from the Article on "India" in Hunter's "Gazetteer of India."*

Revenues of the Moghul Emperors at thirteen various periods, from 1593 to 1761,¹ from a smaller area and population than those of British India.

Moghul Emperors	Authority.	Land revenue.	Revenue from all sources.
1 Akbar, A D. 1593	Nizám-ud-dín, not for all India	£ ..	£ 32,000,000
Do. ,, ,,	Allowance for Provincial Troops ² (<i>bums</i>)	..	² 10,000,000
			Net 42,000,000
2. Akbar, A D 1594..	Abdul Fazl, MSS., not for all India	Net 16,574,388	..
3. Do ,, ,, ..	Official documents, not for all India	.. 16,582,440	..
4. Do. ,, 1605..	Indian authorities quoted by DeLáet.	.. 17,450,000	..
5. Jehángún, A D. 1609—11.	Captain Hawkins	..	Net 50,000,000
6. Do ,, 1628	Abdul Hamíd Láhori ..	Net 17,500,000	..
7 Sháh Jehán, A D. 1648-49	Do. 22,000,000	..
8. Aurangzeb, A.D. 1655.	Official documents .. {	Gross 26,743,970 Net 24,056,114	}
9 Do A D 1670 (?)	Later official documents {	Gross 35,641,431 Net 34,505,890	}
10. Do A D 1695.	Gemelh Caren	Net 80,000,000
11. Do A D. 1697.	Manucci Catrou ..	Net 38,719,400	.. 77,438,800
12 Do. A D 1707	Ramusis 30,179,692	..
13. Sháh Alum A.D. 1761	Official statement presented to Ahmad Sháh Abdali on his entering Delhi	.. 34,506,640	..

¹ The above table is reproduced from Mr. Edward Thomas' *Revenue Resources of the Moghul Empire*, published in 1871, and has been revised by him from materials which he has collected since that date.—I insert the words *net* and *gross* by his direction.

² This is the lowest estimate at which the *Bums* or Landwehr, in contradiction to the Royal Army, can be reckoned.—Mr. Thomas' *Revenue Resources of the Moghul Empire*, page 12.

The following statement shows the revenues from the provinces of the Delhi Empire under Emperor Sháh Jehán, 1648-49:—

In India.

Provinces.	Land-tax.
	Rs.
1. Delhi	25,000,000
2. Agra	22,500,000
3. Lahore	22,500,000
4. Ajmere	15,000,000
5. Daulatabad	13,750,000
6. Berar	13,750,000
7. Ahmedabad	13,250,000
8. Bengal	12,500,000
9. Allahabad	10,000,000
10. Behar	10,000,000
11. Malwa	10,000,000
12. Khandeish	10,000,000
13. Ondh	7,500,000
14. Tehngana	7,500,000
15. Multan	7,000,000
16. Orissa	5,000,000
17. Tatta (Sind)	2,000,000
18. Beglanah	500,000
	<hr/>
Total for all India	207,750,000
19. Kashmere	3,750,000
20. Kabul	4,000,000
21. Balkh	2,000,000
22. Kandahar	1,500,000
23. Badakhshan	1,000,000
	<hr/>
Total	220,000,000

Aurangzeb.—All Northern India except Assam and the greater part of Southern India paid revenue to Aurangzeb. His Indian Provinces covered nearly as large an area as the British Empire at the present day, although their dependence on the central Government was less direct. From these provinces his net land revenue demand is returned at 30 to 38 millions sterling, a sum which represented at least three times the purchasing power of the land revenue of British India at the present day. But it is doubtful whether the enormous demand of 38 millions was fully realized during any series of years, even at the height of Aurangzeb's power, before he left Delhi for his long southern wars. It was estimated at only 30 millions in the last year of his reign, after his absence of a quarter of a century in the Deccan. Fiscal oppressions led to evasions and revolts, while some or other of the provinces were always in open war against the Emperor. The table given below exhibits the Moghul empire in its final development in 1697, just before it began to break up. The standard return of Aurangzeb's land revenue was *net* £34,505,890; and this remained the nominal demand in the accounts of the central exchequer during the next half century, notwithstanding that the Empire had fallen to pieces. When the Afghan invader, Ahmad Sháh Duráni, entered Delhi in 1761, the Treasury officers presented him with a statement showing the land revenue of the Empire at £34,506,640. The highest land revenue of Aurangzeb, after his annexations in Southern India and before his final reverses, was 38½ millions sterling; of which close on 38 millions were from Indian Provinces. The total revenue of Aurangzeb was

estimated in 1695 at 80 millions and in 1697 at 77½ millions sterling. The gross taxation levied on British India, deducting the opium excise, which is paid by the Chinese consumer, averaged 35½ millions sterling during the ten years ending 1879.

Land revenue of Aurangzeb in 1697 (according to Manucci)		Land revenue of Aurangzeb in 1707 (according to Ramusia)	
	RS.		RS.
1 Delhi	12,550,000	1. Delhi	30,548,753
2 Agra	22,203,550	2. Agra	28,669,003
3 Lahore	23,305,000	3. Ajmere	16,308,634
4. Ajmere	21,900,002	4. Allahabad	11,413,681
5 Guzerat	23,395,000	5. Punjab	20,653,302
6. Malwa	9,906,250	6. Oudh	8,058,195
7. Behar	12,150,000	7. Multan	5,361,073
8. Multan	5,025,000	8. Guzerat	15,198,228
9. Tatta (Sind)	6,002,000	9. Behar	10,179,025
10. Bakar	2,400,000	10. Sind	2,295,420
11. Orissa	5,707,500	11. Doulatabad	25,873,627
12. Allahabad	7,738,000	12. Malwa	10,097,541
13. Deccan	16,204,750	13. Berar	15,350,625
14. Berar	15,867,500	14. Khandeish	11,215,750
15. Khandeish	11,105,000	15. Bedur	9,324,359
16. Baglanah	6,865,000	16. Bengal	13,115,906
17. Nande (Nandair)	7,200,000	17. Orissa	3,570,500
18. Bengal	40,000,000	18. Hyderabad	27,834,000
19. Ujain	20,000,000	19. Bijapur	26,957,625
20. Rajmahal	10,050,000		
21. Bijapur	50,000,000		
22. Golconda	50,000,000		
	Total ..		Total ..
	379,534,552		292,023,147
23. Kashmere	3,505,000	20. Kashmere	5,747,734
24. Kabul	3,207,250	21. Kabul	4,025,983
	Grand Total ..		Grand Total
	386,246,802		301,796,964
	or		or
	£38,624,680		£30,179,686

The above lists have been taken from Edward Thomas' Resources of the Moghul Empire, pages 46 and 50.

(D).—*Extract from the Journal of the Archæological Survey of India, Vol. IV.*

Translation of a copper-plate grant, dated the 23rd year of Rajendra Chola (probably A.D. 1046).

Hail to Kōvirājakēsaripanma, the *Chakravartī* Śri Kulōttungaśōjadēva, swaying his sceptre over all the directions of the west sea of Vikklar and Singalar (Ceylon). He, in the twentieth year of his reign, while graciously seated on *Kāliṅgarāyan*, the temple throne placed in the *Tirumañjanaśālai*¹ inside the temple of the town of Ahavamallakulakarpuram otherwise called Ayirattali, was requested by the king of

¹ The apartment in the temple where water is stored for bathing the idol.

Kiḍāra to exempt the villages belonging to the temple of Rājendraśōḷa-perumballi and Rājarājaperumballi which were built in Sōlakulavallipattāna, situated in Paṭṭanakkūrṟu division of the fertile country of Keyamānikkavalanāḍu from the taxes of *antarāya*,² *vīraśīshai*,³ *panmai-paṇḍavetti*⁴ and *kundāl*⁵ and to permit the exchange of the possession of lands from the old inhabitants to the temple. Thus at the request of the king of Kiḍāra which was reported by his messengers, we graciously issue this order to our agent, Rājarājamūvendavelān, to execute copper plate document to this effect. The lands and produce belonging to the temple of Rājarājaperumballi, which was built in Sōlakulavallipattāna in the division of Paṭṭanakkūrṟu of the fertile country of Keyamānikkavalanāḍu; ninety-seven and three-eighths and a-hundred-and-sixtieth⁶ (*velis*⁷) of land in Ānaimaṅgalam of Paṭṭanakkūrṟu are now fixed in the possession of the temple in exchange of the owners with the calculated⁸ paddy produce of 8,943 *kalam*s, 2 *tūnis*, 1 *kurunū*, and 3 *nāḷis*, and the settled⁹ paddy produce of 4,506 *kalam*s; 12½ (*velis*) of lands given to Brāhmins of Ānaimaṅgalam with the calculated produce of 400 *kalam*s and the settled paddy produce of 560 *kalam*s, 27¼ and ⅜ and ⅞ (*velis*) of land in Muñjikkuḍi of this country with the calculated paddy produce of 2,779 *kalam*s, 1 *tūni* and 4 *nāḷis* and the settled paddy produce of 1,806 *kalam*s; 106 ⅞ (*velis*) of land in Āmūr of Tiruvārūr division, with the calculated paddy produce of 10,606 *kalam*s, 2 *tūnis* and 2 *kurunis* and settled produce of 5,850 *kalam*s, 70¾ and ⅞ (*velis*) of land in Nānalūr, otherwise called Vaḍakudi of the country of Alanāḍu, with the calculated paddy produce of 6,514 *kalam*s, 5 *kurunis* and 1 *nāli* and the settled paddy produce of 2,840 *kalam*s. 10 ⅞ and ⅞ and ⅞ and ⅞ and ⅞ (*velis*) of land of Kilachan-dirappādi of this country with the calculated paddy produce of 1,012 *kalam*s and 5 *kurunis*; 60¾ (*velis*) of land given as donations to the Brahmins of Palaiyūr of this country with the calculated paddy produce of 1,000 *kalam*s and the settled paddy produce of 1,500 *kalam*s. 87¼ (*velis*) of land in Puttakkudi of Kurumbūr division of the fertile country of Jayānkondaśōḷavalanāḍu with the calculated paddy produce of 8,720 *kalam*s and the settled paddy produce of 6,107 *kalam*s; 3⅞ (*velis*) of land in Udayamārtṭāṇḍanallūr of Idaikkalīnāḍu of the fertile country of Vijayarājendraśōḷavalanāḍu with the calculated paddy produce of 12 *kalam*s and 5 *kurunis* and the settled paddy produce of 135 *kalam*s, 3 *kurunis* and the settled dry land paddy produce of 78 *kalam*s and 5 *kurunis* as favorably fixed during the settlement of taxes. Half of this the above stated lands and produce shall be in the enjoyment of this temple and the other half shall cover the several expenses of *antarāya*,

¹ It may possibly be interpreted import duties.

² Fees given to the temple at marriages—a practice which in all Hindu societies continues to this day.

³ Fee for the use of old paths.

⁴ *Kundāl* is an axe for cutting wood (generally fuel wood for use in the houses). It is not plain whether by this the ancient Chōla kings also levied a tax on the use of arms, or whether it is a tax on cutting firewood in forests.

⁵ The Tamil way of expressing fractions. The mode of expression would be lost if it were translated 97 ⅞ instead of 97 ⅞ and ⅞.

⁶ The measurement of land is not given. The grant being in the Tanjore district, according to the way of calculation there we may roughly translate *velis*.

⁷ and ⁸ Calculated and settled paddy produce. Even now the lands have these two systems, the former calculated produce having been fixed in past times.

panmaipandavetti, and other taxes incurred in money or paddy by this village. Thus for the exemption from taxation and for the exchange of the lands from the former owners to the temple we issue this order.

Thus $31\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ (velis) of land within the four boundaries with all the taxes of *antarāya* and *panmaipandavetti* and others exempted we give to the temple.

Note.—The terms “calculated produce” and “settled produce” in the above inscription probably refer to the gross produce and the portion of it representing Government share. If this surmise be correct, the Government share, it will be seen, exceeded a half in some cases. In one or two cases there must be a mistake in the transcription of the inscription as the “settled produce” given exceeds the “calculated produce.” It is assumed that the figures representing the superficial contents of lands denote “velis”—a veli being equivalent to $6\frac{1}{2}$ acres. “Veli” is an ancient measure and there is no tradition current in the Tanjore district showing that either the extent of a veli has been altered or that any other land measure was at any time in use.

The following extract from a grant, dated A.D. 1084 by Kulothunga-chola shows the taxes and seigniorial dues levied in the times of the Cholas in the Tanjore district.

* * * *

may you enjoy the several trees and the enjoyment and cultivation of mango trees; may you have the privilege of opening up big oil-presses; may you enjoy the upper irrigation and straining in the channels that, passing through this village, irrigate other villages; may you enjoy the upper irrigation and straining in the channels that, passing from other villages, come to this village. The cocoa and palmyra trees cultivated in this village shall not be climbed up by the *Ṇavar*¹⁰; may you enjoy the privilege of the planting of (pillars for) *toranas*¹¹ as befitting your position. For the enjoyment of the above rights; may you enjoy also the *nādāṭchi*, the *ṅrāṭchi*, one *nāli* (of rice collection) for every *vatti* (platter), one *nāli* (of rice collection) on (the days sacred to) the manes, the tax on weddings, the (tax on) washermen's stones, the tax on potters, the rent on water, the leaves collection,¹² a cloth for (every) loom, the brokerage, the taxes on goldsmiths, the tax on neatherds, the tax on sheep, the good cow, the good bull, the watch of the country, the guana, tortoise, frog and others of the kind in the common embankments inside (the village); may you enjoy the right of sowing *Kār*, the supreme management, the *ṣudi* petitions and other rights even without the exception of the lands used for raising good crops. For the enjoyment of the above rights, may you enjoy also the right of irrigating by obstructing the water by embankments, of straining and allowing the flow of the current. May

¹⁰ Literally the polluted, by which term is meant the *nādārs* or *sānārs*, commonly called the toddy-tree climbers.

¹¹ The gate of a house in Sanskrit, but it also means festoons strung of green leaves, generally mango leaves.

¹² For manure or to be used as dishes for eating in taking meals

you enjoy the right of the upper irrigation and straining in the channels irrigating this land; in these channels none (else) shall enjoy the right of cutting up branch channels, of obstructing the water, of shutting up the lower sluices, of raising up the water by obstructions, and of lifting up water by baskets. Let none obstruct the common running water or use that water for purposes of irrigation by obstructing its course. Let none raise round-about storeyed houses and mansions or sink unwallled wells or enjoy the proceeds of the cocoonut trees yielding (cocoonuts), *damanakam* ¹³, *marū* ¹⁴, *iruvēli* ¹⁵, *senpaka*, the blue lily, mango, jack, areca-nut, palmyra.

(E).—*The following abstract shows the revenue in paddy which a number of villages in the Chola and other countries assigned to the temple at Tanjore by the Chola King Rajaraja deva in the 29th year of his reign (end of the tenth century) had to pay to the Tanjore temple as recorded in the inscriptions on the walls of the temple.*

Names of villages	Extent of tax-paying lands.	Revenue payable in paddy.
	VELIS.	KALAMS.
1. Palaiyur (Inganadu)	125½	12,630
2. Arapper do.	107½	10,745
3. Kirandevankudi in Inganadu	41	4,070
4. — do.	21½	2,183
5. — do.	115	11,526
6. Tannirkunram do.	34	3,378
7. Kirvadugakkudi do.	26½	2,600
8. — do.	6½	674
9. Usikkannangudi do.	5½	518
10. Vadavirayanpallam do.	23½	2,393
11. Arakkankudi (Tirunaraiyurnadu)	6½	656
12. Pidaraseri do.	5½	535
13. Nerukupai (Tiramanadu)	37	3,722
14. Maruttuvakkudi (Inambarnadu)	29½	2,967
15. Turuttevankudi (Tiravalinadu)	29½	2,900
16. Anpanur (Kilpalaru)	75½	7,850
17. Ingaiyur (Kilpalaru)	42½	4,278
18. Panamangalam (Kilpalaru)	40½	4,072
19. Sattanpadi do.	18½	1,833
20. — do.	4½	469
21. Mandottam do.	14½	1,456
22. Iraiyanseri do.	11½	1,169
23. Venkonkudi do.	48	4,784
24. Magankudi do.	23	2,315
25. Siru Semburai do.	6	612
26. Turaiyur do.	149½	14,888
27. Karimangalam do.	11	1,083

Note.—The denomination in which the extent of lands mentioned in the inscriptions is given, has not been specifically stated, but it is assumed to be "Velis" (1 veli = 6½ acres) the local land measure in use in the Tanjore district from time immemorial. The "kalam" grain measure referred to is equivalent to 12 adavallen merkals. An adavallen is a somewhat smaller merkall than that now in use. The old merkall was reported in the beginning of the century to contain 192 tolas of rice. The present merkall contains 340 tolas.

¹³ and ¹⁴ Fragrant shrubs.

¹⁵ *Iruvēli* is a shrub, the roots of which are very fragrant.

SECTION II.—THE CONDITION OF THE PRESIDENCY
AT THE END OF THE 18TH CENTURY WHEN MOST
OF THE PROVINCES OF SOUTHERN INDIA WERE
ACQUIRED BY THE BRITISH.

(A.)—*Extracts from official reports showing the condition of the several districts at the time they came under British administration.*

Northern Circars—Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Godávári (acquired from the Nizam in 1766), Kistna (acquired from the Nizam in 1759 and 1768), Palnad (acquired from the Nabob of Carnatic in 1801).—The zemindari lands are situated in the hill country of the western frontier, and in the plains between the hills and the sea. The hill zemindars, secure in the woody and unwholesome heights which they inhabited, and encouraged by the hope of an eventual asylum in the dominions of the Nizam or of the Rajah of Berar, had often furnished examples of successful depredation and unpunished revolt. They were surrounded by military tenants, whose lands were held on stipulations of personal service, and whose attachment to their chiefs was increased by the bond of family connection. These zemindars consisted of three classes: First, the *Velmas* of Tellinga origin, who were driven from the Carnatic in the year 1652 by the Muhammadan arms, and who established themselves on the borders of the Kistna. Second, the *Rachewars*, of the race of ancient sovereigns of Orissa, who were also compelled by the Muhammadans to relinquish the plains of the Circars, and retired to the highland woods that formed their western frontier. Their possessions are principally situated to the north of the Godávári. Third, the *Wooriars* being petty chieftains of the military tribe, who, after the overthrow of the empire of Orissa by the Muhammadans, were enabled, from their local situation, to acquire an independent jurisdiction. Their possessions are chiefly situated in the highlands in the northern division of Chicacole.

The zemindars in the plains could boast of no higher extraction than being descended from the officers and revenue agents of the sovereigns of Orissa, who were employed by the Musalmán conquerors in the management of their new acquisitions, and who appear to have first acquired lands and influence, after the conquest of Aurangzeb, and during the distracted administration of his children.

The military force of the zemindars, like that maintained by the Poligars in the modern possessions under the Madras Government, consisted of three descriptions. First, the *Common* peons, who were paid in money and whose constant attendance was expected. Secondly, the *Mocassa* peons, who were paid by grants of land, subject to a quit-rent only. Thirdly, the *Mannoverly* peons, who consisted of military tenants of a higher order, and who were bound to bring their adherents

with them to the field. At the time the Circars came into the hands of the Company, the zemindars were, for the most part, in a very irregular state of subjection to Nizam Ally. During the weakness of his Government and that of his predecessors, they had embraced every opportunity to extend their power, and to assume a degree of independence incompatible with any other character than that of tributary chiefs. In the pursuit of these views, they were assisted by the successive wars and contentions for empire, which followed the death of Aurangzeb in 1707. Amidst these convulsions arose a dispute for the succession to the soubahship of the Deccan, in which Nizam-ul-Mulk, by maintaining himself in opposition to the orders of the Moghul, excited the zemindars to disregard an authority, which then possessed not the means of enforcing their obedience. During the period of Nizam-ul-Mulk's usurpation, little progress was made in reducing these countries to a state of order; and a second contest for the Government of the Deccan arising upon his death in 1749, the confusion of the internal Government was continued and increased. Such was the state of the Northern Circars when obtained by the French. At the commencement of their administration, they made the Zemindars feel the weight of their power; but being called upon to march their troops into different parts of the country, for the purpose of supporting Salabut Jung, before their authority was established, they were soon driven to the necessity of temporizing with those they had attempted to subdue, and disorders ensued, which prevailed from the time the French were expelled the Circars. They reverted to the Government of the Nizam, under whom they continued to the period when they were transferred to the English East India Company. In that interval, the whole system of internal management had become disorganized. Not only the forms, but even the remembrance of civil authority, seemed to be wholly lost

By the custom of the Hindoo Government, the cultivators were entitled to one-half of the paddy produced (that is, grain in the husk) depending upon the periodical rains. Of the crops from the dry grain lands, watered by artificial means, the share of the cultivator was about two-thirds. These were the proportions which generally obtained; but particular castes were allowed a larger share, as well as strangers, that is, those ryots who were not fixed residents in the villages. Before the harvest commenced the quantity of the crop was ascertained in the presence of the inhabitants and village servants, by the survey of persons unconnected with the village, who, from habit, were particularly skilful and expert in judging of the amount of the produce, and who, in the adjustment of this business, were materially aided by a reference to the produce of former years, as recorded by the accountants of the villages. The cultivators were at liberty, if they thought it necessary, to make another survey by people of their own; and if any material difference appeared in the two estimates, a third account was taken, under the orders of the village officers. The quantity which belonged to the Government being thus ascertained, it was received in kind or in money. Before the division took place, certain deductions were made from the gross produce, which the Committee will hereafter explain.

Of the plantation or garden culture, which was of greater value than the other descriptions of produce, no larger portion was demanded from the ryots than one-fourth to one-eighth of the entire yearly crop, according to the additional expense, trouble and time required in bringing such articles to maturity, and the distance and hazard of carrying them to market. The rule with respect to these superior articles, as well as small grains, was to assess them with a fixed money-rent, not liable to fluctuation, as the produce might be more or less.

Such were the rights of the ryots according to the ancient usage of the country. In consequence, however, of the changes introduced by the Muhammadan conquest, and the many abuses, which later times had established, the share really enjoyed by the ryots was often reduced to a sixth, and but seldom exceeded a fifth; for instead of the former usage, the expedient of an impost originally founded on a measurement of the arable land, and of additional assessments in proportion to that impost, was generally adopted, and the amount of such additional assessments had no bounds, but those which limited the supposed ability of the husbandman. In those parts of the country where the practice of receiving rents in kind, or by a monied valuation of the actual produce, still obtained, the cultivators were reduced to an equally unfavorable situation by the arbitrary demands and contributions to which they were subjected beyond the stipulated rent. The effects of this unjust system were considerably augmented by the custom which had become common with the zemindars, and to which your Committee have already alluded, of sub-renting their lands to farmers, whom they armed with unrestricted powers of collection, and who were thus enabled to disregard, whenever it suited their purpose, the engagements they entered into with the ryots, besides practising every species of oppression, which an unfeeling motive of self-interest could suggest. If they agreed with the cultivators at the commencement of the year for a rent in money, and the season proved an abundant one, they then insisted on receiving their dues in kind. When they did take their rents in specie, they hardly ever failed to collect a part of them before the harvest time had arrived and the crops were cut, which reduced the ryots to the necessity of borrowing from money-lenders at a heavy interest of 3, 4 and 5 per cent. per month, the sums requisite to make good the anticipated payments that were demanded of them. If from calamity or other cause the ryots were the least remiss in the discharge of their rents, the officers of the renters were instantly quartered upon them, and these officers they were obliged to maintain until they might be recalled on the demand being satisfied. It was also a frequent practice with the renters to remove the inhabitants from fertile lands, in order to bestow them on their friends and favourites; and to oblige the ryots to assist them, when they happened to be farmers, in the tilling of their lands, and to furnish them gratuitously with laborers, bullocks, carts and straw

In addition to the assessment on the lands, or the shares of their produce received from the inhabitants, they were subject to the duties levied on the inland trade, which were collected by the renters under the zemindars. These duties, which went by the name of Sayer, as they extended to grain, to cattle, to salt and all the other necessaries of life passing through the country, and were collected by corrupt, partial,

and extortionate agents, produced the worst effects on the state of society, by not only checking the progress of industry, oppressing the manufacturer, and causing him to debase his manufacture, but also by clogging the beneficial operations of commerce in general, and abridging the comforts of the people at large. This latter description of imposts was originally considered as a branch of revenue too much exposed to abuses to be entrusted to persons not liable to restraint and punishment. It was, therefore, retained under the immediate management of the Government. The first rates were easy, and the custom-houses few; but in the general relaxation of authority prevailing in the Circars, this mode of raising revenue for the support of Government was scandalously abused. In the course of a little time, new duties were introduced under the pretence of charitable and religious donations, as fees to the chokedars or account-keepers, guards and other officers at the stations; as protection money to a zemindar, or as a present to those who farmed the duties. Not only had the duties been from time to time raised in their amount, and multiplied in their number, at the discretion of the zemindars and the renters under them, but they were at length levied at almost every stage, and on every successive transfer of property. Uniformity in the principles of collection was completely wanting; a different mode of taxation prevailing in every district, in respect of all the varieties of goods and other articles subject to impost. This consuming system of oppression had, in some instances, been aggravated by the Company's Government, which, when possessed of a few factories, with a small extent of territory around them, adopted the measure of placing chokies or custom stations in the vicinity of each, for the purpose of ascertaining the state of trade within their own limits, as well as to afford them a source of revenue. Under the head of Sayer revenue was also included a variety of taxes indefinite in their amount, and vexatious in their nature, called *moturpha*; they consisted of imposts on houses, on the implements of agriculture, on looms, on merchants, on artificers, and other professions and castes.—(*Extract from the Fifth Report of the Parliamentary Committee for East India affairs, 1813.*)

Nellore District (acquired from the Nabob of Carnatic in 1801).—The district of Nellore did not suffer much in comparison with the rest of the Carnatic in the wars which took place in the latter half of the 18th century; and being exempt from the presence of armies, was saved from the devastation and drain on the population inseparable therefrom. Its proximity to the seat of Government, however, exposed it in a peculiar degree to the abuse and mis-government which characterised the Nabob's durbar. The mass of the people were cultivators who were ground down by the renters and left nothing but their ploughs and cattle. There was no monied class. The head inhabitants who had been sub-renters had amassed some wealth, which they hoarded. Persons who lived by trade were few. . . . Roads, properly so called, there were none and the lines of traffic were infested by robbers and dacoits. The trade of the district was unimportant and the only outlet for it was by the sea. The chief commodities were grain and tobacco and some cloth, while cattle were exported in some quantity principally to Hyderabad. The trade in cloth was the most considerable at one time. There were a number of Moghul merchants who bought for the market in Bassora and the Persian Gulf, but the English

obtained access to those markets about 1800; and the Indian merchandise being undersold, the trade declined. The grain traffic was not great. The demand was chiefly in the southern districts and the only means of transport by sea, on native craft; and the winds prevailing at the harvest season being contrary, the transport was precarious and the trade small. The enormous expense of land carriage was prohibitive. Carts were not obtainable. All goods were conveyed on bullocks (the cost of transporting 1 puttī of grain was 1 star pagoda and 5 fanams for every 8 miles in 1805. This is about one-third of the average price of that quantity ruling throughout the district). These difficulties, combined with oppressive customs and other taxation and the insecurity of the roads, completely paralysed trade. The confusion and uncertainty of the revenue system; the oppression of the renters, themselves the victims of the rapacity of the Nabobs and compelled to recoup themselves by exactions from their people; the fraud and venality which had infected all ranks; the poverty of the cultivators who were nine-tenths of the community; their ignorance and apathetic indifference to their own improvement; the stagnation of trade and manufacture consequent on restrictive taxation and general insecurity; the depredations of Poligars and Kavalgars, the supposed guardians of the public security; the total want of a system of judicature; all these combined to produce a state of things wretched in the extreme, and from which it would be vain to hope for sudden or rapid improvement.—(*The Nellore District Manual.*)

Ceded Districts—Bellary and Cuddapah (acquired from the Nizam in 1800).—The state of the districts in 1800, when they were ceded by the Nizam, has been thus described: Probably no part of Southern India was in a more unsettled state or less acquainted either by experience or by tradition with the blessings of settled Government, the collection of the revenue being entirely entrusted to zemindars. Poligars and potails each of these became the leader of a little army and carried on destructive feuds with the villages immediately contiguous to him. Bands of robbers wandered through the country, plundering and murdering such travellers as refused to submit to their exactions, while the Government, conscious of its weakness, scarcely attempted to interfere. It is computed that in the year 1800, when the Ceded districts were transferred to the Company's rule, there were scattered through them, exclusive of the Nizam's troops, 30,000 armed peons; the whole of them, under the command of 80 Poligars, subsisted by rapine and committed everywhere the greatest excesses.

Kurnool (acquired from the Nabob of Kurnool, 1838).—It is impossible to draw out any history of the revenue management of the country during the time of the Nabobs. There were no laws between the governing and the governed, the taxer and the taxed, except the ruler's own will. The little that we can learn of the internal economy of the country, before the immediate rule of the British, shows us that the manner of imposition of the revenue was most arbitrary and the collection most iniquitous. The whole known history, with the honorable exception of Manauwar Khan's rule, is but a series of acts of oppression and violence on the part of the Nabob, and passive resistance or flight on the part of the people. Mr. Blane, the Commissioner, on the assumption of the country, constantly mentions these facts and shows

that the population was about one-half in proportion to that of the surrounding districts. There are, however, now few records of those times extant. The story of their destruction is amusing. The British soldiers who were employed in installing Manauwar Khan on the throne took a fancy to the cloths in which the records were wrapt and pilfered them, throwing the records into inextricable confusion. When Manauwar Khan was fairly seated on the throne, he tried to re-arrange them; but finding the trouble too great, he employed all his elephants and camels for some days to throw them into the river. That flowing tide carried down in its bosom the evidence of many a deed of oppression and many a by-gone story of woe! This act of Manauwar Khan the Mild has effectually thrown the cloak of oblivion over the doings of his ancestors. In this oblivion we perforce must leave them.

It will be, however, as well to record a few of the acts of the last Nabob, to show the state of the country when it was first assumed. The revenue administration was in the greatest disorder and was carried on without any system whatever. No public accounts were kept except by the village officers, and the amount of remittances was carried straight into the Nabob's zenana, that being his only treasury. The amount to be paid by each village was changed according to the caprice of the Nabob, and he would increase his demand without any ostensible reason. When his demands passed all bounds, the people would fly. Then the Nabob would allure them back with promises, and give them a cowle to re-assure them, but as soon as the crops were ready to be out, he would seize the produce, breaking through his word without scruple. In Nandyál, where there is some valuable cultivation under a fine tank, he played the people this trick for two or three years, until at last they threw up the land, leaving the pariah servants of the village to carry on the cultivation as best they could for the Nabob. In another village, Nannur, he added Rs. 5,000 to the demand, because a horse of that value died there. The inhabitants fled and left the Nabob to continue the cultivation with his own servants and bullocks.—(*Mr. Morris' Report on the settlement of the Kurnool district.*)

Chingleput (acquired in 1765 and 1801).—The Jaghire was twice invaded by Hyder Ali; in 1768, and in the war of 1780, when he entered it with fire and sword. On the termination of the latter war, in 1784, hardly any other signs were left in many parts of the country of its having been inhabited by human beings, than the bones of the bodies that had been massacred, or the naked walls of the houses, choultries, and temples, which had been burnt. To the havoc of war succeeded the affliction of famine; and the emigrations arising from these successive calamities nearly depopulated the district.

The system of management in the Jaghire, while it was rented by the Nabob, was of the same oppressive and unjust character which marked the administration of affairs in his own territory, the Carnatic. It exhibited throughout a scene of boundless exaction and rapacity on the part of the Government and its officers; of evasion on that of the inhabitants; or of collusion between them and the public servants; while the revenue diminished every year with the cultivation. The husbandman was entitled to a certain standard share of the crop, but a considerable proportion of it was extorted from him under the varied devices of *usual assessment, fixed assessment and additional assessment,*

durbar khirch, and by private contributions levied by the revenue officers for their own use.—(*Extract from the Fifth Report of the Parliamentary Committee for the East India affairs, 1813.*)

Trichinopoly (acquired in 1792).—Under the Nabob's Government, the revenue had been collected in the irrigated taluks by a division of the produce with the ryots. As a general rule, the crops were equally divided between the Government and the cultivators, after a deduction of 5 per cent. of the gross produce had been made for reaping expenses. This was the ordinary rate of division (*váram*), but in lands irrigated from tanks and also in those which, from their position, were liable to have the crops damaged by inundations, the ryots were allowed to take 55 to 58 per cent. of the gross produce. In newly formed wet lands the cultivator's share (*kudivaram*) was 60 per cent. and in those irrigated by picottahs and other mechanical contrivances, it varied from 65 to 68 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. The allowances (*sutantrams*) paid to the village artificers, karnams, watchers, cultivating slaves (*Pallars*), and others varied from 23 to 28 per cent. of the gross produce, and were paid by the inhabitants alone out of their share.

In the dry portions of the country, the revenues were collected in some villages according to the sorts of grains cultivated, while in others the assessment varied according to the nature of the soil. The demands were, however, made in a most arbitrary manner, and were invariably increased if the outturn of the crops happened to be better than usual. The collections in these villages were made in money, and not in kind, as in the wet villages.

The sale of grain was a strict monopoly, the price being fixed by the manager. All importation was forbidden, and it was an offence, punishable by exorbitant fines, even to lend a neighbour such small quantities of grain as he might require for his immediate support. The grain was taken from the cultivators at the rate of 7 and 8 fanams¹ per kalam², and sold back to them from Government granaries kept up in different parts of the district at 9 and 10 fanams per kalam.

In some remarks that he makes on the system of government prevailing in Trichinopoly before the English got possession of the country, Mr. Wallace remarks that, under the system then in force, the people never knew when the demands on them would cease. The so-called fixed assessments seemed to have been imposed merely with the view of inducing the ryots to cultivate, in the hope that nothing beyond the settled amount in money or grain would be exacted from them. In this hope they were, however, invariably disappointed, and he asserts that, if in any one year the revenues were actually collected according to the fixed rates, this was done merely with the view of inducing the ryots, by this apparent moderation, to increase the extent of their cultivation in the succeeding year, and thus give the managers or their sub-renters an opportunity of doubling their exactions.—(*Trichinopoly District Manual.*)

Tinnevely (acquired in 1d92 and 1801).—Colonel Fullerton in 1783 wrote :—"The last, but not the least, considerable of your southern

¹ There were 30 fanams to the pagoda, so that one fanam equalled 1 anna 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ pies of our present currency.

² The kalam contained 39 measures of 100 cubic inches.

territories is Tinnevelly. It is a hundred and fifteen miles in length and seventy miles in breadth. A ridge of inaccessible mountains divides it on the north from the wild valleys of Watrap and Outumpollam, belonging to Tippoo Sultan. It stretches to the confines of Madura and Khamnad on the north-east and east, reaches to the sea upon the south, and borders on the west with the Rajahship of Travancore, both terminating near Cape Comorin. Nature has been bountiful to this province. Its surface is generally flat, from the sea-coast till it approaches the mountains on its northern boundary. The rivers by which it is intersected ensure luxuriant crops of rice, and the driest parts yield cotton in abundance. The productions of the neighbouring island of Ceylon would flourish here, and thus render us the rivals of the Dutch in the cinnamon trade; but the peculiar tenure under which the country has been held, the convulsions it has endured from the first intrusions of the Mussalmans in the course of this century, and the depravity of its rulers, have counteracted the benefits of nature. Even when a native Rajah governed Tinnevelly, the flat and open country only was reduced. This was let for specific sums to great renters, who were invested with despotic powers and harassed the peaceful subjects, while various leaders who possessed considerable territory maintained armed forces and withheld their stipulated tribute on the first appearance of disturbance. These chiefs, as well as their subjects, are called Poligars; they amount at present to 32, capable of bringing 30,000 brave, though undisciplined, troops into the field. They have also fortified towns and strongholds in the mountains, whither they retire in cases of emergency. Besides the territory that these Poligars possess under the range of hills that form the northern boundary of Tinnevelly, many of them hold ample tracts in the flat and cultivated country. Adverse to industry, they suffer their own possessions to remain waste, while they invade each other and plunder their industrious neighbours. Such is the dread of these ravagers, that every district in the province has been forced to purchase their forbearance by enormous contributions."

Of the renters employed to collect the revenue, Colonel Fullerton gives the following account:—

"It was not possible for the English Government entirely to repress the misconduct of inferior instruments who are eager to perpetuate oppression and to enforce unusual measures by unprecedented means. The situation of the country rendered it necessary to continue the practice of renting extensive districts to the highest bidder; although every precaution was adopted to prevent the abuse of power, still the collections could not be enforced unless an unrestrained authority were vested in the renter. His object, too, frequently is to ransack and embezzle that he may go off at last enriched with the spoils of his province. The fact is, that in every part of India where the renters are established, not only the ryot and the husbandman, but the manufacturer, the artificer, and every other Indian inhabitant, is wholly at the mercy of those ministers of public exaction.

"The established practice throughout this part of the peninsula has for ages been to allow the farmer one-half of the produce of his crop for the maintenance of his family and the recultivation of the land, while the other half is appropriated to the sircar. In the richest soils,

under the cowl of Hyder, producing three annual crops, it is hardly known that less than 40 per cent. of the crop produced has been allotted to the husbandman. Yet renters on the coast have not scrupled to imprison reputable farmers, and to inflict on them extreme severities of punishment, for refusing to accept of sixteen in the hundred, as the proportion out of which they were to maintain a family, to furnish stock and implements of husbandry, cattle, seed and all expenses incident to the cultivation of their lands. But should the unfortunate ryot be forced to submit to such conditions, he has still a long list of cruel impositions to endure. He must labour week after week at the repair of water-courses, tanks, and embankments of rivers. His cattle, sheep and every other portion of his property are at the disposal of the renter and his life might pay the forfeit of refusal. Should he presume to reap his harvest when ripe, without a mandate from the renter, whose peons, canakapillays and retainers attend on the occasion, nothing short of bodily torture and a confiscation of the little that is left him could expiate the offence. Would he sell any part of his scanty portion, he cannot be permitted while the sircar had any to dispose of; would he convey anything to a distant market, he is stopped at every village by the collectors of sunkum or Gabella (transit duties), who exact a duty for every article exported, imported, or disposed of. So unsupported is this evil, that between Negapatam and Palghautcherry, not more than 300 miles, there are about 30 places of collection, or in other words, a tax is levied every ten miles upon the produce of the country; thus manufacture and commerce are exposed to disasters hardly less severe than those which have occasioned the decline of cultivation.

“But these form only a small proportion of the powers with which the renter is invested. He may sink or raise the exchange of specie at his own discretion; he may prevent the sale of grain, or sell it at the most exorbitant rates; thus, at any time he may, and frequently does, occasion general famine. Besides maintaining a useless rabble, whom he employs under the appellation of peons, at the public expense, he may require any military force he finds necessary for the business of oppression, and few inferior officers would have weight enough to justify their refusal of such aid. Should any one, however, dispute those powers, should the military officers refuse to prostitute military service to the distress of wretched individuals, or should the Civil Superintendent (the ‘Superintendent of Assigned Revenues’, the Collector of that time), remonstrate against such abuse, nothing could be more pleasing to the renter; he derives from thence innumerable arguments for non-performance of engagements, and for a long list of defalcations. But there are still some other not less extraordinary constituents in the complex endowments of a renter. He unites, in his own person, all the branches of judicial or civil authority, and if he happens to be a Brahmin, he may also be termed the representative of ecclesiastical jurisdiction. I will not enlarge on the consequences of thus huddling into the person of one wretched mercenary of those powers that ought to constitute the dignity and lustre of supreme executive authority.”—(*History of Tinnevely by Bishop Caldwell.*)

Salem (acquired in 1792 from Tippu Sultan).—That the generality of the peasants who inhabit the Bauramahl are extremely indigent is a

truth of which daily experience convinces us. The system of oppression, which obtained in the last Government, and the frequency of destructive wars, have entailed upon them a state of poverty from which nothing but the operation of time, under the fostering influence of moderate taxation, mild laws and the impartial distribution of justice, can relieve them. Far removed from the seat of Government and seldom obtaining substantial redress, even though their complaints should reach the throne, patient of injury because hopeless of relief, and rarely possessing the means by which the venal award might be procured, they were subjected to the unrestrained hand of oppression, which, insatiable in its grasp, preyed indiscriminately on their property, palsied the very nerve of industry, and implanted in their minds a distrust of the intentions of their rulers, which better treatment and more attention to their circumstances have scarcely been able to eradicate. The undistinguishing ravages of war, ever fatal to the industrious husbandman, brought with them an accumulation of distress. Exposed from their central situation to the incursions of contending armies and the depredations of unprincipled Poligars, equally mistrusting the power that invaded and the friends who ought to protect them from violence, they had no safety but in flight, no security but what was afforded by inaccessible mountains, from the tops of which they beheld the destruction of their former habitations.—(*Mr. Graham, Assistant Collector, Salem District—1797.*)

* * *

Malabar (acquired in 1792 from Tippu Sultan).—“Malabar,” says Mr. Brown, Commercial Resident, “when Hyder invaded it, was divided into a number of petty Rajahships, the government of which being perfectly feudal, neither laws nor a system of revenue were known amongst its inhabitants. Owing to the quarrels between the different rajahs and the turbulent spirit of the Nair chiefs, who were frequently in arms against each other, the state of the country was little favorable to the introduction of order or good government. Malabar, however, was then a country very rich in money. For ages the inhabitants have been accumulating the precious metals that had been given them for the produce of their gardens. Hyder’s only object, in the countries that he conquered, was to acquire money, and, provided he got plenty of that, he was very indifferent as to the means which his officers took to obtain it. Immediately after the conquest of Malabar, vast sums were extorted from its inhabitants by the military officers and by the Canarese Brahmins placed over the revenues. Of these extortions Hyder received a share; and no want of a system of revenue was felt until these sources began to fail. When he found the assets from Malabar fall short of its charges, he listened to proposals from the rajahs to become tributaries. An estimate of the revenue was made by the abovementioned Brahmins, who, as many of them were to remain with the rajahs as spies on their actions, took care that the estimate should be so formed as to leave a large sum to be divided between them and the rajahs. By this new order of things, these latter were vested with despotic authority over the other inhabitants, instead of the very limited prerogatives that they had enjoyed by the feudal system, under which they could neither exact revenue from the lands of their vassals, nor exercise any direct

authority in their districts. Thus the ancient constitution of government (which, although defective in many points, was favorable to agriculture from the lands being unburthened with revenue) was in a great measure destroyed, without any other being substituted in its room. The rajah was no longer, what he had been, the head of a feudal aristocracy with limited authority, but the all-powerful deputy of a despotic prince, whose military force was always at his command, to curb or chastise any of the chieftans who were inclined to dispute or disobey his mandates. The condition of the inhabitants under the rajahs thus reinstated in their governments was worse than it had been under the Canarese Brahmins, for the rajahs were better informed of the substance of individuals and knew the methods of getting at it. In short, the precarious tenures by which the rajahs held their station, joined to the uncontrolled authority with which they were vested, rendered them to the utmost degree rapacious; and not even a pretence was set up for exacting money from all such as were known to have any. There were no laws; money insured immunity to criminals; and innocent blood was often shed by the rajahs' own hands under the pretence of justice. In the space of a few years many of them amassed treasure to an amount unknown to their ancestors; and had it not been for the dread that they entertained of Hyder's calling them to an account of their ill-gotten wealth, their situation under them was better than that which they held before the invasion. The country, however, was daily declining in produce and population, insomuch so that, at the accession of Tippoo, I have reason to conclude, from my own observations, and from the inquiries which I then made, that they were reduced to one-half of what they had been at the time of Hyder's conquest. But still greater calamities were reserved for the unfortunate inhabitants of this country in the reign of the Sultan. During the government of his father, the Hindus continued unmolested in the exercise of their religion, the customs and observances of which, in many very essential points, supply the place of laws. To them it was owing that some degree of order had been preserved in society during the changes that had taken place. Tippoo, on the contrary, early undertook to render Islamism the sole religion of Malabar. In this cruel and impolitic undertaking he was warmly seconded by the Moplahs, men possessed of a strong zeal and of a large share of that spirit of violence and depredation which appears to have invariably been an ingredient in the character of the professors of their religion in every part of the world where it has spread. All the confidence of Sultan was bestowed on Moplahs, and in every place they became the officers and instruments of government. The Hindus were everywhere persecuted and plundered of their riches, of their women, and of their children. All such as could flee to other countries did so; those who could not escape took refuge in the forests, from whence they waged a constant predatory war against their oppressors. To trace the progress of these evils would carry me too far. I mention them only for the purpose of showing how the ancient government of this country was at last completely destroyed, and anarchy was introduced. The Moplahs never had any laws nor any authority except in the small district of Cannanore, even over their own sect, but were entirely subject to the Hindu chiefs, in whose dominions they resided. Tippoo's code was never known beyond the limits of Calicut. During this period of total anarchy, the number of Moplahs

was greatly increased, multitudes of Hindus were circumcised by force, and many of the lower orders were converted. By these means, at the breaking out of the war conducted by Lord Cornwallis, the Hindu population was reduced to a very inconsiderable number. The descendants of the rajahs were then invited to join the Company's forces; and, when Tippoo's army had been expelled from Malabar, many Nairs returned from their exile in Travancore; but their number was trifling compared with what it had been at the commencement of the Sultan's reign.

"From this short sketch it is evident that this province, at the time it was ceded, had really no form of government, and required a new system to be framed for its use. The feudal system was broken; and no other kind of administration was known to the rajahs who laid claim to their respective districts than that which they had exercised or witnessed under Hyder, and which was a compound of corruption and extortion. To these men, however, the most unfit that could have been selected, was the whole authority of government over the natives entrusted. Two evils of great magnitude were the consequence of this measure; the extortions and corruptions of the preceding administrations were continued, while the ancient feudal institutions of military service were revived, and all the Nairs thereby attached to the different chieftains, and these again to the rajahs. Nothing could exceed the despotic rapaciousness of these men to oppose which there was no barrier; for it is well known that none of the inhabitants dare complain against a rajah, whatever injuries they may have sustained, assassination being a certain follower of complaint. It is not surprising that under such rulers agriculture did not flourish, and that the fields now cultivated (which in some districts bear but a small proportion to those that are waste) should yield but very indifferent crops."

South Canara (acquired from Tippoo Sultan in 1799).—Canara has, however, now completely fallen from this state of prosperity. The evils which have been continually accumulating upon it since it became a province of Mysore have destroyed a great part of its former population, and rendered its remaining inhabitants as poor as those of the neighbouring countries. Its lands, which are now saleable, are reduced to a very small portion and lie chiefly between the Kundapur and Chandragiri rivers, and within five or six miles of the sea. It is not to be supposed, however, that the whole of this tract can be sold, but only that saleable lands are scattered throughout every part of it, thinner in some places, and thicker in others, particularly in the Mangalore district. There is scarcely any saleable land, even on the sea-coast, anywhere to the northward of Kundapur or anywhere inland from one end of Canara to the other, excepting on the banks of the Mangalore and some of the other great rivers. In the vicinity of the ghâts, the lands are not only unsaleable, but the greater part of them is waste and overgrown with wood. It is reckoned that the population of the country has been diminished one-third within the last forty years; and there can be little doubt but that its property has suffered a much greater reduction. Garisappa, Ankola, and Kundapur, formerly flourishing places, contain now only a few beggarly inhabitants; Honawar, once the second town in trade after Mangalore, has not a single house; and Mangalore itself is greatly decayed.

It may be said that this change has been brought about by the invasion of Hyder; by the four wars which have happened since that event; by Tippoo himself destroying many of the principal towns upon the coast and forcing their inhabitants to remove to Jamalabad and other unhealthy situations near the hills; by his seizing in one night all the Christians, men, women and children, amounting to above sixty thousand, and sending them into captivity to Mysore, from whence one-tenth of them never returned; by the prohibition of foreign trade; and by the general corruption and disorder of his government in all its departments. These circumstances certainly accelerated the change, but taken altogether, they probably did not contribute to it so much as the extraordinary augmentation of the land rent.

A moderate land rent carries in itself such an active principle of prosperity that it enables a country to resist for a long time all the evils attending a bad government, and also to recover quickly from the calamities of war. When it is fixed and light, the farmer sees that he will reap the reward of his own industry; the cheerful prospect of improving his situation animates his labours, and enables him to replace in a short time the losses he may have sustained from adverse seasons, the devastations of war and other accidents. But when an oppressive rent is superadded to all the other mischiefs of a tyrannical Government, the country, however flourishing it may ever have been, must sink under them at last, and must hasten to ruin at a more rapid pace every succeeding year.

Hyder ruined Canara, a highly improved country, "filled with industrious inhabitants enjoying a greater proportion of the produce of the soil and being more comfortable than those of any province under any native power in India; but instead of observing the wise and temperate conduct which would have secured to it the enjoyment of these advantages, he regarded it as a fund from which he might draw, without limit, for the expenses of his military operations in other quarters. The whole course of the administration of his deputies seems to have been nothing but a series of experiments made for the purpose of discovering the utmost extent to which the land rent could be carried, or how much it was possible to extort from the farmer without diminishing cultivation. The savings accumulated in better times enabled the country to support for some years the pressure of continually increasing demands, but they could not do so for ever; failures and outstanding balances became frequent before his death.

The same demand and worse management increased them in the beginning of Tippoo's reign. He was determined to relinquish no part of his father's revenue. He knew no way of making up for failures, but by compelling one part of the ryots to pay for the deficiencies of the other; he made them pay not only for those which arose upon the cultivation of the current year, but also for those which arose from the waste lands of dead and deserted ryots which were annually increasing. Severity and a certain degree of vigilance and control in the early part of his government kept the collections for sometime nearly at their former standard, but it was impossible that they could remain so long, for the amount of land left unoccupied from the flight or death of its cultivators became at last so great that it could not be discharged by the remaining part of the inhabitants;

and the collections before the end of his reign fell short of the assessment from ten to sixty per cent. The measure which he adopted for preserving his revenue was that which most effectually destroyed it; he forced the ryots, who were present, to cultivate the lands of the dead and absent; but as the increased rent of their own lands required all their care and labour, by turning a part of it to these new lands the produce of their own was diminished, and they became incapable of paying the rent of either. The effect of this violent regulation was to hasten the extinction of the class of ancient proprietors or landlords; for, many, who might still have contrived to have held that rank, had they been permitted to confine their stock to the cultivation of their own lands, when they were obliged to employ it in the cultivation of those of other people, and when the consequent decrease of the produce left no surplus after paying the rent of Government, sank to the state of laborers. Nothing can more strongly indicate the poverty of a country than when its lands, so far from being saleable, must be forced upon the cultivators, but this practice prevails more or less throughout Canara, and is very general everywhere to the northward of Kundapur.—(*Sir Thomas Munro.*)

(B.)—*A list of moturpha taxes levied in the village of Singanallur in the Coimbatore district taken from the records kept by the kurnam of the village.—The tax was levied on all persons with the exception of land-holders. The following are the rates at which some of the moturpha taxes were levied :—*

	RS.	A.	P.
Salt-tax on each kavali or pot	1	7	6
Tax on cloth-bazaars, first-class, 40 fanams ...	11	12	0
" on " second-class, 20 fanams.	5	14	0
" on " third-class, 10 fanams ...	2	15	0
" on barbers, 8 fanams	2	5	8
" on blacksmiths, 8 fanams	2	5	8
" on carpenters, 8 fanams	2	5	8
" on double bullock carts, 8 fanams	2	5	8
" on weavers, 6 fanams	1	12	3
" on pack-bullocks, 4 fanams	1	2	10
" on shanars (toddy drawers), 2 fanams ...	0	9	5
" on kurumbas (weavers in wool), 2 fanams.	0	9	5
" on washermen, 8 fanams	2	5	8
" on pariahs, 3 fanams	0	14	2
" on neeladuppu (indigo vat), 8 fanams ...	2	5	8
" on chucklers, 8 fanams	2	5	8
" on oil-mills, 10 fanams	2	15	0

SECTION III.—THE CONDITION OF THE AGRICULTURAL CLASSES UNDER BRITISH ADMINISTRATION DURING THE 1ST HALF OF THE PRESENT CENTURY.

(A.)—*Extract from the "Indian Economist."*

LAND REVENUE · PAYMENT IN KIND, OR IN MONEY.

The causes of the remarkable fall in prices which has almost invariably followed the transfer of territory from Native to British rule, have nowhere, we think, received so satisfactory an exposition as in a paper that appeared in the April number of the old Bombay Quarterly Journal in 1857. We shall make no attempt to recast what was there so well stated, but devote our present space to the reproduction of a part of that paper :—

"It seems to us that there are certain prominent characters by which the British system of revenue and finance is broadly marked and distinguished from that of all the Native Governments which have preceded it, and that in their peculiarities we shall find an adequate explanation of the remarkable phenomenon which we are now considering. The Anglo-Indian financial system differs from that of the Native Governments in the following most important particulars :—

- "1stly.—The payment of the army, police and other public establishments in cash.
- "2ndly.—The collection of the land tax in money instead of wholly or partially in kind.
- "3rdly.—The transfer of a portion of the Indian revenues to England, for the payment of the Home charges, usually and correctly styled—"The Indian Tribute."
- "4thly.—The creation of a funded public debt, of which the interest has to be paid in cash.

"The charges to be defrayed out of the Indian revenue, being of an inflexible character, could only be met in years of deficient collections by borrowing, and hence they involved the creation of a funded public debt. But they brought about more important consequences still; for, the payment of troops and establishments and the interest of the public debt in cash, of necessity, involved the collection of the revenue in cash too, and the latter measure, however little thought of at the time of its introduction by our Indian Land Revenue Collectors and Financiers, has produced a momentous revolution in the value of property and bearing of taxation in India far exceeding in degree, but similar in kind to that effected in England by the return to cash payments in 1819.

“ Under Native rule the land tax was the chief source of revenue and was in great part either levied in kind, or assigned for the support of troops and establishments. There was only a small portion of the whole collected in money, and transferred from the local to the central treasuries. The standing military force kept and regularly paid by the Government was small. The bulk of the troops consisted of a kind of militia furnished by jaghirdars and other landlords, to whom the collection of the taxes was assigned for the support of these levies and for conducting the civil administration of the districts placed under their jurisdiction. The troops or retainers of these feudatories were in great measure maintained on the grain, forage and other supplies furnished by the districts in which they were located. The land tax was in consequence either wholly or partially taken in kind and what was collected in money was generally paid away to parties on the spot, and thus quickly returned into circulation. The hereditary revenue and police officials were generally paid by grants of land on tenure of service. Wages of farm servants and agricultural laborers were paid in grain. Grain also was the common medium of exchange for effecting petty purchases in country towns. The farmer's or laborer's wife took a basketful of grain on her head to market instead of a purse of money, and therewith purchased her week's supplies. The people lived in a rude and simple fashion, having few wants, and knowing little of luxuries. In inland districts the chief imports were salt, metals, and a few luxuries for the better classes; but the value of the whole was inconsiderable and the exports with which these were purchased were, of course, correspondingly limited. In this state of things money was hardly wanted at all, and a small supply of coin sufficed for the realization of the public revenue and the settlement of commercial transactions. But while the quantity of coin in circulation was small, the prices of agricultural produce were well sustained, owing to the limited extent of land in cultivation and the large demand for food by the numerous body of the people employed unproductively as soldiers, retainers, and public officers of all kinds, and the difficulty of supplementing deficient harvests by importations from more favored districts, through the want of good roads or other facilities for the transport of bulky produce. The foreign commerce of the country at large was necessarily confined within very narrow limits. It was only the products of the coast districts and the more valuable commodities of the interior, such as indigo and manufactured goods, that could bear the expense of carriage to the ports of shipment so as to admit of being exported. India, at that time, coveted few of the productions of foreign countries and her most important imports were the precious and common metals, broad-cloths, jewels, and other luxuries for the wealthy.

“ The innovations made in the revenue and financial system by the British have, however, effected the most sweeping changes in all of these particulars, and we shall now endeavour to trace their operation on the territory of a native prince passing under the sway of the Company. The first steps taken were to substitute regularly-paid and disciplined troops, located in military stations, for the rural militia of the native feudatories, and a staff of European and native officials receiving fixed salaries, in place of the former mamludars and

revenue farmers with their followers, who paid themselves by perquisites and other indirect gains, but received very trifling emoluments from the treasury of the State. The next and an all-important step in Anglo-Indian administration was to collect the land tax in money instead of realizing it in kind, according to the practice which had virtually, if not nominally, obtained to a great extent under native rule. The immediate and inevitable consequence of this general enforcement of money assessments was, that the amount of coin, previously circulating and sufficient for the adjustment of the limited transactions connected with revenue and commerce under the native system, proved quite inadequate for the settlement without a derangement of prices of the greatly enlarged transactions resulting from the British system. Under the native system, the sale for cash of a small part of the agricultural produce of a district sufficed to provide for all its liabilities connected with taxation and commerce. Under the British system, on the contrary, twice or, perhaps, three times the quantity of produce had to be so sold in order to provide for the same objects, owing to the whole amount of the land tax being demanded in coin. But the supply of coin remaining as before, the effect of this increased demand for it was of course to enhance its price. The coin in circulation had to perform double or treble the work it had accomplished before. The ryot requiring more cash to pay his money assessment had, of course, to bring more produce to market, which occasioned a glut and brought down prices. And this state of things was aggravated by the demand for grain and forage in the country markets being less than before, owing to the disbanding of the irregular force which had been kept up by the native jaghirdars and other functionaries of the former Governments and to the increased production due to an extension of cultivation by means of these disbanded levies. Prices fell more and more until, in many cases, our Collectors found it to be wholly impossible to collect the full land assessment, and large remissions had to be annually made. The village grain merchants, who are also the village bankers, deprived of a sufficient market at their own doors, were compelled, in order to find money to supply their constituents with, to seek more distant markets for the disposal of the produce left upon their hands in liquidation of advances previously made by them to the ryots. This awakened a spirit of greater enterprise and activity among the commercial classes, which was gradually communicated to the ryots, and laid the germ of that active foreign trade which now advances with gigantic strides, and has already penetrated into the remotest recesses of the interior. This collateral benefit, conferred by the British plan of administration, has fairly set free the spirit of progress long spell-bound in the native mind under the iron fetters of Asiatic customs, far more than compensates India for the period of suffering in which it originated.

“The sufferings of the rural population during this transition period were, without doubt, very severe. The revenue reports of our Collectors in newly-acquired territories abound with harassing descriptions of the depressed condition of the agricultural classes, and with representations of the difficulties they experienced in collecting the land assessment, owing to the great fall in the prices of all des-

criptions of agricultural produce. The assessments of Sir Thomas Munro in the Madras districts failed from this cause. So did the early Revenue settlement of the Bombay territories, and also the permanent settlement of Bengal, which occasioned the ruin of the first proprietors. And quite recently we have had a striking example of the same phenomenon in the case of the Punjab. It is stated in the report of the Board of Administration for the years 1849-50 and 1850-51, printed for the Court of Directors, that fixed money assessments were substituted in 1847 for the system we found in existence, and that in the whole of the Punjab a reduction of the land tax, equal to 25 per cent., has been effected. The demand for food has not decreased; it has probably increased; for although the army of the late Government has been disbanded, there are not, between the Sutlej and the Khyber, less than 60,000 fighting men with, perhaps, five times that number of camp followers. Hence there is a larger demand than before for food over the country generally, though the market round about Lahore is more limited. The labour employed on canals, roads, cantonments, and other public works must cause the circulation of large sums of money, and increase the demand for food. The pay of our army within the limits (of the Punjab) has been estimated to be equal to one million six hundred and fifty thousand pounds. The expenditure by the various civil establishments, the Commissariat and Executive departments, and the different works in progress under the Board, are probably equal to another million; so that nearly double the Punjab revenues are at present spent in the country. In despite, however, of large reductions (of assessment), the complaints during the past year on the part of the agriculturists have been loud and general. Prices (in many villages) have fallen a half. The cry of over-assessment is loud and general. There has been a very general demand among the agriculturists for a return to grain payments, and to a division or appraisalment of the crops every season.

“It is clear from these statements of the Board of Administration that the specie in the Punjab must have been largely increased under our rule, even if we make the most ample allowance for the re-export of a portion of it, remitted by our sepoys and camp followers to their homes in the older provinces. And yet, in the face of this large increase of coin in circulation, prices have fallen nearly 50 per cent. The Board, following the example of our early Collectors, attribute this decline of prices to abundant harvest and extension of cultivation; but it may well be doubted whether the increase of production in the Punjab, up to the time referred to in the Board's report, had more than kept pace with the increased consumption due to the presence of our army, numbering with its camp followers nearly four hundred thousand souls. The phenomenon of a great and sudden fall of prices is not singular, or confined to the Punjab, but was equally observable in other parts of India when they first passed under the rule of the British Government. The fall in the former, as in the latter case, will be of a lasting character, and an explanation for it must be sought in some cause of wider and more enduring action than the casual state of the harvest, or the extension of land under tillage. These circumstances may have contributed to the effect, as already

pointed out, but only to a very limited extent. It would also seem to be capable of demonstration that the cause in question cannot be a drain of bullion to meet the tribute paid by India to England, for in this particular instance of the Punjab, bullion was fast flowing into the country when prices were falling, and so of India at large. The tribute has been paid by means of exports of produce, without requiring the transmission of bullion to England, excepting on rare occasions; and the imports of bullion into India have, as already noticed, been, on the whole, very large; so that the metallic currency of all British India must have been rapidly increasing for many years past.

“This remarkable fall of prices, which has almost invariably followed the transfer of territory from Native to British rule, while neither capable of being accounted for by the state of the crops and extent of cultivation, nor by the annual tribute remitted to England, may yet be clearly traced to the extraordinary demand for money occasioned by our collecting the land assessment in cash, and conveying it away from the agricultural district to our large military stations for the payment of the troops located there. A much larger currency than before would clearly have been required under this change of system, in order to sustain prices at the old standard. It was, however, impossible to enlarge the currency so as fully to meet the change, and no attempt to do so was made, or apparently ever thought of. The consequence was, that in order to obtain money for the payment of his assessment, the ryot brought more produce to market than before; but as there was no corresponding enhancement of the demand for it, prices necessarily fell.”

(B.)—*Description of the Madras ryot by Mr. Bourdillon in 1853.*

The ryots may be divided into two principal classes—those who are comparatively well-off, the few, and those who are poor, the many. The former in general are either those whose villages or lands were from any cause favorably assessed at the first; or those who have inam or rent-free land in addition to their rent-paying land; or those who have more extensive holdings than common, all of whom have good land and have more or less inam. Individuals of the favored classes, as they are called, who hold their land on easier terms than usual, because belonging to certain castes, are also necessarily better off than others; and, lastly, personal character has its own influence here as elsewhere; the careful and frugal will get rich, and so will the crafty and subtle, skilful to gain the favour of the tahsildar or to supplant a rival.

2. Even among this more wealthy class of agriculturists, the number of those who possess any considerable amount of property is very small. It is difficult to form or to convey an exact idea of their real means, but I will attempt it. I should say that if a man of this class is able to spend 15 or 20 rupees a month, or rather if he can command a value equal to that, for he will rarely see so much money, such a man, I say, may be accounted to be very well off; and that a net income from all sources to the value of from 30 to 50 rupees a month

is very rare among the agricultural classes. Such an income, indeed, is far more in this country than the money amount indicates to English ears. The actual purchasing power of money in this country is sometimes estimated at four times what it is in England, sometimes at six times. Assuming the intermediate proportion of five to one, an income of 20 rupees a month will be equal to one of £120 a year in England; and 30 rupees and 50 rupees a month in this country will be the respective equivalents of £180 and £300 a year in England. In point of fact, indeed, the difference is greater, both because from the nature of the climate, the range of absolute necessities is here much abridged, and also because the general scale of incomes and style of living throughout all grades of society are so much lower here than they are in our own country. But though the incomes above specified undoubtedly raise their possessors far above want, still they appear small in extreme when regarded as the highest incomes from the possession of land in a very extensive country, and the largest of them certainly confined to an extremely limited number of instances.

3. The dwellings of this class certainly do not indicate much wealth; tiled houses are rarely seen, and masonry walls are still much more rare. The almost universal habitation has mud walls and a thatched roof; the latter of a very flimsy order, and both often much dilapidated: and both walls and roof are the same within as without; the rooms have no ceiling, and their walls no sort of ornament or decoration; rarely even whitewash, and the floor is of simple earth beaten hard. The value of the residence of a ryot of the more wealthy class, of whom I am now speaking, probably rarely exceeds 200 rupees or £20. It may be urged that the habits of the people do not incline them to spend money on improving their dwellings, but that they rather invest savings in jewels or rich cloths for great occasions, or in cattle, or expend them on marriages and other family occasions. There is some truth in this; but though every family above actual poverty possesses some jewels, yet probably very few agricultural families possess to so large a value as 1,000 rupees or £100 for both jewels and clothes; and even supposing an equal value in agricultural stock (and so much would very rarely be met with), the whole aggregate value, £220, equal to £1,100 in England, is extremely small to represent the whole property (exclusive of land) of one of the most wealthy members of the land-holding class; and it is the most wealthy only who possess as much as this.

4. And if we look within their houses, we still find few evidences of wealth, or even of what we should consider comfort. I have already described the interior of the house itself; and as to its contents, there is nothing of what is commonly called furniture. There are no chairs, or tables, or couches, or beds; sometimes there is seen a single rude cot which would be dear at 2 rupees. The inmates for the most part sleep on the earthen floor, with nothing else below them but a mat or a small cotton carpet. They sit on the floor, and from it take their food, which is served in a few brass dishes, or perhaps by preference and not from poverty on a simple plantain leaf. Their usual clothes are simply of cotton, and cost little; and when going

a distance to the Tahsildar's or Collector's cutcherry, for example, they generally travel on foot or, in exceptional cases, usually of age or infirmity, on a pony not worth above 7 or 8 rupees.

5. It may, perhaps, be replied to all this that such are the simple habits of the country, and that the people are satisfied, and require no more. This is no doubt true as a fact, to this extent at least that, in the absence of sufficient promise of success, these people abstain from active effort to better their circumstances. But if it be meant that they choose to be poor when they might be rich; that they are satisfied with the necessaries of life when they might command some of the comforts and luxuries; that they are content to have only their physical wants supplied when they might rise to the perception and enjoyment of intellectual pleasures; then I deny the truth of the assertion. And I must add that, if true in any degree, it would only prove the ignorance and debasement of the people to whom it relates.

6. The foregoing description refers to the better class of ryots, men who are above the world and well off; but the condition of the great majority is much worse. From the official list of puttahs for the Revenue year 1848-49, it is seen that out of 1,071,588, the total number of puttahs (excluding joint puttahs) in the fourteen principal ryotwar districts,¹ no fewer than 589,932, being considerably more than half, are under 10 rupees each, and in fact average only a small fraction above 4 rupees each; that 201,065 are for amounts ranging from 10 rupees to 20, and in fact averaging less than 14½ rupees each; and that 97,891 are for amounts between 20 rupees and 30, and in fact averaging only 24½ rupees; and thus that 883,888 puttahs, out of a total of 1,071,588, or considerably more than three-fourths, are for amounts under 30 rupees, and in fact averaging less than 8½ rupees.

7. Now it may certainly be said of almost the whole of the ryots paying even the highest of these sums, and even of many holding to a much larger amount, that they are always in poverty and generally in debt. Perhaps one of this class obtains a small sum out of the Government advances for cultivation, but even if he does, the trouble that he has to take and the time he loses in getting it, as well as the deduction to which it is liable, render this a questionable gain. For the rest of his wants he is dependent on the bazaarman. To him his crops are generally hypothecated before they are reaped, and it is he who redeems them from the possession of the village watcher by pledging himself for the payment of the kist. These transactions pass without any written engagements or memoranda between the parties, and the only evidence is the Chetty's own accounts. In general, there is an adjustment of the accounts once a year, but sometimes not for several years. In all these accounts interest is charged on the advances made to the ryot on the balance against him.

¹ Chingleput
Salem
Madura
Nellore.
North Arcot

South Arcot.
Tanjore.
Trichinopoly.
Tinnevely
Bellary

Cuddapah.
Coimbatore.
Canara.
Kurnool.

The rate of interest varies with the circumstances of the case and the necessities of the borrower; it is probably seldom or never less than 12 per cent. per annum, and not often above 24 per cent.; of course the poorest and most necessitous ryots have to pay the highest.

8. A ryot of this class of course lives from hand to mouth; he rarely sees money except that obtained from the Chetty to pay his kist; the exchanges in the out-villages are very few and they are usually conducted by barter. His ploughing cattle are wretched animals not worth more than from 3½ to 6 rupees each (7 to 12 shillings) and those perhaps not his own, because not paid for. His rude and feeble plough costs, when new, no more than 2 or 3 shillings; and all the rest of his few agricultural implements are equally primitive and inefficient. His dwelling is a hut of mud walls and thatched roofs, far ruder, smaller, and more dilapidated than those of the better classes of ryots above spoken of, and still more destitute, if possible, of anything that can be called furniture. His food and that of his family is partly their porridge made of the meal of grain boiled in water, and partly boiled rice with a little condiment; and generally the only vessels for cooking and eating from are of the coarsest earthenware, much inferior in grain to a good tile or brick in England, and unglazed; brass vessels, though not wholly unknown among this class, are rare.

9. The scale of the ryots descends to those who possess a small patch of land, cultivated sometimes by the aid of borrowed cattle, but whose chief subsistence is derived from cooly labour, either cutting firewood and carrying it for sale to a neighbouring town, or in field labour. The purely laboring classes are below these again, worse off indeed, but with no very broad distinction in condition. The earnings of a man employed in agricultural labour cannot be quoted at more than 20 rupees a year, including everything; and this is not paid in money, but in commodities. As respects food, houses, and clothing, they are in a worse condition than the class of poor ryots above spoken of. But I will endeavour to describe their circumstances a little more particularly.

10. The regular agricultural laborers are usually engaged at the commencement of the season for the whole year. It is customary to advance them a small sum, about 5 or 10 rupees, as a sort of retainer, which, however, is to be repaid when the connection ceases. Frequently they remain without change for years; when a man desires to engage with another master, as he will rarely have been able to accumulate money to pay off the advance received, the sum advanced by the new master goes to pay off the old one. These yearly laborers receive a certain allowance of grain every month, which is usually fixed by the custom of the locality; and at particular seasons, some regular, others occasional, the master makes the servant a small present, also fixed by the local custom. When the wife or children of the laborer work in the fields at weeding, &c., they receive daily hire in grain; and laborers not engaged for the whole year, but only at particular times, are paid in the same manner. The rates of hire are very low. The daily rate varies in different parts of the country from 8 pies (one penny) to 1 anna (3 half-pence); it

is rarely or never above the latter sum for purely agricultural labour, and this is paid not in money but in grain. The occasional presents to the yearly laborers are partly in money and partly in clothes; the entire earnings of a laborer engaged for a year do not exceed from 16 to 20 rupees for that whole term.

11. It appears from the foregoing detail that the condition of the agricultural laborer in this country is very poor. Taking his earnings at the highest rate, viz., 20 rupees a year, this would be equivalent in real value, using the same standard of comparison as above, to £10 a year in England. The English field laborer earns on the average not less than £28 a year, including his extra grains in harvest time; and thus it appears that the real wages of a field laborer in regular employ, his command of the necessaries and conveniences of life, are in this country little more than a third of what they are in England. It is no doubt true that some things are necessaries there which are not so in so high a degree here; the laborer in this country does not need to spend so much on firing, clothing or shelter from the weather as in England; in other words, an equal amount of physical comfort in those respects may be purchased here at a smaller outlay. But making full allowance for this difference, the labourer here will still be found to be much the worse off. In fact, almost the whole of his earnings must necessarily be consumed in a spare allowance of coarse and unvaried food and a bare sufficiency of clothing. The wretched hut he lives in can hardly be valued at all. As to anything in the way of education or mental culture, he is utterly destitute of it.

SECTION IV.—NARRATIVE OF THE PRINCIPAL FACTS BEARING ON THE CONDITION OF THE AGRICULTURAL CLASSES FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE PRESENT CENTURY TO THE PRESENT TIME.

(A.)—Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during 15 years from 1841.

Districts.	Year.	Items.	Head to which the item belongs	Amount.
				Rs.
Ganjam	A.D. 1844-45	Tax on priests	Moturpha	40
	Do.	Tax on shepherds	Do.	38
	Do.	Tax on fishermen	Do.	10
	Do.	Tax on sale of dry fish	Do.	8
	1852-53	Tax on cutting and bringing wood from the Colanpoonjah jungle	Sundry small farms and licenses.	113
	Do.	Tax on cutting and bringing wood from the Chundanea jungle.	Do.	426
	Do.	Tax on cutting mango and tamarind trees in the Moherry fort.	Do.	59
	1844-45	Land Customs	Land Customs	21,310
	1846-47	Duty upon articles imported from ports within the territory of the Honorable Company.	Sea Customs	1,040
	1847-48	Half of the tonnage duty at 1 anna formerly levied upon the several dhonies and vessels.	Do.	414
Do.	Duty upon British goods exported and imported	Do.	32,171	
1851-52	One-fourth of the duty upon every ton of the foreign and American vessels.	Do.	63	
		Total	55,692
Godavari	1844	Inland and town duties	Land Customs	90,706
	1848	Monopoly of weighing goods in each village in certain taluks annually rented.	Moturpha	6,880

*Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during
15 years from 1841—cont.*

Districts.	Year.	Items.	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount.
Godavari—cont	1848	Gold dust rent on monopoly of purchasing ashes of the furnaces of goldsmiths	Moturpha ..	RS 1,590
	1854	Duties on goods exported from or imported into the Nizam's dominions	Land Customs ..	4,317
		Total	1,03,493
Kistna .. .	1841-42 .. .	Tax on sheep and goats	Moturpha ..	6,410
	1856-57	Do. on do.	Do. ..	9,585
	1854-55 and 1855-56	Do. on horned cattle in the Nizampatam Circars	Do. ..	1,255
	1846-47	Do. on the looms of Pariahs	Do. ..	810
	1843-44	Bootpooroshee or tax on certain classes	Do. ..	3,256
	1853-54	Town duty or tax on grain brought for sale at Mangalagiri bazaar.	Do. ..	124
	Do.	Nuzzerana on looms in the Anomully village	Do. ..	6
	1854	Tax on washing green	Do. ..	368
	1856	Do. on shepherds	Do. ..	4,536
	1843-44	Bootpooroshee levied on the huts of toddy drawers	Sundry small farms and licenses.	250
	1856-57	Tax on dates (small) used for making baskets	Do. ..	200
	1844	General inland and town duties	Land Customs ..	58,076
	1854-55	Frontier do. do.	Do. ..	1,742
	1844	Transit duty	Do. ..	81,820
	1854	Frontier duty	Do. ..	43,202
	1847-48	Duty on cotton exported to Nizam's territory	Do. ..	692
	Do.	Do. on goods exported to and imported from British ports	Sea Customs ..	1,849
1853-54	Do. on paddy, &c., imported at any of the ports in the district	Do. ..	2,076	
1854	Tax on exports and imports	Do. ..	11,740	

*Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during
15 years from 1841—cont.*

Districts.	Year.	Items.	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount.	
Kistna—cont.	1855-56 and 1856-57	.. Poollary or grazing tax	Miscellaneous ..	Rs. 76,625	
	1856-57	.. Tax on firewood cut in certain jungles on the coast	Do. ..	800	
	Do.	.. Reduction of assessment in the Mangalagiri taluk	Do. ..	2,080	
	Do.	.. Reduction of assessment in certain villages on the sea coast	Do. ..	2,581	
	1855-56	.. Abolition of Toonga rent in Churala village	Do. ..	42	
	1847-48	.. Ruah and rattan rents paid by basket-makers	Do. ..	74	
	Do.	.. Rent of fishing creeks	Do. ..	58	
	Do.	.. Tax on collecting cow-dung in two villages	Do. ..	6	
	Do.	.. Do paid by petty shopkeepers during the digging of cheyroot..	Do. ..	8	
	Do.	.. Fee on gathering (banian) leaves for platters in the village of Pedda Lanka.	Do. ..	8	
	1847-48	.. Toonga, Relloo, Awara—Rents of different kinds of grass ..	Do. ..	678	
	Do.	.. Tax on spades for digging cheyroot	Do. ..	7	
	1854-55	.. Do. on fruit trees grown in ryots' fields (estimated)	Do. ..	400	
			1. Presents made to zemindars, &c, in the Dasara feast	Land Revenue ..	816
			2. Presents made to the landlord by the farmers for permission to cut the crop	Do. ..	1,688
			3. Proportionate contribution on assessment to zillahdars or petty revenue officers.	Do. ..	1,304
			4. Charges of a purganah or division of estate	Do. ..	991
			5. Fees to shroff or money-changer	Do. ..	140
			6. Village charges	Do. ..	566
			7. Extra assessment collected by zemindars for palan expenditure	Do. ..	2,679
			8. Fees to the writer or accountant	Do. ..	8
			9. Grain allowance to village goddess	Do. ..	78
			10. Do. to a person employed to watch the produce	Do. ..	216
		11. Puttah in the name of village goddess	Do. ..	68	
		12. Two handfuls of grain to village servants	Do. ..	61	
		13. Fees to the revenue accountant	Do. ..	138	

These are petty exactions or grants which the zemindars allowed to their ryots (to which they were entitled) although acknowledged and maintained as customary payments.

Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during 15 years from 1841—cont.

Districts.	Year.	Items	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount.		
Kistna—cont.	1852	These are petty excise actions originated rather by the subordinate officers of Native Governments than by authority, although pecuniary charges and payments have been levied as customary payments	14. Increase of the price of the Government share of the produce	Land Revenue ..	51	
			15. Sundry charges	Do. ..	71	
			16. Fee for measurement	Do. ..	22	
			17. Allowance for reaping or cutting the crop	Do. ..	2	
			18. Grain allowance to Brahmins of Peishcars	Do. ..	23	
			19. Grain to peons who watch the produce	Do. ..	26	
			20. Grain to village-watcher	Do. ..	68	
			21. Fees to zemindars	Do. ..	10	
			22. Pagoda fees	Do. ..	42	
			1853	Jungle tax	Do. ..	115
			1856	Grain allowance	Do. ..	430
				Inams	Do. ..	2,002
	Total	3,68,599			
Nellore	1856	Tax on goldsmiths' ashes	Moturpha ..	179		
	1844	Inland duties	Land Customs ..	1,07,109		
	1848	Duties on exports and imports	Sea Customs ..	13,000		
	1856	Reduction in Mooloom and Jarib or garden assessment	Land Revenue ..	50,718		
	Do	Do dry land assessment	Do ..	65,921		
	Total	2,36,927			
Cuddapuh	1844-45	Duty levied on articles of consumption	Land Customs ..	1,80,980		
	1848-49	Tax on goldsmiths' ashes	Sundry small farms and licensees ..	1,519		
	1842-43	Pagoda offerings	Do. ..	1,601		
	1844-45	Loss in the exchange of Canteroy pagodas	Miscellaneous ..	32,000		
	1855-56	Reduction in assessment of waste lands	Land Revenue ..	7,597		
	Total	2,33,697			

*Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during
15 years from 1841—cont.*

Districts.	Year.	Items.	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount.
Bellary and Anantapur.	1855-56	Reduction of "wet" land rates above Rs. 18 for a single crop and Rs. 27 for two crops to those rates respectively.	Land Revenue	Rs. 1,131
	1842-43	"Goodivaram" on money collected at the native pagodas	Moturpha	681
	1854-55	Sheep tax levied from other classes than shepherds cultivating land.	Do.	1,311
	1843-44	Town duties	Land Customs	71,387
	Do.	Inland duties	Do.	1,31,817
	Do.	Inland duties on the frontier of Kurnool	Do.	13,567
	1845-46	Inland duties on the Soondoor frontier	Do.	838
	1844-45	Do. on the Mysore do.	Do.	1,01,388
	1844-45	Do. on the Nizam's do.	Do.	3,567
	1854-55	Do. on the do. do.	Do.	5,186
	1848-49	Sundry collections made on small farms and licenses	Sundry small farms and licenses.	599
Total	3,34,472
Kurnool	1850-51	Tax on skins	Moturpha	404
	1852-53	Do. vegetable-sellers	Do.	640
		Do. indigo vats	Do.	174
		Do. skins	Do.	198
		Do. lime-kilns	Do.	40
		Do. butchers	Do.	500
		Do. kabob cooks	Do.	30
		Do. contractors for safe delivery of carts, horses, &c., at Hyderabad.	Do.	85
		Do. cattle-grazers	Do.	37
Do. measurers	Do.	104		

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Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during 15 years from 1841—cont.

Districts.	Year.	Items.	Head to which the item belongs	Amount.
Kurnool—cont	1853-54	Tax on Mahomedans' houses	Moturpha	RS. 275
	1854-55	Do. butchers	Do.	776
		Do. toddy shops	Do.	1,288
	Reduction of assessment	Land Revenue	2,595
	...	Customs	Land Customs	11,257
			Total
Chingleput ..	1843	Higher rate of ryots' share	Land Revenue	677
		Remissions at 12½ per cent	Do.	661
		Do. at 11 do.	Do.	114
		Do. at 2 do.	Do.	2
		Do. from the usual fixed assessment	Do.	137
		Permanent cowle	Do.	304
		Dasabandam on remission of a portion of public revenue to those who created sources of irrigation.	Do.	51
		Fixed money cowle	Do.	582
		Total	2,528
North Arcot ..	1848	Tax on persons selling betel in the Chittoor and Kaveripak taluks	Moturpha	19
	Do.	Daily tax on the bazaars, &c., in Rampet	Do.	147
	Do.	Tax on catching water-fowls in the Kaveripak tank.	Do.	5
	1841	House-tax on bearers in the Satghur taluk	Do.	32
	1848	Tax collected from the bazaarmen at Tirupati and Trichanoore under the denomination of "Viralum Amavasya Punnoo" or new moon tax	Do.	34

Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during 15 years from 1841—cont.

Districts.	Year	Items.	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount.
North Arcot—cont.	1848	Tax collected from the weavers in Tirupati under the denomination of "Parsay Cutnum"	Moturpha	Rs. 32
	1849	Tax on houses collected in Tirupati under the denomination of "Illoovaripannoo."	Do.	292
	Do.	Tax on skins in the Chandragiri taluk	Do.	3
	1850	Do. in the Kangundi division	Do.	57
	1844	Tax on Congoes of villages collected under the denomination of "Congoetundagem."	Do.	6
	1850	Tax on iron foundries in the Kangundi division.	Do.	66
	Do.	Tax on shepherds collected under the denomination of "Coorootaree" in the Kangundi division.	Do.	18
	1855	Davastanam obayem (festival) tax in the Chittoor, Tiruvallam and Tirvuttoor taluks.	Do.	209
	1856	Tax on the manufacture of saltpetre in the Tiruvallam taluk.	Do.	37
	Do.	Tax on the privilege of collecting fuller's earth	Do.	32
	1848	Tax collected from the Pariahs in the Satghur taluk under the denomination of "Maula Sunkeyalum."	Do.	8
	1849	Tax on the privilege of cutting and selling grass in the Chandragiri taluk collected under the denomination of "Pilloovaree."	Do.	1
	1840	Tax on sellers of vegetables	Do.	25
	1849	Tax for collecting honey and wax	Do.	70
	Do.	Tax on the privilege of digging for pipe clay	Do.	15
	1855	Tax on digging for sandal stone	Do.	40
	1849	Tax on the privilege of cutting wood for building houses	Do.	11
	1844	For the entire district	Land Customs	1,12,221
	1845	Frontier customs	Do.	28,147
	1854	Tax on betel-sellers in Walajapet	Moturpha	39
Do.	Tax collected from the villages of Dasoor in the Wandiwash taluk under the denomination of "Summarathum" or community of small traders	Do.	37	

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*Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during
15 years from 1841—cont.*

Districts.	Year.	Items	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount.
North Arcot— <i>cont</i>	1854	Caval Cundayem tax in the Wandiwash taluk	Moturpha ..	Rs. 48
	Do	Tax on shepherds collected in the Wandiwash taluk under the denomination of "Golla caurum"	Do ..	11
	Do	Tax on betel-sellers in the town of Chittoor ..	Do ..	22
	Temporary remission of assessment in anticipation of remission in progress	Land Revenue ..	3,49,900
			Total	...
South Arcot ..	1st September 1854	Duties on various articles liable to Land Customs.	Land Customs ..	1,41,735
	Do	Duties on tobacco, betel-nut, bhang and godauk	Do ..	17,062
	July 1848	Fee on stamping weights and measures in Cuddalore town	Do ..	327
	July 1848	Frontier customs on various articles ..	Do ..	31,851
	July 1851	Duties on cotton wool	Do ..	1,111
	1848	Duties on various petty articles of consumption	Do ..	3,722
	Do	Equalizing the duty on goods imported and exported on foreign bottoms with that levied on British bottoms	Sea Customs ..	2,500
	Do	Tax on temporary shops	Moturpha ..	12
	1856	Other petty items	Do ..	110
	Do	Duty on washermen's earth	Sundry small farms and licenses	22
	Do	Rattan rent	Do ..	221
	1853	Chank rent	Do ..	50
	1854	Duty on jungle produce, dyeing bark, bees' wax, honey, &c ..	Do ..	35
1854 to 1856	Land-tax assessment, &c, and water-rates ..	Land Revenue 9,63,723. Sundry small farms and licenses 988.	9,64,711	
		Total	...	11,63,469

*Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during
15 years from 1841—cont.*

Districts.	Year.	Items.	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount.
Tanjore	1844	Total	Land Customs.	Rs. 2,89,112
Trichinopoly ..	1852-53	Tax on bamboos	Sundry small farms and licenses.	1,402
		Taxes on trees	Do. ..	3,790
	1853-54	Rossooms	Miscellaneous ..	3,275
		Saderwar	Do ..	6,183
	Cawnyvary	Do. ..	7,721
		Nanyarvuttum	Do. ..	10,989
	Yarymera	Do. ..	151
		Kunemera	Do. ..	46
	1855-56	Land tax	Land Revenue ..	2,37,602
	1844-45	Land Customs on cloths and sundries	Land Customs ..	98,748
Total	3,69,907
Madura	1843-44	Tobacco monopoly	Tobacco ..	63,660
		Tax on betel	Do. ..	96,250
	Do.	Customs on drugs, piece-goods, &c.	Land Customs ..	1,14,761
		Kallar Caval fees	Stamp Revenue ..	35
	1852-53	Rents of honey and bees' wax	Do. ..	276
		Reduction of assessment on tobacco gardens	Land Revenue ..	6,432
	Do.	Do on nunjah gardens	Do. ..	4,596
		Do. on punjah gardens under wells	Do. ..	16,506
1856-57	Abolition of assessment on wet lands in Settanandel villages in Ramnad.	Do. ..	156	
Total	3,02,672

*Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during
15 years from 1841—cont.*

Districts.	Year	Items	Head to which the item belongs	Amount
Tinnevely	1851-52	Assessment upon 37 descriptions of trees	Land Revenue	Rs. 4,454
	1853-54	High level nunjah lands watered by means of picottahs, &c, exempted from payment of a moiety of the usual nunjah tax	Do.	9,088
	1854-55	Revenue derived from petty hill products	Do.	5,780
	1856-57	Nelavary or grazing tax collected from the Nattamygars and shepherds of a few villages in certain taluks	Do.	106
	1855-56	Abolition of special assessment on trees in inam and puttah land	Do.	14,672
	1842-43	Arupoogootah of seeking for jewels, bits of precious metal, &c, dropped on the roads.	Moturpha	65
	1843-44	Land Customs	Land Customs	88,557
	Do.	Betel farm rented	Do.	37,120
	Do.	Tobacco rent	Do.	25,336
	Do.	Rent of the duty on cheyroot	Do.	2,700
	1853	Frontier export duty on piece-goods, rape seed, &c, reduced from 5 to 3 per cent	Do.	24,555
	Do	Frontier export duty on cocoanut, &c, reduced from 5 to 3 per cent.	Do.	622
	1847-48	Frontier export duty on cotton wool exported	Do.	3,996
	1850-51	Do. on sundry articles	Do.	762
	1847-48	Export duty on cotton wool	Sea Customs	44,596
Do.	Do on sundry articles	Do.	13,862	
		Total	2,76,291
Coimbatore	1844 to 1849	Duty on piece-goods, &c	Land Customs	1,80,164
	1853-54	Calacachadam or tax on persons selling tobacco, betel, &c, in the fields during harvest	Moturpha	393

Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during 15 years from 1841—cont.

Districts.	Year.	Items	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount
Coimbatore—cont.	1850 and 1851	Mudurcutty or tax on basket-makers and house tax on Paraha, &c.	Moturpha ..	rs. 1,211
	1850 to 1854	Tax on palmyras	Miscellaneous ..	22,033
	1850 to 1855	Tax on fruit trees	Do. ..	3,901
	1851 and 1854	Honey rent, tax on dyeing root, hill-rent	Do. ..	4,378
	1854 and 1855	Reduction of assessment at 12 and 15 per cent. on old gardens.	Land Revenue ..	68,067
	Do.	Reduction of assessment at 1/3rd of the fixed assessment	Do ..	50,543
	Do.	Reduction of assessment on gardens classed with first-rate punjah	Do ..	38,969
	1856	Reduction of assessment on nunjah lands over-assessed	Do. ..	3,027
			Total ..	3,72,686
	Salem	Board's Proceedings, dated 28th March 1844.	Inland duties on goods	Land Customs.
		Farms of betel and tobacco		
17th March 1845		Transit duties levied on the Mysore frontier	Do. ..	17,010
17th March 1851		Tax on cocoanut trees in putcut lands	Land Revenue ..	1,284
2nd October 1854		Tax on other trees in putcut lands	Do ..	1,853
By sanction of Government, dated the 10th July 1854		Land assessment in the Paramatti taluk	Do ..	1,662
By sanction of Government, dated the 20th December 1855, conveyed in Board's Proceedings, dated 24th January 1856.		Assessment on well garden lands in the Talaghant taluk	Do ..	18,310

Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during 15 years from 1841—cont.

