

The Moplahs were the second race found in Malabar and South Canara. Their number was 722,896. The Lubbays were the third race found mostly in Tanjore and Madura. Their number was 515, 440. The Moplahs and Lubbays were of Dravidians decent.¹⁷ There were four religious division of the Muslim population i.e. Sunni, Shia, Wahaby and Parsee. The following table¹⁸ shows the religious division of the Muslims population both male and female.

Table: Religious division of the Muslims population both male and female

Sect	Muslim population			%		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Sunni	862892	695484	1768376	90.60	91.27	90.94
Shia	22186	22192	44378	2.33	2.26	2.29
Wahaby	491	529	1020	0.05	0.05	0.05
Parsee	38	44	82	0.01	0.01	0.01
Others not stated	66789	62926	129715	7.01	6.41	6.71
Total	952396	981175	1933571	100	100	100

The number of Christians in Madras Presidency was 711072. Of this number 473353 were Roman Catholics about 68.68% of the total Christian population in the province.¹⁹ The table below gives a comparative statement²⁰ of Christian population of Madras Presidency with other provinces.

Table: Comparison of Christian population of Madras Presidency with other provinces

Provinces	Number of Christians	Ratio per 10000 to the total population
Madras	711072	228
British Burma	84219	225

17 *Ibid.*, p. 493.

18 *Ibid.*

19 *Ibid.*

20 *Ibid.*

Provinces	Number of Christians	Ratio per 10000 to the total population
Coorg	3152	176.78
Bombay	145154	62
Bengal	128135	18
Punjab	33699	15
Assam	7093	15
Nizam's Dominion	13614	14
N.W. Provinces and Oudh	47664	11
Central Provinces	11973	10.37
Berar	1335	5

CASTE SYSTEM

Caste system was very pre-dominant in Madras Presidency as in other parts of Southern India. According to the Census of 1881 there were 257 sub-heads of caste which were grouped under 17 major heads which is given below:²¹

- (i) Vellalar (cultivator)
- (ii) Periahs (labourers)
- (iii) Shaunar (toddy drawers)
- (iv) Yidayar (shepherds)
- (v) Brahmins (priests)
- (vi) Keikalar (weavers)
- (vii) Shembadavar (fisherman)
- (viii) Cummaular (artisans)
- (ix) Chetties (traders)
- (x) Vannair (labourers)
- (xi) Shatauny (mixed castes)
- (xii) Vannaur (washer man)
- (xiii) Ambattar (barbers)

21 *Ibid.*

- (xiv) Koosavar (potters)
- (xv) Khatriyas (warriors)
- (xvi) Kanakars (writers)
- (xvii) Others, not stated

In the Hindu society the status of men depended not on his wealth but on the caste in which he was born. The Brahmins or priests mentioned above were at the top in the caste hierarchy while the lower castes like the washer men etc. considered as Sudras. Former is the *dvija* (twice born) whereas the latter is a mere Sudra without any status. Every caste had its own vocation. Occupation like trading, agriculture and doing military service were common to all and any body could choose anyone of these occupations irrespective of one's caste, creed and religion.²² The system of pollution was there in the society which had its gradation depending upon the status of a particular caste in the social hierarchy. To maintain pollution in tact in villages, each caste had its own quarters. For example in villages in Ramnad district the main portions of the population were occupied by shepherds, artisans and others while the untouchables were segregated from the main portion of the villages. They lived in the outskirts of villages without causing pollution of any sort to the 'Clean Castes'. Similarly in Trichinopoly district also each caste had its own streets. The Brahmins, Sudras, Pancama quarters were separate and in the last of these included the Pallans, Caraiyans and Cakilyans who lived in separate streets. Even in the city of Madras, the Pallis lived in separate quarters known as Pallitteru. In villages unclean castes like Pariyans and Pallans were neither had free access nor permitted to draw water from the wells which were exclusively meant for clean castes.²³ Similarly the unclean castes were prohibited from entering into temples.²³ Even among them inter marriage and inter dinning was rare.

