

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

TUMKUR is one of those districts of Mysore State which are subject to periodical scarcity conditions. Keeping this in view, its economic growth has been well-planned in recent years, having regard to its potentialities in the fields of agriculture, irrigation, industries, communications and other spheres. The many programmes carried out under the successive Five-Year Plans have brought about developments of a far-reaching importance and have laid the foundation for its future prosperity. In presenting an account of the economic trends in the district, it would be necessary to look into the livelihood pattern of the population, the price and wage fluctuations with their impact on economic and social conditions, the standard of living of the people, the employment level and other cognate matters. In dealing with these aspects, one has to bear in mind what has been said in some of the earlier chapters of this volume, particularly relating to agriculture, irrigation, industries, banking, trade and commerce.

There are a variety of factors which determine the economic regeneration of a region and the main occupations of the people are taken into consideration in any assessment of economic trends. The occupations, traditional or modern, are closely inter-related to the natural resources that are available in the district or a region. The advantages of situation of natural resources, availability of raw materials, the technical know-how acquired by the people, the accumulated savings of the people, the credit available for starting new enterprises, the institutional advantages and a spirit of enterprise are some of the important factors which go to improve the economic condition of an area.

Livelihood pattern

The district is not dissimilar to other contiguous districts in its occupational pattern, which is, of course, mainly agricultural. According to the 1951 Census, out of a total population of 11,51,362, as many as 9,62,909 persons, *i.e.*, 83.6 per cent, were depending on agriculture for their livelihood. The non-agricultural population numbered only 1,88,453, *i.e.*, 16.4 per cent. The

1951 Census enumeration of the livelihood pattern was divided into eight classes with two broad divisions, *viz.*, agricultural and non-agricultural. The agricultural classes were further divided into four sub-divisions, *viz.*, (i) cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents, (ii) cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents, (iii) cultivating labourers and their dependents, and (iv) non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents. The actual number of persons of agricultural class falling under each of these categories in 1951 was as follows:—

1. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents	8,23,683
2. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents	40,471
3. Cultivating labourers and their dependents	62,924
4. Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents	35,831
Total	9,62,909

The non-agricultural classes were also sub-divided into four categories, *viz.*, persons engaged in (i) production other than cultivation, (ii) commerce, (iii) transport, and (iv) other services and miscellaneous sources. The following were the number of persons (including their dependents) in each of these categories in the district in 1951:—

(1) Production other than cultivation	57,999
(2) Commerce	40,422
(3) Transport	4,305
(4) Other services and miscellaneous sources	85,727
Total	1,88,453

In the 1961 Census, for the first time, tables of persons engaged in useful economic activity were prepared in greater detail. In order to get a correct number of persons engaged in different occupations, the population of each village in the revenue area and of each enumerator's block in a town was first divided into "workers" and "non-workers". The working population was then classified under the following nine broad categories, *viz.*, (1) as cultivators, (2) as agricultural labourers, (3) in mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities, (4) in house-hold industry, (5) in manufacturing other than house-hold industry, (6) in construction, (7) in trade and commerce, (8) in transport, storage and

communications and (9) in other services. The sub-joined statement indicates the actual number of persons working in each of these categories :—

(1) As cultivators	..	4,87,472
(2) As agricultural labourers	..	61,482
(3) In mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities	..	20,539
(4) In house-hold industry	..	46,478
(5) In manufacturing other than house-hold industry	..	9,470
(6) In construction	..	5,792
(7) In trade and commerce	..	15,088
(8) In transport, storage and communications	..	2,384
(9) In other services	..	37,810
Total number of workers		<u>6,86,515</u>

Thus, out of a total population of 13,67,402 in the district in 1961, 6,86,515, *i.e.*, only about 50 per cent, were workers, while the rest, *i.e.*, 6,80,887, were non-workers who depended on the workers. (See also Chapter VIII and Appendix).

Price trends

In any study of the economic condition of a particular area, the price-level is an important factor. The interests of the producer as well as of the consumer have to be reconciled, and a balance effected between the two goes to help their economic prosperity. If uneconomic prices prevail, the grower will have no incentive to put forth his best efforts. If the consumer is hit hard, resistance in buying will increase. Hence, a proper balance between the two factors has to be struck to preserve also the economic equilibrium. The average prices for agricultural produce that existed in the later part of the last century give a fair indication of the low returns to the producer. The causes for this were many. Lack of communications, absence of any marketing regulation and localisation of trade resulted in abundance of stocks in a particular growing area. The glut in these markets naturally brought the prices down.

From the figures available from 1871 to 1873, it is seen that the price of rice for a maund of 80 lbs. ranged between Rs. 3 to Rs. 4-8-0. In 1882 and 1883, the prices went down as low as Rs. 2-8-0 per maund. From 1891 to 1892, there was an upward trend and the price of rice shot up to nearly Rs. 5 per maund. The same was the case with ragi which sold at Rs. 1-8-0 per maund in 1881-82. This price went up to nearly Rs. 2 in 1891-92 and again came down to Rs. 1-8-0 in 1892-93. Going

back a hundred years from the dawn of the 20th century, according to Buchanan's observation, the prices near about Tumkur in 1800 were : ragi 12 sultani fanams per *khandaga* of 200 seers and rice, best sort, 28½ seers and rice coarse 66½ seers. If converted into rupees, ragi was 50 seers for a rupee and rice, best sort, 9 seers per rupee and second sort 21 seers. (*Mysore Gazetteer*, Vol. I, Lewis Rice—p. 562). These were the prices prevailing a hundred and sixty years ago. Just before the commencement of the First World War (1913-14), the average price of rice (first sort) in Tumkur was 6 seers per rupee and ragi was selling at 14 seers per rupee.

The averages for all the districts were worked out between 1886 to 1915 and 1916 to 1923. According to the available figures, rice in 1886-90 was selling at 13.50 seers per rupee. From 1901 to 1905, the price quoted was 10.35 seers per rupee and in 1916, it was 7.22 seers. The price of ragi in 1886-1890 was 39.96 seers per rupee. During 1901-1905, it was 24.40 seers and in 1916, 17.68 seers.

It is clear from these figures that the prices of essential food-grains began to register an upward trend in the pre-war and post-First World War years. The reasons for the increase in prices were many. Apart from the usual monetary causes, the reasons for the appreciation in prices in the early years were the growth in population, variations in production and the prices quoted for gold and silver. The price of rice, for example, which was selling at 13½ seers per rupee in 1886, was only 7 seers per rupee in 1916. The same was the case in respect of ragi; in fact, the price of ragi doubled itself during the period from 1886 to 1916.

The price-line after the First World War upto the closing **After First** stages of the Second World War, has also to be noted in any **World War** estimation of price structure. In 1923-24, the price of rice for one *palla* in Tumkur district was Rs. 27-4-0 and in 1944-45, it was Rs. 29-0-0. The price of ragi in 1923-24 was Rs. 12-8-0 per *palla* and in 1944-45, it was Rs. 14-4-0. The rise in prices during this period was partly due to the hazardous financial policy of the British Government. Paper currency had to be expanded in order to make purchases of goods for the allied powers. Since the supply of goods shrank with the expansion in currency, prices took a sharp upward course. The speculators accentuated the situation by cornering the markets with the newly gained profits. Due to the priority given to war supplies, the channels of distribution became defective and there were sharp bottlenecks. Black-markets appeared in respect of all the consumer goods all over the country and the impact of this was also felt in Tumkur district. The people were put to tremendous hardship and

misery. Rationing in food and cloth and control in the prices of other essential materials did not improve the position much.