Districts.	Year.	Items	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount	
Salem—cont.		By order of Government, dated 31st May 1855 (Board's Proceedings, dated 29th October 1855).	Tax on scattered trees in unoccupied lands	Land Revenue ..	Rs 2,966
			Total		1,59,130
Canara	1841-42 April 1844 Do. 1852 1854-55 1857-58	Tax levied from blacksmiths, carpenters, and weavers .. Duty levied on frontier trade and the Halut duty on betel-nut, pepper and cardamoms Duties (sayer) levied on exports of betel-nut, pepper, cardamoms, &c Government tobacco monopoly Duty levied on the manufacture of jaggery from toddy of palmyra and cocoanut trees Tax fixed by herdsmen	Moturpha ..	450	
			Land Customs ..	2,55,554	
			Sea Customs ..	2,37,541	
			Tobacco ..	2,91,141	
			Moturpha ..	323	
			Sundry small farms and licenses.	40	
Total ..		7,85,049			
Malabar	1852-53 1853-54 1854-55 1848-49 1846-47 and 1847-48 1848-49 and 1849-50 1851-52 1852-53	Tax on jungle produce Do Do Addakakally or tax on betel-nut dyers Thathora or tax on Tiars Vannan Jemmem or tax levied from dhobies or washermen Tax on houses below 1 silver fanam or 3 annas and 2 pies Tobacco monopoly	Sundry small farms and licenses.	1,171	
			Do	803	
			Do	1,814	
			Moturpha	321	
			Do	93	
			Do	23	
			Do	5,002	
			Tobacco	5,66,112	

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Statement showing the permanent reductions made in different branches of revenue in all the districts during 15 years from 1841—cont.

Districts	Year	Items	Head to which the item belongs.	Amount
Malabar—cont.	1843-44	Land customs, except frontier duty	Land Customs	Rs. 1,02,524
	1846-47	Frontier duty	Do.	4,599
		Total ..		6,82,462
Madras	1852	Quit-rent on certain holdings	Land Revenue	58
	1855	Ground rent on lime-kilns	Do. ..	756
	Do.	License fee on do.	Do. ..	72
	1844	Land Customs	Land Customs	5,84,963
	1853	Frontier Customs	Do.	199
		Total ..		5,86,048
		Grand Total ..		68,32,215
		Total for the Presidency ..	Land Revenue Moturpha Sea Customs Land Customs Sundry farms and licenses Abolition of tobacco monopoly. Miscellaneous	19,42,806 50,951 3,60,872 32,23,365 15,103 10,17,163 2,21,955
		Grand Total ..		68,32,215

(B.)—*Extracts from Dr. Buchanan's "Journey from Madras through Mysore, Canara and Malabar in 1800."*

Bhavāni, Coimbatore district.—The hinds, or servants hired for the year by the farmers, are here called *Padiyals*, and are on the same footing with the *Batigas* of *Karnata*. They sometimes bind themselves for a number of years, in which case the master advances money for their marriage expenses, and deducts so much from their monthly pay, until he is repaid. Unless tied down by some stipulation of this nature, they may change their service whenever they please. A servant gets from his master a house, and from fifteen to twenty *Gopáláy fanams* or from 5s. to 6s. 8d. a year, with a monthly allowance of twenty *Vullas* or $1\frac{1}{10}\frac{0}{8}$ bushel of grain. Their wives, when they are able to work, have daily wages. Day laborers at harvest time, whether men or women, get daily one *Bulla* and a half (rather more than $\frac{1}{2}$ bushel) of the grain called *Cumbu*. At weeding the crops, the daily wages are one *Bulla* of *Cumbu*, or about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a bushel. A man working with a hatchet or pickaxe gets one *Gopáláy fanam* (about 4d.) a day; carrying earth in baskets, or the like, he gets $\frac{2}{3}$ of a *Gopáláy fanam*, or 3d.; and porters, for carrying a load eight *Urnaivullies*, or *Malabar* hours' journey, get two *Gopáláy fanams* or nearly 8d.

On the houses of the Natives in Coimbatore district.—I went ten *Malabar* hours' journey to Navaputty; that is, the nine villages, having formerly been the principal of nine adjacent hamlets. It is a sorry place, containing about 20 houses. The huts of the country, called *Chera*, are like beehives, and consist of a circular mud wall about three feet high, which is covered with a long conical roof of thatch. Contrary to what might have been expected in a hot climate, but agreeably to the custom of almost all *Hindus*, one small door is the only outlet for smoke, and the only inlet for air and light. Each family has a hut for sleeping, another for cooking, and a third for a store-house. Wealthy men add more huts to their premises, but seldom attempt at any innovation in the architecture of the country.

On the condition of the people (Northern division of Coimbatore).—The cultivators and peasantry continue exactly in the same dress, and same houses, that they used in Tippoo's government, and have a prejudice against changes. Major Macleod thinks that their women are beginning to wear more gold and silver ornaments than they formerly did. The merchants and manufacturers are evidently improving in their manner of living, are forsaking their pyramidal or conical huts, and are erecting tiled houses. To enable them to do this, Government, without charging interest, advances money which is repaid by instalments.

On the poverty of the peasantry (Dhárápuram, Coimbatore district).—Mr. Hurdis thinks that the present rents are greatly too high; and no doubt, the peasantry here, as well as in almost every part of India, are miserably poor. I am inclined to think, however, that other causes contribute more to this than the greatness of the rents. Mr. Hurdis says that all the land which is not cultivated is by no means unlet (*Tirsi*); but owing to the want of rain and of stock, the farmers are not able to cultivate the whole of what they rent. This, in my opinion, shows that the fields are by no means over-

assessed; and that the farmers, if they would not grasp at more than they have stock to manage, might be in a much more comfortable situation. One great cause indeed of the poverty of the farmers, and consequent poverty of crops in many parts of India, is the custom of forcing land upon people who have no means of cultivating it. Thus all the lands are apparently occupied; but it is in a manner that is worse than if one-half of them were entirely waste. I believe every intelligent farmer in England will say that one acre fully improved will give more profit than two that are half cultivated.

On servants employed in agriculture (Dhárápuram).—The servants employed here in agriculture are hired in the beginning of the year for twelve months. They may change their service when their term expires if they be not in their master's debt; but as he generally advances money for their marriages and other ceremonies, they are seldom at liberty to go away. They get twenty *bullas* of rough rice (*paddy*) a month with four *fanams* and one *siliga* of rough rice yearly, and their master pays their house-rents. The whole is about 31 bushels of rough rice, of which one-half is husk, with two shillings in money, besides the house-rent which will not exceed one or two shillings a year. These servants generally have one wife, who at seed time and harvest works for the master for daily wages. A woman's daily wages are four *puddies* of grain worth about nine-tenths of a penny. A man gets six *puddies* of grain. A servant with these wages can once or twice a month procure a little animal food. Milk is too expensive. His common diet consists of some boiled grain, with a little salt and capsicum, and perhaps some pickles. His drink is the water in which the grain was boiled. He has very little clothing, and that little is extremely dirty; his house is a hovel, and he is commonly overrun with vermin and cutaneous disorders. The women, although not clean, are fully clothed.

On servants and price of labour (Polláchi, Coimbatore).—There are here two kinds of servants employed by the farmers to cultivate the lands; they are called *padiyals* and *pungals*. The *padiyals* receive yearly 3 *podis* of grain (29 bushels), worth 48 *Vir'-Raya fanams*, with 10 *fanams* in money, and a house. The 58 *fanams* are equal to £1 8s. 9½d. The wife and children of the *padiyal* are paid for whatever work they perform. He is hired by the year; but if he contracts a debt with his master, he cannot quit the service till that be discharged.

The *pungals* go to a rich farmer, and for a share of the crop undertake to cultivate his lands. He advances the cattle, implements, seed, and money or grain that is necessary for the subsistence of the *pungals*. He also gives each family a house. He takes no share in the labour which is all performed by the *pungals*, and their wives and children; but he pays the rent out of his share on the division of the crop, which takes place when that is ripe. If a farmer employs six *pungals* to cultivate his land, the produce is divided into 15 portions, which are distributed as follow:—

To the farmer, or punnadi, for rent, seed, &c.	...	6
To do. do. for profit	1
To do. do. for interest of money advanced	...	2
To the <i>pungals</i> or laborers	6
		15 portions.

Out of their portions the pungals must repay the farmer the money which he has advanced for their subsistence. The farmers prefer employing padiyals, when they can be procured; but among the laborers the condition of the pungals is considered as preferable to that of the padiyals. Six-fifteenths of the whole produce is indeed a very large allowance for the manual labour bestowed on any land, and as the farmer can afford to give it, the rents must be moderate.

Pdighat, Churmars, or Slaves.—By far the greater part of the labour in the field is performed by slaves or churmars. These are the absolute property of their devarus, or lords, and may be employed on any work that their masters please. They are not attached to the soil, but may be sold or transferred in any manner that the master thinks fit; only a husband and wife cannot be sold separately, but children may be separated from their parents, and brothers from their sisters. The slaves are of different castes, such as Parriar, Vullam, Canacun, Erilay, &c., and the differences in the customs by which the marriages of these castes are regulated occasion a considerable variation in the right of the master to the children of his slaves according to the caste to which they belong. The master is considered as bound to give the slave a certain allowance of provisions: a man or woman, while capable of labour, receives two edangallies of rice in the husk weekly, or two-sevenths of the allowance that I consider as reasonable for persons of all ages included. Children and old persons past labour get one-half only of this pittance, and no allowance whatever is made for infants. This would be totally inadequate to support them; but the slaves on each estate get one-twenty first part of the gross produce of the rice in order to encourage them to care and industry. A male slave annually gets 7 cubits of cloth, and a woman 14 cubits. They erect for themselves small temporary huts that are little better than large baskets. These are placed in the rice-fields while the crop is on the ground, and near the stacks while it is thrashing.

There are three modes of transferring the usufruct of slaves. The first is by jennum, or sale, where the full value of the slave is given, and the property is entirely transferred to a new master, who is, in some measure, bound by his interest to attend to the welfare of his slave. A young man with his wife will sell for from 250 to 300 fanams, or from £6 4s. 1½d. to £7 8s. 11¼d. Two or three young children will add 100 fanams, or £2 9s. 7½d. to the value of the family. Four or five children, two of whom are beginning to work, will make the family worth from 500 to 600 fanams or from £12 8s. 3d. to £14 17s. 11d. The second manner of transferring the labour of slaves is by kanom or mortgage. The proprietor receives a loan of money, generally two-thirds of the value of the slaves; he also receives annually a small quantity of rice, to show that his property in the slaves still exists; and he may reassume this property whenever he pleases to repay the money borrowed, for which in the meanwhile he pays no interest. In case of any of the slaves dying, he is held bound to supply another of equal value. The lender maintains the slaves and has their labour for the interest of his money and for their support. The third manner of employing slaves is by letting them for patom, or rent. In this case, for a certain annual sum, the

master gives them to another man; and the borrower commands their labour and provides them with their maintenance. The annual hire is 8 fanams (3s. 11½d.) for a man and half as much for a woman. These two tenures are utterly abominable; for the person who exacts the labour and furnishes the subsistence of the slave is directly interested to increase the former and diminish the latter as much as possible. In fact, the slaves are very severely treated, and their diminutive stature and squalid appearance show evidently a want of adequate nourishment. There can be no comparison between their condition and that of the slaves in the West India islands, except that in Malabar there are a sufficient number of females who are allowed to marry any person of the same caste with themselves, and whose labour is always exacted by their husband's master, the master of the girl having no authority over her so long as she lives with another man's slave.

Manapuram, Malabar.—At Manapuram a slave, when 30 years old, costs about 100 fanams, or £2 14s. 7d.; with a wife he costs double. Children sell at from 15 to 40 fanams, or from 8s. 2½d. to 21s. 10d. A working slave gets daily three-tenths of a poray of rough rice, or about 86½ bushels a year. He also gets annually 1 fanam for oil and 1½ fanams for cloth, which is just sufficient to wrap round his waist. If he be active, he gets cloth worth 2 fanams, and at harvest time from 5 to 6 porays of rough rice. Old people and children get from one to two-thirds of the above allowance, according to the work which they can perform.

Támracheri, northern division of Malabar.—The daily allowance here established for slaves is of rough rice—

	Cubical inches.	Bushels
To able-bodied men, 6 nallis heaped	= 148½	yearly 25½
To able-bodied women, 6 nallis streaked	= 103½	„ 17½
To old persons and children— 3 nallis heaped	= 74½	„ 12¾

The average, allowing one child and one old person to every two men and two women in the prime of age, will be 18¾ bushels, of which one-half is husk. When the scarcity that usually happens every year prevails, they get part of their allowance in yams (*Dioscoreas*), jacks (*Artocarpus*) or plantains (*Musa*). When harvest is over, they receive each, according to their activity, a present of 3 or 4 porays of rough rice, or from 1 to 1¾ bushels, which will make the annual average about 9½ bushels of rice. Their masters give them also some salt, oil and pepper, and they are allowed to keep fowls. Each person has annually three pieces of cloth. The slaves say, what indeed cannot be doubted, that they are much better used by their own masters than when they are let out on mortgage (kanom) or hire (patom).

Tellicherry, Malabar.—The farmers (cudians), whether cultivating rice ground or plantations, according to Mr. Rodriguez, live very poorly, although they get almost four-fifths of the grain, and at least

one-third of the produce of the taxable trees. They mostly labour with their own hands, there being few slaves. The hired servants, who are chiefly Tiars, work only from half-past six in the morning until noon, and get as daily wages $2\frac{1}{2}$ edangallies of rough rice. All the afternoon they labour for themselves. The edangally containing 108 cubical inches, a man by half-a-day's work, allowing one-seventh of his time for holidays, can gain $39\frac{1}{2}$ bushels of grain. Although the cadians may therefore live in a very inferior condition to an English farmer, it is impossible that they should live scantily; while a day laborer by working only half of the day can procure so much grain.

Cherikal, Malabar.—In Cherikal and Cotay-hutty there are slaves, chiefly of the Poliar and Pariar castes; but the greater part of the cultivation is carried on by panicar or hired men, who are Nairs, Moplahs and Tiars. These panicars are at liberty to change their service whenever they please, unless they be indebted to their master; and about one-half of them are in that state. They work from morning to noon, when they are allowed an hour for breakfast. They then work until evening, and all night they watch the crops. The master gives the servant a hut, a piece of cloth twice a year, from 6 to 12 silver fanams ($27\frac{1}{2}$ to 55 pence) annually for oil and salt, and a daily allowance of rice, which is larger than that given to the slaves. When the servant is in debt, stoppages from this allowance are made. The panicars are frequently flogged; and as their masters are not bound to provide for them in old age, or during famine, they seem to be in a worse condition than the slaves. Their wives and children, if they do any work for their master, get wages.

Mangalore, South Canara.—The cultivation is chiefly carried on by cullialu or hired servants; but there are also some muladalu, bought men or slaves. A hired man gets daily 2 hanies of clean rice or annually $21\frac{1}{2}$ bushels, together with $1\frac{1}{2}$ rupee's worth of cloth, a pagoda in cash, and a house. A hired woman gets $1\frac{1}{2}$ rupees for cloth, and three-fourths of the man's allowance of grain. In the planting season the woman hired by the day gets 2 hanies of rice, or $128\frac{1}{2}$ cubical inches. These wages are very high, and may enable the hired servants to keep a family in the greatest abundance. It is evident from this that the stock required to cultivate eight morays of land was excessively exaggerated by the proprietors. The wages in grain alone would amount to $156\frac{1}{2}$ morays of rice for 8 morays sowing, so that to pay even then would require at least 40 seeds. We may safely allow 6 morays for each plough fully wrought; but the number of ploughs in the whole district amounts to rather less than 1 to 3 morays of rice ground in actual cultivation according to the revenue accounts, owing, probably, to a want of cattle and other stock. At the end of the year, the hired servant may change his service, if he be free from debt; but that is seldom the case. When he gets deeply involved, his master may sell his sister's children to discharge the amount, and his services may be transferred to any other man who chooses to take him and pay his debts to his master. In fact, he differs little from a slave, only his allowance is larger, but then the master is not obliged to provide for him in sickness or in old age.

A male slave is allowed daily $1\frac{1}{2}$ hany of rice, or three-fourths of the allowance of a hired servant; a woman receives 1 hany. The man gets $1\frac{1}{2}$ rupee's worth of cloth and 2 rupees in cash; the woman is allowed only the cloth. They receive also a trifling allowance of oil, salt, and other seasonings. A small allowance is given to children and old people. When a slave wishes to marry, he receives 5 pagodas (2 guineas) to defray the expense. The wife works with the husband's master. On the husband's death, if the wife was a slave, all the children belong to her mother's master; but, if she was formerly free, she and all her children belong to her husband's master. A good slave sells for 10 pagodas, or about 4 guineas. If he has a wife who was formerly free and two or three children, the value is doubled. The slave may be hired out, and the renter both exacts his labor and finds him subsistence. Slaves are also mortgaged; but the mortgagor is not obliged to supply the place of a slave that dies, and in case of accidents the debt becomes extinguished, which is an excellent regulation. Free men of low caste, if they are in debt or trouble, sometimes sell their sisters' children, who are their heirs. They have no authority over their own children who belong to their maternal uncles.

Honavar, in Canara.—In the farms of the Brahmans most of the labor is performed by slaves. These people get daily $1\frac{1}{2}$ hany of rice; a woman receives 1 hany. Each gets yearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ rupees' worth of cloth, and they are allowed time to build a hut for themselves in the coconut garden. They have no other allowance, and out of this pittance must support their infants and aged people. The woman's share is nearly 15 bushels a year, worth rather less than $14\frac{1}{2}$ rupees; to this if we add her allowance for cloths, she gets $16\frac{2}{3}$ rupees a year, equal to £1 16s. $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. The man's allowance is $22\frac{1}{2}$ bushels, or $23\frac{2}{3}$ rupees, or £2 3s. $0\frac{1}{2}$ d. A male free servant, hired by the day, gets 2 hanies of rice; both work from seven in the morning until five in the evening; but at noon they are allowed half-an-hour to eat some victuals that are dressed in the family as part of their allowance, and every caste can eat the food which a Brahman has prepared.

Sersi, North Canara.—In this country a few slaves are kept; but most of the labor, even in the grounds of the Brahmans, is performed by the proprietors, or hired servants. The Haiga Brahmans toil on their own ground at every kind of labor, but they never work for hire. The hired servants seldom receive any money in advance, and consequently at the end of the year are free to go away. No warning is necessary, either on the part of the master or of the servants. These eat three times a day in their master's house, and get annually one blanket, one handkerchief, and in money 6 pagodas, or 24 rupees, or £2 8s. $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. Their wives are hired by the day and get $1\frac{1}{2}$ seers of rough rice and 3 dudus, of which $49\frac{1}{2}$ are equal to 1 rupee. In so poor a country these wages are very high. A male slave gets daily 2 pukka seers of rough rice, with annually one blanket, one handkerchief, a piece of cotton cloth, and some oil, tamarinds, and capsicum. He gets no money, except at marriages; but these cost 16 pagodas, or £6 8s. $11\frac{1}{2}$ d., for, the woman must be purchased. She and all her children of course become the property of her husband's master. The woman-slave gets daily $1\frac{2}{3}$ seers of rough rice, a blanket and annually

a piece of cotton cloth, and a jacket. Children and old people get some ready-dressed victuals at the house of the master, and are also allowed some clothing. The men work from sunrise till sunset, and at noon are allowed one Hindu hour, or about 24 minutes, for dinner. The women are allowed till about 8 o'clock in the morning to prepare the dinner, which they then carry to the fields and continue to work there with the men until sunset.

Soonda, in Canara.—A farmer who has five ploughs is esteemed a rich man. With these he must keep 6 men and 6 women and 10 laboring cattle, and at seed-time and harvest he must hire additional laborers. Farmers who are not Brahmans, unless their farms be large, work the whole with their own families; but rich men must hire servants, or keep slaves, and to hold their plough Brahmans must always have people of the low castes. This is a kind of work that even a Haiga Brahman will not perform.

A man-slave gets daily 2 seers of rough rice, or yearly about 26 bushels, worth £1 2s. 0½d., a handkerchief, a blanket and a piece of cloth worth 2 rupees (4s. 0½d.), a pagoda in money (8s. 0¾d.), 6 candacas of rough rice at harvest (14s. 6d.); total £2 8s. 7½d. The women get one piece of cloth annually, and a meal of ready-dressed victuals on the days that they work, which may amount annually to 8s. 1d. Hired men get four seers of rough rice a day, worth less than three half-pence.

Nagara.—Most of the cultivation is carried on by the families of the cultivators; there are very few hired servants, but a good many slaves, by whom, on the farms of the Brahmans, all the ploughing is performed. A slave gets annually 1½ rupees for a blanket, 3 rupees' worth of cotton cloth, quarter rupee for a handkerchief, 6 candacas of rough rice worth 4 rupees to procure salt, tamarinds, &c., and daily 1½ colaga of rough rice, or annually 27½ candacas (or almost 49 bushels) worth £1 16s. 11¾d.; add the annual allowances 17s. 7¼d., the total expenses of maintaining a male slave one year is £2 14s. 7¼d. A woman-slave gets as follows: 365 colagas of rough rice, one daily, and 3 candacas at harvest, in all 21½ candacas or 36½ bushels, worth 14½ rupees; 2 rupees' worth of cloth, and quarter rupee for a jacket, in all nearly 16½ rupees or £1 13s. 2d. The marriage of a slave costs 10 pagodas, or about 4 guineas. The wife belongs to the husband's master. A master cannot hinder his slave girl from marrying the slave of another man, nor does he get any price for her. The widow and children, after a slave's death, continue with his master. If a slave has no children by his first wife, he is allowed to take another.

Harihar.—The greater number of the farmers here have only one plough each; but all such as have not more than three ploughs are reckoned poor men, and are in general obliged to borrow money to pay the rent, and to carry on the expenses of cultivation. The crop is a security to the lender, who is repaid in produce at a low valuation. Farmers who have 4, 5, or 6 ploughs are able to manage without borrowing, and live in ease. Those who have more stock are reckoned rich men. Each plough requires one man and two oxen, and can cultivate two mars of land, or about 17 acres: In seed-time and

harvest, some additional laborers must be hired. All the farmers, and their children, even those who are richest, Brahmans excepted, work with their own hands, and only hire so many additional people as are necessary to employ their stock of cattle. A servant's wages are from 6 to 9 jimshiry pagodas a year, together with a blanket and a pair of shoes. The jimshiry pagoda is four dudus worse than that of Ikeri, which is rather less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The wages are therefore from £2 7s. 10d. to £3. 11s. 9d. Out of this they find everything but the shoes and blanket. Men laborers get daily half a fanam or $3\frac{1}{2}d.$, and women receive one-half of this hire, which is seldom paid in money, but is given in jola at the market price. The man's wages purchase daily about a quarter of bushel. The people here work from eight in the morning until sunset, and in the middle of the day are allowed 24 minutes to rest and eat. The cattle work from eight in the morning until noon. They are then fed for an hour, and work until about 5 o'clock.

Heriuru (Mysore).—At Heriuru there are no slaves. Most of the labor is performed by the families of the tenants; but a few hire men-servants by the year, and in seed-time and harvest employ women by the week. A man gets from 50 to 70 fanams a year, or from £1 11s. $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ to £2 3s. $8\frac{1}{2}d.$ This is paid entirely in money, without addition, except that for himself and family he generally obtains room in his master's house. Women get 1 fanam, or $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ a week. Advances to servants are not common, and of course they are entirely free.

The hours of labor in this country are from eight in the morning until noon, and from 2 o'clock till sunset; in all, about eight hours. The laborers get up about sunrise; but an hour is spent in ablutions, prayer, marking their faces with consecrated ashes or clay, and in eating their breakfast. They eat three times a day, their principal meal being at noon.

Bailuru (Mysore).—In the Malayar there are no slaves. Most of the labor is carried on by the farmers and their own families. Servants are hired by the year, month, or day. A man's wages, when hired by the year, are annually 3 pagodas, a pair of sandals, a blanket, and daily a meal of ready-dressed rice, worth altogether about 5 pagodas, or about £2. He eats another time daily, but this is at his own expense. A servant hired by the month gets half a pagoda, or about 4 shillings, without any addition. The daily hire is one-third of a Canterroy fanam or $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ Hired servants work from eight in the morning until six in the afternoon; but half an hour's intermission is granted to give them time to eat some ready-prepared victuals.

Cancanhully (Mysore).—Most of the cultivation is performed by the hands of the farmers and of their own families. A few hired servants, but no slaves, are employed. A man-servant gets annually of ragi 4 candacas of 200 seers of 72 inches, or nearly $26\frac{1}{2}$ bushels, worth at an average 28 fanams, with 12 fanams in money. In all, he receives 40 fanams, or £1 4s. $11\frac{1}{2}d.$ The hours of work are from $6\frac{1}{2}$ in the morning until noon, and from two in the afternoon until sunset. The number of holidays allowed is very small; but the servant occasionally gets four or five days to repair his house. At seed-time

and harvest, a day-laborer gets from one-third to one-fourth of a fanam, or from $2\frac{1}{2}d.$, to rather more than $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day. Women get daily from one-fourth to one-fifth of a fanam or about $1\frac{1}{2}d.$

Killamangalam, Salem District.—Most of the labor is performed by the farmers and their own families. A few rich men hire yearly servants; and at seed-time and harvest additional daily laborers must be procured. There are no slaves. A ploughman gets annually $3\frac{1}{2}$ candacas of ragi (20 bushels), worth 28 fanams, with a hut and 16 fanams in money. His wages, beside a hut, are therefore £1 7s. $5\frac{1}{2}d.$ The additional expense attending a plough is $3\frac{1}{2}$ fanams for implements, and 2 seeds for the hire of day-laborers, or one candaca of grain, worth 8 fanams, for what the plough will cultivate; in all $55\frac{1}{2}$ fanams. Add 30 fanams for the rent of the dry field, and we have $85\frac{1}{2}$ fanams of expense, besides the interest of the value of the two oxen, which, however, is a mere trifle. In an ordinary year, the produce, after deducting the seed and the Government's share of rice with the stoppages for village officers, according to the farmers, will be —

	Fanams.
Ragi 45 colagas, worth ..	22
Avaray 19 colagas	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Rice, Hainu crop, 85 colagas ...	35
Rice, Caru crop, 57 $\frac{1}{2}$ colagas	23
	90 $\frac{1}{2}$

This amounts to just about the expense; but I have mentioned that the produce of the dry grains is in this account underrated by at least one-half, and I have not brought into the account the half produce of the 5 colagas which the farmers are compelled to cultivate, and which costs little or no additional expense.

The farmers in general consent to advance money to their servants for marriages and other ceremonies. This money is repaid by instalments out of the wages that are given in cash; for the people here are not anxious to keep their servants in bondage by a debt hanging over them. A day-laborer, whether man or woman, gets daily one-eighth colaga of rough rice or $\frac{3\frac{5}{8}}{1000}$ parts of a bushel. Of this, it must be observed, one-half is composed of husk.

The following is an account of the wages now (1891) prevailing at the places visited by Dr. Buchanan in 1800:—

Bhavdni.—The rates of wages of the agricultural laborers have not much altered since the beginning of the century. There are no slaves now. The wages of the agricultural laborers, who are termed *padiyals* and *panimals*, are 20 *bullahs* in kind per month and from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 in money. Their wives get wages as other ordinary laborers.

Day-laborers at harvest, whether men or women, get one to one and-a-half bullah of grain according to season and demand. For weeding, transplanting and planting, the laborers are paid from half to three-fourths of a bullah. A laborer working in the field with a hatchet or carrying earth or manure is paid one bullah in kind or As. 2 in cash.

A porter taking a load is paid one bullah of grain or As. 2 for a whole day.

Dhárápúram, Coimbatore District.—Agricultural labourers are hired in the beginning of Chithirai (April) for a year. They change their service when their term expires. They seldom borrow from their masters, but when they do, they repay the loan at the end of their term by the sale-proceeds of their cattle. A male labourer gets 20 *bullahs* of paddy for labour on wet lands in towns, and 16 *bullahs* of dry grain in husk for labour on dry lands in villages as his monthly wages. A labourer on wet lands gets also annually a *salagay* of paddy with a present of one or one and-a-half rupees or cloths of equivalent value for approved service. Where the labourer does not own a house in the village in which he is employed, the master provides for him a thatched hut to live in, to be surrendered to the employer on the termination of the period of service. The labourer's wife works in the master's fields at seed-time and harvest and elsewhere at other times. A woman's daily wages are one *bullah* of dry grain in husk worth about one anna. For reaping, a man gets 6 puddies and a woman 5 puddies a day.

The labourer's diet consists of boiled grain and soup prepared of moohai or avarai (beans) with coriander and capsicum ground into a paste mixed with salt. A rag is his clothing and hut his home. The labourers are strong and hardy and are not overrun with vermin and outaneous disorders as a class. The women, although untidy, are fully clothed.

Polláchi.—There are now two kinds of servants, called padiyals, employed by the farmer to cultivate the lands, and pungals. The padiyals are engaged for a year, the year running from Chittirai to Chittirai (April) in some places and 'lhai to Thai (January) in others. The padiyals invariably receive an advance of money varying from Rs. 10 to Rs. 30, which they have to repay on quitting the master's service. The advance is taken by the padiyals out of necessity and partly in order that they might have a hold on their employers against summary dismissal of their services at the pleasure of the masters. The padiyals are paid monthly in kind. Persons between 12 and 18 years of age are paid from 12 to 16 *bullahs* of grain according to age and nature and efficiency of work. Those over 20 years of age receive 18 *bullahs*. Besides the wages in grain, each padiyal is provided with a cumbli or As. 8 to Rs. 1-8-0 for the purchase of one. He is also supplied with 2 pairs of slippers. The wife and children of the padiyal are paid for whatever work they perform, the wages of a female for transplanting being 8 pies or one bullah of grain. If the padiyals leave their masters' service before the expiry of the term of their service, the masters seize their cattle and sell them and recoup themselves for the money advanced to the laborers. If, on the other hand, the masters dispense with the services of the padiyals, they cannot recover the loans before the full year of engagement expires.

The pungal goes to a rich farmer and for a share of the crop undertakes to cultivate his lands. The farmer advances the cattle, implements, seed and money or grain that is necessary for the subsistence of the pungal. He also gives each family a house. He takes no share in the labour, which is all performed by the pungal and his wife

and children, but he pays the rent out of his share on the division of the crop which takes place when that is ripe. If a farmer employs a *pungal* to cultivate his lands, the produce is divided into two equal portions, one-half going to the share of the farmer as *nilavaram*. Of the remaining half, *i.e.*, *yearivaram*, in proportion to the number of ploughs owned by the farmer and *pungal*, the shares are divided at the rate of a share for each plough. For example, if the farmer owns three ploughs and the *pungal* one plough, half the produce above referred to (*yearivaram*) will be divided into 4 portions, 3 going to the share of the farmer and the remaining one to the latter. Every *pungal* should contribute a plough or two or else he will not be considered as such, but will be treated as a mere *padyal*. The *pungal* should pay from his share of the produce to the farmer the money which he received for his subsistence. The farmers are better off with *pungals* than with *padyals*, the greater portion of the responsibility is shoved on the *pungals*, who have equal, if not better, interest in the cultivation of the land. The farmer has therefore less anxiety and greater profit when he employs a *pungal* than when he employs a *padyal*.

Pálghat, Malabar District.—The greater part of the labour on the field is performed by *churmars*. Persons of other castes are also engaged for the labour when necessity arises on payment of higher wages. The *churmars*, who were once slaves, are now ordinary coolies. The tenants and landlords have now no absolute control over them, nor do they maintain the *churmars* when their services are not required. The *churmars* are at perfect liberty to proceed wherever they choose and obtain subsistence. They receive 2 *parahs* of paddy and two pieces of cloth a year so long as they remain in the service of their masters. They also obtain some pecuniary and other assistance when a marriage, death or other contingency occurs in their families. The daily wages of a *churmar*, both male and female, are 2 *edangallies* of paddy and one *edangally* for a boy or girl. The daily wages of labourers other than *churmars* are 4 *edangallies* for males, 3 for females, and 1½ for boys and girls.

Támrachéri, Malabar District—The daily wages paid in grain to agricultural labourers in 1891 were much the same as those paid in 1800. The rates generally given are—

	CUB IN.
To able-bodied men, 1½ <i>dangallis</i> of paddy or 6 <i>nallis</i> heaped	148½
To able-bodied women, 1½ <i>dangallis</i> of paddy or 6 <i>nallis</i> streaked	103½
To old persons and children, of paddy, 3 <i>nallis</i> heaped	74½

They get a present of 3 *parahs* of paddy during the harvest and 3 or 4 pieces of cloth. In times of scarcity, which generally happens in the months of July and August, their masters give them *yams*, *jacks*, *plantains*, &c. This year when there was a general failure of *jacks*, *yams*, &c., the starving populace were driven to the necessity of extracting aliment from *fan-palm* and *date-palm* and subsisting upon the cakes formed out of the juice obtained. The rates above given are higher than the rates given for the labourers who receive advances

of money and are required to work out the advance by contributing manual labour.

Tellicherry, Malabar District.—The cudians, *i.e.*, tenants, are now worse off than in 1800. They get at the most only one-half of the produce of paddy fields they lease out, and as for plantations, if the trees have not been paid (*kuyikanom*) price by the jenmies, the tenants get two-thirds of their produce; in other cases they scarcely get one-third, the rest being appropriated by their jenmies. All tenants, whether of paddy flats or of *parambas*, have the same complaint to make, that they gain little or no profit from tilling or holding lands and *parambas* under the tenures now obtaining in Malabar.

These tenants are mostly workmen themselves; and all able-bodied men and women of their household work in and for the interest of the farm. But if at all any extra labour is wanted, they hire other men and women at the usual rates of wages. The tenants do not now possess slaves, though it cannot be denied that in remote parts *prædial* slaves are covertly leased out with the farms. The hired servants are chiefly *Tiars*, *Nairs*, *Moplahs* and *Polayars* (who were slaves in 1800). *Polayars* are hired as day-laborers. The working hours are now, as in 1800, almost the same, *viz.*, 7 A.M. to 1 P.M., but the rates of wages are now only 2 *edangallies* of paddy against 2½ in 1800. All the afternoon the tenants work for themselves.

The *edangally* in North Malabar, familiarly known as *McLeod's beer*, contains—

					cuB. IN.
In Cherakal	100·34
In Kóttayam	97·75
In Kurumbranad	97·75

The total earnings, at the present rates, of a day-labourer in Malabar for a whole year may be taken at 626 *dangallis* of paddy, or Rs. 37½ in money at the present market rates. This gives Rs. 3-2-0 a month for a labourer working half a day.

Cherakal, Malabar District.—The following castes were once slaves in this taluk: (1) *Polayars*, in the plains near the sea coast and (2) *Maviloms*, (3) *Karimbalans* and (4) *Vettuvvars* on the hills. There are now no slaves in the sense that their women and children are not now openly sold, mortgaged or leased with the lands to which they are attached. But the master or *jenmi* takes particular care that they are not taught to read and write. In remote parts they are even now covertly sold, mortgaged and leased with the lands by word of mouth. In such parts the old allowances are still paid to them, *viz.*, a hut, two pieces of cloth annually and the daily allowance of rice or paddy. The annual money allowance for oil and salt is not now given.

The *paniours* or agricultural labourers are generally *Nairs*, *Moplahs* and *Tiars*. Though the master does not now give the servant a hut to live in, yet many have become *kuyikanom* tenants of the former. They are not bound to render gratuitous service to their masters. For all work done to the masters, they are paid the same wages as are given to non-tenants.

In cases of indebtedness, the debts are not recovered by deductions from wages, but in due course of law. No annual presents are given to the labourers nor are they flogged on any account.

The rates generally given are—

For tilling (work done till 1 P.M.)	2	McLeod seers of paddy.
Do. (the whole day)	3	seers with breakfast.
For ploughing (work done till 12 noon).	1½	seers of paddy.
For weeding (women) whole day.	1½	nalis or ¾ seers of rice.
For reaping (women)	..	10 sheaves for every 100 sheaves brought to the threshing ground.
For turning up parambas (till 1 P.M.).	As. 2-6	in money or 2 seers of paddy.
Cooly work (full day) in urban parts.	As. 4	with 6 pies extra for noon-meal if the latter is not supplied by the employer.

(C.)—*Abstract of the Proceedings of the Board of Revenue, dated 25th November 1819, on the subject of agricultural slavery.*

Salem.—There was no vestige whatever of slavery in the district nor had any such practice obtained from the time the district came into the possession of the Company.

Madura and Dindigul.—Slavery had existed during the Muhamadan Government and the slaves were sold at the pleasure of their masters. Since the assumption of the country by the Company, some slaves had continued with their masters; others had left them and even enlisted as sepoy. The Collector could not discover that any Pullan had sold himself as a slave. Indeed slavery seemed gradually disappearing.

Ooimbatore.—Slavery existed in the district in but a very few villages and the number of slaves was always inconsiderable.

Tanjore.—Slavery existed in the district, but it was founded in the first instance upon a voluntary contract. The condition of the slaves differed very little from that of the common labourers, and the treatment of both was nearly the same. The system of slaves attached to the soil and transferable by purchase, as appendage to the land, did not obtain in the district.

Tinnevelly.—Slavery existed in the district. It was usual for slaves to be sold or mortgaged, either with the land or separately, at the pleasure of the proprietor. The slaves were afforded subsistence on the lowest scale of allowance, being generally no more than 2 measures of paddy a day on working days. They were also entitled at the time of harvest to a small deduction from the gross produce, which generally amounted to 2½ per cent. It was usual for the masters to assist the slaves with necessary funeral expenses, and to grant them presents on occasions of marriages, births and festivities.

South Arcot.—The system of slavery founded in the first instance on contract existed in the district, the number of slaves amounting to 17,000. The owners were required to provide the slaves with food and clothing, and to defray their wedding expenses and to assist them with presents on the occasion of births of children and to defray funeral charges. The food given was always sufficient for subsistence, but the clothing was very scanty. The owners were bound to protect the slaves in sickness and old age.

Ohingleput.—The system of slavery, originally founded on contract, existed in the district. The slaves were given a certain prescribed grain allowance and a proportionate subsistence for each of their children or others of the family. They were also housed and clothed and during the principal festivals certain other allowances were made to them both in money and in articles requisite for their ceremonies; their marriages were also performed at the charge of their masters and when reduced by infirmity they were also supported by their proprietors. The condition of this description of people, composing the chief part of the Pariahs of the district, had, of late, considerably changed, in consequence of the vicinity of the town of Madras where many of them obtained employment and their proprietors found it difficult to reclaim them.

Trichinopoly.—Slavery existed in the district, the number of slaves amounting to 10,600. They were usually sold with the land and sometimes mortgaged. They were supposed to be entirely supported by their masters in sickness and in health. Their marriages were made at the expense of the mirasidars and the expenses of their funerals were also defrayed by them. The slaves enjoyed some little gratuity at every birth and received a certain established sum at the principal Hindu festivals. A list of the yearly emoluments which a slave was properly entitled to receive is noted below. They were not treated harshly.

The quantity of land to be cultivated by a slave is an extent capable of yielding 150 kalams of paddy.

		Kalams	Gifts.
Varam of a Pullen	8 5 $\frac{3}{8}$	
Do. Pulliohi	6 6 $\frac{3}{8}$	
		<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	
		15 $\frac{1}{8}$	
Batta for ploughing	2 0	4
Swatuntrums for sowing	...	0 6	.
Reaping share at 5 per cent.	...	7 6	...
Thrashing	1 0	...
Pongal feast	1 0	...
Deepavali	$\frac{1}{8}$
Gramadavata	1 $\frac{1}{8}$
		<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	
Total annual	26 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{3}{8}$ fanams.
For a marriage	4 0	8 0 rupees.
Do. birth	0 2	2 fanams.
Do. death	0 2	2 do.
		<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	
Total	30 4 $\frac{1}{8}$	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> Rs. 9 1 $\frac{3}{8}$ fanams.

Canara.—Slavery existed in the district, the number of slaves amounting to 82,000. The right of sale was the master's exclusive privilege, with or without the land. The slaves could also be let on hire. They were fed and clothed by their masters, who also presented them with a small sum of money on their marriages or on occasions of particular ceremonies. The average quantity of food and clothing given was—

	Food.	Clothing
For a man—		
	1½ Canara seer of coarse rice, 2 rupees' weight of salt, a little betel-nut and leaf.	2 pieces of canthy, 6 cubits in some taluks, a cumbli and a roomal.
For a woman—		
	1 seer	1 piece of cloth, 7 cubits.
For a child—		
	¾ seer	1 piece of cloth, 4 cubits.

The slaves were not cruelly treated.

Malabar.—There were slaves in the district numbering 100,000. They were frequently transferred by sale, mortgage or hire. The measure of subsistence to be given by the proprietor was fixed, and he was bound by the prescribed customs of the country to see it served out to the slaves daily. The slaves were in more comfortable circumstances than any of the lower and poorer class of natives.

(D.)—*Extracts from the Report of the Commissioners for the investigation of alleged cases of Torture in the Madras Presidency, 1855.*

Many a witness has declared to us that the people would be satisfied if the demands of the Revenue Officers were restricted to the just Government dues; we entertain no doubt but that the extortion, of what are erroneously termed "Bribes," is universal, and that when payment cannot be obtained by fair means, foul will be resorted to. Then is brought into play all that perfect but silent machinery which combines the forces of Revenue demands and Police authority; the most ingenious artifices which the subtlety of the native mind can invent are had recourse to; and it seems highly probable to us that it is a common practice with the native officers to give their own illicit demands precedence, when pecuniary means being more plentiful or easily procurable, the process of extraction is more readily complied with, under hopes and promises of future services, perhaps that of assisting in cheating Government among others, expressly with a view to keep the revenue demand as a *corps de reserve* to fall back upon, the practice of oppression and violence to extract that, being not so apparent an injustice in the eyes of the people as the application of the same measures for mere private personal purposes.¹

¹ Mr Forbes, Collector of Tanjore, writes as follows—"The people of India draw a wide distinction between oppressive acts practised with a personal motive, and those, which, however erroneously, they connect with a public duty. they will make complaint upon complaint and appeal upon appeal for the redress of a private wrong, when they will at the same time tacitly submit to a greater injury received in a public act: the motive of the one they see to be personal, and attach no personal motive to the other."

We have instances of torture being freely practised in every relation of domestic life. Servants are thus treated by their masters and fellow servants; children by their parents and schoolmasters for the most trifling offences; the very plays of the populace (and the point of a rude people's drama is its satire) excite the laughter of many a rural audience by the exhibition of revenue squeezed out of a defaulter coin by coin through the appliance of familiar "provocatives" under the superintendence of a caricatured Tahsildar; it seems a "time-honored" institution, and we cannot be astonished if the practice is still widely prevalent among the ignorant uneducated class of native public servants.

* * * *

Among the principal tortures in vogue in Police cases we find the following: twisting a rope tightly round the entire arm or leg so as to impede circulation; lifting up by the moustache; suspending by the arms while tied behind the back; searing with hot iron; placing scratching insects such as the carpenter beetle, on the navel, scrotum and other sensitive parts; dipping in wells and rivers till the party is half suffocated; squeezing the testicles; beating with sticks; prevention of sleep; nipping the flesh with pincers; putting pepper or red chillies in the eyes; these cruelties occasionally persevered in until death sooner or later ensues.

* * * *

In the course of this investigation there is one thing which has impressed us even more painfully than the conviction that torture exists; it is difficulty of obtaining redress which confronts the injured parties.

In stating this melancholy fact we are very far from seeking to cast any unfounded imputation upon either the Government or its European officers. We think that the service is entitled to the fullest credit for its disclaimer of all countenance of the cruel practices which prevail in the Revenue as well as in the Police department. We see no reason to doubt that the native officials from the highest to the lowest are well aware of the disposition of their European superiors; and although very many of the parties, who have appeared before us in reply to our inquiry why they have not made an earlier complaint, have asked what is the use of appealing to the Collector, we have seen nothing to impress us with the belief that the people at large entertain an idea that their maltreatment is countenanced or tolerated by the European officers of Government. On the contrary all they seem to desire is that the Europeans in their respective districts should themselves take up and investigate complaints brought before them. The distances which the natives will often travel at great personal loss and inconvenience to make complaints even of a very petty nature to the Collector or Sub-Collector is of itself a proof of the confidence which they place generally in those officers. The abstinence of the native officials from such practices in or near stations where Europeans, be they civilians, surgeons, commissariat or other officers, reside, and the prevalence of torture increasing in proportion as the taluk appears less exposed to European scrutiny, are strong arguments in favor of a consciousness on the part of the native officials that they cannot with impunity resort to illegal and personal violence when it admits of easy and speedy substantiation before the European authorities of the district; and the

whole cry of the people which has come up before us is to save them from the cruelties of their fellow natives, not from the effects of unkindness or indifference on the part of the European officers of Government.

What then, it may be asked, are the reasons on which we found our opinion that while the natives have confidence in their European superiors, they do not promptly seek redress at their hands in every instance of abuse of authority? They are as follows: In the first place the infliction of such descriptions of ill-treatment in the collection of the revenue as we have above specified has, in the course of centuries, come to be looked upon as "Mamool," customary, a thing of course to be submitted to as an every day unavoidable necessity.² It is generally practised probably only on the lower order of ryots, whose circumstances least permit of their making any complaints on the one hand, whilst their ignorance and timidity render them more submissive on the other; such is the native character that very often those able and ready to pay their dues will not do so unless some degree of force be resorted to. "I brought 14 rupees from my house," says a ryot, in a deposition referred to by Mr. Lushington, "but only paid 6. I brought the said money to pay, but as no violence was used towards me, I did not do so. Had I been compelled, I would have paid them."* And in all these cases, it is probable that a sense of the justness of the claim operates in their minds against seeking redress for ill-treatment, which, but for their own stubbornness, they might have avoided. The violence ordinarily used is not of such a character as to leave those marks upon the person which might be appealed to in incontestable corroboration of the truth of the sufferer's story, and we cannot abstain from reiterating our opinion that the great proportion of the acquittals and the lightness of the punishments consequent upon such cases as appear to have been substantiated to the satisfaction of the magistracy, may have had a serious effect in deterring the ryots from bringing forward more numerous complaints.

The distances which those who wish to make complaints personally to the Collector have to travel; the fear that their applications by letter if permitted to reach head-quarters unadulterated by misinterpretation will be returned with the ordinary endorsement of a reference to the Tahsildars; the expense and loss of time which a visit to, and more or less prolonged attendance upon, the Collector's office entail; the utter hopelessness, after all is said and done, of the European authorities personally investigating the case, generally speaking; the persuasion that a reference of the petition to the Tahsildar is likely to end in a nullity; the immense power wielded by the native servants in the districts and those in the Collector's office, who work together in concert to render all complaints to the superior European officials nugatory; the probability that if any trial takes place before the Tahsildar the complainant's witnesses will either be bribed and bought off or intimidated, or, if they appear, that their statements will not be

² Mr. Forbes, Collector of Tanjore, writes as follows — "The ryot will often appear at the catcherry with his full liabilities in his possession, tied up in small sums about his person, to be doled out, rupee by rupee, according to the urgency of the demand, and will sometimes return to his village having left a balance undischarged, not because he could not pay it, but simply because he was not forced to do so."

believed, or will be garbled, and an unfavourable report upon them returned to the Collector; above all perhaps, the conviction that he who seeks redress at the hands of the European is thenceforth a marked man amongst the native officials; that his whole future peace and safety are jeopardized by this attempt, and that every means of annoyance and of oppression, even to false accusations of felony, will be brought into play against him, until his own ruin and that of his family are sooner or later consummated; some or all of these circumstances unite in every case, in more or less forcible combination to render redress not only difficult, but in many instances almost impossible; at the same time it is to be remarked that the authority of the Tahsildar must be supported by his European superiors against the numerous false charges which are unsparingly preferred by the intriguing ryots.

* * * *

The character of the Native Police has been drawn by more than one writer in the reports furnished to Government.

Mr. Mackenzie writes as follows:—"I have no hesitation in stating that the so-called Police of the mofussil is little better than delusion. It is a terror to well disposed and peaceable people, none whatever to thieves and rogues, and that if it was abolished *in toto* the saving of expense to Government would be great, and property would be not a whit less secure than it now is."

Mr. Saalfelt says:—"The Police establishment has become the bane and pest of society, the terror of the community, and the origin of half the misery and discontent that exist among the subjects of Government. Corruption and bribery reign paramount throughout the whole establishment; violence, torture and cruelty are their chief instruments for detecting crime, implicating innocence or extorting money. Robberies are daily and nightly committed, and not unfrequently with their connivance. Certain suspicious characters are taken up and conveyed to some secluded spot far out of the reach of witnesses; every species of cruelty is exercised upon them; if guilty, the crime is invariably confessed and stolen property discovered; but a tempting bribe soon releases them from custody. Should they persist in avowing their innocence, relief from suffering is promised by criminating some wealthy individual, and in the agony of despair he is pointed to as the receiver of stolen goods. In his turn he is compelled to part with his hard earned coin to avert the impending danger. Even the party robbed does not escape the clutching grasp of the heartless peon and duffadar; he is threatened with being torn from his home, dragged to the cutcherry and detained there for days or weeks to the actual detriment of his trade or livelihood, unless he point out the supposed thieves. The dread of, or aversion to, the cutcherry is so great that the owner would sooner disavow the stolen article and disclaim all knowledge of the property, though his name be found written upon it in broad characters; while such is the actual state of things, and while the people entertain such a lively horror of the Police, it is not possible to expect a single victim of torture to come forward and arraign his tormentors; or to bring the charge home to any one of them after the deed has been perpetrated in some ruined fort or deep ravine situated miles away from the town or village."

* * * *

Mr. J. Mackenzie, merchant of Bimlipatam, gives the following account:—"Since the receipt of your communication, however, I have made it my duty to inquire into the subject as far as my opportunities permitted, and the result of my inquiries leads me to the conclusion that the charge has been greatly exaggerated, and that although the use of torture or coercion in the collection of the revenue cannot be denied, its practice is of very rare occurrence, and not at all of the deep and atrocious nature alleged, and I can confidently state, that it is not had recourse to in order to collect an immoderate kist, or, as some writers in the *Athenæum* assert, to screw out of the ryot, over and above his kist, a further sum for the benefit of the revenue servants. I am convinced that this charge is quite unfounded at least as regards the district of Vizagapatam. It is not in this way that the revenue servants make money. I believe I can explain when torture is made use of. There is a class of ryots known as nadars, (paupers) whom a faulty revenue system has taken out of their proper position and converted into ryots, whereas they were never intended for any other position than that of laborers or servants to Mootabar ryots. Now these nadars are compelled to undertake the cultivation of lands which the Mootabar ryots are not disposed to take up. It is unsafe to make them such advances as would give them the means of well cultivating their lands; they cannot be trusted; they are not to be made honest or respectable; their lands are consequently badly cultivated and their crops scanty, and scanty as they are, they generally endeavour to make away with them and to evade the payment of their kist, as they really live by what they can pilfer. Now it is in such cases that punishment, or, as it is called torture, is had recourse to. The Tahsildar knows that crop has been made away with, and that the ryot has the proceeds concealed on his person; he refuses to pay. What is the Tahsildar to do? Sell his property? He has no tangible property. Send him to jail to be well lodged and fed at the expense of Government? He does neither; he flogs him or coerces him in some other way, and rupee by rupee, anna by anna, drop out of unexpected places. One such case is noised about, and the example serves for a long time. This I believe to be the true statement of the torture used in this district. I need not say that it is difficult to prove. The Tahsildar takes good care that no witnesses who are likely to give evidence against him are present. No laws can eradicate it, it has been the practice of the country from time immemorial; the natives in general think it all right; the very nature of the people must first be changed."

(E.)—*The Madras Ryot by Mr. R. A. Dalryell in 1866.*

During the ten years preceding 1866, the price of all agricultural produce has nearly doubled, and that consequently the agricultural proprietor was much better off at the beginning of 1866 than he was at the beginning of 1856, and that there was a still greater improvement in his position as compared to what it had been in 1846. As nearly the whole of his outgoings, whether for food or wages, are mere deductions from the gross produce of the land as his family

subsists on the grain raised and wages are paid in the same commodity, his surplus produce has remained nearly the same in quantity during the twenty years, whereas the market value of that surplus has increased threefold, if no allowance be made for the depreciation of the value of the precious metals which has taken place during this period.

In order to the better understanding of the extraordinary improvement that has taken place in the position of the agricultural interest, it will be advisable to consider the nature of the tenures on which land is held in the Madras Presidency. As already stated, a very large proportion of the cultivated area is held direct from Government by peasant proprietors termed Government ryots. According to the statistical returns, there were no less than a million and three-quarters of these persons entered in the registers as land-holders, and their holdings are usually infinitesimally small. Only 420 paid £100 and upwards as Government land-tax, which is supposed to represent half the net produce of the land. Upwards of a million and a half paid less than Rs. 31 or £3-2-0, and of these latter, upwards of a million paid less than Rs. 10 or £1. As has been already shown, the cultivated land held by the registered ryots is about 18 million acres, the average extent of the holdings is therefore 9 acres, but if the million sub-tenants who are entered in the returns as holding under these registered ryots be taken into account, the average size of the holdings will be reduced to 6 acres, supposing, of course, that every registered ryot who sub-lets land retains an equal quantity for his own use. This minute sub-division of the land into small holdings has often been advanced as the great objection to ryotwari system of tenure, but after all it should be remembered that this objection applies equally to the zemindari system, and that, notwithstanding the difference in the value of money, only a few years back there were nearly two millions of small landed proprietors in France whose holdings in no case exceeded 5 acres; that in the present Kingdom of Prussia, out of a population of nine millions dependent on agriculture, there are upwards of two million proprietors of land, and that upwards of a million of these do not possess more than 3 acres; and that in Ireland, in 1861, there were 39,210 persons holding land less than an acre in extent as proprietors or tenants, 75,141 holding between 1 and 2 acres, and 164,000 from 5 to 15 acres. *

* * * *

Unfortunately the share of Government was generally fixed too high, and the result of this over-assessment, increased as its pressure has been by the fall in the value of produce since the settlement was made, has never allowed the system a fair trial. Various restrictive rules also led to much interference with the ryots, though they were far from being a necessary consequence of the system. These restrictions are now being removed and the reductions recently made, or in progress, and the correct survey, classification and re-assessment of the land now in contemplation, will do away with these disadvantages, and it may be expected that the superiority of a system which encourages industry and enterprise, by being based on individual proprietorship, will be more clearly evinced.

* * * *

The position of every description of landholder, whether ryot, zemindar, or inamdar, must have improved very materially during the last 15 years. So far as the first class was concerned, the fall in prices, which had taken place between the early part of the century, when the money rates of land-tax payable to Government were fixed, and the year 1850, had had such a serious effect upon their resources, that very liberal reductions were then made in the assessment of all the ryotwari lands in those districts where the rates pressed with severity upon the ryots or where they were so high as to keep land out of cultivation altogether. A special department for the re-assessment of all districts on liberal and scientific principles was also organized. The position of the Government ryot was consequently at once much improved and the steady rise in prices, which has taken place since that period, has, of course, still further benefited him, but this latter benefit has also been obtained by the holders of land on other tenures, the zemindar and the inamdar, and their respective tenants. It has been already shown that an acre of unirrigated land produces on the average 190 Madras measures, or about 5 cwt. of

1856—		Rs
Value of the produce of 6 acres of	dry land	50
Do. do.	of 2 acres of wet land ..	55
		—
		105
Deduct tax (say)	..	20
		—
		85
1866—		Rs
Value of the produce of 6 acres of	dry land ..	104
Do. do.	of 2 acres of wet land	105
		—
		209
Deduct tax (say)	..	20
		—
		189

grain, and that an acre of irrigated land produces 370 Madras measures or 10 cwt of rice. The Government ryot, therefore, who held, say, 6 acres of "dry" land and 2 acres of "wet," for which he paid, say, Rs. 20 per annum to Government as land-tax, obtained for the produce Rs. 105 in 1856 and Rs. 209 in 1866 as noted in the margin. On the other hand, the ryot holding the same extent of land under a zemindar or inamdar, after giving half the produce to his landlord, obtained in 1856 only Rs. 52-8-0, the price of 15 cwt. of dry grain and 10 cwt. of rice in 1856, and in 1866 Rs. 104-8-0,

the price of the same quantity of grain in that year, the zemindar, or inamdar, in this case, taking the balance of advantage obtained by the Government ryot. This improvement in the position of the agriculturist has manifested itself in the very large increase in the area of land under cultivation, for, whereas, even in 1856, there were less than 10 millions of acres held by registered Government ryots, there were upwards of 16 millions of acres so held in 1865.

* * * *

The position of the agricultural laborer and, indeed, of all those dependent upon wages had not, at any rate, seriously deteriorated during the 10 years preceding 1866, though the enormous increase, which has taken place in the price of food, must press hardly upon those trades for which the remuneration is fixed, by custom, at a certain rate in money. When reporting on this subject about three years ago, the Board of Revenue, after communicating with the Collectors of districts, stated that, as a rule, all agricultural labourers

were still paid in grain, and that these grain wages had not risen materially during late years. As to other classes of laborers who were paid in coin, they observed that their wages had risen considerably, and that the increase had then kept full pace with the enhanced price of food. Compared with former rates, the wages were stated to be, in some cases, double of what they formerly were, but the general proportion of increase was 50 per cent., and only in a few cases had the increase been as small as 25 per cent. These conclusions are borne out by the increase which has taken place, during the last 15 years, in the pay of all domestic servants in the families of Europeans in India.

The position of that portion of the population whose wealth is derived from mercantile operations has improved, at any rate, in an equal ratio with that of the agriculturist, if we may judge by the progress which has taken place in the trade of the Presidency. The principal portion of this trade is carried on at the port of Madras, that is, about one-half of the export trade and two-thirds of the import trade. The greater part of the balance of the export trade is from the ports of Cocanada, Negapatam and Tuticorin, on the East Coast, and from Calicut, Cochin, and Mangalore, on the Western Coast. Large exports of cotton take place from Cocanada and Tuticorin, and of grain from Negapatam, whereas the principal articles of export from the western ports are coffee and oil-seeds. The principal item of import at most of these ports is piece-goods, though grain is also largely imported into the Malabar district.

On the whole, then, it is impossible to arrive at any other conclusion than that the mass of the population of the Madras Presidency have considerably progressed in wealth during the 10 years previous to the famine of 1866. The whole of the agricultural interest, which includes certainly three-fourths and perhaps four-fifths of the population, were in twice as good a position at the end of this period as they had been at its commencement, and a large number of them had made enormous gains during the cotton famine in England, the ryots of the district of Bellary alone having, it is estimated, obtained an increase to their capital of nearly a million and a-half sterling on this account. The mercantile class, or, at any rate, such portions of them as were interested in the over-sea trade, had doubled their business, and the position of the poorest classes had certainly not deteriorated. Further, while private wealth had increased to this extent, taxation had been augmented by less than 25 per cent., so that, certainly, three-fourths of the increased profits obtained by the population were enjoyed tax free. At the commencement of the distress the people were, consequently, in a better position than they had ever occupied in any previous year of famine.

(F.)—*Results of the enquiries made by the Board of Revenue as to the condition of the labouring classes in 1872 (Proceedings of the Board of Revenue, dated 11th November 1872, No. 2179).*

Board of Revenue—Labourers.—The general opinion was that the condition of the labouring classes was rapidly improving. Mr. Brandt

and Mr. Stuart took the opposite view, but they evidently referred to farm labourers, the old prædial slaves. Wages paid in grain, like those of farm labourers, continued almost stationary, and the rapid increase in money wages was to a great extent neutralized by as rapid a rise in prices. The labouring classes had, however, fully shared in the general improvement which was visible everywhere, and in many places large public works, increasing trades, and improved facilities for emigration had made their advance more rapid than that of other classes.

Honorable V. Ramaiyengar.—The agricultural labourers in Tanjore called “pannials” were a kind of semi-serfs squatting on the estates to which they were attached. According to the practice of the district, 40 goolies of dry land out of the holdings of a mirasidar were exempted by Government from assessment and made over to each “pannial” working under him. The mirasidar supplemented this with a grant of 60 goolies, of which he himself paid the assessment. He further granted to each labourer 50 goolies of “nunjah” land free of assessment. The 100 goolies of dry land was calculated to yield 7 kalams¹ of ragi, besides vegetables and enough of ground-nut to supply him with oil for the use of the family. The 50 goolies of wet land were computed to yield 5 kalams of paddy. His wages for daily work consisted of a Madras measure of grain per diem and this for about nine working months in the year would give him 9×30 or 270 measures = $11\frac{1}{2}$ Tanjore kalams. His *calavassam* on the threshing floor at the time of harvest gave him about 11 kalams more. The pannial’s wife earned, by beating paddy and separating the husk from the grain on the mirasidar’s estate, about 6 kalams of grain a year at the rate of 12 measures a month, so that the total earnings, of the family in one year were as below :—

	KALAMS.
Yield of dry land	7
Yield of wet land	5
Daily wages	11
Calavassam	11
Earnings of the labourer’s family	6
Total ...	40

which at an average price of one rupee a kalam was equal to about Rs. 40 in money. The labourer generally earned something by working as cooly during three months in the year in which he was not employed in the field, and including this and the presents he got on festival days, the total earnings of the family were Rs. 4 a month. A non-agricultural labourer and his family in the rural parts of the district earned about the same sum at the rate of three annas per diem.

The agricultural labourers in other districts did not earn so much as in Tanjore. In some districts, their wages were, on an average, but two Madras measures of grain per diem, or 60 measures a month, equal to 12×60 or 720 measures or 90 merkals per annum. This

¹ A Tanjore kalam = 3 Madras merkals or 24 measures, each containing 133 tolas of rice.

was worth Rs. 30 or Rs. 2½ per month. Taking the whole Presidency, he was of opinion that it would probably not be much wide of the mark to assume the average earnings of unskilled labourers to be about Rs. 3 a month. There was no doubt that the wages of labour had increased since fasli 1263 (1853-54) though not in proportion to prices, the latter having risen by 100 per cent. while the former rose by about 50 per cent. So far the condition of the labouring classes must be held to have improved.

Mr. P. Chentsal Row.—The money wages of labourers everywhere nearly doubled, but wages to agricultural labourers were paid in grain and continued unaltered. A full grown labourer in Nellore (of which Mr. Chentsal Row was a native and a landholder) got from 1½ to 2 tooms² of paddy or one toom of jonna or ragi monthly with a cumbli and a pair of slippers a year. This was all that had been always paid. The condition of the agricultural labourers had not materially or at all improved, excepting in towns and villages in the vicinity of the railway.

Mr. Wedderburn, Collector of Coimbatore.—Wages were good and employment general; in some places skilled labour, such as, that of the carpenter, the mason, &c., was very high owing to the extension of the railway.

	Unskilled field labour, in cash or kind.						same as to quantity; but more valuable relatively to money. The cultivators or field-hands of the irrigated lands working for the landlords remained in much the same condition; ryots cultivating their own lands, in other words, owners of dry laud, had, by the sinking of wells at their own cost, without being charged for the improvement, as was usual under the old native system, advanced in wealth and comfort. The ryot proprietor and his sons worked their well, tended the cattle, and ploughed the fields; all worked who had not the means to be idle; the females also spun.
	30 years ago			At present			
Per day—	rs.	A	P.	rs.	A	P.	
Man	0	1	4	0	3	6
Woman	0	0	10	0	1	8
Per month—							
Man	..	1	12	0	4	0	0

Next there were the lowest classes in every village who earned their subsistence by cutting grass, weeding fields, &c.; except in unfavorable seasons when grass failed or cultivation was not carried on, they maintained themselves according to their own standard; when there was no thought of the morrow and people multiplied without the restraints which better circumstances or higher standards of living entail, there was no likelihood of much advancement. But though emigration agents were beating up for recruits in every village and bazaar, and promised food, clothing and Rs. 5 per mensem, apparently they met with limited success; 90 in a population of 1½ millions appeared before him as magistrate, to be attested, in the course of 12 months from November 1871 to November 1872. There was neither fear of the sea nor of distant travel and those that went had usually no local tie.

² A toom = 37 1 Madras measures, its value in the country was about Rs. 1½.

Mr. Venkatesiah, Deputy Collector, Ohingleput District.—The wages or earnings of the labouring classes were then nearly double of what they were some fifteen years before, owing partly to the rise in the price of grain and partly to the liberal rates at which they were paid by the Railway Company and the Public Works Department. A common labourer working at the roads got as much as three annas a day, while his wife got an anna and-a-half. Thus a family consisting of a wife and a husband made up about Rs. 80 a year exclusive of non-working days; whereas their annual income in former days had not exceeded half the latter sum.

Mr. Chāse, Collector of Kurnool.—Agricultural labourers were generally paid in grain and as the rates of payments seldom changed, their condition had been stationary and had made no perceptible improvement. The wages of non-agricultural labourers, however, had considerably increased, owing to the operations of the Irrigation Company and the general rise of prices; but after the completion of these works in 1870 and the fall in prices, especially in that of cotton, the rates of wages had a downward course, and the condition of the labourers at that time was not much better than what it was 15 years before; and any increase in the rate of wages was nearly counter-balanced by the enhancement of prices, so much so that when coolies were wanted for road work at a time when field work was available, they invariably preferred the latter, which was paid for in grain, to the former, which was paid for in money. Their food and clothing were of the same kind as what they were before. They ate the same coarse grain and used as condiments the same *chatney* composed of hemp-leaves or tamarind fruit. They wore the same coarse clothes and slept on the same rope cots. The women put on no more jewels than they did in former days; he mentioned this because it was a well known fact that when a native was improved in condition, the first thing he did was to purchase jewels for his wife and children.

Mr. Sribaliah, Deputy Collector, South Arcot.—The position of the labouring classes had improved. In the South Arcot district indigo cultivation had increased enormously. Indigo vats were found everywhere. The rate of daily wages to labourers in fields had almost doubled in the past years when there had been a rise in prices. There was a demand for labourers in every direction. A labourer in the field got his wages in kind at the time of harvest and in money at other times. In cash it was two annas and in grain a little more than three Madras measures. Labourers working in the indigo vats obtained three annas a day; but they were not employed all the year round. He estimated their monthly income at Rs. 3½ or Rs. 42 per annum. There was another class of labourers who worked for monthly wages in kind. Their monthly wages were 27 Madras measures of paddy or ragi, besides one meal every day. They also got about 7 or 8 per cent. of the outturn at the time of harvest called *calavassam* and also a rupee in cash. If the approximate outturn of a field managed by one servant were 100 kalams, the labourer's income would be—monthly wages = 324 Madras measures, *calavassam* = 252 Madras measures, and this at a rupee for 30 measures would be Rs. 20; adding to this one rupee in cash and also the money value of one meal every day, which at 6 or 8 pies a day amounted to one

rupee in the month or 12 rupees in the year, the total wages would amount to Rs. 33 and it was more or less this sum that the labourer got from his master every year. This did not include the wages of his wife.

Mr. Puckle, Collector of Tinnevelly.—The wages of labour in this district were high. Four annas a day for men coolies had been the general rate for the previous 10 years. At harvest time everywhere and throughout the year in the northern taluks the rate had been as high as six annas a day, but latterly there was a decrease and during the non-cultivation season of 1872 any quantity of labour was procurable at Palamcottah at from three annas to three annas and-a-half per diem. At the cotton screws at Tuticorin men coolies were receiving four annas a day, and in the coffee estates on the hills the same rates prevailed. The agricultural *pullars* attached to the land received their wages in kind as formerly. The position both of the free labourers and the *pullars* in this district was remarkably good; they were better fed and clothed than similar classes in any of the districts south of Madras, and their houses as a rule were superior to and were very different from the squalid huts that were to be found elsewhere.

Mr. Brandt, Sub-Collector of Tinnevelly.—The following was the result of his experience and of enquiries made unofficially among those personally acquainted with the matter, and among some of the labourers and coolies themselves. The hereditary cultivating peasants, *pullars* as they were there called, who not many years previously had been absolute slaves and whose condition was but little above slavery, were invariably paid in grain, whether in zemindaries or lands held by other landowners. The working season was about 8 or 9 months in the year, of which some 60 days they were employed in cultivation and some 40 days in harvesting operations; during the rest of these 8 or 9 months they got some odd work in the way of baling water and so on.

The earnings of a *pullan* and his wife during the working season in the Valliyur division of the Nángunéri taluk were as follows :—

	Kotahs.	Merkals.	Measures
Two measures of rice a day or for 9 months	3	4	4
Harvest allowances	1	10	4
Gleaning	1	0	0
Special allowances called <i>swatan-trams</i> or <i>nallanashtam</i> (allowances for good or for bad) as in the case of a birth, marriage, maturity of a child or death in the family ...	0	6	0
Calculating the kotah at Rs. 6 in money this was Rs. 36 in the year.			
The expenditure was as follows :—			

	Rs.
Value of diet and household expenses...	24
Drink, without which they would not work ...	6
Clothing	6
Total ...	<u>36</u>

Kotahs. Merkals. Measures.

In Shermádevi in the Ambásamu- dram taluk, a <i>pullan</i> was reckoned to get about a measure and-a-half and his wife a measure a day in the working season or	1	10	3
Allowances at peshanam harvest	0	10	4
Do. at kar harvest	0	7	4
Swatantram	0	1	3
By other field labour	2	10	0
Gleaning	0	4	0
Extra jobs	2	0	0
	7	0	0

equivalent to Rs. 42 per annum. The expenditure was fully equivalent to the income. For a considerable part of the year these labourers could not take a full meal at all.

A cooly or day labourer's wages varied from two annas to three annas four pies per diem and his wife's earnings were taken at from one anna four pies to two annas, according to the nature of the work; for mere carrying and light jobs the lower rates were given; for the higher, such work as erecting mud walls, rude building operations and so on, was exacted. The higher rate was that usually paid by the Public Works Department. They were paid sometimes in kind and sometimes in money. Allowing for feast days, days on which religious ceremonies, bathing in oil, &c., were performed, a cooly would not work more than two-thirds of a month and the working season could not be put down at more than 8 months; the earnings of a cooly and his wife might accordingly be taken at between Rs. 48 and Rs. 60 a-year, according to the nature of their work, and taking their expenditure as equivalent to 7 kotahs of paddy (or at Rs. 6 a kotah) equivalent to Rs. 42 or at the higher rate as equivalent to Rs. 55 a year, there was a margin of saving which, however, was actually but seldom put by. There was, however, no doubt that this class was better off than the hereditary farm servants.

The *shanars* or palmyra-climbers simply got a share of the sweet toddy and the jaggery or coarse sugar which they collected, from their employers. One *shanan* could not extract the produce of more than 30 trees in the working season and from this he got a share and sold such of the jaggery as he did not require for consumption. The working season comprised some 8 months and his earnings could not be more than Rs. 3 or Rs. 3-8-0 per mensem, or in other words Rs. 24 or Rs. 28 a-year. They had only one meal a day, consisting of rice or other grain, with some toddy or jaggery during the daytime.

On the whole, the labouring classes could earn little more and often not enough to keep them in the bare necessities of life; where a man and his wife had children not old enough to contribute their small quota of labour, they were still more hardly pressed; when their children were old enough to labour, their family earnings would be more, while their expenditure was not proportionately increased. There had been no increase in the wages of the hereditary farm labourers nor was their any likelihood of its increase. These people

were destitute of any wish, or, at all events, any idea as to how to better themselves; they had no inclination to emigrate, as many of the cooly class did. If they could live and marry in a condition short of absolute destitution, that was enough for them. In the earnings of day labourers there had been a rise as calculated in money as there had been still more markedly in the remuneration of more skilled labour, such as that of carpenters, goldsmiths, ironsmiths, &c.; but these have not been, in the case of the former at all events, more than commensurate with the diminished purchasing power of money.

In the condition of the farm-labourers there had been one decided improvement, of which they themselves were aware, that their employers could not ill-treat them and overwork them with impunity, and they knew that they could have redress and to whom to apply for it; and compulsory labour was at an end. But so strong was the feeling of dependence on their employers and so potent the influence of the latter, that in consideration of a small present, cases of serious ill-usage and violence were even then hushed up. They were, moreover, very often in debt to their employers, for grain advanced for some family ceremony or for necessities in times of want; from this additional enthrallment they could hardly ever expect to free themselves.

Mr. O. T. Longley, Collector of Salem.—Labour in the Salem district was of two kinds—ordinary and agricultural. The first represented labour employed on tanks, roads and other public works and the second, labour connected with cultivation.

Ordinary labour.—Both men, women and children of both sexes (above 7 years of age) were employed on ordinary labour. Their wages were as follow:—

						Per diem
						ANNAS.
A man cooly	2 to 4
A woman cooly	1 to 2
A boy or girl	1 to 1½

The rates of wages varied according to the demand, but the average might be set down as follows:—

						Per diem.
						AS. P.
A man cooly	2 6
A woman cooly	1 4
A boy or girl	1 0

The classes chiefly employed on ordinary labour were *Vellalas*, *Pullies*, *Pullans*, *Pariahs* and *Reddies*. Muhammadans were also employed as labourers, but not extensively. The classes employed on ordinary labour were mostly those that had no lands or craft. But the women and children of the ryots were frequently employed on ordinary labour, when they had no work on their own fields. When agricultural operations were extensively carried on, especially at sowing of the wet crop, labourers for ordinary labour were very scarce owing to wages of agricultural labour being much higher.

Agricultural labour.—Agricultural labour may be divided into two kinds, viz., ordinary and extraordinary.

Ordinary agricultural labour.—Every ryot whose holding was larger than he could cultivate with the assistance of members of his own family was obliged to call in the assistance of labourers known as pannials (*panniam* means cultivation and *al*, labourer). These *pannials* were paid in two ways—

(1st) by a monthly grain fee varying from 24 to 40 measures of either cholam, cumbu or ragi, besides an annual ready money allowance of Rs. 2 to 5.

(2ndly) by a monthly payment in money of Rs. 2½ to 4.

The first mode of payment was the one universally observed in all purely agricultural villages, *i.e.*, those which had no trade, like the Cauvery villages.

Extraordinary agricultural labour.—Extraordinary agricultural labour was chiefly required for irrigated cultivation. The labour consisted of ploughing, sowing, weeding and harvesting. The wages were high. Females as well as children were employed. Men ploughed, made ridges, and levelled fields; the children trod in leaves for manure, whilst women took out the seedlings from their nursery and transplanted them over the field at a distance of about two inches apart. This was at the commencement of the rice cultivation in September and October. A month subsequently females only were employed for transplanting and weeding. They were paid from one-and-a-half to two annas in ready cash. At the harvest time the labourers would not receive payment in money, but demanded it in grain. They were paid from 3 to 4 Madras measures per diem, two annas six pies or three annas four pies at the commutation rate.

Increase in the number of labourers.—The extension of cultivation and the prosecution of works of public and private enterprise had to a great extent increased the number of labourers. Besides the labouring classes already mentioned, there was a third class, the purely cooly, who had no lands or other means of livelihood. They had no houses of their own and they generally emigrated to places where they could get housed as well as earn wages. They were employed chiefly on the Shervaroy hills, where they occupied the cooly lines of the planters and were paid at the rate of a rupee for 6 days' labour.

Condition of the purely cooly class.—The condition of the purely labouring classes had certainly improved during the previous 10 years. They were better clad, wore some ornaments, and sought for more comforts and better living. Their condition, however, depended on the different castes to which they belonged. For instance, the *Vel-lalan* was frugal and saving in the extreme. His hard-working wife knew no finery and was content to wear for the whole year one, or at the utmost two blue cloths. The husband lived on the cheapest of dry grains and it was only at high festivals that a platter of rice and a little meat were prepared. On the other hand *Pullies* and *Pullars* were the very reverse, especially the latter. They were improvident of the morrow; "sufficient unto the day" was their motto. They spent their money as fast as they got it. They lived upon rice and meat as often as they could and delighted in gay clothes and ornaments.

Mr. J. F. Price, Sub-Collector of Salem.—Artisans were usually paid by the day, but they sometimes did piece-work. The exception was the village blacksmith who was paid sometimes in charcoal, but custom in this respect varied and in all large villages this workman was either paid by the job or by the day. *Woddere*, who did stone and earth work, usually made a contract, and the chief man and his gang united to do the work and divided the sum paid for it among themselves. When they worked for daily hire, their charge was from 4 to 5 annas a day. For ordinary coolies the payment ranged from 3 annas for the best labourer to 9 pies for a small boy of about ten years of age. Women ordinarily got one anna six pies and young girls 6 pies per diem. The customary arrangement as regards farm labourers was that the master gave from 3 to 4 rupees a year, from 3 to 4½ kandagams (130 Madras measures each) of ragi, and if he was a wealthy and liberal man, a couple of coarse cloths at the Pongal. Boys were hired by the year, and the arrangement was that the master gave them their food, a place (usually the stable) to sleep in, an ordinary handkerchief for the head, a small cloth and a cumblu. When Mr. Price first joined that district, the regular rate of hire of farm labourers had been a pagoda for a year, and from one and-a-half to three kandagams of ragi. The terms for boys had not altered, but there was then a tendency to ask for a small money payment, a rupee or so, in addition to food and clothing. The rates for daily coolies, when he first went there, ranged from 2½ annas to 6 pies for males and from one anna to 4 or 5 pies for females. The wages of artisans were on the same scale; a bricklayer who claimed 12 annas a day only got 9 previously and that was the charge for the best class of workmen. The increase in the price of labour dated from the time of the famine, when the cost of the necessaries of life of every kind was so great that the Government officials had to increase the wages paid by them to labourers. Since then though ragi, for instance, had fallen from Rs. 26 (sic) to Rs. 2½ per kandagam, which latter was its price at that time, it was impossible to reduce the rates. Coolies could get work almost everywhere, and in order to be able to retain them during the weeding and harvesting seasons, when the ryots paid the Government rates and added to them a measure or a couple of measures of ragi a day, besides food, the Government was obliged to pay the same price all the year round. Mr. Price once tried to reduce the pay of the coolies, and they nearly all struck and brought his road work to a standstill at the most important part of the season.

There had been a marked improvement in the condition of both the labouring and artisan classes during the previous 5 years. The famine had given them an opportunity for increasing the rates paid to them, and they had never, though there had been a considerable period of cheapness and plenty, allowed these to retrograde. The labourer then received three annas instead of two annas and-a-half and he paid only Rs. 2½ instead of Rs. 26 (sic) a kandagam for ragi, which was his chief article of food. It was manifest, therefore, that if he could have lived on his two annas and-a-half when ragi was sold at Rs. 26 (sic) a kandagam or even Rs. 12 or 15 at which it had stood for some time, he must have either saved or spent something on extra articles or luxuries when he received 3 annas and spent only Rs. 2½ for a kandagam of ragi, which would last for some two months. His

personal observation fully bore out this view. The carpenter dressed better than he used to do; occasionally he wore a laced turban instead of the invariable red cloth handkerchief of former days; was sleek and fat; had often land of his own and was careless in his work. The labourer too was to be seen with a decent cloth instead of a dirty rag round his waist; he occasionally went away at cropping time to sow his small patch of land and returned to cooly work when there was no cultivation going on. He was independent and would not be beaten down in his wages; and there were fewer beggars or persons who stole from want, than there used to be. Any able-bodied man or woman cooly got work, and the difficulty was not to select coolies from a large number of applicants, but to get them at all.

Mr. Macgregor, Collector of Malabar.—Except in the neighbourhood of large towns, wages were paid in kind and averaged two Madras measures of rice for a first-class cooly. The women and children earned proportionately less. The great majority of agricultural labourers were permanently entertained by the landowners, and these were paid a measure and-a-half per diem whether they worked or not. This rate of pay was very little more than enough for a bare subsistence. It admitted of an occasional drink. From a report drawn up by his predecessor in 1863, there was little difference perceptible since then in the rate of wages.

There was no marked improvement in the position of the agricultural labourers during the thirteen years he had experience of the district. They were slaves in everything but name and up to no very distant period had invariably been sold with the land. There were abundant opportunities for this class to better themselves by going to work in Wynaad, but comparatively few availed themselves of this, because they preferred the freedom from anxiety which the protection of a landowner afforded.

In the towns there had been a marked increase of the rate of wages, which was four annas. This class was not much better off than it had been previously as the price of food had also increased.

Mr. Foster, Collector of Godávari.—The ordinary labourers in the Godávari district got 3 or 4 annas a day; they were almost entirely paid in money; before the anicut was made, the daily wage of common labourers was one anna and that was sufficient to maintain them. The cultivating labourers were usually kept as private servants by the puttadars and were given food, &c., all the year round and about two *putties* of grain at the harvest, which, if paddy, would be worth about Rs. 40. Many of these labourers had of late years become puttadars themselves, employing in their turn hired labourers. In the Bellary district the practice of hiring labourers to cultivate was not so common as in the Godávari district; the poorer classes there had small holdings and all the members of the family assisted in cultivating the land; but in the delta taluks of this district the landholder and his family seldom took any part in the actual cultivation of the land; they did not let it out so much as cultivate it by their own private servants maintained all the year round, so that the position of these labourers was much better in Godávari than in poorer districts; but this was the case in the years preceding 1872, after the anicut was made. In the food the labour-

ing classes ate and in the clothes and jewellery they wore there had been a great improvement since that time.

Mr. A. J. Stuart, Sub-Collector of Rajahmundry.—The ordinary rate of wages obtained by a labourer was 3 annas a day or Rs. 67½ per annum, if he managed to find employment every day, which probably was rarely possible. The price of rice then was an anna a seer in Rajahmundry and 3 annas would have done little more than feed 4 or 5 people. Occasional expenses, such as a shred of clothing for men and a common cloth for women, would have disposed of any balances and there was always the toddy shop at hand if there was any unusual balance. The farm labourer was paid chiefly in grain; his earnings were less than the above, but more certain, and he had a master to depend upon in case of any unexpected expenses, or for such outlay as was incurred in marriages or funerals; the earnings might be estimated in the delta at about 2 putties of paddy worth Rs. 50. It was paid in various ways, but amounted on the average to about 2 putties, just sufficient for the support of his family. On the whole, by far the greatest part of the population was poor and had little beyond food, clothing and shelter; in no country in the world was the taxation so high in proportion to the income of the people it was raised from; and little or no advance was observable in the condition of the masses and certainly none in that of the labouring classes.

Mr. H. E. Sullivan, Collector of South Arcot.—The full and interesting account furnished by Mr. Sullivan regarding the condition of the labouring classes in the South Arcot district is given below:—

As regards the present condition of the labouring class, there is not the least doubt that it has materially improved during the last twenty years. It is somewhat difficult to estimate the *annual* earnings of a labourer, as the majority are not employed on the same work or remunerated in the same manner all the year round. Agricultural labourers may be divided into two classes: those who form the regular farm staff and who are engaged at the rate of one man per plough and the occasional hands who are taken on when required.

When the first description of labourers is engaged, it is usual for the employer to make him an advance of money, varying from Rs. 7 to Rs. 35, which is known as the "Mothakadan" or first loan, which binds him to the service of his master. Neither this loan nor any subsequent advances, which, on the same principle, he may receive from his employer, bear interest nor is repayment of the capital sum demanded unless the labourer elects to quit the service. This class of labourers, although they are attached to the farm under the system above described, are not employed on it all the year round, and during certain months of the year their services are dispensed with, and they are at liberty to take employment elsewhere, being bound, however, to come back whenever required. Whilst regularly employed on the farm which is generally from June to November they are paid monthly and in kind, never in money. The following are the ordinary rates:—

45	Madras measures of varagu,
11	do. - do. of ragi,

or occasionally thirty-four measures of paddy are substituted for the varagu. When taken on again for the harvest, which commences in December, the labourers employed receive as their remuneration 5 per cent. of the grain harvested. This is called calavassam, the labourers receiving five kalams out of every 100 kalams got in.

The extra hands who are taken on when agricultural operations are in full swing are paid daily wages, either in money or kind or both. If in money, the wage is one anna per diem and two meals of cunji; if in kind two Madras measures of paddy, besides the cunji.

Going back again to the permanent farm labourer or as he is known in the south the "padiyal" or "*padiachy*," it would not appear at first sight that his lot was a very prosperous one. The value of the grain which he receives as wages from June to November does not exceed, even at present prices, Rs. 2 per mensem. Twenty years ago, however, it did not represent a rupee, so that although he receives now the same quantity as he formerly did, he is certainly better off (for he cannot consume it all) than he was then. But he makes a great haul at the harvest and in addition he occasionally cultivates a small portion of his employer's estate on his own account. He receives, moreover, at the different festivals small presents from his employer, and on the occasion of a marriage or other ceremony in his own family a loan to meet the necessary expenses is rarely refused. It is true that this system must more or less tend to prevent the labourer from ever emerging from that position, but this is not universally the case. Instances not unfrequently occur of these men setting up as independent farmers, although whether their condition is thereby ultimately benefited may admit of question. One bad season generally suffices to ruin them, and then they go back contentedly to their old place. I use the expression advisedly, for it is within my own tolerably varied experience that a bond of union exists in India between the landholder and his labourers, which prevents the latter, as a rule, from following the example of their brethren at home in striking for higher wages just at the time when their services are most needed. But the laws of supply and demand are inexorable, and though the landholder in India is prudent enough not to create an inconvenient precedent by raising the rate of wages whenever labour is in greater request than usual, he is still sufficiently alive to the requirements of the times by a judicious enhancement of loans and presents during the period of pressure to secure himself against the difficulties which at this moment beset the farmers in England. There is, moreover, in this country a feeling of sympathy between the employer and his men, which is not to be found in European countries, where the latter are regarded as so many machines out of which a certain amount of work is to be got, and that done, the bargain is at end. A mistaken philanthropist might make great capital at a public meeting in England out of the figures which I have given above, but my experience leads me to believe that the "padiyal" in India, with his comparatively scanty wage, is better off than the farm labourer at home with his 9s. or 10s. a week.

The wages of unskilled labour other than agricultural have advanced about 25 per cent. during the past twenty years, but the price of food has gone up in proportion. It is not, therefore, to this that we must look for the cause of the undoubted amelioration in the condition of this class of the population evinced by their dwelling in better houses, eating more animal food, and indulging in other luxuries (drinking, I am afraid, amongst the number) to a greater extent than formerly. It is due mainly, I think, to the steady and ever-increasing demand for labour throughout the year, so that the man or woman who is willing to work need never want. This is caused partly by the area of cultivation extending year by year, the development of trade and by public and private works of utility being carried out on a large scale throughout the country. In this respect the expenditure of Local Funds plays no unimportant part, and those who contribute them are repaid with interest in an indirect manner. In former days, within my own recollection, it was a very difficult matter for the labouring classes to tide over those months of the year during which agricultural operations were at a standstill. Public works were few and far between, and those who wished to obtain employment on them had often to travel and encamp many miles away from their homes to earn sufficient to save themselves from starvation. Now the work is brought up to their doors, and when the demand for agricultural labour is slack, employment is always to be obtained on imperial or local works. I believe this Presidency to be at present in the most hopeful condition, and no better evidence can, I think, be adduced in support of the position than the undoubted fact that the labouring classes, by whose aid the bulk of the revenue of the State is produced, are in a happy and prosperous condition, although, as before observed, the figures above quoted might provoke an opposite conclusion.

**SECTION V.—STATISTICS SHOWING THE
IMPROVEMENT IN THE CONDITION OF THE
PEOPLE SINCE 1850.**

(A.)—*Population.*

(a)—*Statement showing the population of the Madras Presidency—000 omitted.*

Districts.	1871.	1881.	1891.	Percentage of increase or decrease of the population of 1891 over that of 1871.	Percentage of increase of the population of 1891 over that of 1881.	Percentage of increase or decrease of the population of 1891 over that of 1871.
Ganjam	1,520	1,750	1,897	15 10	8·4	24 80
Visagapatam	2,159	2,481	2,804	15·09	13 02	29 87
Godavari	1,621	1,796	2,079	10 73	15 82	28 25
Kistna	1,452	1,649	1,855	6 62	19 83	27 75
Nellore	1,377	1,220	1,464	-11·37	20 00	6·31
Cuddapah	1,351	1,121	1,272	-17 03	13 47	6 21
Bellary	1,653	1,326	1,608	-19·77	21·26	2·79
Anantapur	916	679	818	-25·79	20·47	-11·85
Kurnool	398	406	452	2 09	11 33	13 66
Madras	938	981	1,137	4·6	15 90	21·21
Chingleput	2,015	1,823	2,180	-9·8	19 58	8·18
North Arcot	1,756	1,816	2,163	3·36	19·10	23·17
South Arcot	1,974	2,131	2,228	7·94	4 55	12 86
Tanjore	1,201	1,215	1,373	1·22	13·00	14 32
Trichinopoly	2,267	2,169	2,508	-4 32	20 24	15·04
Madura	1,694	1,700	1,916	0·34	12·70	13 10
Tinnevely	1,763	1,658	2,005	-5·99	20·93	13·72
Coimbatore	75	91	100	21 33	9 89	33·33
Nilgiris	1,967	1,593	1,963	-18·68	23·22	0 20
Salem	918	959	1,056	4·48	10 11	15 03
South Canara	2,236	2,365	2,653	5·75	12·18	18·64
Malabar						
Total	31,250	30,827	36,631	-1·35	16·58	14·02

¹ Inclusive of the population of the Bhadrâhalam and Rêkapalle taluks transferred to the Madras Presidency from the Central Provinces in 1874.

² Inclusive of the population of the South-East Wynaad transferred from Malabar in 1877.

³ Exclusive of the population of the South-East Wynaad transferred to the Nilgiris in 1877.

NOTE.—1. The population entered in this statement does not include the population of the Sandûr, Banganapalle and the Pudukota States.

2. The percentage of increase of the population in 1891 was small for the Tanjore district. But if the net loss by emigration between the 18th February 1881 and 26th February 1891, amounting to 97,337 persons, be added to the population, the total increase comes to 9·10 per cent.

(b)—Statement showing the civil condition of the population of the Madras Presidency, as per census of 1891.