Tamil Muslims and Christians too were not free from such restrictions which they had inherited from their Hindu forefathers. In many places different classes of Muslims lived in different localities with mosques of their own. The higher caste Christians too had their own Churches where the lower castes were not permitted to worship. In places where all castes had to offer their prayers in common church or mosque, separate places were allotted to lower castes and untouchables.²⁴

22 P. Subramaniam, *Social History of the Tamils, 1707-1947*, New Delhi, 1996 p.46.

23 *Ibid.*, pp. 48-49.

24 *Ibid.*, p. 50.

POLITICAL HISTORY

The History of Madras Presidency forms an important part of the history of India. Greek accounts chiefly based on *Indica* written by Megasthenes speak of the Kingdom of Kalinga, Andhra and Pandya the last in the extreme south and the first two in the north of Madras Presidency, Kalinga on the coast and Andhra in land. To these added Chola and Kerala in the time of Ashok by 6th century A.D. the Pallavas had established a powerful sovereignty with capital near Madras but soon split up into several contemporary dynasties ruling along the whole eastern coast as far as Orissa. In 7th century A.D., the Chalukyas conquered the Pallavas and under the name of eastern Chalukyas remained in power until 11th century A.D. That widely extended kingdom of the Chalukyas gradually fell to pieces and by the close of 13th century the entire north of the Presidency had been wrested from the Chola sovereignty by a number of chiefs under various titles, independent of each other and they were perpetually at war. The Chola and Cheras were driven by the powerful dynasty of the Haysala Ballalas. At the opening of the 14th century A.D. the Pandyas were powerful in the south, the Cholas having their hold on Tanjore and Madras; the Haysala Ballalas had a firm grip on the centre of the peninsula; the north of the Presidency was in a state of anarchy.²⁵

Continuous history of the Presidency began with the arrival of the Muslims. The Muslim invaders first established themselves in the south at the commencement of the 14th century, Ala-ud-din, the most powerful ruler of the Khilji dynasty at Delhi and his general Malik Kafur conquered the Deccan, overthrew the kingdom of Hysala Ballala and ravaged the country down to the extreme south, besides conquering the Chieftains of the east coast. After the withdrawal of Muslim army, the Hindu monarchy of Vijayanagar arose to power with its capital at Tungabhadra. This dynasty gradually extended its dominions from sea to sea, destroyed the former dynasties of South India and nominally governed the entire Madras Presidency.²⁶

In 1505, after a glorious history of two centuries, Vijayanagar was overwhelmed by the combination of four Muslims principalities of Deccan. Mughal and Maratha armies followed in quick succession and crushed out the Dravidian races. Emperor Aurangzeb normally extended his sovereignty as far as Cape Comorin but in reality the south had again fallen under a

25 *Imperial Gazetteer, op. cit.*, pp.9-10.

26 *Ibid.*, p.11.

number of rulers who owed no regular allegiance. The *Nizam* himself an independent sovereign, represented the distant court of Delhi. The most powerful of his feudatories was the *Nawab* of the Karnatak with capital at Arcot. In the plain of Tanjore, a descendant of Shivaji ruled, Pandya country was held by *Nayakas* of Madura, a Hindu chief was founding the state of Mysore on the central table-land. Vasco-da-gama who discovered the sea route to India reached Calicut on 20th May 1498. For a century, the Portuguese, retained in their control over the commerce of India, especially along the western coast. The Dutch began to establish themselves on the ruins of the Portuguese at the beginning of 17th century and were quickly followed by the English who opened places of business at Calicut and Cranganore as early as 1616. Tellicherry, a branch factory from Surat in 1683 became a principal British emporium on the western coast and was permanently obtained by a cession of territory in 1708. The Portuguese eventually retired to Goa and the Dutch to Spice Islands. The first English settlements on the eastern coast were founded in 1611 at Masulipatam and Pettapoli in Krishna district. To the south a factory was built at Armagaon, a small port in Nellore district, and in 1630 another factory was built at Madras with permission from the Hindu *Raja* of Chandragiri. The site of Pondicherry was purchased by the French in 1672 where they established a settlement two years after. For many years the English and the French traders lived peacefully side by side, rivals only in commerce but with no ambition for territorial aggrandizement.²⁷