After 1947

In 1947, the decontrol of foodgrains, sugar and cloth resulted in a sharp upward turn in prices which forced the Government to re-impose controls to arrest the rise. In 1949, the devaluation of the rupee had a considerable effect on the domestic price-line; prices started falling and it appeared that the harmful effects of the earlier rise in prices were slowly wearing out; but again the prices of principal commodities went on rising as indicated by the following table for the years 1957, 1958 and 1959:—

Average wholesale prices of principal commodities (Price in Rs. per B. Maund).

Year	Rice	Ragi
1957	Rs. 19.40	Rs. 11.92
1958	Rs. 19.95	Rs. 11.84
1959	Rs. 21.59	Rs. 13.39

This inflationary tendency was due to many factors. The impact of the monetary policies of the Government, the price of gold and silver, the variations in the volume of production and the policy of imports and exports had all played their parts in the instability of the price-line. The war years threw up manifold social ills and it was noticed that there was a preponderance of speculation in the foodgrains trade. The speculators and hoarders did their worst by creating artificial scarcities and this had its own impact on prices. The State Government was not slow in checking these undesirable trends. Control measures on prices were tightened to arrest this tendency. Compulsory procurement of paddy and ragi was ordered and essential foodgrains were rationed in urban areas. The free movement of foodgrains from rural to urban areas was kept in check by issuing control orders. Many people felt the severity of controls and they persisted in the demand that the controls on foodgrains should be lifted as speedily as possible and in 1952, all controls on foodgrains were removed. It was thought that this action of Government would bring down the prices; but this did not happen. Prices continued to be high and fair price shops were opened to alleviate the difficulties of the consuming public. Buffer stocks were created to have a steady effect on the price-line. Banks were advised not to lend money on agricultural produce. But, these measures did not have much effect on the price-structure. The prices of essential commodities went on rising with the result that in 1960, rice was being sold at 1½ seers per rupee and ragi at 2½ seers per rupee.

About the close of the year 1964, the prices of food articles began to show a further upward trend, as a result of which the consumers were put to much hardship. During that period and throughout 1965, 1966 and 1967, the market prices for rice, ragi, edible oils, pulses and chillies were abnormally high. The State Government took several measures to alleviate the difficulties of the consumers. A series of regulatory orders were issued from time to time with a view to holding the price-line. The wholesale and retail sale of foodgrains came under controls. Fixation of the purchase and selling prices was attempted to check the spiralling prices. The dealers in foodgrains were directed to declare their stocks periodically. They were also required to exhibit the prices of commodities. The Food Corporation of India was established by the Union Government to build up buffer stocks. Controlled distribution of foodgrains was resorted to in urban areas. The cultivators were asked to part with a portion of their production under the foodgrains levy system. Distribution of foodgrains through consumers' co-operative societies at fair prices helped the people to a certain extent.

Further rise in prices

Foodgrains are being procured with a view to supplying them to fair price shops and consumers' co-operative societies. Under this scheme, several regulations have been issued by the State Government such as the Mysore Paddy Procurement (Levy) Order, 1966, the Mysore Jowar Procurement (Levy) Order, 1966, the Mysore Ragi Procurement (Levy) Order, 1966, and the Mysore Bajra Procurement (Levy) Order, 1966. During 1966-67, the procurement work in the district was entrusted to the co-operative institutions which acted as purchasing agents. The above levy orders are being continued from year to year with a view to checking further rise in prices of foodgrains. The distribution of foodgrains, on a controlled basis, to the consumers is being done through a net-work of fair price shops organised by co-operative societies, village panchayats and individual merchants. During 1968, there were, in all, 688 fair price shops in the district, of which 455 shops were run by co-operative societies, 146 by village panchayats and 87 by individual merchants. The average wholesale and retail prices of foodgrains and other consumer commodities in the district during the year 1968 were as given below :—

Foodgrains procurement

<i>Commodity</i>	<i>Wholesale price per quintal</i>	<i>Retail price per quintal</i>
1	2	3
	Rs.	Rs.
Wheat (imported)	75—00	77—00
Milo (imported)	56—00	58—00
White Jowar	71—00	73—00

1	2	3
Bajra ..	71—00	73—00
Ragi ..	69—00	71—00
Rice (fine) ..	96—00	98—00
Rice (mid-fine) ..	91—00	93—00
Rice (medium) ..	87—00	89—00
Rice (coarse) ..	85—00	87—00
<i>Wheat products :—</i>		
Maida ..	94—00	96—00
Soji ..	98—00	100—00
Atta ..	76—00	78—00
Sugar ..	173—00	175—00
		(controlled price)

Wages

Urban Wages.—The wage index of any area is closely linked to the price-line, and when the commodity prices increase, the wages have also to be raised. This trend is particularly significant in an inflationary period. In discussing the wage rates prevalent in the district, only averages are noted, though the wages paid may vary from place to place depending upon the economy of the place. The average wage for casual labour in the district varies from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2.00 a day. In areas with a larger population, the rates paid are more since the demand for labour is more. The wages paid to domestic servants are not based on any definite standard or principle. There are variations from place to place. In some areas, there are whole-time domestic servants getting a monthly wage with or without food. In some places, servants are employed on part-time basis or are paid according to hours of work. But, in all these cases, the wages paid have no standard basis. The rates of wages generally vary from Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per month for full-time servants, while the part-time servants are paid from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per month depending upon the type of work given to them. Office boys in private establishments, who do mostly menial work, are paid Rs. 60 to Rs. 70 a month, whereas a class IV servant in a Government establishment is paid a basic pay of Rs. 50 a month plus dearness and other allowances as in force from time to time, the present rate of dearness allowance (1968) for them being Rs. 65.

Drivers of motor vehicles are important in the category of urban wage-earners. Towns like Tumkur, Tiptur, Gubbi have grown considerably in recent years. There are a number of merchants and officers in these places. Many of these well-to-do persons have their own cars or lorries for which they keep paid drivers. The car drivers are paid Rs. 75 to Rs. 90

a month. The wages paid to drivers of heavy motor vehicles like lorries and trucks are comparatively higher ; their wage rate varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 125 a month. Similarly, the bus-drivers in private enterprises are also paid between Rs. 100 to Rs. 120 a month with an additional high price allowance. Skilled workmen like carpenters, blacksmiths, tailors and barbers also earn easily twice as much as the unskilled labour.

Rural wages.—In this predominantly agricultural district, a vast number of people depend entirely on land for their livelihood. Though some of the cultivators are better off than before in some of the tracts due to the rise in prices of agricultural commodities, the position of many others is none too happy because of the capricious nature of the rainfall which often causes anxiety. Tanks under which wet cultivation is conducted, do not fill up regularly every year. This creates considerable hardship to the small cultivators and agricultural labourers, some of whom migrate to the urban areas and seek jobs in the industrial and other establishments. As the yield from land is not sufficient for their needs, they are naturally attracted towards other employment opportunities. But, all the same, a large number of persons in the district are engaged in agricultural operations like ploughing, sowing, weeding, transplanting, harvesting and threshing. A common feature of most of these occupations is the casual nature of employment offered as against permanent employment obtaining in some of the categories in the urban areas. The landless labourers are employed whenever there is need and they are without employment in other periods, thus rendering their living condition very difficult. The method of paying wages in the rural areas is varied, payment being made daily, weekly or monthly either in cash or in kind. In some places, cash is paid and in some other places, in addition to cash, grains are also given.