Ages.	Percentage of the male population at each age period to the total male population.	Number of males (in thousands).				Percentage of the female population at each age period to the total female population.	Number of females (in thousands).				Proportion of males				Proportion of females			
		Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.		Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.
0—14 ..	39.3	6,812	103	3	6,918	37.7	6,100	661	22	6,783	98.5	1.4	0.1	100	90	9.7	0.3	100
15—19 ..	8.2	1,219	226	4	1,449	7.7	312	1,046	42	1,400	84.1	15.6	0.3	100	22	75	3	100
20—24 .	8.1	768	653	13	1,434	9.7	82	1,544	115	1,741	54.0	45	1	100	5	89	6	100
25—34 ..	16.4	481	2,334	68	2,883	17.4	77	2,563	489	3,129	17	81	2	100	2	82	16	100
35—44	12.5	92	2,006	108	2,206	11.6	41	1,277	768	2,086	4	91	5	100	2	61	37	100
45—54 .	7.9	32	1,217	137	1,386	7.6	22	613	832	1,367	2	88	10	100	1	38	61	100
55—59 ..	1.8	6	259	45	310	1.6	4	75	202	281	2	83	15	100	1	27	72	100
60 and upwards.	5.1	15	664	223	902	6.1	14	117	966	1,097	1	74	25	100	1	11	88	100
Not stated ..	.7	63	67	4	124	.6	51	65	12	118	61	45	4	100	43	47	10	100
Total ..	100	9,488	7,519	605	17,612	100	6,703	7,851	3,448	18,002	54	43	3	100	37	44	19	100

NOTE.—These figures are exclusive of 15,000 persons (7,000 males and 8,000 females) whose civil condition has not been stated.

(b)—Statement showing the civil condition of the population of England and Wales, as per census of 1881.

Age.	Percentage of the male population at each age period to the total male population.	Number of males (in thousands).				Percentage of the female population at each age period to the total female population.	Number of females (in thousands).				Proportion of males.				Proportion of females.			
		Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.		Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Total.
0—14 ..	87.4	4,728	4,728	85.6	4,740	4,740	100	100	100	100
15—19 ..	10.0	1,262	6	..	1,268	9.6	1,246	32	..	1,278	99.8	0.7	..	100	98	2	..	100
20—24 ..	8.8	864	245	2	1,111	9.1	809	402	5	1,216	77.8	22	0.2	100	66.5	33	0.5	100
25—34 ..	14.4	577	1,218	26	1,821	14.8	576	1,844	52	1,972	81.6	67	1.4	100	29	68	3	100
35—44 ..	11.2	195	1,171	52	1,418	11.4	234	1,165	124	1,523	14	83	3	100	15	77	8	100
45—54 ..	8.2	99	860	74	1,033	8.5	136	810	194	1,140	10	83	7	100	12	71	17	100
55—64 ..	5.7	60	563	100	723	6.1	88	471	252	811	8	78	14	100	11	58	31	100
65 and upwards.	4.8	41	314	180	535	4.9	68	213	372	653	7	60	33	100	10	33	57	100
Total ..	100	7,826	4,377	434	12,637	100	7,897	4,437	999	13,333	62	34	4	100	59	33	8	100

(c)—Statement showing the birth and death-rates in different countries per mile of the population.

Countries.	Birth-rate.	Death-rate.	Population per square mile.
England and Wales	35·85	21 27	446
France	26·1	23 6	180
Germany	39 8	27 1	217
Austria	39 9	30 8	158
Hungary	42 6	36 9	
Holland	35·4	24·6	312
Belgium	31 7	22 7	480
Denmark	31·2	19 7	127
Sweden	31 2	19 2	27
Italy	37 3	29 9	247
India	186
Madras Presidency	4 50·4	4 44·5	221

* Estimated by Mr. Hardy—*vide* Census Report of British India, 1881.

(d)—Table showing the expectation of life and the number of survivors at different ages out of every 100 persons.

Age	Madras Presidency				Whole of India.				England.			
	Expectation of male life.	Expectation of female life.	Survival of males in every 100.	Survival of females in every 100.	Expectation of male life.	Expectation of female life.	Survival of males in every 100.	Survival of females in every 100.	Expectation of male life.	Expectation of female life.	Survival of males in every 100.	Survival of females in every 100.
	YEARS.	YEARS.	NO.	NO.	YEARS.	YEARS.	NO.	NO.	YEARS.	YEARS.	NO.	NO.
0 years	22.86	24.18	100	100	23.67	25.58	100	100	41.92	45.25	100	100
5 "	34.65	34.82	55	60	36.01	35.63	57	62	51.47	53.65	74	76
10 "	32.92	32.89	50	55	34.00	33.43	53	57	49.16	50.32	71	74
15 "	30.10	29.70	47	51	30.99	30.56	49	53	43.94	46.15	70	73
20 "	27.86	27.77	42	46	28.55	28.44	45	48	39.86	42.10	68	71
25 "	25.74	26.05	38	41	26.19	26.50	41	43	36.05	38.36	66	69
35 "	21.86	22.80	30	31	21.88	22.33	33	34	28.88	31.12	61	64
45 "	16.69	17.90	23	24	16.41	17.56	25	26	22.94	24.21	53	57
55 "	11.88	12.73	16	17	11.52	12.32	17	19	16.09	17.37	43	49
65 "	7.50	7.87	8	10	7.20	7.54	9	11	10.79	11.55	30	36
75 "	4.12	4.33	3	3	3.99	4.08	2	3	6.52	7.04	15	19
85 and upwards	2.01	2.03	.1	.2	1.94	1.94	.1	.2	3.78	4.15	3	5

NOTE.—The life table for the Madras Presidency and the whole of India has been taken from the Census Report of British India, 1881.

(e)—Table showing the proportion of population of various countries grouped according to ages per 1,000.

Countries.	From 0 to 15 years.	From 15 to 60 years.	60 years and upwards
France	275	617	108
Belgium	302	610	103
Holland	329	591	80
Sweden	333	597	80
Saxony	342	584	69
England	354	573	73
Russia	353	577	70
United States, white population	377	579	44
Do colored (free)	338	606	56
Slaves	424	541	35
India	402	559	39
{ Males	404	552	44
{ Females	378	573	49
Madras Presidency	396	553	51
{ Males	381	560	59
{ Females	379	560	61

NOTE.—The particulars relating to European countries have been taken from Guyot's *Social Economy*. The figures against India and the upper set of figures against the Madras Presidency are according to the Census of 1881. The lower set of figures against the Madras Presidency is according to the Census of 1891. The figures for the Madras Presidency do not include the population of the Agency tracts in the Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godavari districts. The proportion of children under 10 years of age in the Madras Presidency exclusive of the Agency tracts was, males 287 in 1891 against 262 in 1881; and females, 286 against 265.

(B.)—Cultivation.

Statement showing the extent of Ryotwar or fully assessed land cultivated in the several districts of the Madras Presidency (South Canara and Malabar excepted)—in thousands of acres.

Districts.	1852-53.			1870-71.			1880-81.			1889-90.		
	Dry.	Wet.	Total.	Dry.	Wet.	Total.	Dry.	Wet.	Total.	Dry.	Wet.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Ganjam	76	124	200	110	181	291	164	149	313	188	157	345
Vizagapatam . . .	10	11	21	53	22	75	53	23	76	63	32	95
Godavari	1,414	272	1,686	269	238	507	241	292	533	238	355	593
Kistna				644	181	825	578	172	750	570	174	744
Nellore	276	99	375	644	181	825	578	172	750	570	174	744
Cuddapah	1,208	83	1,291	1,160	131	1,261	911	101	1,012	1,020	107	1,127
Ballary and Anantapur.	1,839	84	1,923	2,237	146	2,383	1,777	92	1,869	2,118	105	2,223
Kurnool	493	7	500	1,135	26	1,161	866	22	888	1,066	26	1,092
Chingleput	65	173	238	197	238	435	141	288	429	199	306	605
North Arcot	253	156	409	456	193	649	363	192	555	457	230	687
South Arcot	470	165	635	922	270	1,192	822	275	1,097	954	293	1,247
Tanjore	229	708	937	234	705	939	218	711	929	225	752	977
Trichinopoly	305	125	430	808	129	937	666	129	795	686	130	816
Madura	446	85	531	665	131	796	531	128	659	724	151	875
Tinnevely	618	129	747	818	156	974	794	175	969	856	176	1,032
Combatoro	1,542	70	1,612	1,849	79	1,928	1,723	81	1,804	1,889	84	1,973
Nilgiris				44	44	60	2	62	63	6	69	
Salem	667	51	718	1,088	68	1,156	810	84	894	1,028	88	1,116
Total ..	9,911	2,342	12,253	14,127	3,017	17,144	11,957	3,102	15,059	13,638	3,438	17,076

NOTE.—For remarks *vide* page xcix.

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Statement showing the extent of Ryotwar or fully assessed land cultivated in the several districts of the Madras Presidency (South Canara and Malabar excepted)—in thousands of acres—continued.

Districts	Percentage of increase or decrease in 1880-81 over the area cultivated in 1870-71.			Percentage of increase or decrease in 1889-90 over the area cultivated in 1880-81			Percentage of increase or decrease in 1889-90 over the area cultivated in 1870-71.			Percentage of increase or decrease in 1889-90 over the area cultivated in 1852-53		
	Dry.	Wet.	Total	Dry	Wet.	Total	Dry	Wet	Total	Dry.	Wet	Total.
	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
Ganjam	49	— 17	7	14	5	9	71	— 13	18	147	26	72
Vizagapatam ..	— 10	14	1	19	28	20	19	45	26	530	191	352
Godavari	— 13	23	5	— 1	21	11	— 11	50	17	5	128	27
Kistna	— 10	— 5	— 10	4	43	9	— 10	73	— 2	106	85	98
Nellore ..	— 21	..	— 9	— 1	1	— 1	— 14	— 4	— 9	— 15	29	10
Cuddapah	— 20	— 37	— 21	12	6	11	— 12	6	— 10	15	25	15
Bellary and Anantapur..	— 23	— 15	— 23	19	14	19	— 5	— 28	— 6	116	271	118
Kurnool	— 28	21	— 1	23	18	23	— 6	..	— 6	206	76	112
Chingleput	— 20	— 5	— 14	46	6	18	1	28	16	80	47	68
North Arcot	— 10	2	8	26	20	24	..	19	6	103	77	96
South Arcot	— 7	1	1	16	4	14	3	9	5	— 2	6	4
Tanjore	— 17	..	— 15	3	6	5	— 4	6	4	125	4	90
Trichinopoly	— 20	— 2	— 17	3	1	2	— 15	1	— 14	62	77	65
Madura	— 3	12	— 5	36	18	33	9	15	10	38	36	38
Tinnevelly	— 7	2	— 6	8	5	6	4	13	8	26	28	26
Coimbatore ..	36	..	41	9	3	9	2	6	2	54	72	55
Nilgiris	— 26	23	— 23	5	5	11	43	200	71	— 3	—	—
Salem	— 15	2	— 12	27	5	25	— 6	29	— 3	37	47	39
Total	— 15	2	— 12	14	10	13	— 3	14	— 4	37	47	39

NOTE.—For remarks *vide* page xcix.

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REMARKS.—In comparing the figures given in the above statement for different years, the following facts should be borne in mind —

1. The taluks of Cumbum, Markapur and Kolkuntla were transferred from the Cuddapah to the Kurnool district in 1857-58
2. Ninety-seven villages were transferred from the Kurnool to the Nellore district in 1863
3. Forty-nine villages were transferred from the Chingleput to the Nellore district in 1863
4. A portion of the Mattiavedu division was transferred from the North Arcot to the Chingleput district in 1860
5. Several of the districts were surveyed since 1852-53, and the survey showed that the areas entered in the old accounts were below what they ought to be. The percentage of the excess area discovered by the survey to the area entered in the old accounts was as follows —

Districts	Year in which the settlement was introduced.	Area in thousands of acres		Percentage of increase
		Old accounts	By survey	
Ganjam	1878-79, 1870-80 and 1883-84	281	336	20
Godavari	1862-63 and 1866-67	Not available		
Kistna	1866-67 and 1873-74	1,683	1,704	7
Nellore	1873-74 and 1874-75	910	910	
Cuddapah	1874-75 and 1877-83	1,162	1,259	8
Kurnool	1864-69, 1872-73, 1874-75 and 1877-78	1,122	1,226	9
Chingleput	1875-76 and 1877-78	480	544	11
North Arcot	1883-80	627	706	13
Trichinopoly	1864-65	647	764	18
Madura (3 taluks)	1865-68	308	544	8
Tinnevely	1873-78	1,266	1,397	7
Coimbatore	1878-83	2,168	2,386	7
Salem	1870-71 to 1873-74	1,648	1,209	15
	Total	11,964	13,025	8

Applying the rates given above to the areas under cultivation in 1862-53, the correct area is found to be 13,231 thousands of acres. Up to a recent period, the area under cultivation included portions of fields left waste and the extent on this account may on a rough calculation be taken to be 2 per cent. of the cultivated area. The net area, after deducting the area of portions of fields left waste, under cultivation, is thus 13,067 thousands of acres, or about 400 million of acres in excess of the area entered in the statement.

8. In the column headed "Dry" is included the area of lands irrigated by private sources of irrigation, such as wells, &c. The areas thus irrigated in each district for the years 1852-53 and 1889-90 are in thousands of acres —

Districts	1852-53	1889-90.	Districts	1852-53	1889-90
Ganjam	21		North Arcot	3	105
Vishakapatam			South Arcot	2	54
Godavari	15	2	Tanjore	42	2
Kistna			31	39	
Nellore	17	48	Madura	6	62
Cuddapah	46	71	Tinnevely	9	89
Bellary and Anantapur	25	50	Coimbatore	175	567
Kurnool	3	13	Nilgiris		
Chingleput	2	6	Salem	10	77
			Total	407	1,007

7. The extent of lands (in thousands of acres) irrigated under the principal systems of irrigation are as under —

Irrigation systems.	Old irrigation.	1886-89.	Percentage of increase.
Godavari delta system	23	303	978
Kistna delta system	10	246	1,165
Penner anicut	28	48	72
Sangam project	41	45	9
Cauvery delta	622	790	27
Srivaikuntham anicut	13	21	61
Palar anicut	37	59	60
Chembrambakam tank	2	11	450
Kurnool-Cuddapah canal		35	
Pelandora anicut	1	4	300
Madras water-supply and irrigation project	4	6	50
Total	796	1,567	97

(C.)—Prices.

(a)—Table showing the prices of second sort rice in terms of seers of 80 tolas per rupee (averages for quinquennial periods excluding famine years).

Districts	Average of 5 years from						
	1809 to 1813.	1819 to 1823.	1828 to 1832	1849 to 1853.	1861 to 1865	1870 to 1874.	1883-84 to 1887-88
1. Ganjam	43 9	39 5	49 1	54 1	18 3	23 9	17 2
2. Vizagapatam ..	35 6	32 4	41 4	46 8	15 7	17 3	15 0
3. Godávari (Rajah- mundry)	25 6	25 8	34 2	39 7	16 9	20 0	15 4
4. Kistna (Masuli- patam)	21 0	23 1	31 3	29 7	13 6	15 9	14 7
Guntúr	20 5	19 4	25 6	..			
5. Nellore	22 1	24 7	28 6	35 0	13 8	17 6	15 0
6. Cuddapah	19 6	24 1	30 2	10 8	16 0	15 3
7. Anantapur	22 2	20 1	25 3	31 6	11 0	15 6	15 2
8. Bellary							13 6
9. Kurnool	27 9	11 1	13 7	13 3
10. Madras	22 6	26 5	26 3	32 4	13 3	15 1	14 1
11. Chingleput ..		26 4				17 6	16 2
12. North Arcot ..	22 1	21 4	21 9	39 8	13 7	18 8	16 3
13. South Arcot ..	22 9	25 7	26 2	34 5	14 1	18 5	16 2
14. Tanjore	28 9	31 3	31 2	38 7	14 8	16 9	16 0
15. Trichinopoly ..	28 6	29 5	30 3	35 3	12 8	16 5	14 9
16. Madura	26 4	27 6	26 1	30 4	11 6	14 5	15 0
17. Tinnevely	31 4	25 7	28 4	28 1	11 5	13 1	13 4
18. Combatores ..	22 4	22 5	24 7	31 8	11 2	14 3	14 7
19. Nilgiris	10 2	11 8
20. Salem	24 1	24 5	27 2	35 0	11 4	17 0	15 7
21. South Canara ..	24 5	26 2	30 0	30 7	13 8	14 7	14 6
22. Malabar	43 6	30 1	36 6	31 6	12 3	13 7	14 1
Average for the Presi- dency	27 2	26 0	29 9	34 9	13 2	16 1	14 9
Index numbers repre- senting average prices, taking the average for the years 1849 to 1853 = 100.	128	134	117	100	264	216	234

(b)—Table showing the prices of cholam in terms of seers of 80 tolas per rupee.

Districts.	Average of 5 years from						
	1809 to 1813.	1819 to 1823.	1828 to 1832.	1849 to 1853	1861 to 1865	1870 to 1874	1883-84 to 1887-88.
1. Ganjam	28 5	30 1	27 8
2. Vizagapatam ..	45 5	40 6	56 5	58 7	28 3	30 1	26 5
3. Godavari (Rajah- mundry)	40 9	37 0	50 2	62 0	27 8	33 9	26 5
4. Kistna (Masul- patam)	31 6	25 7	37 1	38 4	23 1	24 1	22 6
Guntur	40 8	27 4	33 2				
5. Nellore	33 2	35 1	43 3	49 2	23 5	28 3	24 8
6. Cuddapah	39 5	29 4	42 6	43 7	18 1	27 2	28 9
7. Anantapur	36 1	32 1	51 1	45 3	18 6	30 2	30 8
8. Bellary							30 0
9. Kurnool	47 1	19 4	26 5	28 8
10. Madras	30 9	30 5	35 3	44 6	21 1	24 1	21 8
11. Chingleput		32 7				22 6	22 8
12. North Arcot	33 0	31 2	36 9	52 3	21 1	31 3	28 6
13. South Arcot	33 1	38 4	42 3	49 8	26 6	36 2	31 9
14. Tanjore	30 8	32 7	38 3	48 2	25 0	28 3	26 7
15. Trichunopoly	38 3	37 2	36 8	52 2	22 6	32 7	40 0
16. Madura	50 5	51 6	55 1	73 9	21 9	33 0	32 7
17. Tinnevely	51 1	55 6	51 2	18 1	24 5	25 0
18. Coimbatore	49 6	40 3	44 5	54 8	19 7	24 8	23 8
19. Nilgiris	18 3	20 9
20. Salem	45 8	50 7	51 9	57 7	24 3	33 4	28 7
21. South Canara
22. Malabar	24 3
Average for the Presi- dency	38 6	36 6	44 4	51 8	22 8	28 4	27 4
Index numbers repre- senting average prices, taking the average for the years 1849 to 1853 = 100	135	141	118	100	227	182	159

(c)—Table showing the prices of ragi in terms of seers of 80 tolas per rupee.

Districts	Average of 5 years from						
	1809 to 1813.	1819 to 1823	1828 to 1832	1849 to 1853	1861 to 1865.	1870 to 1874.	1883-84 to 1887-88
1. Ganjam ..	48 8	52 6	67 2	75 5	32 8	35 4	31 8
2. Vizagapatam ..	49 2	46 0	63 6	71 1	28 8	31 1	28 7
3. Godavari (Rajah- mundry)	38 4	38 1	54 5	70 6	29 4	35 7	29 9
4. Kistna (Masul- patam)	34 1	35 0	47 0	} 47 5	25 8	29 9	29 7
Guntur ..	47 3	32 8	41 7				
5. Nellore ..	33 7	38 5	46 6	51 3	25 7	32 0	29 0
6. Cuddapah ..	35 2	30 6	43 6	46 3	19 1	29 9	32 8
7. Anantapur ..	} 45 3	35 4	53 4	50 2	20 3	35 0	{ 33 7
8. Bellary ..							
9. Kurnool
10. Madras ..	} 31 5	30 1	32 0	41 8	20 1	28 5	{ 27 2
11. Chingleput ..							
12. North Arcot ..	32 2	30 7	34 3	53 9	22 4	34 1	31 6
13. South Arcot ..	37 3	39 7	44 2	49 1	25 6	34 7	30 3
14. Tanjore ..	35 0	43 3	52 0	63 9	27 9	33 0	29 2
15. Trichinopoly ..	40 5	39 0	48 7	58 4	24 6	33 5	30 3
16. Madura ..	45 0	48 3	49 6	65 5	22 5	31 7	30 7
17. Tinnevely ..	64 9	50 4	57 5	54 8	19 1	25 8	27 0
18. Coimbatore ..	53 4	44 3	50 8	63 6	21 9	31 1	29 1
19. Nilgiris	21 0	22 0
20. Salem ..	50 5	47 1	55 0	62 7	25 4	37 9	31 9
21. South Canara ..	33 5	36 4	46 0	49 1	19 5	24 2	20 6
22. Malabar	23 4
Average for the Presi- dency	42 0	39 9	49 3	55 8	24 0	31 1	29 1
Index numbers repre- senting average prices, taking the average for the years 1849 to 1853 = 100.	133	141	114	100	233	180	192

(d)—Table showing the prices of cumbu in terms of seers of 80 tolas per rupee.

Districts.	Average of 5 years from						
	1809 to 1813.	1819 to 1823.	1828 to 1832.	1849 to 1853.	1861 to 1865.	1870 to 1874.	1883-84 to 1887-88.
1. Ganjam	31 8	31 0	33 6
2. Vizagapatam ..	50 8	44 8	64 5	73 4	29 7	31 5	30 1
3. Godávari (Rajah- mundry)	59 1	43 1	61 5	81 7	32 7	37 4	29 2
4. Kistna (Masuli- patam)	37 0	31 5	49 9	} 44 5	22 8	25 6	23 2
Guntár	43 3	31 2	37 0				
5. Nellore	41 1	24 1	27 6	24 2
6. Cuddapah	34 1	28 5	41 5	41 9	17 9	27 5	29 6
7. Anantapur	} 38 1	32 2	48 6	41 0	17 4	26 7	} 27 7
8. Bellary							
9. Kurnool	41 1	17 7	24 0	24 9
10. Madras	} 37 9	{ 36 2	} 39 2	46 3	20 7	{ 24 8	23 4
11. Chingleput							
12. North Arcot ..	32 4	31 8	36 0	50 9	20 8	31 2	27 0
13. South Arcot ..	34 7	39 2	41 9	46 7	24 9	32 7	29 5
14. Tanjore	37 9	43 2	55 5	58 3	26 1	32 1	26 7
15. Trichinopoly ..	38 8	39 4	45 6	49 2	23 1	32 2	27 5
16. Madura	47 6	45 5	48 8	62 2	23 1	29 6	28 6
17. Tinnevely	57 2	43 8	48 8	45 6	17 5	21 4	22 8
18. Coimbatore ..	50 4	41 8	54 1	63 9	22 9	29 0	27 9
19. Nilgiris	19 3	17 8
20. Salem	43 8	49 0	52 3	59 3	25 3	35 1	27 7
21. South Canara
22. Malabar
Average for the Presi- dency	42 9	38 6	48 3	53 0	23 4	28 6	26 4
Index numbers repre- senting average prices, taking the average for the years 1849 to 1853 = 100	123	137	110	100	227	185	200

(e)—Statement showing the number of padies of paddy sold for a rupee at Palghát for a number of years compiled from the accounts preserved in the family of a rich landlord in Malabar.

Years.	No. of padies.	Years.	No. of padies.	Years	No. of padies.
1820 ..	77	1844	59	1868	21
1821	79	1845	57	1869	22
1822	77	1846	69	1870	22
1823	77	1847	58	1871	24
1824	77	1848	59	1872	25
1825	80	1849	63	1873	24
1826	77	1850	61	1874	23
1827	80	1851	60	1875	22
1828	80	1852	57	1876	21
1829	79	1853	55	1877	10
1830	81	1854	32	1878	13
1831	75	1855	25	1879	17
1832	77	1856	31	1880	20
1833	79	1857	30	1881	21
1834	79	1858	29	1882	20
1835	76	1859	22	1883	26
1836	75	1860	22
1837	75	1861	20
1838	65	1862	20
1839	70	1863	21
1840	71	1864	17
1841	70	1865	19
1842	68	1866	15	1890	18
1843	65	1867	21

(f)—Statement showing the prices of certain articles of food in 1853 as compared with their current prices at Palghát (compiled from the household accounts kept by a large landholder in Malabar)

Articles	Quantity.	PRICE IN			Percentage of increase or decrease
		1853	1891		
		RS	A	P	
Rice	430 parahs or 2,866½ padies	153	9	2	430 0 0 + 180
Plantain fruits ..	20,000 No	28	9	2	50 0 0 + 79
Green plantains ..	12,005 "	16	1	2	24 0 4 + 50
Brijjals	5,000 "	5	11	6	12 8 0 + 90
Cocoanuts	1,261 "	25	4	0	37 12 0 + 50
Cocoanut-oil	133½ padies	39	2	4	70 0 0 + 78
Gingelly-oil	6½ "	1	0	0	3 14 3 + 289
Lamp-oil	33½ "	5	9	2	16 4 0 + 191
Sugar-candy	12½ lb.	1	3	6	0 14 0 - 28
Green-gram	21½ padies	1	2	4	3 4 0 + 184
White pea	33½ "	1	12	7	5 0 0 + 180
Red-gram	22 "	1	2	4	3 2 4 + 175
Horse-gram	2 "	0	1	2	0 4 0 + 243
Salt	100 "	4	5	10	18 12 0 + 329
Pepper	50 lb.	2	0	0	14 0 0 - 600
Mustard	17½ padies.	1	4	7	3 9 9 + 180
Turmeric	3½ "	0	13	9	1 4 0 + 45
Dry chillies	40 "	0	13	9	1 12 0 + 103
Curd	773½ "	24	13	9	33 2 4 + 33
Milk	173½ "	5	11	5	32 8 0 + 468
Ghee	10 "	4	4	7	15 0 0 + 250
Betal-leaves	3,750 bundles	24	0	0	37 8 0 + 56
Areca-nut	225 lb.	31	11	5	63 0 0 + 50
Tobacco	50 "	2	2	11	10 0 0 + 358

NOTE—A padi is a measure of capacity containing 130 tolas of rice.
A parah = 6½ Macleod seers containing 128 tolas of rice each.

(g)—Statement showing the prices of different articles of food, &c., at Silar (a large village 7 miles from Coimbatore) compiled from the village accounts preserved by an old Kurnam or Village Accountant in the Coimbatore District.

Articles.	Years.	Quantity.	Price.
Rice	1820-21	13 Madras measures	RS. A. P 1 0 0
	1832-33	Do	0 11 7
	1846-47	Do.	1 1 4
	1851-52	Do.	0 11 7
	1853-54	Do.	0 13 0
	1854-55	Do.	1 2 6
	1888-89	Do.	2 2 8
Cholum	1820-21	13 vallams or 26 Madras measures.	1 0 0
	1829-30	Do.	0 5 4
	1834-35	Do.	0 14 2
	1840-41	Do.	0 6 6
	1845-46	Do.	0 6 6
	1846-47	Do.	0 12 3
	1855-56	Do.	0 13 0
1888-89	Do.	1 10 0	
Ragi	1847-48	33 Madras measures	1 0 0
	1856-57 *	Do.	2 1 0
	1888-89	Do.	2 1 0
Horse-gram	1845-46	32 Madras measures	1 0 0
	1847-48	Do.	0 13 6
	1888-89	Do.	2 0 0
Bengal-gram	1843-44	16 Madras measures	1 0 0
	1853-54	Do.	1 5 4
	1862	Do.	2 14 6
	1888-89	Do.	2 0 0
Tobacco	1822-23	One maund	0 8 0
	1832-33	Do.	0 8 0
	1888-89	Do.	2 0 0
Dholl or redgram ..	1851-52	18½ Madras measures	1 0 0
	1888-89	Do.	2 10 0
Jaggery	1834-35	One maund	0 14 0
	1839-40	Do.	0 11 0
	1841-42	Do.	0 9 7
	1888-89	Do.	1 0 0
Gingelly-seed	1853-54	16 Madras measures	1 0 0
	1888-89	Do.	2 0 0
Gingelly-oil	1851-52	One small podi	0 2 3
	1888-89	Do.	0 5 4
Castor-oil	1851-52	One small podi	0 2 8
	1888-89	Do.	0 6 8
Cotton	1822-23	One maund	0 11 2
	1834-35	Do.	0 6 5
	1840-41	Do.	to 0 8 0
	1852-53	Do.	0 12 0
	1853-54	Do.	0 10 0
	1862-63	Do.	0 8 0
	1888-89	Do.	1 6 5

* (Famine year).

(h)—Statement showing the prices of food-grains at certain stations in the Coimbatore district, obtained from certain old cadjan accounts kept by merchants and landholders.

Grains.	Quantity.	Years.	Price.
<i>Karúr.</i>			
			RS A. P.
Paddy	One kalam (36 Madras measures)	1830-31, a famine year. 1835-36 1890	0 12 0 0 8 0 2 10 7
<i>Dhárápuram</i>			
Paddy	51 Madras measures	Prior to 1840 1888	1 0 0 3 7 10
Cholum . . .	48 do	Prior to 1840 1888	1 0 0 1 12 7
Ragi	64 do.	Prior to 1840 1888	1 0 0 2 0 4
<i>Palladam.</i>			
Cholum	One podi (230 Madras measures)	1837-38 1838-39 1839-40 1888-89	5 0 0 6 2 9 6 8 0 14 6 0
Ragi	One podi	1837-38 1888-89	5 0 0 14 6 0

(i)—Statement showing the prices of articles of food, &c., in 1890 as compared with those about 1800 in the village of Singánallúr (5 miles from Coimbatore) compiled from the accounts preserved by the Kurnam or Accountant of the village.

Articles.	Quantity.	Price in 1800.	Price in 1890.
		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Paddy	1 salagai or 60 measures of 140 Rs. weight.	1 7 6	5 0 0
Cholum	Do.	1 1 7	5 0 0
Cumbu	Do.	1 1 7	4 8 0
Ragi	Do.	1 1 7	4 8 0
Horse-gram	Do.	1 1 7	5 0 0
Ghee	1 podi	0 8 0	1 4 0
Dry chillies	12 measures	0 3 0	0 2 0
Tobacco	1 bundle, 200 Rs. weight	0 2 0	0 8 0
Cotton	1 maund	0 0 9	0 1 6
Gingelly-oil	1 measure	0 4 0	0 10 8
Lamp-oil	Do.	0 4 0	0 13 4
Brass	1 seer or 24 Rs. weight	0 8 0	0 5 0
Copper	Do.	0 10 0	0 6 0
Lead	Do.	0 4 0	0 8 0
Bullocks	Each	20 0 0 to 25 0 0	70 0 0 to 80 0 0
Sheep and goats	Do.	0 12 0 to 1 4 0	5 0 0 to 7 0 0

(j)—Statement showing the maharum prices of paddy per Tanjore kalam (24 Madras Measures) for a series of years in the Tanjore District.

Years.	Price.	Years.	Price.	Years.	Price.
	RS. A. P.		RS. A. P.		RS. A. P.
1823 ..	0 13 6	1844 ..	0 8 4	1865 ..	1 7 9
1824 ..	0 13 8	1845 ..	0 11 2	1866 ..	1 8 4
1825 ..	0 8 7	1846 ..	0 10 5	1867 ..	1 4 0
1826 ..	0 5 11	1847 ..	0 7 4	1868 ..	1 4 6
1827 ..	0 5 9	1848 ..	0 6 2	1869 ..	1 0 4
1828 ..	0 9 8	1849 ..	0 7 1	1870 ..	0 12 9
1829 ..	0 8 0	1850 ..	0 7 3	1871 ..	1 0 6
1830 ..	0 7 4	1851 ..	0 7 4	1872 ..	0 15 1
1831 ..	0 7 3	1852 ..	0 7 7	1873 ..	1 3 5
1832 ..	0 10 0	1853 ..	0 12 10	1874 ..	1 1 0
1833 ..	0 12 0	1854 ..	0 10 6	1875 ..	1 0 7
1834 ..	0 8 7	1855 ..	0 12 10	1876 ..	1 15 11
1835 ..	0 7 4	1856 ..	0 10 4	1877 ..	1 12 6
1836 ..	0 11 9	1857 ..	1 0 3	1878 ..	1 12 10
1837 ..	0 8 6	1858 ..	1 4 8	1879 ..	1 1 5
1838 ..	0 8 10	1859 ..	0 12 4	1880 ..	1 0 7
1839 ..	0 8 5	1860 ..	1 1 0	1881 ..	0 13 8
1840 ..	0 6 3	1861 ..	1 1 10	1882 ..	0 13 3
1841 ..	0 4 4	1862 ..	0 13 10	1883 ..	0 15 3
1842 ..	0 6 1	1863 ..	1 3 4	1884 ..	1 5 0
1843 ..	0 8 0	1864 ..	1 6 1		

The mode of calculating the average current selling price for each maharum is as follows:—Paddy grown in Tanjore consists of two main species—kar, the early crop, and pasanum, the later crop; the cultivation of kar constitutes about one-fifth of the entire wet cultivation of the Tanjore delta and the practice is therefore to make up the general average by taking one-fifth of the average price of kar and four-fifths of that of pasanum. The averages are struck from actual sales in villages belonging to each maharum; for kar from 1st November to 31st January and for pasanum from 1st February to 20th May. The village sales are returned by the kurnam every five days, and from them the Tahsildar compiles a return every ten days and transmits it to the Collector's office, where the averages are struck. These returns of sales were prescribed with a view to determine the village prices for the purpose of fixing the demand under the olungu system under which the land revenue demand depended on the price of grain every year. After the abolition of the olungu system the returns were continued for the purpose of calculating the value of melvaram share of the grain due to the Tanjore Ranees in the villages belonging to them. As the Collector is now no longer Receiver of the Rajah's estate, the returns appear to have been since discontinued.

(k)—Statement showing the prices of articles of food, &c, in 1892, as compared with those in 1797 at Manjeshwar, a village 10 miles from Mangalore, compiled from the 'Black books' kept there.

Articles.	Quantity.	Price in 1797.		Price in 1892.	
		Rs.	A. P.	Rs.	A. P.
Paddy	Per moorah of 42 pucks seers.	0	9 0	1	4 0
Rice (Jeera) 1st sort ..	Do. ..	2	0 0	5	0 0
Do 3rd sort ..	Do. ..	1	8 0	4	0 0
Rice, muscaty, 3rd sort ..	Do ..	1	4 0	3	8 0
Green gram	Do ..	1	7 4	3	4 0
A kind of pulse called 'pigeon pea' out of which dholl is prepared	Do. ..	1	13 2	3	4 0
Dholl	Do. ..	2	12 0	4	0 0
Black gram 'Phaseolus Mungo.'	Do ..	1	7 4	3	4 0
Horse-gram	Do. ..	1	0 0	3	4 0
Salt	Do. ..	0	12 0	3	8 0
Cows' ghee	Per seer of 24 tolas ..	0	3 8	0	7 0
Buffaloes' ghee	Do ..	0	1 9	0	5 4
Oil, cocconut	Per maund of 28 lb ..	1	12 0	4	0 0
Cocconuts	Per 100	1	0 0	3	8 0
Jaggery (sugar-cane) ..	Per maund of 40 seers of 24 tolas each ..	1	4 0	2	0 0
Gingelly seeds	Per seer of 80 Tolas ..	0	1 0	0	2 0
Mustard seeds, country ..	Do. ..	0	1 0	0	2 0
Farmeric	Do. ..	0	1 4	0	4 0
Tamarind	Per maund of 28 lb ..	0	12 0	1	4 0
Chillies, country	Do. ..	2	0 0	4	0 0
Sugar	Do. ..	5	12 0	4	0 0
Chanam	Per moorah of 42 pucks seers ..	0	6 0	0	5 0
Pepper	Per maund of 28 lb. ..	2	0 0	6	0 0
Areca-nuts	Per candy	18	0 0	60	0 0
Beaten rice	Per seer of 80 tolas ..	0	0 0	0	1 0
Bamboos	Per 100	2	0 0	12	0 0
Tin	Per seer of 24 tolas ..	0	6 0	0	8 0
Copper	Per maund of 28 lb ..	20	0 0	15	0 0
Coir yarn	Per 40 yards	0	0 1	0	0 3

(D.)—Trade.

(a)—Foreign trade :— Value of exports and imports in million Rs. (Rs=10 Rs.).

Years.	Exports from						Imports to						Total Exports and Imports.						
	Madras.	Other parts of Indian Empire.				Total, Indian Empire.	Madras.	Other parts of Indian Empire.				Total, Indian Empire.	Madras.	Other parts of Indian Empire.				Total, Indian Empire.	
		Bengal.	Burma.	Bombay.	Total.			Bengal.	Burma.	Bombay.	Total.			Bengal.	Burma.	Bombay.	Total.		
Average of five years ending—																			
1838-39	1.1	6.1	..	4.1	10.2	11.3	.7	3.3	..	3.4	6.7	7.4	1.8	9.4	..	7.5	16.9	18.7	
1843-44	1.3	8.2	..	4.7	12.9	14.2	.8	5.4	..	4.3	9.7	10.6	2.1	13.6	..	9	22.6	24.7	
1848-49	1.7	9.7	..	5.6	16.3	17	1.1	6.3	..	4.8	11.1	12.2	2.7	16	..	10.5	26.5	29.2	
1853-54	1.8	10.6	..	7.6	18.2	20	1.3	7.9	..	6.7	14.6	15.9	3.1	18.5	..	14.3	32.8	35.9	
1858-59	2.3	13.1	..	10.5	23.6	25.9	2.2	13.2	..	11.4	24.6	26.8	4.5	26.3	..	21.9	48.2	52.7	
1863-64	4.3	14.9	* 1.5	23.1	38.9	43.2	3.4	16.1	* 5	21.1	37.6	41	7.7	31	* 2	44.2	76.5	84.2	
1868-69	5.7	19.6	2.2	30.3	52	57.7	4	20.2	1	24.1	45.3	49.3	9.7	39.7	3.2	54.4	97.3	107	
1873-74	6.4	24	2.9	24.5	51.4	57.8	4	18.7	1.4	17.2	37.3	41.3	10.4	42.7	4.3	41.7	88.7	99.1	
1878-79	6.8	27	4.1	25.2	56.3	63.1	4.1	20.8	2.4	21	44.2	48.3	10.9	47.8	6.5	46.2	100.5	111.4	
1883-84	8.1	33.8	6.5	32	72.3	80.4	4.6	24.1	3.6	29.5	57.2	61.8	12.7	57.9	10.1	61.5	129.5	142.2	
1888-89	9.3	35.4	6.3	39.2	80.9	90.2	5.7	25.6	4.5	39.4	69.5	75.2	15	61	10.8	78.6	150.4	165.4	

* Average for three years

(b)—Statement showing the growth or increase of Sea-borne Trade in relation to the Revenue derived from Customs duties therefrom, and of the quantity of salt sold and exported with the rates of sale per maund of 82½ lb. in relation to the receipts derived therefrom in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01 (In million £ and million lb.)

Official years.	Customs and land transit duties.	Value of sea-borne trade.			Salt			Remarks.
		Foreign trade	Coasting trade.	Total.	Receipts	Sale rate per Indian Maund of 82½ lb	Quantity sold and exported	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1800-01	£ 19				£ 02		LB No information	(a) In the original returns, the trade is given in Sicca rupees and transposed into English money at the rate of 2s. 3d. from 1800-01 to 1810-11
1801-02	31	No information.			02			
1802-03	35	19	25	(a) 44	03			
1803-04	40	26	21	47	03			
1804-05	54	16	25	41	04			
1805-06	35	20	24	44	18			
1806-07	26	13	23	36	21	} 9 annas 4 pies, or 07 farthings per lb.		
1807-08	25	16	34	50	26			
1808-09	30	15	20	35	26			
1809-10	38	13	20	33	28			
Average of 1st Decade ..	34	17	24	41	13		360	
1810-11	42	20	17	37	34	354	(b) From 1811-12 to 1818-19, the returns are given in Arcot rupees, 3¼ Arcot rupees being held equal to a pagoda, which is equivalent to 8s.	
1811-12	43	22	12	(b) 34	34	377		
1812-13	46	15	17	32	37	368		
1813-14	47	13	14	27	33	368		
1814-15	54	15	12	27	31	290		
1815-16	51	17	10	27	31	264		
1816-17	52	15	11	26	29	249		
1817-18	51	17	11	28	29	293		
1818-19	51	17	11	28	35	323		
1819-20	54	13	11	(c) 24	36	330		
Average of 2nd Decade ..	49	16	13	29	33	322	(c) From 1819-20 to 1834-35 the returns are rendered in Madras rupees, which varies but slightly from Arcot rupees, one rupee being equivalent to 2s. 1d.	

(b)—Statement showing the growth or increase of Sea-borne Trade in relation to the Revenue derived from Customs duties, &c.—cont.

Official years.	Customs and land transit duties.	Value of sea-borne trade.			Salt.			Remarks.
		Foreign trade.	Coasting trade.	Total.	Receipts.	Sale rate per Indian Maund of 82½ lb	Quantity sold and exported.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1820-21	£ 57	£ 13	£ 11	£ 24	£ 31	9 annas 4 pies, or 7 farthings per lb.	18.	
1821-22	63	20	12	32	37		385	
1822-23	62	18	10	28	34		470	
1823-24	67	18	13	31	36		446	
1824-25	64	20	22	42	33		458	
1825-26	55	23	23	46	36		472	
1826-27	54	17	18	35	33		428	
1827-28	57	24	13	37	35		500	
1828-29	61	20	15	35	40		382	
1829-30	59	24	15	39	47		409	
Average of 3rd Decade ..	58	20	15	35	36	442		
1830-31	58	15	13	28	44	14 annas, or 1 farthing per lb.	382	(d) From 1835-36 to date the returns are made out in Company's rupees, which have been always taken at 2s.
1831-32	46	19	15	34	35		377	
1832-33	43	18	15	33	33		394	
1833-34	38	15	22	37	37		531	
1834-35	42	17	17	34	38		465	
1835-36	42	17	21	(d) 38	35		367	
1836-37	47	20	23	43	37		368	
1837-38	40	18	19	37	38		350	
1838-39	41	19	21	40	40		381	
1839-40	41	21	23	44	40		384	
Average of 4th Decade ..	43	18	19	37	38	401		

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(b)—Statement showing the growth or increase of Sea-borne Trade in relation to the Revenue derived from Customs duties, &c.—cont.

Official years.	Customs and land transit duties.	Value of sea-borne trade.			Salt.			Remarks.
		Foreign trade.	Coasting trade.	Total.	Receipts	Sale rate per Indian Maund of 82½ lb.	Quantity sold and exported.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1840-41	£ 43	£ 20	£ 26	£ 46	38	14 annas, or 1 farthing per lb.	Lb. 367	(e) Land transit duties abolished by Act VI of 1844. New Customs Tariff introduced.
1841-42	41	22	23	45	40		428	
1842-43	43	20	22	42	40		435	
1843-44	42	20	22	42	43		417	
1844-45	20	29	26	(e) 55	45		387	
1845-46	17	25	22	47	47		402	
1846-47	15	26	22	48	46		404	
1847-48	14	26	20	46	49		407	
1848-49	10	30	16	46	45		409	
1849-50	10	24	24	48	46		422	
Average of 5th Decade ..	25	24	22	46	44	16 annas, or 1 2 farthings per lb.	408	
1850-51	11	28	22	50	48	18 annas, or 1 35 farthings per lb.	418	
1851-52	12	31	23	54	48		438	
1852-53	12	36	26	62	51		423	
1853-54	13	36	33	69	48		425	
1854-55	12	34	25	59	49		476	
1855-56	13	42	29	71	51		525	
1856-57	14	50	31	81	50		483	
1857-58	14	52	44	96	57		492	
1858-59	15	49	36	85	60		538	
1859-60	26	56	37	92	65		545	
Average of 6th Decade ..	14	41	31	72	53		476	

(b)—Statement showing the growth or increase of Sea-borne Trade in relation to the Revenue derived from Customs duties, &c.—cont.

Official years.	Customs and land transit duties.	Value of sea-borne trade.			Salt.			Remarks.
		Foreign trade.	Coasting trade.	Total.	Receipts.	Sale rate per Indian Maund of 82½ lb.	Quantity sold and exported.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1860-61	£ 30	£ 6.1	£ 4.4	£ 10.5	£ .71	18 annas, or 1.35 farthings per lb.	550	(f) For eleven months only, the closing date of the financial year having been changed from 30th April to 31st March.
1861-6223	6.9	4.7	11.6	.87	} 24 annas, or 1.8 farthings per lb.	524	
1862-6320	8.5	4.7	13.2	.91		530	
1863-6423	11.4	7.4	18.8	.90		549	
1864-6520	11.2	6.3	17.5	1.04		580	
1865-6621	12.7	6.2	18.9	1.01		646	
1866-67 (f)19	6.5	5.2	11.7	1.05	} 27 annas, or 1.9 farthings per lb.	597	
1867-6825	8.0	4.8	12.8	1.10		534	
1868-6928	10.2	5.4	15.6	1.11		575	
1869-7028	10.2	4.8	15.0	1.17		565	
Average of 7th Decade ..	.24	9.1	5.4	14.5	.99		565	
1870-7130	9.4	5.2	14.6	1.27	} 32 annas, or 2.4 farthings per lb.	544	
1871-7231	11.1	4.7	15.8	1.31		561	
1872-7339	10.3	3.4	13.7	1.29		548	

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(b)—Statement showing the growth or increase of Sea-borne Trade in relation to the Revenue derived from Customs duties, &c—cont.

Official years.	Customs and land transit duties.	Value of sea-borne trade.			Salt			Remarks.
		Foreign trade	Coasting trade.	Total.	Receipts	Sale rate per Indian Maund of 82½ lb.	Quantity sold and exported	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	£	£	£	£	£		LB.	
1873-74	34	11 1	5·6 4 3	16 7 4 3	1 30	} 32 annas, or 2 4 farthings per lb.	535	
1874-75	32	11 0	5 3 4 0	16·3 4 0	1 33		592	
1875-76	31	12 3	4 6 3 9	16 9 3 9	1·35		570	
1876-77	25	11·2	9 5 7 0	20·7 7 0	1 29		525	
1877-78	20	9 9	12 9 7 2	22 8 7 2	1 14		476	
1878-79	21	10 1	7 1 3 4	17 2 3 4	1 46		438	
1879-80	23	11 4	5·7 3·2	17 1 3 2	1 53		473	
Average of 8th Decade ..	28	10 8	6·5 4 5	17 3 4 5	1 33		43 annas, or 3 2 farthings per lb.	526
1880-81	25	11 9	5 4 3 7	17 3 3 7	1 56	} 35 annas, 2 6 farthings per lb.	466	
1881-82	20	12 3	5·7 2 8	18 0 2 8	1 47		470	
1882-83	10	13 5	5 2 3 5	18 7 3 5	1 39	} 35 annas, 2 6 farthings per lb.	511	
1883-84	11	14 3	6 2 3 9	20 5 3 9	1 39		552	
1884-85	10	14 2	6 4 4 2	20 6 4 2	1 38		541	

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(b)—Statement showing the growth or increase of Sea-borne Trade in relation to the Revenue derived from Customs duties, &c.—cont.

Official years.	Customs and land transit duties.	Value of sea-borne trade.			Salt.			Remarks.
		Foreign trade.	Coasting trade.	Total	Receipts	Sale rate per Indian Maund of 82½ lb.	Quantity and sold and exported.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	£	£	£	£	£		LB.	
1885-86	09	134	{ 65 50	199 50	{ 145	35 annas, or 26 farthings per lb	561	
1886-87	13	152	{ 69 41	221 41	{ 142		553	
1887-88	15	158	{ 69 47	227 47	{ 144	43 annas, or 32 farthings per lb.	561	
1888-89	17	165	{ 69 47	234 47	{ 165		582	
1889-90	18	182	{ 68 46	250 46	{ 176	579		
Average of 9th Decade ..	15	145	{ 63 41	208 41	{ 150		537	

NOTE.—From 1800-01 to 1844-45, the duties derived from land transit are not shown separately from those levied on the import and export trade of the Presidency, whether by sea or passing from British to foreign territory and *vice versa*. Act IV of 1844 abolished the land transit duties and a new customs tariff was introduced. Since 1844, and up to the present date, the customs tariff has undergone constant revision.

2. The total value of foreign and coasting trade has been extracted from the commercial returns of each year from the earliest date for which such records exist. The information, however, in the original returns was given in different kinds of rupees, but notes are inserted in the column of remarks explaining the rates at which they have been converted into sterling value for different periods. Trade with British ports within the Presidency was not recorded for years prior to 1871-72. Of the two sets of figures entered in the column "coasting trade" against the years subsequent to 1870-71, the upper figures are exclusive of the trade with British ports within the Presidency, the lower figures are those of British ports within the Presidency.

3. The district of North Canara was transferred from the Madras to the Bombay Presidency in 1862.

4. The statement was compiled from the statement printed at pages 160 and 161, Appendix I to the Famine Commission Report, 1881, and from information obtained from the Board of Revenue, Separate Revenue.

(c)—Statement showing the quantity and value of the principal articles of trade exported from and imported into the Madras Presidency by sea for a series of years (quantity and value are given in millions).

NOTE.—The statement was compiled from the statistics given in the Madras Manual of Administration and in the Annual Trade Reports.

Years.	Exports.									
	Cotton wool.		Hides and skins.		Coffee.		Indigo.		Sugar.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	LB.	RS.	NO	RS.	LB.	RS.	LB	RS.	CWT.	RS.
1855-56 ..	21	2 5	3	.7	9	.9	2 9	4 3	.49	3 2
1856-57 ..	54	7 2	3	1 4	9	.9	2 8	4 7	.54	3 8
1857-58 ..	55	8 8	4	2 2	8	.8	2	3 9	.45	4 1
1858-59 ..	39	6 1	5	1 8	11	1 2	1 9	3 6	.34	2 7
1859-60 ..	63	9 6	4	1 6	15	1 9	2 5	4 6	.43	3 1
1860-61 ..	79	11 3	4	1 7	19	3 2	1 5	2 8	.4	2 9
1861-62 ..	88	17	3	1 4	21	4 7	2 3	4 9	.32	2 5
1862-63 ..	62	23 8	4	1 9	20	5 4	2 4	5 2	.26	2 3
1863-64 ..	72	44 7	4	2 1	27	6 6	2	4	.41	3 3
1864-65 ..	73	40 4	4	1 9	31	7 7	1 5	3 3	.38	3 2
1865-66 ..	120	48 4	4	2	35	7 8	1 6	3 5	.42	2 7
1866-67 ..	24	9 4	5	2 4	17	4 2	6	1 4	.28	1 9
1867-68 ..	49	12 4	5	2 9	36	8 1	2 2	4 2	.12	9
1868-69 ..	94	21 4	6	3 2	47	10 8	2 6	6 1	.23	1 4
1869-70 ..	68	19 1	6	3 6	37	8 8	3	7 5	.24	1 7
1870-71 ..	42	10 6	7	4 1	35	8 3	3 8	8 5	.2	1 4
1871-72 ..	75	17 2	8	4 7	57	13 8	5 2	12 1	.33	2 0
1872-73 ..	68	15 9	11	6 7	42	11 3	2 9	6 9	.47	3 0
1873-74 ..	62	12 8	10	6 2	41	15 2	4 2	8 8	.22	1 2
1874-75 ..	80	16 3	8	5 6	37	13 6	2 8	5 7	.46	2 5
1875-76 ..	82	16 5	10	10 8	43	16 6	2 5	4 7	.4	1 9
1876-77 ..	54	10 7	11	12 9	36	14 3	3 1	5 6	.49	2 5
1877-78 ..	17	3 5	12	15 7	33	13 6	1 9	3 9	.41	2 7
1878-79 ..	46	10	10	11	38	15 6	2 9	5 9	.23	1 4
1879-80 ..	57	13 2	11	11 6	38	15 3	4 9	9 5	.31	1 9
1880-81 ..	44	10 2	12	13 7	39	15 2	2 8	6 2	.54	3 3
1881-82 ..	45	9 8	14	16 2	36	13 6	5 9	12 6	.91	6 1
1882-83 ..	73	16 5	15	19 3	38	13 5	3 8	7 8	1 25	7 6
1883-84 ..	73	15 2	18	18 4	38	14 5	5 8	11 7	1 48	8 1
1884-85 ..	66	14 3	13	16 9	36	12 5	4 7	9 5	1 10	6 1
1885-86 ..	41	9 5	15	19 3	41	13 5	5 1	10 5	1 25	6 2
1886-87 ..	67	14 7	16	19 4	41	15 2	4 3	8 7	1 13	6 7
1887-88 ..	78	18	17	21 3	30	15 3	4 9	10	1 13	5 7
1888-89 ..	69	16 7	18	21 8	37	18 6	5 5	10 9	1 03	6
1889-90 ..	98	25 4	18	20 7	26	15 7	6 1	11 9	1 35	8 6

(c)—Statement showing the quantity and value of the principal articles, &c.—cont.

Years.	Exports—cont.										
	Seeds.		Spices.		Rice.		Paddy.		Cotton piece-goods.		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
		CWT.	RS.	LB	RS.	CWT.	RS.	CWT.	RS.	YDS.	RS.
1855-56	..	·61	1·7	29	2·4	2·6	5·5	22	·25	..	2·1
1856-57	..	·71	2·4	21	1·9	2·4	5·1	·29	·36	..	2·
1857-58	..	1·23	2·9	25	2·4	2·6	5·8	29	·38	..	2·1
1858-59	..	·62	2·5	23	1·9	1·8	4·4	·22	·43	..	2·4
1859-60	..	·36	1·5	38	2·2	2·1	5·2	27	·43	..	2·1
1860-61	..	·52	2·3	27	2·9	2·8	6·2	·21	·36	..	1·9
1861-62	..	·67	2·8	28	3·3	1·5	4·6	21	·39	..	2·1
1862-63	..	·89	3·7	23	2·2	1·3	4·5	21	·42	..	2·
1863-64	..	·63	2·7	22	2·4	1·5	5·9	·3	·6	..	1·6
1864-65	..	·72	2·8	22	2·6	1·4	6·1	·3	86	..	1·6
1865-66	..	·59	2·3	24	2·6	1·4	6·6	·28	·7	..	2·
1866-67	..	·10	·5	6	2·1	1·5	8·4	24	·65	..	2·4
1867-68	..	·64	3·4	23	2·6	1·7	7	27	·65	..	3·4
1868-69	..	1·07	5·1	25	2·8	1·8	6·9	·31	·78	..	2·3
1869-70	..	·86	5·	23	2·5	1·5	5·9	·25	·6	..	2·2
1870-71	4·9	24	2·6	2·1	7·4	·28	·55	..	2·2
1871-72	5·8	34	3·5	2·4	8·5	·31	·6	..	2·5
1872-73	4·	32	2·9	2·1	8·8	·29	·59	7·7	2·6
1873-74	5·	25	2·7	3·5	12·4	·35	·71	9·1	2·8
1874-75	5·4	28	3·4	3·1	10·9	·27	·65	9·8	2·9
1875-76	..	1·36	5·9	30	4·1	2·4	8·9	·29	·68	7·5	2·8
1876-77	..	·90	4·9	27	3·7	1·5	6·2	·23	·54	7·	3·2
1877-78	..	·56	3·5	18	2·9	·8	4·7	·17	·63	5·5	2·8
1878-79	..	·39	2·5	25	4·2	1·3	7·4	·21	·75	5·2	2·5
1879-80	..	1·37	7·7	28	4·3	2·2	9·9	·22	·55	5·3	2·2
1880-81	..	1·49	7·7	30	4·1	2·8	10·	·47	·88	6·3	2·6
1881-82	..	1·47	7·1	35	4·6	1·7	5·6	·3	·55	6·9	3·
1882-83	..	1·40	6·5	32	5·4	1·5	4·5	·16	·29	8·3	3·3
1883-84	..	2·1	10·3	31	5·9	2·2	6·2	·17	·32	11·2	4·
1884-85	..	1·86	8·8	37	7·6	1·9	6·4	29	·64	13·1	4·8
1885-86	..	1·82	8·6	34	7·4	1·4	5·8	27	·58	15·4	4·2
1886-87	..	2·01	9·4	43	8·8	1·9	7·1	·26	·49	13·6	4·6
1887-88	..	2·27	10·6	36	8·1	1·8	6·6	·28	·54	14·6	4·7
1888-89	..	1·74	9·7	41	8·6	1·9	7·3	·36	·70	13·3	4·4
1889-90	..	1·92	11·9	38	7·1	2·1	8·3	·30	·62	13·6	4·5

(c)—Statement showing the quantity and value of the principal articles, &c.—cont.

Years	Exports—cont.							
	Oils.		Cocoanuts and kernels.		Coir, yarn and rope.		Tobacco.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
	GALS.	RS	NO.	RS.	OWT.	RS.	LB.	RS.
1855-56	2 3	·6	..	8	12	3	2	2
1856-57	2·5	·7	..	9	14	·3	2	2
1857-58	1 6	9	..	7	15	3	3	·3
1858-59	2 7	·7	..	8	·11	·3	3	3
1859-60	2 4	6	..	1 1	17	·3	2	·2
1860-61	2 5	1 6	..	1 9	·18	6	2	1
1861-62	1 8	1·6	..	3	·18	·9	2	·1
1862-63	2 8	2 7	..	3 6	18	1·1	5	·3
1863-64	3 8	3·7	..	3 5	21	1·1	3	3
1864-65	2 8	2 5	..	3·6	·18	·9	4	6
1865-66	1·6	1 5	..	2 1	·13	1·2	3	·6
1866-67	1 1	1 2	..	2·5	·18	1·	2	·3
1867-68	1 8	2 4	..	3 2	·19	1·3	3	·4
1868-69	2·6	4 1	..	3 4	25	1 7	3	·4
1869-70	2 8	4·	..	3 2	25	1 8	3	·6
1870-71	1 9	2 8	..	2 2	18	1 3	3	4
1871-72	4·2	5 6	..	3 8	·19	1 4	4	5
1872-73	4	5 5	..	3	24	1·8	3	·6
1873-74	2 3	3 2	..	2 7	24	1 9	4	8
1874-75	2 8	3 3	..	3 2	26	2	5	8
1875-76	3 1	3 4	..	* 1 2	·25	1·9	5	7
1876-77	3 9	3 9	..	* 1 4	29	2 6	6	1·
1877-78	2 4	3 1	..	* 1 2	·29	2 4	6	1·1
1878-79	2 7	3 8	..	* 1 5	·3	2 6	5	1 1
1879-80	3 6	4 2	..	* 1 7	·24	1 8	7	1·1
1880-81	3 8	4 1	..	3·6	·23	1 6	7	1 3
1881-82	3 5	3 4	..	2 9	·32	2·4	6	1 3
1882-83	2 9	3 1	..	2 6	·32	2 4	7	1·4
1883-84	4 1	4·5	..	3 5	·32	2 4	7	1 4
1884-85	4 9	4 8	..	3 8	·38	2 9	7	1·5
1885-86	3 9	4	..	3·2	35	2 7	7	1 3
1886-87	3 7	3·9	..	2 9	35	2 7	8	1 4
1887-88	4 2	4 4	..	3 9	·32	2 4	9	1 6
1888-89	4 9	5·	..	4 4	35	2 6	10	2 1
1889-90	4 9	5 1	..	3 7	43	3 3	8	1·7

* Particulars of kernels not available for these years.

(c)—Statement showing the quantity and value of the principal articles, &c.—cont.

Years.	Imports										
	Cotton piece-goods.		Cotton twist.		Paddy.		Rice		Metals		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	
	YDS.	RS.	LB.	RS.	CWT.	RS.	CWT.	RS.	CWT.	RS.	
1855-56	..	3	2 8	3 9	2 3	03	04	63	2 05	..	1 08
1856-57	..	5	2 9	4 2	2 3	21	36	43	1 22	..	1 99
1857-58	..	1 2	3 8	3 5	2 1	21	35	28	82	..	1 91
1858-59	..	2 7	4 4	6 1	3 5	37	73	18	65	..	2 43
1859-60	..	9 9	4 9	7 4	4 1	24	41	11	37	..	2 28
1860-61	6 1	7	3 9	29	55	21	75	..	3 03
1861-62	5 2	6 2	3 8	34	72	67	2 44	..	3 62
1862-63	6 4	4	2 6	27	56	93	3 20	..	2 33
1863-64	10 1	7	4 6	37	80	1 04	3 85	..	3 37
1864-65	9 6	6 4	6 2	29	61	1 05	4 03	..	3 75
1865-66	11 2	6 5	7 2	49	1 27	54	2 51	..	3 18
1866-67	42 1	10 2	7 9	46	1 39	27	1 45	..	3 03
1867-68	57 9	12	9 2	56	1 42	35	1 54	..	4 01
1868-69	66 9	13 5	10 1	53	1 87	52	2 13	..	4 33
1869-70	71 9	12 6	11 7	54	1 58	94	3 79	..	4 67
1870-71	94 6	15	12 9	34	71	83	2 98	..	3 98
1871-72	93 8	15 3	11 7	29	60	73	2 52	..	3 22
1872-73	86 6	14 1	14 3	33	74	86	3 11	..	2 71
1873-74	96 6	15 7	13 2	54	1 27	56	2 04	..	3 13
1874-75	79	13 5	14 1	80	2 02	37	1 38	..	3 59
1875-76	88 6	14 3	16	79	2 02	41	1 55	43	4 99
1876-77	87 3	14 3	16 5	1 21	3 71	6	32 76	36	4 32
1877-78	72 4	11 4	14 2	2 22	7 82	9 21	56 42	41	4 49
1878-79	68 5	10 5	14 1	1 87	5 99	2 49	13 71	25	3 13
1879-80	86 9	13 3	16 5	1 1	3 03	61	2 78	35	3 55
1880-81	106 4	16 7	20 2	44	97	80	2 75	51	4 70
1881-82	110 8	16 9	17 9	71	1 22	1 63	5 21	37	3 83
1882-83	128 7	20 2	23 5	76	1 27	1 68	5 28	37	4 28
1883-84	130 7	20 4	19 7	53	99	2 02	6 29	55	5 59
1884-85	147 9	23 4	22 9	89	1 65	99	3 54	49	5 53
1885-86	123 4	18 4	20 3	1 37	2 85	1 30	4 93	62	5 61
1886-87	177 8	26 3	21 5	53	1 06	1 28	4 75	46	5 17
1887-88	139 3	22 1	21 7	56	99	1 48	5 57	63	5 42
1888-89	173	26 4	23 3	36	62	98	3 57	59	4 72
1889-90	169 1	26 8	21 5	49	98	82	3 34	5	5 78

(d)—Statement showing the traffic by rail and by canal of the Madras Presidency with other British Provinces, French Territory, Native States and the Chief Sea-port Towns in 1889-90 (in millions of Indian Maunds and in millions of Rupees).

Articles	Rail-borne external trade.						Rail-borne internal trade.			Total Rail-borne trade.	Trade by canals.	Value of traffic with the French Territory (in millions of rupees).
	Imports into			Exports from			Madras Presidency, excluding the sea-port towns.	Madras sea-ports.	Total.			
	Madras Presidency, excluding the sea-port towns.	Madras sea-ports.	Total.	Madras Presidency, excluding the sea-port towns.	Madras sea-ports.	Total.						
	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	I. MDS.	Rs
Coal and coke04	..	.04	.02	.86	.38	.40	.04	.44	.86	..	.03
Cotton, raw07	.06	.13	.04	..	.04	.04	.87	.91	1.08	.62	.15
Cotton, manufactured04	.01	.05	.05	.07	.12	.50	.06	.56	.73	.07	1.71
Drugs and chemicals05	.06	.11	.11	..	.02
Dyes and tans06	.07	.13	.08	.01	.04	.14	.27	.41	.58	.10	.19
Grain and pulse	1.55	.31	1.86	.85	.03	.88	2.96	3.15	6.11	8.85	5.10	2.34
Hides and skins06	.26	.32	..	.01	.01	.12	.17	.29	.62	.01	.14
Jute03	..	.03	.02	.03	.05	.18	.02	.20	.28	.02	..
Liquors03	..	.03	.03	.04	.07	.06	.03	.09	.19	..	.05
Metals03	.01	.04	.02	.13	.15	.57	.05	.62	.81	.08	.18
Oils01	..	.01	.01	.05	.06	.16	.23	.39	.46	2.48	2.20
Oil seeds27	.13	.40	.08	.02	.10	.36	2.07	2.43	2.93	..	6.53
Provisions07	.19	.26	.26	.02	.28	.85	.62	1.47	2.01	..	.23
Salt02	..	.02	.11	.27	.38	2.46	..	2.46	2.88	2.28	.01
Spices08	.01	.09	.06	.01	.07	.84	.12	.46	.62	..	.31
Stone and lime01	.01	.04	.01	.05	.09	2.41	2.50	2.56
Sugar10	.05	.15	.14	..	.14	.60	.76	1.86	1.65	.45	.08
Tobacco07	..	.07	.11	.06	.17	.24	..	.17
Other articles14	.07	.21	1.24	.18	1.42	1.10	1.68	2.78	4.41	10.06	7.16
Total ..	2.60	1.18	3.78	3.07	1.24	4.31	10.86	12.90	23.76	81.85	21.44	21.50

(e)—Statement showing the average prices in Madras of the staple commodities of trade.

Articles.	1844	1849	1854	1859	1864	1869	1874
	to 1848.	to 1853.	to 1858.	to 1863.	to 1868.	to 1873.	to 1876.
<i>Imports.</i>							
Shirtings, per piece ..	Rs. 6.88	Rs. 6.15	Rs. 7.25	Rs. 7.87	Rs. 12.16	Rs. 8.41	Rs. 6.06
Grey shirtings, per 8½ lb.	9.66	6.12	5.36
Mule twist, No. 40, per bundle ..	2.81	2.64	2.8	3.94	5.74	3.69	3.24
Turkey red, Nos. 40 to 60, per bundle of 12 lb. ..	15.46	13.52	14.5
Turkey red, Nos. 40 to 60, per bundle of 10 lb. ..	16.22	21.87	22.26	17.7	15.94
Orange, Nos. 40 to 60, per bundle	4.28	..	6	6.68	4.9	4.54
Do. Nos. 30 to 60, do	3.72	3.78	3.52
Copper sheathing, 16 to 32 oz., per candy ..	255.3	258.65	321.8	275.7	249.85	212	..
Copper sheathing, per candy	265.42
Iron, assorted, per candy ..	23.69	19.8	30.3	22.14	21.63	23.26	..
Do. spelter, do. ..	63.43	42.8	71.15	57.15	62.4	58.5	..
<i>Exports.</i>							
Hides, buffalo, per 100 ..	55.5	42.25	58.75	60	93.35	133.75	..
Indigo, ordinary, per maund.	32.	39.9	45.05	51.7	50.75	40.
Do. good	30.37	45.25	51.5	62.35	63.31	..
Sugar, per candy ..	49.35	33.	28.53	27.37	36.9	33.97	27.42
Linseed, per candy ..	13.2	12.87	22.37	19.31	26	24.3	..
Rice, per garce ..	209.	159.1	246.	304.	360.6	296.	332.5

REMARKS.—Taken roughly, it will be seen that the nominal prices of the articles of import in 1874-76 are about the same as in 1850. From Mr O'Connor's report on the trade of India for 1890-91, it appears that the prices of staple imports at Calcutta have fallen since 1873 as shown below, taking the prices in 1873 to be represented by 100.

—	Grey shirtings, 8½ lb.	Mule Twist.		Copper sheathing.	Iron, flat, bolt, &c	Total.
		White, No. 40.	Turkey red, No. 40.			
March 1873	100	100	100	100	100	600
June 1874	97	92	106	95	108	498
March 1875	86	92	102	103	93	476
„ 1876	86	90	92	99	79	446
January 1877	78	90	85	92	67	412
„ 1878	73	78	87	86	60	384
„ 1879	76	75	78	80	56	365
„ 1880	81	84	75	83	73	396
„ 1881	82	82	69	81	66	370
„ 1882	78	84	69	89	71	391
„ 1883	82	74	54	80	60	350
„ 1884	75	74	62	77	62	350
„ 1885	76	72	68	64	64	324
„ 1886	84	67	57	57	50	315
„ 1887	81	62	57	65	53	318
„ 1888	79	75	59	90	61	364
„ 1889	81	75	57	98	65	376
„ 1890	76	74	57	69	79	355
„ 1891	74	70	56	71	62	333
August 1891	76	66	57	75	61	335

Information regarding variations in the Madras prices is not available, but there is little doubt that prices in Madras have fallen in about the same proportions as in Calcutta.

(f)—Statement showing the Value of certain articles of Export and Import deduced from the declared values of the articles entered in the Sea-borne Trade Returns of the Madras Presidency.

Years	Rice and Paddy—Exports.			Cocoanuts and Kernels—Exports.			Cotton Twist—Imports.	
	Value of rice per cwt.	Value of paddy per cwt.	Rate of export duty.	Number of cocoanuts per rupee.	Value of kernels per cwt.	Rate of export duty.	Value—Rupee per lb	Rate of duty.
	rs.	rs.			rs.			
1855-56 ..	2 04	1 13	...	75	3 92	...	577	
1856-57 ..	2 12	1 25	...	75	3 94	539	
1857-58 ..	2 17	1 29	75	612	
1858-59 ..	2 36	1 93	75	3 97	..	576	14th March 1859 to 11th March 1860—5 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .
1859-60 ..	2 41	1 57	2 annas per maund of 82½ lb.	76	3 96	3 per cent. (<i>ad valorem</i>).	564	
1860-61 ..	2 21	1 69	Do. do. ..	55	6 21	Do. do. ..	552	12th March 1860 to 22nd April 1862—10 per cent.
1861-62 ..	3 01	1 85	Do. do. ..	39	8 68	Do. do. ..	616	
1862-63 ..	3 50	1 93	Do. do. ..	40	8 77	Do. do. ..	642	23rd April 1862 to 9th March 1882—3½ per cent.
1863-64 ..	3 21	1 99	Do. do. ..	40	7 93	Do. do. ..	649	
1864-65 ..	4 19	2 91	Do. do. ..	39	8 22	Do. do. ..	962	From 10th March 1882—free
1865-66 ..	4 56	2 47	3 annas per maund (12th April to 14th July 1865).	36	10 31	Do. do. ..	1 097	
1866-67 ..	5 54	2 69	2 annas per maund (15th July 1865 to 5th March 1867)	..	12 96	Do. do. ..	1 096	
			3 annas per maund from 6th March 1867.					
1867-68 ..	4 01	2 39	Do. do.	Free from 6th March 1867.	906	

(f)—Statement showing the Value of certain articles of Export and Import deduced from the declared values of the articles, &c.—cont.

Years.	Rice and Paddy—Exports.			Cocoanuts and Kernels—Exports.			Cotton Twist—Imports.	
	Value of rice per cwt.	Value of paddy per cwt.	Rate of export duty.	Number of cocoanuts per rupee.	Value of kernels per cwt.	Rate of export duty.	Value—Rupee per lb.	Rate of duty.
	RS.	RS.			RS.			
1868-69 ..	2 92	2 48	3 annas per maund from 6th March 1867.	39	10 10	·907	
1869-70 ..	4	2 45	Do. do. ..	35	10 59	·793	
1870-71 ..	3 62	1 99	Do. do. ..	35	10 76	808	
1871-72 ..	3 16	1 92	Do. do. ..	40	8 72	..	·809	
1872-73 ..	4 07	2 03	Do. do. ..	48	7 28	·750	
1873-74 ..	3 57	2 04	Do. do. ..	43	9 13	·785	
1874-75 ..	3 57	2 42	Do. do. ..	45	8 62	·769	
1875-76 ..	3 63	2 38	Do. do. ..	41		773	
1876-77 ..	4 02	2 38	Do. do. ..	41	Parta- culars not available	·688	
1877-78 ..	5 74	3 68	Do. do. ..	32		·691	
1878-79 ..	5 69	3 48	Do. do. ..	29		·673	
1879-80 ..	4 56	2 54	Do. do. ..	44		·731	
1880-81 ..	3 54	1 86	Do. do. ..	48		8 46	..	·721
1881-82 ..	3 22	1 84	Do. do. ..	47	8 27	..	·622	
1882-83 ..	2 95	1 80	Do. do. ..	41	10 14	·637	
1883-84 ..	2 90	1 86	Do. do. ..	35	10 82	695	
1884-85 ..	3 45	2 17	Do. do. ..	46	8 40	645	
1885-86 ..	4 05	2 15	Do. do. ..	40	9 01	..	622	
1886-87 ..	3 76	1 89	Do. do. ..	42	9 45	..	643	
1887-88 ..	3 60	1 90	Do. do. ..	40	9 95	·637	
1888-89 ..	3 73	1 96	Do. do. ..	43	8 60	·666	
1889-90 ..	3 94	2 08	Do. do. ..	43	9 27	..	·683	

(g)—Statement showing the Net Imports of Gold and Silver into India for a series of years (in Million Rs. Rs. = 10 Rs.).

Years.	Net imports.			Years	Net imports		
	Gold.	Silver	Total		Gold.	Silver	Total
1834-35	1 8	1865-66	5·7	18 7	24 4
1835-36	2 1	1866-67	3 8	7 0	10 8
1836-37	1 8	1867-68	4 6	5·6	10 2
1837-38	2 3	1868-69	5·2	8 6	13 8
1838-39	2 6	1869-70	5 6	7 3	12 9
1839-40	1·5	1870-71	2 3	0·9	3 2
1840-41	1·4	1871-72	3 6	6 5	10 1
1841-42	1·7	1872-73	2 5	0 7	3 2
1842-43	3 2	1873-74	1·4	2 5	3 9
1843-44	3 8	1874-75	1·9	4 6	6 5
1844-45	3 1				
1845-46	1 9	Total ..	93 0	174 6	267 6
1846-47	..	0 8	1 4				
1847-48	..	1·0	—0·5	1875-76	1·5	1 6	3 1
1848-49	..	1·4	0 3	1876-77	0 2	7 2	7 4
1849-50	..	1 1	1 3	1877-78	0 5	14 7	15·2
	Total ..		34 0	1878-79	—0 9	4 0	3 1
				1879-80	1 8	7 8	9 6
1850-51	1 2	2 1	3 3	1880-81	3 6	3 9	7 5
1851-52	1 2	2 9	4 1	1881-82	4 9	5 3	10 2
1852-53	1 2	4 6	5 8	1882-83	4 9	7 5	12 4
1853-54	1 1	2 3	3 4	1883-84	5 5	6 4	11 9
1854-55	0·7	.	0 7	1884-85	4 7	7 2	11 9
1855-56	2 5	8 2	10 7	1885-86	2 8	11 6	14 4
1856-57	2 1	11·1	13 2	1886-87	2 1	7 2	9 3
1857-58	2 8	12 2	15 0	1887-88	3 0	9 2	12 2
1858-59	4·4	7 8	12 2	1888-89	2 8	9 3	12 1
1859-60	4 3	11 1	15 4	1889-90	4 6	11·0	15 6
1860-61	4 2	5·3	9·5	Total ..	42 0	113 9	155 9
1861-62	5 2	9 1	14·3				
1862-63	6 8	12 6	19 4	1890-91	5 6	14 2	19 8
1863-64	8·9	12 8	21 7				
1864-65	9·8	10 1	19 9	Grand Total from 1850-51	140 6	302 7	443 3

(h)—Statement showing the number of Factories in the Madras Presidency in 1889-90.

Nature of Industry.	Number of mills or factories.	Nominal capital (if a joint-stock company).	Number of spindles	Average daily number of persons employed.		Annual outturn		
				Through-out the year.	In the working season.	Quantity.	Value	
Cotton mills worked by steam ..	8	Rs. 51,00,500	169,128	5,647	..	181,052 cwt. of cotton worked up	Rs. ..	Outturn of only two factories
Jute mills ..	1	..	1,548	711	..	38,266 cwt. of jute	
Breweries	2	447,404 gallons	
Bone crushing factories	6	160 tons	7,237	
Coffee works	23	1,429	6,166	18,506,465 lb *	98,34,449	
Cement works	1	198	233	60,000 cwt	1,20,000	
Cotton presses and weaving establishments (other than mills).	41	1,120	1,929	95,725,531 lb , 223,850 yards	
Flour mills	1	20	15,000	
Ice factories	2	34	20	874 tons	46,359	
Indigo factories	6	27	580	153 maunds	34,775	
Indigo vats	6,393	863	88,225	47,762 maunds	50,88,958	
Iron and brass foundries	5	349	..	12,051 cwts	1,11,819	
Mineral and aerated water factories..	12	114	20	80,386 bottles	66,762	
Oil mills	17	780	..	90,463 cwt	10,10,482	
Rice mills	1	1,17,500	60	61,865 cwt	64,600	
Rope works	4	61	116	Lb. 176,767, 1,200 to 1,600 bales of coir yarn and fibre, and 1,098 rolls of coir matting.	41,000	
Silk filatures	1	95,000	..	60	..	1,920 lb	21,120	
Sugar factories	6	1,318	746	27,922 cwt	3 71,258	
Tanneries	7	505	20	13,336 cwt	11,55,544	
Timber mills	3	126	90,700	
Tobacco firms and factories ..	32	1,203	454	90,119,992 cigars	7,14,110	

* Also 3,932,244 lb. of cinchona, cardamoms, pepper, ginger, &c , valued at Rs. 6,48,945.

NOTE.—This statement cannot be considered complete or strictly accurate.

(E.)—Taxation.

(a)—Statement showing the growth of Revenue or Taxation in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01. In Millions Rs (Rs. = 10 Rs.).

Items of Revenue.	1800-01	1801-02	1802-03.	1803-04.	1804-05.	1805-06	1806-07.	1807-08.	1808-09	1809-10	Average for 10 years ending 1809-10.	1810-11	1811-12	1812-13.	1813-14
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
<i>State Revenue or Taxation</i>															
1 Land Revenue	} 2 46	3 82	4 01	3 90	3 99	4 15	3 80	4 04	4 05	4 17	3 84	3 99	3 90	3 96	3 99
2. Moturpha or tax on trades, houses, &c, and the income and assessed taxes ..															
3. Abkari farms and excise															
4. Tobaccomonopoly in Malabar & S Canara															
5 Customs and land transit duties															
6. Salt receipts															
7. Stamps															
8. Provincial rates															
9. Forest															
10 Registration															
Total	2 67	4 15	4 39	4 33	4 57	4 68	4 27	4 55	4 61	4 84	4 31	4 78	4 70	4 82	4 82
11 Miscellaneous	·87	·58	·33	32	·32	33	33	38	36	53	43	46	45	47	47
Total	3·54	4·73	4·72	4 65	4 89	5·01	4 60	4 93	4 97	5 37	4 74	5 24	5 15	5 29	5 29
<i>Other than State Revenue or Taxation</i>															
12. Village service fund
13. Local funds, general
14. Local funds, special
15 Municipal taxation
Total
Grand Total, excluding miscellaneous ..	2 67	4 15	4 39	4 33	4 57	4 68	4 27	4 55	4 61	4 84	4 31	4 78	4 70	4 82	4 83
Grand Total, including miscellaneous .	3·54	4·73	4·72	4 65	4 89	5 01	4 60	4 93	4 97	5 37	4 74	5 24	5 15	5 29	5 29

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(a)—Statement showing the growth of Revenue or Taxation in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01. In Millions Rs. (Rs. = 10 Rs.)—cont.

Items of Revenue.	1814-15.	1815-16.	1816-17.	1817-18.	1818-19.	1819-20.	Average for 10 years ending 1819-20.	1820-21.	1821-22.	1822-23.	1823-24.	1824-25.	1825-26.	1826-27.	1827-28.
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
<i>State Revenue or Taxation.</i>															
1. Land revenue	} 3 89	3 61	3 83	3 85	3 80	3 79	3 86	3 74	3 71	3 77	3 74	3 76	3 98	3 67	3 60
2. Motarpha or tax on trades, houses, &c., and the income and assessed taxes ..															
3. Abkari farms and excise															
4. Tobacco monopoly in Malabar & S. Canara															
5. Customs and land transit duties															
6. Salt receipts															
7. Stamps															
8. Provincial rates															
9. Forest															
10. Registration															
Total ..	4 78	4 47	4 68	4 70	4 71	4 74	4 72	4 68	4 77	4 79	4 73	4 69	4 95	4 60	4 58
11. Miscellaneous	54	63	68	68	65	66	57	72	79	79	77	75	76	1 38	77
Total ..	5 32	5 10	5 36	5 38	5 36	5 40	5 29	5 40	5 56	5 58	5 50	5 44	5 71	5 98	5 35
<i>Other than State Revenue or Taxation</i>															
12. Village service fund
13. Local funds, general
14. Local Funds, special
15. Municipal taxation
Total
Grand Total, excluding miscellaneous ..	4 78	4 47	4 68	4 70	4 71	4 74	4 72	4 68	4 77	4 79	4 73	4 69	4 95	4 60	4 58
Grand Total, including miscellaneous ..	5 32	5 10	5 36	5 38	5 36	5 40	5 29	5 40	5 56	5 58	5 50	5 44	5 71	5 98	5 35
Population	13,476,923

(a)—Statement showing the growth of Revenue or Taxation in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01. In Millions Rs. (Rs. = 10 Rs.)—cont.

Items of Revenue	1828-29	1829-30.	Average for 10 years ending 1829-30.	1830-31.	1831-32.	1832-33.	1833-34	1834-35.	1835-36.	1836-37	1837-38	1838-39.	1839-40.	Average for 10 years ending 1839-40.
	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45
<i>State Revenue or Taxation.</i>														
1 Land revenue									3 30	2 89	3 15	3 24	3 22	..
2 Moturpa or tax on trades, houses, &c., and the income and assessed taxes ..	3 65	3 52	3 73	3 46	3 25	2 94	3 18	3 25	10	10	10	11	10	3 41
3 Abkari farms and excise									17	17	18	18	23	..
4 Tobacco monopoly in Malabar & S Canara	07	07	..	07	06	07	07	07	07	08	08	08	09	..
5 Customs and land transit duties	61	59	58	58	46	42	38	42	42	47	40	41	41	43
6 Salt receipts	40	47	36	44	35	33	37	38	35	37	38	40	40	38
7 Stamps	06	05	06	05	04	04	04	04	04	05	05	05	05	04
8 Provincial rates
9. Forest
10 Registration
Total ..	4 79	4 70	4 73	4 60	4 16	3 80	4 04	4 16	4 45	4 13	4 34	4 47	4 50	4 26
11. Miscellaneous	78	71	82	76	31	31	32	32	15	49	48	48	47	41
Total ..	5 57	5 41	5 55	5 36	4 47	4 11	4 36	4 48	4 60	4 62	4 82	4 95	4 97	4 67
<i>Other than State Revenue or Taxation</i>														
12 Village service fund
13. Local funds, general
14. Local funds, special
15. Municipal taxation
Total
Grand Total, excluding miscellaneous ..	4 79	4 70	4 73	4 60	4 16	3 80	4 04	4 16	4 45	4 13	4 34	4 47	4 50	4 26
Grand Total, including miscellaneous ..	5 57	5 41	5 55	5 36	4 47	4 11	4 36	4 48	4 60	4 62	4 82	4 95	4 97	4 67
Population	13,697,396

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(a)—Statement showing the growth of Revenue or Taxation in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01. In Millions Rs. (Rs.= 10 Rs.)—cont.

Items of Revenue.	1840-41.	1841-42.	1842-43.	1843-44.	1844-45.	1845-46.	1846-47.	1847-48.	1848-49.	1849-50.	Average for 10 years 1841-50.	1850-51.	1851-52.	1852-53.
	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59
<i>State Revenue or Taxation.</i>														
1. Land revenue	3.27	3.30	3.28	3.26	3.38	3.46	3.59	3.66	3.65	3.48	3.43	3.62	3.61	3.69
2. Moturpha or tax on trades, houses, &c, and the income and assessed taxes ..	.10	.10	.11	.11	.11	.12	.11	.11	.11	.11	.11	.11	.12	.12
3. Abkari farms and excise19	.19	.21	.23	.23	.23	.22	.23	.25	.25	.22	.24	.24	.24
4. Tobacco monopoly in Malabar & S. Canara	.08	.08	.09	.08	.09	.09	.09	.09	.07	.09	.09	.08	.09	.06
5. Customs and land transit duties ..	.43	.41	.43	.42	.20	.17	.15	.14	.10	.10	.25	.11	.12	.12
6. Salt receipts38	.40	.40	.43	.45	.47	.46	.49	.45	.46	.44	.48	.48	.51
7. Stamps05	.05	.05	.05	.04	.02	.02	.03	.04	.04	.04	.05	.05	.05
8. Provincial rates
9. Forest
10. Registration
Total ..	4.50	4.53	4.57	4.58	4.50	4.56	4.64	4.74	4.67	4.53	4.58	4.59	4.71	4.79
11. Miscellaneous47	.48	.52	.49	.50	.45	.49	.47	.48	.47	.48	.50	.52	.53
Total .	4.97	5.01	5.09	5.07	5.00	5.01	5.13	5.21	5.15	5.00	5.06	5.09	5.23	5.32
<i>Other than State Revenue or Taxation.</i>														
12. Village service fund
13. Local funds, general
14. Local funds, special
15. Municipal taxation
Total
Grand Total, excluding miscellaneous ..	4.50	4.53	4.57	4.58	4.50	4.56	4.64	4.74	4.67	4.53	4.58	4.59	4.71	4.79
Grand Total, including miscellaneous ..	4.97	5.01	5.09	5.07	5.00	5.01	5.13	5.21	5.15	5.00	5.06	5.09	5.23	5.32
Population	22,031,697	22,857,856

(a)—Statement showing the growth of Revenue or Taxation in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01. In Millions Rs. (Rs. = 10 Rs.)—cont.

Items of Revenue.	1853-54.	1854-55	1855-56	1856-57	1857-58	1858-59	1859-60	Average for 10 years ending 1859-60.	1860-61	1861-62	1862-63.	1863-64	1864-65	1865-66
	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73
<i>State Revenue or Taxation</i>														
1 Land revenue	3 40	3 49	3 41	3 59	3 68	4 18	4 09	3 66	3 97	4 15	4 24	4 30	4 18	4 30
2 Moturpha or tax on trades, houses, &c, and the income and assessed taxes ..	11	11	10	10	11	11	11	11	20	29	23	17	15	07
3 Abkari farms and excise	25	24	23	23	27	29	29	26	31	33	38	40	40	41
4 Tobacco monopoly in Malabar & S Canara	Abolished under Act IV of 1853													
5 Customs and land transit duties	13	12	13	14	14	15	26	14	30	23	20	23	20	21
6 Salt receipts	48	49	51	50	57	60	65	53	71	87	92	90	1 04	1 01
7 Stamps	05	05	07	07	08	08	09	07	15	31	21	24	27	30
8 Provincial rates
9 Forest
10 Registration
Total ..	4 42	4 50	4 45	4 63	4 85	5 41	5 49	4 77	5 64	6 18	6 17	6 24	6 24	6 80
11. Miscellaneous	56	43	83	83	83	85	1 06	70	1 03	83	76	79	77	66
Total ..	4 98	4 93	5 28	5 46	5 68	6 26	6 55	5 47	6 67	7 01	6 93	7 03	7 01	6 96
<i>Other than State Revenue or Taxation.</i>														
12 Village service fund	04	04	04	05	04	06	06	05	06	06	07	07	05	06
13. Local funds, general	02	03	03
14 Local funds, special	08	04
15 Municipal taxation	02	02	02	02	02	02	03	03	03
Total ..	04	04	04	05	04	08	08	05	08	08	09	12	14	16
Grand Total, excluding miscellaneous ..	4 46	4 54	4 49	4 68	4 89	5 49	5 57	4 82	5 72	6 26	6 26	6 36	6 38	6 46
Grand Total, including miscellaneous ..	5 02	4 97	5 32	5 51	5 72	6 34	6 63	5 52	6 75	7 09	7 02	7 15	7 15	7 12
Population	24,656,509	26,539,052

(a)—Statement showing the growth of Revenue or Taxation in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01. In Millions Rs. (Rs. = 10 Rs.)—cont.

Items of Revenue.	1866-67.	1867-68.	1868-69.	1869-70.	Average for 10 years to 1869-70.	1870-71	1871-72.	1872-73	1873-74.	1874-75.	1875-76.	1876-77.	1877-78.	1878-79
	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87
<i>State Revenue or Taxation.</i>														
1. Land Revenue	3 65	4 24	4 07	4 49	4 16	4 40	4 44	4 69	4 45	4 64	4 55	3 29	3 50	4 97
2. Moturpha or tax on trades, houses, &c., and the income and assessed taxes	09	06	13	14	25	11	07	Abolished.					08
3. Abkari farms and excise	43	51	49	57	42	59	57	62	61	60	63	56	47	59
4. Tobacco monopoly in Malabar & S. Canara	Abolished under Act IV of 1853													
5. Customs and land transit duties	19	25	28	28	24	30	31	39	34	32	31	25	20	21
6. Salt receipts	1 05	1 10	1 11	1 17	99	1 27	1 31	1 29	1 30	1 33	1 35	1 29	1 14	1 46
7. Stamps	28	35	37	41	29	40	40	43	47	49	50	50	49	53
8. Provincial rates	61
9. Forest	06
10. Registration	03	04	04	05	04	04	04	04	05
Total	5 60	6 54	6 38	7 04	6 24	7 24	7 22	7 56	7 25	7 46	7 42	5 97	5 88	6 56
11. Miscellaneous	65	97	1 13	1 04	86	97	87	64	94	91	94	1 08	1 10	1 35
Total	6 25	7 51	7 51	8 08	7 10	8 21	8 09	8 20	8 19	8 37	8 36	7 05	6 98	8 91
<i>Other than State Revenue or Taxation.</i>														
12. Village service fund	09	08	09	14	08	16	18	20	20	21	22	20	20	22
13. Local funds, general	04	14	22	23	01	21	25	40	40	40	39	32	32	43
14. Local funds, special	03	04	04	05	04	05	05	05	05	05	06	04	04	02
15. Municipal taxation	04	11	11	11	05	11	12	12	12	11	12	12	13	13
Total	20	37	46	53	22	53	60	77	77	77	79	68	69	80
Grand Total, excluding miscellaneous	5 80	6 91	6 84	7 57	6 46	7 77	7 82	8 33	8 02	8 23	8 21	6 65	6 57	8 71
Grand Total, including miscellaneous	6 45	7 88	7 97	8 61	7 32	8 74	8 69	8 97	8 96	9 14	9 15	7 73	7 67	10 06
Population	31,697,872

(a)—Statement showing the growth of Revenue or Taxation in the Madras Presidency from 1800-01. In Millions Rs (Rs = 10 Rs)—cont.