The war of Austrian Succession in Europe lifted the flame of hostility between the French and the English even in India. Though for sometime French Governor Dupleix rose to be the arbiter of southern India, the British General Clive's defense of Arcot proved a turning point in Indian history and that led to the preponderance of the later in the area. In 1760, the crowning victory of Wandiwash, won by Colonel Coote, over Lally finally established the supremacy of the English over southern India. But the English had to face the internal enemies like Haider Ali and Tipu Sultan who proved for several years the most formidable antagonist that they had to encounter in India. The Madras Government than at a low ebb of efficiency was incapable of offering a successful opposition. On more than one occasion Haider swept unmolested through the low land of Karnataka plundering up to the gates of the English forts. The first Mysore War ended in 1769 by a peace dictated by Haider Ali beneath the wall of Madras. In the

27 *Ibid.*, p.12.

course of the second Mysore War an English force under Colonel Baillie was cut to pieces by Haider near Canjeveram; and Tipu drove the English out of Malabar. However this disaster was avenged by English General Sir Eyre Coote at Porto Novo. Haider died in 1782 and in 1784 Tipu signed the Treaty of Mangalore. But hostility resumed between the two again which only ended at the death of Tipu in 1799 in the third Mysore War.²⁸

The territories of Madras Presidency had been acquired at various dates. In 1763, the tract encircling Madras city, long known as *Jagir* of the East India Company also called Chingliput district was ceded by the *Nawab* of Arcot. In 1765, the Northern *Circars* (districts of Ganjam, Vizagpatnam, Godavari and Krishna) out of which the French had been driven were granted to the Company by the Mughal Emperor Shah Allam II and later also the sanction of the *Nizam* at the cost of an annual tribute of £70000 was obtained. Full rights of dominion over the Northern *Circars* were not acquainted till 1823 when the tribute was commuted for a lump payment. In 1792, Tipu Sultan was compelled to cede Bara Mahal (a part of Salem district), Malabar, Dindigal and Palni taluks of Madura and Kangundi taluk of North Arcot. In 1799, on the reconstruction of the state of Mysore after Tipu's death, Coimbatore, the Nilgiri Hills, the rest of Salem district and South Canara district were appropriated as British share. The same year, the Maratha *Raja* of Tanjore resigned the administration of his territory. In 1800, Anantapur, Kurnool, Bellary and Cuddapah known as ceded districts were made over by the *Nizam* of Hyderabad to defray the expenses of an increased subsidiary force. The last titular *Nawab* of Karnatak died in 1855 but his representatives still bear the title of the Prince of Arcot and were recognized as the first native nobleman in Madras. In 1839, the *Nawab* of Kurnool was deposed for misgovernment and suspected treason and his territory was brought under direct British administration.²⁹

With regard to native states under administration of Madras Government, largest was Mysore which had since 1831 been under direct administration of the Govt. of India but in 1881 it was handed back to its native prince. Other native states subordinate to Madras were Travancore, Cochin, Bangnapalli and Sandur. The zamindars of Jeypore and Vijayanagaram though not native states with independent jurisdiction but were large landed properties under administration of Madras.³⁰

28 *Ibid.*, p.13.

29 *Ibid.*, p.14.

30 *Ibid.*, p.15.

ECONOMIC STRUCTURE OF MADRAS PRESIDENCY

By occupation 68.94% of the total population of the Madras Presidency were agriculturists, 18.7% were industrialists, 2.33% lived on trade and commerce, 2.96% on personal service, 2.55% on Government service 1.13% were unskilled labourers and the rest depended on indefinite occupation. The following table shows the percentage of people in different occupation in each district of the Presidency.³¹

Table: Percentage of people in different occupation in each district of Madras Presidency