The daily wages paid to men labourers vary from Rs. 1.25 to Rs. 2.50, while women labourers are paid Re. 1.00 to Rs. 1.50. Agricultural labourers are available in good numbers except during some peak seasons. Most of the heavy work is done by men who get better wages than women. They work for about eight hours a day. Under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 (Central Act XI of 1948), the State Government had fixed the minimum rates of wages in respect of several categories of employment in agriculture in 1959. These rates were revised in 1968. The sub-joined statement shows the old and the revised rates of wages of the several categories :—

Class of employment	All inclusive minimum daily rates					
	Dry areas		Irrigated areas		Perennial garden areas	
	1959	1968	1959	1968	1959	1968
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Class A—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs.
1. Ploughing ..	1.25	1.85	1.50	2.20	1.75	2.55
2. Digging ..						
3. Harrowing ..						
4. Sowing ..						
5. Inter-culturing ..						
6. Irrigating or watering, and						
7. Uprooting ..						
Class B—						
1. Manuring ..	1.00	1.45	1.12	1.65	1.37	2.00
2. Transplanting ..						
3. Weeding ..						
4. Reaping (including harvesting, threshing and winnowing).						
5. Picking in the case of cotton.						
Class C—						
Cattle, sheep and goat grazing.	0.50	0.75	0.50	0.75	0.50	0.75

The monthly minimum rates fixed in 1968 for youths and children employed permanently under Class A are—Rs. 22.05 with food and clothing and Rs. 44.05 without food and clothing. The corresponding rates under Class B are—Rs. 14.70 with food and clothing and Rs. 22.05 without food and clothing and under Class C Rs. 7.35 with food and clothing and Rs. 22.05 without food and clothing. Compared with these agricultural wages, the wages paid to industrial workers are much better. As a result, migration of agricultural labourers to industrial areas is noticeable in the district.

Agricultural development

The total cultivated area of the district in 1965-66 was 12,00,458 acres out of a total area of 26,11,134 acres. The forest area is not much and the extent works out to only 8 per cent of the total geographical area. Sira, Gubbi, Kunigal, Pavagada and Chiknayakanahalli taluks have larger areas of forest

than that of the other taluks, sandal, bamboo and *devadari* being the chief forest species. Most of the forests in the district are thin and are situated largely in hilly areas. Tumkur is mainly a dry-farming area and scarcity conditions are common whenever the rains fail. Variations in the rainfall are, no doubt, natural, but this aspect has not been very pronounced. The climate, for the most part, is salubrious and healthy. About 41.7 per cent of the total geographical area is under a variety of food crops. The main food crops grown in the district are ragi, paddy, jowar and grams including horsegram, blackgram and greengram. Among the other crops grown are groundnut, castor and tobacco. The chief garden crops are coconut and arecanut.

Irrigation has not been very prominent in assisting agricultural production in the district. Out of a total cropped area of 12,00,458 acres, only about, 1,67,040 acres were under irrigation in 1967, mainly by tanks, wells, canals and *talapariges*. The area cultivated by different irrigation sources is comparatively more in Tumkur, Gubbi, Madhugiri and Pavagada taluks. The area cultivated by tank irrigation in the district is, in fact, more than the area cultivated by any other types of irrigation. In the development of wet-land farming, several methods for moisture and soil conservation have been attempted. This has become absolutely necessary, because the sources for increasing irrigation are rather few. Contour-bunding, which is a familiar but sure way of conserving moisture, is on the increase. This has, to some extent, helped to ward off the threat of periodical scarcity. The cultivators have realised the beneficial effects of good bunding of fields in conserving the soil. In recent years, new methods of dry farming have been introduced and intensive cultivation methods have also been adopted. All these measures have helped the area to achieve a good measure of quantitative and qualitative progress in agriculture. Various schemes to increase the yield of ragi, paddy, coconut and arecanut are being implemented. The mechanisation of agriculture is confined only to some areas where bulldozers and tractors are used. There are a few affluent agriculturists who have the means to hire tractors for ploughing their fields. But, these modern methods have not in any way diminished the importance of livestock. The Animal Husbandry Department has introduced many new schemes to improve the breed of cattle and sheep in the district.

The statistics of agricultural holdings in the district indicate that a large number of holdings has been uneconomic. The size of holdings and their distribution in the district, according to the Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee Report (1958), have been given in Chapter IV.

Agricultural
holdings

It would be of interest to note that the average holding per holder in the district then consisted of 7.73 acres while the State average was 10.87 acres. According to the 1961 Census figures, there were, in all, 38,567 cultivating households in the district. Of these, 990 households cultivated land extending to less than one acre, 7,915 households from 1 to 2.4 acres, 11,485 households from 2.5 to 4.9 acres, 8,006 households from 5 to 7.4 acres, 3,160 households from 7.5 to 9.9 acres, 2,859 households from 10 to 12.4 acres, 850 households from 12.5 to 14.9 acres, 2,496 households from 15 to 29.9 acres and the rest 30 acres and above.

The tempo of economic development has considerably increased in recent years by the impact of organised planning which has been adopted as a national policy. Agricultural development has been a keynote of planning aimed at getting more food from the arable land by introducing improved agricultural practices. Intensive methods have now been adopted in the district with the timely advice of the technical personnel of the agricultural department. Irrigational facilities, which go to increase and improve the yields, are rather poor in the district. The district has no perennial rivers, though, of course, there are several major tanks. Absence of suitable sites for construction of major irrigation works has been a serious handicap. The Marconahalli Reservoir and the Boranakanive Anicut have been among the major irrigation works which have paid good dividends in their respective tracts. Lift irrigation methods are being increasingly adopted. More and more irrigation pumpsets are now being installed in the district. The major and minor tanks depend entirely on the monsoons. If the seasonal rains are good, these tanks provide copious supplies of water during the agricultural seasons.

Food deficit

Tumkur has been a deficit district in regard to production of foodgrains. It has been estimated that during the agricultural season of 1967, the district produced only about 80,070 metric tonnes of foodgrains as against its requirements of about 2,62,000 metric tonnes, as could be seen from the following table:—

(In metric tonnes)

Sl. No.	Name of taluk	Total requirements of foodgrains	Total production	Total deficit
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Tumkur	24,257	18,000	6,257
2.	Gubbi	88,800	25,801	62,999
3.	Kunigal	35,000	27,350	7,650
4.	Tiptur	25,320	14,100	11,220
5.	Chiknayakanahalli	20,385	12,800	7,585

1	2	3	4	5
6.	Turuvekere ..	19,482	15,900	3,582
7.	Madhugiri ..	22,253	11,600	10,653
8.	Sira ..	53,775	17,019	36,756
9.	Koratagere ..	28,536	18,200	10,336
10.	Pavagada ..	34,200	19,300	14,900
Total ..		2,62,008	80,070	1,81,938

Thus, the deficit during the year was to the tune of about 1.82 lakh metric tonnes, and this deficit had to be met by importing foodgrains from other regions. The land ownership pattern, which has had all the evils of fragmentation, the outmoded methods of cultivation, which are still being followed to a considerable extent, insufficient irrigation facilities and periodical failures of rains have stood in the way of getting more from the land.

The Mysore Land Reforms Act, 1961, which is being now implemented, has envisaged great changes in the pattern of land-ownership; it has prescribed ceiling limits for present holdings and also for future acquisitions and has made provisions in respect of tenants' rights with a view to making the tiller of the soil the owner of the land. This would encourage them to put forth their best efforts to get more from the land. A comprehensive programme for better utilisation of the water resources in the district is also being carried out.

It has been realised that complete dependence on agriculture by a large number of people for their livelihood retards the progress of agriculture and affects the common well-being of the people. This problem becomes more acute in the scarcity areas where the yields are often poor and the extent of land under cultivation is smaller. Therefore, diversification of agriculture and pursuit of activities allied to agriculture are necessary for remedying this position. Realising this fact, development of animal husbandry, fisheries, sericulture and such other occupations allied to agriculture are being now increasingly encouraged. This would provide the families of agriculturists enough work all through the year and a good additional source of income which would help to raise their standard of living.