Items of Revenue	1879-80.	Average for 10 years ending 1879-80	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83	1883-84	1884-85	1885-86	1886-87	1887-88	1888-89	1889-90	Average for 10 years ending 1889-90
	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
<i>State Revenue or Taxation.</i>													
1. Land Revenue	4 95	4 39	4 67	4 69	4 82	4 85	4 48	4 90	4 85	4 94	4 85	5 03	4 81
2. Moturpha or tax on trades, houses, &c., and the income and assessed taxes ..	08	12	05	05	05	05	04	05	15	17	17	18	09
3. Abkari farms and excise	62	59	63	65	65	66	77	88	92	97	1 05	1 14	83
4. Tobacco monopoly in Malabar & S Canara	Abolished under Act IV of 1853												
5. Customs and land transit duties	23	28	25	20	10	11	10	09	13	15	17	18	15
6. Salt receipts	1 58	1 33	1 56	1 47	1 39	1 39	1 38	1 45	1 42	1 44	1 65	1 76	1 50
7. Stamps	54	47	55	54	52	56	57	59	58	60	61	65	58
8. Provincial rates	69	65	55	62	64	67	61	68	65	69	70	76	66
9. Forest	06	04	07	03	09	10	12	12	13	14	15	16	11
10. Registration	05	04	06	06	06	06	08	09	09	09	10	10	08
Total	8 80	7 34	8 39	8 36	8 32	8 45	8 15	8 85	8 92	9 19	9 45	9 96	8 81
11. Miscellaneous	1 31	1 01	1 17	1 17	1 14	1 15	1 11	1 15	1 25	1 34	1 16	1 41	1 20
Total	10 11	8 35	9 56	9 53	9 46	9 60	9 26	10 00	10 17	10 53	10 61	11 37	10 01
<i>Other than State Revenue or Taxation.</i>													
12. Village service fund	26	21	26	31	31	33	31	33	32	34	34	37	32
13. Local funds, general	47	36	42	44	46	48	45	50	49	50	51	55	48
14. Local funds, special	02	04	02	02	02	02	02	03	03	03	03	03	02
15. Municipal taxation	16	12	16	17	17	17	19	19	19	20	20	21	19
Total	91	73	86	94	96	1 00	97	1 05	1 03	1 07	1 08	1 16	1 01
Grand Total, excluding miscellaneous ..	8 98	7 93	8 57	8 55	8 51	8 64	8 36	9 07	9 14	9 42	9 68	10 20	9 02
Grand Total, including miscellaneous ..	10 29	8 94	9 74	9 72	9 65	9 79	9 47	10 22	10 39	10 78	10 84	11 61	10 22
Population	30,827,113	35,630,440	..

Notes.—(1) Since 1878-79, the Local funds, General (item 13) and the Village Service fund, (item 12) have been incorporated in the General Financial Accounts and the revenue under these heads have been entered, a portion under Land Revenue, and the remainder under Provincial rates. The receipts for these years have, however, also been separately given for purposes of comparison with the revenue of the previous years. The revenue under these heads having been thus twice entered in the statement for the years subsequent to 1878-79, the sum of the several totals exceeds the figures entered against the grand totals by the amounts entered against "Local funds, General," and "Village Service fund."

(2) Since 1878-79, the figures entered against "Local funds, Special" represent only the collections of the Cattle Pound fund, which has not been incorporated in the Financial Accounts.

(3) Prior to 1870-71, the receipts from forests and registration were included under miscellaneous (item 11).

(4) For details of items 12 to 15—*vide* next statement (b).

(5) The figures in this statement have been taken from the statement printed at pages 150 and 151 of the Famine Commission Report, Appendix I, and from the Finance Accounts of the Government of India.

(b)—Statement showing the growth of the various kinds of Local and Municipal taxation from the year 1853-54 in the Madras Presidency.
In Millions Rs. (Rs. = 10 Rs).

Items of Revenue.	1853-54	1854-55	1855-56	1856-57	1857-58	1858-59.	1859-60.	1860-61	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65.	1865-66.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
<i>Village Services Funds</i>													
Prescriptive allowances	·04	04	04	05	04	·06	06	06	06	07	07	06	06
Service cess in lieu of direct fees
Total ..	04	·04	04	·05	04	06	06	06	06	07	07	05	·06
<i>Local Funds, General</i>													
Rate on rent value of land	01	·02	·02
House-tax in villages for educational purposes.
Tolls and ferries	01	01	01
Total	02	03	03
<i>Local Funds, Special.</i>													
Pound fund	01	02
Fishery rents	01	01
Jungle conservancy	01	01
Total	03	04
<i>Municipal.</i>													
Taxation in the city of Madras	02	02	02	·02	·02	03	·03	03
Taxation of Provincial Municipalities
Total	02	02	02	02	·02	03	03	03
Grand Total ..	04	·04	04	·05	04	08	08	·08	08	09	·12	14	16

(b)—Statement showing the growth of the various kinds of Local and Municipal taxation from the year 1853-54, &c.—cont.

Items of Revenue.	1866-67.	1867-68.	1868-69.	1869-70.	1870-71.	1871-72.	1872-73.	1873-74.	1874-75.	1875-76.	1876-77.	1877-78.
	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
<i>Village Service Funds.</i>												
Prescriptive allowances	·09	·08	·09	·14	·16	14	* ·14	* 14	* 16	* 14	* ·12	Not available.
Service cess in lieu of direct fees	·04	* ·04	* ·04	* ·05	* ·05	* ·05	..
Total ..	·09	·08	·09	·14	·16	·18	* ·20	* 20	* 21	* ·22	* 20	·20
<i>Local Funds, General.</i>												
Rate on rent value of land	·03	·12	·20	·21	19	·23	·37	37	37	36	30	·29
House-tax in villages for educational purposes	·01	·01	·01
Tolls and ferries	·01	·02	·02	02	·02	·02	·02	02	02	03	02	·03
Total ..	·04	14	·22	23	·21	25	·40	40	40	39	32	·32
<i>Local Funds, Special.</i>												
Pound fund	·01	02	·02	02	·02	·02	02	02	02	·02	·02	·02
Fishery rents	01	01	·01	·01	01	·01	·01	01	01	01	Transfd. to "Irrigation."	·02
Jungle conservancy	·01	·01	01	02	02	·02	02	02	02	03	·02	02
Total	·03	·04	·04	05	05	05	·05	05	05	·06	·04	·04
<i>Municipal.</i>												
Taxation in the city of Madras	·04	·04	·04	·04	·04	04	·04	·04	04	04	05	06
Taxation of Provincial Municipalities	·07	07	·07	·07	·08	·08	08	07	08	·07	07
Total ..	·04	·11	11	·11	·11	·12	·12	12	11	·12	·12	·13
Grand Total ..	·20	·37	·46	53	53	·60	·77	·77	77	·79	·68	69

* These figures do not make up the totals for the reason that certain items (such as percentage on water rates) have been credited to the Village Service fund, which had not been shown separately in the accounts under either head.

(b)—Statement showing the growth of the various kinds of Local and Municipal taxation from the year 1853-54, &c.—cont.

Items of Revenue.	1878-79.	1879-80	Average of 10 years ending 1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.	1883-84.	1884-85	1885-86.	1886-87	1887-88	1888-89.	1889-90	Average for 10 years ending 1889-90.
	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
<i>Village Service Funds.</i>														
Prescriptive allowances	15	16		16	18	17	18	17	18	18	19	18	18	18
Service cess in lieu of direct fees	07	10		10	13	14	15	14	16	14	16	16	19	14
Total ..	22	26	21	26	31	31	33	31	33	32	34	34	37	32
<i>Local Funds, General.</i>														
Rate on rent value of land	40	44		38	40	42	43	40	45	43	43	43	45	42
House-tax in villages for educational purposes	03	03		04	04	04	05	05	05	06	01	01	02	01
Tolls and ferries											06	07	08	06
Total ..	43	47	36	42	44	46	48	45	50	49	50	51	55	48
<i>Local Funds, Special</i>														
Found fund	02	02	02	02	02	02	02	02	03	03	03	03	03	02
Fishery rents	Transfd. to "Irrgn."		01						Transferred to "Irrigation."					
Jungle conservancy	Transfd. to "Forests"		01						Transferred to "Forests."					
Total ..	02	02	04	02	02	02	02	02	03	03	03	03	03	02
<i>Municipal.</i>														
Taxation in the city of Madras	05	07		07	07	07	07	09	09	09	09	09	09	08
Taxation of Provincial Municipalities	08	09		09	10	10	10	10	10	10	11	11	12	11
Total ..	13	16	12	16	17	17	17	19	19	19	20	20	21	19
Grand Total ..	80	91	73	86	94	96	100	97	105	103	107	108	116	101

LXXXO

Note.—The return has been compiled from the statement printed at page 152 of Appendix I, of the Famine Commission Report and from the departmental administration reports.

(c)—Statement showing the growth of the Land Revenue and extension of occupied area of land fully assessed in the Madras Presidency.
(In Million £ and Million Acres—1 £ = Rs. 10).

		1852-53.	1853-54.	1854-55.	1855-56.	1856-57.	1857-58.	1858-59.	1859-60.
1. Land revenue realized according to financial statements presented to Parliament.		3.69	3.40	3.49	3.41	3.59	3.68	4.18	4.09
2. Current land revenue demand as given in the revenue returns, including South Canara and Malabar.		0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.51
		3.20	2.92	3.07	3.22	3.35	3.26	3.61	3.53
		Total £ ..		3.70	3.42	3.57	3.72	3.85	3.76
		Area acres ..		9.80	9.33	9.41	9.70	10.35	11.01
		Assessment £ ..		1.23	1.17	1.23	1.32	1.41	1.41
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		2-6 1	2-6 1	2-7 3	2-8 6	2-8 6	2-5 6
3. Total cultivators' holdings of fully-assessed lands in ryotwari tracts showing the area in acres and assessment thereon, according to the annual revenue returns, excluding the districts of North and South Canara in each year, and including the district of Malabar after 1865-66.	(a) Dry or unirrigated lands.	Area acres ..		2.56	2.58	2.36	2.43	2.67	2.78
		Assessment £ ..		1.59	1.66	1.49	1.60	1.63	1.52
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		12-5 2	12-10 4	12-7 6	13-2 5	12-7 9	13-2
	(b) Wet or irrigated lands under consolidated assessment.	Area acres ..		0.41	0.31	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.35
		Assessment £ ..		0.20	0.17	0.19	0.20	0.20	0.17
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		10-1	10-10 5	10-1 2	9-11	9-10 9	9-6 5
	(c) Garden lands	(1) Water-rate and charge for lands converted from dry to wet. £		0.06	0.07	0.07
		(2) Charge for second crop on wet lands. £		0.04	0.06	0.04
	(d) Extra assessment or additional revenue.	Area acres ..		12.77	12.22	12.16	12.52	13.31	13.66
		Assessment £ ..		3.02	3.00	2.91	3.22	3.37	3.40
	Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		4-8 7	4-10 9	4-9 5	5-1 9	5-0 6	4-11 8	
Total holdings in ryotwari tracts.		Area acres ..		12.77	12.22	12.16	12.52	13.31	13.66
		Assessment £ ..		3.02	3.00	2.91	3.22	3.37	3.40
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		4-8 7	4-10 9	4-9 5	5-1 9	5-0 6	4-11 8
		Area acres ..		12.77	12.22	12.16	12.52	13.31	13.66
		Assessment £ ..		3.02	3.00	2.91	3.22	3.37	3.40
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		4-8 7	4-10 9	4-9 5	5-1 9	5-0 6	4-11 8

(c)—Statement showing the growth of the Land Revenue and extension of occupied area of land fully assessed, &c.—cont.

			1860-61.	1861-62	1862-63	1863-64.	1864-65	1865-66.	1866-67.	1867-68.	
1. Land revenue realized according to financial statements presented to Parliament.			3 97	4 15	4 24	4 30	4 18	4 30	3 65	4 24	
2. Current land revenue demand as given in the revenue returns, including South Canara and Malabar.			0 51	0 51	0 51	0 51	0 51	0 51	0 51	0 51	
(a) Revenue of zemindari or permanently-settled estates. £			3 50	3 72	3 78	3 83	3 74	3 80	3 90	3 69	
(b) Revenue not permanently settled, including "Miscellaneous," "Water-rates," &c £											
Total £ ..			4 01	4 23	4 29	4 34	4 25	4 31	4 41	4 20	
3. Total cultivators' holdings of fully-assessed lands in ryotwari tracts showing the area in acres and assessment thereon, according to the annual revenue returns, excluding the districts of North and South Canara in each year, and including the district of Malabar after 1865-66.	(a) Dry or unirrigated lands.	Area acres ..	11 80	12 44	12 96	13 64	14 05	14 66	14 94	15 44	
		Assessment £ ..	1 42	1 45	1 47	1 48	1 53	1 63	1 63	1 63	
	Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		2-4 7	2-4 3	2-3 2	2-2	2-2 1	2-2 7	2-2	2-2	
	(b) Wet or irrigated lands under consolidated assessment.	Area acres .	2 86	2 95	3 08	3 06	3 08	3 58	3 57	3 57	
		Assessment £ .	1 52	1 59	1 60	1 56	1 56	1 75	1 73	1 73	
	Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		10-8 1	10-8 7	10-4 3	10-2 5	10-1 5	9-9 3	9-8 2	9-8 2	
	(c) Garden lands.	Area acres ..	0 39	0 39	0 40	0 36	0 20	} The classification into "Gardens" has been discontinued since 1865.			
		Assessment £ .	0 16	0 16	0 16	0 14	0 09				
	Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		8-4 4	8-4	8-2 8	7-9 9	9-2				
	(d) Extra assessment or additional revenue.	(1) Water-rate and charge for lands converted from dry to wet. £	0 07	0 06	0 09	0 10	0 10	0 13	0 13	0 13	
		(2) Charge for second crop on wet lands £.	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 07	0 05	0 05	0 05	0 05	
	Total holdings in ryotwari tracts.	Area acres ..	15 05	15 78	16 44	17 06	17 33	18 24	18 61	19 01	
Assessment £ ..		3 22	3 32	3 39	3 35	3 33	3 37	3 54	3 59		
Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		4-3 3	4-2 5	4-1 4	3-11 1	3-10 2	3-10 7	3-9 8	3-9 3		

(c)—Statement showing the growth of the Land Revenue and extension of occupied area of land fully assessed, &c.—cont.

		1868-69.	1869-70.	1870-71.	1871-72.	1872-73.	1873-74.	1874-75.	1875-76.	
1. Land revenue realized according to financial statements presented to Parliament.		4.07	4.48	4.40	4.44	4.69	4.45	4.64	4.55	
2. Current land revenue		0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	
demand as given in the revenue returns, including South Canara and Malabar.		3.80	4.00	4.09	3.94	4.04	3.91	4.14	3.90	
		(a) Revenue of zemindari or permanently-settled estates £		(b) Revenue not permanently settled, including "Miscellaneous," "Water-rates," &c. £		Total £				
		4.31	4.51	4.60	4.45	4.55	4.42	4.65	4.41	
3. Total cultivators' holdings of fully-assessed lands in ryotwari tracts showing the area in acres and assessment thereon, according to the annual revenue returns, excluding the districts of North and South Canara in each year, and including the district of Malabar after 1865-66.	(a) Dry or unirrigated lands	Area acres	15.64	16.00	16.34	16.08	16.10	15.95	16.23	16.28
		Assessment £ ..	1.69	1.73	1.75	1.71	1.69	1.68	1.71	1.72
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	2-17	2-17	2-15	2-15	2-1	2-12	2-12	2-12
	(b) Wet or irrigated lands under consolidated assessment.	Area acres ..	3.57	3.61	3.65	3.60	3.64	3.68	3.73	3.74
		Assessment £ ..	1.72	1.72	1.73	1.69	1.70	1.69	1.70	1.70
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	9-77	9-65	9-62	9-47	9-41	9-17	9-12	9-12
	(c) Garden lands.	Area acres ..								
		Assessment £ ..								
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	The classification into "Gardens" has been discontinued since 1865.							
	(d) Extra assessment or additional revenue.	(1) Water-rate and charge for lands converted from dry to wet. £	0.14	0.15	0.17	0.18	0.20	0.22	0.25	0.24
		(2) Charge for second crop on wet lands £	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.09	0.06
	Total holdings in ryotwari tracts.	Area acres ..	19.21	19.61	19.99	18.68	19.74	19.63	19.96	20.02
Assessment £ ..		3.60	3.66	3.71	3.64	3.66	3.66	3.75	3.72	
	Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence	3-9	3-87	3-85	3-84	3-85	3-87	3-92	3-86	

(c)—Statement showing the growth of the Land Revenue and extension of occupied area of land fully assessed, &c.—cont.

		1876-77	1877-78.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.	
1. Land revenue realized according to financial statements presented to Parliament.		3.29	3.50	4.97	4.95	4.67	4.69	4.82	
2. Current land revenue demand as given in the revenue returns, including South Canara and Malabar		0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	
(a) Revenue of zemindari or permanently-settled estates £		3.14	3.96	4.10	4.03	4.02	3.95	4.01	
(b) Revenue not permanently settled, including "Miscellaneous," "Water-rates," &c £									
Total £		3.65	4.47	4.61	4.54	4.53	4.46	4.52	
3. Total cultivators holdings of fully-assessed lands in ryotwari tracts showing the area in acres and assessment thereon, according to the annual revenue returns, excluding the districts of North and South Canara in each year, and including the district of Malabar after 1865-66.	(a) Dry or unirrigated lands.	Area acres	16.22	16.17	16.04	15.30	15.13	14.98	15.29
		Assessment £	1.73	1.71	1.71	1.65	1.64	1.64	1.67
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	2-15	2-12	2-12	2-17	2-2	2-22	2-2
	(b) Wet or irrigated lands under consolidated assessment	Area acres	3.74	3.83	3.86	3.87	3.80	3.79	3.80
		Assessment £	1.69	1.72	1.73	1.73	1.72	1.71	1.72
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	9-05	8-11.5	8-11.3	8-11.3	9-0.5	9-0.5	9-0.5
	(c) Garden lands.	Area acres							
		Assessment £							
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.							
	(d) Extra assessment or additional revenue.	(1) Water-rate and charge for lands converted from dry to wet £	0.21	0.24	0.27	0.27	0.26	0.24	0.25
		(2) Charge for second crop on wet lands £	0.05	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.08
	Total holdings in ryotwari tracts	Area acres	19.96	20.00	19.90	19.17	18.93	18.77	19.09
Assessment £		3.68	3.76	3.78	3.73	3.70	3.66	3.72	
	Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	3-8.2	3-9.1	3-9.6	3-10.7	3-10.8	3-10.8	3-10.7	

The classification into "Gardens" has been discontinued since 1865.

(c)—Statement showing the growth of the Land Revenue and extension of occupied area of land fully assessed, &c.—cont.

		1883-84.	1884-85.	1885-86	1886-87.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	
1. Land revenue realized according to financial statements presented to Parliament. £		4.85	4.48	4.90	4.85	4.94	4.85	5.03	
2. Current land revenue or demand as given in the revenue returns, including South Canara and Malabar.		0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	
(a) Revenue of zemindari or permanently-settled estates. £		4.12	3.87	4.13	4.23	4.28	4.30	4.34	
(b) Revenue not permanently settled, including "Miscellaneous," "Water-rates," &c. £									
Total £ ..		4.63	4.38	4.64	4.74	4.79	4.81	4.85	
3. Total cultivators' holdings of fully-assessed lands in ryotwari tracts showing the area in acres and assessment thereon, according to the annual revenue returns, excluding the districts of North and South Canara in each year, and including the district of Malabar after 1865-66	(a) Dry or unirrigated lands.	Area acres ..	15.56	15.59	15.99	16.39	16.52	16.66	16.93
		Assessment £ ..	1.68	1.68	1.70	1.72	1.72	1.73	1.74
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	2-2	2-1.7	2-1.5	2-1.2	2-1	2-0.7	2-0.7
	(b) Wet or irrigated lands under consolidated assessment.	Area acres ..	3.83	3.85	3.89	3.93	3.98	4.06	4.11
		Assessment £ ..	1.73	1.74	1.75	1.77	2.00	2.03	2.06
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.	9-0.5	9-0.5	9-0.	8-3.7	10-0.5	10-0	10-0.
	(c) Garden lands	Area acres							
		Assessment £ ..							
		Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence	The classification into "Gardens" has been discontinued since 1865.						
	(d) Extra assessment or additional revenue.	(1) Water-rate and charge for lands converted from dry to wet. £	0.26	0.26	0.27	0.29	0.09	0.08	0.08
		(2) Charge for second crop on wet lands. £	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.08
	Total holdings in ryotwari tracts.	Area acres	19.33	19.44	19.88	20.32	20.50	20.72	21.04
Assessment £		3.75	3.75	3.80	3.87	3.89	3.92	3.96	
Rate of assessment per acre in shillings and pence.		3-10.1	3-10.2	3-9.7	3-9.5	3-9.5	3-9.5	3-9.2	

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For Remarks see next page.

NOTE.—This statement cannot be carried before 1852-53, as detailed information does not exist in a complete form prior to that year.

2 Item No. 1 represents the *actual realisations* of land revenue for each year, which are the same as the *current demand* (item No. 2) for that year, minus any sums left uncollected within the year, plus collections of arrears of former years. This explains the discrepancies between items 1 and 2.

3. Item No. 2 (a) represents the fixed land revenue demand on the zemindari or permanently-settled estates, assessed at a lump sum on each estate. The total area of these estates is about 27½ millions of acres, but the areas occupied and cultivated by tenants within them not being known, they have been excluded from item No. 3.

4. When lands in zemindaris and whole man villages receive water from Government works of irrigation, they pay water-rate in addition to their fixed assessment. This water-rate now amounts to £50,000 a year, and is included in item 2 (b).

5. Item No. 2 (b) comprises all heads of land revenue demand other than the fixed assessment of the zemindari estates. The principal item is the revenue of lands held at full assessments direct from Government or ryotwari lands (item No. 3 (a), (b), (c)), the other items are water-rates (items 3 d (1 and 2)) and those referred to in Note 4 *supra*, quit-rents on lands and villages partially exempt from assessment (in area about 8 million acres) amounting to £ 280,000 and numerous minor items known as land revenue "*Miscellaneous*" about £300,000.

6. Item No. 3 does not include the figures for North and South Canara for each year and for Malabar up to 1865-66 as the areas have not been shown in the revenue returns.

7. Ryotwari lands were, up to 1864-65, classified under the Madras revenue system into lands assessed as "dry," "wet," and "garden" and the class "garden" was abolished in that year. Lands which are irrigated by works which are private property (as for instance, wells constructed by the landholder) are assessed at dry or unirrigated rates and have been entered under item 3 (a) since 1865-66 and lands irrigated from Government works of irrigation are assessed at wet rates and are shown under item 3 (b). In order to exhibit the direct return from certain large irrigation works constructed by Government, such as the Godavari and Kistna anicut systems, the charge for water supplied from them was, till 1837-38, shown in the revenue returns as water-rate separately from the land assessment and the water-rate amounted to about £200,000 annually. In 1865 lands watered by private wells were relieved of any impost beyond the "dry" rate and all lands were classed as either "dry" or "wet." This accounts for the disappearance of "garden" lands since 1865-66.

8. The areas entered under item No. 3 represent the extent of holdings, not of cultivation, of *fully-assessed* lands. In ordinary years about 88 per cent. of the area held in ryotwar settlement is under the plough and 12 per cent. fallow or pasture.

9. The amount and the rate of assessment per acre of the different classes of lands entered under items 3 (a), (b) and (c) show the regular ordinary assessment of fully-assessed lands. But under certain circumstances an extra charge on account of the use of water may be made either on dry lands, water-rate (item 3 (d 1), or on wet lands, an extra charge when a second crop is grown (item 3 (d 2), because the ordinary "consolidated" assessment (so called as including both soil and water-rate) is calculated on one crop only. As already explained in note 7 the large decrease under water-rate 3 (d 1), is due to the water-rate charged on wet lands in the Godavari and Kistna districts having been since 1837-38 consolidated into wet assessment.

10. 1853-54. Very disastrous year.

1854-55. Assessments previously reduced in nine districts to the extent of £113,749.

1859-60. Olungu method of adjusting the commutation prices of grain in Tanjore and Tinnevely abandoned for regular settlement.

1862-63. North Canara transferred to Bombay; revenue demand, £110,000, cultivated area not known.

1864-65. Rates of assessment reduced in Trichinopoly, and land watered from wells relieved of special water-rate.

1865-66. Area and assessment for Malabar first shown in the accounts in this year. Dry 381,815 acres, assessment £59,442 and wet 381,151 acres, assessment £ 116,086; distinction of garden and other minor classification of lands disappear in the accounts from this date.

1871-72. Unfavorable year.

1876-77

to

1877-78.

} Famine years, large remissions or suspensions of revenue demands were made in consequence.

11 The statement has been compiled from the Revenue Settlement Reports and the Finance and Revenue Accounts of the Government of India.

(d)—Statement showing the value of land in certain districts of the Madras Presidency.

(1)—Statement showing the average value of land per acre in the Tanjore District.

Years	Wet lands	Remarks
	Rs	
1823-24	12	The values for the years up to 1862-63 have been deduced from the values entered in the deeds of sale and mortgage of lands paying revenue to Government, which passed through the Collector's office under the system of miras registry, which formerly prevailed in the district. The selling prices for the years subsequent to 1862-63 have been deduced from the values given in the deeds of sale registered in the Registration offices.
1824-25	12	
1825-26	15	
1826-27	9	
1827-28	9	
1828-29	25	
1829-30	13	
1830-31	15	
1831-32	16	
1832-33	13	
1833-34	19	
1834-35	18	
1835-36	18	
1836-37	19	
1837-38	23	
1838-39	20	
1839-40	23	
1840-41	27	
1841-42	27	
1842-43	26	
1843-44	24	
1844-45	26	
1862-63	39	
1868-69	151	
1869-70	160	
1870-71	148	
1871-72	138	
1872-73	132	
1873-74	146	
1874-75	126	
1875-76	153	
1876-77	180	
1877-78	172	

(2)—Table showing the selling prices of land in certain villages in the Tanjore District per acre.

Taluk.	Village.	1838-39	1840.	1885-88.	Remarks.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Shiyáhi	Alakudi	21	25	235	The selling prices for the years 1838-39 and 1840 are the values deduced from the prices for which lands were sold for arrears of revenue. Those for 1885-88 are the averages deduced from the sale deeds registered in Registration offices.
Do.	Valluvakkudi	6	20	170	
Do.	Kilanganur	31	38	300	
Do.	Keelayur	42	62	272	
Do.	Cadavasal	20	21	132	
Kumbakonam	Yaragraharam	47	48	433	
Do.	Kadichambadi	38	46	409	
Do.	Valangiman	12	30	244	
Do.	Tillayambur	11	72	392	
Tanjore	Perambalur	108	108	673	
Do.	Vaithinathampalli	42	129	547	

(3)—Table showing the prices paid in the Tinnevely District for the same lands at different sales ascertained from Registration records.

Shermádevi, Ambásamudram Taluk.—Survey No. 1343, nunjah acres 0·74, sold in 1865 for Rs. 330, fetched Rs. 1,102-8-0 in 1890.

Shembaguvamapadi, Nóngunéri Taluk.—Survey No. 120 (a) and (c), extent acres 0·64, sold in 1866 for Rs. 116, was resold in 1885 for Rs. 200.

Vadakkuvimananallur, Ambásamudram Taluk.—Survey No 634, nunjah acres 0·30, sold in 1868 for Rs. 182, fetched Rs. 275 in 1889.

Anuppankulam, Sátúr Taluk.—Punjah field survey No. 9 (b), acres 3·3, sold in 1872 for Rs. 98, fetched Rs. 290 in 1889.

Gopalsamudram, Ambásamudram Taluk.—Nunjah field No. 286, 8 cents, sold in 1874 for Rs. 50, fetched Rs. 262-8-0 in 1882.

Shembayavampari, Nángunéri Taluk.—Survey No. 51 (b) and 112 (c), nunjah acres 1·21, sold in 1875 for Rs. 297, fetched Rs. 825 in 1889.

Anaikulam, Srivilliputtur Taluk.—Punjah No. 156 (b), acres 1·95, sold in 1870 for Rs. 50, fetched Rs. 100 in 1879.

(4)—Table showing the prices paid in the Coimbatore District for the same lands on the several occasions when they changed hands, ascertained from Registration records.

1. *Anuparpallayam.*—11·18 acres of punjah lands (survey Nos. 26, 37 and 38), were sold in 1860 for Rs. 225; a portion of the lands, *i.e.*, survey No. 37, measuring 5·47 acres, was sold in 1882 for Rs. 500.

2. *Kumarapalayam.*—Survey Nos. 57, 58 and 59 (extent 6·1 acres) of nunjah lands, were sold in 1848 for Rs. 1,200. They were resold in 1877 and 1880 for Rs. 1,900.

3. *Kurichi.*—Survey Nos. 370, 452 and 454 (extent acres 8·42 of nunjah lands), sold in 1858 for Rs. 750, were resold in 1887 for Rs. 1,850.

4. *Devarayapuram.*—Survey Nos. 55 and 56, acres 8·62 of punjah lands, sold in 1847 for Rs. 200, were resold in 1876 for Rs. 300.

5. *Ramanathapuram.*—Survey Nos. 138, 143 and 153, extent 6·97 acres of nunjah lands, were sold in 1855 for Rs. 350. A portion of the lands (No. 143) measuring 2·87 acres, was resold in 1876 for Rs. 1,300.

6. *Vellalur.*—Survey Nos. 225 and 226, extent 9·10 acres of punjah lands, sold in 1849 for Rs. 30-8-0, were resold in 1885 for Rs. 200.

7. *Sanganur.*—Punjah land, Nos. 248, 249 and 250, sold in 1863 for Rs. 50, fetched Rs. 200 in 1884.

8. *Kumaralingam.*—Paimash Nos. 30 and 39, extent 2·2 cawnies, were sold in 1847 for Rs. 225. No. 39 alone was resold in 1876 for Rs. 550 and in 1890 for Rs. 900.

9. *Avalappampatti.*—Paimash No. 37, extent 3·14 vallams of punjah land, sold in 1852 for Rs. 716, fetched in 1881 Rs. 1,000.

10. *Kallapuram.*—Paimash Nos. 233 and 234, extent cawnies 2-14-2, sold in 1872 for Rs. 500, fetched in 1890 Rs. 1,500.

11. *Kallapuram.*—Paimash No. 248, sold in 1873 for Rs. 100, fetched in 1890 Rs. 600.

12. *Mevadi*.—Paimash Nos. 186, 116 and 38, sold in 1876 for Rs. 600, fetched Rs. 800 in 1890.

13. *Nunjakthothakurichi*.—Field No. 203, wet acres 0·75, was sold in 1876 and 1880 for Rs. 200 and in 1890 for Rs. 250.

14. *Nunjakthothakurichi*.—Field No. 31, wet acres 1·5, was sold in 1876 for Rs. 375 and Rs. 400 and in 1879 for Rs. 550 and Rs. 450.

(5)—*Statement showing the prices of lands per acre in the Coimbatore District, deduced from the statistics relating to applications for transfer of revenue registry (extracted from the Coimbatore District Manual).*

Years.	Erode taluk			Coimbatore taluk.		Polláchi taluk		Udamalpet taluk.	
	Wet	Dry	Garden.	Wet.	Dry.	Wet	Dry.	Wet	Dry.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1850-51 . . .	23	9	69				
1855-56 . . .	32	9	31						..
1860-61 . . .	111	7	39		...				
1865-66 . . .	222	14	80						
1870-71 . . .	296	15	130			86	20	271	23
1873-74 . . .				119	18	55	32	189	24
1875-76 . . .	364	16	90	200	13	66	18	276	32
1878-79 . . .				109	11	92	30	633	24
1880-81 . . .	285	14	77	155	17	163	33	185	28
1882-83 . . .	369	15	99	136	7	208	33	241	30

(6 — *Statement showing the average prices of lands per acre in the several taluks of the Coimbatore District, deduced from the sale-deeds registered in the Registration offices from 1878-79 to 1882-83.*

Taluks and divisions.	Wet.	Dry.	Garden.
	Rs	Rs.	Rs
Aravakurichi . . .	405	15	59
Avanashi . . .	117	13	31
Bhaváci . . .	73	15	45
Dhárápuram . . .	500	11	34
Erode . . .	366	25	88
Karúr . . .	277	14	83
Kollegál . . .	113	37	
Kángyám . . .	100	16	78
Mettupálayam . . .	123	8	55
Palladam . . .	162	23	52
Perundurái . . .	50	21	
Polláchi . . .	145	25	62
Satyamangalam . . .	249	19	55
Udamalpet . . .	294	22	57
Average for the district . . .	266	20½	45

(7)—Statement showing the prices of land per acre in the Kurnool District, deduced from the values entered in the sale-deeds registered in the Registration offices during the years 1882-86.

Taluks and divisions.	Wet lands.			All lands.		
	Rs	A.	P.	Rs	A.	P.
Kurnool	47	3	2	10	11	7
Bámallakót	55	4	0	11	4	8
Pattikonda	6	13	11
Pyápali	42	14	4	12	2	0
Koilkuntla	54	2	6	18	11	4
Owk	60	2	8	23	14	9
Survel	43	9	8	14	2	5
Nandyál	85	1	9	22	8	11
Atmakúr	18	15	9	11	10	2
Nandikótkur	70	14	11	12	13	3
Kalwa	220	0	2	18	0	8
Mérkápúr	47	12	6	15	15	3
Cumbum	63	4	0	23	7	9
Giddalur	49	12	11	21	6	0
				16	1	3

(8)—Statement showing the sale value of lands per acre in the Anantapur District, deduced from sale-deeds registered in the years 1878-79 to 1885-86.

	Wet.	Garden	Dry.
	Rs	Rs.	Rs
Whole district exclusive of Tadpatri	45	27	6
Tadpatri taluk	82	61	16
Whole district	47	33	10

(e)—Table showing the ratio of Government assessment to gross produce of lands.

(1)—Statement showing the average outturn of lands per acre (Class IV) on which the assessment was based by the Settlement Department in the Chingleput District.

Sorts.	Wet 3rd group, Madras measures	Dry 1st group, Madras measures	Remarks.
1st, Best	840	444	} Varagu and ragi
2nd, Good	720	380	
3rd, Ordinary	600	316	
4th, Inferior	530	286	
5th, Worst	460	246	

(2)—Statement showing the value of outturn per acre, of each sort of land under class IV, for wet and dry, in the Chingleput District, at the commutation rates adopted by the Revenue Settlement Department.

—	Value of outturn.		One-sixth deduction for wet and one-fourth for dry lands.		Cultivation expenses.		Remainder.		Rate.			
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
<i>Wet.</i>												
1st	27	9	0	4	9	6	11	0	0	11	15	6
2nd	23	10	0	3	15	0	9	12	0	9	15	0
3rd	19	11	0	3	4	0	8	8	0	7	14	6
4th	17	6	3	2	14	4	7	8	0	6	15	11
5th	15	1	6	2	8	2	6	8	0	6	1	3
<i>Dry</i>												
1st	15	8	6	3	14	1	5	8	0	6	2	5
2nd	13	3	6	3	4	10	5	0	0	4	14	8
3rd	10	14	7	2	11	8	4	10	0	3	8	11
4th	9	13	3	2	7	4	4	6	0	2	15	11
5th	8	6	1	2	1	6	4	2	0	2	2	7

NOTE.—The commutation rate for paddy was Rs. 105, for varagu Rs. 89, for ragi Rs. 142. The commutation price is taken at 12½ per cent less than market prices.

(3)—Statement showing the average yield, the cultivation expenses and the rent per acre in the United Kingdom and in the Madras Presidency.

—	United Kingdom.		Madras Presidency.									
	Wheat.	Barley	Dry	Wet.								
	£	s.	d.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.			
Value of produce	8	17	0	7	11	9	8	0	11	25	7	1
Cultivation expenses	5	2	2	4	1	8	3	3	10	9	8	9
Rent	1	14	9	1	11	1	1	3	2	5	1	9
Rates and taxes	0	2	4	0	2	3					
Total ...	1	17	1	1	13	4	1	3	2	5	1	9
Ratio of rent to produce ...	19	63		20	48		14	87		20	08	
Farmer's profit	1	17	9	1	16	9	3	9	11	10	12	7

NOTE.—The figures for the United Kingdom were worked out from the statistics published in the Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, and those for the Madras Presidency from the Settlement calculations, the produce being valued at the commutation rates assumed by the Settlement Department.

(4)—Statement showing the extent of Ryotwar or fully assessed lands leased out for money rent in the Coimbatore District in 1889, the Government assessment thereon and the rent stipulated to be paid to the proprietors (prepared from the Registration statistics).

Names of Sub-district.	Dry lands					Garden lands (i.e.) dry lands with wells on them.					Wet lands							
	Number of leases	Extent of land leased	Amount of Government assessment	Amount of rent	Assessment per acre	Rent per acre	Number of leases	Extent of land leased.	Amount of Government assessment.	Amount of rent	Assessment per acre	Rent per acre	Number of leases	Extent of land leased	Amount of Government assessment.	Amount of rent	Assessment per acre.	Rent per acre
		ACRES	RS	RS	RS	RS	ACRES	RS	RS	RS.	RS	RS	ACRES	RS.	RS	RS	RS	RS
Kumarapalayam ...	4	53	57	109	1.1	2.1	3	13	18	81	1.4	6.2	1	1	6	5	6	5
Ganapathi ..	13	112	156	660	1.4	5.9	11	50	80	666	1.6	13.3
Gudalur ...	12	65	86	452	1.3	7.0	18	130	192	1,318	1.5	10.1
Mettupalaiyam ..	1	5	5	10	1.0	2.0	4	37	26	175	7	4.7	4	15	103	800	6.8	53.3
Pollachi ...	36	419	410	1,380	1.0	3.3	14	322	303	1,073	1.0	3.3	5	21	116	662	5.5	31.5
Anaimalai ...	5	36	35	144	1.0	4.0	2	31	110	390	3.6	12.6
Udamalpet ..	17	193	215	805	1.1	4.1	39	656	772	4,005	1.1	6.1	3	17	85	740	5.0	43.5
Dharapuram ..	17	302	257	541	1.1	3.8	23	381	392	1,862	1.0	4.7	1	6	47	142	7.8	23.6
Aravakuruchi ..	4	43	38	75	1.1	2.5	5	83	57	248	7	3.0
Karur ..	4	15	11	80	1.1	2.5	4	37	28	189	7	5.1	81	124	986	4,892	8.0	40.0
Kodumudi ..	9	82	75	217	1.1	2.7	6	83	75	354	9	4.2	2	3	18	165	6.0	55.0
Erode ...	7	39	39	116	1.0	3.0	3	27	63	365	2.3	13.5	2	2	33	122	16.5	61.0
Perundurai ..	8	51	58	75	1.1	1.5	13	133	187	693	1.4	5.2
Bhavani ...	5	51	55	160	1.0	3.1	9	72	89	653	1.2	9.1
Gopichettipalayam ..	1	8	12	40	1.5	6.0	2	6	8	72	1.3	12.0	1	4	43	195	10.7	48.7
Satiamangalam ...	2	14	15	135	1.0	9.6	3	31	31	290	1.0	9.3
Avanashi ..	4	33	35	185	1.0	5.6	14	153	187	717	1.2	4.6
Sulur ..	26	270	296	1,196	1.1	4.4	29	370	479	3,120	1.3	8.4	6	21	174	976	8.3	46.5
Palladam ..	41	519	517	2,006	1.0	3.9	62	614	627	3,610	1.0	6.0
Kangayam ...	32	424	294	837	1.1	2.0	29	354	305	915	1.1	2.6
Kollegal ...	1	4	4	4	1.0	1.0
Coimbatore Registrar's Office ..	21	346	248	869	1.1	2.5	10	123	140	749	1.1	6.1	21	130	611	2,630	4.7	20.2
Total ..	270	3,084	2,918	10,096	0.94	3.2	301	3,675	4,059	21,155	1.1	5.7	129	375	2,332	11,719	6.2	31.2

(5)—Tables showing the cost of Cultivation, &c., for an acre of certain grains in the Sâtūr Taluk of the Tinnevelly District, published by the Madras Agricultural Department.

(a) Gingelly.

	RS	▲	P
3 ploughings requiring 4 pairs of cattle	2	0	0
Sowing	0	12	0
Seed	0	4	0
1 ploughing through the crop, 1 pair	0	8	0
Reaping, 6 men	1	0	0
Threshing for 3 days, 6 men	1	0	0
	<hr/>		
	5	8	0
Assessment	1	0	0
	<hr/>		
Total ...	6	8	0
Value of outturn (1½ kotahs or 144 measures at 7 measures a rupee)	20	8	0
	<hr/>		
Balance ..	14	0	0.

(b) Cumbu following cumbu for a Sanghili or 3·64 acres.

3 ploughings, 14 pairs of cattle ...	7	0	0
Sowing, 4 pairs	3	0	0
Seed (cumbu, mochai, tattampayaru, kalluppayaru, green-grain, castor)	2	0	0
Bullock hoeing, 3 pairs	1	8	0
Reaping, 16 men	2	8	0
Watching	1	0	0
	<hr/>		
Total ...	17	0	0
	<hr/>		
Value of produce—			
6 kotahs of cumbu	48	0	0
1 kotah of pulses, &c.	7	0	0
4 cart-loads of straw	12	0	0
	<hr/>		
Total ...	67	0	0
Balance on 1 Sanghili ..	50	0	0
Or on one acre ...	14	0	0

(c) One Sanghili (3·64 acres) of cumbu after cotton.

Sowing, 4 pairs	3	0	0
Seed	0	8	0
Bullock-hoeing, 3 pairs	1	8	0
Reaping, 16 men	2	8	0
Watching	1	0	0
	<hr/>		
Total ...	8	8	0

	Rs.	A.	P.
Outturn—			
4 kotahs of cumbu	32	0	0
3 cart-loads of straw	9	0	0
Total ...	41	0	0
Balance on one Sanghili	32	8	0
On one acre	9	4	0

(d) *One acre of cholum grown as a fodder crop.*

Seed, 30 measures	2	0	0
Sowings	0	12	0
Reaping, 12 men	2	0	0
Total ...	4	12	0

Outturn—

3 cart-loads at Rs. 4-8-0 each	13	8	0
Balance ...	8	12	0

(e) *One acre of cholum grown as a grain crop.*

3 ploughings, 4 pairs	2	0	0
Sowing	0	12	0
Seed	0	6	0
Ploughing the crop	0	8	0
Reaping, 6 men	1	0	0
Total ...	4	10	0

Outturn—

Cholum, 2½ kotahs	15	0	0
3 cart-loads of straw	9	0	0
Total ...	24	0	0
Balance ...	19	6	0

(f) *One Sanghili (3.64 acres) of varagu grown as a mixed crop.*

3 ploughings	7	0	0
Sowing, 4 pairs	3	0	0
Seed—			
Varagu, 24 measures	1	8	0
Red-gram, 2½ measures	0	6	0
Castor, 2½ measures	0	6	0
Bullock-hoeing, 3 pairs	1	8	0
Weeding, 24 women	2	0	0
Reaping, 32 men	5	6	0
Threshing	2	8	0
Total ...	23	10	0

				Rs.	A.	P.
Outturn—						
20 kotahs of varagu	90	0	0
12 merkals of castor	5	0	0
12 merkals of red-gram	4	0	0
3 cart-loads of straw	9	0	0
40 bundles of castor plants	2	0	0
40 bundles of red-gram	2	0	0
Total				...	112	0 0
Balance for one Sanghili				..	88	6 0
Balance for one acre				..	25	0 0

(g) *One acre of Bengal-gram*

2 ploughings, 3 pairs of cattle				1	8	0
Sowing, 2 pairs	1	8	0
Sower (1)	0	3	0
Seed, 7 measures	0	12	0
Harvesting, 6 men	1	0	0
Threshing	0	4	0
Total				...	5	3 0

Outturn—

36 measures	15	0	0
Balance				...	9	13 0

(h) *One acre of horse-gram.*

Seed, 6 measures	0	8	0
Sowing, 1 pair	0	12	0
Harvesting, 6 men	1	0	0
Threshing, 2 men	0	6	0
Total				...	2	10 0

Outturn—

1 kotah of horse-gram			.	6	0	0
6 merkals of castor	2	0	0
Stemps and pods	1	0	0
Total				...	9	0 0
Balance					6	6 0

(i) *One acre of Cotton.*

	R ^s	A	P.
3 ploughing requiring 5 pairs	2	8	0
Seed	0	4	0
Manure ($\frac{1}{8}$ of the value of 20 cart-loads) ...	1	8	0
Sowing	0	12	0
3 weedings	1	8	0
Watching the crop	0	8	0
Clearing the plants	0	12	0
	<hr/>		
Assessment	1	8	0
	<hr/>		
Total ...	9	4	0
	<hr/>		
Outturn of uncleaned cotton $1\frac{1}{2}$ podis (of 328 lb. each) at Rs. 22 a podi ...	33	0	0
3 cart-loads of plants	1	8	0
	<hr/>		
Total ...	34	8	0
	<hr/>		
Balance or profit ...	25	4	0

NOTE (1) The Government assessment of an acre of land as regards (b), (c), (d), (e), (f), (g) and (h) may be taken at one rupee

(2) The season in the year to which the outturn given in the above tables relates is reported to have been particularly good

(f)—*Remarks on the alleged increase in the price of Salt due to the Salt Excise System.*

The evil features of the monopoly system of salt manufacture are the following.

2. Under the monopoly system the Government undertakes a work for which private agency is better fitted. The Government cannot by means of its officers manufacture salt as cheaply as private individuals, under the stimulus of self-interest, can. I do not put this on the *laissez faire* or any other abstract principle, but on the experienced results of the monopoly system when it was in force. There are certainly cases in which Government can advantageously undertake the supply of services to the community, for instance, the Postal service, the Telegraph, and perhaps in this country even Railways. These are all cases in which the work to be done is spread over such large tracts of country, and is of such invariable routine character as to make its regulation by general rules issued by a Government department possible and desirable. In these cases, the work done by the officers of the department in different parts of the country is such that the failure or laxity on the part of one of them is liable to immediate detection and exposure by throwing out of gear almost instantaneously the work of those similarly employed in other parts. No one will maintain that salt manufacture is a business of this kind. As in agriculture, so in the manufac-

ture of salt, profit to the manufacturer depends on the minute attention given to details at every stage of the process of production and on the small and individually almost inappreciable saving in cost effected in a hundred ways.

3. It may perhaps be argued that even under the monopoly system the Government employs the ryots to manufacture the salt and recognizes to some extent a right of occupancy in these ryots, who may be supposed to have an interest in making as much salt and as cheaply as possible. This, however, is not the case, and it is exactly in this respect that the monopoly system grievously fails. The quantity to be manufactured by each ryot is fixed at the commencement of the manufacturing season by a Government officer, and any outturn in excess of the quantity required by Government must be destroyed. The ryot has thus no certainty as to the quantity of salt he will be allowed to manufacture in coming years, or even as to whether he will be permitted to manufacture at all; for manufacture must be closed if the stocks in the factory in question and adjoining factories are sufficient. He cannot, therefore, look beyond the immediate present in any of his arrangements for carrying on manufacture and is practically reduced to the position of a labourer paid at a fixed rate on the quantity of salt which the Government chooses to take. The variableness of the seasons renders salt manufacture a somewhat precarious industry; and the monopoly system makes it still more precarious.

4. The salt, whether good or bad, must be taken by Government when it is not below a certain standard in quality; and in years in which the outturn, owing to unfavourable season, is deficient, any salt that is delivered must be accepted. As the Government pays at the same rate for good and bad salt, the incentive to the production of good salt is weakened. It is to the interest of the Government officer having large stocks of bad salt to force it on the public by withholding the sales of good salt until the former are got rid of. This very frequently happened when the monopoly system was in force throughout the Presidency. It is no doubt true that the portion of the population which cares for good salt is at present a small one, but small as it is, it is increasing. Under the monopoly system there is no chance of the taste of the higher classes of the community for good salt at increased prices finding satisfaction, and the result must be that so long as the system is in force, the demand for good salt will be smothered, unless the Government undertakes to supply salt of different qualities at different costs to suit the tastes of the different classes of consumers. This, it is hardly necessary to say, will be a chimerical undertaking and lead to speculation and waste. That any part of the community should be debarred from getting salt of good quality when it is willing to pay for it, is a considerable grievance, and the grievance is all the greater when it is remembered that good salt is really cheap salt too. For instance, A manufactures salt containing 96 per cent. sodium chloride and 4 per cent. impurities, while B turns out salt with 99 per cent. chloride of sodium and 1 per cent. impurities. Under the excise system if each man be allowed to sell the salt at such price as he can get for it, A may realize for his salt 3 annas and B $4\frac{1}{2}$ annas over and above the duty of Rs. 2-8-0 paid to

Government. As, however, B's salt contains a little over 3 per cent. more of sodium chloride than A's, the purchaser of A's salt saves in duty more than he loses in cost price, and, on the whole, gets a better article for a lower price. Under the monopoly system both kinds of salt would be sold at exactly the same price, 3 annas per maund ex-duty, and the person wishing to obtain by legal means the better kind of salt might chance to obtain it as a matter of favour, but could not get it for money.

5. The rates of kudivaram, that is, the prices paid by Government for salt delivered to it under the monopoly system, are fixed and to a great extent independent of the changes in the rates of wages for labour prevailing in the particular localities. This would not be a great grievance if the ryots were allowed to regulate production each year according to their own calculations as to probable demand, so that they might recoup the losses of one year from the gains of another. It is true that the rates of kudivaram have sometimes been raised, but this is done only after it is demonstrated to the satisfaction of the higher authorities that the ryots could not possibly manufacture and deliver salt at the rates in force. This is not an easy process. Moreover, there is considerable difference between the costs of salt of pans situated near the platforms and of those at a great distance, the cost of carriage in the latter case being higher than in the former. The Government officers cannot take into account all these differences and increase or decrease the kudivaram in the way in which private manufacturers can. I find from the last annual report of the Salt Department that Messrs. Arbuthnot and Company and other firms who have entered into contracts with manufacturers in the Chingleput factories for short periods have agreed to pay in addition to the fixed kudivaram additional sums varying apparently with reference to the increased cost of manufacture in, or of transport of salt from, particular pans.

6. The selling of salt at a fixed price whether it is good or bad, light or heavy, gives room for the play of individual preferences or partialities and consequent demoralization of the subordinate officers in the factories. An example will make my meaning clear. It is a well known fact that traders prefer to buy light salt as they can make a greater profit out of it than out of heavy salt; the reason is that people purchase salt by the measure and light salt measures more than heavy salt, the difference being

* NOTE.—It appears from the administration report of the Salt Department for 1890-91, that eight factories in the Bombay Presidency have made special arrangements for the production of light salt in order to meet the demand for it in this Presidency.

sometimes* as much as 20 per cent. The sale of salt by measurement instead of weighment is sometimes erroneously ascribed to the machinations of traders who seek to earn a profit by deceiving ignorant purchasers and giving them short weight. Traders do, no doubt, sometimes take undue advantage of the ignorance of purchasers, but in this instance it seems to me probable that even if they reformed their ways and attempted to sell by weighment, the purchasers who have long been accustomed to purchase by measurement would imagine that fraud was intended and would not take the salt. However desirable it may be that salt should be retailed by

weight and not by measure, any attempt to bring about this result by coercive measures, rendering penal the sale of salt by measure in the thousands of petty bazaars throughout the Presidency, will be attended with great risk of oppression to the poorer classes of the population whose interests are intended to be safe-guarded ; and the Government cannot undertake legislation of this kind with a light heart. This question is intimately connected with the scheme for the introduction of greater uniformity in the measures and weights in use in this Presidency, which, I believe, is now under the consideration of Government. If it is decided to take action in this direction, the measure will, I presume, be adopted tentatively in the larger towns at first and gradually extended to rural tracts, the duty of enforcing the regulations prescribed being entrusted to popular bodies, such as Municipal Councils and Local Fund Union Panchayats. However this may be, there is the fact that light salt finds greater favour with the trade than heavy salt, and this fact gives the former a higher value. Under the monopoly system, it was in the power of the subordinate officers of the department to sell the light salt to their friends and benefit them, while heavy salt fell to the lot of others. No doubt the heaps were sold in the order of the numbers assigned to them, but information as to which heaps contained light salt was not easily procurable by all intending purchasers, and it would be nothing strange if particular persons succeeded in getting the light salt to the exclusion of others. It comes then to this, viz., that, whereas under the monopoly system the additional, it may be adventitious, value borne by light salt was appropriated either by accident or by design by certain favored persons among purchasers, under the excise system it is enjoyed by the person who is justly entitled to it, viz., the producer.

7. While the monopoly system on the one hand throws upon Government the serious responsibility of adjusting supplies to demand with reference to the evershifting conditions of trade, it deprives Government of the only means of judging whether and when, such an adjustment is necessary, as it substitutes an artificial for a natural price which, under ordinary circumstances, serves as an unerring index pointing to the necessity of increasing or contracting supplies. This is an evil of great magnitude, and now that owing to the extension of communications and the cheapening of the cost of carriage, almost all parts of the country have been brought into trade relations with one another and rendered sensitive to trade influences, it seems to me to be perfectly idle for a Government department to undertake the duty of regulating salt production. To put the same thing in another way. The salt trade cannot be isolated from trade in other commodities, because salt is generally brought inland as a return load by traders who take grain or other articles to the coast, and a change in the demand for those articles reacts on the demand for salt. In private trade under natural conditions the adjustment of supplies to demand is automatic, that is to say, traders and manufacturers who may know nothing about the causes in the changes in the conditions of supply and demand all over the country of any commodity, set about making arrangements for increasing or diminishing supplies by simply taking as their guide the rise or fall

in prices. The Government officers would need to be almost omniscient to perform this function efficiently without the aid afforded by the natural course of prices

8. The Government by selling salt produced at different places at a uniform price, without reference to the cost of production or the conditions of demand and supply, bolsters up inferior factories and handicaps the better sources, the result being on the whole increase in the cost of salt and loss to the community.

9. The monopoly system has not the effect of steadying prices, as is commonly believed. On the contrary, though under it salt is sold at a uniform price when it leaves the factory, outside the factory the prices are subjected to fluctuations all the more violent, because the factory price is kept down at an artificial level. The result is that the trader benefits at the expense of the producer, except in cases in which both occupations are combined in the same person. The truth of the above observations will be seen from the following example. Take 3 factories A, B and C, at a distance of 20 miles from each other north to south. When there are sufficient stocks in these factories and the facilities of communications are equal, each factory will supply all places within a distance of 10 miles north and south, besides tracts which are at less distance from it than from other factories. If stocks are deficient in A and the demand great, and Government continue selling salt at 3 annas a maund, there is sure to be a run on the factory. When the salt is all sold out, traders from A and the regions supplied by it will have to go to B, and though they may get the salt at 3 annas a maund, the cost of carriage will have increased. Meanwhile the factory at A having been denuded of salt, the retail prices at that station will have enormously risen. Under the excise system what would happen is this. When the stocks in A are insufficient to meet the demand, the price of salt in A will rise to such an extent as to make it profitable for traders in some of the tracts served by A to go to B for the salt. This will again affect the price in B and then in C and so on all along the line. The result is that no factory will be absolutely denuded of salt, producing panic and violent perturbations in retail prices, but stocks will be conserved as long as practicable, a diversion of trade being effected in various directions.

10. The above remarks, I repeat, are not based merely on theoretic considerations, but on actual experience. The report of the Salt Commission and the annual reports of the administration of the Salt Department are full of instances of factories having been denuded of salt in the manner pointed out.

11. In view of the grave evils inherent in the monopoly system, we should be justified in giving preference to the excise system, even if it were attended with some increase of price to the consumer; but has there really been an increase of price and over what? The cost price under the monopoly system has been assumed to be 3 annas for the last 30 years, and this rate has acquired in popular estimation a sort of prescriptive right to be regarded as the normal cost notwithstanding changes in the rates of wages, in the value of money, and in the conditions of trade. Even when the Salt Commission

made their calculations, the cost of salt in Madras was found to be more than 3 annas a maund, and salt was sold by Government at the Madras depôt really at a loss. Assuming, however, for the sake of argument, that 3 annas correctly represented the cost price of salt at the time when the monopoly system was displaced by the excise, it will be seen that no fair comparison can be made between that rate and the present excise prices without taking the following considerations into account and making due allowances for them :—

1st.—Since 1881 the sales of salt in consequence of demand from tracts outside the Presidency, chiefly Orissa, and increase of population which amounts to 15·6 per cent., have increased from 56 to 69½ lakhs of maunds or by 24 per cent., while the number of factories at work was greatly reduced shortly before 1881. The increased produce would to some extent have had to be raised at more than proportionate cost, even if the monopoly system had been continued throughout the Presidency. That this must be the case is clear from statements contained in the administration reports of the Salt Department which go to show that the officers of the department find very great difficulty in procuring labour for working the extensions of factories recently sanctioned.

2nd.—The prices of excise salt include three items of charges which the monopoly rate of 3 annas excludes, though these charges fall eventually on the consumers under either system. The items are—

(a) The additional price paid to the producer at the factory instead of to the trader on account of the inadequacy of stocks to meet the demand as pointed out in paragraph 9 *supra*.

(b) The additional price paid for light salt (paragraph 6 *supra*).

(c) The additional price paid for good salt (paragraph 4 *supra*).

For example, the price of excise salt at Surlá in the Ganjam district was 4 annas 3 pies a maund in 1890-91. The high price was due to the restriction, owing to insufficient stocks, of inland sales at Ganjam (which by the way is a *monopoly* factory) and the consequent diversion of trade to Surlá. Salt at Ganjam is sold by Government at a fixed price of 4 annas (*not* 3 annas), and sales are allowed only on certain days and in restricted quantities to prevent depletion of stocks. The consequence is that traders have to go to Surlá and get their salt at an enhanced price incurring probably enhanced cost of carriage at the same time. All this enhanced cost is recouped by the traders by enhancing the price of salt to the consumers whether the salt has been obtained from Ganjam or Surlá. Nevertheless the factory price of a maund is only 4 annas at Ganjam, while that at Surlá is 4 annas 3 pies, and this shows that the factory price of excise salt may be higher than the monopoly rate though really the price paid by the consumer may be less under the former than under the latter system. Examples of cases of salt commanding higher or lower prices according as they are light or heavy abound in the Madras depôt, where the price of salt varies from 4 to 7 annas a maund. The reason for the preference for light salt has already been explained. In the Madras retail market also salt is sold at different prices with reference to the quality of the article.

12. What after all is the increase of cost of excise salt at present? The cost is 4 annas a maund for the whole Presidency as compared with the hypothetical 3 annas under the monopoly system. In the Masulipatam division it is only 2 annas 8 pies. It seems to me that, making sufficient allowance for the considerations above pointed out, prices are really cheaper now than under the monopoly system. A comparison of retail prices in 1889 with the prices before 1880 shows that retail prices are in most places lower now than under the monopoly system. Moreover, a difference of one anna per maund of 80 lb. makes no difference in retail prices, as these are quoted at so much per Madras measure of say 4 lb., and the increase of one anna per maund would be equivalent to only an increase of price of a Madras measure by less than one-half of a pie. This fact should be borne in mind in judging of the real effect of a sudden temporary pressure of demand on inadequate stocks and consequent rise of prices, which pressure of demand, be it noted, must happen quite as frequently as, if not more frequently, under the monopoly than under the excise system.

13. It is now unnecessary to advert to the circumstances which led to the enhancement of the price of salt in 1885 and 1886, soon after the introduction of the excise system. The causes of the rise in price were fully investigated by Government in 1888, and though the views of the Salt Department have been at variance with those of Government on this subject, I am not aware that a single argument has been brought forward tending in any way to shake the conclusions arrived at by Government after full enquiry. As regards the measures adopted by Government to remedy the evils that had arisen, there can be but one opinion, viz., that the measures have been eminently successful. The retail price of salt to the consumer has not increased beyond what it was under the monopoly system. On the contrary, if an exact calculation were possible, it would probably be found that prices have gone below what they would be at the present time under the monopoly system. A fairer distribution of profits between the manufacturers and the traders has been brought about and the profits of middlemen have to some extent been cut down. The old argument that capitalists restrict production has been shown to be entirely unfounded, the "*dittam*" or regulation of the quantity manufactured being now found to have been fixed with a view to secure the *maximum* production and not with a view to restrict it. Many licensees work their salt pans independently of capitalists and store and sell salt on their own account. There is full competition among the capitalists themselves. This, I believe, is the case even in Madras where the average price is 5 annas 2 pies a maund. Salt at this station always costs more than the monopoly price of 3 annas, and the additional 2 annas and 2 pies includes this excess as well as the extra value of light as well as of good salt as already explained. I do not think therefore that any material reduction in the price of salt at Madras can be looked for.

14. The monopoly system is sometimes defended on the ground that as the Government levies on salt a duty amounting to nearly 20 times the cost price, it is bound to see that the cost to the consumer is not unduly enhanced. The assumption underlying this statement is

that under the monopoly system it is possible for Government to have control over the price of salt. This assumption, as I have above shown, is unfounded. It seems to me that if the salt tax is an evil, it is an aggravation of that evil to levy it under the monopoly system. The Government has, however, with a view to prevent an undue enhancement of price by combinations of traders, accumulated reserve stocks, and these stocks have completely fulfilled their purpose. The necessity for this arrangement arose from the sudden substitution of the excise for the monopoly system which was in existence for over three-quarters of a century, and I believe that in the course of a few years more, their maintenance will be found to be unnecessary. The object is not to drive capitalists out of the salt trade; what is desired is that there should be sufficient competition among them. There is not likely to be any danger of extensive combinations among the capitalists, such as that which arose at Madras in 1885 and 1886 under very special circumstances. Temporary local combinations may of course occasionally occur, but their effect will be evanescent. The danger now seems to be rather in the direction of Salt Department imposing unnecessary restrictions on the prices charged by salt manufacturers or of bringing the reserve stocks to sale with a view to reduce prices below what they would be under natural conditions when there is full competition, instead of keeping the reserve for use as a heroic remedy on extraordinary occasions, such as, for instance, would justify Government in importing grain to tracts suffering from distress. Government reserve stocks under the excise system, though objectionable on principle and justifiable only as a temporary expedient to repair mistakes committed in the past, have not practically operated to the prejudice of the excise manufacturers, because the Government has not hitherto interfered with the course of salt trade and has allowed traders a large range of prices to base their calculations upon. The loss incurred by Government by maintaining the stocks is also very trifling when compared with the revenue derived by Government from the salt duty. If, however, Government were to enter into direct competition with excise manufacturers, it would simply lead to the extinction of the excise and to the rehabilitation of the monopoly system, which is a consummation greatly to be regretted in the interests of the public for the reasons I have already explained.

15. There are three conditions essential for the proper working of the excise system, viz., *first*, the restrictions imposed on manufacturers should not be greater than are absolutely necessary for the protection of the revenue; *secondly*, there should be no obstacles interposed to the opening of new pans, and additional storage room should be provided on a liberal scale under adequate guarantees in all factories; *thirdly*, small traders should receive the same countenance and assistance as large traders from both salt and Railway officials when they want to purchase salt and send them by the railway. I do not know what the policy of the Salt Department in respect of these matters latterly has been, but I have no doubt that, if they are looked at from the point of view of the convenience of the producers as well as of the Salt Department and adequately provided for, the excise system will in the course of a few years be able to stand on its own

legs, and to dispense with the artificial support of Government reserve stocks. The completion of the East Coast and other railways now in progress will also materially help to bring about this result. The excise system has now justified itself and what is wanted for its complete success is a continuity of policy. If this is ensured, there is no reason why Madras should not secure a large share in the Bengal salt trade, driving out Liverpool salt from thence. The question of substitution of excise for Government monopoly was first mooted by the Cheshire Salt Chamber of Commerce, in the hope that a market might thereby be opened in Madras for their salt, and the prejudice against the excise system is to some extent due to this circumstance. The probability, however, is that Madras salt will eventually drive out English salt from Bengal. Salt is sent from England to Bengal as ballast, but if a trade springs up between Madras and Bengal in Bengal coal, it would be profitable to send Madras salt as a return load. The Government would do well to do all that lies in its power to develop an export trade in Madras salt, and this can be done only under the excise system. If the English salt syndicate persists in artificially raising the price of English salt shipped to Bengal, it would be materially assisting the Madras manufacturers to compete in the Bengal market. Germany, Aden and Arabia have been sending salt to Bengal during the last 3 or 4 years; and Madras, which is so much nearer to Bengal than these countries and has so many facilities for the manufacture of good salt, ought, under proper arrangements, to be able to secure to itself the bulk of the Bengal salt trade.

STATEMENT No. I.

Quantity of salt manufactured and sold and the balance remaining in stock in the East Coast factories in each year from 1881-82 to 1890-91.

In lakhs of maunds 1 maund = 82½ lb.

Years.	Manufac- ture.	Sale	Stocks at the end of each year.
1881-82	60·42	56·00	75 89
1882-83	66 54	62·55	76·44
1883-84	59 83	65 35	63 28
1884-85	74·87	64 89	67·08
1886-86	57·20	67 34	51·27
1886-87	48·40	65·91	28·04
1887-88	88·67	68·24	47 03
1888-89	89·94	70 69	63 25
1889-90	92 42	71·58	80·21
1890-91	87·23	69 60	94·20

olxi

STATEMENT No. II.

Average factory price of salt per maund.

—	1885-86.	1886-87.	1887-88.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.
	AS. P.	AS. P.	AS. P.	AS. P.	AS. P.	AS. P.
Chatrapur	3 2	3 5·7	6 0·6	5 10·9	4 1	4 3·6
Chicacole	3 6·6	4 5·6	9 2·6	5 9·8	4 3	3 11·5
Masulipatam	3 6·6	4 9·5	4 11·0·9	3 11·2	3 3	2 8
Nellore	3 0	3 9·9	3 3·6	3 6·7	3 7	3 5·3
Chingleput	5 4·8	6 8·2	6 3·2	5 4·1	5 2	5 0·5
Negapatam	3 10·9	7 1·0	6 2·2	4 11·6	4 3	4 5
Tinnevelly	5 0·9	6 1·0	6 1·7	4 4·3	4 3	3 7
Average	5 7·3	6 1·1	4 9·8	4 4	4 0·2

NOTE.—The excise system was introduced in a small number of factories in 1882-1884. In 1885-86 the system was brought into force in nearly all the Madras factories. The season in 1885-86 and 1886-87 was unfavorable for salt manufacture, and the outturn in those years was very small as compared with the ordinary outturn. The result was depletion of stocks and consequent enhancement in the price of salt.

STATEMENT No. III.

Retail price of salt in saers of 8 tolas per rupee.

—	1879	1880.	1889.	1890.
Ganjam	11 85	11·81	12 33	11 40
Vizagapatam	10 24	10 58	11 69	11·70
Godavari	12 54	11 98	12 00	12 01
Kistna	12·91	12 80	13·19	13 11
Nellore	12·70	12 60	12·34	12·80
Cuddapah	13 89	13 92	12·34	12·20
Anantapur	12 95	12 81	11 14	11 60
Bellary			11 87	11 90
Kurnool	12·06	12·53	11·36	11·50
Madras	13·88	13·75	12·31	13 00
North Arcot	12·12	12·33	11 31	11·40
South Arcot	14·09	14·28	11·58	11 60
Tanjore	12·27	12·52	12 62	12·80
Trichinopoly	12·20	12·13	12 45	12 42
Madura	13 80	13·64	13 47	13·48
Tinnevelly	13·95	14·74	14·68	14 80
Coimbatore	11·78	12·12	11·98	12·50
Salem	11·82	11·94	13·43	13·28
South Canara	11·55	11·51	13·17	13·50
Malabar	10 55	9·79	11·69	11·70
Average	12·48	12 52	12 35	12·44

NOTE.—From January 1878 to 10th March 1882, the duty on salt was Rs. 2-8-0 a maund, and on the latter date it was reduced to Rs. 3 a maund. The duty was again raised to Rs. 2-8-0 in January 1888 and continues at this rate at present.

(g)—*Remarks on the Abkári Administration of the Madras Presidency.*

The principles formulated by the Secretary of State for India in regard to abkári administration and accepted by the House of Commons during the recent debate on this question are stated in the letter of the Government of India of 16th May last to be as follows:—

- (1) Any extension of the habit of drinking among Indian populations is to be discouraged.
- (2) The tax on spirits should be as high as may be possible without giving rise to illicit methods of making and selling liquor.
- (3) Subject to the above considerations, a maximum revenue should be raised from a minimum consumption of intoxicating liquors.

2. The discouragement of drinking is thus the primary object aimed at in abkári arrangements. A *total prohibition* of the consumption of liquors among classes of people addicted to the use of them would, however, cause great hardship and be incapable of enforcement even if desirable. The drinking classes in such a case would almost to a certainty supply themselves with liquor by illicit distillation and smuggling, and get demoralized by law-breaking as well as drinking. The object in view is therefore sought to be attained by subjecting liquors to a high duty, so high as to act as a check on consumption, and yet not so high as to cause an outbreak of illicit distillation or smuggling, which cannot be coped with except by employing preventive establishments at enormous cost. The limit of taxation which satisfies the above conditions is not the same in all places but varies in different places, and even in the same place at different times, according to idiosyncrasies of race, taste and lawless habits, climatic differences, efficiency of prevention, facilities for illicit distillation and other circumstances; and the problem of excise administration consists in finding this limit for the different parts of the country and adjusting the duty with reference to it.

3. Revenue is not to be the main object in abkári arrangements, that is to say, it is not to be developed by lowering the duty and extending consumption of intoxicating liquors, but by enhancing the duty and restricting consumption. Subject to this condition, it is a desirable object to develop the revenue (1) by pushing up taxation to the limit already referred to, (2) by taking care that as little of the realizable revenue as possible is diverted from the coffers of the State and absorbed by middlemen or others to whom privilege of sale, &c., of liquors may be granted. The taxation of liquors has this great advantage over other forms of taxation of commodities in general consumption, viz., that while the latter are objectionable in that and in so far as they restrict consumption, the former is beneficial for that very reason.

4. The following facts will show that the principles and considerations above adverted to have been steadily kept in view in all abkári arrangements in this Presidency during the last 15 or 20 years, and that this Government may justly claim to have attained, in spite of difficulties met with at the outset, a very considerable measure of success in the application of those principles.

5. The Presidency contains an area of about 140,000 square miles with a population of nearly 31 millions. Of this area about 20,000 square miles, containing a population of nearly a million, comprise what are called the Agency tracts in the Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godávári districts. These tracts are hilly and jungly and inhabited by uncivilized, wild races; and it is not open to Government to adopt scientific methods of administration in these places. Throughout the Agency tracts, toddy (fermented palm juice) is now left untaxed. During the Rumpa rebellion in 1880, the oppressions of the toddy renters was alleged as one of the reasons for the *emeute*. In Ganjam, Khonds are allowed to distil spirits for domestic consumption and not for sale. It was at one time thought that Uriya distillers in the Khond country were spreading drunkenness among the Khonds and steadily and surely winning their lands; and they (Uriyas) were prohibited from distilling or selling liquor there. Recent reports from the Collector, however, show that the Khonds do not distil liquor themselves, but employ clandestinely Uriya distillers to manufacture for them and that the prohibition above referred to has given rise to considerable illicit traffic in liquor. The question of allowing Uriyas to distil under proper safeguards and strict control is now under the consideration of the Abkári department. In Vizagapatam the Abkári privileges in some of the tracts are leased out to contractors, and in others kept under *amani* management, that is to say, the supply and sale of liquor is made under the supervision of Government officers. In the Rumpa country in the Godávári district little or no spirit is consumed. In some of the other Agency villages in this district the privilege of sale of spirit is leased out to contractors; in others again to the villagers themselves for lump sums. It will not be possible to control the traffic in liquor in the Agency tracts on the principles laid down by the Secretary of State, and these tracts must be put aside so far as the present inquiry is concerned. There is, however, no reason to think that drunkenness is on the increase in these regions.

6. Confining our attention to the portions of the Presidency (comprising an area of nearly 120,000 square miles with a population of about 30 millions) in which it is practicable to regulate the taxation of liquor on the principles laid down by the Secretary of State, the following very brief account will show the steps taken during the last 20 years for introducing sound methods of *abkári* administration. The liquors principally drunk in this Presidency are, 1st, country spirits, 2ndly, imported liquors and liquors manufactured in the country and excised at the customs rate of duty and otherwise dealt with for purposes of taxation in the same manner as imported liquors, and, 3rdly, toddy or fermented palm juice.

7. *Country spirits* consumed are distilled either from jaggery (crude sugar) or toddy (palm juice). Toddy spirit is in use in the Godávári, Malabar and South Canara districts and in the coast taluks of the Kistna district and the two taluks of the Kurnool district east of the Nallamalai hills, viz., Cumbum and Márkápúr. In some of the plain taluks of the Vizagapatam district spirit distilled from mowha flowers (*Bassia latifolia*) and also spirit distilled from rice are consumed. In the remaining portions, jaggery spirit is drunk.

8. Twenty years ago, the systems of abkári administration in force were very primitive and the privilege of manufacturing and selling spirits in large areas, usually districts, was leased out to contractors for lump sums, and the spirit was manufactured in stills scattered all over the country according to the rude methods and appliances in use among native distillers. The liquor was sold in sanctioned shops, but practically there was no limit to the number of shops that might be opened. In accordance with the provisions of the Abkári Act, a minimum price was no doubt fixed below which liquor could not be sold, but as the minimum price was fixed without any reference to the alcoholic strength of the liquor sold, it was of no use whatever. In short, there was no attempt made to regulate taxation or to ascertain and control consumption, and contractors were practically allowed to do what they liked in the way of extending consumption.

9. The obvious remedy for this state of things was the substitution for the renting system of an arrangement under which out-stills could be suppressed and manufacture concentrated in large distilleries easily guarded, the revenue being realized by a duty of excise adjusted with reference to alcoholic strength on every gallon of spirit issued therefrom. Before, however, this system of central distilleries, known locally as the "excise system," could be introduced into any particular district, it was necessary to make sure of two conditions, viz., 1st, that when out-stills were suppressed distillers able and willing to construct the necessary buildings and manufacture spirit cheaply on a large scale by using scientific methods and appliances would be forthcoming, and, 2ndly, that the expenses of distribution of liquor from a central distillery to the outlying parts of districts in which facilities for illicit distillation were great did not so enhance the cost of liquor to the consumers as to drive them to supply themselves with it illicitly.

10. Accordingly, "the excise system" was first experimentally tried in selected districts between the years 1869—74. The results showed that no difficulty was likely to be experienced in finding distillers, provided that the areas over which they were given the privilege of selling liquor were sufficiently extensive to enable them to do a large business. In 1875-76, the "excise system" was introduced into further portions of the Presidency with certain modifications, the chief of which was that the distiller or contractor who was given the monopoly privilege of manufacture and sale within a district was required to guarantee a minimum revenue from the duty leviable on the spirit issued for consumption, the object in view being to prevent his making all his profit in the easily manageable portions of his farms, leaving the distant outlying portions to the illicit distiller and the smuggler. The contractor was charged with the duty of maintaining sufficient establishments to prevent illicit practices and smuggling. He was bound to sell the spirit at certain maximum and minimum prices prescribed by Government. The minimum limit was intended to prevent the contractor lowering the price to such an extent as to unduly extend consumption, and the maximum limit to prevent his running up the price so high in particular localities as to cause hardship to the drinking classes and drive them to illicit practices in obtaining supplies of liquor. The minimum prices were

fixed in such a manner as to leave a reasonable profit to the contractor after paying the duty and defraying the cost of liquor, of distillation, of establishments, of remuneration to vendors, &c., according to an assumed standard, and the maximum prices were fixed somewhat higher so as to leave a margin for the contractor to enable him to adapt prices to the actual circumstances of the different parts of his farm.

11. The concentration of distillation and the introduction of the guaranteed revenue system, as the system above described was called, was easy in all districts in which jaggery spirit was consumed, and it was extended in 1875 and 1878 to all the districts of the Presidency excepting those mentioned in paragraph 7 as districts in which toddy spirit is chiefly drunk. In the inland taluks of the Vizagapatam district in which mowha spirit is drunk, the excise system was introduced in 1875, but was withdrawn in 1878 as it did not work well there.

12. The guaranteed revenue system (which is still retained in Bombay) was in force until 1884-85, when the abkári arrangements were again completely remodelled with reference to the recommendations of the Abkári Committee, which was appointed by Government in 1884. It was found that this system had done its work in the way of introducing and familiarizing native distillers with improved methods and appliances in the manufacture of spirit, but was operating prejudicially to sound abkári administration in other respects. Its failure was mainly attributable to three causes, viz., *first*, the large size of the farms generally comprising entire districts, which shut out all but the largest capitalists from the competition for the contracts, and enabled a few rich European firms to combine to keep down the bids for the guaranteed revenue, and to make unduly large profits from the more easily managed portions of the farms, neglecting altogether the outlying parts; *secondly*, the realization of the revenue wholly in the shape of a uniform fixed duty throughout the farms without regard to the often widely varying conditions of the tracts comprised within them, and the artificial regulations imposed by Government as regards retail prices of liquor, which, as already observed, were based on hypothetical data as regards cost of liquor and other items liable to considerable fluctuations in different tracts of country and from year to year; and, *thirdly*, the entrusting to the contractors the duty of maintaining sufficient establishments for the prevention of illicit distillation, while at the same time no police powers were or could be conceded to these establishments which were not under official control and discipline. The large monopolists had very generally neglected to maintain the establishments they were bound to employ or to provide adequate facilities for the supply of liquor to the more difficult and less accessible portions of their farms; they had closed large numbers of shops previously existing, and in the remaining shops they had cut down the allowance of the retailers to such an extent as to drive them to seek their remuneration in illicit practices, such as giving short measure, dilution, &c.; and by charging the maximum prices in the populous portions of the farms and spending as little as possible on their management, they had reaped enormous profits, a very considerable portion of which should, under proper arrangements, have come to Government in the shape

of taxation. The result was a considerable decline in the revenue, while at the same time there was reason to suppose that the real consumption had increased and not decreased.

13. The object of the reforms initiated in 1884 was to provide a remedy for these evils. To ensure sufficient personal attention being paid by the renters to all parts of the farms and to admit of the smaller capitalists with local knowledge competing for them, the size of the farms had to be reduced; but as it would, at the same time, have been distinctly a retrograde step to allow small renters to establish stills of their own for the supply of tracts served by central distilleries, the expedient was adopted of separating the privileges of manufacture and sale, which had hitherto been leased out conjointly. As regards the former, the policy has been to leave the manufacture and supply of spirits to licensed vendors "free" wherever possible, that is to say, to make it cease to be a monopoly and to permit any one, who chooses to embark in the business of distillation, to obtain a license to work a distillery and to sell the liquor manufactured to licensed vendors at prices mutually agreed upon between them from time to time and not fixed by Government. The existence of sufficient competition between distillers being essential to the success of this scheme, it was experimentally tried at first in a limited number of localities, and being found to answer was extended to all the districts brought under the excise system with the exception of a few special tracts where, owing to the absence of railway communications or other causes, the privilege of manufacture is still, for the present, granted as a monopoly. The principal advantages of the "free supply" system, as it is called, are that it affords encouragement to distillers to lay out capital in the adoption of the most recent improvements in the methods of manufacture, without the fear, so long as they comply with excise regulations, of having the right of distillation taken out of their hands after any definite period, as would be the case when the privilege is granted as a monopoly; that by reducing the cost of liquor, it increases the margin left for the Government taxation out of the price realizable from the consumers, and that it enables licensed vendors to exercise some choice as to the distillers from whom they can purchase their liquor, and thus to adapt the liquor supplied by them to some extent to the tastes of the consumers. The duty of maintaining preventive establishments has been undertaken by Government. The realizable taxation varies, as already pointed out, in different parts of the country, depending as it does on the habits of the people, the price which they can pay and the facility with which illicit liquor can be made with impunity; and in order to obtain the highest duty that it is possible to get in different localities, the taxation was divided into two portions; the first being the still-head duty payable when the liquor leaves the distilleries and fixed at rates sufficiently low to enable the renters of the vend farms to suppress the sale of illicit liquor where necessary, and the second being the lump sums paid for the privilege of sale by the vend-farmers and determined by public competition. By these arrangements the total taxation leviable in different places is intended to adapt itself to their varying circumstances by a natural process; and when, by the combined action of the preventive establishments maintained by Government and of the renters working in their own interest to displace illicit by licit consumption, unhampered by artificial

restrictions as regards maximum and minimum prices, illicit dealings in liquor have been suppressed, it is expected that the way will be clear for equalizing the still-head duty throughout the country and levelling it up to the import rate; in other words, increasing the fixed and decreasing the variable portion of the total taxation. The intention is eventually to dispense altogether with middlemen, with monopoly privileges for the sale of liquor also and to make the taxation consist of the still-head duty and shop rents. This plan has been adopted in towns, but as it is not possible to abolish middlemen all at once in rural tracts, the size of the vend farms has been gradually reduced in view to middlemen being finally got rid of.

14. Since 1884 very considerable progress has been made in bringing the improved excise system into force throughout the Presidency; it was of course introduced at once into the districts in which the "guaranteed revenue" system was in force; it was also extended to the Kurnool district with the exception of the Cumbum and Márkápúr taluks in 1885-86; to the upland taluks of the Kistna district in 1886;									
	<table border="0" style="margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: left;">Area in sq. miles.</th> <th style="text-align: left;">Population.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Tracts under the excise system ...</td> <td style="text-align: right;">106,000 25,425,000</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Tracts in which the excise system has been ordered to be introduced from 1st April next</td> <td style="text-align: right;">4,000 473,000</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: right;">Total ...</td> <td style="text-align: right;"><u>110,000 25,898,000</u></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Tracts under the excise system ...	106,000 25,425,000	Tracts in which the excise system has been ordered to be introduced from 1st April next	4,000 473,000	Total ...	<u>110,000 25,898,000</u>
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to the five Municipal towns of the Malabar district in 1886-87; to the inland taluks of the Vizagapatam district and into the Mangalore taluk of the South Canara district and into the taluks of Chirakal, Kottayam, Calicut and Pálghat of the Malabar district in 1888-89. It is under contemplation to introduce it into Cumbum and Márkápúr taluks of the Kurnool district and Gudiváda, Vissanapet and Núzvid taluks of the Kistna district from next April. Within the next two or three years it will probably be in force in all parts of the Presidency excepting, of course, the Agency tracts. The difficulty has hitherto been to devise arrangements under which the excise system can be worked in districts in which toddy spirit is consumed. In these districts distillation is practised by almost every toddy-drawer and its suppression requires large preventive establishments. Toddy required for distillation is, moreover, expensive to carry long distances and gets spoilt if kept long. The plan introduced into the taluks of the Malabar district at the suggestion of Mr. Galton may, however, be considered to have solved the problem. The plan is to establish distilleries in central localities, where palm-trees are abundant, and to permit the distiller to work subsidiary stills in the vicinity, from which weak spirits could be passed by the distillery officer to the central distillery for redistillation. Centralization of distillation of toddy spirit necessitates the employment of strong preventive establishments and it is found convenient to work it in connection with the tree-tax system (to be noticed in connection with toddy arrangements) which likewise requires strong establishments to work it.

15. The number of distilleries in the tracts under the excise system is 20, of which 17 are worked under the "free supply" and 3 under the "monopoly supply" system. In all these distilleries spirit is manufactured by the method of continuous "close distillation." It was at one time feared that Messrs. Parry and Company, who work a

large distillery at Nellikuppam in the South Arcot district in connection with their sugar factory there and manufacture spirit cheaply from molasses, would be able under the "free supply" system to establish a practical monopoly and then enhance the price of liquor unduly and thus diminish the margin left out of the retail price for the Government duty. Experience has, however, since shown that there is keen competition among distillers for the custom of licensed vendors in "free supply" areas and that the danger apprehended is not likely to arise.

16. There can be no doubt that since 1883-84 both the duty realized and the price of liquor in excise districts have increased. The average duty for the districts in which the excise system was in force in 1883-84 was Rs. 3-2-6 per gallon of proof strength. In 1887-88 the duty realized in the same districts was Rs. 4-8-3 per gallon, of which Rs. 2-13-10 represented the duty levied at the still-head and Rs. 1-10-5 the incidence per gallon of the rents paid by vend farmers and shopkeepers for the privilege of sale. The highest excise duty leviable under law is Rs. 5 per proof gallon. For the current year the still-head duty has been enhanced considerably in several districts and therefore a much larger portion of the taxation will be realized in the shape of still-head duty than in 1887-88.

17. To determine the effect of the excise system on consumption of liquor, the circumstances of the several districts must be separately examined. The following are the facts connected with each district:—

Gānjam, exclusive of Agency tracts.—The consumption in 1875-76 was 38,849 proof gallons, in 1883-84 it had increased to 41,836 gallons. Since then it has been rapidly diminishing; in 1886-87 it was 24,579 gallons; 1887-88, 24,170 gallons; and in 1888-89, 24,044 gallons. The duty per proof gallon which was Rs. 1-15-0 had increased to Rs. 3-11-9 in 1887-88 and to Rs. 3-6-4 in 1888-89.

Vizagapatam, exclusive of Agency tracts.—The consumption in the coast taluks of the district was 16,905 gallons in 1875-76, 11,227 gallons in 1883-84, 26,479 gallons in 1886-87 and 29,133 gallons in 1887-88. The increase in these taluks in the later years is entirely due to the stoppage of smuggling from the inland taluks where liquor was sold cheaply by the contractors under the renting system. Under the old law the transport of spirit in quantities not exceeding one quart was permissible and considerable quantities were thus transported from the rented to the excise taluks with a view to evade the higher duty leviable in the latter. The Abkari Act of 1886 has enabled Government to put a stop to this practice by prohibiting the transport of liquor in however small quantities from the rented to the excise tract. The excise system having been introduced into the interior taluks also from 1888-89, the consumption for the whole district has declined from 68,472 gallons in 1887-88 to 36,323 in 1888-89. The duty realized in 1887-88 and 1888-89 was Rs. 3-4-10 and Rs. 5-7-1, respectively, per proof gallon against Rs. 2-10-0 in 1875-76.

Goddavari.—No reliable statistics of consumption are available for this district which has not yet been brought under the excise system. In this as in other tracts in which the out-still system is retained the consumption is very large, being 80 proof gallons per 1,000 of the

population, a rate nearly double of that in excise tracts. There is nothing to show that consumption has increased since 1875-76. When the arrangements for concentrating distillation of toddy spirit are introduced in this district, there will be an enormous decrease in consumption. Mr. Bliss has been directed to visit the Northern districts and submit proposals for placing the Abkari administration there on an improved footing, which, it is hoped, will be done at an early date.

Kistna.—The excise system was introduced into the upland taluks of this district only in 1886-87 and reliable statistics of consumption for previous years are not available. The consumption in 1887-88 was very high, 141 gallons per 1,000 of the population, but it must have been much higher under the out-still system. A reduction in the consumption should be brought about by a *gradual* enhancement of the still-head duty in this district. Since 1888-89 the duty has been raised from Rs. 1-1-2 to Rs. 1-14-0 per gallon London proof. As the upland taluks of this district are surrounded by tracts in which the renting system is still maintained, it is necessary, in order to prevent smuggling, that the duty should not be fixed very high at the outset, but when the coast taluks are also brought under the excise system, as it is hoped that they will shortly be, the duty can be considerably enhanced.

Nellore.—In 1875-76 the consumption was 27,403 proof gallons; it has been gradually increasing since 1883-84; in that year it was 38,859 gallons, in 1886-87, 39,813 gallons, and in 1887-88, 42,106 gallons. In 1888-89, however, it went down to 39,240 gallons. The increase, as compared with the earlier years is due to the suppression of illicit distillation and smuggling, which is known to have been

	Gallon per head of the population.	prevalent chiefly in the zemindari portions, and this is shown by the fact that the consumption per head of the population * in this district is much lower than in the adjacent districts. The duty, which was
* North Arcot	60	
Cuddapah	42	
Kurnool	58	
Nellore	32	

Rs. 2-3-9 per proof gallon in 1875-76, amounted to Rs. 4-9-1 in 1887-88 and to Rs. 4-6-6 in 1888-89.

Cuddapah.—The excise system was introduced into this district in 1878. The consumption under renting system in 1875-76 was reported at 66,848 gallons. In 1878-79, the year after the famine during which this district had suffered very severely and lost more than one-fifth of its population, the consumption was 41,172 proof gallons. Since then the consumption has been 50,205 gallons in 1883-84, 43,614 in 1886-87, 46,703 in 1887-88 and 47,541 in 1888-89. The duty has risen from Rs. 3-1-2 per gallon in 1878-79 to Rs. 5-1-2 in 1887-88 and Rs. 4-14-9 in 1888-89.

Bellary Cantonment.—In 1875-76, the consumption was 33,460 gallons. In 1883-84 it had increased to 46,164 gallons; in 1886-87 it fell to 37,531 gallons; it rose in 1887-88 to 42,685 owing to favorable season and fell again to 38,487 gallons in 1888-89. The duty per gallon has risen from Rs. 3-13-6 in 1875-76 to Rs. 5-8-11 in 1887-88

and Rs. 5-0-1 in 1888-89. The consumption in this town fluctuates with the strength of the garrison.

Bellary district, exclusive of the Cantonment, and Anantapur district.—The excise system was introduced into these districts in 1878-79. If the consumption reported under the renting system in 1875-76 can be relied on, it must have been very high—119,375 proof gallons. In 1883-84, or 5 years after the famine in which these districts severely suffered, the consumption was 53,615 gallons; in 1886-87, 48,637 gallons; in 1887-88, 63,179 gallons; and in 1888-89, 50,990 gallons. The duty realized in 1888-89 amounted to Rs. 4-11-8 per gallon in the Bellary district including the cantonment and to Rs. 4-4-5 in the Anantapur district.

Kurnool District.—In the taluks west of Nallamalai hills the excise system was introduced in 1885-86. The consumption has been as follows:—1885-86, 35,438 gallons; 1886-87, 41,282 gallons; 1887-88, 38,798; and 1888-89, 28,022. The high consumption in 1886-87 appears to have been due to the large numbers of laborers employed on railway works which have since been completed. The duty realized in 1888-89 was Rs. 4-14-9 per gallon.

Madras Town.—The consumption of Puttai and Colombo arrack within the Municipal limits in 1875-76 was 114,402 gallons. In 1877-78, when the famine was at its height, the consumption rose to 127,101 gallons owing to the activity of the grain trade. In 1883-84 it was 126,628 gallons. In 1887-88 the consumption rose to 136,673 gallons owing to the strike among toddy-drawers during a portion of the year and consequent increase in the sales of arrack. In 1888-89 consumption fell to 129,802 gallons.