Districts	Percentage of total population whose means subsistence are derived from									
	Industrial pursuits				Unskilled labour(Special)	Commerce	Professions	Government services	Personal service	Indefinite occupation
	Working in textile fabrics and articles of dress		Others	Total						
	Cotton	Others								
Ganjam	2.52	0.83	5.15	17.47	0.89	2.53	2.45	3.62	3.35	1.91
Vizagpatam	4.7	0.58	5.42	19.26	0.87	1.46	0.9	2.78	4.51	2.23
Godavari	3.9	0.7	5.72	18.52	0.99	3.1	1.3	3.69	2.42	1.91
Kistna	5.41	0.72	7.32	19.48	0.85	1.72	1.89	3.55	3.75	2.15
Kurnool	6.53	0.61	6.2	19.11	0.36	1.46	1.13	3.99	3.13	2.36
Bally	5.36	1.95	5.57	17.64	0.41	1.95	1.3	2.6	2.49	3.12
Anantapur	6.12	1.81	7.06	19.77	0.85	2.06	1.03	4.71	2.91	2.17
Cuddapah	5.89	0.89	6.86	18.16	0.96	1.66	1.03	3.58	3.25	1.65
Nellore	6.36	0.88	8.89	23.23	1.2	1.91	1.72	3.5	3.84	2.21
Chingleput	3.69	0.6	4.77	16.44	1.19	1.96	1.87	3.19	2.9	1.51
South Arcot	2.15	0.47	4.07	11.04	0.63	1	1.39	2.18	2.11	0.72
North Arcot	3.17	0.69	5.25	14.37	1.08	1.92	1.39	2.3	2.67	1.72
Salem	4.86	0.99	7.66	18.99	0.79	1.62	1.46	2.27	2.51	0.99
Coimbatore	4.52	0.67	12.2	24.9	1.04	1.84	2.01	1.73	2.97	1.06
Trichinopoly	2.56	0.92	6.14	13.92	0.85	1.83	2.21	2.79	2.62	1
Tanjore	2.92	1.28	6.23	17.89	3.19	3.79	3.95	3.49	2.58	1.14
Madura	2.94	0.81	6.58	16.2	1.26	2.94	2.16	1.52	2.7	0.86
Tinnevelly	4.6	0.63	6.98	23.47	1.01	2.6	2.13	2.03	2.77	0.88
Malabar	1.41	2.81	7.77	24.35	1.61	4.55	3.12	1.03	2.55	0.66
South Canara	0.73	1.13	5.73	19.63	0.64	2	2.83	1.52	1.51	0.57
Nilgiris	0.01	1.22	5.82	11.75	2	3.86	2.45	3.31	3.4	1.31
Presidency Total	3.76	0.99	6.66	18.7	1.13	2.33	1.96	2.55	2.96	1.43

³¹ Charles Benson, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

AGRICULTURE

The Madras Presidency was not a naturally fertile country. Over the greater part of its area, artificial irrigation was impossible. So agriculture greatly depended on local rainfall. So here a brief description is made about the soil and climate of Madras Presidency that greatly affects its productions.

Distribution of soils as affecting agriculture

The greater part of the Presidency was covered with soils that were originally formed by the disintegration of rocks of the metamorphic and igneous system. The soils formed out of the metamorphic rocks like gneiss, mica, quartz etc., which prevailed the most widely, were very inferior. The extensive ranges of mountains known as pulneys, Anamullays and Nilguries were composed of granite rocky offered a protective soil in situation where rain fall was not excessive. The minor ranges of hills which were scattered over the Presidency consisted chiefly of syenite and quartz rocks; the former yielded on decomposition, a productive soil, but the soil derived from the latter were always inferior and sometimes perfectly sterile. The area of sedentary soil derived from inferior rocks was very considerable but owing to the forces of nature, there was a wide extent of transported soils formed of the disintegrated portion of the rocks of other formations. Of this class was the black cotton soil and alluvial soil. Another characteristic soil met with in all parts of the Presidency was the red soil derived from a large admixture of the peroxide of iron.³²

Climate

The Madras Presidency generally had a high mean temperature. The Western Ghat intercept the greater portion of the rain clouds brought by the south west monsoon so that while the rainfall in the strip of country between the mountains and the Indian Ocean was very heavy between June and September, it was comparatively light in the districts to the east of the great mountain barrier. The Eastern *Ghat* acted in a similar manner but only on north east monsoon and owing to their lower elevation, their effect as a barrier was not as great as in other ranges. The period from April to May was considered as hot weather and January to March as dry weather. The south west monsoon lasted from June to September and north east monsoon from October to December. The rain of the south west monsoon

³² C.D. MacLean, *op. cit.*, p. 285.