**Diversification
of agriculture**

Some developments in the sphere of finance have been apparent in the district over the decades. In the old days, there were no institutional financing agencies supplying credit to those who needed it. There were, of course, the village money-lenders who advanced loans to agriculturists and rural craftsmen.

Finance

Avenues of investment were not much in evidence. Government securities and the like were availed of only by a few of the privileged classes who had some assured means of income. As a result of urbanisation, institutional banking came into prominence after 1913, when branches of well-organised and established banks were located in the district.

The gradual development of co-operative credit institutions in the district is yet another aspect of economic importance. The number of co-operative institutions in 1967 in the district was 1,037 and this indicates the immense popular response to the movement. These institutions supply credit to the different sections of the district's economy. Supplemental aid has also been forthcoming from Government agencies. The Government have a number of schemes to render financial assistance to the cultivators in the form of developmental loans and subsidies. Loans are also being given for promotion of industries.

Trade pattern

A noticeable feature of the trade pattern in the district is the conglomeration of retail traders and the preponderance of independent workers engaged in commerce. Trade and commerce are mainly carried on in towns. A large percentage of the mercantile class is to be found in urban areas. Though not rapidly, vast changes have been noticed in the volume of trade because of the increased production of agricultural commodities. The entire organization and pattern of trade in the district have undergone a change with the development of road and railway transport and good inter-taluk communications. Outlying areas have been made accessible to the flow of trade by the construction of roads connecting all the taluks and important villages of the district.

The pattern of trade has changed for the better with the establishment of regulated markets in some important places where an assured fair price is offered to the producers. The increased popularity of machine-made goods like textiles and the growing importance of cash crops, such as, cocoanuts and arecanuts, have all made the trade pattern of the district conform to the changed conditions. Of the total production of cocoanuts in the district, about 80 per cent is exported to Bangalore and other places. Retail business is spread over all parts of the district. Even remote villages have one or more shops that cater to the daily needs of the people of the place. Shandies or *santes* are the distributing centres of daily necessities. Besides these shop-keepers and fairs, pedlars go from place to place hawking merchandise from village to village and thus act as connecting links between places.

Cheap and assured supply of electric power is a sure base for **Power** economic development. The main power line from Mahatma Gandhi Hydro-Electric Works at Jog runs through this district. Though electric power was extended to the district as early as 1931, the expansion programmes had to wait because of the meagre supply from the only power generating station then existing at Shivasamudram. It was only in 1948 that the Jog Hydro-electric Scheme was put into operation. After the availability of this power, electric energy was extended to several areas. Now, with the commissioning of the Sharavathi generating units, there is plenty of power supply. Extension of power supply to rural areas is now the declared policy of the State Government, and more and more towns and villages have been supplied with power in recent years. This has encouraged the development of small-scale industries, lift irrigation and other pursuits.

In the sphere of communications, the Bangalore-Harihar-Poona line of the Southern Railway system is the only line passing through a part of this district. **Communications** While this has offered some good scope for the flow of trade between eastern and western parts, there is no such facility especially in the northern parts of the district. Road communications are fairly adequate in the district linking every taluk with the district headquarters-town and also the administrative capital. In respect of inter-village communications also, appreciable progress has been achieved in recent years, though there is still a good deal to be done. (See also Chapter VII).

As already stated, the pattern of occupations in the district **Industrial development** is chiefly agricultural, and the growth of industries is confined mainly to the cottage variety, like handlooms, sericulture, wool-weaving and oil-pressing. A number of cottage and small-scale industrial units have come up in the district in recent years. Raw-materials like wool, groundnut and coir, which are abundantly available in the district, have been put to use to some extent. The absence of coal and iron has been, of course, a severe handicap to the growth of any large-scale industries. The presence of limestone in areas around Ammasandra has been made use of to establish a cement factory in the private sector at Ammasandra in Turuvekere taluk. This is at present the only large-scale industry in the district and it employs about 700 workers. Handloom cloth-weaving, wool-weaving and sericulture are some of the oldest occupations in the district. Among the small-scale industries may be mentioned beedi-making, manufacture of slate pencils, hair-comb making, *kambli*-weaving, manufacture of agricultural implements, general engineering, coir industries, saw mills and wood-based industries, confectionery and the like. In recent years, there has been a considerable development of small-scale industries in the district, and at present, there are 257

registered small-scale industrial units, which provide employment to about three thousand persons.

Improved agricultural practices exert a steady influence on the growth of industrialisation. As the district is not a cotton-growing area, there is no impetus for establishment of textile mills. The limited but assured irrigational facilities in Kunigal area and around Boranakanive, offer good scope for increased cultivation of sugarcane. The total acreage under sugarcane in the district in 1967 was only 7,682. If this acreage is further increased, there may be scope for starting one or two sugar production units in the district.

Some useful economic minerals are found in various parts of the district. There are manganese, gold, iron and other mineral deposits. Limestone, china-clay and building stones are also available. Though gold-mining in Bellara has been given up at present, a renewed examination may reveal economic possibilities. Building stones, which are available in plenty in Kunigal, Tiptur and Turuvekere taluks, can be quarried on a large scale and exported. The stones take a very high degree of polish. (For more details on the industrial potential in the district, please see Chapter V—Industries).

Standard of living

The standard of living of the people is reflected in the level of their income and the pattern of their expenditure. The average *per capita* income of Mysore State in 1960-61 at current prices was estimated at Rs. 290.10. As against this, the *per capita* income of Tumkur district was Rs. 256, i.e., Rs. 34.10 less than the State average. According to the quick estimates worked out for 1964-65, the *per capita* income of the State had gone up to Rs. 391.67. Correspondingly, the *per capita* income of the district also must have gone up. If any analysis has to be attempted to get a clear idea of the standard of living of the population in a particular area, it is necessary to assess the income and expenditure of the different sections of the community in that area. A cross-section analysis to indicate the broad outlines of the pattern of living of the socially significant sections of the rural and urban population of the district, is also helpful in gauging the standard of living of the people.

Out of a total population of 13,67,402 (1961) in Tumkur district, 12,28,413, i.e., about 89.8 per cent live in the villages and 1,38,989, i.e., about 10.2 per cent in towns. The rural population, which is mainly agricultural, is spread over 2,444 (inhabited) villages, while the urban population is spread over the 11 towns of the district. Owner-cultivators in the district, who constitute about 71 per cent of the population, form the bulk of the agricultural population. The other groups like tenant

cultivators, cultivating labourers and non-cultivating owners form only about 3.5 per cent, 5.5 per cent and 3 per cent respectively. The non-agricultural population of the district is about 17 per cent of the total, and out of them, a good number reside in towns and some in villages. Persons depending on various types of industries make up about 5 per cent of the total population. Apart from agriculture and industries, trade and commerce and transport account for about 3.5 per cent and 0.5 per cent of the population, respectively. The remainder depend on their avocations, which may be grouped under miscellaneous occupations.