Chingleput District.—The consumption in the Chingleput district was in 1888-89, 57,483 against 57,795 gallons in 1875-76.

North Arcot.—The consumption in this district has been as follows.—90,765 gallons in 1875-76; 76,647 in 1883-84; 91,157 gallons in 1887-88; and 91,323 gallons in 1888-89. The duty realized has risen from Rs. 3-3-3 per gallon, London proof, in 1875-76, to Rs. 5 per gallon in 1888-89.

South Arcot.—The consumption in this district has been 50,437 gallons in 1875-76; 55,514 gallons in 1883-84; 74,981 gallons in 1886-87; 80,670 gallons in 1887-88; and 95,740 gallons in 1888-89. The rapid increase in the later years is entirely due to the employment of preventive establishments and other arrangements made with a view to put a stop to the smuggling of liquor which for several years past was going on from the French territory of Pondicherry into the adjoining taluks of the South Arcot district. In fact the French Government was deriving a large revenue from consumption of liquor in British territory. The French and British villages are so interlaced with one another that a large population in the British taluks were drinking French liquor which was sold at much lower prices than the British liquor. Partly owing to a rise in the price of French spirit and partly owing to fall in the price of spirit sold in shops within British territory, the latter spirit is now enabled to compete with the former, and much of the revenue which the French Government was illegitimately making from consumption in British territory now finds

its way, as it ought to, into the British treasury. The price* of British liquor consumed is, however, higher than the French liquor consumed before, and there is no reason to think that actual consumption has really increased. The rate of consumption in the South Arcot district (53 gallons per 1,000

of the population) is about the same as that in the adjoining district of North Arcot (50 gallons per 1,000 of the population), the conditions of which are similar to those of the former. The French Government are getting alarmed at the diminution of the revenue they have been deriving for several years and are thinking of imposing a high duty on country spirits as well as on imported brandies. If they do this, they will be benefiting their revenue and placing a check on the enormous consumption of liquors within their territory—a consumption which is little less than a scandal and has no parallel in any portion of the British territory. Until they see the wisdom of this policy the British frontier taluks must suffer as regards abkári administration by the proximity of the French territory. Negotiation with the French Government for an assimilation of the systems of abkári administration in their territory with that in force in British territory was tried before but it led to no result, as the French Government returned evasive answers, being apparently loath to give up the revenue they were deriving from British consumption. Now that it has been shown to them that they can no longer rely on this revenue, it is to be hoped that they will see that, by working the abkári administration on sound principles, they can improve the revenue, and, at the same time, promote the interests of sobriety and morality.

Tanjore.—The consumption in this district has been as follows:—1875-76, 36,564 gallons; 1883-84, 33,875 gallons; 1887-88, 37,045 gallons; and 1888-89, 39,100 gallons. Much arrack is not drunk in this district, the favorite drink of the lower classes being toddy. The rate of consumption of arrack per head of the population is about one-third of that of the adjoining district of South Arcot. The duty realized in 1888-89 was Rs. 3-11-0 per gallon against Rs. 2-13-9 in 1875-76.

Trichinopoly.—The consumption has been—1875-76, 39,092 gallons; 1883-84, 36,314 gallons; 1887-88, 32,157 gallons; 1888-89, 35,282 gallons. The duty realized has risen from Rs. 2-12-11 in 1875-76 to Rs. 4-3-8 in 1888-89.

Madura.—In 1875-76, when the abkári revenue of this district was managed under the renting system, the consumption of arrack was reported to have been 75,003 gallons. In 1883-84 the consumption under the excise system was 46,742 gallons; in 1887-88, 42,477 gallons; and in 1888-89, 48,225 gallons. The rate of consumption per head of the population is less than that in the northern districts and there is considerable smuggling and illicit distillation in the zemindari portions. The increase in consumption in 1888-89 appears to be due to large numbers of laborers employed on the works connected with the Periyár project. The duty realized in 1888-89 was Rs. 4-5-1 per gallon.

Price per
gallon of 30°
under-proof.

	RS.	A	P
In French shops	2	6	6
In shops on the British side of the frontier	2	4	0

In French shops
In shops on the British
side of the frontier

Tinnevely.—In this district also, the arrack revenue was managed under the renting system in 1875-76, when the consumption of arrack was reported by the renters to have been 73,794 gallons. In 1883-84, the consumption was 36,462 gallons; in 1887-88, 21,718 gallons; and in 1888-89, 26,506 gallons. The rate of consumption of arrack in this district is the lowest in the Presidency. The duty realized in 1888-89 was Rs. 3-15-4 per gallon.

Coimbatore.—The consumption in this district has been as follows:—1875-76, 59,944 gallons; 1883-84, 47,594 gallons; 1887-88, 38,183 gallons; and 1888-89, 46,148 gallons. The duty realized has risen from Rs. 2-9-10 per gallon in 1875-76 to Rs. 4-15-5 in 1888-89.

Nilgiris.—In this district the consumption of arrack has been as follows:—1875-76, 23,255 gallons; 1883-84, 37,217 gallons; 1887-88, 36,212 gallons; 1888-89, 31,918 gallons. The consumption in 1883-84 was considerably in excess of that in 1875-76, but the * principal towns in the district have been growing of late years. It is also understood that, as the cultivation

	Population in 1871.	Population in 1881.
* Ootacamund	9,988	12,335
Coonoor	2,498	4,778

of poppy, which was carried on to some extent by the Badagas, was suppressed when the Opium Act was introduced in 1830, they have taken to drinking liquors. Since 1883-84, however, there has been a decline in the consumption of country spirits. The duty realized has risen from Rs. 3-6-11 per gallon in 1875-76 to Rs. 6-0-8 in 1888-89.

Salem.—The consumption in this district has been—1875-76, 76,187 gallons; 1883-84, 53,000 gallons; 1887-88, 54,171 gallons; 1888-89, 52,236 gallons. The duty has risen from Rs. 3-9-3 per gallon in 1875-76 to Rs. 4-10-1 in 1888-89.

Malabar and South Canara.—In Malabar, except in the Wynaad, the excise system was only recently introduced into some of the taluks. In South Canara the excise system has been introduced only into one taluk. The introduction of the excise system by raising the price of liquor has undoubtedly tended to check consumption, but reliable statistics are not available for previous years.

18. From the foregoing it will be seen (i) that the "excise" system has been introduced since 1875-76 into the greater portion of the Presidency as rapidly as circumstances permitted; (ii) that the effect of the introduction has been to increase the taxation and with it the price of country spirits and to diminish the consumption much below what it was under the old renting system; (iii) that in most of the "excise" districts the consumption in 1888-89 was very much less than in 1875-76 with the exception of South Arcot and the Nilgiris; (iv) that in South Arcot the increase is due to the measures taken for enabling liquor in British shops to compete with and displace the cheap liquor sold in French shops and which was chiefly consumed in the taluks on the frontier of the Pondicherry territory, and that it does not indicate any increase in drunkenness; (v) that the increase in the Nilgiri district is more than accounted for by the increase in the population; and (vi) that in the Madras town, where it might be expected that consumption would have increased considerably owing to increase of population and other causes, the consumption in 1888-89,

as compared with that in 1875-76, shows only a slight increase. As regards the increase in consumption in 1888-89 observable in a few districts, as compared with that in 1883-84, it should be remembered (i) that since then most portions of the Presidency have had a succession of very good seasons and the Presidency has rapidly recovered from the effects of the famine of 1876-78; and (ii) that, since 1886, the amendment of the Abkâri law giving power to prohibit transport of liquor from Native States, &c., even in quantities not exceeding a quart and the preventive establishments employed by Government have rendered it possible to displace illicit by licit consumption.

19. The above remarks refer to "country spirits," by which term is to be understood spirits manufactured in this country and on which the duty levied is below the rate prescribed by the customs tariff for imported liquors and which under present law is Rs. 5 per gallon of London proof strength and in proportion to strength for spirits of other strengths. Spirit manufactured in this country and taxed at the tariff rate is treated in all respects as imported spirit and permitted to be sold in the same shops as the latter. The object is eventually to assimilate the duty on the so-called "country spirit" to that on foreign spirits, that is to say, to abolish the distinction between "country spirit" and "foreign spirit," which is based simply on the rate of duty levied and not on the methods of manufacture. The so-called "country spirit" is in most distilleries manufactured by European process and is really rum and it is taxed at lower rates than the tariff rate, because it is believed that, if the duty were levied at the latter rate, considerable inducement would be offered to illicit distillation and smuggling. In the case of the Madras town and the Nilgiri district, it is possible now to raise the duty on country spirit to the tariff rate and abolish the distinction between "country" and "foreign" liquors and this question is now under consideration.

20. *Foreign liquors.*—Liquors classed as "foreign" consist of (i) imported spirits, wines and malt liquors; (ii) spirit manufactured within the Presidency and excised at the customs tariff rate of Rs. 5 per gallon of proof strength; and (iii) beer brewed in the country and excised at the tariff rate of one anna per gallon. Formerly licenses for sale of "foreign liquors" used to be granted on payment of fixed fees, but licenses for the sale of liquors, except in hotels and refreshment rooms, are put up to auction and the liquors subjected to a heavier duty than before. There are two breweries on the Nilgiris and the consumption of the beer brewed is stated to be extending among the lower classes of natives at Ootacamund and other places on the hills, where toddy is not available and the price of country spirit is high.

21. *Toddy.*—The regulation of the taxation of toddy (fermented palm juice) presents great difficulties. The levy of an excise duty is impossible and the only means available for regulating the tax on this intoxicant with some reference to consumption is to impose a tax on each palm tree tapped, the rate of tax being based on an estimate of the average production of the several descriptions of toddy-producing trees. The tree-tax to some extent performs the function of an excise duty and enables Government to form some judgment as to increase or decrease in consumption from the number of trees tapped

and to enhance the tax wherever it is found that consumption is increasing. The idea was borrowed from Bombay, but in working it care has been taken here to avoid the mistake which was committed in that Presidency of attempting to levy the duty not only on raw toddy but also on toddy spirit by means of the tree-tax. This necessitated the imposition of the tree-tax at rates so high (Rs. 18 annually per cocoanut tree) that they had the effect of suppressing the consumption of raw toddy altogether and compelling classes of the population accustomed to this beverage to drink spirit. The correct principle for working the tree-tax was stated by Mr. Galton when Abkári Commissioner in the following terms: "The true principle appears to be that the taxation in the form of a tree-tax should not exceed what the people can afford to pay upon the beverage, and where, as in some parts of Malabar, toddy constitutes an article of diet and is in fact the ordinary morning meal of some of the laboring classes, taxation must be moderate, or such classes would be deprived of their food. Shop rents serve to enhance the tax on toddy used as an intoxicant and when toddy is used for distillation taxation must be supplemented by other means; if possible by a still-head duty." The tree-tax in the portions of the Presidency in which it has been introduced has been worked strictly on the lines above indicated. The tax imposed, excepting in the town of Madras, amounts to Rs. 3 per cocoanut tree. The tree-tax at this rate is hardly equivalent to a duty of one anna per gallon of fermented toddy which contains sometimes as much as 8 per cent. of alcohol. When palm juice is drawn in vessels coated with lime, fermentation is prevented and the toddy thus drawn is used either for food or for the manufacture of crude sugar. This description of toddy is not taxed. In the Madras town the tree-tax is at the rate of Rs. 6 per cocoanut tree. This rate is not an unduly heavy one for the town of Madras, where considerable quantities of toddy are drunk for purposes of intoxication, and it is desirable to check consumption by raising the price of toddy. The tax was originally at the rate of Rs. 3 per tree and subsequently enhanced to Rs. 4-8-0; this enhancement did not cause any rise in the price of the beverage, but only reduced the profits of the toddy drawers. It has, therefore, been still further enhanced to Rs. 6 per annum during the current year in the town of Madras. It is believed that the increase in the duty levied on country spirit and consequent enhancement of its price have tended to increase the consumption of toddy and that this tendency requires to be checked to some extent. The tree-tax system, which is the only satisfactory system for taxing toddy on sound principles, is being gradually introduced. It has now worked well in the portions of the Presidency in which it is in force and its extension throughout the whole of the Presidency is only a question of time. It requires considerable establishments for marking the trees on which the tax is to be levied, and as the organization of the establishments entails considerable labour on the Abkári department the work has to be done gradually. In the tracts in which the tree-tax system is in force the toddy-shops are sold by auction every year, excepting in the Madras town and the Malabar district, where fixed fees are levied. In South Canara a regular tree-tax system has not been introduced, but the toddy-drawers are granted licenses to tap any number of trees they like on payment of fixed fees; the

licenses are not transferable and tapping under them of trees by persons other than those whose names are specified in the license is not permitted. This plan is obviously inferior to the tree-tax system, as there is no limit to the number of trees tapped under each license and no reliable estimate can be formed of the quantity of toddy drawn or of the incidence of taxation. The only advantages of this system are that it renders the employment of expensive establishments for marking the trees tapped unnecessary and prepares the way for the introduction of the tree-tax. The fees levied on each license have gradually been enhanced, but they still fall far short of what would be payable if the tree-tax, such as exists in Malabar, were introduced. In other portions of the Presidency the old renting system as regards toddy is still retained, but the size of the toddy farms in like manner with arrack farms has been reduced everywhere in order to ensure the renters effectually coping with illicit tapping and unlicensed sale of toddy. In towns middlemen have been dispensed with and toddy shops are sold by auction.

22. In some of the towns, however, the consumption of spirit appears to have increased considerably since 1882-83. A great part of the increase is no doubt accounted for by the increase of urban population in recent years, but the price of liquor in some towns during portions of the year appears to have been lower than in the rural tracts. In the town of Vellore, for instance, prices of spirit of 30° under proof appear to have ranged from Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 6- during 1888-89. This would appear to indicate that the shopkeepers are endeavouring to force sales during festivals, &c.,

Towns.	Consumption in 1882-83.	Consumption in 1888-89.	Rate per head of the population, 1888-89
	GALS.	GALS.	
Nellore	9,044	12,174	·442
Adóni	3,659	7,236	·332
Conjeeveram ..	4,784	8,931	·239
Vellore... ..	7,970	13,746	·367
Kumbakónam	4,195	7,770	·155
Madura	7,466	12,191	·165
Dindigul	2,698	5,660	·399

by lowering prices unduly. When the abkári arrangements for the next year come to be settled, it will be a question for consideration whether the still-head duty on spirit issued for consumption in these towns should not be considerably enhanced with a view to compel the shop-keepers to sell their liquor during all portions of the year at rates which are not unduly low.

23. The number of shops for the sale of liquors licensed in 1887-88 compares with the number in 1875-76 as follows:—Country spirits 22,549 against 20,062; toddy 20,140 against 19,671; foreign liquors 931 against 965. The number of licenses to sell arrack in the Malabar district was 4,422 in 1887-88 against 1,119 in 1875-76, and licenses to sell toddy were 4,152 against 1,262. If the figures for Malabar are excluded, it will be seen that the number of arrack shops in the remaining districts show a decrease of 425 and toddy shops show a decrease of 2,812. The peculiar circumstances of Malabar render the maintenance of a large number of shops necessary. The people are not congregated in villages, but have their homesteads in the midst of their farms and palm groves. Palm trees are most abundant, and the distillation of toddy spirit, which is both easy and

Since 1883-84 it will be seen that the revenue has increased by 37·31 lakhs or 64 per cent.

25. The facts stated above will, I believe, place it beyond doubt that the abkâri administration of this Presidency has for several years past been conducted on sound principles. The revenue has doubtless increased considerably, but it has been obtained by pushing up taxation and reducing consumption and not by pushing up consumption. The ascertainment of the limit, to which the taxation in the several parts of the Presidency can be carried, is a tentative process and it would be rash to assert that in no instance was a mistake committed. On the whole, however, there is no reason to think that consumption is now higher than it was 15 years ago, and there is distinct evidence to show that in most parts of the Presidency it is very much less. The assertion, which one sometimes hears to the contrary, is not the result of a proper investigation of the conditions of the past or study of comparative statistics, but of a newly awakened consciousness to the evils of drinking in the abstract. It has been truly remarked: "Those who have lately become conscious of certain facts are apt to suppose that they have lately risen. After a changed state of mind has made us observant of occurrences we were before indifferent to, there often results the belief that such occurrences are more common than they were." I believe that most of the difficulties connected with abkâri administration have now been surmounted and that very little remains to be done beyond persevering in the policy hitherto pursued. The excise system and the tree-tax system must of course be introduced into the remaining portions of the Presidency as quickly as circumstances will permit, and when this has been done, and the shops licensed have been reduced to the smallest number possible, consistently with the requirements of the population to be served, and the duty is enhanced from time to time in places where the consumption shows a tendency to increase, the Government will have done in the way of reducing consumption all that it is possible for it to do. The consumption of liquor by the laboring classes fluctuates with the state of the agricultural season from year to year and in prosperous times shows a tendency to increase. This tendency can be checked only by the diffusion of elementary education among the lower classes. This being so, it is a question for consideration whether a fixed percentage of the increase of revenue (nearly 38 lakhs within the last 5 years) contributed chiefly by the working classes should not be set apart for advancing elementary education. The Government of India now take 75 per cent. of the revenue derived from excise.

26. There are three classes of persons who condemn the abkâri arrangements in this Presidency. The first comprises philanthropists who, being impressed with the evils which the spread of drunkenness has wrought in England, feel anxious lest a similar state of things should be brought about by Government arrangements in India, more especially as religious prejudices among large classes of the population, which formerly told in favour of sobriety, are gradually wearing away. Their fears, so far as this Presidency is concerned, are not well-founded, and if they knew the facts they would doubtless be ready to admit that Government is working in the same direction as

themselves. The second class of persons are the distillers and big monopolists who have had their enormous profits reduced by the new arrangements. Their dislike to the new order of things is, of course, very natural. The third class are the toddy-drawers and professional distillers who find their hereditary occupation going out of their hands and who have to seek new means of livelihood. They undoubtedly suffer hardship, but it is temporary, and their interests are opposed to those of the general public.

Postscript.

The above note was written in November 1889 or two years ago. I will briefly state below what improvements have since been effected in the abkari administration :—

(1) Excluding the agency tracts, the "excise system" (*vide* para. 14) is in force in about 110,000 square miles out of the 120,000 square miles comprised within the Presidency.

(2) The tree-tax system (*vide* para. 21) has been further extended and it is in force in 28,000 square miles of country.

(3) The average rate of duty per gallon of country spirits, proof strength, which was Rs. 2-13-7 in 1875-76 was Rs. 3-15-9 in 1888-89, Rs. 4-2-1 in 1889-90 and Rs. 4-6-1 in 1890-91.

(4) The consumption of country spirits has fallen considerably during recent years and as compared with 1875-76 the consumption in 1890-91 was only 5 per cent. more notwithstanding an increase of more than 10 per cent. in the population.

Millions of proof gallons.

1875-76	1.27
1888-89	1.38
1889-90	1.43
1890-91	1.33

(5) The number of shops both in the towns and in the rural tracts has been enormously reduced.

—		1875-76.	1888-89.	1889-90.	1890-91.
Country spirit shops	{ 49 towns		..	899	524
	{ Rest of the Presidency.		...	14,026	12,230
Total .		20,062	17,532	14,925	12,754
Toddy shops	19,761	26,180	21,684	19,415
Grand Total .		39,823	43,712	36,609	32,169

(6) The taxation per head of the population of duty on country spirits and on toddy has increased as shown below :—

Per head of population.

	1875-76	1888-89	1889-90.	1890-91.
	RS. A P	RS. A P	RS. A. P	RS. A. P
Country spirits	0 1 10	0 2 2	0 2 6	0 2 7
Toddy	0 1 1	0 1 10	0 2 0	0 2 4

(7) The revenue derived from country spirits and toddy has increased.

	In lakhs of rupees			
	Country spirits	Toddy	Country spirits and toddy combined	Total.
1888-89	46	40	8	94
1889-90	54	44	5	103
1890-91	57	51	1	109

(8) The consumption of imported liquors, excluding liquors manufactured in the country on the European method, in 1890-91 compares with that in 1875-76 as shown below :—

	In thousands of gallons	
	1875-76	1890-91.
Imported spirits	208	208
Wines	102	61
Malt liquor	196	540
Country brewed beer	80	879
Total	586	1,188

The above table shows that the consumption of spirits and wines has decreased, while that of malt liquors has considerably increased. Regarding the causes of the increase Mr. O'Connor in his trade review for 1889-90, says : " Various causes in combination may be assigned

for this remarkable augmentation. The character of the beer has changed and many are able to drink the lighter qualities now imported who were unable to drink the heavier beers of former years. There has been a great increase in the classes of European population accustomed to drink beer habitually,—artizans, workers in mills and factories, men employed on railways and in land and coasting steamers and so forth. There has also been created a taste for beer among the Madras coolies who work for high wages in Burmah and return annually to Madras with their earnings. The strength of the British army has been largely augmented and the prices of beer have materially fallen. But it is hardly likely that these causes alone can have brought about such a sudden development in consumption, and the most effectual cause may perhaps be sought in competition. The English brewers keenly felt the competition of the German and Austrian brewers, and actively sought to retain a market which seemed to be undermined from without by continental and from within by Indian beer.” The total population of the Presidency has increased by 14 per cent. since 1871 and the European and Eurasian population by 11·4 per cent.

(9) On the whole, there has been great decrease in consumption by the introduction of the “excise system,” and the assertion that drunkenness is spreading is entirely without foundation so far as this Presidency is concerned.

(h) 1-- Statement showing the Number of Offences reported in 1850 and 1890 in the Madras Presidency.

	1850	1890
1. Offences against person—		
(a) Affecting life	352	799
(b) Hurt	437	14,079
(c) Rape	75	82
(d) Assault	167,063	32,725
(e) Other offences		2,629
Total	167,927	50,314
2. Offences against property—		
(a) Robbery and dacoity	1,314	899
(b) Theft	14,715	19,424
(c) Other offences	6,541	23,948
Total	22,570	44,271
3. Other offences	7,263	19,447
4. Offences against special and local laws		121,181
Grand Total	197,760	235,213

(h) 2—Statement showing the Number of Cases instituted before Criminal Courts in the Madras Presidency.

	1850.	1890.
Number of cases filed before the Village Police .	12,678	11,529
Number of cases filed before the District Police (answering to the present 2nd and 3rd Class Magistrates)	171,584	169,490
Number of cases filed before the Magistracy (the present 1st-class Magistrates) ...	10,154	41,730
Number of cases committed to the Sessions Courts	914	1,040
Number of cases committed to the High Court	115	51
Total	195,445	223,840

NOTE.—Out of 41,730 cases filed before 1st-class Magistrates in 1890, 35,606 were before the Presidency Magistrates

(h) 3—Statement showing the Number of Civil Suits instituted in the Presidency of Madras in 1850 and 1889.

	1850	1889.
1. Village Panchayats	14	.
2. Village Munsiffs	11,107	53,793
3. District Panchayats	8	
4. District Munsiffs	52,708	151,498
5. Revenue Courts		6,656
6. Cantonment Court of Small Causes		354
7. Agency Courts		912
8. Sudder Ameens	12,691	...
9. Subordinate Judges	4,816	14,017
10. District Judges	48	641
11. Presidency Court of Small Causes .. .		26,824
12. High Court		371
Total	* 81,392	255,006
Number of suits for lands, houses and other fixed property	6,347	44,242
Number of suits for arrears of rent or revenue	1,239	6,656
Number of suits for money, allowances and personalities.	70,841	204,108
Total	78,427	255,006
Total value of suits, Rs.	54,82,053	3,74,59,396
Average value, Rs.	70	146

* Includes suits "referred," for which particulars are not available.

(i)—Statement showing the incidence of taxation in the Madras Presidency.

Heads of revenue.	Gross revenue in lakhs of rupees.			Incidence per head of the population.		
	1852-53	1872-73	1889-90.	1852-53.	1872-73.	1889-90.
				RS. A P.	RS. A P.	RS. A. P.
Land revenue, including receipts from Forests and Tobacco monopoly	375.1	475.3	519	1 8 0	1 8 3	1 7 3
Provincial rates, including Municipal taxation		75.1	107.9		0 3 10	0 4 10
Salt	50.4	129.5	175.7	0 3 3	0 6 6	0 7 11
Excise (including Abkari and Opium)	24.2	61.7	114	0 1 6	0 3 4	0 5 4
Customs	12.1	39.4	18.1	0 0 9	0 2 1	0 0 9
Assessed taxes (Moturpha)	11.8	7.3	18.3	0 0 9	0 0 4	0 0 9
Stamps	4.8	42.6	65	0 0 3	0 2 2	0 3 0
Registration		3.3	10.3		0 0 2	0 0 5
Total	478.4	833.2	1,028.3	1 14 6	2 10 8	2 14 3

NOTE (1) —The incidence for 1852-53 has been arrived at by assuming the then population of the Presidency to have been 25,000,000.

(j)—Statement showing the Expenditure of the Madras Presidency in 1889-90 as compared with that in 1849-50. 000 omitted.

Items	1849-50	Items	1889-90
	RS		RS.
1. Land Revenue, Sayer, Abkari and Tobacco—		1. Land Revenue and Abkari—	
(a) Salaries and allowances to the Members of the Board of Revenue, officers of account, &c ...	237	(a) Salaries and allowances to the Members of the Board of Revenue and Civil Officers of Account and Audit	404
(b) Charges of collecting the revenues, &c.	4,110	(b) Charges of collecting the revenue, &c ..	4,217
(c) Purchase and charges of tobacco	265	(c) Revenue Survey and Settlement ..	930
(d) Tanjore sinking funds and interest on Tanjore bonds ..	493	(d) Land Records and Agriculture	56
(e) Allowances and assignments payable out of the revenues in accordance with treaties or other engagements	5,112	(e) Inam Commission	14
Total	10,217	(f) Allowances to District and Village Officers	3,660
		(g) Assignments and compensations ..	1,240
2. Customs	215	(h) Territorial and political pensions	918
		Total	11,439
		2. Customs	212

NOTE.—The figures for 1849-50 have been taken from Appendix 1 to the report from the Select Committee on Indian territories in 1852. The figures for 1889-90 are taken from the Financial and Revenue Accounts for that year

(j)—Statement showing the Expenditure of the Madras Presidency in 1889-90 as compared with that in 1849-50. 000 omitted—cont.

Items.	1849-50	Items.	1889-90.
	RS.		RS.
3. Salt—		3. Salt—	
(a) Purchase of salt	234	(a) Salt purchase and freight	168
(b) Purchase of salt manufacturer's share	333	(b) Purchase of salt manufacturer's share	115
(c) Establishment and contingencies ...	233	(c) Establishment, contingencies, &c	1,324
(d) Compensation ...	13		
Total ...	813	Total	1,607
4. Assessed taxes	.	4. Assessed taxes	31
5. Forest	.	5 Forest	1,162
6. Stamps	50	6 Stamps	248
7. Registration	..	7 Registration	661
8. Mints	100	8 Mints	.
9. Interest on loans and deposits including the Tanjore Redemption Fund	533	9. Interest	80
10. Post Office	434	10. Post Office	1,395
11. General administration	887	11. General administration, including charges on account of Local Funds and Municipal establishments.	1,356
12. Residents and Political Agents ...	141	12. Political Agents	83
13. Ecclesiastical establishments	292	13. Ecclesiastical establishments	347
14. Education	113	14. Education, including Local Funds and Municipal expenditure	2,290
15. Courts of Law	2,361	15. Courts of Law	4,128
16. Police	977	16. Police (public safety)	3,987
17. Jails	.	17. Jails	800
18. Medical (hospitals, &c)	124	18. Medical	3,337
19. Scientific and minor departments ...	30	19. Scientific and minor departments	350
20. Pensions, donations to charitable institutions, &c.	1,175	20. Pensions, donations to charitable institutions, &c.	1,350
21. Marine charges	123	21. Marine charges	83
22. Miscellaneous	220	22. Miscellaneous	2,480
23. Military charges including buildings	25,247	23. Military charges including buildings	34,750
24. Public Works—		24. Public Works—	
(a) Repairs to tanks, &c.	970	(a) Railways, working expenses and capital expenditure	5,021
(b) Buildings, roads, &c.	719	(b) Buildings and roads	5,813
		(c) Irrigation including capital outlay	4,574
		(d) Establishments, &c.	2,689
Total ...	1,689	Total	18,097
Grand Total ..	45,741	Grand Total ...	90,273

NOTE.—The figures for 1849-50 have been taken from Appendix 1 to the report from the Select Committee on Indian territories in 1852. The figures for 1889-90 are taken from the Finance and Revenue Accounts for that year.

(F.)—*Statistics relating to the improvement or the reverse in the standard of living of the different classes of the population.*

(a)—*Comparative table showing the number of persons (males) engaged in the several occupations in 1871 and 1881 in the Madras Presidency (extracted from the Report on the Census of 1881)*

	Male population, 1871	Male population exclusive of Pudukota, 1881
1. Persons engaged in the general and local government of the country ..	126,104	193,450
2. Do. in defence of the country . . .	34,319	22,882
3. Do. in learned professions, literature, art and science, with their immediate subordinates	154,848	185,070
4. Do. in entertaining or performing personal offices to man	36,277	104,639
5. Persons who buy, sell, keep or lend houses or goods of various kinds including bankers, money-lenders and money changers	425,116	176,544
6. Persons engaged in the conveyance of men, animals, goods and messages	63,376	163,342
7. Persons possessing or working the land or engaged in producing grain, fruit, grasses, animals or other products .	5,211,178	6,453,839
8. Persons engaged about animals . . .	38,042	106,380
9. Do. in art and mechanical productions.	89,585	150,337
10. Do. in working and dealing in the textile fabrics and dress . . .	755,676	720,404
11. Do. in food and drinks . . .	223,520	391,048
12. Do. in animal substances . . .	5,253	63,281
13. Do. in vegetables	56,906	153,617
14. Do. in minerals	238,001	416,934
15. Laborers and others (branch of labor undefined)	2,295,917	510,585

NOTE.—The classification of occupations in the Census of 1881 was different from that adopted in 1871. In framing the above table, attempt has been made to re-classify the population of 1871 on the principles adopted in 1881. The results cannot, however, be fully relied on

2. The very considerable increase in the number of persons engaged in "Personal service," item 4, will be noted. In regard to this, the Census report says: "Increased contact with western ways, the incidents of railway travelling, competition in business, have all led to the greater development of personal services as a group of industries. The words 'hotel' and 'club' have grown into the native language and the things they mean have come into existence within the last few years. For the well-to-do traveller, the choultry of tradition has, with its gratuitous shelter (and sometimes gratuitous entertainment), given place in every town to the private hotel, where the traveller is entertained for payment; while the Brahmin traveller, who formerly crept up the coast ten miles a day and cooked his rice at the chattram, now readily embarks in a steamer and shares with his paid fellow-clerk (*sic*) the services of a travelling cook of his own caste." The number of persons engaged in "Personal service" is, however, still only 1 in 139

in the Madras Presidency, while it is 1 in 14 in England, and this to some extent affords an indication of the number of wealthy persons needing personal services in the two countries.

3. The great decrease observable in the mercantile men and general dealers, item 5, is attributed to erroneous classification. The figures for 1881 include—mercantile men 78,268, and other general dealers 107,902. The first head comprises 46,041 merchants, 21,544 money-lenders and money-changers and 3,707 brokers. The number of merchants is absurdly overstated, as there are only 16,000 merchants in England, the most commercial country in the world.

4. The increase in the number of persons engaged in connection with land, item 7, is merely nominal, as the figures of 1881 evidently include agricultural laborers shown under the head "Laborers and others (branch of labor undefined)" in the Census of 1871.

5. The decrease in the number of "Persons working and dealing in textile fabrics and dress," item 10, is the result of the declining condition of the weaving industry owing to the competition of the Manchester cotton goods and also, latterly, to some extent of the machine-made goods from Bombay. The imports of cotton twist, which amounted to 4 millions of pounds in 1855-56, increased to 13 millions in 1870-71 and they are now (1887-88) 21½ millions. The imports of piece-goods increased from 825,406 pieces and 311,815 yards in 1855-56 to 94,600,201 yards and 11,469½ dozens in 1870-71 and to 139,360,368 yards and 1,150,450 pieces in 1887-88. While the weaving trade is a poor industry, it affords employment to a large number of persons, probably half a million males as the women and children of weavers' families all work in the looms. That this is not a profitable industry may be inferred from the fact that among the weaving castes only 3 in every 1,000 of the males are returned as subsisting by "property." In 1871, the Board of Revenue instituted inquiries into the state of the weaving industry in this Presidency and the results are given in their Proceedings, dated 28th June 1871, No. 2605. The conclusion then arrived at was that the weaving industry was in a fairly healthy condition. The number of looms at work (279,220) showed an increase of nearly 42 per cent. as compared with the number of looms at work between 1856-57 and 1860-61 and on which the moturpha tax was levied, but the returns for the earlier period were imperfect and not to be relied on. The Board estimated the real increase at between 20 and 25 per cent. and attributed this result mainly to the abolition of the vexatious and inquisitorial moturpha tax. The total quantity of twist worked up into cloth was taken at 31½ million pounds, of which 11½ millions, or 36½ per cent., was imported and the rest country-made.

Another inquiry was instituted in 1889 by the Board of Revenue on a reference from the Government of India calling for "fairly accurate statistics of the area and probable outturn of cotton" in the Madras Presidency, and the results are embodied in the Proceedings of the Board of Revenue, No. 39, dated 12th February 1890, Revenue Settlement, Land Records and Agriculture. The average area under the cotton crop was ascertained to be 1½ million acres, and the probable annual outturn was fixed at 87½ million pounds, or at 50 pounds of

clean cotton per acre with reference to the quantity of cotton clothing required per head of the population and having regard also to the exports and imports of cotton and cotton cloth manufactured. The quantity of cotton used locally was estimated at 28½ million pounds, 13½ millions being used by the spinning and weaving mills at work in the Presidency and the remainder being used by the poorer classes for spinning into the thread used for making coarser cloths used by the rural population. The number of hand looms at work in the Presidency was estimated at 300,000, and the quantity of twist worked up into cloth at 34½ millions of pounds, of which 19 millions, or 55 per cent., were imported, 1 million mill-spun and the remaining 14½ millions hand spun in the country.

6. In the number of persons engaged in the other occupations specified in the statement, it will be seen that there has been a very large increase ; that in items 6, 12 and 14 may be particularly noticed. The increased facilities of communication between different parts of the country have led to a great increase in the number of carts and other conveyances, and railways, here as elsewhere, have not in any way reduced their number, but on the other hand have since increased it. Under item 12, the fish-curing industry is gaining in importance since 1881 on account of new facilities granted for the use of duty-free salt in fish-curing operations. The large increase in the imports of metals (valued at 11 lakhs of rupees in 1855-56, 40 lakhs in 1870-71, and 54 lakhs in 1887-88) and the great reduction in the cost of the articles has led to an extension of the demand for them and the prosperity of the metal industry. Among the persons included under item 14, 76,469 were gold and silver smiths, or 1 male goldsmith for every 408 of the total population, while in England there is only 1 goldsmith for every 1,200 inhabitants.

(b)—Statement showing the varieties of Tenure held direct from Government during the official year 1889-90 in the Madras Presidency.

Nature of tenure.	Number of estates.	Number of villages	Number of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	Average area of each estate	Average assessment of each estate.	
	NO	NO.	NO.	ACRES.	ACRES	RS.	
1. Great Zemindaries paying more than Rs. 50,000 revenue to Government.	Held by individuals under law of primogeniture.	14	9,183	14	6,783,549	484,539	1,96,906
	Held by individuals and families under ordinary law.	1	269	1	116,102	116,102	59,928
2. Large Zemindaries paying from Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 5,000 revenue to Government.	Under law of primogeniture.	50	9,837	51	8,230,030	165,601	14,363
	Under ordinary law.	78	1,475	124	1,088,943	13,961	20,511
3. Zemindaries paying from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 100 revenue.	612	3,162	929	2,506,258	4,095	1,482	
4. Small Zemindaries other than those of cultivating communities paying less than Rs. 100.	94	429	116	275,047	2,926	54	
5. Peasant proprietors paying separately *	2,848,710	26,728	4,615,740	21,133,179	7	14	
6. Holders of wholly or partially revenue free tenures.	{ In perpetuity ..	433,298	28,247	778,197	8,135,537	19	11
	{ For life or lives .	5,361	1,121	8,949	102,237	19	8
7. Landholders who have redeemed the revenue	550	181	651	4,767	9	‡	
8. Purchasers of waste lands	464	138	495	27,436	59	82	
Total ...	3,289,232	80,770	5,405,267	48,453,085	15	16	

* For details see statement.

Classes of puttahs.	Number of single puttahs.	Joint puttahs		Total number of puttahs.	Total assessment	Average assessment for each puttah
		Number	Number of ryots holding them.			
Ryots paying under Rs. 10 to Government	1,419,869	450,825	1,308,939	1,870,694	71,86,747	3 13 6
Do. between Rs. 10 & 30	443,678	227,712	810,068	671,390	1,12,90,515	16 11 5
Do do. Rs. 30 & 50	109,322	53,898	288,033	163,220	60,98,921	37 5 10
Do do. Rs. 50 & 100	68,397	32,630	143,152	101,027	67,49,731	66 12 11
Do do. Rs. 100 & 250	26,998	11,889	49,278	38,887	55,73,105	143 5 1
Do do. Rs. 250 & 500	4,701	2,011	9,403	6,712	21,74,052	323 14 6
Do do. Rs. 500 & 1,000	1,292	440	2,877	1,732	11,18,110	645 8 11
Do do. Rs. 1,000 and upwards	318	107	956	425	6,55,304	1,541 14 3
Total ...	2,074,575	779,512	2,612,706	2,854,087	4,08,46,485	14 4 11

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(c)—Statement showing the number of transfers of Revenue estates during the year 1889-90.

Nature of Estate.	Number of transfers			Total area in acres transferred		
	By order of Court.	By sale for arrears of revenue.	By private contract or gift	By order of Court.	By sale for arrears of revenue	By private contract or gift.
Zemindaris or permanently-settled estates	4	2	32	36,571	2,675	54,908
Ryotwar holdings	971	5,140	107,424	7,409	13,070	356,374
Inam tenures	208	194	5,200	1,334	1,416	43,765
Total	1,183	5,336	112,656	45,314	17,161	455,047

(d)—Statement showing the classification of the incomes on which the

Classified items.	Incomes from Rs. 500 to Rs 2,000 per annum						Incomes of Rs.	
	Districts		Presidency Town		Total		District	
	Number of assesses	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses	Amount of assessment	Number of assesses	Amount of assessment
PART I.								
(a) Salaries, &c, paid by Government	3,971	Rs 57,645	1,208	Rs 15,665	5,179	Rs 73,310	1,295	Rs 1,31,778
(b) Do by local authorities.	1,141	10,655	177	2,996	1,318	13,651	61	4,315
(c) Do by Companies, &c.	2,645	33,793	1,010	16,393	3,655	50,186	533	39,573
Total, Part I	7,757	1,02,093	2,395	35,054	10,152	1,37,147	1,889	1,75,666
PART II								
(a) Banking Companies	41	781	41	1,104	82	1,885	21	2,609
(b) All other Companies	4	102	6	181	10	283	18	14,259
Total, Part II	45	883	47	1,285	92	2,168	39	16,868
PART III.								
(a) Interest on securities of the Government of India		99		861	...	960		11,962
(b) Do on all other securities.							..	265
Total, Part III		99		861	..	960	...	12,227
PART IV								
<i>(a) Professions—</i>								
(1) Fine Arts	33	591	3	50	36	641		
(2) Barristers, pleaders, and other legal practitioners.	1,020	18,686	14	401	1,034	19,087	220	24,607
(3) Medicine ...	18	307	7	179	25	486	1	191
(4) Other professions ..	237	3,537	23	544	260	4,081	27	4,188
Total (a)	1,308	23,121	47	1,174	1,355	24,295	248	28,986
<i>(b) Commerce—</i>								
(1) Agents, brokers, bankers, and contractors.	974	18,172	58	1,939	1,032	20,111	229	30,765
(2) General merchants	3,152	46,213		62	3,152	46,275	235	35,819
(3) Piece-goods merchants	1,659	26,076	68	1,320	1,727	27,396	91	8,250
(4) Grain merchants	3,280	48,623	7	132	3,287	48,755	137	14,263
(5) Indigo merchants	439	6,096	3	90	442	6,186	15	1,147
(6) Salt merchants	125	1,909			125	1,909	19	4,753
(7) Money lending and changing.	13,329	2,01,487	56	1,555	13,385	2,03,042	1,210	1,46,761
(8) Other merchants	719	10,081	...	225	719	10,306	65	9,451
Total (b)	23,677	3,58,657	192	5,323	23,869	3,63,980	2,001	2,51,209
<i>(c) Transport, &c.—</i>								
(1) Cart and carriage builders and owners and livery stable-keepers.	107	1,374	23	520	130	1,894	4	950
(2) Ship or boat owners	139	2,046	6	192	145	2,238	42	6,290
(3) Hotel and inn-keepers and others	59	905	4	126	63	1,031	10	917
Total (c)	305	4,325	33	838	338	5,163	56	8,157

Income-tax was collected in the Madras Presidency during the year 1890-91.

2,000 and upwards per annum.				Total.					
Presidency Town.		Total.		Districts.		Presidency Town.		Total.	
Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.
682	Rs. 78,975	1,977	2,10,753	5,266	1,89,423	1,890	94,640	7,156	2,84,063
22	2,849	83	7,164	1,202	14,970	199	5,867	1,401	20,837
323	33,340	856	72,913	3,178	73,366	1,333	40,733	4,511	1,23,099
1,027	1,15,164	2,916	2,90,830	9,646	2,77,759	3,422	1,50,240	13,068	4,27,999
21	24,643	42	27,252	62	3,390	62	25,747	124	29,137
9	6,933	27	21,192	22	14,361	15	7,114	37	21,475
30	31,576	69	48,444	84	17,751	77	32,861	161	50,612
...	54,134	.	66,096		12,061		54,995		67,056
..	3,116	.	3,381		265		3,116	.	3,381
..	57,250		69,477		12,326		68,111		70,437
47	65 15,435	...	65 40,042	33 1,240	591 43,293	3 61	115 15,836	36 1,301	706 69,129
7	1,488	8	1,679	19	498	14	1,667	33	2,165
5	1,410	32	5,598	264	7,725	28	1,954	292	9,679
59	18,398	307	47,384	1,556	52,107	106	19,572	1,662	71,679
51	24,647	280	55,412	1,203	48,937	109	26,586	1,312	75,523
14	22,762	249	58,581	3,387	82,032	14	22,824	3,401	1,04,856
29	11,950	120	20,200	1,750	34,326	97	13,270	1,847	47,596
	197	137	14,460	3,417	62,886	7	329	3,424	63,215
4	866	19	2,013	454	7,243	7	956	461	8,199
2	251	21	5,004	144	6,662	2	251	146	6,913
26	8,893	1,236	1,55,654	14,539	3,48,248	82	10,448	14,621	3,58,696
...	57	65	9,508	784	19,532	...	282	784	19,814
126	69,623	2,127	3,20,832	25,678	6,09,866	318	74,946	25,996	6,81,812
2	1,288	6	2,238	111	2,324	25	1,808	136	4,132
1	234	43	6,524	181	8,336	7	426	188	8,762
3	771	13	1,688	69	1,822	7	897	76	2,719
6	2,293	62	10,450	361	12,482	39	3,131	400	15,613

Statement showing the classification of the incomes on which the Income-tax

Classified items.	Incomes from Rs. 500 to Rs. 2,000 per annum.						Incomes of Rs.	
	Districts.		Presidency Town.		Total.		Districts.	
	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.
(d) Trade—								
(1) Dealers in agricultural produce.	1,816	Rs. 24,943	78	Rs. 1,710	1,894	Rs. 26,653	41	Rs. 10,605
(2) Dealers in animals, animal and vegetable substances, not food, food and salt.	1,328	18,010	34	1,061	1,362	19,071	32	3,323
(3) Dealers in precious stones, &c	273	4,101	7	287	280	4,388	11	1,108
(4) Dealers in spirits and opium	314	4,780	7	2,421	321	7,201	19	1,693
(5) Dealers in dress, &c. .	954	13,905	3	1,192	957	15,097	45	3,759
(6) Dealers in other articles.	3,931	54,765	232	6,479	4,163	61,244	133	15,128
Total (d)	8,616	1,20,504	361	13,150	8,977	1,33,654	281	35,616
(e) Manufacture—								
(1) Manufacture of cotton, silk and woollen goods.	1,199	15,986	1,199	15,986	38	4,039
(2) Builders and artisans ..	50	588	5	251	55	839
(3) Manufacture of salt .	168	3,007	168	3,007	32	3,351
(4) Manufacture of spirits, &c.	1	15	1	15	1	417
(5) Manufacture of metals, &c.	328	4,716	9	193	337	4,909	29	3,304
Total (e) ..	1,746	24,312	14	444	1,760	24,756	100	11,111
(f) Property—								
(1) House proprietors ...	361	6,579	195	4,854	556	...	63	7,150
(2) Newspaper proprietors.	3	75	...	42	3	11,433
(3) Printing press proprietors.	21	361	9	177	30	117
(4) Taxable Estate holders	7	126	.	.	7	538	17	3,396
Total (f)	392	7,141	204	5,073	596	12,214	80	10,546
Total, Part IV .	36,044	5,38,060	851	26,002	36,895	5,64,062	2,766	3,45,625
Grand Total, Parts I, II, III, } & IV. }	43,846	6,41,135	3,293	63,202	47,139	7,04,337	4,694	5,50,886

* Inclusive of Rs 22 relating to the tax on salaries paid by local

REMARKS.—

Number of persons assessed to income-tax in 1890-91	64,809
Total taxable income	Rs. 6,51,21,760
Average income assessed per head	Rs. 1,145
Average assessment per head	Rs. 28-10-6
Number of ryots paying assessment of Rs. 250 and upwards	8,869
Total assessment	Rs. 39,47,466

was collected in the Madras Presidency during the year 1890-91—cont.

2,000 and upwards per annum.				Total.					
Presidency Town.		Total.		Districts.		Presidency Town.		Total.	
Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.	Number of assesses.	Amount of assessment.
2	Rs. 208	43	Rs. 10,813	1,857	Rs. 35,548	80	Rs. 1,918	1,937	Rs. 37,466
16	4,121	48	7,444	1,360	21,333	50	5,182	1,410	26,515
2	4,659	18	5,767	284	5,209	9	4,946	293	10,155
3	4,628	22	6,321	333	6,473	10	7,049	343	13,522
1	890	46	4,649	999	17,664	4	2,082	1,003	19,746
35	6,194	168	21,323	4,064	69,893	267	12,673	4,331	82,566
59	20,700	340	56,316	8,897	1,56,120	420	33,850	9,317	1,89,970
...	...	88	4,089	1,237	20,025	1,237	20,025
1	117	1	117	50	588	6	368	56	956
...	...	82	3,351	200	6,358	200	6,358
1	1,792	2	2,209	2	432	1	1,792	3	2,224
..	130	29	3,434	357	8,020	9	323	366	8,343
3	3,039	102	13,150	1,846	35,423	16	2,483	1,862	37,906
54	8,729	117	15,879	424	13,729	249	13,583	673	27,312
4	1,468	4	1,468	3	75	4	1,510	7	1,585
2	221	3	221	21	361	11	398	32	759
...	.	17	3,396	24	3,522	24	3,522
60	10,418	140	20,964	473	17,687	264	15,491	736	33,178
313	1,23,471	3,078	4,69,096	38,810	8,83,685	1,163	1,49,473	39,973	10,33,158
1,369	3,27,461	6,063	8,77,847	48,540	11,91,521	4,663	3,90,685	53,202	15,82,206

authorities for which classwar particulars are not available.

Average assessment per ryot	Rs. 445
Number of ryots paying assessments of Rs. 500 and upwards	2,157
Total assessment	Rs. 17,73,414
Average assessment per ryot	Rs. 823
Number of income-tax payers per 100,000 of the population	165
Number of ryots paying Rs. 250 and upwards per 100,000	26
Number of ryots paying 500 and upwards per 100,000	6

(e)—Statement showing the amount of Government stock (public debt) held by Europeans and Natives, respectively, in 1834, 1850 and 1888, throughout India.

	Europeans.	Natives.	Total.
	Rx.	Rx.	Rx.
1834	20,439,870	7,223,360	27,665,230
1850	21,981,447	12,271,140	34,252,587
1888	70,895,690	24,065,239	94,960,829

NOTE.—(a) The amounts entered for 1888 do not include the special loans from the Gwalior Durbar, &c.

(b) The amount of stock actually presented for payment of interest was Rx 54,582,992, Rx. 36,657,560 by Europeans, and Rx. 17,925,432 by Natives. The amount of enfaced notes held in London was Rx 21,682,105. The balance of principal not presented for interest, viz, Rx 18,695,732, was ratably distributed among Europeans and Natives in the proportion of the amounts presented by each for payment of interest.

(f)—Statement showing the transactions of the Presidency, District and Post Office Savings Banks in India.

Years.	Number of Deposits			Amount of Deposits including interest in thousands of rupees		
	Europeans.	Natives	Total.	Europeans.	Natives.	Total.
1857-58	RS. ..	RS. ..	RS. 3,898
1862-63	4,167
1867-68	12,565	16,310	28,875	3,165	3,607	6,772
1872-73	13,631	28,236	41,867	4,915	8,558	13,473
1877-78	17,208	48,378	65,586	5,113	12,172	17,285
1882-83	20,232	68,614	88,846	7,815	23,321	31,136
1889-90	53,416	343,790	397,206	11,562	57,393	68,955

NOTE.—District Savings and Post Office Savings Banks were established in 1871-72 and 1886-87 respectively.

(g)—Statement showing the Number and Value of Money Orders issued.

Year.	Number of Orders.		Value of Orders in thousands of rupees.	
	India.	Madras.	India.	Madras.
1867-68	120,107	9,794	RS. 6,816	RS. 528
1872-73	269,435	30,086	12,921	1,131
1877-78	259,680	36,192	9,847	1,333
1882-83	2,594,364	554,939	66,231	8,315
1889-90	6,750,000	847,852	1,46,500	17,212

(h)—Comparative statement of the rates of value of labour per diem in the several districts of the Madras Presidency for certain years compiled from schedules of rates in force in the Public Works Department.

Description of labour.	Per	Ganjam.	Vizagapatam.	Godavari.	Kistna.	Nellore.	Cuddapah.	Bellary.	Kurnool.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
<i>Skilled labour.</i>										
Brieklayers ;	Each	1859-60..	0 4 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 4 1	0 4 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 4 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 6 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 6 11 $\frac{1}{2}$
		1874 ..	0 5 4	0 6 0	0 7 0	0 8 0	0 7 6	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
		..	0 6 0	0 5 6	0 6 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 8 0
Recent years since 1883	0 7 0	0 5 6	0 7 0	0 6 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	
		0 8 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	
		0 8 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 6 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 12 0	
Carpenters	1859-60..	0 4 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 3 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 4 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 6 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 6 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
		1874 ..	0 6 0	0 5 6	0 7 0	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 8 0
		..	0 7 0	0 5 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 7 0	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 7 0
Recent years since 1883	0 7 0	0 5 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	
		0 8 0	0 5 6	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	
		0 8 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 6 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 12 0	
Smiths	..	1859-60..	0 4 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 4 3	0 5 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 5 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 6 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 6 5 $\frac{1}{2}$
		1874 ..	0 6 6	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 6 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 12 0
		..	0 5 4	0 5 6	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 7 0	0 8 0	0 12 0	0 10 0
Recent years since 1883	0 6 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 14 0	
		0 8 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	1 0 0	
		0 8 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 6 0	0 10 0	0 12 0	1 0 0	

(h)—Comparative statement of the rates of value of labour per diem in the several districts of the Madras Presidency, &c.—cont

Description of labour.	Per	Chingleput.	North Arcot	South Arcot.	Tanjore.	Trichinopoly.	Madura.	Tinnevelly.	Coimbatore.
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
<i>Skilled labour.</i>		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Bricklayers	1859-60 ..	Each 0 6 6 ² / ₁₀	0 6 6 ² / ₁₀	0 6 2 ⁷ / ₁₀	0 6 4 ² / ₃	0 5 11 ¹ / ₃	0 5 6 ² / ₇	0 5 0 ⁶ / ₁₃	0 6 8 ¹ / ₂
	1874 ..	{ 0 8 6 0 7 0	{ 0 9 0 0 7 6	{ 0 8 0 0 7 0	{ 0 9 0 0 6 0	{ 0 5 0 0 6 0 0 8 0 0 12 0	{ 0 12 0	.	{ 0 10 0 0 9 0
	Recent years since 1883 ..	{ 0 6 0 0 8 0	{ 0 6 0 0 10 0 0 8 0 0 12 0	{ 0 8 0 0 10 0 0 12 0	{ 0 8 0 0 8 0	{ 0 10 0 0 7 0	{ 0 8 0 0 10 0 0 7 0	{ 0 7 0 0 10 0	{ 0 8 0 0 12 0
Carpenters	1859-60 ..	0 7 3 ⁵ / ₁₀	0 7 2 ⁵ / ₁₀	0 5 11 ¹ / ₃	0 6 7 ² / ₃	0 5 11 ¹ / ₃	0 4 11 ¹ / ₃	0 4 1 ¹ / ₁₃	0 6 11 ¹ / ₂
	1874 ..	{ 0 7 0 0 8 0	{ 0 10 0 0 8 0	{ 0 10 0 0 9 0	{ 0 9 0 0 5 0	{ 0 6 0 0 8 0 0 12 0	{ 0 12 0	{ 0 8 0 0 10 0 0 12 0	{ 0 12 0 0 10 0
	Recent years since 1883 ..	{ 0 8 0 0 10 0	{ 0 7 0 0 10 0 0 8 0 0 12 0	{ 0 10 0 0 12 0 0 8 0	{ 0 8 0 0 10 0	{ 0 10 0 0 8 0 0 8 0	{ 0 6 0 0 10 0	{ 0 8 0 0 10 0 0 12 0	{ 0 6 0 0 12 0 0 12 0
Smiths	1859-60 ..	0 7 1 ⁵ / ₁₀	0 7 1 ⁵ / ₁₀	0 6 0 ¹ / ₃	0 6 7 ² / ₃	0 6 3 ¹ / ₃	0 4 10 ² / ₇	0 3 9 ² / ₁₁	0 5 10 ¹ / ₁₁
	1874 ..	{ 0 9 0 0 8 0	{ 0 11 0 0 8 0	{ 0 8 0 0 9 0	{ 0 6 0 0 8 0	{ 0 12 0 0 8 0 0 6 0	{ 0 12 0	{ 0 12 0 0 8 0	{ 0 10 0 0 8 0
	Recent years since 1883 ..	{ 0 8 0 0 12 0	{ 0 8 0 0 12 0	{ 0 11 0 0 12 0 0 8 0	{ 0 8 0 0 10 0	{ 0 10 0 0 12 0 0 8 0 0 6 0	{ 0 9 0 0 10 0	{ 0 7 0 0 12 0	{ 0 9 0 0 12 0

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(h)—Comparative statement of the rates of value of labour per diem in the several districts of the Madras Presidency, &c.—cont.

Description of labour.	Per	Salem.	North Canara.	South Canara.	Malabar.	Civil Architect (Madras).	Garrison Engineer.	Wellington (Nilgiris).	Bangalore.	
		20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
<i>Skilled labour.</i>										
		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	
Bricklayer	1859-60 ..	Each	0 6 11 ¹ / ₂	0 6 9 ¹ / ₂	0 7 0 ¹ / ₂	0 6 5 ¹ / ₂	0 7 1 ¹ / ₂	0 7 6	0 9 6	0 5 10 ¹ / ₂
	1874 ..	"	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 9 0 }	..	{ 0 14 0 } { 0 12 3 }	{ 0 12 0 } { 0 8 0 }	{ 0 7 0 } { 0 8 0 }	..	{ 0 10 6 } { 0 12 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 7 0 }
	Recent years since 1883 ..	"	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 12 0 }	..	{ 0 12 0 } { 0 14 0 }	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 13 0 }	{ 0 6 6 } { 0 7 0 }	..	{ 1 0 0 } { 0 15 0 } { 0 14 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 9 0 } { 0 7 0 }
Carpenters	1859-60 ..	"	0 6 8 ¹ / ₂	0 7 2 ¹ / ₂	0 7 0	0 6 3 ¹ / ₂	0 7 3	0 9 0	0 10 6	0 5 10 ¹ / ₂
	1874 ..	"	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 9 0 }	..	{ 0 14 9 } { 0 12 3 }	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 12 0 }	{ 0 7 6 } { 0 8 0 }	..	{ 0 10 6 } { 0 12 0 } { 0 14 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 7 0 }
	Recent years since 1883 ..	"	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 12 0 }	..	{ 0 12 0 } { 0 14 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 12 0 } { 0 10 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 12 0 }	..	{ 1 0 0 } { 0 14 0 } { 0 10 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 12 0 }
Smiths	1859-60 ..	"	0 6 4 ¹ / ₂	0 6 7 ¹ / ₂	0 6 6 ¹ / ₂	0 5 5 ¹ / ₂	0 6 9	..	0 11 0 ¹ / ₂	0 5 10 ¹ / ₂
	1874 ..	"	{ 0 9 0 } { 0 10 0 }	..	{ 0 12 0 } { 0 10 0 }	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 12 0 }	{ 0 7 6 } { 0 8 0 }	..	{ 0 10 6 } { 0 12 0 } { 0 14 0 } { 1 0 0 }	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 9 0 }
	Recent years since 1883 ..	"	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 12 0 }	..	{ 0 14 0 } { 0 12 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 10 0 }	{ 0 8 0 } { 0 12 0 }	..	{ 1 4 0 } { 1 0 0 }	{ 0 10 0 } { 0 12 0 }

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(h)—Comparative statement of the rates of value of labour per diem in the several districts of the Madras Presidency, &c.—cont.

Description of labour.	Per	Ganjam.	Vizagapatam.	Godavari.	Kistna.	Nellore.	Cuddapah.	Bellary.	Kurnool.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Unskilled labour</i>									
		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Adult coolies	Each	0 1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 2 0 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 2 0	0 1 10 $\frac{1}{3}$	0 2 0	0 1 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 2 0 $\frac{2}{3}$
	"	0 3 1	0 2 6
	"	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 3 0	0 3 6	{ 0 2 6	{ 0 2 6	0 4 0	0 2 8
	"	0 1 4	{ 0 2 0	{ 0 2 6	0 2 6	{ 0 2 6	{ 0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 3
	"	{ 0 1 8	{ 0 2 6	{ 0 5 0	0 3 0	{ 0 3 0	{ 0 2 9	to 0 4 0	0 3 0
	"	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0
Recent years since 1883	"	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 3 0	{ 0 3 0	{ 0 2 0	{ 0 4 0	0 3 0	0 3 0
	"	0 0 9	0 0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 3	0 3 6	to 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 3 0
Boys	"	0 0 9	0 0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 3	0 1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 2 $\frac{1}{3}$	0 1 2 $\frac{1}{6}$	0 1 0 $\frac{2}{3}$
	"	0 1 0	0 1 6	..
	"	{ 0 0 8	0 0 8	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 3
	"	{ 0 0 9	0 0 10	0 1 3	0 2 6	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 4
Recent years since 1883	"	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 6	{ 0 1 6	{ 0 1 3	{ 0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6
	"	0 0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 6	0 1 9	to 0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6
	"	0 0 11 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 6	0 1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Women	"	0 1 3	0 3 0	0 2 0	..
	"	{ 0 0 10	0 0 10	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 4	0 1 3	0 1 4	0 1 8
	"	{ 0 1 3	0 1 4	0 2 0	0 2 6	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 1 9
Recent years since 1883	"	0 1 6	0 1 0	0 1 6	{ 0 2 0	{ 0 1 3	{ 0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0
	"	0 1 6	0 1 0	0 1 6	0 3 0	to 0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0

(h)—Comparative statement of the rates of value of labour per diem in the several districts of the Madras Presidency, &c.—cont.

Description of labour.	Per	Chingleput.	North Arcot.	South Arcot.	Tanjore.	Trichinopoly	Madura	Tinnevely.	Coimbatore.
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
<i>Unskilled labour.</i>		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Adult coolies	Each	0 2 4½	0 2 4½	0 2 0	0 2 6	0 1 10	0 2 0	0 1 11½	0 2 11½
1859-60	0 4 1½
1869
1874	0 3 0	0 2 6	0 4 0	{ 0 3 6 0 4 0 }	{ 0 2 6 0 3 0 }	0 4 0	{ 0 2 0 0 4 0 }	0 4 0
1878	{ 0 2 2 0 2 6 }	{ 0 2 2 0 2 4 0 2 6 }	0 2 6 to 0 4 0	0 2 0 to 0 4 6	0 3 6 0 4 0	0 2 6 0 5 4	0 3 0 0 3 4	0 4 0 0 8 0
Recent years since 1883	0 3 0	{ 0 3 0 0 2 6 }	0 3 0 0 2 6	0 4 0 0 3 6	0 2 6 0 3 0	0 3 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Boys	0 1 2½	0 1 0½	0 1 6	0 1 4½	0 1 0½	0 1 0	0 1 0½	0 1 1½
1859-60
1874	{ 0 1 3 0 1 6 }	0 2 0	0 1 6	0 2 0	{ 0 1 0 0 2 0 }	0 1 6
1878	0 1 0	{ 0 1 1 0 1 2 0 1 3 }	..	{ 0 0 9 to 0 2 0 }	..	0 1 0 to 0 2 8	0 1 0 0 1 6	0 0 10 to 0 2 0
Recent years since 1883	{ 0 1 6 0 1 3 }	0 1 3	0 1 6	0 2 0	{ 0 1 0 0 1 6 }	0 1 3	0 2 0	0 1 6
Women	0 1 4½	0 1 3½	0 1 3	{ 0 1 0 0 1 5½ }	0 1 1	0 1 0	0 1 0½	0 1 1½
1859-60
1874	{ 0 1 6 0 2 0 }	0 1 6	..	{ 0 2 6 0 3 0 }	0 2 0	0 2 0	{ 0 2 0 0 3 0 }	0 2 0
1878	{ 0 1 8 0 2 0 }	0 1 8 0 2 0	..	{ 0 1 6 0 2 6 }	0 2 0	0 1 3 to 0 2 8	0 1 6 0 2 3	0 1 6 0 2 6
Recent years since 1883	0 2 0	{ 0 2 0 0 1 9 }	0 2 0 0 1 6	0 2 0	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 2 6	0 2 0

(h)—Comparative statement of the rates of value of labour per diem in the several districts of the Madras Presidency, &c.—cont.

Description of labour.	Per	Salem.	North Canara.	South Canara.	Malabar.	Civil Architect (Madras)	Garrison Engineer.	Wellington (Nilgiris).	Bangalore.	
	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	
<i>Unskilled labour.</i>										
		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	
Adult males	1859-60	Each 0 2 0 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 2 8 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 2 4 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 2 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 3 6	0 3 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 3 6	0 2 0	
	1869	0 3 4	0 4 6	
	1874	0 3 3	0 5 0	0 3 6	0 6 0	0 3 0	
	1878	{ 0 2 0 } { 0 3 6 }	{ 0 2 9 } { to 0 4 0 }	{ 0 4 0 } { to 0 8 0 }	{ 0 2 6 } { to 0 4 0 }	{ 0 5 0 } { 0 3 0 }	{ 0 3 0 }
	Recent years since 1883	0 3 0	0 4 0	{ 0 4 0 } { 0 3 0 }	0 3 0	{ 0 4 0 } { 0 5 0 }	0 4 0
Boys	1859-90	0 1 0 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 1 7 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 1 6	0 1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 2 0	0 2 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 2	
	1874	0 1 0	0 1 9	0 4 6	
	1878	{ 0 1 0 } { 0 1 6 }	{ 0 2 0 } { 0 3 0 }	0 1 6 { to 0 4 0 }	{ 0 1 9 } { 0 2 6 }	{ 0 2 0 } { 0 3 0 }
Recent years since 1883	0 1 3	{ 0 2 4 } { 0 2 6 }	{ 0 1 6 } { 0 2 0 }	0 2 0	{ 0 2 6 } { 0 3 0 }	0 2 0	
Women	1859-60.	0 1 0 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 1 7 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 1 4 $\frac{2}{3}$	0 1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 2 6	0 2 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 1 2	
	1874	0 1 4	0 2 0	0 3 0	
	1874	{ 0 1 2 } { 0 2 0 }	{ 0 2 0 } { 0 3 0 }	0 1 6 { 0 3 0 }	{ 0 1 6 } { 0 2 0 }	{ 0 3 0 } { 0 4 0 }	0 1 8
Recent years since 1883	0 1 6	{ 0 2 6 } { 0 2 8 }	{ 0 2 0 } { 0 2 6 }	0 2 6	{ 0 3 0 } { 0 3 6 }	0 2 0	

(i)—Statement showing the pressure of population on the land in the several districts of the Madras Presidency.

Districts.	Number of persons to a square mile according to the Census of 1891.	Average size of a ryotwar holding.	Average assessment of a ryotwar holding.	Proportion of dry and wet acreage to total ryotwar holdings.		Proportion of unoccupied waste to total ryotwar holdings.	Average rate of assessment per acre of occupied land.		Average rate of assessment per acre of unoccupied land.		Ratio of working population to total population.	Ratio of agricultural to working population.	Ratio of females to total agricultural and working population.
				Dry.	Wet.		Dry.	Wet.	Dry.	Wet.			
		ACRES.	RS.				RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.			
Ganjam ..	226	7.8	11.8	54	46	17	1 4 5	2 14 6	1 0 3	2 5 7	54	60	40
Visagapatam	164	12.6	29.0	68	32	7	0 15 11	5 5 3	1 10 10	4 14 10	49	65	42
Godávári ..	235	10.2	19.6	39	61	15	1 13 8	2 12 10	0 6 7	1 12 3	70	59	26
Kistnā ..	220	11.8	17.4	85	15	17	1 7 5	3 12 3	0 15 4	4 14 3	50	62	29
Nellore ..	166	9.2	18.5	76	24	29	1 3 8	4 7 10	0 9 9	4 4 9	53	63	33
Cuddapah ..	145	7.4	9.5	90	10	30	0 12 3	7 1 3	0 6 4	4 14 7	61	71	40
Anantapur ..	134	14.6	11.2	93	7	45	0 10 2	5 0 3	0 11 6	4 2 1	60	74	40
Bellary ..	151	15.1	13.1	97	3	39	0 10 2	5 0 3	0 7 0	3 9 5	59	69	40
Kurnool ..	169	11.6	12.6	97	3	30	0 15 4	6 7 1	0 8 10	4 15 8	54	59	33
Madras ..	15,515	34	7	21
Chingleput ..	400	7.0	18.0	38	52	19	1 8 7	3 13 0	0 14 5	2 11 2	50	61	25
North Arcot ..	286	3.6	9.5	66	34	29	1 6 4	5 12 5	1 0 9	4 14 4	52	69	33
South Arcot ..	414	3.8	9.4	77	23	41	1 11 5	5 5 10	1 9 1	4 5 3	49	78	31
Tanjore ..	600	6.6	25.1	25	75	8	1 4 0	4 15 2	1 0 1	2 8 4	48	64	32
Trichinopoly ..	379	6.2	8.3	84	16	20	0 15 6	4 6 9	1 0 10	3 4 6	53	73	36
Madura ..	271	5.5	9.6	83	17	23	1 5 1	4 4 2	0 15 8	3 6 0	59	71	45
Tinnevely ..	356	7.1	12.9	83	17	6	0 13 3	10 4 10	0 8 8	5 3 9	52	63	37
Coimbatore ..	254	10.2	12.0	96	4	16	0 14 7	7 7 1	0 9 7	4 11 10	58	64	44
Nilgiris ..	104	26.6	19.0	97	3	40	0 8 7	2 4 0	0 10 9	2 14 10	61	63	37
Salem ..	230	6.6	9.6	92	8	31	1 2 3	5 14 6	0 13 9	3 13 11	60	67	46
South Canara ..	270	18	55	74	43
Malabar ..	475	4.1	9.4	49	51	41	47	53	39
Average ..	251	7.2	12.9	79	21	26 36	1 1 3	4 11 8	0 11 2	4 2 2	61	70	42

REMARKS.—(1) The number of persons to a square mile entered for Ganjam, Visagapatam and Godávári is inclusive of the Agency Tracts in these districts; excluding the Agency Tracts, the number is 326, 452 and 407 respectively.

(2) The figures in the last 3 columns refer to the population of 1881, similar information as per Census of 1891 not being available yet.

(3) A comparison of the average rates of assessment of occupied and unoccupied cultivable lands will show whether the land available is of very inferior quality or not.

(4) The extent to which women are employed in field labour may, to some extent, be taken as a measure of the standard of living in the district.

(j)—Statement showing the total acreage, classification of areas, irrigated crops, current fallows, and the number of live-stock, carts, ploughs and boats in the Madras Presidency during the year 1889-90.

(1) Total acreage.

	Millions of acres.
(a) Area according to Survey Department	91.03
(b) Deduct. { (1) Feudatory and Tributary States.	0.97
{ (2) Area for which there are no returns	30.29
(c) Net area by Survey Department	<u>59.77</u>

(2) Classification of net area.

(a) Forests	11.13										
(b) Not available for cultivation	11.85										
(c) Available for cultivation	8.02										
(d) Current fallows	4.97										
(e) Cropped during the year	<u>23.80</u>										
(f) Area irri- gated during the year.	<table> <tbody> <tr> <td>{ (1) Government canals</td> <td style="text-align: right;">2.70</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (2) Private channels</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.03</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (3) Tanks</td> <td style="text-align: right;">2.31</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (4) Wells</td> <td style="text-align: right;">1.17</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (5) Other sources</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.18</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	{ (1) Government canals	2.70	{ (2) Private channels	0.03	{ (3) Tanks	2.31	{ (4) Wells	1.17	{ (5) Other sources	0.18
{ (1) Government canals	2.70										
{ (2) Private channels	0.03										
{ (3) Tanks	2.31										
{ (4) Wells	1.17										
{ (5) Other sources	0.18										
Total area irrigated	<u>6.39</u>										
(g) Crops irri- gated.	<table> <tbody> <tr> <td>{ (1) Wheat</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.005</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (2) Other cereals and pulses</td> <td style="text-align: right;">5.61</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (3) Miscellaneous food crops</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.57</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (4) Non-food crops</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.21</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	{ (1) Wheat	0.005	{ (2) Other cereals and pulses	5.61	{ (3) Miscellaneous food crops	0.57	{ (4) Non-food crops	0.21		
{ (1) Wheat	0.005										
{ (2) Other cereals and pulses	5.61										
{ (3) Miscellaneous food crops	0.57										
{ (4) Non-food crops	0.21										

(3) Acreage under crops.

(a) Cereals and pulses.	<table> <tbody> <tr> <td>{ (1) Rice</td> <td style="text-align: right;">6.46</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (2) Wheat</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.02</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (3) Other food grains including pulses</td> <td style="text-align: right;">14.10</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	{ (1) Rice	6.46	{ (2) Wheat	0.02	{ (3) Other food grains including pulses	14.10
{ (1) Rice	6.46						
{ (2) Wheat	0.02						
{ (3) Other food grains including pulses	14.10						
(b) Oil-seeds	1.91						
(c) Sugarcane	0.06						
(d) Fibres ...	<table> <tbody> <tr> <td>{ (1) Cotton mixed and unmixed.</td> <td style="text-align: right;">1.64</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ (2) Other sorts</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.05</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	{ (1) Cotton mixed and unmixed.	1.64	{ (2) Other sorts	0.05		
{ (1) Cotton mixed and unmixed.	1.64						
{ (2) Other sorts	0.05						
(e) Indigo	0.45						
(f) Coffee	0.05						
(g) Tea	0.005						
(h) Tobacco	0.10						
(i) Cinchona	0.01						
(j) Miscellaneous crops.	<table> <tbody> <tr> <td>{ Food</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.36</td> </tr> <tr> <td>{ Non-food</td> <td style="text-align: right;">0.905</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	{ Food	0.36	{ Non-food	0.905		
{ Food	0.36						
{ Non-food	0.905						
(k) Total area of crops cultivated	26.12						
(l) Area cropped more than once	2.32						
(m) Actual area cropped (k-l)	<u>23.80</u>						

(4) *Number of live-stock, &c.*

						Number in millions.
(a)	Cows and bullocks	11.02
(b)	Buffaloes	3.46
(c)	Horses and ponies	0.05
(d)	Mules and donkeys	0.12
(e)	Sheep and goats	12.06
(f)	Carts	0.44
(g)	Ploughs	2.50
(h)	Boats	0.02

(k)—*Extracts from Dr. Maclean's Manual of Administration on the economic condition of the labouring classes.*

Arcot, North.—The population is mainly rural. The ordinary agriculturist is strongly attached to his native village and rarely leaves it except to attend some religious festival. The railway has worked very considerable changes, and by raising the value of agricultural produce has materially improved the condition of the cultivating classes along the line. In the towns stone houses are not uncommon, but all the villagers and the vast majority of the urban population live in mud buildings. The household furniture of the ordinary cultivator, herdsman and small trader consists merely of a bed of wooden planks (*visoopalagay*), a bench and one or two boxes. The land under cultivation is reported at 578,731 acres (dry 377,715 and wet 201,016) or only 13 per cent. of the district area. Most of the individual holdings are very small, paying less than Rs. 25 per annum. A cultivator paying more than that may be called a moderately large holder, while those paying more than Rs. 100 per annum are few in number and wealthy. The profits derivable from a holding of 5 acres average from Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per mensem. From *ragi* the people make porridge (*sankaty*) which constitutes the ordinary food of the masses. Rice, though sometimes mixed as a luxury with the cheaper grains, is eaten as a regular meal only by the wealthy. Male labourers earn from Annas 2 to Annas 2-8 per diem and females about half as much. The wages of a working goldsmith or blacksmith are 6 annas a day; of carpenter or bricklayer 6 annas to 8 annas. The rate of interest for money lent on personal security varies from 12 to 36 per cent. per annum. On the security of personal goods it averages 12 per cent. and with a lien on crops 18 per cent. From 6 to 8 per cent. is considered a fair return for money invested on land.

Arcot, South.—With a holding of 5 acres, the peasant is not so well off as a retail shopkeeper, making a net income of Rs. 8 a month. The mass of cultivators, however, hold less, and although the expenses of an ordinary cultivator with a wife and 3 children may be calculated at only Rs. 3-0-0 to Rs. 4-8-0 per mensem, they are as a rule in debt. Twenty acres would be considered a large holding; less than 2 acres reduces the cultivator to a hand-to-mouth subsistence. Under the regulations in force, cultivable waste is being annually taken up for *casuarina* and cashewnut. Agricultural and day-labouring males earn Annas 2-8 to Annas 3-4 per day and females about half as much. Smiths, bricklayers, carpenters obtain 6 annas a day on the average.

Since 1850 wages have risen 50 per cent., in some cases 75 per cent. A comparison of prices of food-grains in the years 1850-51, 1860-61 and 1870-71, all average years, shows a general rise in the second decade with a fall in the third decade. The district contains a large number of field labourers called padials of the Pariah caste, who receive payments in kind and are, as a rule, farm hands engaged by the season, but sometimes permanently attached to the estate. The mass of cultivators are tenants with rights of occupancy terminable at their own option. On private estates the cultivators, where not padials, are tenants-at-will, paying rent to the intermediate landlord, sometimes in cash but often in kind and liable to ejection at the end of the season. The rates of interest vary from 12 to 24 per cent. on the security of personal goods; from 6 to 9 per cent. on large transactions and from 12 to 18 per cent. on personal security with a lien on a crop. 5 to 6 per cent. would be considered fair return for money invested on land.

Bellary and Anantapur.—Prices have for many years been steadily rising, and, where money payments obtain, agricultural labourers and ordinary artisans now receive double and even treble the wages given before 1850. The field labourers, however, are as a rule paid in kind and the rise of prices has not affected them. In other cases the cultivator class has benefited, the cotton-growers notably, many of whom during the American war made considerable fortunes. Rice during 1840-50 averaged 24 lb. for Annas 8, between 1850-60 rose to 20 lb., and since 1860 has averaged 10 lb. for Annas 8; cholam during the same period rose from 58 to 38 and 23 lb. for Annas 8; and ragi from 62 to 46 and 25

Canara, South.—The ruling retail prices of food-grains, &c., in 1883-84 per garce of 9,600 lb., were for best rice Rs. 400; paddy Rs. 148; gram Rs. 237. The wages of day labourers have increased since 1850, an ordinary male labourer being now paid Annas 3 and a female Annas 2 a day instead of Annas 2 and Annas 1½, respectively, in 1850. Smiths and bricklayers who in that year obtained Annas 4 now get Annas 8 and carpenters now get Annas 8 who then got Annas 6. The Holeyas, answering to the Pariahs of Madras and the Ruhans of Bombay, are a class who live by hire as unskilled labourers. They are paid in paddy or rice, and their wages are subject to deductions on account of debts contracted to meet the expenses of marriage. In gathering the harvest and storing it up they are not paid so much per day but receive $\frac{1}{11}$ of the crop; so also for preparing rice from paddy, they receive 6 lb. of rice for preparing 84 lb. At the time of transplanting and reaping, females are largely employed and are generally paid 4 lb. of rice per day. Before the British rule the Holeyas were the slaves of the Wurgdars and even to this day they remain in a state of modified serfdom; but the coffee estates are drawing large numbers from their original homes and labour market is being largely ruled by the ordinary laws of supply and demand.

Goddavari.—In 30 years the population has doubled, and, thanks to the splendid system of navigable irrigation works, the agriculture and commerce of the district are in a most prosperous condition. Great improvement has taken place of late years in the quality of the food-grains raised in the district owing to the extension of irrigation by

canals. A farm, 100 acres in extent, would be considered a large holding for an agriculturist, one of 30 acres a middlesized one, and one of 5 acres a very small one. Government tenants have a permanent right of occupancy so long as they pay the Government assessment. In zemindari estates, on the other hand, the cultivators are mostly yearly tenants. A number of landless labourers are employed in cultivation, paid sometimes in money and sometimes at a fixed rate in grain, but never by a regular share of the crop. Wages have more than doubled since 1850. A carpenter, smith or bricklayer now earns Annas 8-1 in towns and Annas 7-5 in villages and an agricultural labourer 3 annas. Women employed in weeding and transplanting are paid at from one-half to two-thirds of the rates for men, while the children receive a lower rate. Paddy or unhusked rice, which in 1850 was returned at Rs. 24 per garce (9,860 lb.), is now (1884) worth Rs. 68 per garce.

Kistna.—The people of the district are generally poor, but an exception must be made in the case of the ryots of the delta, who are, as a rule, very well off. Throughout the delta the houses are, as a rule, built with brick-walls and tiled or terraced roofs; in other parts they are of mud walls with terraced roofs. Rice is the food of all classes in the delta, but only the well-to-do people use it in other parts of the district. The total monthly expenditure of a prosperous shop-keeper's family, consisting of 5 persons, would be about Rs. 14 and that of an ordinary peasant about Rs. 8. The district contains numerous wells. The daily wages of coolies and agricultural labourers in 1850 were from Anna 1 to Annas 2; in 1876 from Annas 1-3 to Annas 4 and Annas 1-4 to Annas 3, respectively. Bricklayers and carpenters from Annas 4 to Annas 6 and Annas 5 to Annas 8 a day, respectively, while 16 years ago they earned Annas 2-6 to Annas 4 and Annas 2 to Annas 4, respectively. In 1883-84 skilled labourers—average, Annas 7, others, Annas 4.

Malabar.—The peasantry of Malabar are no exception to the general rule, dividing this class into those who borrow and into those who lend. The borrowers among the actual cultivators are much more numerous than the lenders, and borrowing, owing to certain characteristics in the prevailing tenure, is rapidly on the increase. The wages of artisans and labourers have been steadily increasing. Coolies, who in 1800 earned 1 anna and in 1850, 2 annas, earned in 1876-77, 5 annas a day, and skilled workmen, whose wages in 1850 varied from 5 to 6 annas earned in 1876-77 from 8 to 10 annas. Agricultural labourers are always paid in kind at the daily rate of 5 lb. of rice for a man and 4 lb. for a woman.

Tanjore.—Wages of agricultural labour are almost invariably paid in grain. The ordinary rates are three-fourths of a merkai or 3·87 lb. of paddy (giving about 2½ lb. of clean rice) per diem for a trained labourer, male or female, and one-half merkai for inferior adult labourers; boys and girls receive half the rates. In towns, wages are paid in money, the ordinary daily rate for an adult male being Annas 4-4½ in 1841-42 to Rs. 1-13-0* in 1876-77, for children 1 anna each. Skilled labourers, such as bricklayers, stone-masons, carpenters and smiths are paid according to the nature of the work from 5 to 8 annas a day. The money

* Sic.

wages in all these cases are generally twice as high as it was twenty-five years ago and in some cases the increase is still greater. Prices of all articles of food have risen in about the same ratio. The village sales of paddy, the staple produce of the district, on which the original commutation rate for the assessment of irrigated land was calculated, show that the average price of the Tanjore kalam equal to 12 merkals or 62 lb. has varied from Annas 7 in 1850-51 to Rs. 1-7-0 in 1875-76. Landless labourers constitute about one-half the adult male population of the district and of these nearly two-thirds are engaged in agriculture. They are chiefly Pullers and Pariahs who are permanently attached to the farms. The remainder are low-caste Sudras, who have immigrated from time to time from the Marava country lying between the Cauvery delta and Cape Comorin.

Coimbatore.—Agricultural day-labourers or coolies earn 3 annas per diem, women 2 annas and children 1 anna. Blacksmiths, bricklayers, carpenters receive from Annas 6 to Annas 14 per diem. Since 1850 the rate of wages for skilled labour has risen from 25 to 80 per cent. and prices of food have doubled. Rice which in 1850 was selling at Rs. 1-8-0 per maund (80 lb.) now sells at Rs. 3; cholam formerly Annas 10-8 per maund now costs Rs. 1-6-0; wheat once Rs. 1-8-0 per maund now sells at Rs. 3-4-0; salt has risen from Rs. 2-1-8 per maund to Rs. 2-15-3; and country liquor (arrack) now sells from Rs. 3-4-0 to Rs. 4-4-0 per gallon.

Kurnool.—The ryots, as a rule, cultivate their own lands. Owners of very large holdings sublet some of their lands and employ labourers on others. The wages of day labourers and artisans are usually paid in kind. When paid in cash, coolies receive from Annas 2-6 to Annas 3 a day; blacksmiths, bricklayers, carpenters Annas 4 to Annas 12. The average price of best rice in 1883-84 was Rs. 3-3-8 and of cholam Rs. 1-4-1 per maund of 80 lb.

Nellore.—The average prices of produce per maund (80 lb.) were rice Rs. 3, inferior food-grains Re. 1, indigo Rs. 149, cotton Rs. 15. The daily rates of wages are, skilled labour 12 annas at Ongole and Kanigiri, 6 annas in most places, and 4 annas in some; for unskilled, Annas 6 at Atmakúr, Annas 2-6 in most places and Annas 1-6 in some.

Salem.—On a holding of 2 acres *wet* and 3 acres of *dry* land the net profit would not probably exceed Rs. 60 per annum or Rs. 5 a month. The mass of the peasantry are in debt. The habit of indebtedness is so ingrained in their nature that if they all started fair tomorrow, 50 per cent. would be in debt again in a year. One man is held to be sufficient for the ordinary daily labour on a farm of 3 acres of wet or 6 acres of dry land, if assisted in the heavy work of planting, weeding, reaping and threshing. His wages would be 480 measures of grain per annum = Rs. 12-8-0 *plus* an annual money payment of Rs. 3, the wages in the northern being lower than in the southern taluks. Twenty-seven measures of seed are required for an acre of wet and 6 measures for an acre of dry land. The highest Government wet rate in the district is Rs. 14 per acre and the lowest is Rs. 11-9-0, exclusive of local cesses; the highest for *dry* lands being Rs. 5 and the lowest Annas 4. The customary rates of wages for unskilled labour are, for men Annas 2; for women Annas 1-6; for

children, male or female, Pies 10. The Wodder or Navy caste get twice as much, but they do generally task work, by which they gain more than by daily wages. The wages of a working goldsmith vary with the value of the materials, but may be taken on an average to be Annas 8 per diem. A blacksmith gets Annas 8; a carpenter from Annas 8 to Annas 10; bricklayers from Annas 6 to Annas 10. During the 10 years ending 1874, the prices at Salem town per garce or 9,360 lb. in February and March, when the ryots sell, averaged Rs. 103 for rice and Rs. 115 for cholum or great millet.

Tinnevely.—In 1883-84 the average rates of wages were for unskilled labour in towns Annas 2-10 and in villages Annas 2-4 a day. The price of rice in the same year was Rs. 3-12-11 per maund (80 lb.) and of cumbu, the staple food of the district, Rs. 1-9-2.

Trichinopoly.—Agricultural labourers are generally paid in grain. From 1881-82 to 1883-84 their money wages averaged Rs. 5-5-0 a month. The wages of common masons, carpenters and smiths averaged Rs. 15-2-1 a month. The average price of second-sort rice during the 5 years ending 1883-84 was 15·23 imperial seers for 1 rupee; in 1879-80, 12·05; in 1880-81, 14·34; in 1881-82, 16·31; in 1882-83, 16·10; in 1883-84, 17·36 seers for 1 rupee. Similarly the price of cumbu (the staple food) in the 5 years ending 1873 varied from 15 to 43; in 1879 from 15 to 23; in 1880 from 23 to 30; in 1881 from 24 to 34; in 1882 from 28 to 39; in 1883 from 30 to 43 seers for 1 rupee. An imperial seer equals 2·2046 lb.

Visagaptam.—Prices of grain have risen very considerably during the last few years. The rate of wages has also risen, but not in the same proportion.

(1)—*Opinions of certain gentlemen on the present economic condition of the people as compared with their past condition.*

(1) *Note by C. Nagojee Row, Esq., B.A., Inspector of Schools, Northern Circle.*

People who talk of the poverty of India do so in a very vague way. The country is poorer than it was 30 years ago; it is poorer than England, France or Germany; it is not so rich as it might be under more favorable conditions—these are three distinct propositions having no necessary connection with each other; but newspaper writers and others who write about the poverty of our country mean now one of these things and now another, and do not, I fear, carefully distinguish between the different propositions.

One may admit the two latter statements without admitting the first, but even with regard to the statement that India is poorer than most European countries, I wish to state that drawing inferences as regards the happiness of people from the production or value of production per head of population alone is not quite safe. The necessities of the people of different countries, the climatic conditions under which they live, the sort of house accommodation, and the kind and quantity of food, which they require for comfortable living, should also be taken into account along with production in judging of the relative well-being of different communities, and, if these things and the distribution

of wealth among the various classes are considered, I doubt very much whether the bulk of the Indian population is so very badly off when compared with the bulk of the English people. Dr. Dhanakoti Raju, who has just returned from Europe, is of opinion that the condition of the lower classes in India is really much better than that of the corresponding classes in England.

I readily admit the proposition that India might be richer than it is. If the cost of administration were less, home manufactures encouraged, our interests not sacrificed, as they sometimes are, to English interests, and the people more energetic, more intelligent and more enterprising, the country would no doubt be very much wealthier than it is at present.

With reference to the opinion commonly expressed that this country has been growing poorer, I can only give my general impressions and what appear to me to be reasonable deductions from well-known facts. I shall at first refer to the condition of the land-owning classes. It is admitted that Government had formerly the greatest difficulty in collecting revenue and in inducing people to keep lands under cultivation. The reason was that prices were so low that the ryots found great difficulty in realizing, by the sale of the surplus produce of their lands, money sufficient to meet the Government or Zemindar's demand. The land had consequently little or no value. Now, no such difficulty is experienced; every inch of good land is under cultivation and the price of produce and land, I am informed, has quadrupled during the last 30 years. The opening out of the country by means of roads, railways and canals and the establishment of steamer communication have brought the markets of the world within the reach of the Indian ryot, and he has no difficulty in disposing of the produce of the land which remain over and above his requirements. Assuming that the ryots of the present day are not more extravagant than their fathers, and admitting that every year they grow more than they require for their consumption, it follows that they should be richer now than they were 40 years ago. Security of property is one of the inducements to lay by money. When an individual or a community gets richer, there is generally perceptible a rise in the standard of living, and this is noticeable everywhere among the agricultural classes, but notably so in the Godávári and Kistna districts, which are exceptionally favored. An intelligent friend, who remembers the state of things 40 years ago, states that, while ryots then lived in poor mud huts, had nothing better than earthen pots, no jewels and no furniture, they now live in tiled houses, wear better and more clothing, have a number of silver and gold ornaments, and even some furniture. This, he says, is a certain proof of some wealth. The staple food of the people is now rice, whereas it was formerly ragi or cholam. Another sign of prosperity is that the better class of ryots, instead of selling produce immediately after harvest to pay Government and other demands, generally store it up, and sell it when prices go up. They have credit, too, now and find no difficulty in raising loans when they wish to do so. With the landowners agricultural laborers have prospered. They get plenty of work in the cultivating season; and in the dry weather, repairs to, and clearance of, the numerous irrigation and navigation channels in these districts give them occupation. The prosperity of the agricultural community implies also the prosperity of the trading community.

Against the prosperity of the agricultural and trading classes, however, is to be set the pressure which the landless and old manufacturing classes are feeling. The condition of the weavers is everywhere lamentable. Their occupation is gone; and they have not had time enough to reconcile themselves to their new lot and to adapt themselves to changed circumstances. The extinction of native manufactures means, I suppose, the loss of so much wealth to the community and suffering to the manufacturing classes; but the net result of British administration up to now has been an increase, and not a decrease of national wealth. This is the impression of most people whom I have consulted. I have no figures at hand to establish this.

It is true the cost of administration has considerably increased of late, the public debt has swelled, and the fall in the value of the rupee is telling heavily on our finances; making allowances for these and the increase in taxation they imply, the country, owing to the security it enjoys and the facilities afforded for transport of produce and goods, is very much better off now than it was in 1850.

The increase in the area of land under tillage, the starting and successful working of spinning and weaving mills, and the discovery of coal in several parts of the country, are all factors in the question.