The increased prices of agricultural commodities and better productions have helped to improve the position of many of the cultivators. In rural areas, a very large portion of the population has a share in the produce of the land. Wages of labourers in many cases are paid in kind. Many cultivators supplement their income by other subsidiary occupations. All these make it somewhat difficult to get a correct estimate of the occupations and their incomes. In spite of these handicaps, a description of the way of living of some typical families in the different classes and occupations would help in conveying a fairly clear idea of the economic life of the rural population. **Rural areas**

The big farmer, cultivating his own fields with his own labour, as also with hired labour, may be reckoned as constituting the well-to-do class of the rural parts of the district. The cultivation of large-sized holdings necessarily implies the maintenance of more than one pair of bullocks. It is customary to express the size of the farming business in terms of the number of bullocks maintained. The families of some of these big cultivators are conspicuous by their size and composition. Traditionally, some of these families in which brothers and their wives, grown-up sons and their wives, parents and other near relations live under the same roof, furnish the pattern of the joint family system. In some households, faithful servants also find a well-recognised place in the set-up of the family. There are a number of instances of families consisting of as many as 30 members. It would be of interest, here, to contrast this characteristic of the family of a substantial farmer with that of his urban counterpart, who, though financially on the same plane, has a much smaller family under his care. The average size of a rural family is larger than that of an urban family. The rural well-to-do farmers possess fairly big houses in the village and own a large extent of land in the confines of the village. The houses are quite spacious. In the rural parlance of the district, these people are called *Sahukars*. Six or eight bullocks, a couple of buffaloes and some cows make up their livestock wealth. Most of the male members of such a family know how to read and write. **Big farmers**

Boys and girls have to go to schools under the rules of compulsion now enforced all over the State. The more intelligent of the students study in high schools and some of them attend colleges. The older women are generally illiterate. Every able-bodied male member of the family engages himself in farming. The women, though not drawn into the fields to do heavy work, assist in several ways like taking care of the cattle, household work and carrying food to members of the household working in the fields. The average income of this rural affluent family comes to about Rs. 6,000 to Rs. 8,000 per annum. As the big farmer grows his own food, lives in his own house and pays in kind for many things and services, he gets a sense of security and adequacy that can hardly be calculated in terms of money.

On an average, this family of about 12 to 15 members, spends about Rs. 600 per year on clothes and about Rs. 200 on charities, pilgrimages and hospitality. Annual repairs to the house is another regular recurring item of expenditure which may claim about Rs. 200. The expenditure on medicines and the like may come to about Rs. 150 annually. The monthly expenditure for cereals and pulses of this family comes to Rs. 90 to Rs. 100 and on condiments and oil Rs. 50. Tobacco, betel leaves and arecanuts account for an expenditure of Rs. 25. The maintenance of a servant or two, both for agricultural and domestic work, is a common feature of this class. Such servants are usually paid in kind and if this is expressed in terms of money, may come to about Rs. 400 per year. The expenditure pattern of the substantial farmer indicates that the income is such that adequacy is not only assured on all these items, but some surplus is also left which is reflected in their savings both in kind and cash. In their households, one can see cupboards, a time-piece and some items of furniture. Clothing of different varieties is possessed and the womenfolk have ornaments of gold and silver of much value.

**Medium-scale
farmers**

The medium-scale farmer forms the rural middle class. He is in between the affluent class and the poorer cultivators. The middle-class farmer has generally a pair of working bullocks. He has a small holding which leaves no margin to go in for higher comforts of luxuries. This family ordinarily consists of five or six adults staying in a moderate habitation. In many cases, the middle-class farmer is a mere tenant cultivating the superior land-lord's land. A pair of bullocks, a buffalo, some cows and goats constitute the livestock wealth of an average middle-class cultivator. As in the case of well-to-do farmers, boys of the school-going age in the family are also sent to primary classes and in some cases to secondary schools also. The womenfolk are not educated in general, but they are persuaded to send the girls also to schools. The average annual income of this group is

anywhere in the neighbourhood of about Rs. 3,000 per annum. A standard of minimum adequacy seems to be more or less assured to this group. They mostly rely on their own produce for foodgrains, vegetables, fuel and dairy products. A family of five to six adults and some children spends about Rs. 250 per year on clothes and Rs. 100 on festivals, charity and on guests. The expenditure on medicines may amount to about Rs. 70. Expenditure on pilgrimage and the like account for about Rs. 50. The expenditure on cereals and pulses per month ranges from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50, milk and milk products Rs. 10, edible oils Rs. 8, gur and sugar Rs. 10. Many families of this group balance their budgets and there is no occasion for them to run into debt. Sometimes, they incur debts for productive purposes. These people lead generally a comfortable and contented life.

Next to the middle-class farmers, come the poor agriculturists. These are small land-owners who cannot economically depend, for their sustenance, on the land. Whenever need arises, they seek casual employment in the fields of other bigger landlords. Many of them are wage-earners, living as labourers. It is quite common to see in the district an agricultural labourer having a piece of land which serves as a second source of income. Some of them do not possess even a pair of bullocks and they generally hire them from a brother-farmer or get them in exchange for something. It is difficult to assess definitely what a family budget means to them as their economic life is open to serious fluctuations. A good season brings them enough food as their wages are usually paid in kind and the womenfolk also find employment at the time. When they have a good employment, they buy clothing and a few other requirements, but generally their budget shows a total absence of items like milk, ghee and entertainments. The average income of such a family is about Rs. 600 a year. Expenditure on clothing comes to about 1/10th of this amount per year. In the pattern of their expenditure, they generally earmark Rs. 20 a month on cereals and pulses, Rs. 5 on oil, Rs. 3 on gur and sugar and Rs. 2 on kerosene oil. A wage-earner finds it difficult to make both ends meet and this makes him to borrow money at usurious rates of interest. It would not be incorrect to say that many of the agricultural labourers in the district hardly get an adequate income to satisfy their physical needs. The economic position of this group becomes very difficult in times of acute scarcity, when work is not sufficiently available to eke out their livelihood.

The absentee landlords are called non-cultivating owners. These form only a small section of the village community. In recent years, due to changes in the agrarian pattern, the importance of the non-cultivating owners has been very much reduced. When compared to a big farmer actually cultivating and living

on the land, the standard of living of the non-cultivating class is much lower. There are, of course, variations in the holdings of this group. A landlord of this category has generally a much smaller family than that of a big cultivating farmer. He generally maintains only a few head of cattle. He and his family members are better educated than the others constituting the rural class. Their womenfolk and children do not work in the fields. The houses they own are generally spacious. Though they do not own ploughs, carts and other agricultural aids, they possess furniture, good vessels and finer varieties of clothing. Their womenfolk have ornaments of gold and silver. The standard of living of this group is certainly higher than that of the average middle-class farmer.

**Village
artisans**

The village artisans—the carpenter, blacksmith, leather-worker, potter, washerman and barber—constitute another group in the rural economy. The families of this class of artisans are middle-sized. Some of them are literate. The womenfolk of this class are illiterate and they help the men in a number of ways. Most of these men own houses where they carry on their occupations. Some of them own a little land which is leased out for cultivation. The average income of this group ranges between Rs. 800 and Rs. 1,000 per year. The expenditure relates to food, clothing, medicines and the like. An annual expenditure of Rs. 200 on clothing, Rs. 50 on medicines and Rs. 50 on pilgrimages and the like is generally incurred. The monthly expenditure on foodgrains would be about Rs. 20 to Rs. 30, Rs. 5 on edible oils, Rs. 5 on gur and sugar, Rs. 5 on vegetables and Rs. 5 on fuel. This expenditure pattern indicates a possible balancing of the family budget. However, some of them have to supplement their income by taking to agricultural labour.