(2) *Note by S. Seshaiyar, Esq., B.A., Professor, Government College, Kumbakonam.*

I examined some bundles of old accounts in the possession of some of the merchants of this town. The information to be gathered from them is not as satisfactory as one could wish it were. Still there does not appear to be any doubt about certain broad facts.

1st.—Brass and copper vessels are much cheaper now than they were between 30 and 40 years ago. The average price of brass wrought into vessels, such as தாம்பாளம் and கங்காளம், &c., was 8 annas a seer, or, in other words, 7 seers for a pagoda, whereas now it is 11 or 12 seers, and, 4 years ago before the Paris Syndicate raised by compact the price of copper, it sold at 14 seers the pagoda. Copper was likewise dearer in the same ratio. Roughly it may be said that the price of brass and copper vessels has cheapened by between 30 and 40 per cent. This is due, of course, to the enormous importation of metallic sheets from Europe. Formerly they had to make brass here. It is a mixture of copper and tin. And there is the notion that brass pots and other vessels of those days were purer in quality and more durable. Everywhere, even in villages, and among the lower classes of the population, the journeymen laborers included, brass pots, plates and bronze cups have taken and are taking the place of the earthen vessels. Even for cooking purposes they use the metallic vessels.

2nd.—As regards clothing, there is no doubt that Manchester goods are steadily driving out of the market the home-woven cloths, and this is because of the great cheapness of the former. It is difficult to compare the prices of these days with those that obtained thirty years ago. Still, roughly, it may be estimated that cloths of nearly the same quality are cheaper by 40 per cent. Then a ten, six, as it is called a தேவத்தி and அங்கவத்திரம், of rough kind could not be had for less than Rs. 1-12-0; 8 yards of jaconet will now do for it, and you can get

it at annas 2 and pies 3 a yard, *i.e.*, Rs. 1-2-0 the whole. Country-spun cloths are dearer than Manchester manufactures or those of Bombay mills; but even for them the yarn is all English. In towns, at all events, 80 per cent. of the male population buy Manchester cloths. The higher classes of females in this part of the country wear country manufactures of the silk and colored kind. Comparison of prices here seems almost hopeless; fashion has changed so enormously during these 30 or 40 years. Looking into a large bundle of sales of cloths, I find that female cloths, 99 per cent. of them, varied in price between Rs. 3 and 7. These cloths have been substituted by others whose average price may be put down at least at Rs. 10. These, of course, are much prettier in appearance, and contain far more of silk. I am not prepared to say that cloths of the same quality would be cheaper now than in those days. What of cheapness in the material used may be made up by the increased rates of wages, but one thing is certain that the better classes wear clothing now nearly three times as costly as those worn by their grandmothers. This fact may in itself be worth noting. The lower classes, including the working classes—by *lower* I don't mean lower by caste, but chiefly by wealth—are much more decently clothed than they ever were. For Rs. 1-12-0 or Rs. 2 they get a female cloth, of cotton entirely—the work of Bombay mills or English; they get a cloth of the same pattern as the *செட்டி* cloth. Within my own knowledge in this town, *i.e.*, during the last 20 years, the dress of the lower classes has vastly improved; and this improvement is more than half of it due to cheapness of clothing.

And just a few words on the economic question you are busy with. I have no idea of the results you have arrived at, or even of the exact lines on which you have been working. Still I shall venture to say a few words, although I know that the question has to be looked at from various points of view.

I have a pretty vivid recollection of how things were in South Arcot and in this district 35 years ago when a boy. I had opportunities of travelling through South Arcot and Tanjore. I have travelled, too, over the same parts of the country recently. In the villages, substantial brick-built houses have now taken the place of thatched houses of old; brass and copper vessels, as also of bronze and tin, are used where earthen and wooden vessels were used; clothing is decidedly better, far more elegant and costly; and five times at least more of gold and silver jewellery than in former days. I am not prepared to say that everywhere in the country it is so. But it is so in most places I have visited. Whether people are more wealthy or not, there is far more display of wealth now than there was in days when I was a boy of ten. And almost every intelligent elderly man I have conversed with has told me the same as his observation. Another significant fact is the rise in the price of land in this district as elsewhere. Forty years ago a relation of mine who owned lands near Karikal, sold 15 *velies* or 100 acres of land for Rs. 2,000, and the same would sell now at Rs. 20,000, *i.e.*, ten-fold. Confining ourselves to the last 50 years only, I am not inclined to believe in the cry of increasing poverty of the country. Beyond a shadow of doubt, people are now better fed, better clothed and better housed. Whether the country might not be far richer, were it not for this or that, is another

question which it is needless to enter into. But at the same time I may mention there are certain vices which are rapidly developing and which need arresting—1st, falsehood, 2nd drunkenness, 3rd, want of thrift. These vices are not confined to towns, but are on the increase in villages also. On the bearing of these on the future economy of the country it is useless for me to dwell.

(3) *Changes in Godávari District since the construction of Anicut.—*
Noted by S. Nathamunni Mudaliar, Esq., Pensioned Tahsildar,
Godávari District.

The construction of the anicut across the Godávari is a great boon to this part of the country. This mighty work was commenced in 1846 and completed in about 1850. Previous to its construction, the district depended on rain and rain-fed tanks and the fitful supply of water from the river. Paddy was not so plentiful as now. The cultivation of paddy varied with the diversity of the seasons. In years of drought, famine was the inevitable lot of the people and both men and cattle suffered. Since its construction, the district is intersected with canals, useful not only for purposes of agriculture, but also for navigation. There are two main canals in the Western delta—the Ellore and Narsápur canals. In the Central delta, there is one—the Amalapore canal. In the Eastern, there are five—the Samalcottah, Cocanada, Coringa, Mandapeta and Bank canals. There is also a Bank canal in each of the other deltas. All these are navigable, and from these proceed a number of irrigation channels and paddy transplantation has immensely increased. Sugar plantation, which was rare in this district, is now to be seen almost everywhere. The extent of cultivation is acres 794,829 as given in the jamabandi report for fasli 1297 (1887-88).

2. For the transport of produce thus plentifully raised, there is considerable facility afforded by the introduction of canals, and this has resulted in the increase of price of every article. In 1854, when the Western canals were only in progress, and I first went to Narsápur, the price of paddy on that side was only Rs. 6 or 8 for a putty of 200 kunchams (533 Madras measures or 66 merkals). Now it is Rs. 20 and it sometimes rises to Rs. 24. In the famine of 1876 and 1877, the price rose to Rs. 50, there having arisen a great demand for it from different parts of the country. The introduction of coasting steamers in addition to navigable canals afforded easy passage for transshipment of goods. The wealthier classes were much benefited and the condition of ryots was so much improved by the general high prices that instead of being in the hands of sowcars, they were sowcars themselves. Even now, the majority of them are not in their hands. They have enough to pay for Government dues. The rich ryots lend money largely on inam lands, taking them on long leases. The inamdars in general, being poor Brahmins, are not capable of cultivating the lands themselves, while the ryots have means enough for carrying on extensive cultivation. They have enough of cattle, ploughs and laborers. The famine of 1876 and 1877 brought in a considerable number of poor people from the neighbouring districts of Vizagapatam and Ganjam, who found employment here in various ways.

They engaged themselves as field laborers, coolies, palanquin bearers and domestic servants. This rendered labor cheap. Most of them have remained here permanently, and some are so far improved in their condition as to become farmers themselves.

3. Besides the staple article of paddy, there are other crops, such as gingelly and ragi, which take canal water when timely rains fail. Chillies, turmeric, onions and garlic also take canal water and are charged as wet crop. Tobacco is another article which is largely raised in these parts. The finest tobacco is from the Lankas (islands) in the river. This is exported to Moulmein and other places. The Lankas are sold by auction for 3 or 5 years for considerable sums. They are so sold periodically because of the baneful or beneficial effects of inundation almost every year. Some are swept away, while others are enlarged and enriched by accretions and rich deposit of alluvial soil.

4. The vast increase in agriculture by irrigation has very materially improved the condition of ryots. They have learnt to build substantial and fashionable houses and upstairs buildings unlike their former thatched and slovenly ones. There has been considerable improvement in the manufacture of jaggery. Iron mills for extracting juice from sugar-cane are in general use now in the place of wooden ones, which are not so effective in getting out all the juice. There has not been any improvement in the implements of tilling. The ploughs of old are still in use, which do not furrow the land deep. Some years back, the Swedish plough was brought into this district and several experiments were made, but this was found too heavy for the ordinary bullocks here and the attempt to introduce it failed. Even the richer ryots found no use with it, for the land here requires no great tilling; it is flooded with canal water for some time before tilling and the land easily turned up and transplanted. A second crop is also raised, but it is of inferior quality. It is only of 3 months' growth from February to April and is chiefly used by the laboring classes. The land has become very valuable. An acre of land sells from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300, and the inams from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500.

5. Prior to anicut, the joint-rent system was in use. Each village was rented out jointly to the ryots of the village, and the leading men and men of substance were held responsible for the payment of Government dues. On account of paucity of produce owing to failure of rain, the Amarakam, as the leasing out was called, was a matter of very great difficulty. Nobody used to come forward to take up the village or a portion of it, and the Tahsildars used to force it on some men of substance. It was really a painful sight. Now, the land has acquired so much value by irrigation that almost every inch of land is taken up and the Government dues easily paid. There is great competition among ryots to secure a right to the land. They come forward with darkhasts even at the end of the fasli, offering to pay the assessment for the whole year, though they could derive no benefit in that year. The renting system has entirely disappeared except in the hill tracts, and the ryotwari has taken its place. By this system, each ryot deals directly with the Government and reaps all the benefit of his labor. He commands more respect now, enjoys more comforts, wears better clothes and lives in a more comfortable way.

6. In the hill tracts, the joint-rent system is in use, but the villages are given away for a fixed sum and not rented out for a term of years as was the case before the disturbance of 1879. The condition of the people in these parts is also much improved. The rioting of 1879 compelled the Government to clear the jungles and lay roads. The communication to the hill tracts being more easy now, the hillmen have come more in contact with the people in the plains and learnt the real value of things which they used to dispose of at a very cheap rate in their own places or in the periodical markets on the outskirts near the plains. Tamarind, myrobalams, soapnuts, hill-oranges, timber, honey and wax are the chief products of those parts. The price of these articles has risen considerably, and the hillmen are in a much better condition than before. Paddy is also in use in these parts, the clearance of jungles and communication by roads having rendered cart traffic easy. The food in general use here is chiefly paste from tamarind seeds, mango seeds and toddy from jiluga trees, which yield toddy abundantly. Jonna is also in use in some parts. Transplantation of paddy is carried on under tanks in some places, the people having learnt it from those in the plains. Survey and settlement are also begun to be made. This will gradually find its way into the more interior and the people will become more settled. Their education is also attended to now. Local Fund schools are established in certain localities and there is also a Superintendent of Hill schools.

7. The Local Fund Act has greatly added to the convenience of the people everywhere. Roads have multiplied; the indigenous schools considerably improved and their number increased; sanitation attended to; tanks and wells dug even in remote places. The number of village schools has so considerably increased that there are now four Deputy Inspectors (Sub-Assistants) and one Assistant Inspector for the whole district in the place of one Deputy Inspector some 7 or 8 years ago. There is besides an Inspecting Schoolmaster for each taluk. The Sub-Assistant Inspectors are stationed, one at Narsápur, another at Ellore, a third at Rajahmundry and a fourth at Cocanada. The district is considerably in advance in this respect also.

8. The improvement in all directions which has been the source of happiness to the people has also been the source of great litigation. Much of people's money goes to swell the revenue of civil courts and to fill the pleaders' purse. People are more reckless in their proceedings and squander away their money, caring only to win their cause, good or bad. The country is in every way in a prosperous condition and it is quite unlike what it was prior to the construction of the anicut. Sir Arthur Cotton, to whose genius this gigantic work owes its existence, seems to have estimated the land revenue of the district at 22 lakhs and expected to realize 50 or 60 lakhs when the whole project was complete, as will be seen from the Manual of the district. Now, from the jamabandi report for fasli 1297, the land revenue appears to be 38 lakhs and odd. Other cesses, peishoush from zemindari estates, quit-rent on inam and inam villages, come up to 14 lakhs and odd. Salt, abkári, opium, ferry fund and income-tax amount to upwards of 6 lakhs. The grand total of the revenue of the district from all sources reaches nearly that amount which the great benefactor, Sir Arthur Cotton, roughly estimated some 40 years ago. The present

project of Lord Connemara of connecting this part of the country with Madras by means of railroads will still more develop the resources of the country and secure that felicity to the ill-favored aborigines of Ganjam and Vizagapatam districts which their southern fellow-beings invariably enjoy.

9. The only class that seems to have suffered is the weaver class. Cloths of different descriptions are being imported from foreign countries, and as they are cheaper being machine made, the demand for country cloths is much lessened. Only coarser cloths are now woven here. The finer sorts of Uppada are also not in so much use. Calcutta cloths find a more ready sale.

(4) *Note by K. Subbarayudu, Esq., Deputy Collector, Bellary District.*

I have finished the jamabandi of the division by the end of June last and my examination of section I of the famine analysis village registers has also been nearly completed. The result of the enquiries made by me is that, as compared with their state 30 or 40 years back, both the agricultural and trading classes seem to have made an advance, and not retrogression, on the whole. Many an old ryot has informed me that 40 or 50 years back there was much more jungle and waste about this part of the country than is the case now, and they attribute the gradual spread of cultivation to gradual increase in population. Of course, this part of the country cannot be said to be a densely-populated one even now, but there seems no doubt whatever that the population has been steadily increasing year after year; and but for the sudden and terrible check it received during the famine of 1876--78, when a good proportion of the then existing population died, there is no doubt that the present population of this part of the country would have been much more than what it now is.

Many of the old people I have talked to on the subject have expressed an opinion that, although the extent under occupation is growing with the population, the lands have not been yielding as much now as they used to do some 40 or 50 years back; and, when questioned as to what could be the reason for the reduction in the yielding power of land, they explain that when they were young they observed that the agricultural classes were constantly changing their holdings at intervals of 2 or 3 years, giving up old lands and taking up new ones, as there were then immense extents of jungle and waste available all round, whereas they cannot and would not do it now; so that there is more permanency about holdings now than 40 or 50 years ago. The above explanation given by the ryots for reduction in the yielding power of land seems quite reasonable, as the same piece of land if cultivated year after year without intermission cannot naturally be expected to yield as much as if left waste for an interval or as a piece of virgin soil.

People say that another main feature of change now apparent is that, whereas about 40 or 50 years ago there used to be only a few important ryots and sowcars scattered here and there in villages and taluks, each having at times a number of families depending upon him as so many parasites, the present aspect is that wealth and importance are more generally distributed over the part of the country, thus

showing that all classes are now enjoying more independence than before, and that the sweets of liberty have been tasted even by the lowest orders. Even in other respects, the people on the whole seem to be enjoying more material comforts than in days past. The introduction of the machine-made goods into the market, although it has more or less interfered with some of the native industries such as weaving, &c., has no doubt done the masses and the public at large a world of good by placing cheap and ready-made goods almost at their doors. The fact, moreover, that, unlike in former days, people now dare to enjoy any wealth they possess more freely and openly, also bears testimony to the fact that there is now more peace prevailing about the country than in the old days when, some people say, people would not dare to wear even the jewels they possessed or build big and comfortable houses to live in, for fear of robbers and dacoits. It seems also quite a fact that the bulk of the peoples' wealth—both cash and jewels—used to be under ground in former days and not in current use as now, and the fact that we are still coming across instances of hidden treasure and valuables here and there all over the province goes to show that in times past people thought their safes could only be under ground and never above it.

The opening of the railways and telegraph lines and postal communications have also been a source of great relief and alleviation to the people in several ways.

As regards the condition of an *average* ryot in this part of the country, my own experience and impression is that, provided the country is not visited with anything like a severe drought or famine necessitating the grant of dry remissions, he gets on tolerably well without any kind of distress, living easily from hand to mouth. And had it not been for the heavy expenses they have to incur now and then in connection with marriage ceremonies occurring in their families, there is no doubt the condition of the average ryots in this part of the country would have been much better. Many an old ryot has told me that occasional marriages occurring in a ryot's family from time to time have been draining away from his pocket more than anything else, and that, however miserly and economical an average ryot may be at other times, he will be obliged to spend some hundreds of rupees, never less than two, as I am given to understand, for a daughter's or a son's marriage. They say the figure generally ranges from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500 in the case of an ordinary ryot. It appears that these costly marriages generally necessitate borrowing, and the ryot, though with much reluctance, is obliged to go and open an account with the ever-safe sowcar on account of these marriages. Debts incurred by ryots from sowcars are oftener conditioned to be liquidated *in kind* by annual instalments, and the rates of prices fixed on the produce supplied by him being at times even lower and cheaper than what are colloquially termed *சீர்தரவு* or the harvest season rates, the ryot necessarily loses a good deal in this direction also in the long run. As he is dunned by the sowcar for the payment of the instalment due at the harvest season, the ryot cannot think of laying by any excess quantities of grain, &c., produced on his lands until he finds high prices ruling in the market, so that the fruit of the ryot's labor is in several instances really enjoyed more by the sitting sowcar than by the plodding

ryot. It is thus that ryots generally find themselves entangled in the sowcar's hands; and once a ryot is so entangled, it seems really a very difficult matter for him to get out again. The account once opened generally continues to run on, and occasional unfavorable seasons and slight droughts, which seem to be more common in the Ceded Districts than elsewhere, tend to contribute to the permanency of the connection formed by the ryot with the sowcar so that the sowcar seems to have become a necessary evil with the average ryot.

As I have already stated before, the ryot class people have no doubt made an advance on the whole and not retrogression, and enjoy more material comforts now than before, but there seems to be a change in only one point which they do not seem to relish at all. I mean the severity of the forest law, which they seem to complain has curtailed many a concession they were enjoying before in that direction. In fact, they had no restraint whatever in that direction in times past either under grazing or under fuel or timber. The ryot class people, however, do not seem to understand the ultimate good that the forest law is intended or expected to do to the country.

Now, as regards the trading classes, there does not, to my mind, seem the least doubt that, as compared with times past, they have grown both in quantity and quality. The method of business that a sowcar or merchant adopts in these rural parts seems to me to be such that, once starting in business, he hardly experiences a failure. They generally undertake to deal in different things, and what little they rarely lose in one is generally more than counterbalanced by their gain in others. They are, moreover, a proverbially economical and simple class of people in these parts, and are generally unknown to luxuries of any kind. Traders, unlike the agricultural classes, are, furthermore, people who gain throughout all seasons. They have not that distinction between a good and a bad season which a ryot has, and, in fact, a bad season or a regular famine does a trader more good than a favorable one. The enclosed memorandum, containing statistics as far as available, as regards income to the Adóni Municipality from professional tax and tolls as also the number of cotton bales pressed in the three cotton presses here, would also show that, excepting bad seasons, trade here has been on the increase on the whole.

As regards recovery of this part of the country from the effects of the famine of 1876—78, my humble opinion is that it has very nearly recovered. Compared with the extent of Government assessed land under occupation before the last famine of 1876—78, similar extent now under occupation in this division consisting of the Adóni and Alúr taluks is about 28,500 acres less. But of this difference as much as nearly 19,000 acres is already under "Sivajama" or unauthorized cultivation, and there seems no doubt whatever that that, as well as even the still outstanding difference, will come under *permanent* holding before long. In this connection it is also to be remembered that some extents of assessed land under occupation previous to the famine of 1876—78 have since been included in the forest reserves formed, and that some of the lands so included are such as would have already been under occupation had they not been so included in reserves.

Statement showing income to the Adóni Municipality from professional tax and tolls.

Years					Income from tax on arts.	Income from tolls.
					RS.	RS.
1880-81	2,861	3,112
1881-82	3,146	2,650
1882-83	3,354	3,991
1883-84	3,872	3,700
1884-85	3,577	4,350
1885-86	3,710	3,200
1886-87	4,729	3,950
1887-88	4,200	4,249
1888-89	* 3,748	5,870
1889-90	4,856	5,615

Statement showing number of bales pressed at the Cotton Presses in Adóni.

Year.	Number pressed at the two presses of Messrs. Dymes and Co. and Sabapathy Mu- dahar and Co.	Number pressed at all the three presses including the press of Messrs Framjee and Co.	Remarks
1881	10,263	3rd Company's not available	
1882	17,506	Do	
1883	15,838	Do.	
1884	14,663	20,964	
1885	4,268	5,946	Particularly bad season
1886	17,202	20,667	
1887	18,982	22,090	
1888	15,485	18,899	
1889	26,832	38,095	
1890	13,309	17,735	Up to 30th July 1890.

N.B.—The price of a pressed bale of cotton ranges between Rs. 80 and Rs. 90

(5) *Note by A. Sabapathy Mudahar, Esq., Bellary.*

The condition of the agricultural population two or three years before the famine was the best that was ever known owing to the high prices of cotton which ruled during the American war. But after the famine, with a few exceptions, they (people) were reduced almost to

* Reduction due to some amount having been left uncollected at the close of the year which, however, is included in the figure for 1889-90.

beggary. During the past 4 or 5 years they have been gradually recovering their lost position.

Dry land was then sold at Rs. 50 to 100 per acre; now the price of wet land is Rs. 30 to 40 for lands irrigated by the Hagari, and Rs. 100 to 150 for lands irrigated by the Tungabhadra.

This year (1890) the cotton and cholam crops having been exceptionally favorable and the cotton crops having ripened simultaneously in almost every place, the laboring classes have benefited thereby to an enormous extent. The wages which were paid were three times as high as those ordinarily paid. This was the only year in which it was known that the laborers were not found to be enough in number to cope with the work. The extension of cultivation and the railways running through the district have enhanced wages cent. per cent. as compared with ordinary times before the current year. Wages are low as compared with what they were before the *famine*.

The condition of the agricultural classes as a whole has not generally improved in the same way as that of laboring classes owing to deficient rainfall in the Bellary district, which is due to the denudation of forests; with the exception of the agricultural classes, the commercial and artisan classes are better off than they were before. The agricultural classes have to pay higher wages to coolies.

The increase in the number of cotton presses and mills in the surrounding districts has been the cause of giving technical knowledge to lots of males and females, who are able to earn exceptionally high wages, *i.e.*, 10 to 15 rupees per man per month and 6 to 10 rupees per woman, who do work on the piece-work system. The position of the artisan class is also very much improved, such as masons, stonemasons, carpenters and blacksmiths, who are required in large numbers to meet the demand from the factories and the railways. In their case also the wages have gone up quite 50 per cent., if not more. The ordinary wages for masons, carpenters and blacksmiths used to be 8 annas, but it is now over 12 annas according to capacity and qualifications.

The prosperity of the people in general is shown by the large demand there is for both imported and locally-manufactured goods. The starting of the mills in India has been the cause of cheapening the prices of piece-goods and yarn by at least 30 per cent. as compared with what it was about 10 years ago.

Imported cloth goods now chiefly consist of the finer varieties, not the coarser kind generally used by the people.

The weaving industry is going down. The higher classes use the finer varieties of imported cloth, and the lower classes prefer locally-manufactured mill cloth.

In the Bellary Spinning and Weaving Mill, there are 100 looms, but only 50 are being now worked. In course of time the whole number will be utilized. The whole number will produce on an average 1,000 lb. of manufactured cloth every day. The production of yarn will be about 4,000 lb. daily, of which 1,000 lb. will be made into cloth if all the looms are worked.

Prices.

—	Before the recent rise in exchange	Ten years ago.	Twenty years ago
	Rs. A P	Rs. A P	Rs A P
Cloth for males, better sorts ..	4 1 0	3 12 0	3 8 0
Cloth for males, coarse ..	0 9 0	0 7 0	0 6 0
Dungary cloth ..	1 13 0	1 4 0	1 2 0
Cloth for females, coarse, colored.	2 2 0	1 12 0	1 10 0
Brass and copper vessels per seer of 21 tolas.	4 to 4½ annas	5½ annas	7 annas
Iron, per 20 maunds or 500 lb.	17 to 17½ rupees up to the year before last For 11 months last year, 23 to 30 rupees.	.	About 20 years ago, 35 rupees
Glassware	From ½ to ¼ of what it was before	..	

(6) Note by R. Subbramania Aiyar, Esq., B.A., District Registrar, Tinnevelly.

Changes in the value of land.—There is no ready and easy means of tracing out the various sales to which particular lands have been subjected in the course of the past 25 years. The only course open was to see by going through a good number of instruments of sale in the registers whether they contained any references to previous sales affecting the same properties. Even this was not attended with complete success. The lands mentioned in the previous and subsequent sales are not wholly identical. Prior to 1874, the lands were not described by their Survey numbers, and there is no means of knowing as to what Adangal numbers correspond to the present Survey numbers. Besides, the price of the same land is not distinctly ascertainable in all the years, as such lands are found intermingled with others in subsequent transactions, or only a portion detached and alienated. In ascertaining the price of one acre of average nunjah and punjah, recourse was had to the method of ascertaining the price of any piece of land in one year, and finding out the value of the same land in subsequent years, or of lands in proximity to it, bearing the next previous or succeeding number. The fluctuation in prices is noticed to be not based on any principle, and the only explanation which can be rendered for this is that the price varies according to the grain produced by it, *i.e.*, in famine years and those of ordinary scarcity the value of grain being rather high, the productive lands go for a very high price, and others fetch only an inconsiderable amount. Further, it appears that there is a general tendency for the increase in the number of landholders, which means diminution in the extent held by individuals, and consequently each man is able to devote better attention to lands under his care, which, therefore, in their improved condition, rise in value. As civilization advances, the artisans, such as carpenters, bricklayers, smiths, &c., find enough of work for them, and an increasing demand

for them has tended to increase the rate of their wages nearly three-fold during the last 25 years. Persons who were allowed 3 annas a day before now earn 8 to 10 annas. Most of these people who can earn money by hard labor are in a position to save enough to purchase lands and live comfortably.

On account of increase in population, there is undoubtedly an increase both in the number of agriculturists and in the extent of land cultivated, as most of the waste lands are now rendered cultivable for ordinary nunjah crops. And the bigger vakils and other well-to-do people, instead of hoarding up their money or lending it out on interest, prefer investing it in lands which they consider safe. Moreover, the chief agricultural classes of Southern India have been impoverished by their constantly running into debts on account of their lavish expenditure on the occasions of marriages and deaths, when their agricultural resources are stinted, and when they are too lazy or too uncondescending to take to other industrial professions. The result is the higher classes, who were sole landholders before, have now to give up their land little by little, whereas the poor laboring classes have acquired land by dint of their economical savings. As agricultural profession is found to be more safe and secure by the lower classes, they lay out their earnings on landed property. It is this tendency that partly causes the rise in the value of land in spite of deficiency of its yield.

The gradual increase in population, a population depending entirely upon agriculture for their livelihood, contributes as much to this rapid increase in the value of lands as the artificial improvements brought to bear from time to time upon the productiveness of the lands themselves. More than 30 years ago changes in the ownership of holdings will compare by an extreme minimum if viewed in connection with the rapidly-increasing divisions of property at the present day, and the nature of the tenures under which they are held. The causes seem to be more or less due to the increased resources of the country, to the enterprise of the enlightened section of the community, and to the hard competition of the times. There has been more accumulation of capital, and more of the nature of sinking funds than what the history of a past age will teach us. In certain directions, the increased value of land is due to the improved productive nature of the soil, and to the facilities afforded by irrigational works. The idea of acquisition helps the idea for permanent property, and owing to competition in the same market, the values are generally very high. The value of the land in general has thus increased, and the increase is due to the desire for permanent property in some shape at any cost. In short, accumulation of wealth, increased investment, competition, and over-population contribute to the rise in the value of land.

In what directions the agricultural class has progressed.—The agricultural class embraces three sets of people—

(1) Landholders who do nothing more than let their lands and collect the rents.

(2) Those who have some lands of their own which they cultivate themselves, and who also take up lands from others on lease, if circumstances would permit it.

(3) Those who have no lands of their own, but only cultivate the lands of others on different terms of leases.

Those coming under the second and third class have improved their status by yearly fresh acquisition of land, and by converting waste lands into cultivable ones. With the exception of a small percentage who are engaged in trade, the major portion of those falling under the first class are by degrees growing poorer and poorer by selling or mortgaging their property. And it is the cry of this section of the population that is likely to be the cause of the general impression that the condition of the agricultural classes is going down.

The general feeling of the agricultural classes is one of satisfaction with their lot ; this satisfaction can be said to be unalloyed if the rigour of the forest laws were mitigated, and nature were less fickle in the matter of water-supply—rain. The general want of rain in season has driven these classes to the necessity of sinking wells. Lands that were 30 years ago wastes overgrown with shrubs, &c., are now under cultivation. The extension of railway and other communications has not failed to bring in their train to the cultivator advantages which were wanting 30 years ago. He now carries the products to the market, where he secures the highest price possible. He is no more under the painful necessity of parting with the fruits of his labor for a nominal price. The mode of cultivation, the mechanism employed in the act of raising water and of turning up the soil, &c., have, however, remained practically the same as they were 30 years ago. The conservative instinct of the Indian cultivator abhors all innovation in these directions, and he rightly or wrongly prefers *his* mode and mechanism to all others.

The people are happy in the safety they enjoy under the good Government of the country. A good Government has brought safety along with it, and hence property has been rendered more secure, and there is nothing of that dread of life or of the prospect of losing property, which places the ryot in eternal anxiety, in the absence of an organized form of Government.

In what directions the agricultural class has deteriorated.—The causes of deterioration are—

- (1) Heavy marriage expenses.
- (2) Factious spirit and consequent expensive litigation.
- (3) The neglect of the ryots to give any sort of rest to the cultivable lands.
- (4) The lands are not as of old well manured, the consequence being a low yield with increased population.

Notwithstanding the safe and peaceful situation of the country, there has been some diminution among the agricultural classes. To be a ryot is considered among the so-called enlightened section something akin to being a serf in an enslaved country. Various other professions have been called in aid, and agriculture has been partially abandoned among the gentry who have taken to the renting system. Many of the population have gone to other places in pursuit of varieties of trade or professions. Reservation of callings to one particular set is gradually dying out. And with the spread of education, less regard is paid to

aristocratical authority, and the village panchayat system has almost ceased to be an institution of the country.

Given the same laws, the same situation, and the same form of Government as that of a highly advanced country, what will be the situation of the ryot now if he does not go in for the foreign importations of the market for the desire of keeping up appearances, for the interchange of callings, or for the affectation of the many foibles which now attend on him? One other great feature which adds to his misery is the laxity of the abkārī rules, the spread of stills and shops, and the encouragement given to wholesale and retail systems, which place the juice at the door of the ryot at cheap rates. Again there are the forest and salt laws, the one depriving him of the use of the forest, and the other stinting the supply of the necessary of life to himself and to his cattle. In this aspect of the question, the condition of the ryot may fairly be said to have deteriorated.

Other industries.—As regards other industries, some show improvement, some are stationary, and others show decline. The mason, the carpenter, the blacksmith, and the brass-smith are now prosperous more than before. The potter has remained in the same position as 30 or 25 years ago. It is in the case of the weaver that one finds almost complete collapse. The weaver stands helpless before the gigantic array of machines and machine-made cloths of the mighty Manchester, and realizes in the application to India of the principles of free-trade the plain fact that his ruin is not far off, and cries for protection.

Native industrial arts have generally declined. They were in times gone by held in deservedly high esteem and every encouragement was given to the proprietors by the former rulers of the country. With the beginning of English rule, and the importation of machinery, from the cooking stove to the locomotive engine, native industrial arts received a death-blow, and there are now glasses for lotas, and the shining chintz for the thick elegant cotton fabric of the native dealer. Government seems to have felt the necessity of reviving them wherever possible. In this district, trade in senna leaves, jaggery, and cotton seems to be the most flourishing at present, as the labor bestowed on them is attended with more profit.

General Remarks.—That the agricultural classes are on the whole improving there is no doubt. There are larger areas now under cultivation. Greater number of people find a living in agriculture. Larger varieties of things are grown. Large landed properties found accumulated in a few hands are now split up and spread over a larger number of hands. The condition of the actual cultivators is much better than what it was some twenty years ago; some big mirasidars may perhaps be seen ruined here and there; but it is no proof of the agricultural classes as a whole going down.

Before the beginning of the present generation, the agricultural population of the country was divisible into only two sections—the landlords and the tillers of the soil. The relation between these two classes was anything but satisfactory. The landlord had the “lion’s share” of the produce of the soil; and he allowed only a pittance just to keep the body and the soul together of the toiling cultivator. The landlord maintained the cattle, supplied the expenses of cultivation,

seed, manure, &c., while all the manual labor was done by the cultivator, and he was paid at the harvest season about a twelfth of the produce (குறுணி ஆறுபடி for a kottah), as it is called in this portion of the country. This, together with a pittance of other சுவதந்திரம், would not give a family of three or four souls more than 8 kottahs a year of paddy at the highest, which quantity is barely sufficient to maintain the family. For this payment, the landlord exacted other work too from him. He must do all the menial services for the landlord's well-being utterly unconnected with cultivation. The landlord would usurp anything found with his tenant which would be of any use to him. In fact, the landlord would get everything for his living without paying anything for the same—labor and materials for his well-being.

Thus the condition of the cultivator was far worse than what it is at present, while that of the landlord was undoubtedly far better. In addition to this comparatively larger share in the income, the landlord's domestic economy was much greater. Luxuries were unknown. Expenses of litigation far less. Differences of civil rights settled in the village panchayat without much cost. The less complicated laws of the Revenue Department placed redress at a much less cost to the landlord. Thus the landlord was a great saving party, while the cultivator was only a toiling machine, without any saving of his own.

The work of the present generation is the complete change of this state of the relation between the landlord and the cultivator, and the creation, or more appropriately the increase and strengthening, of a middle class of people who are landlords and cultivators in one. The original landlord has grown now lazier by his frequent visits to towns and the importations to his very door of the luxuries of the town, &c.; his life has become more expensive. His uncalled for luxuries, unnecessary litigation, the complicated and expensive laws, all these expenses combined with the reduced income noted below have brought down the condition of the landlord on the one hand, and on the other hand, the daily increasing independence of the cultivator, his boldness to refuse to give the landlord anything more than his actual due, using his time and labor to more profitable things, his savings, &c., have enabled him to buy cattle of his own to meet the expenses of cultivation from his own pocket without depending on the mercy of his usurious landlord, who, saved of these services, is paid a much less share of the produce.

The said cultivators have gone on further. They began to advance sundry sums to their landlords, and have bought, in most cases, small bits of land of their own, which they cultivate themselves, and obtain all the produce without a sharer. Many working people of other professions and castes have invested their savings in purchasing lands, and they have taken to cultivation in addition to their original profession.

The second class of people, besides cultivating their own lands, take a lease of the lands of the first class of ryots, and cultivate them and obtain a share of the cattle they maintain, and of the cultivator if they can. In many cases, these men sub-rent such lands to the third class of people, and obtain a profit on both sides by this bargain. The second class of people, being men of some substance, have greater credit with the first class of people on the one hand, and being fellow workers on

the field, are found to be less oppressive and more convenient for the third class to deal with; and hence they are used as middlemen by the first and the third classes. It is this second and third classes of people that reap the full benefits of the advantages of the British rule, and it is those falling under the first class, if they do not pursue other ways of getting money, and if they waste their time, energy and money in useless luxury, &c., that are going down.

All the advance made during this generation is in no way proportionate to the intentions of the Government and their trouble and expenses in establishing colleges and training institutions at the Presidency towns to introduce into the country the scientific modes of cultivation of the Western nations. The country has adopted only such portions of the advantages which the force of the surrounding circumstances in their natural course have driven the people to adopt, and nothing more. It is still left to the future politico-economic statesmen to find suitable ways to introduce into the country the more profitable modes of scientific cultivation, and to the sympathising scientist to devise means suitable to the low state of the poor country to induce and lead its children step by step to reap the advantages of a scientific agriculture.

That trade, manufacture, and handicrafts have increased a great deal during the present generation no one would dare to oppose. The introduction of the railways, the improved roads, and easy communications, the establishment of the village post offices, the increased demand and supply, have tended to increase every class of trade from the petty retail sales in the streets and villages to wholesale commerce. The variety of things bought and sold in these days, and their quality, and quantity compared with those found in the markets some twenty years ago, show a great deal of advance. A larger number of people are employed now in these trades. Persons of every caste take up the trades suitable to their means and ability. The first class of agricultural population noted above are seen here and there using their time and money to their advantage in trading. Those of the second and third classes, too, carry on petty inland trades during the time they are free from their work on their lands. Persons of other ancestral professions have cast off their prejudices, and freely take up trading if they find it more convenient and paying than those of their forefathers.

Manufacture and handicraft.—Here again the quality and the quantity of the work turned out, and the variety of such work done in these days, are far higher than what they were during the last generation. The caste which, in the majority of cases among the natives, distinguishes the professions is now fast fading away. It is needless here to enumerate the several branches of industry that are improved, and that are newly started and starting up. Suffice it to say that our artisans and manufacturers successfully imitate the works of the western nations, and produce the necessary articles nearly equal in quality and durability to those of their teachers and sell them much cheaper. The hands that used to be idle or to be content with the making of rude articles and low prices now find ample work and good samples, and a ready sale to pay their labors.

In conclusion, it may safely be stated that the state of the country is much better than what it was some twenty or twenty-five years ago

in every respect—agriculture, manufacture, and commerce. The fillers of the soil, the artisans, the manufacturers, and the traders—petty and wholesale—are, as shown above, getting strengthened day after day in their natural course. Whatever may be said of the proportion of increase under these heads to the attempts, inducements, and training afforded by Government, and whatever may be thought about the causes of the shortcomings in this proportion, the fact lies bare to every observer that the lower and middle classes, *i.e.*, the working classes, are now much better off than what they were during the last generation, though not as much as they ought or would be expected to be under the particular attention paid by our Western rulers to improve their condition by the establishment of several colleges and training institutions all over the country. The fault is not of the poor classes, but it is due to the indifference of their richer brethren, who, instead of teaching and leading them, look to their own selfish ends, or spend their energies and wealth in questionable directions.

(7) CONDITION OF THE WEAVING INDUSTRY IN MADURA.

*Note by V. Rajagopala Chariar, Esq., B.A., B.L.,
District Registrar, Madura.*

Number of silk weavers' houses.—The town of Madura is divided into ten Municipal wards. Of these ten wards the silk weavers occupy the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 9th wards, and the number of silk weavers' houses may be roughly estimated at 5,000 or so. Houses are multiplying in these wards and the fresh additions are generally thatched huts occupied by the laboring classes. It would appear that weavers from other parts of the district, finding no occupation in their respective places, have migrated to the town of Madura and settled themselves down here. The records of the Municipal office show that about 281 new houses have been erected in these wards.

2. *Number of silk weavers in the town.*—The silk weavers as a class are a very prolific people. They are said to multiply more rapidly than the other classes. Fixing, therefore, the inmates of each house to be from 4 to 5, the silk weavers' population of the town of Madura may be roughly estimated to be between 20,000 to 25,000 including females and children. Of these, about 10,000, including females, may be said to belong to the actual cooly class who earn their living by daily wages. Next to these come the petty traders who number from 400 to 500 families. Some of these sell threads, having purchased them in retail from the bigger merchants; some again sell lace in retail; some advance small sums of money to the holders of looms and order a small supply of cloths and sell them to the richer merchants. Some are brokers who collect cloths manufactured in the town and sell them either to the merchants in the town or to those abroad and very few are capitalists who have any very large trading concerns. The last class may almost be counted on one's fingers and it is said they are likely to be only between 10 and 20 on the whole. It is the brokers who form a comparatively large number. Some of the silk weavers have become agriculturists, finding that the profession of weaving does not pay. Their holdings are small and they only eke out their maintenance from the results of the agricultural labor. Some are said to keep carts and

bulls and to be employed in collecting sand from the river for building purposes.

3. *Their average income.*—Of the class of merchants, those who get profit of about Rs 100 and more per month are only 5 or 6; about 20 or 30 get from Rs. 50 to Rs. 100 and those who get from Rs. 5 to Rs. 20 are about 400 or 500. The profession of brokers is not very remunerative. A broker makes a profit of one anna on every rupee, but to earn a profit of 30 or 40 rupees in a month he has to employ two agents—one to go about the town and watch the progress of the cloths entrusted to the laborers and another to keep accounts. Very often he has to borrow money and pay the weavers in advance

The average income of a cooly family is Rs. 5 a month and it never goes higher than Rs. 10 a month. Females also work; some are employed in preparing the threads for weaving, some in the dyeing of cloths and others in the marking of spots or what is called sundadis. Boys of 12 years and more also earn wages and generally get from one rupee upwards.

4. *The quantity of cloths manufactured in the town, their different kinds and the average values thereof.*—The number of looms in the town is about 3,500. About four cloths can be woven from a loom in a month. This gives a total of 14,000 cloths per month for the whole town.

The different kinds of cloth manufactured are the following:—

Pulukka selais—Of the value of Rs. 2 to Rs. 3½.

Urumals—Of the value of Re. 1 to Rs. 6 per taw or tari, consisting of 8 each.

Plain male cloths with silk borders—Of the value of Re. 1 to Rs. 4.

White luced head kerchiefs dyed—Of the value of Rs. 7 to Rs. 12, the charge for dyeing being Rs. 2 or Rs 3 in excess.

Chittadais—Of the value of Rs. 3 to Rs. 8.

Female cloths of sorts.—The ordinary ranging from Rs. 6 to Rs. 20 and special cloths from Rs. 40 to Rs. 80.

Upper cloths—Of the value of Rs. 10 to Rs. 15.

Rs. 500 is the highest value of a cloth which has ever been made in Madura. Merchants of their own accord do not order for cloths of value of more than Rs. 80 to Rs. 100. The cloths made ordinarily range from Rs. 6 to Rs. 10 only in value.

The introduction of cotton twist from England, of lace from France, as well as of even the dyeing stuff from Bombay has considerably affected the value of the cloths made in the town and necessarily the wages to the coolies and the profits to merchants. Of the 14,000 cloths above mentioned as being made in a month in the town, for 7,000 to 10,000 cloths the inferior brass lace is used and the value of these do not go over Rs. 6 at the utmost. Their average price may be fixed at Rs. 2½ per cloth and this gives the sum total of Rs. 17,500 to 25,000. The average value of an ordinary cloth with good lace may be fixed at Rs. 7 and supposing that good lace is used for the remaining 4,000 cloths, their approximate value amounts to Rs. 28,000. Thus the total value of cloths made in the town in a month may be fixed at Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 60,000.

To get an impression of how much of this sum of Rs. 60,000 actually benefits the townsmen and how much goes to other countries and places, what the component parts of a Madura cloth are must be examined. Let me take for illustration an ordinary white cloth which is sold in the town for Rs. 10. The different items which go to make this sum of Rs. 10 may be described as follows :—

	RS.	A.	P.
Value of the thread	1	0	0
Cost of preparing the same for weaving	0	2	0
Profit earned by the merchant who sells the thread	0	1	0
Cost of fastening the thread to the loom ...	0	1	0
Wages for weaving thread into a cloth	1	4	0
Value of the lace	6	0	0
	8	8	0
Merchants' profits including brokerage	1	8	0
Total ..	10	0	0

When this cloth is dyed the excess charge is as follows :—

	RS.	A.	P.
For the first and rough coloring ...	0	12	0
For the making of spots	0	12	0
For dyeing them over again .. .	0	12	0
Miscellaneous	0	4	0
Total ...	2	8	0

Thus the great portion of the value of a cloth goes for the lace which is manufactured in France. Then by the cotton twists used, it is the English merchants who are benefited. The dye is also prepared abroad and the greater portion of Rs. 1-12-0 spent for dyeing goes also to other hands. The portion of Rs. 12-8-0 which actually circulates among the townsmen may be taken at the highest to be from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 or one-third of the value of the cloth. This calculated with reference to the Rs. 60,000 worth of cloth yields a total amount of Rs. 24,000 to Rs. 30,000 and this amount may roughly be fixed to be the sum earned from the industry by cooly upwards to the richest merchant. Deducting again Rs. 5,000 or so as being the profits earned by merchants, there remains Rs. 25,000 to be distributed amongst 5,000 families, giving an average of Rs. 5 per family, the amount mentioned above, as being the average income of a family. Generally speaking the industry is becoming day by day less profitable to the actual working classes. The causes thereof are not far to seek. Prior to the importation of cotton twist, some fifty years ago, it would appear there were in the town of Madura 2,000 to 3,000 families employed in spinning out threads. This vocation has entirely ceased now. Again, prior to the importation of lace there were 500 Mussulman families engaged in making lace, and in their place there are, it would appear, only 10 families employed in making country lace. The preparation of coloring materials was at least done locally till a year or two ago, but

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Wages for weaving thread into a cloth	1	4	0
Value of the lace	6	0	0
	8	8	0
Merchants' profits including brokerage	1	8	0
Total	10	0	0

When this cloth is dyed the excess charge is as follows :—

	RS.	A.	P.
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For the making of spots	0	12	0
For dyeing them over again	0	12	0
Miscellaneous	0	4	0
Total ...	2	8	0

Thus the great portion of the value of a cloth goes for the lace which is manufactured in France. Then by the cotton twists used, it is the English merchants who are benefited. The dye is also prepared abroad and the greater portion of Rs. 1-12-0 spent for dyeing goes also to other hands. The portion of Rs. 12-8-0 which actually circulates among the townsmen may be taken at the highest to be from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 or one-third of the value of the cloth. This calculated with reference to the Rs. 60,000 worth of cloth yields a total amount of Rs. 24,000 to Rs. 30,000 and this amount may roughly be fixed to be the sum earned from the industry by cooly upwards to the richest merchant. Deducting again Rs. 5,000 or so as being the profits earned by merchants, there remains Rs. 25,000 to be distributed amongst 5,000 families, giving an average of Rs. 5 per family, the amount mentioned above, as being the average income of a family. Generally speaking the industry is becoming day by day less profitable to the actual working classes. The causes thereof are not far to seek. Prior to the importation of cotton twist, some fifty years ago, it would appear there were in the town of Madura 2,000 to 3,000 families employed in spinning out threads. This vocation has entirely ceased now. Again, prior to the importation of lace there were 500 Mussulman families engaged in making lace, and in their place there are, it would appear, only 10 families employed in making country lace. The preparation of coloring materials was at least done locally till a year or two ago, but

this too has been superseded by the Bombay article. As a necessary result of the cessation of all these vocations, the labor is now directed entirely in one direction towards weaving, and it is in consequence very cheap. What used to be paid for at Rs. 2 in former years is now remunerated by 1 rupee only.

Even as regards the merchant class, the general complaint is that the trade does not pay. It may be that a larger number of cloths are now made than before, but what merchants make as profit by reason of the cheapness of the commodity and keenness of competition seems to be considerably less than what it was in former years. A cloth which was sold for Rs. 60 is now sold for only Rs. 30.

As a curious illustration of how the importation of the English-made goods has affected the local weaving industry, it may be mentioned that the weavers themselves of the town of Madura do hardly use the cloths woven by them. Mulls and piece-goods have taken the place of the home-made articles and if the richer class should seek for some country cloths, it is the Conjeeveram cloths that are made use of. The females likewise use the *Thombu*, and if they seek for some better country-made cloths, they purchase the Koranadu cloths. Thus it happens that one or two per cent. of the town-made articles are sold in the town itself and the rest are sent abroad.

The habits and manners of the silk weavers as a class.—Silk weavers as a class lead a simple life. Their food is simple and consists of cholum, cumbu and other dry grains. Rice is used by comparatively few persons only. Their clothing is simple. The females wear a cloth of Rs. 2 worth only, except on festive occasions, when they wear the Koranadu cloths. House accommodation is necessary for their profession, and each endeavours, therefore, first, to secure a house for himself. They are not also without the desire for ornaments. Even the poorest household are mentioned to have some gold jewels. A silk weaver's property consists generally of his house and ornaments. Marriage is costly with them. About Rs. 63 must be paid to the bride even by the poorest man. To meet this item of expenditure, almost every cooly before he enters on his profession begins to subscribe to some *chit* transaction or other and to save out of his hard earned wages 1 rupee or so to be paid monthly for a series of years extending from five to seven. Before he earns his prize in his turn, necessity, however, often compels him to borrow, mortgaging his *chit* amount and the house owned by him. It is such documents that are registered in large numbers in the town offices of Madura. There is another peculiarity about these silk weavers. They seldom borrow from other than their castemen. In case of loans of large sums, probably they may resort to the Nattukkottai chetti, but all ordinary loans are contracted from one of their own community.

In addition to the town of Madura, the weaving industry is carried on in the following places in the district—Dindigul, Paramakudi, Palni, Tirumangalam and Aruppukóta. In Dindigul only laced cloths are made to the value of Rs. 10 or so. In other places rough country cloths only are made. In all the stations, the industry is said to be declining so much so that weavers from these places come up to Madura for employment and overcrowd the market.

(8) THE CONDITION OF THE LABORING CLASSES.

*Note by H. Subbaraya Aiyar, Esq., Deputy Collector,
Coimbatore District.*

I have had ample opportunities of observing and judging of the condition of the labouring classes during the last three decades, and can confidently say that it has materially improved in every way. Agricultural labourers consist of two classes (1) the permanent farm servants, and (2) those employed temporarily on daily wages when agricultural operations are carried on extensively.

The farm labourer is paid monthly and in kind, and is also given, to cultivate on his own account, small plots of land belonging to his master. He also receives small presents and loans on occasions of festivals and marriages, besides a certain percentage of the produce harvested. He is also permitted to work elsewhere during certain months in the year when there is no work in the fields or on the threshing ground, and thereby earn what little he can additionally. The temporary labourer is paid either in kind or in money or both. There was a time, within my own memory, when the labouring classes chiefly depended for work on agricultural operations in the year, and when these were over, they found it very difficult to maintain themselves. Now the demand for work, in the fields owing to increased cultivation, in the Imperial and Local Fund departments, in the Railway department, in the coffee, tea and cinchona estates, in the cotton presses, weaving and spinning mills and in other various departments of trade and agriculture, has become so great within the last thirty or forty years, that the labouring classes do not find it difficult to obtain employment freely on increased wages during the prosperous years. The labourers, especially in the maritime districts, have also begun to emigrate freely in large numbers to foreign countries, where they find work on higher wages, and thereby secure competence.

The rise in the price of food grains and other necessaries of life, the steady increasing demand for work, the development of trade, the large scope now offered for emigration, the high mode of living suitable to the period of advancement and civilization, and the fashion of the day to naturalize whatever is foreign—all these have undoubtedly enhanced the rate of wages, not only for the skilled, but also for the unskilled labourer, to a considerable extent. In localities where low caste labourers, owing to caste prejudices, are unable to compete with caste labourers, the latter, as a rule, demand exorbitant rates of wages and are getting themselves enriched more than the former. I have generally found a harmonious, and on the whole, sympathetic relations existing between the landholders and the labouring classes both in the districts in which I have served and in those which I have seen.

As far as I have seen and known of the condition of the labouring classes, I may safely say it is not what it was thirty or forty years ago, but has materially improved in several respects, and is improving, and will, I believe, improve steadily. Those who once formed the landless class, the petty traders, the artisans and the weavers who have chosen to work in the fields and elsewhere, have now acquired landed property

to some extent; the exact extent I am unable to say, as I have no records with me to ascertain it. But reference to the records of the registry offices, as well as to the records of the villages, will, I am sure, furnish ample evidence regarding the same.

If at all there is any class of people who are getting deteriorated, it is the peasant proprietary class, who do not work in the fields themselves owing to religious scruples and caste prejudices, but depend for work on the labouring classes; and next to these come those who depend upon the munificence of the well-to-do classes and earn their livelihood by rendering religious and other services. I am really at a loss to find any remedial measures to improve their condition; and, unless they resort to labour, they must die out.

(m)—*Tables showing the Income, Expenditure, Scale of Diet, &c., in different Countries.*

(1) *Statement showing the amount of Imports and Exports of all Nations measured by value (extracted from "Mulhall's History of Prices").*

	Millions Sterling.					Per inhabitant in 1884
	1850	1860.	1870	1880	1884.	
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Great Britain	193	376	547	698	686	19.0
France	75	167	227	339	315	8.4
Germany	105	160	212	315	331	7.0
Russia	32	46	100	121	114	1.3
Austria	29	51	83	128	137	3.5
Italy	26	46	74	96	99	3.4
Spain and Portugal	20	30	41	64	74	3.5
Holland	44	56	71	121	144	34.2
Belgium	35	48	64	116	116	20.3
Scandinavia	17	30	42	55	66	7.4
Europe ...	576	1,010	1,461	2,053	2,082	7.0
United States	64	137	172	309	276	4.9
South America	38	62	85	101	104	3.9
India	18	69	104	138	157	8

For India 10 Rs. = £ 1

(2) Table showing the Income, the Amount of Taxes paid and the proportion of Taxes to Income in some of the European Countries ("Mulhall's History of Prices").

	Income, Millions Sterling			Percentage of Agricultural to Total Income.	Taxes, Millions Sterling	Ratio of Taxes to Income.
	Agricultural.	Non-agricultural.	Total			
United Kingdom ..	£ 263	£ 984	£ 1,247	21	£ 88	7 1
France	435	530	965	44	142	14 7
Russia	482	366	848	57	92	10 8
Italy	174	171	345	52	62	18 0
Spain ...	133	85	218	60	35	16 0
Europe	2,476	3,102	5,578	44	632	11 3
India ..	860	180	540	67	48	8 9

(3) Table showing the Wages of the Working Classes and the National Income in France (extracted from the article on "the wages of the working classes and the national income in France," published in the "Journal of the Royal Statistical Society for March 1891").

Average wages per diem.			Men.		Women	
			s.	d.	s.	d.
Country districts	2	1	1	4
Provincial towns		.	2	10	1	5
Paris	4	6	2	2
Millions.					Production.	Million £.
17.7	Agricultural population					400
19.3	Non-agricultural population					435
37.0						835
<i>Distribution of Incomes.</i>						
Millions.	Working classes.					Million £.
3.4	Agricultural labourers	80
3.8	Industrial and commercial workmen	144
1.1	Employés and other persons receiving wages	40
2.0	Domestics	56
10.3	Total wages and salaries	320
3.7	Small landowners, artizans, transport agents, soldiers, sailors, minor functionaries, schoolmasters, &c., whose resources do not exceed the maximum wages of the <i>ouvrier</i>	160
Capitalists properly so called.						
1.7	Landowners	} 420
1.0	Manufacturers, merchants, &c	
1.0	Rentiers and members of the liberal professions	
17.7	Total	900

The capitalist classes get £112 per family after payment of the services of domestics and of taxation.

(4) Table showing the Distribution of Incomes of Great Britain and Ireland. (Mr. Giffen.)

	Persons	Incomes		
	Millions	Agricultural Million £	Non-agricultural Million £	Total Million £
I.—Great Britain.				
Income-tax incomes	1 4	90	486	576
Upper and middle classes below income-tax	1 5	23	84	107
Manual labourers	11 6	70	445	515
Total	14 5	183	1,015	1,198
II.—Ireland				
Income-tax incomes	0 1	10	16	26
Upper and middle classes below income-tax	0 3	7	4	11
Manual labourers	1 6	20	15	35
Total	2 0	37	35	72
Grand Total	16 5	220	1,050	1,270

(5) Statement showing the Cost of living per inhabitant (extracted from "Mulhall's Dictionary of Statistics").

Daily Expenditure.

	Pence per inhabitant					
	Food.	Clothing	Rent	Taxes.	Sundries.	Total.
United Kingdom	9.0	2.6	2.2	2.4	4.6	20.8
France	7.0	2.2	1.8	2.7	1.7	15.4
Germany	6.5	1.8	1.2	1.9	1.4	12.8
Russia	4.1	1.0	0.4	0.8	0.3	6.6
Austria	5.8	1.6	0.8	1.2	0.7	10.1
Italy	4.2	1.0	0.6	1.4	0.4	7.6
Spain	4.6	1.2	0.7	1.5	0.4	8.4
Belgium and Holland	6.7	2.1	1.1	1.7	2.2	13.8
Scandinavia	6.0	1.6	0.9	1.2	1.4	11.1
Europe	6.0	1.6	1.1	1.6	0.9	11.2
United States	7.0	3.1	1.8	2.0	1.7	15.6

(6) Table showing the Cost of living of the English Labourer and Mechanic per annum ("Mulhall's Dictionary of Statistics").

Items.	Labourer			Mechanic		
	1792.	1823	1883	1792.	1823	1883
Bread, meat, &c	£ 16	£ 17	£ 20	£ 18	£ 20	£ 22
Groceries	2	3	5	4	6	8
Rent	2	3	4	3	4	6
Clothing, &c	7	8	8	17	22	24
Total	27	31	37	42	52	60

(7) *Statement showing the relation between wages and food*
(extracted from "Mulhall's Dictionary of Statistics").

	Shillings per week.		
	Wages.	Food.	Ratio of food expenses to wages earned.
			PER CENT.
Great Britain	31	14	45
France	21	12	57
Germany	16	10	62
Belgium	20	12	60
Italy	15	9	60
Spain	18	10	62
United States	48	16	33
Australia	40	11	27

(8) *Statement showing the scale of diet prescribed in Jails in the Madras Presidency (Jail Code).*

(a)—The daily diet scale for European and East Indian long-term prisoners is as follows:—

Articles.	Labouring prisoners.	Females and non-labouring male prisoners.
Bread	Oz. 18	16
Meat, uncooked	4½	3
Potatoes	8	6
Vegetables	6	6
Flour	5	
Suet	½	
Salt	1	½
Rolong or syce meal	2	
Dholl meal	1	1
Coffee	Pint 1	1
Tea	1	1
Sugar	Oz. 2½	1½
Onions	1	1
Pepper	¼	¼
Mint and parsley	½	½
Rice	Oz. 5	5

On Mondays, Wednesdays and Sundays, vegetables and dholl meal are not given and rice is reduced to 4 oz. in the case of labouring prisoners and increased to 6 oz. in the case of non-labouring prisoners. On these days meat is increased to 7 oz. in the case of the first and to 4 oz. in the case of the second. On Saturdays instead of potatoes three additional ounces of rice are given, and ½ oz. of curry powder is substituted for mint, parsley and pepper. The allowance of firewood is 2 lb. per diem.

(b)—The daily diet scale for Native Convicts is as follows :—

				Labouring prisoners.	
Grain—				oz.	
Ragi	} sifted flour or without husk	24	
Cholum			
Cumbu			
Dholl			
Butter-milk, tyre	10	Three days a week, not mutton days.
Ghee or oil	$\frac{1}{2}$	
Tamarind	$\frac{3}{4}$	
Salt	$\frac{3}{4}$	
Curry-powder	$\frac{1}{2}$	
Vegetables	4	
Onions	$\frac{1}{2}$	
Garlic	30	grains on mutton days.
Mutton or fish	5 oz.	without bone or $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of salt fish three days in the week.
Firewood	$1\frac{1}{2}$	lb.

Remarks.—Females and non-labouring male prisoners get 20 oz. of grain instead of 24 oz. and 4 oz. of mutton instead of 5 oz. Any of the three grains may be used. 25 oz. of cumbu is to be considered as equivalent to 24 oz. of ragi or cholom. Labouring prisoners are to have two substantial meals, before going to work, and on returning from it, with a third light meal at midday. No rice less than six months' old is to be issued to prisoners. Dholl must be carefully husked. The allowance of fresh vegetables may be increased on the recommendation of the medical officer to any reasonable extent that can be supplied by the Jail garden. The weight of vegetables must be calculated after the stalks, skins and refuse have been separated, and only good succulent vegetables are to be used. The allowance of salt may, in times of epidemic cholera, be increased by order of the medical officer. The allowance of meat must be estimated without bone. Good ordinary grass-fed mutton or goats' flesh should be supplied. When dried or salt-fish is used, $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. will be considered=5 oz. of fresh fish. Brahmins and other non meat-eating *castes* may be allowed 1 oz. of ghee or oil or 2 oz. of dholl with 10 oz. of butter-milk on meat days in lieu of mutton. In districts where cocoanuts are plentiful, 2 oz. of copra may be given in lieu of $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of oil or ghee. Mango pickles may be substituted for tamarind when procurable. All kinds of grain used must be good, of thin kind and nutritious, not too new nor too old, and the quantity should be a fair average of the produce of the local markets. All unripe, mildewed or weevil eaten grain must be rejected and the grain should be free from all external impurities.

(9) *The particulars noted below have reference to the scale of diet in use among the ryot-population in a village near Coimbatore.*

The cost of food of Brahmin and other high castes per male adult in villages may be taken to be Rs. 3-12-0 per mensem or 2 annas per diem. Among labourers of the lower castes, the ordinary cost is about Rs. 1-12-6, or 1 anna per head per diem. The particulars are shown below :—

	Higher castes.				Lower castes.		
	Rs.	A.	P.		Rs.	A.	P.
Rice	2	0	0	Cholam	1	0	0
Salt	0	1	6	Horse gram	0	1	0
Dholl	0	1	6	Salt	0	1	6
Chillies	0	0	6	Chillies	0	0	6
Tamarind	0	1	0	Onions	0	0	6
Black gram (powdered)	0	2	0	Sundries	0	1	0
Butter-milk	0	2	6	Kerosine-oil	0	1	6
Ghee	0	5	0	Gingelly-oil	0	2	0
Kerosine-oil, for light...	0	2	6	Tamarind	0	0	6
Gingelly-oil	0	2	0	Betel leaves, areca nut and tobacco	0	4	0
Firewood	0	8	0				
Vegetables	0	1	0				
				Total	1	12	6
Total	3	11	6				

Vegetables, firewood, &c., are seldom purchased.

(10) *Scale of weekly diet to Soldiers and Convicts (Muthall).*

	Ration.	Nitrogenous.	Carbon.
	LB.	LB.	LB.
British soldiers in England	25·7	2·46	4·84
British soldiers in India	20·0	2·33	4·52
English convicts } in England	22·2	1·83	4·99
Farm labourers }	22·1	1·82	5·11

The 25·7 lb., the allowance of British soldier in England, is made up as follows :—

	LB.
Bread	7·0
Cooked meat	3·5
Vegetables	7·0
Sugar	0·7
Sundries	7·5
Total	25·7

(11) *Frankland's table of food required to lift a male adult (weighing 10 stones) 10,000 feet.*

	Quantity.		Cost.		Quantity		Cost.
	LB.	D.			LB.	D.	
Milk	8.02	15		Bread	2.35	5	
Apples	7.82	12		Rice	1.34	5	
Fish	6.37	25		Flour	1.31	4	
Potatoes	5.07	4		Arrowroot	1.29	15	
Beef	3.58	36		Oatmeal	1.28	3	
Ham	3.00	38		Cheese	1.15	12	

(12) *(Lyons' food tables).—The following is the quantity of cereals and pulses required by an adult weighing 110 lb. (the average weight of labourers in this country) for his nourishment. To cereals $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of fat or oil or ghee and not less than $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of salt should be added.*

				Hard labour diet.	Light labour diet.	Subsistence scale.
				oz.	oz.	oz.
(1)	Rice	16.61	14.77	14.91
	Pulses	7.11	5.97	3.78
				23.72	20.74	18.69
(2)	Cholum	17.85	15.86	16.03
	Pulses	.	.	5.87	4.88	2.66
				23.72	20.74	18.69
(3)	Cumbu	19.56	17.46	15.55
	Pulses	4.16	3.28	3.14
				23.72	20.74	18.69
(4)	Ragi	18.54	16.45	14.63
	Pulses	5.18	4.29	4.06
				23.72	20.74	18.69
(5)	Wheat	23.72	20.74	18.69
(6)	Wheat	12.30	10.40	10.93
	Rice	8.30	7.39	7.46
	Pulses	3.12	2.95	0.30
				23.72	20.74	18.69

The above tables are based on the nourishment required by a labourer in England whose average weight is 150 lb. It is assumed that the work done and the nourishment required vary directly as the weight and no allowance is apparently made for the smaller quantity of food required in hot climates.

In calculating the cost of food, the value of rice may be taken to be 30 lb., of the dry grains 50 lb., of wheat 15 lb., and of dhol 25 lb., per rupee.

SECTION VI.—CERTAIN ALLEGED EVILS
IN THE PRESENT ECONOMIC POSITION AND REMEDIAL
MEASURES CONSIDERED.

(A).—LAND SETTLEMENTS.

- (1) *Remarks on the method adopted by the Settlement Department for calculating the outturn of lands and its money value for fixing the Government assessment on the lands.*

In his "Memorandum on the Revision of Land Settlements in the N.-W. Provinces" by Mr. (now Sir) Auckland Colvin, written in 1872 when he was Secretary to the Board of Revenue in those Provinces, he has forcibly pointed out the impracticability of valuing lands for the purpose of assessing the land tax by endeavouring to ascertain the net produce of different qualities of soil. He remarks:—

"It is impossible to form an accurate conception of the process of assessment in these Provinces until one very general, but very important, error is explained. Because, in theory, the Government which we succeeded asserted a right to a share in the gross produce of the land, it is very frequently assumed that a settlement should still rest on a calculation of the gross produce, the cost of cultivation and the net yield of every field. The land is represented to be a kind of *tabula rasa* on which the settlement officer may frame any estimates he likes of capabilities and outturn. Hence, we hear of the necessity of settlement officers being experts in agricultural matters; of the rise in revenue bearing no ratio to the alleged rise in prices; of the ruinous waste of revenue involved in our settlements, and so on. It must be stated here once for all, that with the gross produce of the land, as the basis of assessment, the settlement officer in the North-West, except in tracts where rents are paid in kind, has little or nothing to do."

The plan of finding out the net produce of each field was tried in the N.-W. Provinces and was given up as impracticable. The following extracts from the report of the Saharanpore Settlement officer quoted in Sir Auckland Colvin's memorandum very clearly illustrate the difficulty in ascertaining the gross and net produce of soils.

Saharanpore Settlement officer.—"I have not made any use of the facts brought out by the actual cutting and weighing of the crop in 1864-65, because, as will be seen by the average rates, the jumma which would thus be gained would be the enormous sum of Rs. 16,96,824, the present jumma being Rs. 8,29,155 and my proposed jumma (the utmost assessable in my opinion) Rs. 8,88,699. This fact appears to me sufficient to show the fallaciousness of such data; and I proceed to show the reasons for their being so fallacious and do so at some length, as my action in the matter has been questioned:—

"(a) Too small an area could be appraised by a European officer. When so small a plot as one-tenth of an acre is taken as the measure of the whole, an enormous number of fields must be appraised in order that, by the rule of averages, the little errors in excess in one part may

be checked by the reverse kind of errors in another part. But it takes about three hours to cut and weigh the crop of a field on the spot. On an average this operation can only go on simultaneously in two fields at a time. For the 'Khureef' there are less than two and for the 'Rubbee' less than one month available for the purpose, that is, some seventy-six working days; *i.e.*, no more than 152 different fields can be appraised by the European Officer, even if he gives up two-thirds of the time available for inspecting his villages; and you must recollect what pressure was put on me to finish this work speedily. Bearing in mind that it is necessary to find out the average produce of some dozen and-a-half different kinds of crop on eight different classes of soil irrigated and unirrigated, it is easy to see what a small basis of calculation can be obtained for each soil; add to this, the fact that the appraisement had to be made in 41 groups of villages by two officers within the limit of one year, and that till the inspection was over it could not be ascertained how these groups would be divided, and the impossibility of procuring broad enough data for the calculation is apparent.

“(b) The native officials to whom part of the task was entrusted, with the wish of avoiding the imputation of lowering the apparent assets of a village, fell into the opposite extreme, and in spite of orders to choose in each village, at least one good, one average and one inferior field, rejected all the really bad fields.

“(d) The native officials taking the soils as given in the settlement papers, in many cases put down as *meesum* that which had not been manured for many years.

“(e) No allowance can be made for the numerous *tukm sokht* fields where seed is annually sown on the mere chances of a favorable fall of rain.

“(f) No allowances can with any certainty be made for the little unproductive places at the corners and edges of fields; nor do I see how to make accurate allowances for the charges of weighing and carriage which fall on the Zemindars and the latter of which varies with the distance from the bazaar. Nor can it be ascertained what amount the Zemindar is forced by his necessities to sell at the low harvest price and what portion he can reserve till the price rises.

“(g) The appraisement of the inferior crops—bajra, mote, oorud, lobia, mundwa, &c., in the Khureef; gram, mussoor, &c., in the Rubbee—is particularly difficult. The produce has to be exposed for days to the wind and sun before the grain can be separated. Who is to watch during this time? It was the Zemindar's (peasant proprietor's) interest of course, to lower the apparent outturn, and I could feel no confidence in the result of an operation which I had not witnessed throughout with my own eyes; yet this was in most cases incompatible with the task of inspecting fresh villages every morning. The consequence was the appraisement was far too much limited to the better classes of crops,—cotton and mukkee for the Khureef, wheat and barley for the Rubbee. This was the case in Mr. Daniell's pergunahs as well; but of course to make such an operation a true measure of the actual outturn the several crops must be cut in the same proportion in which they are grown.

"(h) I found that there was a decided difference in the weight of a crop according as it was cut at the commencement or end of the harvest. The grain was drier and lighter at the end than at the beginning; consequently the outturn of crops cut at the commencement of the season was unduly overstated. What allowance to make on this account I know not; yet a difference of a couple of seers in the produce of one-tenth of an acre comes to a serious amount on the whole. . . ."

In the Madras settlements the grain experiments were really very few, considering the number of soils and of crops the outturn of which had to be ascertained. To take the two districts in which the number of experiments was the largest, viz., Nellore and Coimbatore. In Nellore, the experiments were made during seven years. The number was for jonna 2,771, for aruga 425 and for paddy 2,230. This amounts to hardly one experiment for each sort of soil (and there are 66 of them) in a year for each taluk which is oftentimes bigger than an English county. In Coimbatore, 1,542 experiments were made as regards the outturn of the three dry grains—cumbu, cholam and ragi—in five taluks in two years. The number hardly amounts to one for each grain for each sort of soil.

The cultivation expenses are even more difficult to ascertain. The cost of cultivation varies with agricultural skill and efficiency of labour in different localities and with the characteristics of different castes of laborers in the same locality. In some of the Madras settlements the cultivation expenses were not ascertained for each variety of soil; it was ascertained with more or less accuracy for one sort of soil and increased or decreased in proportion to the assumed outturn in the case of other soils. This was particularly the case in Kurnool and the same method has been proposed to be adopted in the case of Tanjore. In his "Analysis" of the agricultural statistics of the Kurnool district, Mr. Benson points out the fallaciousness of this method. He remarks that "the system of calculating the working expenses of the ryot by which these decrease in proportion to the assessed value of the land is radically wrong," and that "in fact, within certain limits the expenses for the production of the standard crop of jonna vary rather inversely to the quality of the land dealt with."

The quotations of prices of food grains for the old years on the average of which the commutation rates are based cannot also be relied upon as accurate. These prices are given in terms of garce (a measure of capacity containing 3,200 Madras measures), and the Board of Revenue found in 1885 that the local officers had committed many mistakes in converting the quotations in terms of local measures into quotations in terms of garce. - The following are instances. In Ganjam the local measures were converted to garce at the rate of 1,600 tooms to a garce. The toom, however, is not a measure of uniform capacity throughout the district, its contents in rice varying from 240 to 280 tolas at the several stations. The conversion is correct only as regards those stations in which the toom of 240 tolas rice is in use. In Cuddapah a garce was assumed to be equivalent to 3,200 local measures of 132 tolas each or one-tenth more than its real contents. In Kurnool the three varieties of local measures of 86, 114 and 132

tolas, were converted into garce at the same rate, viz., 3,200 measures. In South Arcot 3,200 local measures of $140\frac{3}{8}$ tolas rice were assumed to be equivalent to a garce which is thus taken to be one-seventh larger than it is. In Tanjore no uniform principle was adopted, the conversion being effected at the rate of 116 kalams or 2,784 local measures in some taluks and in others at the rate of $133\frac{1}{2}$ kalams or 3,200 local measures. The contents in rice of the measures in use in this district being either 133 or 144 tolas, the garce was assumed to contain 10 and 20 per cent. more than it really does. The Board had the prices in terms of garce for years subsequent to 1873 re-calculated with reference to the retail prices recorded since that year, but as regards the prices of the previous years on which the commutation rates adopted for the settlements already concluded are based, it was found impossible to apply any corrections to them.

These considerations are sufficient to show the almost insuperable difficulties met with in effecting land valuations and the imperfect character of the data which have to be made use of for the purpose.

(2) Statement showing the increase or decrease in the occupied area and in the assessment caused by the introduction of the Survey and Settlement.

District ;	Area.				Assessment.				Remarks.
	As per Revenue Accounts.	As per Survey.	Difference.	Percent- age.	As per Revenue Accounts.	As per Settlement.	Difference.	Percent- age.	
Ganjam	ACS. 280,572	ACS. 336,167	+ 55,595	20	RS. 6,55,732	RS. 7,20,449	+ 64,717	10	
Vizagapatam	93,652	105,751	+ 12,099	13	2,16,613	2,49,743	+ 33,130	15	
Godavari { Western Delta Eastern and Central Deltas and Uplands	142,558	188,390	+ 45,832	32	5,75,143	8,50,564	+ 2,75,421	48	(a)
	Not available.	390,709			11,35,259	12,43,578	+ 1,08,319	10	(a)
Total		579,099			17,10,402	20,94,142	+ 3,83,740	22	
Kistna { Masulipatam Guntur	391,844	399,402	+ 7,558	2	5,76,474	8,75,051	+ 2,98,577	52	(a)
	1,291,547	1,394,863	+ 103,316	8	24,21,589	25,91,289	+ 1,69,700	7	
Total	1,683,391	1,794,265	+ 110,874	7	29,98,063	34,66,340	+ 4,68,277	16	
Nellore	910,352	910,078	- 274		17,10,412	18,98,568	+ 1,88,156	11	
Cuddapah	1,161,613	1,258,540	+ 96,927	8	15,19,259	16,27,135	+ 1,07,876	7	
Kurnool	1,121,553	1,226,413	+ 104,860	9	12,87,123	13,27,500	+ 40,377	3	
Chingleput	488,646	544,093	+ 55,447	11	13,57,612	14,10,576	+ 52,964	4	
North Arcot	627,027	706,056	+ 79,029	13	17,47,530	17,81,257	+ 33,727	2	
Salem	1,048,239	1,208,588	+ 160,349	15	17,29,016	17,97,381	+ 68,365	4	
Coimbatore	2,192,940	2,336,046	+ 143,106	7	24,51,880	26,56,792	+ 2,04,912	8	
Trichinopoly	647,245	764,496	+ 117,251	18	15,82,074	11,94,018	- 3,88,056	- 25	
Tinnevelly	1,299,296	1,396,644	+ 97,348	7	25,25,366	24,73,398	- 51,968	- 2	
Madura	874,082	941,825	+ 67,743	8	15,75,468	15,82,577	+ 7,109	0.5	
Nilgiris	64,150	112,589	+ 48,439	75	33,632	68,559	+ 34,927	103	(b)
Total	12,635,316	{ 13,829,941 390,709	+ 1,194,625	9	2,31,00,182	243,48,435	+ 12,48,253	5	

(a) The increase of revenue by settlement includes water-rate on lands brought under cultivation by means of water taken from ancient works in the Godavari and Kistna Deltas recently constructed. The water-rate was at first tentatively fixed at Rs 3 per acre and was raised to Rs 4 per acre at the time when the new settlement was introduced. The increase is also due to some extent to lands under the influence of the Godavari and Kistna anicuts having been assessed at a higher rate, in view of the prospective advantages of irrigation from the anicuts works.

(b) The increase of revenue by settlement is due to the imposition of a pepper corn rent on a large area of waste land included under private holdings, which, under the previously existing revenue system, was charged for only when cultivated.

(3) *Extract from Mr. Giffen's article on "Taxes on Land," printed in his "Essays on Finance," 1st Series.*

"Clearly, if the phenomena of the last thirty years are about to be repeated—and there is a reasonable chance that they will be, for there is no sign of check to the growth of population or the increase of machinery and inventions—it is much to be wished that a better system should, if possible, be at work than has hitherto existed, for securing to the nation a portion of the augmenting value of its soil. The problem, however, is excessively difficult, and I doubt very much whether Mr. Mill's own suggestion, which must be first considered, will be found, as a general measure, to answer the purpose. It is in effect a proposal to go straight to the end in view—that the State should inquire at prescribed intervals what is the augmenting rental of land, and make a charge upon the owners of some definite portion of that augmentation. If there is no increase of rental due to general causes, there will be no increase of tax, and owners who object will have the opportunity of surrendering their estate on what Mr. Mill's enemies must admit will be full compensation. One objection to this proposal is that it is almost wholly novel in European countries, at least where the art of taxation has been most carefully studied, and is least of all fitted for a country in the circumstances of England. Mr. Mill has apparently in view the ideal of the *Foncier* taxes on the continent, in which the process is for the State at a certain date to impose a lump charge on the whole land of the country in proportion to its estimated value, and then apportion this charge among the various localities and parts of soil in the country, by a carefully arranged *Cadastré*. But there is nothing more tedious in fact than the completion of a *Cadastré*, or unequal when it is completed. Even in France, which has set the example in these *Foncier* taxes, the new *Cadastré*, which was commenced forty years ago, was only completed the other day, and while it was being put into operation the value of the whole land subject to it was changing. It is hardly possible to imagine that even if in England we could give that attention to the nice adjustment of competing qualities of land or property, which could alone make the basis of French direct taxes endurable, we should be content to await the slow development of a pretentiously perfect, but really imperfect, *Cadastré* for a period of 40 years. It is a still more fatal objection that such taxes do not appear to draw. It is officially estimated in France that the annual value of real property has increased since 1821 from £64,000,000 to £160,000,000, which is quite comparable with the increase in England. But while the rates have risen in England from about £10,000,000 to £17,000,000, the special land tax of France has only risen from £11,720,000 to £12,280,000, including the additional hundredths imposed for local purposes, as well as the 'principal' of the tax. The special tax of England is thus more elastic and effective than the special tax of France, which is proposed as a model. Besides, if these objections could be got over, if it could be shown that an improved *Cadastré* is easily possible, and is capable of frequent renewal, there would remain the objection that such a tax, so imposed, might interfere with the enjoyment of private property in an inexpedient manner. It would be very difficult to re-assure individuals against the operations of the tax assessors.

Every few years they would foresee a demand of an indefinite amount, depending on many points of taste and opinion, and they would only have the alternative of paying or surrendering their property to the State. Careful as Mr. Mill is to suggest safe-guards, the essential nature of the transaction would be such as to destroy confidence in the continuity of private right in some particular plot of land. The apprehensions might in the main be unfounded, but their existence would be a public calamity, unless the theory is admitted that the abolition of private property would be beneficial, which in some localities it might be.

“Turning from this suggestion, I think there is much to be said in favor of our present special taxes on land, imperfect as we have shown them to be. They have permitted the growth of an immense mass of value in the hands of individuals only, and at a very recent date there was a sudden reduction of the burden, by which a small class received a considerable gain. But with all their imperfections, they have the merit of elasticity. They are set apart for the discharge of certain branches of expenditure ; and, without fluctuating so widely as to disturb property rights, they may be increased materially, and so reserve for the State some portion, however insignificant it may be, of the augmenting value of property. This is no small merit, especially when compared with the model of the continental land taxes, which have no such capacity of expansion. It is an additional convenience, that, as the branches of expenditure which are thrown specially on this property are local, local administration and local taxation can be associated. In this view, the rates are, in fact, a happy English invention, by which different and unconnected advantages are obtained in a rough practical fashion, and as it is a familiar system we have another obvious reason for trying to make the most of it. Could not something more be made of it ? It will be of some use perhaps if the discussion of the principles on which the burden is imposed makes it clear that no injustice is now committed—that the support of a certain burden of expenditure is a condition of the enjoyment of the property which the State may properly impose. Every one knows the condition beforehand, and as it is quite a calculable one, notwithstanding the loud talk of the increase of rates and the addition of new rates, there is no inexpediency in it as a too heavy restriction on the enjoyment of private property in land. But the discussion, I think, may do more, and justify the imposition of new charges which are convenient for local administration. As the tendency of the functions of local Government is to increase, and the additional expense has not yet proved commensurate with the increase of the value of property, we have a security in the recognition of this principle, both for the reservation to the State of a part of that value—though, I fear, a most inadequate part—and for the safety of private property against any great disturbance. If I might venture to make a suggestion, there is one new charge which escapes notice, and which might very properly be treated as a branch of local expenditure ; the army for home defence ought to be locally maintained. For many reasons it is important that a good deal of local management and self-government should be associated with the organization of our militia and volunteers and the charges might very properly fall on the rates. This

would not only relieve the Imperial army estimates of a heterogeneous charge, but by really associating localities with the work, would contribute much to the strength and vitality of our home system of defence. There is another way in which something more could be made of the present system. Under the hap-hazard methods and want of principle which have hitherto prevailed, the local rates have gradually been relieved of a large portion of the burden which properly falls upon them. On one pretext or another the Imperial exchequer has been drawn on for 'grants' amounting annually in England to a million and a quarter, by which the growth of the local burden has been retarded—or in other words, the individual landowner has been permitted to retain a larger share than otherwise he would retain of the augmenting value of land. Good reasons, I think, have been furnished for putting a stop to this system, if rates continue to be the form of our special tax. The proper course would now be to institute a mode of discontinuing the grants by degrees, according to a defined scale, and so reimpose on property a burden which it has escaped." *

(4) *Statistics showing the amount of taxes on land in various countries and its ratio to total agricultural production (extracted from "Mulhall's Statistical Dictionary").*

Countries	Taxes	Agricultural production.	Tax percentage.
	Millions £	Millions £.	
England ...	16 2	157	10 3
Scotland	1·9	40	4 8
Ireland	2 7	54	5 0
United Kingdom	20·8	251	8·3
France	21 8	460	4 8
Germany	12 7	424	3 0
Austria Proper	8 6	175	4 9
Italy	14 2	204	7 0
Belgium	1·53	55	2 8
Holland	1·08	39	2 8
Egypt	4 89	35	14 0
India	23 4	400	5 8
	109 0	2,043	5 4

In the United Kingdom the taxes on agriculture are distributed as follows:—

Taxes	England	Scotland.	Ireland	Total.
	Millions £	Millions £.	Millions £	Millions £.
Tithes	4·05	4 05
Rates	8 30	1 40	2 10	11 80
Income-tax	1·20	20	25	1 65
Land-tax	1 05	·05	..	1 10
Duties and stamps	1 60	·25	·35	2 20
	16 20	1·90	2 70	20 80

* NOTE.—It should be remembered that Mr. Giffen's remarks in the concluding portion of the above extract were made in 1871, before the present agricultural depression and the great fall in the rent-value of lands had set in, in England

In France the taxes levied in 1874 were distributed as follows :—

					Millions £.
National	4 8
Departmental	4 8
Indirect	8 6
Roads, &c.	3 6
					21 8

The rental of land in France was estimated in 1874 at 158 millions £.

(B).—TENURE OF RYOTS IN ZEMINDARIES.

(1) *Extracts from the remarks of the Madras Board of Revenue on the relative rights of Zemindars and Tenants.*

In Proceedings, dated 2nd December 1864, No. 7843, the Board reviewed the history of the relative rights of Zemindars and ryots and arrived at the following conclusions, viz. :—

“That in the earliest times of which we have record, the right of the State to a share in the produce of the land was *limited*, and that this limit was such as to leave a sufficient margin for the growth of a valuable property in the land appertaining to the occupant, whose right to retain possession on payment of the limited share was inviolable and hereditary ;

“That a fixed limit was equally maintained by the Muhammedan conquerors ;

“That the origin of the Zemindar’s office was comparatively a modern one, and that whatever its origin, the Zemindars derived their rights from the State, which could not confer more than it had possessed and exercised ;

“That the State asserted, and often in later times exercised, the power of resuming the exercise of its rights from the Zemindars without thereby altering the terms and conditions of the ryot’s tenure ;

“That any increase in the rate of the Zemindar’s demand on the ryots was only justified by the Zemindar on the plea that the State had raised its demands on him, although this ground was by no means a sufficient foundation for any increase in the *rate* ; inasmuch as the State share collected by the Zemindar could be legally increased by *extension* of cultivation, and its value enhanced by improvements in the cultivation, and when the superior kind of crops were grown, and as the State demand on the Zemindar was not fixed, though his percentage of the State share of the produce might have been so ;

“That the notorious prevalence of excessive receipts by the Zemindars from the ryots induced the Nazims of the Empire to raise the State demands on the Zemindars, which measure again excited the Zemindars still further to exact from the ryots, till the latter were ground down to penury, or exasperated to resistance. Hence the Zemindars were themselves impoverished, so long as, and where the officers of the Empire were able to maintain their authority

over them; or they fattened on extortion where the influence and authority of the Empire or its lieutenants had grown weak. In neither case was the State benefited;

“That the object steadily kept in view by the framers of the Permanent Settlement was to remedy these crying evils by re-adjusting matters; in order to which they proposed to relinquish to the Zemindars an ample allowance for their personal benefit, out of the average State demand in past years on the Zemindari, and to fix the Zemindar’s payment unalterably for ever, leaving to him all the benefits derivable from extension of cultivation and improvements in the culture of the lands, but to restrict his demands on the ryot to the rate or share established for Government by prescription, which rate was to be registered in the village by officers appointed for the purpose; while the actual demand on the individual ryot was to be recorded in a puttah or written engagement in accordance with this established rate or share, which puttahs when granted not ‘without limit of time’ but ‘for one year,’ should be renewable at its close, or be in force till renewed;

“That a limited time (six months) was allowed to each Zemindar after the Permanent Settlement of the State demand on his Zemindar, for the necessary arrangements with the ryots, after which time he became liable to fine if he failed to grant puttahs to ryots on demand;

“That when disputes arose regarding the rates to be specified in those puttahs, whether of assessment in specific quantities of grain or sums of money for a specified extent of land, or of shares in the produce, they were to be determined with reference to the rates in force in the particular case in the year preceding the Permanent Settlement of the State demand, or where that was not ascertainable, then according to the rates in force in the case of neighbouring land of similar quality;

“That no ryot can be ejected from his holding, so long as he pays, or is willing to pay, this established rate;

“That the Collector has summary powers to give decisions in such cases in a quasi judicial capacity, and may refer them for the decision of Panchayet when the parties agree;

“That appeals lie by regular suit to the Courts from the Collector’s decisions, but that the Panchayet’s decision is final where unimpeachable on the ground of corruption.”

(2) *Note on Judicial decisions affecting the rights of Zemindari Ryots.*

It is noteworthy that the decisions of the Madras High Court which really jeopardized the status of Zemindari ryots were not passed with reference to Zemindari ryots, but with reference to Government ryots. The decisions in Chockalinga Pillai *versus* Vythilinga Pandara Sannadi and Mrs. Jessie Foulkes *versus* Rajarathna Mudely (VI Madras High Court Reports, pages 164, &c., and 175, &c.) are supposed to have rendered the tenure of Zemindari ryots precarious. In the first case, the tenant on whose behalf occupancy right was claimed was a porakudi and the landlord was a Government ryot entitled to *kudivaram* and not *melvaram*. In the second case, the so-called puttadar was the lessee of the *melvaram* rights of a mittadar.

In neither case, therefore, was there a presumption in favor of permanent occupancy right according to the common law of the country. This has been laid down in subsequent decisions of the Madras High Court. In the case reported in Indian Law Reports, V Madras, page 345, the High Court observe: "It has never been the law in any part of India, of which we have experience, that a mere farmer of revenue or proprietary right acquires a right of occupancy." Both in this case and in the case reported in Indian Law Reports, VII Madras, page 374, the High Court further hold that *prima facie* porakudis are tenants from year to year, and that a claim on the part of porakudis to hold land permanently should be proved to have originated either in grant or prescription. The case in which the permanent occupancy right of ryots was called in question was Fakir Mahammed *versus* Tirumala Chariar (Indian Law Reports, I Madras, page 205) decided by a Full Bench composed of Sir Walter Morgan, Chief Justice and Messrs. Holloway and Innes, Judges, Mr. Innes dissenting. The decision was that an ordinary puttadar under Government is merely a tenant from year to year, and that the rules of the Board of Revenue asserting the contrary did not constitute rights enforceable at law. Mr. Innes pointed out the true state of the case, viz., that the ryot does not derive his title from the puttah, but from *occupation* of the land and registry of his name in the registers of landed property kept under Regulation 26 of 1802; that puttah is not a lease but merely a memorandum showing the revenue payable for each year on the holding with reference to changes in the extent of land newly taken up or relinquished, and remissions of revenue granted on account of loss of crop, &c.; and that by the common law of the country, a ryot holding land under this tenure is entitled to hold it as long as he pays the regulated assessment, or is evicted *in due course of law* for default. In a subsequent case reported in Indian Law Reports, IV Madras, page 174, decided by Messrs. Muthusami Aiyar and Tarrant, it was ruled that it was incumbent on the Mittadar to show that the *kudivaram* right as well as the *melvaram* right vested in him, so as to entitle him to eject the ryots in the mittah on notice, as tenants from year to year, and that there was nothing to show that the Mittadar was the proprietor in the sense that the *kudivaram* right belonged to him. Again in Subraya Mudeli *versus* Sub-Collector of Chingleput (Indian Law Reports, IV Madras, page 303), Sir Charles Turner observed that a puttah issued by Government will, unless it is otherwise stipulated, be construed to endure so long as the ryot pays the revenue he has engaged to pay. Mr. Innes laid down that the right of Government is only a right to a charge on the land, and a right to forfeit, *by due course of law*, the title of the person who does not pay the charge. In the Secretary of State *versus* Nunja (Indian Law Reports, V Madras, page 163) decided by Sir Charles Turner and Mr. Muthusami Aiyar, they stated "we see strong reason to doubt whether the view of the majority of the Court in that case (Fakir Mahammed *versus* Timmala Chariar) was right and when an occasion arises, we should propose that the ruling be reconsidered by the Full Bench." It is difficult to say whether the principle involved in the dictum of Sir Charles Turner that a puttah issued by Government, unless otherwise stipulated, will be construed to endure so long as the ryot pays the revenue he has engaged to pay

will be applied to Zemindari ryots. In *Venkatagopal versus Rangappa* (Indian Law Reports, VII Madras, page 365) decided by a Full Bench, the Madras High Court review the legislation in regard to landlords and tenants, but do not afford any indication of what their decision would be on the above point. The High Court in their judgment state that the permanent settlement regulations of 1802 had placed the rights of Zemindari ryots on an assured basis, and Regulations IV and V of 1822 jeopardized these rights. The statement seems to reverse the facts. The intention of the Regulations of 1822 undoubtedly was to prevent any doubt being cast upon the rights of the ryots by the provision in the permanent settlement regulations which declared Zemindars to be "proprietors of the soil." Further in this case, the High Court presumed an "implied contract" for the payment of a money-rent for the simple reason that the ryot had paid a money-rent at a certain rate for 14 years, though he objected to the payment of the money-rent as being excessive, and stated that he was prepared to divide the crop with the mittadar at the usual rates of varam. This he was entitled to do under clause 3 of section 11 of Act VIII of 1865. If the money-rent represented the money value of the mittadar's share of the crop at certain assumed rates, the clause gives the option to the ryot of rendering the rent at the rates demanded or of falling back upon a division of the crop when the parties could not agree to its future money valuation. The fact that for 14 years it suited the ryot to pay the money rates demanded, owing to the prices of produce then prevailing, would not show that he impliedly contracted to pay at the same rates when prices had fallen and were expected to fall further. In *Polu versus Ragavammal* (Indian Law Reports, XIV Madras, page 52) the High Court followed the ruling in *Venkatagopal versus Rangappa*, but in this instance it was the landlord and not the tenant that claimed payment of rent in kind.

(3) *Extract from the Report of Mr. Forbes on the condition of the Zemindari Ryots in the Ganjam district.*

Mr. Forbes writing in 1866 as Collector of Ganjam says, "I will now add a few words on the comparative merits of the ryotwari and Zemindari tenures as regards the condition of the tenants. In Ganjam, the assessment on ryotwari lands held under Government is light, and a series of years of very remunerative prices had enabled the ryots to accumulate substance; they had begun, prior to the famine, to achieve an independence before unknown to the class and to hold their own with the sowcar, in bargains for produce; had it not been for this circumstance, we should have had to choose between agricultural depopulation and the alternative of maintaining the whole class, as we have already maintained more than 20,000 souls.

"The Government ryot in Ganjam pays a light rent, and his interests are cared for by the preservation of the existing sources of irrigation.

"The 13 Oorya Zemindars of Ganjam are, with few exceptions, the most grasping landholders and the least enlightened proprietors in the world; they take 50 per cent. of the crops and lay out little or nothing in improving or even in maintaining irrigation works. They

rack-rent their villages to middle-men, and the under-tenants are consequently deprived of all chance of accumulating capital, and are little better than serfs of the soil; the bulk of the ryots in Zemindari estates would hail a change to Government management with joy. I limit these remarks to the Zemindari system as it is worked here. There may be liberal native landlords in other districts, whose policy produces different results; but in the Ganjam Zemindaries, the profits of the soil are divided between the ryot, the Zemindar, the renter and the Government. In the Government taluks, the ryot and the Government divide the produce, the ryot taking by far the larger share. There can be no question which class lives under the more favorable conditions, and in fact, when the famine fell upon Zemindari estates, the misery and mortality were far greater than in Government taluks."

- (4) *Extract from the Report of Mr. Cotton on the condition of the Ryots in the Kalahasti Zemindari, in the North Arcot district, quoted by Mr. W. Digby in his Memorandum on private relief in the Madras Famine 1877, p. 129, Appendix I, to the Report of the Famine Commission.*

"The Maderpauk division is the southern portion of Kalahasti Zemindari of the North Arcot district. The division contains 178 villages, not including hamlets; the population of which in 1871 amounted to 73,085; half to two-thirds of these are ryots, or people who earn their livelihood by agricultural pursuits. The greater number of the ryots, of whom the population chiefly consists, are always exceedingly poor, much more so, than in villages belonging to Government, for the following reasons:—The ryot who ploughs and cultivates the land has no real right of occupancy, and hence has no interest in improving his land by sinking wells and manuring it. The effects of this system can be seen at once by comparing the Inam villages of the Zemindari, with those directly under the Zemindar's control. In the fields of the former there are wells, the land is manured, and the owner consequently gets good crops and is generally well to do, living in a good substantial house. In the fields of the latter, there are no wells; and the fields having no fixed occupants are not manured, and give but a poor return to the labour expended on their cultivation; the villages (*sic in origine*) attached to the lands bear invariably a poverty-stricken look.

"The Zemindar, Venkatappa Naidu, C.S.I., collects his revenue, not in money, as is done in Government villages, but in kind. The Zemindar is supposed to receive one-half of the outturn of the crop and the cultivator is supposed to receive the other; but he rarely gets more than a quarter, the other quarter generally going to the subordinate Zemindari officials. What remains to the cultivator, after paying everything, is hardly sufficient to keep him and his family in food till the next harvest; so that, it is a case of living from hand to mouth. If the crops fail for one year for want of water or other causes, most of the cultivators are left absolutely destitute; and not only the cultivators and their families, but also the coolies, who, though not actually cultivating themselves, earn their livelihood by working for those that do. The cultivator, when his crops fail, has to use the seed, that he had put by for sowing, as food; when this is exhausted, he sells his

bullocks, &c., and having spent the money received from these, he is without any resources. He is unable to raise money on his fields from the sowcar, as he has no rights of occupancy; therefore his last hope is to get an advance from the Zemindar; failing this, he leaves his village and seeks work as a cooly elsewhere. This is what happened last year. In November we had excellent rains, but owing to the exhaustion of the cultivators, the fields remained unploughed. The Zemindar gave no advances, or to such a small extent that they were useless. Many ryots had already left their villages, and others were preparing to do so; roofless houses were seen in all directions and some small villages were entirely deserted."

- (5) *Extract from the Administration Report of the Pudukota State for 1881-82 by the Dewan-Regent Mr. A. Sashiah Shastriar, C.S.I., describing the evils of the system of collecting the Government assessment on land in kind by a division of the crops raised.*

"I have already remarked that the prevailing revenue system was the 'amani.' A very large portion of the lands under cultivation and believed to be of the best kind were held under this system. *The property in these lands was vested in the sirkar.* The ryots were in most cases tenants-at-will and theoretically could be turned out without their consent. The transfer or sale of such lands was void at law. The crop raised by the ryot (at his own expense generally, and at times assisted with seed-grain from sirkar) was shared half and half* between him and the sirkar. He moved his share to his own house and carried the sirkar share to the granaries provided for the purpose, and if there were none, kept it in his own house either in trust, or under the lock and key of the responsible sirkar village officers. These were the main features of the system, and to one who knows no more, they must appear on their face to be very just indeed. What could be more fair? The ryot and the sirkar, by sharing the crop equally, share equally the vicissitudes of season and market.

2. "During a life-long career of service, I have had opportunities of watching closely the evils of the sharing system in all its varied forms in many districts of the Madras Presidency, as well as in Travancore, and my experiences have been of an interestingly sad kind. To tell the whole tale would occupy more space than would be justifiable in this place. I shall, therefore, content myself with stating briefly what is the case in this State.

3. "The system is saturated with evils and frauds of a grave nature.

(a) "The ryots having no heritable or transferable property never cared to cultivate the amani lands in due season. If you saw a bit of cultivation at the tail-end of the season, the chances are it is 'amani.' Ryots prefer infinitely to cultivate other lands held on different tenures, such as inam, jeevithem and money assessed lands. To prevent this, a penal agreement is forced from them to the effect that they would not fail to cultivate the 'amani' lands first.

* This is the prevailing proportion, but it varied in special cases, sometimes two-fifths and sometimes half and so on.

(b) "As soon as the ears of the grain make their appearance, an army of watchers called kanganies (literally eye-watchers) is let loose. As they get no pay for the duty and are for the most part the old militia of the country, on whom this kind of work is imposed since fighting time had departed, and get a grain fee on the crop they watch, their watch is at best often lax.

(c) "When the crop arrives towards maturity, it is the turn of sirkar village officers and the village headmen (called mirasidars here) to go round the fields and note down estimates of the crop. That there is considerable wooing and feeling at this stage goes for the saying. As in other matters, so in this, the race is to the rich and woe to the poor.

(d) "As soon as the village officers have done and reported the first estimate, down come special estimators from the taluk cutcherries to check the first estimate. Their demands have equally to be satisfied. Then comes the business of obtaining permission to cut and stack the crops. Here again another stage, where much feeling and grudge-paying take place. If permission is delayed just two days, an adverse shower of rain irreparably damages the crop on the field, or over-exposure to the sun renders the grain unmarketable.

(e) "Then comes the threshing and division of the grain on the threshing-floor. What takes place then may be imagined. If the outturn is less than the estimate, the ryot is made responsible for the *difference* without any further ado. If it is more, woe be to the *estimators*. The result in the latter case is often that the difference is made away with and shared half and half between the ryot and the officers concerned. During all this time the unpaid army of the watchers continues on duty.

(f) "Now the sirkar grain is removed to the granaries. Is all danger over now? By no means. A fresh series of frauds commences. The granaries have neither impregnable walls, nor are their locks Chubb's patents. The half-famished vettiyan, the hereditary watchman of the village, mounts guard, and he and the village headmen are personally held responsible for any deficiency which may occur on the re-measurement of the grain *out* of the granary. It often happens the poor vettiyan, stung by hunger, is driven to certain deeds much against his conscience. Scaling over the mud walls or forcing open the too easily yielding village locks, he helps himself from time to time to what his urgent wants may dictate. It is not often he is able to replace, even if he was so minded, what he has appropriated before the day of reckoning comes. This comes sometimes soon and sometimes late, depending on the time when the paddy is required for sirkar purpose, or for sale to purchasers. When it does come, there is orimination and recrimination without end, the vettiyan charging the mirasidars, and the mirasidars the vettiyan. The sirkar officials, to vindicate its robbed rights, come down heavily on both, and often both are ruined. If the misappropriation is made in very small quantities, the way of replacement is very ingenious; a quantity of chaff or a quantity of loose earth or a quantity of big-grained sand is put in to make up the measure.

(g) "Time passes and the months denoting favorable markets come round. There now remains the business of disposing of the

sirkar grain from the granaries. Simple as it may appear, enormous difficulty is experienced, and we have to face another series of frauds now on the part of the taluk or superior officers. Tenders are invited, but only a few come and bid low. Tenders are again invited but to no better purpose. At last come upon the scene a set of unscrupulous fraudulent tradesmen or relatives or friends of those in authority, or mere speculators professing to give security, which is really worthless. These men bid higher prices and take up the grain in lots they require. They remove the grain, but make no payment down, but enter into promises to pay value in eight instalments and profess to give due security for the fulfilment of the promise. It not unfrequently happens that the purchaser decamps and his surety is found to have followed suit or found to be hollow. The money due on the sales to the relatives and friends of the officers outstands the longest. If, to avoid these troubles, the grain is taken direct to the nearest market to be there sold outright for cash, few could be induced to pay the market price, the sirkar grain being notoriously bad crop and unscrupulously adulterated.

“Such is a brief *résumé* of the beauties of the ‘amani’ system. Complaints against the system on the part of the poorer ryots were rife. The State was ringing with the news of the plunder practised every day. Honest-minded higher officers found themselves helpless to apply a remedy. The evils in all their realities came home to me. To knock the system on the head was the only remedy possible, and to this I had to apply myself as soon as I had ascertained the wishes of the people and had the leisure to begin. A beginning was made to substitute money assessments. It met with success and would have been carried through but for the unfortunate character of the season which deterred the ryots from entering into immediate arrangements. The plan adopted will be described in the next report.”

(6) *Suggestions as to amendments to be made in the law of landlord and tenant in the Madras Presidency.*

The following are the matters for which provision should be made in a law regulating the relations between Zemindars and ryots. The two main interests in the land are the melvaram and the kudivaram; and the two classes of land are “ryoti” or aiyar or peasant land, and pannai or kamar or private or domain land. In the former, the Zemindar has the melvaram right alone, and in the latter, he has both the melvaram and the kudivaram right. The distinction is well known throughout the Presidency, and is recognized by the common law of the country. Advantage should be taken of the distinction, and the relative rights of landlords and tenants should be defined on this basis. There would then be 4 classes of persons to be dealt with, viz., 1st, melvaramdar or the superior holder next after Government; 2nd, tenure holders or persons who have interests carved out of the melvaram; 3rd, the ryot proper or the possessor of the kudivaram right; and 4th, sub-ryots or persons holding under ryots interests carved out of the kudivaram. The second and fourth classes do not require any specific protection, and their rights may be left to be defined by contracts and the operation of the general law of prescrip-

tion, there being no presumption in their case according to the common law in regard to acquisition of permanent occupancy rights, except by grant or prescription. What the proposed law has to do is to define the relations of ryots proper to the melvaramdar immediately above them. The provisions to be made in their case are these :—

I. *As regards fixity of tenure.* (i) All lands to be presumed to be ryoti unless the contrary is shown; (ii) continuous possession as tenant of land, for 12 years, originally private, to convert it to ryoti land; (iii) all occupants of ryoti land to be considered to have permanent occupancy right in it; (iv) no occupant of ryoti land to be evicted except by a decree of court; (v) waste lands to be granted by the melvaramdar to the resident ryots in the first instance and failing them to strangers, on ryoti tenure on terms applicable to lands of similar description and quality in the village; (vi) ryots and melvaramdars to be entitled to apply to the Collector for a measurement of the holdings and determination of the classification of lands as ryoti or private; (vii) the melvaramdar to be entitled to apply to the court for permission to enclose waste land and add it to private land for the purpose of forming plantations, or growing jungles, and the application to be granted after giving notice to the ryots and hearing their objections in the manner provided in the Forest Conservancy Act, and making sufficient allowance for *bonâ fide* increase of cultivation and pasturage requirements of the ryots; (viii) Government to have power to order the survey of any estate whenever this may be deemed necessary in the interests of public peace, to determine once for all what lands are *ryoti* and what *private*; the cost to be charged to the melvaramdar and the ryots in defined proportions determined by the Collector with reference to the relative values of the interests of the melvaramdar and the ryots in the lands, and payable in instalments not exceeding 10 per cent. of the rent payable to the Zemindar; (ix) in private lands, the melvaramdar's rights to be governed by the ordinary laws of property and contract.

II. *As regards enhancement of rents and right to make improvements.* (i) Occupants of ryoti land not to be compelled to pay more than the customary rate of rent whether in money, grain or share of the crop, and not more than a "fair and equitable" rent in any case, i.e., a rent which leaves to the ryot enough to reimburse him for the cost of labour and cultivation together with a fair farming profit; (ii) the rent paid during the last 3 years to be considered "fair and equitable" unless the contrary be shown; (iii) the occupant of ryoti land to be at liberty to adopt any mode of cultivation he thinks fit, provided he pays a rent determined with reference to the *standard* crop of the village; (iv) he is to have the prior right to make permanent improvement to the land, and failing him, the melvaramdar is to have the right; (v) where the value of a ryoti holding becomes enhanced by the ryot's improvement he is to have the whole benefit of it; (vi) where the value becomes enhanced by the melvaramdar's improvement, the melvaramdar is to have the whole benefit, due allowance being made for any increase of cost of cultivation and for fair profit on such cost; (vii) where the increased value of the holding is due to water supplied by Government and the charge for water is directly paid by the ryot, the latter is to have the whole benefit; and if the Zemindar under-

takes to pay for the water, the additional charge leviable from the ryot to be fixed under general rules as regards the collection of water rate fixed by Government; (viii) where there is an increase in the productive powers of land by natural causes, increased agricultural skill and knowledge, discovery of cheap chemical manures, &c., the benefit is to be enjoyed by the ryot; (ix) when there is an increase in the money value of the holding due to enhanced prices of standard produce, the melvaramdar is to be entitled to claim additional rent not exceeding two-thirds of the proportionate increase in the rent, the remaining third being intended to defray the increased cost of cultivation, &c., due to increased price of produce; (x) enhancement by voluntary agreement not to exceed 2 annas in the rupee or 12½ per cent., whether in money or grain, the agreement to be in writing and registered; (xi) rent once enhanced by voluntary agreement or decree of court not to be liable to be enhanced again for 15 years; (xii) the court to be authorized to decree that increased rent to which the melvaramdar is entitled shall be imposed by gradual increments to prevent hardship to the ryot; (xiii) the ryot to be allowed abatement of rent for deficiency in the area of holding and also for loss of produce by natural causes in cases in which he is entitled to remission according to usage; (xiv) melvaramdar or the ryot to be entitled to apply to the court for the conversion of grain rents into money-rents; (xv) Government to frame rules and make arrangements for fixing the standard produce with reference to which rent is to be regulated and for periodical publication of lists of prices of produce, and (xvi) the above provisions not to apply to "private lands" of the melvaramdar.

III. *As regards the right to transfer or sub-let holdings.* (i) Right of transfer to be freely allowed to occupant of ryoti land, but the Zemindar to have a prior lien on the land transferred for unpaid balance of rent next after Government revenue, the balance, however, exceeding 3 years' rent not being enforceable against the land. Tenants of private land not to have any transferable right; (ii) sub-letting not to be allowed for more than 9 years at a time; (iii) melvaramdars to maintain a register of ryots paying rent to them and to register transfers of holdings by decree of Court or private contract, the transferor to continue liable for rent till the transfer is registered.

IV. *As regards the remedies to be provided for the recovery of rents.* (i) Landlord to be authorized to proceed under the special law for the recovery of rent only in cases in which he has tendered a puttah to the tenant such as the latter is bound to accept; (ii) the landlord's right to distrain to be limited to ungathered products or gathered products stored on the farm or the threshing-floor; (iii) an occupancy ryot not to be ejected for non-payment of rent but his interest in the land to be sold, the sale being free of encumbrances on the kudivaram right, not created with the landlord's consent; (iv) a tenant of private land to be liable to ejectment; (v) Government to be empowered to invest any officer of Government with the powers of a court under the special law.

V. *As regards the duties of landlords.* (1) Landlord not to levy any unauthorized cesses or dues in money or labor beyond what may

be specified in the puttah; (ii) landlord to keep irrigation works in order and liability to be enforced on complaints from ryots by carrying out the necessary repairs and levying the cost from him; (iii) village establishments within the landlord's estate to be maintained in a state of efficiency.

(7) *Extract from Sir Henry Maine's speech on the Panjab Tenancy Bill before the Legislative Council of India in October 1868.*

As regards the hardship of requiring strict proof in a court of justice of the existence of customary rights and privileges under conditions which preclude settled authority and regular government, and the necessity for inferring the existence of such rights and customs from the facts ascertained as regards whole tracts of country, and not in individual cases, the following extracts from Sir Henry Maine's speech on the Panjab Tenancy Bill before the Legislative Council of India in October 1868 may be usefully consulted.

"Property in land which had little or no value before annexation (of the Panjab) has now a very great and distinct value, and the real struggle obviously is whether, in the case of occupancy tenants, the new profits shall be divided between them and the landlords, or shall wholly go to the landlords. The position, therefore, of the two parties to this contention in the Settlement Courts was this: on the one side, you had very ignorant men, asked very difficult questions as to indistinct ideas of old date. On the other, you had witnesses, a shade better educated, more thoroughly aware of the matter in hand, but under the strongest temptation to adapt their testimony to their interests.

"I observe, for example, that in a great number of cases the persons under examination, whether landlords, tenants or witnesses, were asked whether a particular person had a right to do a particular thing, and the point was frequently put for decision to the committees who acted as referees. I do not mean to say that the word 'right' was invariably used, but the questions constantly implied the notion of a right, or some shade of it. Now, every body who has paid even a superficial attention to the subject is aware that there is no more ambiguous term than 'right,' and no idea less definite. I do not suppose that in the Oriental *patois* in which the questions were asked, the word is less equivocal than in the cultivated European languages, and yet in Europe it is only the strictest and severest jurists who speak of rights with accuracy. *Prima facie*, when you ask whether a class had rights of a particular kind, you mean *legal* rights; but *legal* rights imply a regular administration of fixed laws, and there was confessedly no such administration under Sikh rule. Yet I find Settlement Officers enquiring about rights of eviction or enhancement, without explaining (and apparently without being conscious of the need of explaining) whether the rights in question were of the nature of *legal* rights, or whether *moral* rights were meant, or whether what was intended was merely the physical power of the stronger to do what he pleased with the weaker. And these difficult and ambiguous questions—questions which in reality sometimes involved highly refined abstractions—questions which I do not hesitate to say that, even if I had been cognizant of the facts, I could not myself have answered

without fuller elucidation of their meaning—were put to ignorant and uneducated men, to men, therefore, who, like all ignorant men, are capable only of thinking in the concrete and in connection with actual facts, and were put, moreover, with reference to a state of facts which ceased to exist twenty years ago. Perhaps, Sir, it may be said that the rights about which enquiry was made were customary rights—rights arising under a custom. But here, so far from having my ideas cleared, I find myself in greater difficulties than ever. For it appears to me, that in the papers relating to the recent Panjab Settlement, the word ‘custom’ is used in a sense certainly unknown to jurisprudence, and I believe also, to popular usage. A custom is constantly spoken of, as if it were independent of that which is generally, if not universally, considered to be the foundation of a custom. According to the understanding of lawyers, and I should have said according to the understanding of all men, barbarous or civilized, the foundation of a custom is habitual practice, a series of facts, a succession of instances, from whose constant recurrence a rule is inferred. But the writers of these papers perpetually talk of customs of eviction, or of enhancement, or of rack-rent, and in the same breath admit the non-existence of any practice of the kind alleged. Some broadly state that there never was an instance of the customary right being exercised; nearly all allow that its exercise was as rare as possible, nor do they attempt to show that the rare instances of its exercise were not simple acts of violence. . . . I do not pretend to have an exhaustive acquaintance with the voluminous literature of Indian revenue settlements; but I know something of it, and I think I can see that the old investigators of Native customs proceeded on a mode of enquiry which is perfectly intelligible. They enquired for the most part into practices and into facts, not into vague opinions. They inferred a rule from the facts they believed themselves to have discovered, and then they stereotyped it. No doubt they may have made mistakes. They may have generalised too rapidly, may have neglected local exceptions, and may have made a usage universal which was only general or even occasional.”

N.B.—The occasion for the above speech was the following: Soon after the Panjab was annexed, there was a revenue settlement of the Province and in the course of it, large numbers of tenants were, after enquiry, declared to possess permanent occupancy rights. Twenty years later, there was a revision of settlement, in which it was alleged that a mistake was committed in declaring the tenants to have occupancy rights, and that further enquiry showed that they were merely tenants-at-will, and it was proposed that those who had been recognized as permanent tenants should be transferred to the latter class. Sir Henry Maine protested against the injustice of the proposal and pointed out that the results of the earlier enquiry were likely to be more correct than those of the later.

(8) *Extract from Sir Frederick Pollock's "English Land Laws."*

As regards the successive steps by which “common land,” held as separate property not by individuals but by communities, became saleable and marketable property, Sir Frederick Pollock remarks in his “English Land Laws” as follows :

"In old times it could not be disposed of by the holder, but a custom gradually arose of alienating it by will, and perhaps by purchase, within the limits of the family. Freedom of alienation became greater as the bonds of the village community or township and of the family were loosened. The order of the steps would be of this kind:—First, no alienation but only inheritance; then, alienation within the family, but with the consent of the possible heirs as well as the community; lastly, the consent of the community would become a mere form. Where a lord of the manor had acquired the powers of the community, he probably acquired among them the veto on alienation which in historic times he certainly possessed. In this later shape also, the restriction became a formality, but not an empty one. The lord's consent to alienation could not be refused if the accustomed dues and fines were paid."

The steps in the transition of common to individual property have been the same in India, except that freedom of bequest is an idea quite foreign to Hindu law and has come into existence within a very recent period.

As regards the English "copy-holder," Sir F. Pollock states that he is a tenant of a manor, who is said to hold his tenement "at the will of the lord according to the custom of the manor." This means that the tenant's rights are nominally dependent upon the will of the lord; but the lord is bound to exercise his will according to the custom, so that the tenant is really as safe as if he were an absolute owner. The tenant's title is evidenced by the records of the lord's court. The tenant cannot cut timber or open mines, and he has to pay a heriot on succession,—give the best beast or the best chattel.

As regards the origin of the copy-hold tenure Sir F. Pollock observes "Blackstone's account is 'copy-holders are in truth no other than villeins, who by a long series of encroachments on the lord have at last established a customary right to those estates which were held absolutely at the lord's will.' It would be nearer the truth to say that by a long series of encroachments and fictions the lords and lawyers acting in the interest of the lords got people to believe that the lord's will was the origin of those ancient customary rights which before were absolute."

The following is the account given of the manner in which the English law of landlord and tenant was developed:—

"The truth is, and it may as well be stated at this point, that the law of landlord and tenant has never, at least under any usual conditions, been a law of free contract. It is a law of contract partly express, partly supplied by judicial interpretation, and partly controlled by legislation, and sometimes by local custom. So far as the terms and conditions are express, they are in the vast majority of cases framed by the landlords or their advisers. The tendency of judicial interpretation has also been, until lately, to incline the scale of presumption in favor of the landlord on doubtful points; and the same may be said of the ruling tendency of legislation down to the middle of the present century. The allowance of local customs, which might have done much to redress the balance if taken up betimes, depends on the tendency of the judges. When special

customs were looked on as a kind of natural enemies of the common law, and strict proof of them was required, they got little help in court. Probably many tenants in past times failed to establish customary rights, or have been discouraged by the failure of others from asserting them, in cases where the decision would now be the other way."

As regards the rights of the lord of the manor to the waste, Sir F. Pollock says, "the waste of the manor is, in modern legal theory, so much of the lord's land as his predecessors have not found it worth while to take into cultivation on their own account or to let out to tenants." The tenants enjoyed various privileges over these lands, and these liberties have ripened into rights. This theory reverses the facts, but not without some qualifications. "A great many of the manors, now or formerly existing, represent ancient communities in which, little by little, the authority of the community was engrossed by the most considerable man in it, until he became the lord and the other landholders became his dependents. But a manor might also be formed without going through the earlier stages at all. Free dependents and emancipated serfs might gather round a lord until they formed a community comparable in size to the old free township. Under such conditions we should expect usages to spring up imitated from those of the old communities, and modelled as far as possible on them; but these usages would, in such a case, really owe their force to the permission and consent of the lord, as they were feigned to do by the theory of the lawyers in the case where the lord was only an overgrown member of the township. Thus we have a possible class of cases in which the theory to some extent answers to the real facts."

(9) *Note on the discussions in the Madras Presidency as regards the preferential rights of Mirasidars and resident ryots to cultivate waste lands in their villages as against strangers and the final settlement of the question.*

Mirasi claims were cropping up continually in the first half of the century and produced quite a literature of their own which will be found collected in Mr. Huddleston's compilation, entitled "Papers on Mirasi Right." These claims were troublesome to deal with for several reasons. In the first place, the traditional feelings of the early English administrators, derived from the state of landed property in their own country, was opposed to the recognition of such claims, incompatible as they seemed with the right of Government to claim a large share of the produce of land, which was denominated *rent* and which entitled it, according to English notions, to be regarded as the absolute proprietor of land. There was much also in the state of the country to favor such an impression. These Mirasi claims were of a pronounced type only in a few districts and in others, they were vague and undefined, and in some to all appearance, hardly a trace of them had been left. In some of the southern districts, notably in Chingleput and Tanjore, the Mirasi right was in full operation; in several other districts it was in various stages of decay, although a traditional feeling in regard to it still existed; in others again, especially in the Northern Circars, even this traditional feeling had become effaced. Wherever by previous mis-government and heavy assessments, land

had lost all saleable value and the greater portion of arable land was out of cultivation, and the efforts of the officers of Government were directed towards saddling the ryots with more land than they could cultivate, as was the case under the Dittam system in the dry districts, Mirasi rights would rather be a burden than a privilege; and the longer this state of things continued the less would be the chance of the ryots asserting their rights. In the few favorably circumstanced districts in which land had some saleable value, these rights would be clung to with great tenacity. This was exactly what happened. The result was two schools of writers on Indian land tenures, one asserting that land was the property of Government and the ryots merely cultivating tenants, and the other, that the ryots were proprietors of the land they cultivated. The Government of the day was called upon to decide between these two conflicting theories and a discussion was kept up for nearly 40 years. There was one incident of the Mirasi tenure which almost all engaged in the discussion were unwilling to admit (viz., the absolute right of the Mirasidars to waste lands), as being inconsistent with the right of Government to levy its share of the crop as revenue. The Mirasidars claimed the right to keep the waste lands uncultivated themselves and to prevent Government from finding other ryots to cultivate them. Such a right, in the interests of revenue and of the general public, the Government could not acknowledge. The Government was willing, however, to acknowledge the right of the Mirasidars to hold the lands they cultivated so long as they paid the assessment; nay more, it was willing to concede the same right even to new cultivators and it reduced the heavy assessments wherever it was necessary to create a substantial interest for the ryot in the soil. As regards waste lands whenever there was any demand for them it was willing to acknowledge the rights of the Mirasidars so far as to give them the refusal, before granting them to strangers, but in this respect it would treat the old Mirasidars and the new puttadars in the same way. Government recognized mirasi rights only to this extent, but if the Mirasidars had any further rights they were to establish them before the judicial tribunals. In the language of the Board of that day, by this decision the question of Mirasi rights was "set at rest." The following quotations from "Papers on Mirasi Right" establish this position:—

In their Despatch, dated 28th July 1841, the Court of Directors stated that "without entering upon a discussion of the respective rights of Government and the Mirasidars over the waste lands (a point still under the consideration of the superior tribunal to which the case has been appealed), it will be enough for us to state our opinion that it is desirable that in all cases where Payacaries propose to cultivate the waste lands of a Mirasi village, their proposal should be in the first instance communicated to the Mirasidars, to whom, in the event of their being willing to cultivate, or to give security for the revenue assessable on the land, the preference should be given. We consider that the Government has a clear right to the revenue to be derived from the conversion of waste lands into arable, but we, at the same time, think it preferable that this object should be obtained, whenever practicable, without the intrusion of strangers into the village community."

In their Proceedings, 11th November 1841, the Board remarked as follows :—“ Under this view of the case, it is not considered *expedient* to raise abstract questions of the extent of the Mirasidars’ rights in regard to the village waste. No opinion on these points would be binding upon any court of law in which the questions might be mooted by parties dissatisfied with the *dictum* of the Revenue authorities, and it seems quite unnecessary to raise the question with a view to its solution by the highest legal authorities, unless it could be shown that under the existing practice the interests of Government are compromised or injured.

“ Mr. Kindersley’s first question is whether in default of means or desire of Mirasidars to exercise their right of cultivating the waste, their consent is necessary before the Government can grant the land for cultivation to a stranger. To this the Board can only reply, that it is the custom generally to give the option of occupation to the Mirasidars and to the *kadeem ryot* where no Mirasi exists, in preference to a stranger. It matters not what the law may be on this point; much of the revenue practice is founded on custom, and the practice is both, the Board believe, favorable to Government and in accordance with the feelings and sentiments of the people.

“ The second question is to the effect whether the offer of strangers can be accepted by Government if more favorable than that of the Mirasidars? To this the Board answer, *most unquestionably it cannot*. The admission of such a practice would virtually set aside the prescribed remission of assessment on the redemption of waste existing in every Province.

“ The Board cannot conceive a case in which the interests of Government can suffer materially by the continuance of the system that now prevails. If the Mirasidars can, by themselves or through others, undertake the cultivation of all the reclaimable lands of their village and pay the established dues of Government, no loss is sustained by the State. If they cannot do this or if they neglect to do it, then the rule is to give the land as well as the Toondoovarum thereon to any stranger who chooses to undertake it. Thus the right of Government which is *simply the right to claim the authorized assessment* is abundantly protected.

“ The only possible profit or advantage that Government could derive in assuming the right to dispose of waste land for cultivation without reference to the Mirasidars or ancient cultivators would consist in the sums they might derive, over and above the legitimate annual land-tax, by selling to the best advantage the right of occupancy, as the ryots now do in some instances. The assertion of such a right, *even if it was upheld by judicial decision*, would lead, it is believed, to much *discontent and dissatisfaction*, and be powerless in the main as a means of raising revenue.”

In the Despatch of the Court of Directors, dated 3rd July 1844, they remarked “ from the perusal of the decree of the Provincial Court, it appears to us that that tribunal has declared the law to be in accordance with what, in para. 55 of our Despatch, dated 28th July 1841, we desired might be generally adopted in practice in similar cases, viz., that when proposals were made by Porakudi ryots for waste lands in

Mirasi villages, they should, in the first instance, be communicated to the Mirasidars, to whom in the event of their being willing to cultivate or to give security for the revenue assessable on the lands, the preference should be given.

“ In the case which has now been brought under discussion, this course was not adopted by the Collector, and it would appear that the question still remains undecided, whether Government possesses the right, in the event of the Mirasidars refusing to cultivate or to give security for the revenue, to alienate waste lands in Mirasi villages to Porakudi cultivators either for a term or in perpetuity. We trust, however, that *on all occasions care will be taken that the just rights of the Mirasidars shall be respected.*”

In G.O., dated 1st March 1849, Government said, “ The Right Honorable the Governor in Council has only to observe, in reference to the foregoing Proceedings of the Board of Revenue, that the principle which the Honorable the Court have laid down for the guidance of this Government, in the disposal of waste lands, is, that the ryots of the village in which the waste land is situated should invariably have the option of holding it for cultivation on certain terms. If they refuse, the Collector is justified in giving such land to strangers.”

The Court of Directors in their Despatch, dated 17th December 1856, remarked as follows :—

“ In para. 27 you have referred to the rights of Mirasidars over the waste lands of their villages, and you observe that ‘ under moderate assessment ’ land ‘ will become valuable, the rightful holders will occupy it themselves, sub-letting it or part of it, and will no longer quietly submit to its being given away to those who have no rightful interest in it.’

“ The question involved in this para. is one of very considerable importance and it would appear that you now propose to deal with it in a manner at variance with the practice which has hitherto prevailed. We desire that in the disposal of waste land you will be guided by the principles laid down in para. 55 of our Despatch of the 28th July 1841, 3rd July 1844, &c.

“ We see no reason to change the opinions respecting the rights of Mirasidars which we entertained when these paras. were written. Whenever, as in Tanjore, any remains of Mirasi right have survived to the present time and have actual existence, we do not desire that it should be interfered with, but where, as in the greater portion of your Presidency, it has fallen into desuetude, and has only been known in name ever since we have obtained possession of the country, we think that it would be unwise and inexpedient to make any attempt for its revival.

“ When applications for waste land are made by strangers, they should be communicated to the resident ryots of the village, whether claiming to be Mirasidars or not, and the option should be given to them of engaging for it, finding security for the payment of the assessment. Should they or any of them think fit to do so, they would of course be at liberty either to cultivate the land themselves or sub-let it ; but the payment should be strictly enforced, in order, on the one hand, to prevent transactions in the nature of land jobbing, and on the

other, to deter the villagers from engaging for land merely for the purpose of excluding others who might be desirous of holding it direct from Government, but who objected to take it as their sub-tenants. In cases where the resident ryots should refuse to engage for the waste lands of their village, Government may exercise the right of granting them to the persons applying, who would then hold the same position and possess the same rights in all respects as the other ryots of the village."

In G.O., 5th June 1857, Government remarked "we apprehend that the views on this subject recorded by Sir Thomas Munro would be generally acceded to, viz., that Mirasidars had no rights over lands reclaimed by others without their agency, and that their rights in regard to immemorial waste were good against strange ryots but not against the Government; and it was the established rule, prescribed by your Honorable Court, that waste land in a village was not to be given to a stranger until it was first offered to and refused by the *resident ryots* or Mirasidars."

The Board in their Proceedings, dated 15th July 1857, observed as follows:—"The Board trust that as regards the provinces, *the question is now so far set at rest* by the decision of the Court of Directors, as to guide the Revenue officers and that when the old residents of a village, whether they call themselves Mirasidars or not, decline to cultivate (or else pay for) waste land, the usual puttahs may be given to durkhastdars without forcing them to become sub-tenants of the old residents, and that the influence which the so-called Mirasidars have hitherto exercised in keeping much land out of the occupation of others though not occupying themselves, may be put an end to."

The above extracts make it clear that the Court of Directors told the ryots somewhat as follows:—

"You claim a lot of things under the description of Mirasi rights. We cannot find out what they exactly are and how far you are justly entitled to them. There is one thing we gladly recognise; it is your right to hold the land you cultivate. There is another thing also we will concede; it is that whenever we receive an offer to cultivate waste land in your village, we will give you the option of taking it up yourselves, should you be willing to do so. We mean to concede this right not only to you who call themselves Mirasidars, but to ryots of all descriptions, for we do not know what your mirasi means, and we are not going to be bothered with any further discussions on that subject. We wish to see all puttadars, whether belonging to the class of ancient Mirasidars or recently created, placed on an equal footing so far as it is in our power to do so; and certainly the preferential right which we wish to give them is not only in accordance with long standing custom but also public policy. You must clearly understand that we will not indulge your dog-in-the-manger spirit of neither cultivating the waste lands yourselves nor allowing strangers to cultivate them, thus preventing extension of cultivation and increase of our revenue. If you think you can establish such a right you may do so before the Court of Justice."

This is no doubt a rough and ready solution of a much vexed question, but it has been acted upon and acquiesced in for the last 30 years and has now become a part of the common law of the country,

even if it was not so before. The rule was passed in the spirit of compromise allowing to Mirasidars such rights as they possessed if they were found not to be inconsistent with good policy, and the same policy required that all puttadars should be treated alike to put an end to interminable disputes as to whether a puttadar was an ancient occupant or a Payacari. The well-known work of Sir Henry Maine on Village Communities has established the fact that throughout the whole of India, and probably throughout the whole of the ancient world, property in land was vested in village communities whose rights extended not only to cultivated lands, but also to the waste lands of the village, and customs and forms of property derived from this tenure survive to this day in the greater part of India. Regarding waste lands Sir H. Maine writes as follows:—"The waste or common land of the village community has still to be considered. One point of difference between the view taken of it in the East and that which at all times seems to have been taken in Europe deserves to be specially noted. The members of the Teutonic community appear to have valued the village waste chiefly as pasture for their cattle, and possibly may have found it so profitable for this purpose as to have deliberately refrained from increasing that cultivated portion of it which had been turned into the arable mark. These rights of pasture vested in the commoners are those, I need scarcely tell you, which have descended but little modified to our own day in our own country; and it is only the modern improvements in the methods of agriculture which have disturbed the balance between pasture and tillage, and have thus tended to multiply Inclosure acts. But the vast bulk of the natives of India are a grain and not a flesh eating people. Cattle are mostly regarded by them as auxiliary to tillage. The view, therefore, generally taken (as I am told) of the common-land by the community is that it is that part of village domain which is temporarily uncultivated, but which will some time or other be cultivated and merge in the arable mark. Doubtless it is valued for pasture, but it is more especially valued as potentially capable of tillage. The effect is to produce in the community a much stronger sense of property in common-land than at all reflects the vaguer feeling of right which, in England at all events, characterises the commoners. In the later days of the East India Company, when all its acts and omissions were very bitterly criticised, and amid the general re-opening of Indian questions after the military insurrection of 1857, much stress was laid on the great amount of waste land which official returns showed to exist in India, and it was more than hinted that better government would bring these wastes under cultivation, possibly under cotton cultivation, and even plant them with English colonists. The answer of experienced Indian functionaries was that there was *no* waste land at all in India. If you except certain territories which stand to India Proper much as the tracts of land at the base of the Rocky Mountains stand to the United States—as for example, the Indo-Chinese province of Assam—the reply is substantially correct. The so-called waste lands are part of the domain of the various communities which the villagers, theoretically, are only waiting opportunity to bring under cultivation. Yet this controversy elicited an admission which is of some historical interest. It did appear that, though the Native Indian Government had for the most part left the village communities entirely to themselves on condition of their paying the revenue assessed upon

them, they nevertheless sometimes claimed (though in a vague and occasional way) some exceptional authority over the wastes; and acting on this precedent, the British Government, at the various settlements of land revenue, has not seldom interfered to reduce excessive wastes and to re-apportion uncultivated land among the various communities of a district."

This extract makes it clear that the waste lands are not unre-servedly at the disposal of Government. They in the first instance belong to the ryots in common, but the State occasionally interferes for the protection of its rights. In the present case, it has done so by ruling that the land will be given away to a stranger if the resident villages are not willing to cultivate it.

The passages quoted from Sir H. Maine's work are almost identical with G.O., dated 27th May 1856, No. 667, in which it is stated:—"The waste land in this country in the villages of the plains at least is certainly not the property of Government or the State in the absolute sense in which the unoccupied land in the United States and some of the British Colonies is so. The village communities claim an interest in it and that interest has been universally admitted though not accurately defined. To put up the waste to sale, entirely ignoring that prior right of the village communities, would be to introduce a totally new practice; and *it would certainly be regarded by the common feeling of the country as an invasion of existing rights.*"

In former times, if the Government thought that waste lands remained uncultivated through the fault or negligence of those entitled to cultivate them, the offending parties would have been coerced to do their duty. Menu says "If land be injured by the fault of the farmer himself, as if he fails to sow it in due time, he shall be fined ten times the king's share of the crop, that might otherwise have been raised; but only five times as much if it was the fault of his servants without his knowledge." Under the present régime of personal freedom, the coercive power which can no longer be applied is transmuted into a power to declare the right to cultivate the lands forfeited, when an offer is made by a stranger to cultivate such lands, and the Mirasidars after due notice are unwilling to cultivate them and pay the revenue assessed thereon.

(10) *Extract from the speech of the Honorable Mr. Ilbert in the Legislative Council of India on the Bengal Tenancy Bill in 1885.*

"The Bengal ryot is not the same thing as the English farmer; he is something widely different from him. But he presents many curious and instructive points of resemblance to the English customary tenant of some six or seven centuries ago. The rights and powers claimed by the Zemindar are not unlike those once claimed by the feudal lord of the manor; the privileges, duties, liabilities of the ryot resemble in some important particulars those which once belonged to the English customary tenant and which were gradually developed into the status either of the free-holder or copy-holder. In the phrase which is still technically applied to the English copy-holder, viz., that he holds 'at the will of the lord according to the custom of the manor,' we discern echoes of the controversies which once raged round the customary tenant of the English manor and which still rage round the position of the Bengal ryot—controversies in which the assertion of high pro-

prietary rights on the part of the landlord is set against the assertion of strong customary privileges on the part of the tenant. If we were to pursue the investigation further we should find equally suggestive analogies. The bewildering multitude of tenures with local variations of nomenclature and incidents finds its parallel in the multitude of subordinate interests in land which are recorded in the Domesday Survey, the English record of rights in the 11th century. Again it is well known that there is no point in English legal history which is more obscure than the question of extent to which and the circumstances under which alienation of land was legally recognised and actually took place before the 13th century. But in the midst of this obscurity, one fact is clearly established, viz., that such alienation as took place assumed the form not of sale but of subinfeudation or sub-letting, and the extent to which this sub-letting was carried was distasteful to the superior lords. We know that at the instance of the great lords a famous statute was passed to stop sub-letting; we know that while the intention of the statute was to stop sub-letting, its effect was to legalize free sale, that it enabled the fee simple tenant to alienate his interest without consulting his lord and that it has since become the foundation of modern English law of the sale of land. If there had been a Hansard in the days when the statute "Quia Emp-tores" became law, he might perhaps have supplied us with additional arguments for and against the comparative merits and demerits of sub-letting and free sale.

“ However, I do not intend to weary the Council with any elaborate historical disquisition. My object in touching on these analogies between the past and the present is not to demonstrate—what has been demonstrated to satiety—that the application of the modern English landlord and tenant law to the relation of Zemindar and Ryot would be both an anachronism and a political blunder; but also to illustrate some of the exceptional difficulties which surround any attempt either to declare or to amend the law bearing on those relations. For to say that the Bengal ryot is still living in an age which to us Englishmen has become an age of the past is to present only one side of the picture; there is another side to it. Side by side with the landlord who exercises, and is content to exercise, his old customary rights so far as they are compatible with the modern system of Government, we have the auction purchaser who has bought his rights as a commercial speculation, and thinks only how he can turn them to the best advantage. Side by side with the hereditary tenant, cultivating and living on his land, we have the enterprising planter who has got his lease and wishes to work it so as to extract from the land the greatest possible profit in the smallest possible time. The modern theory of competitive rents is jostling the old practice of customary rates; the new fashion of terminable leases is threatening to displace ancient occupancy rights. The 13th century is being brought face to face with the 19th and is striving with more or less success to understand and accommodate itself to its ways. The cultivator for subsistence is giving way before or developing into cultivator for profit; those who have walked in the dim twilight of custom are emerging into the hard and fierce glare of law as administered by the Courts. The ideas, habits and customs of widely different ages and widely different civilizations are being thrown into a common crucible and are assuming new and strange forms. We

cannot arrest this process of change; we cannot predict with certainty the rate at which it will progress or the direction which it will take if left to itself. All that we can do is to endeavour by such means as are at our disposal to guide it in the right direction, to ease off the abruptness of the transition from the old to the new, from an age of feudalism to an age of industrialism; to bridge over the gulf between status and contract, to prevent custom from being too violently ousted by competition; to see that rules based on commercial transactions between hard and keen men of business are not applied to the ignorant and unlettered peasant, when he is unable to understand them or to use them.

“Can we afford to stand aside and let things drift, trusting that they may somehow come out right in the end? Such may be a policy which would commend itself to some of the influential classes in the country, to men of the strong hand and the long purse; but such is not the policy which the British Government has ever ventured or ever can venture to adopt; such is not our conception of the duty which we owe to the millions whom Providence has confided to our care. We are responsible for the introduction into this country of forces, which threaten to revolutionize its social and economical system; we cannot fold our hands and let them work in accordance with nature’s blind laws. We must, to the best of our ability, endeavour to regulate and control their operations, and in so doing it is inevitable that we should occasionally interfere in a manner and to an extent which, to those whose institutions have not for long ages undergone the strain imposed by foreign conquest or foreign immigration, may not unnaturally appear difficult to justify or explain.

“That in so doing we should be charged with ignoring or violating the laws of political economy is a matter of course. We do not violate or ignore those laws; on the contrary, the whole of our action as a State in legislation of this kind is based on a recognition and appreciation of the laws which regulate the production and distribution of wealth, just as the whole of our action as a State in dealing with famine is based on the recognition and appreciation of the laws, so far as they are discoverable, which regulate the occurrence of famines. We do not ignore these laws; but we proceed on the view that their operation is capable of being modified and controlled by human action.

“Assuming, then, that interference is justifiable and necessary, what kind of interference is possible and expedient; what kind of legislation is suitable to the circumstances with which we have to deal? Must we not admit, are we not always being compelled to admit, that it is a legislation of opportunism? For a transitional period final legislation is neither appropriate nor possible. What we have to do is to establish a *modus vivendi*, a working arrangement not merely between conflicting interests but between the customs, habits, ideas and ways of different ages and different forms of civilization. Our legislation must contain much that is in the nature of expedients, adjustments, compromises; it will inevitably contain provisions which will be to political economists a stumbling block, and to lawyers—I will say even to law-lords—foolishness—but which for all that may be based on good, sound common sense.”

(C).—AGRICULTURAL INDEBTEDNESS, ITS CAUSES AND REMEDIES.

(1) Statement showing the classification of mortgages of immovable property registered in the year 1891 in the Madras Presidency according to the periods for which they run.

Term of mortgage	SIMPLE MORTGAGES.						MORTGAGES WITH POSSESSION.						TOTAL NUMBER OF MORTGAGES.					
	Less than Rs. 100		Rs. 100 and upwards.		Total		Less than Rs. 100.		Rs. 100 and upwards.		Total		Less than Rs. 100		Rs. 100 and upwards.		Total.	
	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.	No.	Percentage.
No term	18,646	18.1	17,473	14.9	36,119	16.4	5,549	9.8	4,245	9.3	9,794	9.6	24,195	15.2	21,718	13.8	45,913	14.1
One year or less	45,905	44.6	42,864	36.5	88,769	40.3	4,757	8.6	4,057	8.9	8,814	8.7	50,662	31.9	46,921	28.8	97,583	30.3
Between 1 and 2 years	15,954	15.5	19,063	16.3	35,017	15.9	4,286	7.6	3,216	7.0	7,502	7.4	20,240	12.7	22,279	13.7	42,519	13.2
" 2 and 3 do.	10,955	10.6	15,163	12.9	26,118	12.0	10,916	19.8	8,172	17.9	19,088	18.7	21,871	13.8	23,335	14.3	45,206	14.1
" 3 and 4 do.	3,734	3.6	7,340	6.3	11,074	5.0	4,061	7.2	3,841	8.4	7,902	7.8	7,795	4.9	11,181	6.9	18,976	5.9
" 4 and 5 do.	2,545	2.5	5,464	4.7	8,009	3.6	5,290	9.4	5,273	11.5	10,563	10.3	7,835	4.9	10,737	6.6	18,572	5.8
" 5 and 6 do.	894	0.9	2,238	1.9	3,132	1.4	2,452	4.3	2,396	5.2	4,848	4.8	3,346	2.1	4,634	2.8	7,980	2.5
" 6 and 7 do.	388	0.4	1,140	1.0	1,528	0.7	2,049	3.6	1,872	4.1	3,921	3.9	2,437	1.5	3,012	1.8	5,449	1.7
" 7 and 8 do.	303	0.3	970	0.8	1,273	0.6	756	1.3	723	1.6	1,479	1.4	1,059	0.7	1,693	1.0	2,752	0.8
" 8 and 9 do.	217	0.2	575	0.5	792	0.3	805	1.4	877	1.9	1,682	1.7	1,022	0.6	1,452	0.9	2,474	0.8
" 9 and 10 do.	274	0.3	884	0.7	1,158	0.5	1,517	2.7	1,387	3.0	2,904	2.8	1,791	1.1	2,271	1.4	4,062	1.2
" 10 and 11 do.	135	0.1	354	0.3	489	0.2	695	1.2	674	1.5	1,369	1.4	830	0.5	1,028	0.6	1,858	0.6
" 11 and 12 do.	438	0.4	566	0.5	1,004	0.5	7,499	13.3	3,907	8.6	11,406	11.2	7,937	5.0	4,473	2.8	12,410	3.9
Twelve years and above	2,586	2.5	3,165	2.7	5,751	2.6	5,489	9.8	5,089	11.1	10,578	10.3	8,075	5.1	8,254	5.1	16,329	5.1
Total	102,974	100	117,259	100	220,233	100	56,121	100	45,729	100	101,850	100	159,095	100	162,988	100	322,083	100

TABLE

(2) Statement showing the classification of lenders, the purposes of loans, and the rates of interest charged on loans compiled from deeds of mortgage of immovable property without possession and from simple bonds registered in 1889, 1890 and 1891 in the districts of Kistna, Nellore, Cuddapah, Kurnool, Bellary, and Anantapur, North Arcot, South Arcot, Coimbatore and Tinnevely.

Items	Number of mortgages of Rs. 100 and upwards				Number of mortgages of less than Rs 100			Simple bonds	Percentage			
	Rs 100—500	Rs 501—1,000.	Over Rs 1,000	Total	Rs. 1—50.	Rs 51—99.	Total.		Mort-gage Rs 100 and above	Mort-gages 'below Rs 100.	Simple bonds	All transactions.
Profession of lenders—												
Agriculturists	19,177	1,538	441	21,156	13,508	6,846	20,354	8,140	61	65	64	63
Non-agriculturists ...	10,453	1,014	334	11,801	6,076	3,686	9,762	4,106	34	31	32	32
Ryots combining other professions with agriculture	1,641	203	58	1,902	891	530	1,421	474	5	4	4	5
Total	31,271	2,755	833	34,859	20,475	11,062	31,537	12,720	100	100	100	100
Purposes of loans—												
Renewal of subsisting mortgages.	4,094	515	175	4,784	1,603	1,861	3,464	867	} 61.0	51.7	44.7	55.0
Discharge of other debts	8,676	987	347	10,010	3,574	2,841	6,415	2,666				
Payment of Court decrees	244	33	10	287	110	87	197	84	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2
Court expenses ...	101	7	8	116	39	55	94	88	5	5	1.1	7
Purposes of trade	287	41	17	345	134	40	174	317	1.4	9	4.1	1.6
Purchasing lands and houses	1,986	176	39	2,201	794	521	1,315	357	9.1	6.9	4.5	7.5
Purchasing cattle and cultivation expenses.	526	23	6	554	838	327	1,165	556	2.3	6.1	7.0	4.4
Sinking wells and improving lands.	239	15	3	257	143	62	205	107	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.1
Payment of Government assessment	216	12	4	232	184	94	278	188	9	1.5	2.4	1.3

(2) Statement showing the classification of lenders, the purposes of loans, and the rates of interest charged on loans compiled from deeds of mortgage of immovable property without possession and from simple bonds registered in 1889, 1890 and 1891 in the districts of Kistna, &c.—continued.

Items.	Number of mortgages of Rs. 100 and upwards.				Number of mortgages of less than Rs. 100			Simple bonds.	Percentage			
	Rs. 100—500	Rs. 501—1,000.	Over Rs 1,000	Total.	Rs. 1—50.	Rs. 51—99	Total.		Mortgages Rs 100 and above.	Mortgages below Rs. 100.	Simple bonds	All transactions.
<i>Purposes of loans—cont.</i>												
Marriages	1,528	62	10	1,600	911	514	1,425	477	6.5	7.5	6.1	7.0
Funerals ..	48	2	1	51	63	23	86	18	2	4	3	3
Other household purposes ...	1,890	144	39	2,073	1,644	696	2,340	781	8.5	12.2	9.9	10.1
Other purposes	1,618	115	27	1,760	1,329	627	1,956	1,381	7.3	10.2	17.5	9.8
Total	21,453	2,131	686	24,270	11,366	7,748	19,114	7,887	100	100	100	100
Purpose not stated ..	9,818	624	147	10,589	9,109	3,314	12,423	4,833	
Grand Total	31,271	2,755	833	34,859	20,475	11,062	31,537	12,720				
<i>Rates of interest on loans--</i>												
Below 6 per cent. per annum	115	23	20	158	41	36	77	149	5	3	1.4	.6
From 6 to below 9 per cent. per annum.	1,401	404	182	1,987	322	265	587	555	6.5	2.1	5.5	4.6
From 9 to below 12 per cent. per annum.	4,473	907	303	5,683	1,093	1,227	2,320	911	18.5	8.5	9.0	13.1
12 per cent. per annum ..	13,798	888	207	14,893	6,865	4,404	11,269	4,994	48.3	41.2	49.3	45.2
Over 12 and below 18 per cent. per annum.	4,359	144	24	4,537	2,926	1,724	4,650	1,362	14.8	17.0	13.5	15.5
18 per cent. ..	1,957	60	7	2,024	2,711	852	3,563	1,176	6.5	13.0	11.6	10.0
Over 18 and up to and including 24 per cent. per annum.	1,230	27	7	1,264	2,505	1,007	3,512	788	4.1	12.9	7.8	8.2

(2) Statement showing the classification of lenders, the purposes of loans, and the rates of interest charged on loans compiled from deeds of mortgage of immovable property without possession and from simple bonds registered in 1889, 1890 and 1891 in the districts of Kistna, &c —continued.

Items	Number of mortgages of Rs. 100 and upwards				Number of mortgages of less than Rs. 100.			Simple bonds.	Percentage.			
	Rs 100—500.	Rs. 501—1,000	Over Rs 1,000	Total	Rs 1—50	Rs 51—99	Total		Mortgage Rs. 100 and above.	Mortgages below Rs 100	Simple bonds	All transactions.
Rates of Interest on loans—cont. Over 24 per cent per annum	266	6	2	274	1,097	291	1,388	184	8	50	19	28
Total ...	27,609	2,459	752	30,820	17,560	9,806	27,366	10,119	100	100	100	100
Grain interest	2,367	90	13	2,470	2,342	758	3,100	816				
No interest	1,295	206	68	1,569	573	498	1,071	1,785				
Grand Total ...	31,271	2,755	833	34,859	20,475	11,062	31,537	12,720	..			

NOTE 1.—The above statement was compiled from the statistics furnished from each of the offices of the districts named for 100 mortgages of Rs 100 and upwards, 100 mortgages of value less than Rs. 100, and of 100 bonds irrespective of the total number registered. Applying the proportion of agriculturist to the non-agriculturist lenders arrived at from these figures to the total number of mortgages and bonds registered in the several districts, and assuming, as we may, that the lenders in cases of mortgages with possession are agriculturists, it is found that in 80 per cent of the registered transactions the lenders are agriculturists. The percentages for the districts examined are found to be Tinnevely 87, Coimbatore 82, South Arcot 73, Nellore 71, Kistna 70, Cuddapah and North Arcot 66, Bellary and Anantapur 53.

NOTE 2.—Cases in which it is not clear whether the purpose of the loan was to discharge other debts or whether the documents were renewals of subsisting mortgages have been included under the former head. From the statistics relating to the offices where the information is precisely given, it appears that the number of mortgages of the former class is nearly double that of the latter.

NOTE 3.—From a number of documents examined in the Malabar District, it is found that the general rate of interest on loans is 12 per cent

NOTE 4.—In South Canara the rates of interest have been on an examination of registered documents, found to be as follows.—

	Loans below Rs. 100.	Loans between Rs. 100 and Rs. 500	Loans between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000	Loans above Rs. 1,000
Before 1835	12 p. c. per annum	12 p. c.	9 to 12 p. c	6 to 7 p. c.
Between 1835 and 1865	8 to 12 p. c.	10 to 12 p. c.	7 to 10 p. c	6 to 8 p. c.
Between 1865 and 1892	10 to 12 p. c.	8 p. c.	6½ p. c	6 p. c.

From the 'black books' preserved at Manjeshwar, a town 10 miles from Mangalore, it appears that the rate of interest was over 12 per cent and near 18 per cent. per annum about the beginning of the century.

(3) Statement showing the aggregate and average values of different classes of documents registered in the year 1891-92 in the Madras Presidency.

Districts.	Population in thousands.	Sales of immoveable property.									
		Less than Rs. 100 in value.			Rs. 100 and above in value.			Total.			
		Number of documents	Aggregate value in lakhs of Rs.	Average value per document, Rs.	Number of documents	Aggregate value in lakhs of Rs.	Average value per document, Rs.	Number of documents.	Aggregate value in lakhs of Rs.	Average value per document, Rs.	Aggregate value per thousand of population, Rs.
1. Madras ...	462	291	16	57	1,644	24 74	1,341	2,135	24 90	1,167	5,504
2. Ganjam ...	1,539	2,792	1 30	46	2,262	7 66	340	8,044	8 98	178	584
3. Vizagapatam ...	1,943	1,052	47	45	1,873	10 80	576	2,925	11 27	285	840
4. Godavari ...	1,963	6,700	3 04	45	6,312	20 63	325	13,012	25 57	181	1,208
5. Kistna ...	1,855	4,887	2 48	50	5,073	14 41	284	9,960	16 87	189	778
6. Nellore ...	1,494	3,130	1 30	41	2,119	5 85	276	5,249	7 15	136	489
7. Cuddapah ...	1,273	7,125	2 98	43	3,292	6 94	210	10,417	9 92	95	780
8. Bellary and Anantapur ...	1,608	4,107	1 73	42	2,981	7 53	252	7,088	9 25	130	575
9. Kurnool ...	618	3,021	1 24	41	1,551	3 21	207	4,572	4 45	97	545
10. Chingleput ...	1,137	5,873	2 45	42	3,630	12 26	338	9,502	14 71	155	1,293
11. North Arcot ...	2,180	12,468	5 25	49	6,998	19 42	277	19,466	24 67	126	1,181
12. South Arcot ...	2,163	16,136	6 61	41	6,791	17 77	262	22,926	24 38	106	1,127
13. Tanjore ...	2,228	11,315	5 08	45	12,255	55 37	452	23,870	60 45	256	2,713
14. Trichinopoly ...	1,373	7,493	3 09	42	5,191	17 48	336	12,684	20 57	162	1,536
15. Madura ...	3,608	10,829	4 69	42	9,622	31 97	335	20,351	36 56	180	1,226
16. Tinnevely ...	1,916	13,497	5 72	42	13,026	44 80	344	26,523	50 52	190	2,637
17. Coimbatore ...	2,008	7,894	3 04	38	8,116	29 99	369	16,012	33 03	206	1,647
18. Salem ...	1,963	7,332	3 91	39	5,135	13 47	262	12,467	16 38	131	835
19. Nilgiris ...	100	374	1 14	38	311	3 15	1,494	585	3 29	564	3,302
20. South Canara ...	1,056	484	21	45	1,379	11 18	811	1,863	11 39	611	1,078
21. Tellicherry ...	1,056	427	19	44	1,049	5 39	511	1,476	5 55	376	611
22. Calicut ...	2,653	1,553	65	42	1,973	10 56	535	3,526	11 21	316	729
Total	34,336	128,780	54 60	42	102,573	374 45	365	231,353	429 05	185	1,220

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(3) Statement showing the aggregate and average values of different classes of documents registered in the year 1891-92 in the Madras Presidency—continued.

Districts.	Mortgages of immovable property										All documents relating to movable and immovable property.			
	Less than Rs. 100.			Rs 100 and above.			Total.				Number of documents	Aggregate value in lakhs of Rs	Average value per document, Rs.	Aggregate value per thousand of population, Rs.
	Number of documents	Aggregate value in lakhs of Rs	Average value per document, Rs.	Number of documents	Aggregate value in lakhs of Rs.	Average value per document, Rs	Number of documents	Aggregate value in lakhs of Rs	Average value per document, Rs	Aggregate value Per thousand of population, Rs				
1. Madras	139	09	57	2,302	25 92	1,128	2,441	26 00	1,065	5,746	7,608	88 72	1,166	19,605
2. Ganjam	2,384	1 25	52	2,704	10 72	389	5,088	11 97	235	753	13,276	28 44	214	1,784
3. Vizagapatam	856	53	54	3,285	13 81	420	4,272	14 34	336	798	11,007	40 55	368	2,087
4. Godavari	5,955	3'04	51	8,970	30 90	565	14,625	33 94	232	1,739	42,188	40 80	216	4,652
5. Kistna	2,888	1 75	60	5,308	19 84	374	8,196	21 59	263	1,163	24,154	45 59	201	3,618
6. Nellore	2,464	1 35	54	3,318	10'50	318	5,780	11 85	205	800	15,038	26 14	173	1,755
7. Cuddapah	1,143	'59	52	1,182	3 07	260	2,325	3 66	158	288	14,870	18 57	125	1,459
8. Bellary and Anantapur	3,161	1 14	53	4,435	13 74	310	6,596	14 88	225	926	16,140	29 57	183	1,638
9. Kurnool	1,788	'93	53	1,768	4 25	241	3,564	5 18	146	634	9,368	13 61	143	1,638
10. Chingleput	6,812	3 16	46	5,197	15 45	297	12,009	18 61	155	1,636	24,380	40 26	165	3,541
11. North Arcot	13,177	6 38	48	9,856	25 07	254	23,033	31 45	198	1,442	47,503	74 58	167	3,420
12. South Arcot	18,203	8 30	46	10,220	24 61	240	28,423	32 91	116	1,521	56,929	68 14	120	3,150
13. Tanjore	13,352	6 52	46	19,601	62 79	337	31,935	68 31	217	3,110	72,969	180 82	248	8,115
14. Trichinopoly	7,723	3 67	47	8,461	25 44	300	16,184	29 11	180	2,121	34,971	64 85	186	4,724
15. Madurai	55,704	12 07	47	22,476	68 20	308	46,180	80 27	166	3,077	76,630	155 50	203	5,961
17. Coimbatore	22,174	10 88	49	25,390	70 67	279	47,564	81 55	171	4,256	84,944	167 57	197	8,746
18. Salem	8,987	4 12	46	7,856	17 54	222	16,843	21 76	129	1,127	34,582	51 85	150	4,396
19. Nilgiris	110	'06	50	242	3 15	1,304	352	3 21	612	3,217	19,712	9 78	786	9,805
20. South Canara	947	'48	51	4,396	30 38	691	5,345	30 56	577	2,922	19,712	73 68	373	6,971
21. Tellicherry	11,680	3 74	33	8,567	22 54	263	20,147	23 28	130	3,090	56,643	58 50	163	7,379
22. Calcut	23,720	6 91	29	14,998	49 01	625	38,718	55'92	144	3,090	87 586	137 23	157	7,379
Total	184,450	82 34	44	183,418	684 94	313	367,866	667 28	181	1,933	803,105	1,567 66	196	4,666

NOTE—(1) The figures for Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godavari are exclusive of those for the Agency tracts comprised in those districts.
 (2) In Malabar leases are, in some cases, classified as mortgages owing to the difficulty of clearly distinguishing the two classes of documents. The average value per document is low in this district, as a large number of counterparts, whose value is discarded from the statistical returns, are registered with their originals, and the average value is calculated with reference to the total number of documents including counterparts.
 (3) In the Zemindari districts in the north sales and mortgages refer mostly to man lands and house properties, as the right of transfer by Zemindari ryots of their holdings is not recognised by Zemindars.
 (4) The small number of sales in Malabar and South Canara is due to the difficulty of alienation of family property under the Marumakkattayam and Alyasantana systems. In these districts the transfers take the form of leases and mortgages.

- (4) *The following account of the methods of business adopted by firms of Nattukottai Chetties established in Karúr (Coimbatore District) in lending money to ryots has been furnished by the Sub-Registrar of Karúr.*

There are twelve firms of Nattukottai Chetties established at Karúr for lending money. Of these firms, four are wealthy and have dealings to the extent of a lakh of rupees each. The investments of others vary from about Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 50,000. The richest of them has banks in Rangoon, Madura and Madras, and it is from one of his agents that the information given below was obtained.

When a ryot applies to the Chetties for a loan, which is not done in writing, his name is noted down, and careful inquiries are made as to whether the property owned by him will be sufficient security for the loan. Villagers known to be respectable, and having transactions with them, supply the Chetties with the necessary information on the point. Village officers are consulted in cases of doubt, and all deeds relating to the property upon which his claims rest are demanded and examined. The Chetties are more ready to advance money on the security of lands in the actual possession and enjoyment of the ryot by right of purchase or mortgage, than on the security of inherited property, as there are chances of claims being disputed in the latter case. Encumbrance certificates from registration offices are very rarely, if ever, required. (There has not been a single application for general search in this year on this account.) The Chetties and their agents have made themselves thoroughly acquainted with the condition of the ryots living in the vicinity of Karúr. The help of the village officer is sought only where reliable information cannot be had from other available sources. As a rule, a ryot who has already had transactions with the bankers introduces the applicant, and, if necessary, becomes his surety. The applicant has not to wait for more than a week unless the amount is large, say Rs. 1,000. Promissory notes and simple bonds are accepted only when the applicant is a well known and respectable man. Mortgage deeds with personal security are the rule.

The Chetties do not keep any treasury in their banks, and there is never more than a thousand rupees in reserve in the richest firm. They are supplied with money according to requirements by their brethren in Madras, with whom they keep accounts current. When a loan is applied for, clients already owing are pressed hard and the advance is made from recoveries; when this is not possible, or when there is a likelihood of a longer delay than a week, money is obtained from Madras.

There are forty Nattukottai Chetties in Madras who supply their brethren in the mofussil with sums of money whenever required, bearing rates of interest which vary every month. These sums the mofussil Chetties are at liberty to return without any restrictions as to time of repayment. But, as a rule, all debts recovered are remitted at once to Madras, unless there is demand for fresh loans. The Madras Chetties belong to one and the same sect and place as those in the mofussil, and are therefore acquainted with the character and solvency of the latter to enable them to judge as to how much can be safely advanced. The rates of interest charged by the Madras firms on their mofussil bankers vary according to demand every month. About the first of every

Tamil month the forty Chetties meet in their temple and resolve as to what rate should be adopted for the month. This is generally done by a reference to the rates that prevailed in the same month in the previous year. The actual rates charged during the last three years are given below :—

	Rate of interest charged.					
	1890.		1891.		1892.	
	A.	P.	A.	P.	A.	P.
Chittirai (April and May)	15	3	13	0	13	3
Vaiyasi (May and June)	14	0	12	0	12	6
Ani (June and July)	11	9	10	6	11	3
Adi (July and August)	10	6	9	6	9	6
Avani (August and September)	8	0	7	6		
Purattasi (September and October) . .	8	0	7	6		
Arpisi (October and November)	8	0	7	6		
Kartigai (November and December)	8	6	8	0		
Margali (December and January)	10	6	10	0		
Tai (January and February)	13	0	12	6		
Masi (February and March) ...	14	0	15	0		
Panguni (March and April)	14	0	14	3		

The balances outstanding to the credit of the Madras firms bear interest month by month according to the rates then prevailing and not according to any fixed rate. The average interest for a year under these calculations will be about 8 per cent. Every seven months the interest is added to the balance and compound interest according to rates as above stated is calculated. The mofussil Chetties take care, therefore, to keep no account unpaid for more than seven months. This is the main reason for the terms of repayment in their stipulations with ryots being always short. One of the Chetties here gets money from Rangoon occasionally, but the rate of interest being higher there it is not preferred to Madras. Remittances are made by currency notes, and hundis where possible.

The establishment of each banker consists only of an agent or kanakapillai (accountant) who does much of his business. Most of the Chetties remain in Karur for about eight months in a year and transact their business in person. During their absence the kanakapillais are empowered to make loans and recover debts subject to conditions differing according to the character and experience of the men. The richest bankers have agents of their own class and do not stay in Karur long, the agents doing all their business. No securities are taken from them. who is the richest pays his agents Rs. 500 a year each besides undergoing their boarding expenses. Kanakapillais get from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 a month and keep their accounts in cadjan leaves. Their services are availed of in writing documents, and they have also to go about the villages collecting interest due. Debtors do not pay interest every month, though in the documents they agree to do so; generally once in every three months or so it is collected. The profit and loss are determined once every three years with some; with others the periods vary.

There is no particular season in which debts are recovered. During the harvest seasons the ryots are pressed for payment, but they prefer to keep what is harvested and sell the produce during the dearest season to obtain a larger price. The payments are made throughout the year according to individual convenience.

The loans granted under the special well rules at a small rate of interest were mostly in the months of March, April and May last, when a Deputy Collector was specially deputed to this taluk for the purpose. That these loans have affected the transactions of Nattukottai Chetties will be clear from the number of documents executed and registered in their favor in those months. The number of documents executed in favor of five of the important Chetties in the three months in 1891 and 1892 have been compared, and it is found that while the total number registered in 1891 was 88, the number has fallen to 30 in 1892. The rates of interest have not, however, shown any decline. The sums lent amounted in a large number of cases to from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500, and in very rare instances to Rs. 1,000. The average rate of interest for the former class is Rs. 1-4-0 or 15 per cent. per annum. Deducting the interest which the Chetties have to pay to their bankers in Madras, there is a net gain of about 7 per cent. This does not, however, express the full extent of their profit as some of them have invested funds with the Madras bankers and share their profits also. Moreover it is not always with remittances from Madras that they carry on their business. Sums of Rs. 1,000 or Rs. 2,000 are got from their private funds at Devakóta in the Madura district, the central seat of Nattukottai Chetties. A deed for Rs. 1,800 in May 1892 bears rate of interest at 12 annas per mensem, the rate chargeable in Madras being about 14 annas in the month; this at first sight seems inexplicable. But as the interest is here levied throughout the whole term at a fixed rate, and as the high rates in Madras are payable only for two or three months, the same sum bearing about 9 annas rate in July and August, the profit at the close of the term will be large.

(5) *The account given by Mr. Warden, Collector of Malabar in 1801, of usurious money-lenders in Pálghat.*

“The cultivating ryot is obliged at the end of the year to borrow money to purchase seed for the ensuing year’s cultivation. To obtain this money, there being no one else to lend him, he is driven to the necessity of applying for it to a Putter (Pálghat Brahmin), the greedy nature of whose disposition is beyond anything I ever knew or heard of. That your Board may be able to form some idea of it, I shall here beg leave to state the hardships to which a ryot borrowing money from one of these Putters is frequently subjected.

“Let it be supposed that a ryot borrows from him 50 fanams at the latter end of the year to purchase seed for sowing. The price of batty (paddy) at this time is generally about 1½ paraahs the fanam, at which rate he will get 75 paraahs. He then passes a note to the Putter (who will not otherwise lend him a kaas) promising to return his 50 fanams within four months at 3 per cent. interest per mensem, in batty on his reaping the first crop at the price at which it may be then current. This current price is never less than 3 paraahs, and sometimes 3½ and 4 paraahs the fanam—let it be reckoned at 3. At the expiration of the four months the loan of 50 fanams with interest will amount to 58 fanams, the value of which in grain at 3 paraahs the fanam will be 174 paraahs. The ryot at this period has to pay the Sircar revenue,

and is at the same time dunned by his Brahmin creditor whom the proportion of the produce will not allow to satisfy in full. The Brahmin, however, is content with receiving two-thirds of his grain, which will be 116 paraahs, and for the remaining one-third or 58 paraahs he will exact a new bond from the ryot (who will pass it to avoid a civil prosecution with which his creditor threatens him) promising to pay the value of the grain in a specified month at the latter end of the season (with the same usurious interest as above said) in *money* at the rate at which grain may be *then* selling. The price, as I have above mentioned, is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ paraahs the fanam. Thus allowing six months' interest, the sum to be paid in lieu of 58 paraahs will amount to 47 fanams, so that in the course of about ten or twelve months, for the loan of 50 fanams or 75 paraahs of paddy, although the ryot has paid 116 paraahs, he does not return his debt in a greater sum than 3 fanams or $4\frac{1}{2}$ paraahs of paddy. Cases of this nature have come before me, when the poor ryot has been driven to the extremity of distress, and at last prosecuted with all the severity imaginable by his avaricious and unrelenting creditor."

The following particulars have been furnished by the Sub-Registrar of Pálghat as to the nature of usurious money-lending transactions carried on by Moplahs at present :—

"Usurious transactions of the nature described by Mr. Warden continue to be carried on in Pálghat and some other parts of the Malabar district.

"The people taking such loans are agriculturists of very small or almost of no credit who eke out a struggling existence by cultivating other peoples' lands for a season. Mr. Warden's account describes a transaction from the beginning and traces it through two stages. The documents now obtainable in regard to such transactions evidence only a certain stage in the progress of the loan operation and the deficiencies in them have to be supplied by oral statements. Translations of two subsisting bonds are appended ; of which one marked A evidences a transaction entered into for the first time between the parties and the other marked B relates to a loan in the second stage of its progress and forms the note passed by the debtor to the creditor for the balance found due after a settlement of the account in regard to a loan of 80 paraahs of paddy made in Edavam (May-June) 1066. The loan in its original stage is stated to have carried interest at 4 paraahs for 10 paraahs a year. In neither of the documents is seen any provision made for interest after default of payment. In all such cases, however, it is a recognized rule to get a stipulation made for the return of the paddy in money when the price of paddy is at a maximum. (In Pálghat the price of paddy has in these two years ruled at a parah the fanam in the harvest season ; and at the latter end it varied from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$ edangalies the fanam)."

A.—Document executed by A to B. I have this day borrowed from you in cash Rs. 10 ; and I promise to pay for this amount 35 paraahs of paddy within the 30th Tulam 1068 (November 1892), at a parah the fanam ; and shall thereupon take back this document, dated the 9th Mithunam, 1067 (July 1892).

B.—Simple mortgage executed by A to B.—In settlement of previous accounts you find myself indebted to you in 57 parahs 6 edangalies of paddy. This 57 parahs 6 edangalies of paddy I shall return to you before the 30th of Vrischikam, 1068 (December 1892), with interest at 5 parahs for every 10 parahs of paddy (*i.e.*, 50 per cent.) and shall take back this document, dated the 7th Mithunam, 1067 (14th July 1892).

“At Ottapalam, a station on the Railway, the business is said to be very briskly carried on by the Moplahs and the following case is adduced in illustration of the terms of the business:—

“A ryot, in order to furnish himself with a stock of paddy for paying the wages of his laborers, borrows of a Moplah in Mithunam (June-July) 50 parahs of paddy which for the borrower is then priced at Rs. 25, on the condition that when the first crop is harvested in Kanni (September-October) he will repay the principal and the interest at 2 per cent. per mensem in paddy at 4 edangalies in excess of the market rate. Under the terms of this agreement, in Kanni, when paddy sells at 12 edangalies the fanam, the borrower has to pay for the 27 rupees which then becomes due, $\frac{27 \times 3\frac{1}{2} \times 16}{10}$ or 151 parahs 2 edangalies of paddy. The borrower whose gross produce at the time is not more than 250 parahs is not able to pay and the lender is not really anxious to receive the whole amount of the debt. But the creditor being the person to be on the spot first, and his demand being more imperious than that of the landlord, the ryot gives him 100 parahs at once and agrees to pay the remainder in *money* calculated on the price that may be found to be current in the succeeding Dhanu when the price of paddy rises to 8 edangalies the fanam. In Dhanu, thus, the ryot finds himself indebted to the Moplah in $\frac{51\frac{1}{2} \times 10}{8}$ or 64 fanams, which is 18 $\frac{3}{4}$ rupees. At that part of the year he has neither money nor paddy with which to discharge the debt; and he then makes a third promise that for the 64 fanams he will give paddy on the harvesting of the Makaram crop when the price of paddy falls to a parah the fanam. In Makaram the ryot's indebtedness amounts to 64 fanams which he is unable to clear simultaneously with his paying his rent in full. Being anxious to retain his land for the next year's cultivation, he now desires to keep himself in the good graces of his Jenmi and so hands over to him the greater portion of his produce. The land which the ryot is assumed to cultivate is capable of sowing 25 parahs and the gross produce that the land brings in to him is estimated at 250 + 200 or 450 parahs. He has to pay as rent 200 parahs for the year. With this produce he is unable to meet in full the demands of either the Jenmi or the Moplah, and to both of them he finds himself indebted. Supposing the ryot to conciliate the Moplah by paying him 32 parahs at once and agreeing to pay money for the balance at 8 annas the parah in Mesham, the result to the ryot is that after paying the Moplah 132 parahs for the original loan of 50 parahs, he finds his original debt reduced at the end of the year by only 9 rupees. The Jenmi may occasionally remit the balance, but the Moplah never does.

“The above account is given by one well acquainted with the place and the people and vouched to be correct and represents transactions of but a milder type.”

(6) *Extract from Buchanan's "Journey through Mysore, Canara and Malabar, 1801."*

The following is the account given by Dr. Buchanan as to the terms on which advances were usually made by merchants on the sea coast to ryots in the interior on account of commercial produce to be delivered after harvest :—

"Farmers of prudence and substance, such as the Moplahs mostly are, receive no advances for pepper; but when their pepper is fit for market, sell it to the best advantage and deliver it at the seaport at from Rs. 120 to Rs. 125 a candy of 640 lb. The case is, however, different with most of the Hindus, who, in Malabar, are as remarkable for a thoughtless profusion as in other parts they are penurious. Between 12th of June and of 13th September, the Mussulman traders come from the coast and enter into written engagements with those who are willing to receive advances. The cultivators agree to deliver a certain quantity of pepper for which the trader pays down immediately from 13 to 15 fanams a tulam or from Rs. 65 to Rs. 75 a candy. Should the cultivator, at the crop season, be unable to deliver the quantity for which he contracted, he must pay for the deficiency at the market price, which is generally Rs. 120 to Rs. 125 a candy. As he is seldom or never able to pay this in cash, he gives a note of hand, engaging to deliver pepper for the amount of the price of the deficiency, at the rate of 1 tulam for 13 to 15 fanams; but no interest is charged. Indeed the profits of the trader are immense; as for an advance of 15 fanams for six months, he gets a profit of 10; and it is evident that the risk is very small. Should a merchant not consent to receive the pepper on account of its being bad, the cultivator may sell it to any person that he pleases and give the proceeds to the merchant. Should these not amount to the market price, he gives a note of hand for the balance, which is considered as part of the advance for next year. It is evident that the interest of the merchant is to keep up a high nominal price, even should he, in selling the pepper to foreigners, be obliged to allow a large discount; for all the balances due by the farmer are paid in, what is called, the market price. The present market price is Rs. 125 a candy or £2-1-5 a cwt. It is sometimes as low as Rs. 100, and at others rises to double that sum.

"The cultivators, when questioned concerning the reason that can induce them to take up money on terms so disadvantageous, attribute it entirely to the land tax; for every evil in Malabar is ascribed to that as its source. At length, I found that the real cause of the Hindus disposing of their pepper at this low rate is a festival called 'Onam,' which is celebrated in the month of Singham. At this, the Hindus expend in drinking and finery everything which they can raise."

As regards the arrangements now usually entered into by merchants with cultivators in regard to the delivery of commercial produce, such as pepper, coconuts and coffee, the Registrar of the Tellicherry district, in which these crops are extensively grown, reports as follows :—

"About fifty years ago it was the practice for Moplahs on the sea coast to go to the interior and advance money to tenants at Rs. 60 or

Rs. 70 a candy, when pepper was selling at Rs. 120 in the town. It is also true that they were made to pay for the deficient quantity at the market rate or to give a note of hand engaging to deliver pepper at the next harvest for the amount settled at Rs. 60 or Rs. 70 a candy. This mode of advance has become changed for various reasons. Formerly, there were no cartable roads in the district and the facility of communication between the coast, where the merchants generally lived, and the interior, was wanting. Further, Moplah traders were not many and money was also scarce. Now the state of things is quite the reverse. As the advance of time has brought on so many changes, it must have reacted on the old practice which was ruinous to tenants. They have now grown more intelligent and civilized. They now freely go to towns and learn the market price daily. The present method of advance, as described below, must have been brought on by natural course to suit the convenience of the purchaser and seller. It is a well known fact that tenants in Malabar have no proprietary right in the soil and cannot therefore give sufficient guarantee for the money advanced. In cases of non-fulfilment of engagements, merchants must have found considerable difficulty in recovering the amount. On the other hand, tenants must also have seen their own ruin in such bargains.

“ I made careful enquiries among merchants who deal extensively in pepper and coffee. They borrow large sums from the banks and hand them to various middlemen (Moplahs generally) who live in the interior and have moderate means. The rate of interest charged by the bank is generally 12 per cent. per annum or even less. These middlemen are charged at 24 per cent. by merchants and agree to give, for principal and interest, pepper at market rates. They go to different pepper gardens in their neighbourhood, estimate the crops on pepper vines and purchase them for ready money from tenants who are in need of it. Pepper is generally plucked from vines from 15th January to 15th February. One would be able to judge the quantity and quality of the crop from September forward. The middlemen commence to purchase the crop from August and September. The more it grows to maturity the higher its price rises for two reasons. The merchant has not much to lose in the shape of interest on the sum paid beforehand. Secondly, he will be in a better position to see the state of the crop. He is always shrewd enough not to lose and makes a net profit of 20 per cent. on his borrowed capital in four or five months. He, first of all, estimates the crop by edangalies (nearly equal to Madras measures). For every 100 edangalies of undried pepper, he agrees to pay Rs. 9 or Rs. 10. Seven hundred edangalies of undried pepper, if dried, will be a little more or less than a candy, according to the quality of the crop. He has to bear all charges for plucking and other incidental expenses required for drying and taking it to the market. The rate of purchasing raw pepper on the vines will vary according to the nature of the market in seaport towns and the demand of wholesale merchants. While petty merchants make a clear profit of not less than 20 per cent. on their outlay in five months, big merchants in the town have a profit of 1 per cent. per mensem on their borrowed capital from the bank. The middlemen, about the end of February, deliver pepper to wholesale merchants for the amount borrowed and for its interest at

24 per cent. at market rates. If they fail to do so, the contract is enforced with a small additional amount calculated at a certain rate per candy for the disappointment caused. Even the loss of 20 per cent. on a sum expected in a few months is ruinous to a tenant. Why he foregoes this amount will be explained further on.

Coffee.—It should not be supposed that Europeans alone have coffee gardens in Wynaad. Jenmies and small farmers rear coffee plants on their parambas and waste lands according to their means and circumstances. The soil is virgin and fertile and the climate congenial to their growth. The petty jenmies and tenants are in need of money like those who farm pepper gardens at the foot of the hills. The middlemen first estimate coffee crops and purchase them for a price which would give them not less than 20 per cent. profit on their outlay. The expenses of plucking, &c., are borne by them. The wholesale merchants in the town purchase coffee for the market price, from petty traders who have received advance, in adjustment of principal and interest which is generally not less than 24 per cent. The processes of purchasing and selling coffee are similar to those detailed above for pepper. The above method is not applicable to European planters who generally borrow large sums from the bank directly for expenses of cultivation and for the payment of coolies in their gardens.

Cocoanut.—The process is the same. But it is purchased by the thousand. If 1,000 cocoanuts are expected to be sold at Rs. 25 in January, the pre-payment for the same quantity is Rs. 15 to Rs. 17 in September. In this case the petty traders' profit will be about 30 per cent. on the outlay. Their risk is greater and they are almost entirely at the mercy of the tenants who generally have nothing and oftentimes not even the trees to pledge. Hence under this head advances to tenants are not made for large sums. In cases of failure to fulfil the engagement, legal steps are taken to enforce the contract according to the penal rates stipulated therein.

"I do not mean to say that the old practice of advancing money on pepper, coffee and cocoanuts has died out entirely. It has almost gone out and there may be rare occurrences in the interior parts. By the new method the connection between petty traders and tenants ceases and is renewed annually. While the latter are not much harassed the former do not lose their profit largely. It is found convenient to both parties."

As to the question why small farmers and tenants receive advances on crops on disadvantageous terms instead of harvesting the produce and selling it on their own account when the price is high, the Registrar remarks that the reason for this is not to be found in the heaviness of the land tax or extravagant expenditure during the "Onam" feast as suggested by Dr. Buchanan, but in the great poverty of the lower classes of the cultivators due to the system of landholding under the Marumakattayam law. It is not to the interest of the karnavan or the head of a Malabar family who is uncontrolled in regard to the disposal of the income of the property to invest money either on improvements to property or in helping tenants with advances. The tenants are, as a rule, rack-rented and have to pay heavy renewal fees whenever kanom mortgages are renewed. The Nairs, as a class, do not engage in trade which is almost entirely in the hands of the Moplahs.

(7) *Extract from a report on the indebtedness of the agricultural classes furnished by the Acting Registrar, South Arcot District.*

1. Ryots (or those that are engaged in agriculture) are divisible into three classes; farm servants, farmers and proprietors. The first class have no credit except with their employers to a very limited extent. They till the soil for the landlords either for monthly grain wages, for kalam (that which is left in the threshing ground, after it is imperfectly swept), partly for kalam and partly for grain wages, or for kalam and a small share (of grain harvested). They can get advances from their employers to the extent of the wages they are likely to earn in the course of the year, or an advance for marriage of about Rs. 20. This latter sum is not repaid, nor is interest charged upon it, when the servant leaves his masters' service. It is difficult to dismiss him without forfeiting the advance unless the servant transfers his services to another master in the same village, when, by mutual understanding among the villagers, he is required and enabled to refund the sum advanced.

The credit of the farmers is nearly co-extensive with their annual profits and that of the proprietors with nearly 70 per cent. of the value of their property. The so-called farmers are persons of very little means, possessing only a pair of cattle, a plough and a hut. Their extraordinary expenses are generally defrayed from their savings. The large borrowing class are all proprietors of land and their credit has considerably improved during the last twenty years owing to the rise of prices. In the sub-district of Panruti, and, I believe, also in the whole district, the last class only are numerous.

2. In the neighbourhood of Panruti, cumboo, paddy and ground-nut are raised, the first two for home consumption, and the last almost wholly for export. The money-lenders chiefly live at Panruti. They make advances from time to time, but, specially before the Kartiga festival of Tiruvannámalai, for buying cattle. The advances are in small sums by account-current, but when they reach a respectable figure, a stamped bond or mortgage-deed is obtained. The conditions are that the advances should be repaid within a year or two; that the price should be the lowest prevailing at the commencement of the harvest season; and a highly penal rate of interest from 2 to 6½ per cent. per mensem be paid for default. No interest is charged for repayments in time. It is said that the penal interest is not always exacted, except when the claim has to be enforced in a Court. This is the practice of the petty, though numerous, class of money-lenders. Comparatively large but temporary loans are also granted upon jewels, indigo, paddy, &c. The rate of interest in these cases is between 6 and 12 per cent. Loans on personal credit are allowed only to traders and to customers of goods. No interest is charged on such loans so long as they remain account debts. Larger proprietors make loans of grain to petty farmers about July or so, repayable at the harvest time with profit or interest at one-fourth of the principal. Allusion to this custom is found in the reports of the Sub-Registrars of Chidambaram and Tindivanam, and I also find it prevalent in the Chingleput district. Money loans are also granted upon, what is called, paddy interest, i.e., at so many kalams

per Rs. 100, irrespective of the price of paddy at the time it is paid. Compound interest is very unusual in any case.

3. *Result of the system.*—Much misapprehension prevails as to the character of money-lenders or as to the result of borrowing. Human nature is the same at all times and at all places, and where there is a difference it is wholly due to the influence to which it is subject. A capitalist will willingly pay a premium to purchase a 4 per cent. Government security; but is very reluctant to lend money at 12 per cent. to a near relation. He is not capricious and it will not be difficult to know his motive. The much-abused Marwadies risk their money on personal credit, and interest cannot be the same where the risks are not. Professional money-lenders have no longing for lands, because their avocation is not agricultural. When they buy, they do so against their will for want of other buyers, and sell them when they can. The position of the agricultural borrowers has greatly improved and that of the professional money-lenders has deteriorated during the last quarter of a century. The value of money having fallen or that of the agricultural produce risen, the money lent is returned when it is not worth as much as when it was given. The value so far is transferred from the one class to the other * This will show that the money-lender has been a blessing instead of a curse, and he has been improving, unconsciously though it be, the position of the agriculturists in his own district. I have experience of two or three districts, and I am able to state that the improvement is marked and perceptible to all unprejudiced observers. Nearly half of the huts that existed twenty-five years ago have disappeared, and tiled houses have taken their places. Houses which were tiled then have changed their dimensions and appearance now. So in clothing and other comforts. Agriculturists have in their turn become money-lenders and have learnt to dispense with the aid of the professional money-lenders to a very great extent. The improvement in material prosperity can be easily gauged by the fall in the interest, which was then 12 per cent. at least (then called charitable or *சீமலட்சி*), is now nearly 6 per cent. Time has come when ryots are able to take advantage of any help that may be rendered to them to organize a system of mutual credit on the lines that will hereafter be explained. Farm servants are a diminishing class. Their ambition is to become farmers. By getting a small loan for purchasing one bullock or two, by industry and economy, they become in time proprietors of a plough and a pair of cattle and are able to maintain themselves independently. As farmers, they are able to repay their loans which, as servants, they were not. By dint of exertion and thrift, they are even able to purchase a small piece of land and attain the status of proprietors. Rich landlords, on the other hand, have been losing ground. The sons by partition get only a fraction of their patrimony, while their family and expenditure are, in many cases, equal to, or greater than, those of their parents. They involve themselves in debt and have ultimately to part with their lands. They become poor and by hard necessity understand their position and try to lift themselves with those who were originally poor. The lands are passing from

* This seems to be too high an estimate.

them to vakils and Government officials. Of the four systems of credit here alluded to, the result of lending money, at so much per cent., is very advantageous to the borrower. Grain interest is demandable by small capitalists who have to purchase paddy for their consumption. It is generally favorable to the lender and is not had recourse to, except in an emergency. *Vasi* or *Nanji* (the latter means one-fourth share), apparently very disadvantageous to the borrower, is not really so. The grain is advanced in June or July and is repaid in February or March. The duration of the loan is about nine months and the interest, if the value and condition of paddy be the same, is nearly 3 per cent. We have, however, to allow for the difference in the price which itself is sometimes nearly 25 per cent. in favour of the borrower. We have also to allow for the dryage of the paddy at the time of repayment. This comes to nearly 15 to 20 per cent.* The ryots prefer this kind of payment to money payment. The only advantage to the lender is that there is no excuse for putting off the payment when the harvest is realized.