Urban areas

The process of urbanisation is another factor, the impact of which also determines, to a certain extent, the extent of economic growth. The number of towns in the district, which form the urban areas, was only 11 in 1951 and 1961 (in 1941 it was 10) and the total urban population of the district, according to the 1961 Census, was 1,38,989 out of the total population of 13,67,402, the district being predominantly agricultural, with as many as 12,28,413 people living in the rural areas. The percentage of rural population in 1941 was 93.5 and in 1951, it was 90.8 and in 1961, 89.8. All municipal or notified areas or places having a population of not less than 5,000 or a density of not less than 1,000 persons per square mile or where at least three-fourths of the adult male population are employed in pursuits other than agriculture, have been considered as urban areas in the 1961 Census. However, some inhabited areas may have more than the stipulated population of 5,000 and above, but still they may present the picture of a rural economy. While the rural areas are composed mostly

of the cultivating classes, the urban areas have a majority of non-agricultural population. There are, indeed, a variety of occupations in the towns and marked variations in the income. The industrial workers are now getting considerably more wages than in the past, but much of their increased income goes away to meet the high cost of consumer goods. There are traders and business-men and high-placed officers who have annual incomes of more than Rs. 12,000, while, on the other hand, there are also labourers who earn a rupee or two a day.

Those families that are considered as very well-to-do, are not many in number in the district. The standard of living of these people is naturally high, because they can afford luxuries. These people live in spacious houses with good gardens and have their own transport. They have servants, gardeners and motor-drivers to work for them. In the urban areas, there is a considerable number of family groups with an annual income ranging from Rs. 6,000 to Rs. 8,000 a year and even a larger number earning incomes may not be very marked, but it is sufficient to indicate the nature of the amenities available to them. Next come the families with incomes ranging from Rs. 1,200 to Rs. 2,500 and from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 a year. These two categories may be called the low-income groups, whose standard of living is indeed very poor.

A well-to-do family gets an income of over Rs. 6,000 to Rs. 8,000 a year. This family of about five or six members spends about Rs. 600 annually on clothes, Rs. 200 on festivals, Rs. 100 on medicines and another Rs. 100 on travels. The monthly expenditure of this group broadly comes to Rs. 60 on cereals and pulses, Rs. 50 on milk and milk products, Rs. 15 on sugar and jaggery, Rs. 20 or Rs. 25 on coffee and tea. House-rent for those who do not possess their own houses, comes to about Rs. 40 or Rs. 50 a month. Generally, this group maintains maid servants or other menial workers, who are paid monthly wages ranging from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40. The expenditure on education of children takes away a big slice of their income. This group, by the social position it occupies, has, of course, to spend on modern amenities like radio, furniture and good clothes.

The upper-middle class is the group whose income is just sufficient to keep them above want and who cannot enjoy a life of ostentation or luxury. The group is composed of Government and other officials, medium-scale businessmen and a few others. In this group, the expenditure per month for a family of about six is Rs. 35 on cereals and pulses, Rs. 20 on oils, spices and vegetables, Rs. 30 on milk and Rs. 25 on sugar and gur, tea and coffee. Some items of expenditure of this class are almost similar

Upper-middle class

Well-to-do class

to those of the well-to-do families. On house-rent, for example, nearly Rs. 30 per month are spent. Though full-time domestic servants are not maintained, they generally employ part-time servants for assisting in house-hold work and, on an average, Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 are paid per month. On toilet articles and entertainments, about Rs. 10 per month are expended. Calculated in terms of annual expenditure, an amount of Rs. 250 is spent on clothes and about Rs. 50 on medicines. Between Rs. 70 to Rs. 100 are spent on travels and pilgrimages. A fairly large sum is spent on education. A majority of the families belonging to this class do not possess big properties like the families of the well-to-do class, but quite a number of them have small landed property in rural areas and some have their own houses.

**Lower-middle
class**

The lower-middle class is composed of petty shop-owners and employees like clerks, teachers and others who earn between Rs. 1,500 and Rs. 2,500 a year. The families constituting this class have neither any disposable surplus nor any property to fall back upon in times of need. Their income is just sufficient for the essentials of life and any unforeseen expenditure lands them in debt. The only consideration that probably places them above the very poor is that, unlike the latter, this class need not have to go without essential things. The typical lower-middle class family is generally the one with a number of children and with the head of the family as the only earning member. The annual expenditure pattern of this class is Rs. 150 on clothes, Rs. 75 on ceremonies and travels and Rs. 30 on medicines. The monthly spending on cereals and pulses comes to about Rs. 25, Rs. 15 on milk and milk products, Rs. 15 or Rs. 20 on sugar, coffee and tea and Rs. 10 on vegetables and other small daily necessities. They may have to pay a house-rent of Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 a month. The education of children is indeed a burden on this class. Many live a hard life though they are not called poor.

Poorer class

The poor classes are those whose income falls below about Rs. 1,200 per year. This low income is barely sufficient to satisfy the normal needs of food and clothing of a family of about four or five. When the income falls below Rs. 500 a year, the persons fall into the category of the indigent and, in their case, even clothing and housing are not easily procurable without encroaching upon food or entailing some other privation. Hawkers and unskilled labourers constitute the poorer class. In the case of this group, the womenfolk do some menial work and earn a little which supplements the total household income. The majority in the group are illiterate. It is very difficult to assess the expenditure pattern of this class owing to the meagre and changing character of the income they get. Food claims the

biggest slice of their income. Expenditure on clothing is small. They cannot spend any money on education. At times, they run into debts and remain in a state of indebtedness for long periods.

The human resources available in the district form the base for economic progress. The population of the district which was 6,71,953 in 1901 increased to 13,67,402 by 1961. This gives an indication of the growth of man-power resources which have more than doubled in the course of the last six decades.

**Employment
market**

The man-power resources of a district can be, no doubt, a great national asset, but at times the same may be a liability. The task of man-power planning depends upon the sum total of the current potential labour supply on the one side and the existing and future labour requirements for the development of the economy on the other, and involves the co-ordination and balance of these factors in terms of needs. There is an unlimited supply of unskilled labour on the one hand and on the other, there is acute deficit of skilled technical and scientific personnel and an absence of optimum utilisation of available resources in terms of men. It is to achieve this utilisation and to avoid, as far as possible, frictional unemployment that the employment exchanges have been opened. The district of Tumkur had no independent Employment Exchange till recently and it was only on March 1, 1961, that an Employment Exchange was opened in the district headquarters town. Till then, Tumkur district was under the jurisdiction of the Bangalore Employment Exchange. The District Employment Exchange, Tumkur, is the central clearing house in the district for purposes of securing employment in different categories.

The Employment Exchange follows a scientific system of registration and placements of candidates seeking employment. It sorts out the vacancies notified to it by employers and classifies the employment-seekers registered with it according to their qualifications, degree of skill and previous experience. All particulars are noted on cards and the cards are arranged in a manner that they could be picked up quickly whenever a candidate has to be matched against a vacancy. When the vacancy is notified, the exchange examines the cards of persons of the appropriate category on its register and matches the vacancies with the men most suitable for filling them. Generally, the employment exchanges have a staff who are able to assess the aptitudes of the persons who seek their assistance in securing employment and fit them into jobs where their qualifications and skills will have scope and will be of advantage to the community. The following statistics, as supplied by the District Employment Exchange, Tumkur, relating to the first seven months of the

opening of the exchange in 1961, shows the extent of the employment problem as existed in the district during that period :—

<i>Year and month</i>	<i>No. of registrations</i>	<i>No. of vacancies notified</i>	<i>No. of placements</i>	<i>Number awaiting at the end of the month</i>
1	2	3	4	5
March, 1961 ..	3,000	12	33	2,963
April, 1961 ..	539	65	50	3,444
May, 1961 ..	460	18	41	2,184
June, 1961 ..	521	14	12	2,434
July, 1961 ..	671	38	19	2,795
August, 1961 ..	553	43	34	3,013
September, 1961 ..	480	45	39	3,060

As against this, the following statement relating to the first ten months of 1967, *i.e.*, after six years of the opening of the Exchange, reveals that over the years the unemployment problem has become acute in the district in that the average number of candidates awaiting employment assistance on the live register of the Exchange has more than doubled :—