“ Repayment in kind, at the time of harvest without interest, is apparently advantageous to the ryot and sometimes is really so. He gets as much for his grain as he would otherwise have if he sold the crops when they are gathered. His gain consists in the interest on the money borrowed for the period between the date of the loan and that of the harvest. In consideration of this, he has to abstain from selling his grain to others and from selling it at a time when it would fetch the best price. Taking into account his necessitous condition, the sacrifice is nominal. The lenders can buy paddy at the time of the harvest and pocket the difference if they can. That they are not able to do so indicates the real position. The lenders have to pay simply to purchase a custom and this is no doubt proof that the ryots are able to dictate their own terms and money is easy.”†

(S) *Tenant right in Java : extracted from an article from one of the English Newspapers quoted in the “ Indian Economist,” 1870.*

“ We can very well understand the excitement created in Holland by the passing of the Agrarian Bill for the Dutch Indian possessions; and there can be little doubt its conservative opponents are right in proclaiming it the precursor of a social revolution. It seems to decide the question, which has been so long and hotly debated in the Parliament at the Hague and signs the death-warrant of the Dutch Colonial System. Independently of the radical changes introduced in that system by the bill, the very fact of foreign witnesses being invited behind the scenes—of the working of Dutch Colonial policy being laid bare to public opinion—seems to make the inevitable revolution in it merely a question of time. That that revolution must have come sooner or later was certain. Its advocates had all the arguments

* This seems to be too high an estimate.

† This is somewhat too broadly stated. It is necessary that makes ryots part with their grain soon after harvest and the lenders make a profit out of this. The ryots in general, however, are now better able to hold out for a price than they were before.

on their side except utilitarian ones. The telling and hitherto conclusive reply of their opponents has been that their present system pays and pays enormously. Not only is there no difficulty whatever in establishing an equilibrium in Javanese budgets, but Javanese labour and taxation contribute immediately to the home treasury. Now the new measure not merely introduces the wedge—that was done some time ago, when free labour was admitted on the new railway works,—but drives it home into the very roots of the system; one or two blows more must follow in local sequence and it will be rent into fragments. The two leading features of the Dutch system are the ownership by the State of all the lands in the island, and forced labour. With regard to the former, the Dutch, on their occupation, found the native princes enjoying all over the soil of their dominions what resembled much more nearly actual ownership than a bare feudal superiority. Stepping into their places and rights, they pensioned these local magnates, and governed or oppressed from behind their names. The Dutch Resident drew the lion's share of the gains: the native prince had a handsome commission and the whole unpopularity for his share. If he were slack in turning the screw, he abdicated under pressure in favour of some member of his family, with an hereditary claim equally unimpeachable with his own. All the island is administered on this footing, with the exception of a couple of quasi-independent states, ruled by puppets under the eyes of a Dutch garrison. The whole population is not only bound down to the soil, but limited rigorously as to the productions to be raised upon it. Over certain districts the cultivator cannot exercise his discretion, but must satisfy Government inspectors on their periodical visits that he grows a certain number of trees of a certain kind. His produce is brought into Government markets, and bought at Government prices, and the margin between the sums it fetches in Java and at Amsterdam is always great and often fabulous. Then, in one form or another, Javanese labour is absolutely at the service of the State, and the marvellous prosperity of the island—regarding the matter from a Dutch, not a Javanese, point of view—dates from the impulse given to this principle by General Vanden Boesch. Be it observed, it is a system highly practical and profitable, but essentially vicious; and, with this radical defect in it, that if you once subject it to criticism you invite its condemnation in all its parts. Modification can only lead on to annihilation. We presume the party who has carried the measure in the House will have the power and the will to see that it is carried out in the colonies, although we may well imagine the local officials will offer it all the opposition they dare. It is not pleasant seeing nearly absolute power tempered down to constitutional authority, the rich salaries and allowances passing into the crucible of reform. A paradise as the island is, in some ways, it wants strong counter-inducements to the climate to make life in Java an enviable thing; and if the Dutch residents have had to work and think, and turn night to day, hitherto at least they have lived in the license and luxury of Oriental despots, and enjoyed the slavish reverence of their subjects. Now if the revenues dwindle to or below the point at which they stood before Vanden Boesch set to work on them with his rough and ready finance system, officials will find themselves the victims of their economical home Government; and,

moreover, the proposed changes will probably suggest a very material reduction in their numbers.

“Article 62 provides that land leases may be granted for periods not exceeding 75 years. It invites, in fact, to the immigration and colonization which for so long have been studiously discouraged. It assures extreme fixity of tenure, and offers every facility for converting occupation into permanent property. It admits and confirms the strange principle of native ownership, and permits, under certain restrictions, that land shall vest in foreigners, or be rented by them. Holland, in short, throws open to all the world the rich garden she has hitherto made a close monopoly of, and renounces the right of the crown—a right at once shadowy and substantial—to all the lands cultivated by the natives. There can be no doubt the conservatives are right in saying it will annihilate the present system of cultivation, and it will be hopeless to think of maintaining the Government monopoly of markets. No European colonist would dream of farming, subject to the condition that some three-fourths of his fair profits should become legally the property of the State—that he should have to sell for half a dollar in Java what the telegraph informed him was selling for four in Holland. And although the natives have hitherto been treated and have regarded themselves as an inferior caste, it would be impossible to attempt to make distinctions on a point on which they are sure to be so sensitive as the pocket. The Government system must go, and with it the Government profits. How far land leases and taxation may replace them is another question, and one that, when we contrast results from the British and the Dutch Indies, cannot be answered very hopefully for the Dutch treasury. We are told the Dutch conservatives are uneasy as to the advent of English adventurers and its consequences. We have no doubt the restrictions referred to have been naturally arranged so as to impose some check on that. It would be contrary to human nature, and to Dutch nature especially, to suppose that all of a sudden they should push free-trade and self-abnegation to sentimental lengths. But, in any case, of all the climates in the East, the climate of Java is among the most trying to Europeans; and that consideration alone, we should fancy, would operate against any such influx as the Dutch affect to apprehend. That the bill will endanger their hold on their colonies we do not believe. On the contrary a weak State always does wisely to shelter itself behind ‘the principles of eternal justice;’ and daring filibusterers, or even acquisitive Governments, have lost an excellent chance of having public opinion in their favour in a crusade against the task-master of the Malay race. And for Malays, when the islands have ceased to be closed colonies, the Dutch may venture to turn their tardy attention to raising their Eastern subjects in the social scale. Hitherto they have not merely been neglected, but degraded as a matter of policy; for an enlightenment among the population was absolutely incompatible with the system of serfdom and *corvée* on which they were governed. It is impossible to deny that Holland may have legislated away her splendid colonies’ income; but we have every reason to believe she has strengthened her hold on her colonies. Better perpetuate a connection that must always be profitable than continue a scandal of civilization, and gains as insecure and uncertain as great speculative profits generally are. [The truth seems to be that the

system of semi-slavery has broken down and that a change is absolutely necessary. Why should the Dutch fear an influx of English planters? They would soon make the mountains of Java what the mountains of Ceylon are, to the detriment not of the Dutch but English Colony].”

(9) *Description of a Swiss Land Credit Bank.*

An extract from a paper read to the Statistical and Social Inquiry Society of Ireland, by Mr. M. O'Brien, printed as Appendix A to the Third Report of the Royal Commission to inquire into the depression of Trade and Industry (1886).

The demand for legislation to facilitate the lending of public money on small plots of land in Ireland makes a description of the constitution and operation of a Continental Land Credit Bank of some interest.

Mr. H. D. MacLeod, in his lectures on credit and banking, says—

“Many banks in Central Europe have been founded for the purpose of making advances to cultivate land, and a very large portion of the advance in agriculture during the last 130 years has been due to them”

- The provisions of the French Civil Code, the principles of which have been adopted in many other countries, make land a suitable security for bankers' loans, which it is not under English law.

In the report of the Royal Commission of 1857 on registration of titles, the following sentence (p. 46) occurs, and is applicable to land as banking security:—

“It has been well said that the greatest condemnation of the existing system of lending money on land is the reluctance which bankers, the natural traders in loans, have to lend on mortgage or judgment. The security which they refuse, careless trustees, ignorant people who have savings, and widows and others who have some small provision, are advised to accept, and in this way the whole risk of bad security is thrown on the classes least able to bear it.”

The Land Credit Bank of the State of Vaud (*Caisse hypothécaire cantonale, Vaudoise*) was established for the purpose of granting advances on the security of real property to the agricultural classes. As the entire canton is owned and occupied in very small parcels, the advantages of the bank extended to the whole community. The control and management of the bank is in the hands of the following three bodies:—

- (1) A council of 20, of whom 10 members are named by the executive government and 10 are elected by the bank shareholders with a President, who must be a member of the Government; the council meets at least once in six months.
- (2) A committee of supervision, consisting of the President of council, and 4 members named by the council, meeting at least twice a month.
- (3) A directorate, consisting of a chief director, 2 managers, and 2 assistants; they meet at the chief office at least three times a week, and must not be related to each other. The Secretary of the bank is selected by the Government from among the permanent officials of the State.

The following figures are taken from the report of the bank for the year ending 31st December 1883, and are given in round numbers:—

The resources of the bank consisted of—

	£
(1) Paid up capital in £20 shares (the State must be the proprietor at least of 1,000 shares)	380,000
(2) The funds obtained by the issue of debentures in amounts of £20, £40 and £200	790,000
(3) The funds of the State Savings Bank, on which 4 per cent. interest is guaranteed	835,000
(4) Sundry convertible securities, cash, &c.	80,000

According to the constitution of bank, loans can only be made on real or quasi-real property, and by preference on agricultural and pastoral properties. The following classes of loans are made:—

- (1) On real estate, for terms varying from 9 to 53 years, repayable by a sinking fund, varying according to the term, from 10 per cent. to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the interest being calculated at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
- (2) On real estate for not less than five years; but without sinking fund repayment; at the expiration of this time repayment cannot be required unless a year's notice has been given.
- (3) On assignment of mortgage debts and deposit of the bankers own debentures.

During 1883, $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest was charged on loans with a commission of from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.; £12 is the smallest amount lent.

Four per cent. is paid, the debentures issued and outstanding debentures issued at $4\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. are being paid off.

At the ending of 1883, the bank had 17,533 debentures of the aggregate value of £790,000 in circulation, and had 9,087-loans outstanding of the aggregate value of £1,899,400.

During 1883 its chief operations were the issue of 1,026 new loans amounting to £219,500; and the cancelling of loans repaid amounting to £162,183, the issue of 1,264 new debentures at 4 per cent., and the paying off of 588 $4\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. debentures of the value of £39,700. It had property of the value of £60,000 in liquidation, and during the year had disposed of £18,880 worth of these estates. The realization of such property is, the directors report, the most difficult part of their work, requiring great care and watchfulness of the market, lest by too many sales in any locality they should increase the depression which had now for some years prevailed in the market for land.

The bank pays 4 per cent. for the Savings Bank funds; a trifle over 4 per cent. on the whole on its debentures and 4 per cent. on its paid up shares; after providing for these fixed charges, three-fifth of the net profit is divided among the shareholders, and the remaining two-fifth between the bank's officers and the reserve funds.

For 1883 the bank had a net profit of £7,304, which was disposed of in the following manner:—

One per cent. to the holders in addition to the fixed interest of 4 per cent.	1
To the reserve fund	3,800
To a special reserve for depreciation of property in liquidation	1,638
Bonus to the bank officers	1,200
Carried forward	620
	46
Total	<u>7,304</u>

Management expenses amounted to £2,500, taxes and sundries to £1,100.

In round numbers the bank handles about £2,000,000, and on this sum earns about 10s. per £100. The shareholders are content with the modest return of 5 per cent. The business can scarcely be called very remunerative, but is kept up for the public convenience by the countenance of the State, its credit, and partial guarantee, and by special laws to facilitate operations. The receivers of taxes throughout the canton act as agents for the bank and the Savings Bank.

Even the modest return of 5 per cent. could not be earned were it not for the facility and certainty with which loans can be charged upon land. Imagine the Solicitor of an English county making 1,000 investigations of title each year and the cost of such investigations and of the mortgage-deeds in case the loans were made.

The term "mortgage" is not properly applicable to loans secured upon land under the system prevailing in countries subject to the principles of French Civil Code, for the legal estate in the land is not conveyed to the lender as under the English system; but as the word "mortgage" and *hypothèque* are almost exclusively used in connection with loans upon real property, it is convenient to treat them as equivalent, although the legal ideas underlying the two words are different. The description given by Mr. Jenkins, Assistant Agricultural Commissioner, of the system of transfer and mortgage in France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Denmark is equally applicable to most of Switzerland.

"The transfer of landed property is done by means of a system of book-keeping, coupled with an official map on which every plot of land is marked and numbered; a registration office exists in each district; and an intending purchaser can ascertain in a short time the official acreage of any particular field; the name of the registered owner, the amount and nature of any mortgage or other charges upon it. No transaction connected with the land is authentic (in other words legally executed) unless it is duly registered at the district office. The proceeding is perfectly simple and effective."

In Vaud the following books are kept for each commune in connection with the official maps:—

- (1) A register of parcels (*registre Foncier*).
- (2) A register of owners and their properties (*registre cadastrale or cadastre*).
- (3) A register of loans of land (*contrôle des hypothèques*).
- (4) A register of rights, easements, temporary interests (*contrôle des charges immobilières*).

If an owner wishes to borrow, say, 100 francs or £40, and charge his property with that amount, he furnishes with his application to the bank his title, consisting of an extract from the *Cadastré*, and certificate endorsed thereon by the Registrar of Loans and Charges. The expense of obtaining this would not usually exceed 2s. The loan having been agreed to, an *acte* would be drawn by a Notary for 5 francs to the effect that the borrower admits his liability, and charges his land with the amount in favour of the lender. This is represented to the Registrar, and the charge recorded against for a fee of from 1s. to 2s. The charge can be fully or partially erased when paid off in full or in part or can be assigned to a person for similar trifling fees.

Special laws, in addition to Vaudois Civil Code, have been recently passed in order to facilitate the obtaining of loans on land, and in these laws the interests of borrowers have been preferred to those of lenders.

The preamble of a law (*Loi concernant l'obligation hypothécaire à terme*) passed in 1874 recites that the wants of the country require that greater facilities should be given for obtaining loans upon land, and this law legalized a new and special form of *hypothèque* for a term of years not less than five. At the expiration of this term, or at any subsequent period, the lender cannot require repayment, except after a year's notice; the borrower may pay off the loan or any part, being not less than one-third of the original loan, on giving three months' notice. Instead of making repayment when legally demanded, the debtor may require the creditor to assign his right of action to any other person who may be willing to take it up. These loans may be paid off by a sinking fund not exceeding 10 per cent. annually on the loan.

The 16th section of this law promised the establishment of a Land Credit Fund, and, in fulfilment of this promise, a special decree reorganized a previously existing loan fund and constituted the present Land Credit Bank.

The bank is restricted to make loans on real estate, preference is to be given to, and the greater part of the bank's resources lent on, rural and agricultural properties. Loans must not be made for more than two-thirds of the capital value of vineyard land, where the growing vines constitute a considerable portion of the value, and are capable of removal or deterioration; in other cases three-fourths value may be lent. In case of unpunctual payment, interest at the rate of 6 per cent. is charged on the overdue annuity.

The general council of the bank, on which the executive government has a preponderating influence, is charged with the duty of laying down each year the general lines on which business is to be carried on, fixing the rates of interest and providing that the greater part of the loans shall be made on rural properties and repayable on the sinking fund system.

The land debenture (*obligation foncière*) is one of the chief instruments used by these land credit banks, and the Vaudois Bank derives nearly half of its resources from the issue of these debentures in exchange for deposits. They are issued in amounts of £20, £40, and £200, with interest coupons attached, payable to particular persons and transferable by endorsement or payable to bearer and transferable by

delivery ; they are repayable at par after three years on three months' notice being given to the holder.

They are recommended as safe and suitable investment for persons of small means, municipalities and friendly societies. The law permits trust moneys to be invested in them, without application to any legal tribunal. The security for these debentures is the whole amount of property mortgaged to the bank and the paid-up share capital of the bank on which the State guarantees 4 per cent. interest. The numerous mortgage debts of various amounts due to the bank, and each secured on a certain special property are, as it were, converted into stock and issued in amounts found to suit the convenience of the public.

The whole amount of the bank's transactions may seem small ; but it is to be remembered that its operations are confined to a district and population which are not as large as some counties in Ireland. The county of Antrim, exclusive of the borough of Belfast, is about the same size and has about the same population as *Canton de Vaud*.

The success of this bank earning for its shareholders the modest dividend of 5 per cent. is due to the countenance and guarantee of the State not so much as to the system of land transfer and registration of charges, without which its operations could not be carried on at all.

The effect of the State aid extends its operations and keeps the rate of interest charged somewhat lower than it otherwise would be. The State aid would be of little avail if the general law was not adapted to the needs of the country, making transfer and registration charges so easy, that price of the land is quoted by the yards and sales are made with quite as much facility and with same certainty as to costs as sales of shares and stock in this country.

Transfer of land by deed in comparison with transfer on the record of title system seems as antiquated and cumbrous as the use of metal in bulk in place of coin. In the one case the metal must be assayed and weighed at every transfer ; in the other its quality and weight are known at sight.

Under a perfected system of recording titles it is seldom that the title cannot be kept written up. Its state and ownership can be ascertained at a glance, and a legal certificate can be obtained in a few minutes. The delays and uncertainty of the other system are only too familiar to persons in this country who have had dealings with lands.

Another Swiss Land Credit Bank, the "*Banque Foncière de Jura*," without any State aid or guarantee, also pays 5 per cent. on its paid-up capital. Its head-quarters are at Delémont, the most prosperous part of the Canton of Berne. This Bank, however, charges from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 per cent. for most of its loans and pays from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ on all its debentures. Money is obtained on its debentures so easily that it has abandoned a contemplated increase of its paid-up capital. In their report for 1883, the directors say that the interest and annuities due have been satisfactorily paid and that notwithstanding the great depreciation in the value of land, not only in the Jura, but throughout the whole of Switzerland and adjoining countries, they have been enabled to sell properties on their hands without loss and sometimes at a profit.

Mr. H. D. MacLeod, in his *Lectures on Credit and Banking*, claims for the system of cash credits, as practised in Scotland, similar advan-

tages to those of the Continental Land Credit Banks. There is, however, a very great difference, which is due to the superior system of transfer and mortgage under the Continental codes of law. The "Cash credit" is given on personal security and for a short term. In the case of the Continental *hypothèque* the land is the security; the loans can be made for long terms and at a lower rate of interest.

Although 5 per cent. may appear to be a very small return for a banking business as compared with the earnings of English and Irish banks, it is in reality a very good return for an investment on the security of real estate, and must be considered in this light when contrasted with earnings of a speculative business, such as an ordinary bank.

Mr. Thorold Rogers says it has been estimated that conveyance of real estate in the United Kingdom is mulcted in law charges, exclusive of taxes, to the extent of £12,000,000 annually:—

"Such charges are not only a present loss, but the system under which they are permitted brings about and perpetuates an insecurity from which properly registered titles would be free."

Whether the estimate of £12,000,000 be correct or not, there can be no doubt that the legal charges on the conveyancing and charging of lands are enormous, not in proportion to the work done, for the evil consists in there being so much work, such cumbersome method of performing what might be done, and what is done in other countries, so much more simply, certainly, expeditiously and cheaply.

The reported failures of the many attempts at reform in Ireland by means of "purchase clauses" may not be considered universally due to the want of a simple system of transfer and charging. Transfer of land ownership from one class to another may be effected on a large scale by a liberal system of State loans; but it is essential to the success of the system sought to be established that the laws relating to transfer and loans on lands should be radically changed. Under those at present in force, loans of small amounts on land are unsafe; they are made on a bad security, no matter how much the value of the land may exceed the amount of the loan, for the security can neither be sold or charged, nor can loans be recovered without delay, and great and uncertain expense.

(D).—DECAY OF DOMESTIC INDUSTRIES, ABSENCE OF DIVERSITY OF OCCUPATIONS, &c.

- (1) *Extracts from a Reply published in the MADRAS MAIL of the 7th and 9th February 1893, to certain criticisms contained in an article published in the CALCUTTA REVIEW for January 1893, headed "Agricultural History in Madras, and What it teaches us."*

I. *Why was a period of 40 years taken for gauging the progress made?*—The reviewer sees some deep design on the part of Lord Connemara in having proposed that a memorandum should be prepared furnishing materials for forming a judgment as to the results of the last 40 years of British administration on the economic condition of the Presidency. The reviewer agrees with me, however, in

thinking that "there can be no two opinions as to the very great advance made by the country" during this period, but supposes that no one in his senses ever asserted the contrary. To this it is perhaps sufficient to reply that there are persons—intelligent and well-meaning persons too—who, mainly because they have not had facilities for studying the question in all its details, have asserted the contrary for the last 20 years and more; and an inquiry as to whether there is any, and, if so, what truth in their statements is by no means superfluous. The reviewer's idea is that, having regard to the effects of improved and cheaper internal and external communications which should have stimulated enormously its greatest industry, viz., agriculture, a much shorter period should have been taken for review, and that no more suitable period could be found than the last 20 years. It is, of course, easy to object to any period that might be taken, either on the ground that it is too long or too short; but the reasons for taking a period of 40 years are sufficiently obvious. For one thing, a period of 20 years is far too short to gauge the effects of economic forces in operation, of new laws, institutions, methods of Government and administrative measures in any country, and it is emphatically so in a country in which a great famine occurs once in 100 years, and scarcities of greater or less intensity every 12 years or so, and in which the institutions and the habits of the people change slowly. The reviewer admits that the disastrous famine that occurred 7 years after the commencement of the period which he contends should have been taken for review was the severest known during the present century, that it threw back the Presidency "to an enormous extent," and that such a visitation is not ascribable to the defects of British administration. Barely 13 years have passed since this catastrophe occurred, and it would clearly be absurd to select this period specially for gauging the effects of British rule on the condition of the population. The middle of the century, on the other hand, is a suitable starting point in every way for the purposes of a comparison such as that proposed to be instituted. During the first quarter of the century the efforts of the British Government were directed towards introducing order and tranquillity in the territories newly acquired and in carrying out land settlements. The second quarter witnessed the acute agricultural depression,—due, in the main, to the substitution of a *regimé* of cash payments for one of barter and the insufficiency of the currency to meet requirements under the altered condition of things,—the effects of which I have endeavoured to describe in the Memorandum. The East India Company was at its wit's end to find the wherewithal to carry on the administration of the country and the wars which were undertaken under the pressure of necessity or otherwise for the consolidation of the Empire; the initiation of improvements on an extensive scale during this period was, therefore, out of the question. It was about 1850, then, that almost every species of reform and improvement had its commencement—the construction of railways, roads, anicuts and canals, the establishment of schools and Universities, the constitution of Legislative Councils and the enactment of Codes of Laws, the reorganisation of the Police and the Magistracy, the revision of revenue establishments, the abolition of restrictions on trade, the settlement of lands held on favorable terms but uncertain or doubtful titles, the alleviation of burdens on land, and a host of other reforms;

and within 8 years after the commencement of this period the direct Government of the Indian Empire was transferred from the East India Company to the Crown. The gold discoveries in California and Australia, of course, made the carrying out of these reforms possible, by stimulating foreign trade, causing an influx of the precious metals, and replenishing an insufficient currency. From 1850 to 1870 under the stimulus of the exceptionally high prices of commodities which ruled, the causes of which I have explained in my Memorandum, there was enormous expansion of cultivation and trade, and the period was one of unexampled, if inflated, prosperity. After 1870 prices suddenly fell and gave a check to cultivation, and the famine that followed was one of appalling severity and strained the resources of the country to the utmost. From a national point of view, the first period comprised the "fat" years and the second the "lean" ones, and in a country where the "fat" and "lean" years come in almost regular succession, the proper method to adopt in estimating the normal advance made is not to take either period by itself, but to take the combined period as a whole. This is what I have done.

II. *Reviewer's analysis of the statistics of the acreage of holdings.*—The reviewer's procedure in taking a period of 20 years for gauging the general advance made by the country under British administration is about as reasonable as the conduct of a man who, to estimate the advance in general health made under a course of hygienic treatment by a patient subject to periodical attacks of fever which occasionally assumes a malignant form, compares the state of his health when it was at its best with the state at which it is a short time after he has suffered from one of the most malignant of such attacks. For the more limited purpose of finding out how far the country has, under the impetus given by good administration, been enabled to recover from the disastrous effects of the late famine, a comparison for a shorter period would doubtless be legitimate, but in that case the period taken should not be the last 20 but the last 10 years. If such a comparison be made, it will be found that the country is rapidly recovering from the effects of the late famine. In 1875 the ryotwar holdings amounted to 20 million acres, of which 16·3 millions consisted of unirrigated and 3·7 millions of irrigated land. The famine which commenced in 1876 lasted till 1878, while its immediate after-effects continued down to 1882. By 1882, the accounts were cleared of holdings which had been entered in the names of ryots who had deserted or died, and the total area was reduced to 18·8 millions of acres, of which 15 millions of acres consisted of lands classed as unirrigated and 3·8 millions of lands classed as irrigated. In 1890, the acreage of holdings had increased to 21 millions—16·9 millions of unirrigated land and 4·1 millions of irrigated land. The advance made in 8 years was 11·7 per cent.—12·6 per cent. in unirrigated and 8 per cent. in irrigated land. These figures have doubtless to be discounted on account of excess of area found in holdings over and above the area entered in the revenue accounts according to the old measurements in districts resurveyed subsequent to 1882; but this excess area is very small. The only districts in which the new survey areas were introduced between 1882 and 1890 were portions of Cuddapah, South Arcot, Madura and Ganjam, the Wynaad and the whole of the North Arcot district except one taluk, and Vizagapatam.

I have not with me ready to hand exact statistics showing the excess area discovered by remeasurement in the tracts, but there can be no doubt that it cannot exceed 300,000 acres, or about one-seventh of the increase in the area of holdings. Against this has to be set off the extent of lands cultivated but not included under holdings for various reasons; the excess of such cultivation in 1890 over 1882 in the 7 districts greatly affected by the famine was 240,000 acres, or 300,000 acres for the whole Presidency. The increase of population during the 8 years at the rate of 1.5 per cent. per annum was 12 per cent., and taking the yield of irrigated lands to be between four and five times that of unirrigated lands on an average, the increase in production as measured by the area of holdings has proceeded, so far, as fast as the increase in population. In the Kistna and the Gódvári deltas there was an increase of nearly 250,000 acres, or 30 per cent., in the area irrigated both in Government taluks and zemindari tracts, during the last 8 years, and this means an enormous addition to the food production of the country.

The same result is arrived at by an examination of the statistics returned of acreage actually cultivated. In 1882 the area of unirrigated cultivation was 12.3 million acres, of irrigated cultivation 3.5 million acres—total 15.8 million acres. For 1890, the figures were 14 million acres unirrigated, 3.9 millions irrigated—total 17.9 million acres. The increase in 8 years was 13.8 per cent. in unirrigated, and 11 per cent. in irrigated cultivation, subject to the allowance already referred to on account of the excess area found on remeasurement. There is, however, a large extent of cultivation not brought to account in the register of holdings, and the acreage of this cultivation has increased in later years. There is, besides, extension of second crop cultivation and of cultivation with the aid of well irrigation to be taken into account. It must further be remembered that during the period in question the taking up of poor lands thrown out of occupation during the late famine has been discouraged in two ways, viz., first by the imposition of substantial assessments on the lowest class of lands instead of the nominal pepper-corn assessments that used to be levied under the old settlements; and, secondly, the large extent of lands taken up by the Forest Department for fuel and fodder reserves. About 200,000 acres were taken up in the Bellary and Anantapur districts alone. Large extents of lands have similarly been reserved in other districts.

Apart from the cardinal objection already stated to comparing the statistics of holdings in 1890 with those of 1870, the reviewer has overlooked many important considerations and committed several errors in carrying out his analysis. Taking the Presidency as a whole, with the exception of South Canara, the nominal area of ryotwar holdings, as shown in the accounts, increased from 19.6 millions of acres in 1870 to 21 millions of acres in 1890, *i.e.*, 7 per cent. (not 12 per cent. as stated by the reviewer). The values of irrigated and unirrigated lands differ so enormously that we should be drawing very erroneous conclusions from these figures if we do not consider the increase in the irrigated and unirrigated areas separately. For instance, in 1890, the 16.9 millions of acres of unirrigated lands comprised within holdings were assessed to the revenue at only 174.6 lakhs of rupees, while 4.1 millions of acres of irrigated land were assessed at 205.7 lakhs of rupees, or in other words, acre for acre, irrigated, land is worth nearly

5 times as much as unirrigated land, supposing that the assessment bears a uniform ratio to the rental, which, of course, can be taken to be true only as a very rough approximation. The increase in the unirrigated area was from 16 millions to 16·9 millions, or 5·6 per cent. and in the irrigated area from 3·6 millions to 4·1 millions of acres, or by 14 per cent. The increase thus shown has to be discounted on account of excess area found in holdings only in districts which have been surveyed between 1870 and 1890, and districts which have not yet been surveyed, or which were surveyed prior to 1870, remain untouched by this consideration. These latter districts are the Gódvári, the Masulipatam portion of the Kistna district comprising the Kistna delta, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Malabar, Bellary and Anantapur, the larger portion of the South Arcot and the Kurnool districts, *i.e.*, they include nearly all the districts in which the tracts commanded by the great irrigation systems are situated, or in which areas classed as wet largely predominate. The survey increase in the remaining districts may, on a rough calculation, be estimated at 160,000 acres in irrigated and 800,000 acres in unirrigated land. The real increase in the unirrigated land is thus reduced to 100,000 acres or ·6 per cent., and in the irrigated land to 340,000 acres, or 10 per cent. If the two classes of land be reduced to a common denomination by taking 5 acres of unirrigated land as equal to an acre of irrigated land, the increase in holdings in the 20 years amounts to 5 per cent., while the increase in population during the same period has been 14 per cent.

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The course of prices.—A most important consideration, which the reviewer entirely overlooks in his examination of the pressure of population on the land, is the course of prices. In the 10 years ending 1870, the prices ruled highest, this result being due to the fact that the quantity of precious metals received into the country as the value of merchandise exported and as the proceeds of loans raised in England for carrying out railways and irrigation works, was largely in excess of the requirements of this country for purposes of currency. The average price of second sort paddy during this period was Rs. 172 per garce. After 1870, the price suddenly fell, and the average for 6 years prior to the famine of 1877 was reduced to Rs. 141. During the famine, of course, prices rose enormously and the average price for the whole decade reached the level of that of the previous decade. The prices for the decade ending 1890 have, however, averaged only Rs. 142. The prices during the last 2 years have been higher, but this is due to the drought which has prevailed over large portions of the Presidency and the consequent failure of crops. What is stated above as regards the price of paddy is more or less true of other food-grains, for the prices of these food-grains move in sympathy with those of paddy, subject to the qualification that as their consumption is confined to special tracts, the rise or fall in their prices in years of scarcity or plenty, as the case may be, is in a greater ratio than the rise or fall in the price of paddy. Now increased pressure of population can only mean the inability of the supplies of food to overtake the demand and the rise of the price of food as a consequence. The prices of food-grains have not risen in normal years above the level of the years immediately preceding the famine. So recently as 1887, the price of paddy, second

sort, went down as low as Rs. 128 per garce, the lowest point it had reached during the previous 30 years. If the purchasing power of silver had risen, this result would be consistent with increased pressure of population; but the purchasing value of silver has really fallen by more than one-third, or nearly 35 per cent, as compared with gold, and absolutely by at least 20 per cent. This being so, supposing other things were equal, the prices of food-grains should have risen in the same ratio. When, however, we find that there has been in recent normal years no rise in the prices of food-grains at all, the conclusion is irresistible that the increased pressure of the population on the means of subsistence is so far a mere figment of the imagination.

Actual cultivation and holdings.—Further instances of the reviewer's unfair and inconclusive reasoning are found in his remarks on the proportion borne by the area of actual cultivation to the acreage of ryotwar holdings, the increase of the land-tax, and the sub-divisions of holdings. Prior to the famine of 1877--78, the ratio of the area of cultivation to holdings was 88.2 per cent. on an average, and in 1890 the ratio was 85.2 per cent. The fall in the ratio is taken by the reviewer as indicative "of a decided retrogression in the ability of the ryots to carry on the cultivation of their holdings." To ordinary minds, a fall in the ratio in normal years would be proof of the fact of the pressure on land having been lightened and not increased, for, were the latter the case, the land-owners who were unable to cultivate portions of their holdings would relinquish such portions, and increasing difficulty would be felt in realising the Government dues, leading to forced sales for the recovery of arrears of revenue. This is not only not the case, but the very opposite of it is true. The area of land sold for arrears of land-tax has been constantly diminishing during recent years, while the revenue itself is collected with the greatest punctuality. The area sold in 1890 was 23,615 acres out of a total area of holdings of 21 million acres; more than half of this area consisted of valueless land on the margin of cultivation taken up or relinquished by the ryots according to the exigencies of the season, and was purchased by Government for nominal prices averaging less than 2 annas per acre. The true reason, however, for the fall in the percentage is the fact that prior to 1874 the statistics of acreage of cultivation included portions of demarcated fields left waste which are now excluded. In 1871 the extent of portion of fields left waste amounted to 325,000 and in 1872 to 500,000 acres or $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., respectively, of the total area of holdings. In the calculations given in my Memorandum, I accordingly made an allowance of 2 per cent. on this account. The reviewer, who has not thought it necessary to take the trouble of investigating the question fully, has summarily rejected my estimate as "without justification."

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IV. *Pressure of population.*—What then are the actual present position and immediate future prospects as regards pressure of population? I have dwelt at some length in my Memorandum on the various considerations bearing on the question, but as the reviewer has ignored most of them, confining his attention almost exclusively to the single consideration of the extension of the area of cultivation, it is desirable even at the risk of repetition to consider the question as a whole. The

first point requiring consideration is the normal rate of increase of population in this country. In the decade ending 1890 the population increased by 15 per cent. or 1·44 per cent. per annum, but the increase during this period was obviously abnormal. The mortality caused by the famine of 1876-78 fell heaviest on the very old and the very young, and birth-rates for the time received a check. The result was that in the surviving population the proportion of aged and juvenile persons was abnormally low, and that of persons of what may be called reproductive ages correspondingly high. Now the increase of population is due to the excess of the births over the deaths. The births during the decade were abnormally high because of the abnormally high proportion of persons of reproductive ages left in the population, and the deaths were abnormally low because the proportion of aged and juvenile persons among whom the death-rate is the highest was abnormally low. The combined effect of both the causes was to enhance the rate of increase of population for a short period far beyond what it would be under normal conditions. The disproportion, however, soon rights itself, and the rate of increase of population resumes its normal level. It is clear, then, that the 1½ per cent. rate is one which is maintained for a brief period shortly after the population has been reduced very considerably by frightful mortality such as that of the famine of 1876-78. This high rate may also be maintained when there is extraordinary accession of prosperity resulting from exceptional circumstances such as the "boom" in the decade ending 1870. In either case, however, the effects must be merely temporary; and I mention this to show that it would not be right to treat the 1½ per cent. rate as if it were normal, and to expect that population would go on increasing at this rate. In the Census Report of British India for 1881, the normal rate of increase was estimated at ·6 per cent. for districts liable to frequent failures of crops and ·8 per cent. for the remainder of the Presidency. Between 1870 and 1890 the population increased by 14 per cent., or ·66 per cent. per annum, and as such a frightful famine of 1877 is not likely to occur except once in a century, 1 per cent. per annum may be safely taken to be the normal rate of increase for this country.

The second question for consideration is: Is the production of the country per head of the population lower now than it was in 1870? If it is, it would *not* necessarily show that the country, notwithstanding the *temporary* check received by it, is not economically progressing in the right direction, and this for two reasons, viz., first, 1870 marks the end of a period of abnormal prosperity, when, owing to the American war and consequent demand for Indian cotton, the Indian produce had trebled in value, and large areas devoted to the production of food-crops were cultivated with cotton crops, and inferior soils were taken up for the cultivation of the former under the stimulus of high prices; and the season in 1870 itself is described in the Government records to have been "conspicuously favorable for agricultural operations;" and, secondly, in about the middle of the period the country was afflicted with a terrible famine which caused a mortality of nearly four millions, and a loss of revenue of 1·2 crores of rupees and entailed on the State an expenditure of 6½ crores of rupees in dispensation of relief to the suffering population. Let us, however, see what the actual facts are. The population increased during the 20 years by about 4½ millions,

or 14 per cent. The increase in the area of holdings, allowing for the superior productiveness of irrigated as compared with unirrigated land, and taking into account the survey excess, may be estimated, as we have already seen, at 5 per cent. Is the inference to be drawn (as the reviewer has done) that the income per head of the population is about 10 per cent. less than what it was in 1870, and that the established standard of living has to that extent deteriorated? A little consideration will show that such an inference is opposed to fact. As I have already stated, prices fell from the inflated level they had attained in the sixties so that for the five years preceding the famine of 1876-78 they were 30 per cent. less than the average of the previous decade. Prices now, excluding the last 2 years in which a drought prevailed over considerable portions of the Presidency, are not much above that level. In the year preceding the famine of 1876-78, or, in other words, before 1874, the rate of exchange was at par. Of late years the rate of exchange, that is the value of silver expressed in terms of gold, has fallen by as much as 35 per cent. This divergence in the values of gold and silver is known to be, in the main, due to the fall in the general purchasing power of silver; and taking the latter to be even as low as 20 per cent., the prices in this country, other things being equal, should have risen at least in a corresponding ratio. Prices have not risen appreciably and certainly not in anything like a ratio of 20 per cent. Increased pressure of population means increased demand for food and the rise in prices in consequence; and a consideration of prices, therefore, shows that the pressure has not increased, but, on the contrary, has been lightened. Another gauge of the pressure of the population is the change in the standard of living of the higher and middle classes of the population and also the change in the real wages of the labouring classes as estimated by the quantity of food-grains which the wages, when paid in money, would purchase. No one who has had the least experience of the country will deny that the standard of living has considerably risen during the last 20 years. I have collected together in my Memorandum a large body of evidence on this subject, and my subsequent inquiries only go to show that I understated the real position in this respect. As regards wages of labouring classes, since I wrote my Memorandum, I have obtained information from all parts of the country. Nearly 8,000 contracts for labour registered in the various Registration offices of the Presidency have been examined, and the result goes to show that in no instances have the old customary rates suffered reduction; that in tracts where custom is persistent, the perquisites and extras now given are considerably higher than they were; that in some places grain wages for harvest work have almost doubled, and daily wages have increased, though not to the same extent; that notwithstanding the depressed state of the weaving industry, there is no redundancy of labour as compared with past years; that the complaint among landholders is that it is difficult to get labourers either to work with zeal, or full time for the old rates of grain wages, which is proof of the fact that there is a struggle going on for the re-adjustment and enhancement of the old customary rates of wages; that during the off season when agricultural work is suspended, labourers find other employment to a greater extent than was the case in the past, and that the condition of labourers, except in remote and secluded parts, is one of decided improvement. I have heard it sometimes asserted that while the higher classes and the lowest

classes have improved, the middle classes have deteriorated. Such an assertion carries with it its own refutation. There is no sharp division between the several classes in this country, and the gradations rise or fall by imperceptible degrees, and when there is improvement in the higher and lower strata it stands to reason that it extends all along the line. The classes which work neither with the head nor with the hands have, of course, suffered under the present *régime*. Persons belonging to the middle classes who have not been able to rise to the requirements of the times and keep up with their fellows have also had to sink relatively to a lower position, much to their chagrin and discontent. Barring individual exceptions, that the middle classes as a whole have risen along with the higher and lower classes, there cannot be the slightest doubt.

The question arises, if the condition of the country as a whole has not deteriorated since 1870, but, on the contrary, has improved, and if the area of cultivation has not increased in proportion to the increase in population, how is the additional wealth obtained? The sources of this additional wealth are (1) improved cultivation in tracts of country where the conditions admit of it; (2) extension of cultivation of valuable commercial products; (3) the substitution owing to extension of communications of cultivation of soils in tracts hitherto inaccessible for cultivation of poor soils in tracts which have had all along the advantage of good communications; (4) additional value obtained for commercial produce by reduction in the cost of transport by sea and land; and (5) the saving in the cost at which imported merchandise is obtained both on account of the reduction in the cost of production in the country whence the articles are obtained, and the cost of transport. That these causes have diminished the pressure of population will be seen from the fact that it is in the prosperous districts—Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Malabar, Madura, Tinnevely and Coimbatore—that the increase in the area of holdings has fallen much short of the increase in population. In Tanjore, though cultivation is not as careful as it ought to be, it is certainly much more careful than it was in times past; manure is made use of to a greater extent than formerly. In the Shiyali taluk, I understand, owing probably to the example set by the late Mr. Krishnasamy Mudelliar, more efficient cattle power is employed for ploughing and the cattle are better fed and less liable to epizootics. In the dry districts the improvement in agriculture has taken the form of extension of well cultivation, which is undoubtedly advancing by rapid strides when the expense and the risk involved in finding suitable sites for wells are taken into account. Manures are also applied to a considerable extent to market garden produce in the vicinity of towns. Mr. Benson, in his analysis of the agricultural statistics of the Kurnool district, notes: "For the irrigated lands near Nandyal, the whole country is swept to find manure. Indigo vat refuse is brought from as far as 20 or 30 miles for use there, and prices varying from Annas 8 to Rs. 5 a cart-load are paid for it. The ryot no doubt appreciates such manures as are known to him, but the number he uses is limited, and above all others, he does not appear to understand the conservation of them. This is perhaps not surprising when it is remembered how modern is any knowledge of the subject." The bats' dung in the Bella Surghum caves is, it appears, collected and carried away by men from Cuddapah. The extension of the cultivation

of indigo and of sugar-cane has already been referred to. Groundnut cultivation has brought a considerable accession of wealth to the South Arcot and Chingleput districts and parts of North Arcot, Tanjore and Trichinopoly. The returns of this cultivation are very great and the ryots, especially in the Shiyali taluk of the Tanjore district, are using considerable quantities of manure to prevent possible deterioration of the soil by over cropping. As regards the effect of the extension of communications in the way of bringing fertile soil in remote situations under cultivation, it is a familiar truth not needing demonstration. This fact to some extent acts as a counterpoise to the necessity for poorer lands being taken up for cultivation as population increases. As the Government revenue assessed on lands depends upon the rent value, which again is affected conjointly both by the productive power of the lands and the facilities for taking the produce to market, the fact of fertile lands in remote tracts having been taken up for cultivation could not be discovered merely by a comparison of the revenue rates of the old years with those of recent years. As regards the increased value realised by ryots for commercial produce and the low cost at which imported articles are obtained, the following facts may be noted. Within the last 20 years the value of the foreign sea-borne trade of the Presidency has increased from 10·2 to 18·2 crores of rupees, the increase in the imports being from 4·1 to 6·6 crores and in the exports from 6·1 to 11·6 crores. The development of railways in this country has greatly reduced the cost of transport of goods by land, and the opening of the Suez Canal, the extension of telegraph lines, the improvements and economies effected in the construction and working of steamers have immensely diminished the cost of carriage by sea and the incidental charges. An idea may be formed as to how great the saving is from the fact that the cost of carriage of Cawnpore wheat taken to Calcutta and shipped there to London was reduced between 1879 and 1886 by 9 shillings a quarter, a reduction of 22 per cent. on the value of the wheat in London, viz., 42 shilling a quarter in 1881. The value of the staple imported articles—cotton goods and metals—has greatly fallen, the value at Calcutta being now one-third less than in 1873, although during this period the value of silver has fallen enormously. For more detailed particulars the paragraphs of the Memorandum bearing on the subject should be referred to.

The next question we have to consider is whether there is any *immediate* danger of the increase of population outstripping the increase of production and causing a deterioration in the standard of living. The population, as already observed, may, under normal conditions, be assumed to increase at the rate of one per cent. per annum in this country. The late Sir James Caird was of opinion that "it is possible to obtain such a gradual increase of production as would meet the present rate of increase of population for a considerable time. One bushel per acre gained gradually in 10 years, in addition to a moderate reclamation of cultivable land, would meet the demand of the present growth of population; considering the generally fertile nature of the soil and that, in most parts of India, two crops can be got in the year, this would seem to be a possible result. By these two methods wisely combined, the increase of population may be safely provided for several generations." The experience of the past 20 years to my mind shows incontestably that, extraordinary and unforeseen calamities

of such magnitude as the famine of 1877 apart, there is no reason to doubt that by the combined efforts of the Government and the people, the modest estimate put forward by Sir James Caird would be realised, if not exceeded. The Government has already done so much, both directly by the construction of irrigation works and indirectly by the extension of communications, that the tendency of increased pressure of population has been counteracted without imposing on the people the necessity to resort to the cultivation of poorer lands to any considerable extent—a fact which, the reviewer, most erroneously, in my opinion, takes to be evidence of the deterioration of the economic condition of the population. The railway and irrigation projects still under execution—the Tank Restoration Scheme, the Periyar and the Rushikuliya irrigation projects, and the East Coast Railway will immensely develop what are now backward districts and add to the food production not merely of particular tracts but of the country as a whole. The reviewer has very curious ideas about the effect of irrigation works on tracts of country other than those in which they are actually situated, as he remarks tautologically regarding the Kistna and the Gó dávari anicuts that they affect “strictly localised areas,” ignoring the fact that the Gó dávari and Burma rice are being sold at Negapatam in the centre of the Cauvery delta, while considerable quantities of Tanjore rice are exported to Madura and Tinnevely districts. We have also seen that the real value of food-grains, *i.e.*, the price taking into account the change in the purchasing power of money in terms of which it is expressed, has so far fallen and not risen. On the part of the ryots the improvements effected by them have consisted chiefly in the extension of cultivation by wells and, to some extent, in the cultivation of commercial crops and the adoption of improved methods of cultivation as regards crops for which there is a fairly constant demand in foreign markets, for instance Tinnevely cotton. As regards cultivation by wells, I have made inquiries in all directions, and there is not the least doubt that it is extending rapidly in Coimbatore, Salem, Madura, Tinnevely, Chingleput and Trichinopoly districts. Mr. Nicholson, I believe, found that, in some villages in the Tinnevely district, wells had enormously increased during the last decade. The increase in the Coimbatore district is well known. In one of the zemindaries in the Madura district for which I have information, the number of wells has doubled during the same period. 20,000 wells have been dug within the last 2 years alone with the aid of loans obtained from Government to the extent of upwards of 30 lakhs of rupees, and a very recent inspection of these wells by the Settlement Commissioner showed that they are in good condition and calculated to be of great benefit to the tracts where they have been excavated. The increase of produce due to application of irrigation to land whether the water is obtained from channels, tanks, or wells, must have increased the average rate of outturn per acre and it is absurd on the part of the reviewer to contend that this is not quite as legitimate an increase in the average outturn as the additional produce obtained by the adoption of improved methods of tillage, and of rotation of crops, and by the application of expensive manures. Though there has been some improvement in the latter respects also, it is on too small a scale to be striking.

The reasons why the improvement has taken the form of extension of irrigation either by means of water provided by Government or obtained by the ryots at their expense from wells are not far to seek. Cultivation in this country is dependent on supply of water, while in England the main problem connected with agriculture is drainage. The extreme variations in the quantity of rainfall and the times when it comes down make every other consideration of far less importance than the supply of water in the quantities and at the times required for cultivation. The first great requisite of successful agriculture except in black cotton soils, which are extremely retentive of moisture and yield abundant returns in spite of scanty rainfall, is therefore storage of water or the tapping of subsoil springs. The application of irrigation to crops increases also the produce so enormously in proportion to the cost of the water that no other mode of raising additional produce from land can compete with it. In the case of lands for which means of irrigation are not available, the produce fluctuates greatly from year to year according to the quantity and seasonableness of the rainfall. This great uncertainty operates as a bar to the introduction of improved methods of cultivation, rotation of crops, &c., except in the case of commercial crops for which there is a fairly constant demand in foreign countries, because in the case of a rotation of crops for instance, the year in which a light restorative crop is grown might be one in which the season is very favorable and the year in which the main crop is grown might be one of drought. Again, deep ploughing, which is of great assistance to the crop in times of drought, is not required in times of comparatively good rainfall. Similar considerations apply to irrigation by means of wells. I have found from inquiry in the Coimbatore district that garden cultivation by means of wells cannot be carried on successfully unless the cultivator has some acres of *dry* land attached as an adjunct to his "garden" lands. The reason for this is the following. The labour of lifting water is great and the cultivator has to employ all through the year hired labour and bullocks for the purpose. If the rainfall be abundant in any particular year the cultivation can be carried on to a great extent without lifting water, and in such cases both human labour and cattle power will have to be kept idle, *i.e.*, wasted, unless it is employed in dry cultivation thereby enhancing the cost of cultivation by wells. In dry seasons, on the other hand, when the cultivation has to be carried on mainly with the aid of water baled from wells, the whole labour and cattle power is concentrated on the "garden" lands, and the dry fields are left uncultivated. The profits of cultivation in both the years are nearly the same as the value of produce in the dry season would be higher than in the favorable season, notwithstanding that the area under cultivation in the former year was considerably less than in the latter year. In the same way the proportion of crops, pulses for instance, to cereals, is to some extent determined by the extent to which pulses enter into the diet of the population. These considerations are specially applicable to produce grown for home consumption. As foreign demand is developed owing to extension of communications there will be greater room for regulating the kinds of crops grown so as to obtain the largest returns from the land. I have alluded to these considerations merely

to show why there is so much difficulty in putting into practice the principles of agricultural science under a given set of conditions, and that it is not reasonable to expect any marked improvement in agricultural methods unless there is a change in these conditions. At the same time, foreign demand for agricultural produce is changing the conditions so as to enable the cultivators to cultivate the soil in the manner calculated to make it yield the largest return; and in this way while, on the one hand, foreign trade carries off the ingredients of the soil, it also, by placing more wealth in the hands of cultivators, and by making improved methods of cultivation, by which the waste is repaired, possible, works its own cure.

It is at this stage—a stage to which the country is tending—that Government has to adopt all possible measures to ensure that the ryots do not fall below the requirements of the situation. The chief requisites in the ryots can only be very briefly indicated here. These are (1) enterprise or readiness to seize hold of advantages within their reach; (2) knowledge of agricultural principles and practices; and (3) capital. The first want can be supplied only by education—both high and elementary, high for the richer classes who must be the pioneers in agricultural improvement, and elementary to the poorer classes who must imitate and successfully carry out the improvements demonstrated to be practicable by the former. The second want must be supplied by the establishment of Agricultural Schools and Model Farms at various centres in the country. It would not do to look for any immediate results from the establishment of these schools and farms, any more than from measures for imparting elementary education, but the knowledge acquired in these institutions when it becomes diffused would bear fruit in time so soon as the conditions of any particular tract allow of its practical application with profitable results. The third want must be supplied by the establishment of Agricultural Banks. The poorer ryots are unable now to obtain small sums of money required for various purposes connected with their calling except at rates varying from 12 to 18 per cent. even when they are able to offer unexceptionable security for the loans, and this means that they are debarred from making improvements other than those which yield large returns for a small outlay; and this circumstance must, of course, greatly limit the scope for improvement. Moreover, one of the effects of the present *régime* is to diffuse wealth among the mass of the population and not to concentrate it in a few hands in a form easily available for industrial purposes. Unless measures are adopted by Government, by the provision of banking facilities of a character which commands the confidence of the people, to collect these savings in one mass and make them available to persons in need of money for various industrial enterprises at reasonable rates of interest, the material progress of the country will be greatly retarded. None of these measures, it is almost needless to say, will by itself suffice; they should all go hand in hand and when the external conditions favorable to agricultural improvement come into being, those who are expected to move in that direction will be enabled to seize hold of the opportunities presented. It must further be remembered that agricultural improvement after it has set in cannot go on indefinitely and that real progress must come from continual improvement in the standard of living, which implies the gradual re-

adjustment of social usages and institutions that conduce to the increase of population beyond the limits imposed by such standard. It may be that there is no prospect of such a transformation taking place in the near future, but as, at the same time, there is no immediate danger of the increase of production not keeping pace with the increase of population, there is, so far as I can see, no reason to despair that the transformation will take place in due time. Meanwhile, the Government will, by educational agencies—both for the richer and the poorer classes—have to make unremitting efforts to quicken the intelligence and promote habits of enterprise and forethought among the people.

V. *The remedial measures proposed by the reviewer.*—The reviewer, however, does not consider that the remedies for the evils of the present economic position lie either in the institution of Agricultural Banks, or in spreading a knowledge of agricultural principles broadcast through the land. He believes in the necessity for *intensive* farming, and to render progress in this direction possible in the near future, he considers it necessary, in the first instance, to attack certain problems of rural economy. The particular remedies he recommends are the following: First, to check the inordinate increase in the number of pauper ryots and to endeavour to turn the tide the other way, so that the *pauper* ryot may become a *solvent* labourer; secondly, to encourage and enforce the consolidation and enclosure of all holdings, so that cultivation may become economical, and the individual may reap the fruits of his labour; thirdly, to teach the ryot to be self-dependent for the support of his cattle and thus gradually to lead up to the improvement of the tilling power by the rejection of the worthless; fourthly, to encourage the capitalist, instead of the speculative pauper, to embark in agricultural pursuits; and fifthly, to check the export of the raw as contrasted with the manufactured or half-worked produce of the land. I have given the suggestions in the reviewer's own words, as it is very difficult to attach any definite meaning to them. What precise measures Government should take to secure the first of the objects aimed at the reviewer does not explain, but the suggestions sometimes put forward in this connection are that an upset price of say not less than ten times the Government revenue payable should be put upon the land taken up for cultivation, to prevent its being worked in a racking manner and thrown up when exhausted, and that sub-division of holdings below a certain minimum limit should be prevented by legislation. The futility of the proposed restrictions will be apparent on the slightest consideration. Waste lands are now sold in the Bombay Presidency, but no remarkable results have been achieved and no capitalists full of the spirit of agricultural enterprise have come forward to bid for them. In the dry districts, there are lands of little or no value and nobody would pay for them ten times the Government assessment; and capitalists can have no difficulty in getting any quantity of land if they want it. The occupation of the poorer lands has, to some extent, been discouraged by the imposition of substantial assessments on the lowest classes of lands, and large extents of lands in a great many districts have been taken up for fodder and fuel reserves under the Forest Act. The objection to raising the assessments of the lowest classes of lands is the great distress and impoverishment it would cause to existing holders of lands. For instance, if a cultivator owns 80 acres of lands assessed at 4 annas per acre, and if the assessment be raised to Re. 1 per acre he

will be simply ruined; he will be turned, in fact, from perhaps a poor ryot into not a solvent labourer, but into a landless labourer without any means or opportunities for procuring subsistence.

The suggestion to fix a minimum limit to sub-division by legislation is equally impracticable. There is no means of enforcing such a restriction, and wherever it has been imposed it is found that the law is a dead letter. The Government might, no doubt, refuse to recognise the sub-division for the purpose of recovery of its revenue, but this does not prevent the holding being practically sub-divided for purposes of cultivation, while remaining undivided for purposes of revenue collection. Even if it were thought proper for Government to insist on the holding being the exclusive property of some one of the sharers, and the Government granted it away arbitrarily to him, it would be of doubtful advantage to the favored individual who would be burdened with the liability to pay the other sharers the value of their shares; and the tendency of the legislation would be to compel the sharers to continue as members of a joint family even when they found it advantageous to divide. There would be difficulty also in fixing the minimum limit with reference to the requirements of the several classes of lands, *e.g.*, lands in the vicinity of towns, employed in raising market garden produce, which are highly productive and held in small plots.

Mr. Henry W. Wolff in an article on peasant properties contributed to the *Contemporary Review* for May 1891, makes the following remarks on the failure of legislative attempts to regulate the minimum limit of farms in Germany: "Under the modern Saxon law—similar laws exist in other countries—a 'peasant property' is not divisible beyond a certain minimum area. It is a foolish regulation as the result has shown. For the small plots and the 'rolling'—*i.e.*, detachable—portions fetch throughout the highest prices. Protection, after its wont, has injured the interest which it desired to benefit. Following in the footsteps of the Hanoverian Government, most German Governments have introduced what they call a *Hoeferolle*, a register, *i.e.*, in which peasant owners may inscribe their properties in order to ensure, in cases of intestacy, undivided descent to one heir. That law has in most countries remained a dead letter. One agricultural Minister related to me with glee that he had done better than his short-sighted colleagues. *They* had left the presumption on the side of division. *He* had put it on the side of intact descent. But his shrewdness does not appear to have materially altered the result. The fact is that the proprietors know their own interests far better than do paternal Governments. They find it more to their advantage to curtail their holdings, and to sell at a good price in plots than to retain large showy estates at a loss. Foiled in respect of the *Hoeferolle* the advocates of larger properties now openly propose such preposterous measures as these—enforced devise of undivided properties at much less than their real value, a provision securing mortgagors against notice of repayment except by a sinking fund (spread over many years), and partial exemption from rates and taxes! Could there be a more complete confession of failure? These wise people have been fighting very hard against common sense and Providence. Both alike point out very clearly the way in which a plethora of population can and should relieve itself. They know better. But once more the sea has held its own against meddling Canute." In Germany, as in France, the farms appear to be of very small size. 12½

acres are taken to yield, for a family consisting of 5 persons, corn necessary for subsistence and for seed. 77 per cent. of the holdings are under that average and of this again 58 per cent. are under 5 acres. In Wurtemberg the average size of separate properties is stated to be about three-quarters of an acre. Mr. Wolff quotes the following testimony of a German official in regard to the beneficial effects of small holdings on the industry and thrift of the labouring classes: "The unmistakable advance in productive farming observable in the plain of the Rhine—the district principally affected by the (sub-dividing) *Landrecht*—stands in the closest possible relation to the growing sub-division. The advantage afforded by the fact that every day-labourer in the country may acquire a small plot of land, may, by industry and thrift, add to his modest holding, and eventually raise himself to the position of an independent *Bauer*, cannot be rated too highly; for the prospect of making himself economically independent is one of the most powerful incentives to the exercise of economical virtues. The smallness of the proprietary plots in the plain of the Rhine is accordingly no evil, but rather a direct advantage. Each one of these small cultivators makes it his endeavour to raise from his soil, by the cultivation of 'trade-plants,' of vegetables and the like, the most remunerative crops, and to employ the surplus of his working power as profitably as he can at some trade, at paid day-work or otherwise."

As regards the second of the remedies suggested by the reviewer, the idea that Government can "enforce" the breaking up of the village system and the substitution of homestead farms without a change in rural conditions is entirely chimerical. The proposal evidently owes its origin to a misapplication of the teachings of English Agricultural History to the conditions of rural life in India. There is a good deal of misapprehension as to the nature of the ryots' cultivation which is oftentimes likened to the open field or champion system as it prevailed some centuries ago in England. The last remnants of this cultivation were swept away by the partition of Samudayam lands in the Chingleput district, and no ryot is now hampered in the cultivation of his holding to the best advantage, though the villagers, owing to their poverty, need each other's assistance in connection with the various incidents of rural life. The enclosure and consolidation of holdings were brought about in England by social and economic causes and the Legislature, in so far as it interfered at all in the matter, did so with a view to arrest a too rapid transformation. The leading facts as regards the conditions under which development of English agriculture took place may be very briefly noted. During the middle ages, England had a monopoly of the wool trade, so much so that the revenue required for carrying on the continental wars was derived almost wholly from an impost on wool, the rate levied in emergencies being as high as 100 per cent. *ad valorem*. The trade was a most profitable one and common lands were extensively enclosed and holdings consolidated and turned into sheep-walks, with the result that where hundreds of ploughmen were employed their places were taken by a few shepherds. In the beginning of the sixteenth century thousands of agricultural labourers were thrown out of employment and reduced to a condition of the greatest misery. The Legislature strove to stem the tide by insisting on landlords maintaining a certain proportion of the area of their estates under tillage and the necessary farm buildings, but without effect. Mr.

Prothero, in his book on the Progress of English Farming, mentions that a "Petition in the reign of Henry VIII, states that 50,000 ploughs had been put down. Each on the average maintained $13\frac{1}{2}$ persons. Thus 675,000 persons were thrown out of work when the whole population of the country did not exceed 5 millions." The difficulties of the situation were immensely aggravated by the enormous rise in the price of provisions due to the discovery of the American silver and gold mines and the influx of the precious metals into England; the price of wheat, which in the latter half of the sixteenth century and the first half of the seventeenth averaged 9s. 2d. per quarter was 47s. 5d. a quarter or more than 5 times as much in the latter half of the seventeenth century. Rents rose very high and landlords accumulated great wealth at the expense of the working classes and the wages were kept down by stringent labour laws. Laws were enacted also to put down vagrancy, to compel the able-bodied vagrants to work and to provide relief to the impotent poor. Under these regulations, "all people who used subtle, crafty, and unlawful games and plays, or who feigned a knowledge of physiognomy and palmistry, all those who had no apparent means of support and who were fit for work, all fencers, bear-traders, jugglers, pedlars, tinkers, petty chapmen, and strolling players, all unlicensed scholars or shopmen who were caught begging were considered to be rogues and sturdy beggars." To this period is to be referred the beginning of the system of poor relief which has developed to such enormous proportions in England. In the seventeenth century some schemes for the reclamation of swamps were undertaken and the way was prepared for the introduction of improved methods of agriculture, but the agricultural practices themselves did not undergo any material alteration. The disturbed relations caused by the depreciation of the precious metals and the consequent increase of prices had settled down; capital had accumulated; the efficiency of human labour had increased; the horse was substituted for the ox in ploughing; and the extension of pasture farms and cattle farming had provided increased manure for arable lands. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, there was a rapid advance in agriculture. Several improvements were adopted which, aided by good seasons, increased greatly agricultural production. The wages and the standard of living of the labouring classes rose, and wheat became a necessary article of diet in the place of inferior grains. During the latter half of the eighteenth century the population increased enormously and the progress of manufactures caused a diversion of labour from agriculture to manufactures. Wars and bad seasons had increased prices of food-grains and the enclosure of commons and consolidation of holdings proceeded with redoubled speed. At the end of the eighteenth century prices rose so high as 115s. a quarter, with the result that land-owners increased their standard of living, which they were unable to keep up when the prices reached a normal level. The small owners suffered severely and they found it profitable to sell their holdings to large owners and to seek employment for their capital in manufactures, which were assuming large proportions. This diversion of a large part of the population to manufacturing industries rendered it necessary to grow a larger quantity of food with a diminished quantity of human labour and thus materially aided the introduction of machinery. The rapid changes which were taking place, and principally the substitution of machinery in manufactures

together with a faulty administration of the poor law, had induced a great amount of pauperism; but the enormous growth of manufactures during the first three-quarters of the century soon gave employment to the surplus population. The use of animal food became general, and the tendency was to convert arable into pasture land and the price of wheat was maintained at a high level. High farming and intensive cultivation were assisted by the high price and the large proportion of lands under pasture. During the last 15 years, however, the price of both wheat and meat has fallen owing to foreign competition, the former from about 48s. to about 32s., and the complaint is now general that high farming does not pay in England.

These being the facts connected with the progress of English agriculture—and I have given a very imperfect sketch alluding only to such facts as bear on the question on hand—is there any analogy between the conditions under which large farms became profitable in England and the conditions which exist in this country? In England, it has been calculated that while only 53 men can be supported per 100 acres on a dairy farm, 250 can be maintained on the same acreage of wheat and 683 on a like acreage of potatoes; and yet out of 50 million acres of arable and pasture land in 1880, 25 millions of acres were under permanent pasture, and 11 millions under corn crops in the United Kingdom. In India, it was pointed out by Dr. Buchanan as early as the beginning of the century, that “the religion of the natives is a powerful obstacle in the way of agriculture. The higher ranks of society being excluded from animal food, no attention will, of course, be paid to fattening cattle; without that, what would our agriculture in England be worth? We could have no green crops to restore our lands to fertility, and a scanty manure to invigorate our crops of grain.” As to the introduction of machinery, the low value of human labour stands in the way. It has been found that at the present value of labour, no water-pump can compete with the *Picottah* in lifting water from wells. Again, Sir James Caird has pointed out that a square mile of land in England cultivated gives employment to 50 persons in the proportion of 25 men, young and old, and 25 women and boys, and that if four times that number or 200 were allowed for each square mile of cultivated land in India, it would take up only one-third of the people. What is to become, then, of the surplus human labour, if economical methods are extensively employed. Manufactures are not growing on an extensive scale to afford employment to the surplus population, and how are the “pauper” ryots to be transformed into “solvent” labourers? Is the Government to undertake the duty of finding work for the ryots deprived of land or of feeding them at the public cost in normal seasons as it does during famines, or is the surplus labour to be swept away as so much “human rubbish?” The possibility of high farming paying depends on economic conditions, and so long as the conditions are absent, no direct interference of Government for bringing about large farms and consolidation of holdings can be other than mischievous. Large farms are suitable to a country like England, which has to raise food for a population, the bulk of which is engaged in manufacturing industries; and agricultural improvements in this country should obviously follow on lines adopted in European countries where peasant properties prevail, by giving security of tenure, by the diffusion of education among the peasantry, by the establishment of credit Banks, by Agri-

cultural Exhibitions and demonstrations, by the introduction of cottage industries to give employment to the peasant population during the spare time at their disposal, and such other measures as were pointed out by Mr. Nicholson in the admirable preliminary note written by him as Secretary to the Madras Agricultural Committee. European capitalists, with their plethora of capital looking out for opportunities for investment, would not have been slow to embark in the business, if they saw that they had the least chance of competing with native cultivators by adopting *intensive* methods of cultivations; and I myself personally know some intelligent native landlords, with command of capital, who would be glad to invest a considerable amount in high farming, if they could have a reasonable assurance that the capital laid out would fetch 6 per cent. interest. And we have, in the failure of the Saidapet model farm to achieve profitable results, an impressive warning against extravagant expectations being entertained from intensive farming under present conditions. The model farm was started in 1871 and after 5 years' trial was found to have been worked at a loss of Rs. 6,000 (*vide* Mr. Nicholson's "Preliminary Note," paragraph 42). There is undoubtedly considerable scope for improvement by the introduction of deep-ploughing, better conservation of cattle manure, somewhat better treatment of cattle, and utilisation of inexpensive waste products as manures not now known or suspected to have manurial properties; but such improvements can only come in very gradually. The Government has already, by the reservation of large areas as fuel and fodder reserves, put a check on the taking up of the poorer lands for cultivation and made intensive cultivation to meet the requirements of the growing population to some extent necessary, and it is difficult to see what further steps can be taken in this direction without causing great hardship at present to the great body of the ryots. It should also be remembered that the proposal to encourage the consolidation and enclosure of farms with a view to the introduction of *intensive* farming would go against the proposed legislation to confer security of tenure on zemindari ryots, which is recognised on all hands to be a pressing necessity in the present situation.

The reviewer's third suggestion is not intelligible. If it is intended that grazing farms should be maintained for the support of cattle required for agricultural purposes, it would hardly pay the ryot to do this, seeing that cattle are not fattened in this country for meat, and that it would be profitable to obtain the cattle required for ploughing and draught from professional breeders. If the ryots require a better description of cattle than they now use, and are willing to pay the proper price, doubtless such cattle would be bred in larger numbers than at present. It has been calculated that 5 acres of land have to be kept under grass to feed a single head of cattle properly, and if this estimate is at all correct, it is obvious that it would be ruinous to breed cattle of this description, as 5 acres now produce corn sufficient to feed three human beings. The fourth suggestion is without any special significance, and it is connected with the first and second suggestions already considered. It is not clear what measures the reviewer intends should be taken for carrying out the fifth suggestion, viz., to check the export of raw, as contrasted with the manufactured or half-worked produce of the land. If it is intended that this result should be obtained by the levy of heavy export duties, it would simply destroy the foreign trade of

the country as imports must be paid for by the exports. In fact, it is time wasted, considering seriously such crude proposals which violate the most elementary economic considerations.

Concluding Remarks.—I have found no small difficulty in ascertaining what precisely are the reviewer's conclusions as regards the progress made by the country as his reasoning is full of inconsistencies. He admits that there has been "very great advance" during the last 40 years and that the first half of this period was one of "marked and unchecked progress." As regards the second half, he asserts, however, that there is no evidence to show that the production of food is *much* ahead of the demand, although it has increased during the period. He admits, at the same time, that about the middle of the period occurred "the severest famine known in Southern India during the present century" and that this visitation threw back the Presidency "to an enormous extent." Notwithstanding the rapidity with which the Presidency has recovered from the effects of the famine, he calls the period one of agricultural "stagnation," if not of retrogression. The reason assigned for characterising the period as one of stagnation is the fact that the area of ryotwar holdings has not increased in the same ratio as the population. The reviewer in the same breath asserts that the liberty accorded to pauper ryots to take up lands of the poorer qualities which alone now remain unoccupied, or in other words, *extensive* cultivation, is at the root of the evils of the present economic position, and that the occupation of such lands should be checked. He considers that the effects of improved and cheaper internal and external communication during the last 20 years should have stimulated enormously its greatest industry—agriculture—where the products are so bulky and difficult to move. It does not occur to him that the cheapened cost of production and transport due to these causes might have obviated the necessity for falling upon the poorer soils for production, as indeed will be seen to have been the case, when the facts connected with grain wages of the labouring classes, the prices of food-grains, and the standard of living, are taken into account, and that it is a satisfactory feature that the internal and external trade of the country should have increased in the manner it has notwithstanding what he calls the "throwback" of the famine. As the best means of stimulating agricultural production, he recommends that "the export of the raw, as contrasted with the half-manufactured produce of the land" should be checked. Again, for the purpose of diminishing pauperism, he advocates the enforcement of the enclosure and consolidation of holdings, forgetful of the fact that the advantage of large farms consists in the economising of labour, that this economising of labour on any large scale cannot be carried out without much suffering unless there are alternative occupations; that in a country where the labourer himself is the cheapest of machines and manufactures are non-existent, any sudden or great displacement of labour must induce a frightful amount of pauperism and reduce the condition of the lower classes, bad as it is, to a still lower level; that large farms which will deprive the vast majority of the population of all interest in the soil, must necessitate the maintenance of a very costly system of poor relief with all its demoralising features, and that a system of large holdings can be introduced only *pari passu* with the development of industrial occupations, and that for a country where opportunities for employment not

connected with agriculture are so few, a system of peasant properties is the best suited. Those who, in common with the reviewer, believe that Government can, by adopting a few measures of a drastic character, pull by main force the teeming millions of the population out of their accustomed grooves determined for them by the economic conditions under which they have to work, and set them going in this or that direction which is considered desirable, will doubtless feel disappointed at the slow rate at which the country has progressed. Those, on the other hand, who take note of the difficulties to be surmounted in raising the economic condition of the population which was as bad as bad could be but 40 years ago; the liability of most parts of the country to the extremes of plenty and dearth alternately—a state of things conducive to careless habits of life and inimical to the formation of habits of steady industry, the tendency of every increase in production to be absorbed in mere increase of numbers unless there is a rise in the standard of comfort; the necessity for the readjustment of time-honoured, religious and social usages for effecting any permanent change in the standard of comfort, and the impossibility of effecting such a change by coercive methods which do not touch the intelligence of the people, will, when they compare the state of things at present with what it was in the past, be gratified to see that the improvement has been so substantial; and will further see more “consolatory signs of decided and vigorous progress” in the future than the reviewer has been able to detect. While recognising that every step in improvement adds to the duties and responsibilities of Government and requires wiser statesmanship than even in the past for guiding the country through the period of transition, and for meeting new evils by methods and measures calculated to influence the growing public intelligence, they will see no reason in the experience of the past to despair that either the Government or the people will rise to the requirements of the future.

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(2) *Note on the progress of Education in the Madras Presidency between 1870-71 and 1890-91 by S. Seshaiyar, Esq., B.A., Professor of Kumbakonam College.*

During the past twenty years the Madras Presidency has made indeed a vast progress in education. The most noteworthy features of that progress are (1) the enormous expansion of higher or collegiate education, (2) the rapid diffusion of elementary or primary education among the bulk of the population, and (3) the strong stimulus given to female education.

Prior to 1850, there were few or no English schools in the mofussil. The only institution in the Presidency in which a liberal English education was given was the Presidency College in Madras. It was in 1853 that Government started its first schools for instruction in English at Zillah or Provincial stations. Kumbakonam, Rajahmundry, Calicut and Cuddalore were among the earliest centres chosen for the experiment. The University of Madras was constituted in 1857 and held its first examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in 1858. From 1858 to 1871 inclusive, the number of young men

who passed the examination for the degree of Arts was 199. In the two decades that followed including 1891, it rose up to the astonishing figure of 2,552. The Bachelor of Arts degree represents the ordinary collegiate course taught in an Indian College, and may, for all practical purposes, be regarded as marking the highest general culture received by the youth of the country. The studies that one pursues after passing the B.A. Examination are either special and technical, such as those pertaining to Law, Medicine, Engineering, &c., or the advanced branches of Mathematics, Philosophy, and the like, to qualify oneself for the higher degree in arts. It is but a small fraction of those who receive the B.A. degree that go up for examination in Honours. The number of those who qualify themselves for the special studies mentioned above must necessarily be limited by the demand of the learned professions for specialists. At present the most crowded of them is Law. Teaching likewise absorbs in its service a large number of the *alumni* of the University. The technical colleges now in existence are all maintained by the State; and they are the Law College, the College of Civil Engineering, the Medical College, the Agricultural College, and the Teachers' College. Looking into the statistics for 1890-91 we find that there were 35 Arts Colleges in the Presidency—First and Second Grades together—with an attendance of 3,200 scholars. These figures indicate a great advance as compared with those of 1870-71 when the number of colleges was 12 with an attendance of only 385 scholars. Again 548 candidates appeared for the B.A. Examination in 1891 as against 65 in 1871; the number of candidates for the F.A. Examination was 531 and 2,052 for the earlier and the later years respectively. These figures are sufficient to show the rate of expansion of collegiate education during the interval under notice. One very satisfactory feature of this development is that learning is no longer the monopoly of any one section of the Indian community. The desire for English education is spreading among all classes. Of the 3,200 students in attendance at the Arts Colleges in 1890-91, 38 were Europeans and Eurasians, 244 Native Christians, 46 Muhammadans, 2,208 Brahmins, 658 non-Brahmin Hindus, and 6 other classes. Nor has the alleged difficulty of finding suitable openings in life for educated men had as yet any appreciable effect on the growing demand for English education. Looking to the efficiency of public service alone, there would yet seem to be open a large field for educated talent. There are indications too that the education given in our colleges is fostering in its recipients a spirit of self-help and manly enterprise. The number of young men who have in recent years taken to commercial pursuits, or have crossed the sea for service in Burma, afford evidence of the new spirit. Nor would there seem to be any foundation in fact for the opinion that the Indian Colleges are rearing up a body of disaffected young men. Those who have had the best opportunities of watching the progress of education in the country and its results are almost unanimous in holding that its influence for good has been marked, considering the short period during which it has been at work.

Equally satisfactory has been the development of what is called secondary education, which comprises a course of studies, extending over six years, in English and in one of the vernacular languages of the country, as also in the elementary portions of History, Geography, Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry. The Matriculation Examination

of the Madras University constitutes the final test of the work of what may be designated Anglo-Vernacular schools. The number of candidates who went up for this examination in 1891 was 7,002 as against 1,358 in 1871. The number of pupils under instruction in 1890-91 in all the Anglo-Vernacular schools of the Presidency was nearly 30,000.

One of the recommendations of the Educational Commission was that Government should gradually retire from the field of higher education. So far as the Madras Presidency is concerned, that recommendation has already been carried out in the main. Of the 35 arts colleges existing in 1890-91, 30 were private and aided institutions, and of the 556 secondary schools for boys, only 26 were maintained by Government. Whether the highest or collegiate education could safely be left wholly to private agency might be a question. There are various reasons why it should not be, even if private agencies were financially equal to the task. But experience shows that private effort with some aid from Government is quite equal to the call of secondary education. In this connection, we are bound to mention the incalculable service rendered to the cause of Indian education by European Missionary Bodies. They should justly be regarded as the pioneers of modern Indian civilization. But how long this foreign help might be relied upon is problematical. In the meanwhile, it is satisfactory to note that native communities, Hindu and Muhammadan, are learning the lesson of self-help in education as in other things and may, when the time should come for it, be able to occupy the field that may be vacated by Christian Missions. Another satisfactory feature in connection with educational progress is the steady rise in the fee receipts in colleges and schools. High and middle schools, in most parts of the Presidency, are nearly self-supporting and need only a small percentage of grants from provincial or local funds. Even in colleges the fees cover an appreciable proportion of the total expenditure. In the Government College at Kumbakónam, which is one of the cheapest colleges in the Presidency, the income from fees met in 1890-91 a third of the total cost of the institution. In recent years a considerable share of educational work has devolved on Municipalities and Local Fund Boards. By this means it has become possible to keep up middle and high schools at stations away from capitals of districts where private agencies have not sprung up.

The most striking feature in the history of education between 1870-71 and 1890-91 is the great diffusion of elementary knowledge among the masses of the population. A numerous agency is at work, whose special mission is to carry the rudiments of vernacular education to the simplest villager. Village schools have been organised in nearly all parts of the country and are periodically visited and examined by the inspecting staff of the Educational department. In the Educational Report for 1890-91, Dr. Duncan remarks: "Of the lower primary schools, 2,558 with 140,422 scholars were situated in municipal towns. Omitting them, 19,470 schools with 503,472 scholars were located in non-municipal towns and villages, which, according to the census of 1881, numbered 52,592. Most of the small towns and large villages contain more than one school each. But in many villages the population is too small to maintain a separate school. In view of these facts, only one village in three can be said to be provided with

a school." Going back to 1870-71, we find that primary education was then in its infancy: only 1,606 schools had been registered in the official returns for the whole Presidency, and these, with an attendance of 42,299 pupils, earned a grant of Rs. 60,332 from Government. It is clear then that since 1870-71 primary education has been rapidly extending under the combined exertions of Government, Municipalities, and Local Fund Boards. By far the largest share of the financial cost of primary education is now borne by Municipalities and Local Boards. According to the returns for 1890-91 it was no less than five-sixths of the total charge. The most pressing question in connection with primary education is, of course, the question of finance. While there seems to be almost an indefinite scope for the extension, and the improvement in quality, of village schools, the agencies, who now mainly contribute towards their upkeep, are beginning to feel the pressure of cost and complain that they have already gone far enough, in justice to other and more pressing demands upon their resources.

Perhaps the most hopeful sign of the intellectual and moral progress of the country is the encouragement given in recent years to female education. In 1870-71, there were no girl-schools to speak of, except the few that had been started by Christian Missionaries in Madras and a few other stations. In 1890-91, according to the report of the Director of Public Instruction, there were no less than 87,715 girl-pupils under instruction. The number that has gone through the higher courses of school and collegiate study is, as may be expected, very limited; but there are hopeful indications that increasing numbers will soon go up to the higher stages of education. Only two women have as yet taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts in the local University. Sixty-three female candidates went up for the Matriculation Examination in 1890-91, of whom 37 were successful, while 278 candidates appeared for the Higher Examination for Women, of whom 160 passed and obtained certificates. It is a significant fact that even the most conservative classes of the Indian community are coming under the influence of this new education—which, as it spreads wider and wider, would doubtless prepare the way for those much-needed social reforms, for which our reformers are fighting so hard, but now without the support of those who constitute the real strength of Hindu homes.

During the period under review, steps were also taken for encouraging education among Europeans and Eurasians, Muhammadans and other classes who, by reason of their poverty or other cause, were slow to avail themselves of the ordinary facilities for education afforded by the State. On the 31st March 1891 there were 94 schools for Europeans and Eurasians with an attendance of 3,855 boys and 3,152 girls, and 936 schools for Muhammadans with 39,089 pupils under instruction. Municipalities and Local Fund Boards now pay special attention to the education of the backward sections of the community, such as weavers and other handicraftsmen. Night schools have also been started for the sons of these classes, so that those who cannot spare time in the day may be instructed for an hour or so after sun-set. According to the return for 1890-91, there were no less than 609 night schools with an attendance of 11,706 pupils. Schools for Pariahs specially are few as yet: but under the order of Government recently issued, they will soon come into existence.

One of the most important questions for the consideration of Government is technical and scientific education bearing on arts and industries. How the existing arts and industries of the country may be improved or what new ones may be introduced are questions that demand the early attention of Government. At present there exist but a few schools for the benefit of those who seek instruction in arts and industries. The foremost of such institutions is the School of Arts in Madras, in which the attendance in 1890-91 was over 400 pupils, who received instruction in some of the ornamental arts and higher industries. Schools have also been opened in some of the larger trading towns in the mofussil, such as Rajahmundry, Kumbakonam, Negapatam, Guntur, Madura and Nazareth, in which drawing, carpentry, and a few other industries are taught. Industrial sections have also been attached to Government Normal Schools in the mofussil. All these appear, however, to be crude and imperfect attempts, pending a satisfactory solution of the question as a whole—beset, as that is, with great difficulties, finance being not the least of them.

In the sketch above given nothing more has been attempted than the barest outline of the progress of education during a period of twenty years, beginning with 1870-71 and ending with 1890-91, the last official year for which statistics were available. Enough, it is believed, has been said to show that education has spread far and wide in the country, and that nearly all classes of the community have come under its influence. There cannot be any doubt that this spread of education will have an important effect on the future economic and moral condition of the people.

(E).—COSTLINESS OF JUSTICE.

Statement showing the costs incurred in suits when the amount claimed is Rs. 50 and below, between Rs. 50 and 100, between Rs. 100 to 500, and between Rs. 500 and 1,000.

Nature of Expense	Amount claimed.				Amount irrecoverable when the claim is				Remarks
	Rs 50 and below.	Between Rs 50 and 100	Between Rs. 100 and 500	Between Rs. 500 and 1,000	Rs. 50 and below	Between Rs. 50 and 100	Between Rs. 100 and 500.	Between Rs. 500 and 1,000	
1. Court-fee	Rs. A P.	Rs A P.	Rs A. P	RS A P	RS A P.	RS A P	RS A P.	RS A P	The figures represent the average of original and small cause suits (contested).
2 Vakil's fee .. .	3 12 0	7 8 0	37 8 0	75 0 0	0 8 0	1 0 0			
3 Stamp for vakalat	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0					
4 Process fee (number of witnesses, 3 to 5 on an average).	1 8 0	1 8 0	2 8 0	3 8 0	...				
5. Batta for witnesses	1 8 0	1 8 0	3 0 0	4 0 0					
6 Expenses by the party for feeding the witnesses.	1 8 0	1 8 0	5 0 0	5 0 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	5 0- 0	5 0 0	
7 Notice fee to defendants	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 8 0					
8. On account of two adjournments on an average	3 0 0	3 0 0	21 0 0	25 0 0	3 0 0	3 0 0	10 0 0	10, 0 0	
9. Writing fee for Vakil's Gumastah.	1 0 0	1 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	
10. Copies of depositions or documents from other offices	0 8 0	0 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	
11. Stamps for the above	0 8 0	0 8 0	1 8 0	2 0 0					
12 Party's travelling expenses.	2 0 0	2 0 0	4 0 0	5 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	4 0 0	5 0 0	

13. Copy of judgment and decree in stamps.	0 8 0	0 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	
14. Stamps for the above ..	0 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0					
15. Stamps for applications, &c., in the course of the trial of the suit.	0 2 0	1 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0					
16. For issuing commission, &c (1 out of 100 cases)	Such instances being rare, the expenses are not shown.
17. Charges for warrants, &c.	1 0 0	1 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0		
18 For default of party	No cost is entered against this item, as the chances of the party paying the costs of the other side and obtaining costs from the other side are even.
19 For execution applications, 3 or 4 times for attachment.	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	4 0 0					
20. For attachment	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0					
21. Vakil's fee ...	1 0 0	1 0 0	6 4 0	12 8 0	1 0 0	1 0 0		..	
22. Proclamation for sale.	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0		
23. Warrant of arrest	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	...				
24. Application for money, &c.	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	
25 Batta for debtor in Civil Jail.	2 0 0	2 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0	
26. Receipt stamps	} 1 8 0	1 8 0	3 0 0	5 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	2 8 0	4 8 0	
27. Sundry expenses									
28. For loss of time (not calculated).							..		
Total	88 14 0	42 8 0	138 4 0	214 0 0	11 8 0	12 0 0	27 0 0	80 0 0	

Notes.—Even in case of success the party will not get the amounts shown in the last 4 columns.

This statement has been prepared by a Judicial officer having experience in the districts of Tanjore, Trichinopoly and Tinnevely, with reference to contested suits (ordinary and small causes). In districts where the territorial limits of District Munsifs are larger, the amounts incurred for the travelling and other expenses of parties and witnesses will be more and the amount irrecoverable necessarily greater. The figures are necessarily conjectural, but care has been taken to make the estimate as moderate as possible.

(F).—LOCAL FUND AND MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION, &c.

Extracts from the remarks of Sir Alfred Lyall in regard to the political inexpediency of Government relinquishing its right to control the management of religious institutions in this country (Sir Alfred Lyall's "Asiatic Studies").

Sir Alfred Lyall has pointed out that from a political point of view it was a mistake for the Indian Government to have relinquished its right to control religious endowments. The following are extracts from his remarks :

"In India they have no conception of the animosity against Establishment which has been fostered in England by Acts passed to enforce unity of religious profession and uniformity of clerical teaching, by the old attempts to drive wandering sects like sheep into one fold under one official shepherd. As there has never been one nation or one religion in India, so a national church establishment, excluding all others, has never been imagined. That the Sovereign should provide decently for his own persuasion is regarded as natural and decorous ; that he should distribute revenue allotments (or continue them) to every well-defined religious community is thought liberal ; that he should administer to all religious properties and interests is right and proper ; that he should ignore them all and provide not even for his own faith would be a policy comprehensible only by those who had studied English polemics, and one without precedent in Asia. . . ."

"It has been said latterly, and with some reason, that the English Government acted prematurely, and upon incomplete knowledge of all the considerations involved, when it resolved to sever the ancient chain which bound the religious institutions of each province round the feet of the Government which annexed them, and when we thus, in liberating ourselves from being plagued with old-world fancies, threw away the repute and leadership which accrued to the Sovereign of India from being universally recognized as the authority whose *congé d'élire* was required, or whose arbitration was accepted, in all nominations and successions to important religious office or estate. In the Madras Presidency the superintendence of 'no less than seven thousand six hundred Hindu establishments had hitherto been vested in the officers of Government ; and this was more than a nominal superintendence ; the people regarded the district officer as the friendly guardian of their religion.' Speaking of the aversion of the people to the abandonment by Government of the management of a famous pagoda (Tirupati) in North Arcot, the district magistrate wrote : 'No persuasion or reasoning could effect a change in the resolution they had taken ; the management of this pagoda, they said, had been in the hands of the ruling power for ages back ; the innovation proposed was contrary to established custom, and if persisted in, religious worship in their temple would cease. . . .'

"At first we were over-careful to conciliate native prejudices by showing official respect and deference to rites and ceremonies of a nature largely repugnant to European habits of thought in such matters ; and we were far too anxious to prove that we had no notion of giving umbrage to powerful creeds by favoring Christianity, which

had no political importance. This overshot the mark, and naturally displeased European opinion; so we gave way to a strong re-action, and at one time we borrowed from the religious politics of Great Britain to an extent which laid us open to complaints that the English Government in its endeavour to assume an impartial and irresponsible attitude towards all religions, had not sufficiently regarded the material interests of the native creeds and rituals, or their prescriptive claims upon the ruler, whoever he may be, of their country. . . .

“ In England an assurance of neutrality would probably mean that the Government had determined to have nothing whatever to do with the affairs, temporal or spiritual, of any sect or creed; in India, the declaration is generally taken to convey a welcome guarantee that the Queen will not favor one religion more than another; but it is not so welcome if it is found to mean the complete renunciation by their governors of all direct authority or headship over the management of the temporal interests of their religions. Such a course of action is foreign to all historic experience of the relations between secular and ecclesiastical authorities throughout Asia. It may be the only course now open to the English in India; nevertheless another might be learned from observing the organization of all great Asiatic Governments, and from the example of every ruler over divers tribes and nationalities—namely, that in certain conditions of society the immediate authority and close supervision of a monarch over the powerful religious interests with which he has to reckon at every step, is a matter of political expediency, not an affair of doctrine or opinion, but a recognized duty of the State. To relinquish this position is to let go at least one real political advantage which accrues to us from our attitude of perfect neutrality, that of enabling us to superintend and guarantee the religious administration of all sects with entire impartiality, and with the confidence of our subjects. There is no reason whatever to regret the abolition of the old *régime* under which public officers were literally agents and managers for religious institutions; that system was rightly condemned. But to cut away all the historic ties between Church and State, to free Asiatic religions from every kind of direct subordination to the executive power, would be to push the principle further in India, where it is not understood and has no advocates, than has as yet been attempted even in any country of Europe, where it is supported by a large and increasing party.”

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