<i>Year and month</i>	<i>No. of registrations</i>	<i>No. of vacancies notified</i>	<i>No. of placements</i>	<i>Number awaiting at the end of the month</i>
1	2	3	4	5
January, 1967 ..	621	113	38	6,725
February, 1967 ..	524	29	27	6,773
March, 1967 ..	531	56	79	6,817
April, 1967 ..	490	31	16	6,747
May, 1967 ..	357	62	20	6,231
June, 1967 ..	668	73	77	6,617
July, 1967 ..	826	43	31	6,949
August, 1967 ..	671	46	26	7,116
September, 1967 ..	690	35	25	7,143
October, 1967 ..	780	36	30	7,214

It is a common feature in the Employment Exchange that surpluses exist throughout the year in unskilled category of labour, as also in the categories of untrained teachers and clerks. As per the Compulsory Notification of Vacancies Act, 1959, a statutory obligation is now cast on private employers employing more than 25 workers to notify all vacancies carrying a salary of Rs. 60 and above per month to the Employment Exchange. However, there is no binding on them to fill up the vacancies through the exchanges.

Tumkur district, being mainly an agricultural area, the problem of unemployment in the rural areas is more acute than in the industrial sector. Any constructive programme for the betterment of the district should, therefore, take into account the vast amount of semi-employment or unemployment in rural areas and harness the unutilised energy of the people for the benefit of the country. Many of the people engaged in agriculture usually work for only six months in a year and the remaining months become a period of 'enforced idleness'. Though these persons are not wholly unemployed, the income they derive is insufficient for their livelihood and, therefore, supplementary employment is needed to reduce this 'disguised unemployment'. Various schemes designed to solve this problem have been and are being undertaken under the successive Plans, the chief among them being the establishment of rural and cottage industries, which has already been described in an earlier chapter. Efforts are being made to balance the economy by linking together industrial and agricultural development.

**Rural
unemployment**

The Employment Exchange, Tumkur, has undertaken an Employment Market Information Programme, by which it collects facts and figures relating to the number of persons employed, the number of vacancies filled up and the number of posts vacant, etc., from both public and private establishments employing more than ten persons, once in a quarter, and prepares and publishes area reports on the employment situation in the district. These reports are helpful in determining as to what types of persons are in short supply and in providing a method by which to measure continuously the changes in the level of employment in the Exchange area. The Exchange renders free and voluntary service both to the employers and employment seekers.

An Employment Information and Assistance Bureau is also functioning in the Exchange, which helps to educate the rural applicants about the employment opportunities and training facilities available, the state of the employment market in the urban and rural areas and the facilities available for employment assistance. It also helps them in getting their names registered and

renders all possible assistance in securing them suitable employment.

**Community
development**

One of the main causes of poverty and economic backwardness of the district's rural community has been the apathy of the people towards new methods and new ways of life and the lack of co-ordinated efforts to solve the complex problems which face the agriculturists. Therefore, an objective of the community development programme is to bring about a change in the mental outlook of the people and to instil in them an ambition for a higher standard of living and the will and determination to work for the achievement of such a standard. Further, it aims at an all-round betterment of rural life at a rapid pace by an integrated and comprehensive approach to the problems. It includes, within its scope, activities relating to the development of agriculture, village industries, animal husbandry, minor irrigation and communications, and promotion of co-operation, health and sanitation, social education and the like. The rural people are encouraged to put forth their best efforts through village institutions organised on the basis of self-help and co-operation. With the introduction of re-oriented Panchayat Raj institutions, a new dynamism has been infused into the movement. The various developmental agencies of the Government work together as a team for execution of the programmes. The essence of the approach is that the villagers co-operate with the Government agencies for bringing about the desired results.

Under this programme, community projects, each covering about 300 villages and a population of about two lakhs, were inaugurated in October 1952 in a few selected areas in the State. This generated a great deal of enthusiasm among the rural people and there was great demand to extend the programme to other areas also. The Government noting the great interest evinced by the people towards this revolutionary programme of rural uplift, decided to introduce also the National Extension Service (N.E.S.), a new scheme, which was less intensive in character. After the introduction of this scheme, the programme was implemented in three stages, *viz.*, the National Extension Service stage, the Community Development stage and the Post-Intensive stage. The National Extension Service stage extended over three years during which a relatively less comprehensive programme was executed within a budget ceiling of Rs. four lakhs and with a limited staff. This was followed by another three years of intensive community development work with a larger staff and a budget of Rs. eight lakhs. Thereafter, the blocks entered the post-intensive stage, with a small budget allotment of Rs. 30,000.

Revised pattern

A revised pattern of community development programme was brought into force with effect from April 1, 1958, and the entire

programme was rephased. The new programme envisaged an intensive development over a longer period divided into two stages, viz., stage I and stage II, of five years' duration. The new arrangement also implied an automatic conversion of the National Extension Service Blocks into Community Development Blocks with an increased budget allotment. The funds provided for the first and second stages were Rs. 12 lakhs and Rs. 5 lakhs, respectively, for each block. Stage I is the intensive development phase. The achievements of stage I are taken as the guide-lines to prepare for stage II, which is the post-intensive phase.

The community development programme was first started in Tumkur district in October 1953 in Turuvekere taluk. The programme was gradually extended to the other taluks of the district, so that by the end of 1962, the entire district was covered by this programme. The following statement indicates the names of the blocks, the dates of their inauguration, their present stage and other relevant particulars:—

Sl. No.	Name of Block	Date of inauguration	Present stage	Date of entry into present stage
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Tumkur-I	2-10-1954	Post-stage II	1-10-1966
2.	Tumkur-II	2-10-1957	II Stage	1-4-1964
3.	Kora	2-10-1957	II Stage	1-4-1964
4.	Kunigal	1-4-1960	I Stage (extended period).	1-4-1961
5.	Amruthur	1-4-1960	I Stage (extended period).	1-4-1961
6.	Gubbi-I	2-10-1954	Post-stage II	1-10-1966
7.	Gubbi-II	1-4-1957	Post-stage II	1-4-1967
8.	Turuvekere-I	2-10-1953	Post-stage II	1-4-1965
9.	Turuvekere-II	1-4-1957	Post-stage II	1-10-1967
10.	Chiknayakanahalli-I	2-10-1955	Post-stage II	2-10-1967
11.	Chiknayakanahalli-II	1-4-1957	Post-stage II	1-4-1967
12.	Koratagere	2-10-1959	Stage I (extended period).	2-10-1960
13.	Sira	1-4-1959	Stage II	1-10-1966
14.	Patnayakanahalli	1-4-1959	Stage II	1-10-1966
15.	Madhugiri	2-10-1961	Stage I (extended period).	1-10-1962
16.	Kodigenahalli	1-4-1962	Stage I	1-4-1963
17.	Pavagada	2-10-1956	Post-stage II	1-4-1968
18.	Tiptur-I	2-10-1962	Stage I	2-10-1963
19.	Tiptur-II	2-10-1962	Stage I	2-10-1963

The development works undertaken in each of these blocks fall into the following eight heads, *viz.*, (1) agriculture and animal husbandry, (2) irrigation, (3) health and sanitation, (4) education, (5) social education, (6) communication, (7) housing and (8) rural arts and crafts. The schematic budget allotment for a full block (unit) for stage I is Rs. 12 lakhs and for stage II Rs. 5 lakhs. Considerable progress has been achieved in all the spheres of development in each of the blocks over the years. The people have shown considerable enthusiasm for the various development programmes and have been co-operating in their execution and are being immensely benefited by it. In short, it is through this scheme that the Five-Year Plans have sought to initiate the process of transformation in the social and economic life of the rural people. As the physical progress achieved under the various heads of development under this scheme are included in the treatment of the general working of the respective major development departments, only the progress achieved by one of the blocks, *viz.*, Koratagere, is briefly summarised below by way of illustration. However, a statement showing the schematic budget and the expenditure incurred under the several heads of development by each of the blocks is appended at the end of this chapter.

**Koratagere
Block**

The Koratagere Block was first started in October 1959. It was converted into a Stage I Block in October 1960 with a schematic budget of Rs. 12 lakhs. Since then, 123 irrigation wells had been sanctioned in the block, of which 96 wells had been completed by the end of 1967-68 at a total cost of about Rs. 1.72 lakhs. Under the rural man-power programme, 13 works had been taken up, of which five works had been completed at an expenditure of about Rs. 38,000. Over 4,530 compost pits were got dug up and an area of 2,800 acres was covered under green manures. Fourteen soil conservation works were undertaken, of which five works were completed by 1967-68 at a cost of Rs. 70,985. A number of cultivators were supplied with improved agricultural implements and modern plant protection chemicals at subsidised rates. Over 400 acres of land were reclaimed and 2,799 acres were bunded or terraced. An extent of 3,800 acres was brought under the Japanese method of paddy cultivation, and the dry farming method was introduced in about 1,200 acres. About 500 quintals of improved seeds and 2,655 fruit plants were distributed among the cultivators in the block.

Under this programme, construction of 169 drinking water wells were taken up, of which 105 wells were completed till the end of 1967-68. About 460 soakage pits and 182 rural latrines were provided under the rural sanitation programme. Construction of school buildings were undertaken at 30 places, of which five school buildings were completed. Under social education.

about 1,240 illiterate adults were made literate. Roads and cross-drainages were provided at several places at a total cost of Rs. 42,220. Five industrial co-operative societies were organised and 73 village artisans were trained in different rural crafts. Under the animal husbandry programme, 23 breeding bulls and buffaloes and 416 pedigree sheep were supplied. About 500 chicks and 900 eggs of pedigree birds were supplied to poultry farmers.

Statement showing the schematic budget provision and the expenditure incurred in the several Community Development Blocks in Tumkur district upto the end of March 1968

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MYSORE STATE GAZETTEER

Sl. No.	Head of Account	Tumkur and Kora		Kuniyal Stage-I		Amruthur Stage-I		Gubbi Post-Stage	
		Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Block Headquarters	8,00,000	6,82,345	3,10,000	3,06,208	3,10,000	2,14,277	5,45,000	3,72,182
2.	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	2,00,000	1,41,507	95,000	74,423	95,000	62,003	2,33,750	1,56,834
3.	Irrigation :								
	(a) Loan	7,00,000	6,47,982	3,00,000	2,01,350	3,00,000	1,70,775	6,41,750	5,82,317
	(b) Non-Loan	1,50,000	46,750	55,000	48,017	55,000	58,620	2,05,000	1,58,093
4.	Rural Health and Sanitation ..	3,10,000	2,35,678	1,10,000	73,867	1,10,000	99,968	2,02,500	1,65,674
5.	Education	2,20,000	1,22,328	60,000	18,306	60,000	28,260	1,54,500	1,01,070
6.	Social Education	2,40,000	1,15,307	60,000	34,653	60,000	26,749	1,50,000	64,079
7.	Communication	2,90,000	2,60,773	45,000	15,535	45,000	10,460	1,71,500	80,003
8.	Rural Arts, Crafts and Industries ..	2,30,000	80,216	65,000	56,126	65,000	17,287	1,81,000	1,23,698
9.	Housing	2,60,000	1,07,229	1,00,000	76,182	1,00,000	25,408	65,000	29,132
	Total	34,00,000	24,40,115	12,00,000	9,04,667	12,00,000	7,13,807	25,50,000	18,33,882

Statement (contd.)

Sl. No.	Head of Account	Tiptur I		Tiptur II		Turuvekere	
		Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure
		11	12	13	14	15	16
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Block Headquarters	2,69,000	2,60,000	2,69,000	2,24,656	4,00,000	6,84,608
2.	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	19,000	6,840	1,58,000	88,389	1,00,000	2,33,871
3.	Irrigation :						
	(a) Loan	1,58,000	80,793	3,92,000	1,38,400	9,25,000	2,76,063
	(b) Non-Loan	3,92,000	1,37,530				
4.	Rural Health and Sanitation ..	96,000	41,746	96,000	27,215	1,90,000	1,60,858
5.	Education	29,000	19,000	29,000	23,066	1,10,000	1,00,603
6.	Social Education	47,000	16,293	47,000	17,156	1,20,000	79,956
7.	Communication	25,000	15,150	25,000	9,659	1,10,000	61,926
8.	Rural Arts, Crafts and Industries ..	84,000	27,241	84,000	18,090	1,15,000	44,406
9.	Housing	1,00,000	..	1,00,000	..	1,30,000	85,958
	Total	12,00,000	6,04,593	12,00,000	5,46,631	22,00,000	17,28,249

Statement (contd.)

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MYSORE STATE GAZETTER

Sl. No.	Head of Account	Chiknayakanahalli		Madhugiri		Kodigenahalli	
		Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure
		17	18	19	20	21	22
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Block Headquarters	5,00,000	4,07,000	2,69,000	2,57,000	2,69,000	1,83,088
2.	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	1,26,400	1,12,882	1,58,000	53,049	1,58,000	63,85
3.	Irrigation :						
	(a) Loan	5,29,850	4,43,877	3,92,000	2,02,027	3,92,000	1,32,950
	(b) Non-Loan						
4.	Rural Health and Sanitation ..	2,17,250	1,45,945	96,000	45,698	96,000	50,853
5.	Education	1,58,125	1,25,879	29,000	13,900	29,000	10,600
6.	Social Education	1,43,750	97,241	47,000	26,583	47,000	16,756
7.	Communication	1,27,750	75,560	25,000	..	25,000	3,600
8.	Rural Arts, Crafts and Industries ..	1,59,375	62,246	84,000	37,666	84,000	24,869
9.	Housing	1,62,500	1,22,798	1,00,000	16,000	1,00,000	17,000
	Total	21,25,000	15,93,428	12,00,000	6,51,923	12,00,000	5,03,566

Statement (concl.)

Sl. No.	Head of Account	Sira and Patnayakanahalli		Koratagere Stage I.		Pavagada	
		Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure	Schematic budget provision	Expenditure
		23	24	25	26	27	28
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Block Headquarters	8,00,000	6,89,739	3,15,000	2,90,210	4,00,000	3,33,405
2.	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	2,20,000	1,54,529	1,00,000	93,992	1,12,885	94,181
3.	Irrigation ..		4,65,914	2,64,000	1,99,045	3,75,000	3,41,894
	(a) Loan			40,000	37,441	40,000	27,515
	(b) Non-Loan	8,30,000					
4.	Rural Health and Sanitation ..	3,30,000	2,42,306	1,24,000	1,19,798	1,68,115	1,34,299
5.	Education	2,20,000	1,09,670	87,000	78,999	1,10,000	80,732
6.	Social Education	2,40,000	75,518	50,000	47,331	1,20,000	76,793
7.	Communication	2,70,000	74,219	55,000	42,221	1,29,000	70,152
8.	Rural Arts, Crafts and Industries ..	2,30,000	62,876	65,000	46,379	1,15,000	48,895
9.	Housing	2,60,000	1,06,166	1,00,000	84,475	1,30,000	98,150
	Total ..	34,00,000	19,81,047	12,00,000	10,39,891	17,00,000	13,06,016