CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Early History of Assessment

IN any scheme of financial administration, the revenue from land forms an important factor. Various theories have been evolved in the matter of land revenue assessment, the most important of them being the fixation of a suitable figure based on the quality of the soil, the crops grown, the irrigation facilities and so on. When the land yielded more, it was obligatory on the part of the cultivator to pay an increased assessment. As regards the ancient practices of land revenue assessment in Chitradurga district, some light is thrown from the available inscriptions, which give an insight into the procedure of measuring the land for purposes of assessment. In Ashoka's time, the provincial set-up was administered by a prince of the royal family who was assisted by *Mahamatras* or advisers. These advisers were obliged to carry out the king's instructions in a manner suited to the peculiarities of the tract and to observe a prescribed procedure in the collection of taxes including the revenue from lands. The people willingly paid a share of their produce to the king in order to get the fruits of a benevolent administration in which their life and property remained secure. The Satakarni inscriptions point to the fact that a rope was used to measure the cultivated fields for determining the exact holdings. The various orders conveyed by the head of the State to the *Mahavallabham rajjukar* show that the *rajjukars* were officials in charge of collection of revenue. Dr. Buhler explains that the word *rajjukar* literally means the holder of the rope and his duty was to measure the fields for the proper fixation of assessment. The word *Shiristadar* is another such term, derived from the Persian word *Sar-i-ristadar,* which means one who holds the end of a rope to measure the fields. In the Mysore revenue administration, the *Sheristedar* is placed next to the Tahsildar and looks after taluk treasury.

In the old days, revenue affairs were managed by *Karnams* or revenue accountants. The method of realising revenue from lands was the only administrative problem of the civil Government under the various dynasties. Kadambaraya, with the assistance of his Prime Minister, Gopa Mantri, and Nagadeva Karnika, measured all the cultivated land within the confines of each village and

marked the boundaries in the early years of the Kadamba rule. This was the first occasion when cultivated land was surveyed for fixation of boundaries. After due measurement of all cultivated lands, Gopa Mantri enunciated the basis of revenue assessment as one grain from each of the *nava dhanya* or nine kinds of produce *viz.*, paddy, wheat, green gram, black gram, Bengal gram, jowar, cow gram, tur dhal and gingelly. All these put together were called one *nishka*. Ten of these *nishkas* formed a *phala* or *navtakke*. Sixty-four *phalas* equalled one *mana*. Twenty *manas* equalled a *kolaga*. Twenty *kolagas* or in some areas 40 or 60 *kolagas* formed a *khandaga*. Lands of the highest quality like the black soil, red soil or black soil mixed with yellow were classified for three separate rates of assessment. Black soils suitable for Bengal gram cultivation had to pay one *pagoda* for every 9½ *manas* of seed. Red soil land irrigated by wells was assessed at 9 *pagodas* for one *khandaga*. Garden lands growing coconuts, plantains, limes and other citrus varieties were called *agamas*. These lands were measured with a rod of 18 " lengths ". The " length " was determined by means of *mettu* (a man's foot measured so as to take in also half the right foot at the beginning and half the left foot at the end). This rod was called *Mana danda*. The square space measured out of such a rod gave enough land space for planting three arecanut trees with coconuts intermixed. For a thousand of such squares, the ruler's share was seven *pagodas*.

Under Vijayanagar rulers

The Chitradurga area later came under the sway of the Vijayanagar rulers, who (in the time of Krishnadevaraya and Achyutaraya) evolved a new revenue system calculated to improve the empire's finances without causing distress to agriculturists. The periodical publications of the *Rayarekhas* fixed the settlement, the boundaries of fields and customs duties and ordinances were issued as and when necessary. These orders were then transmitted to village headmen for purposes of preservation as records. Boundaries were marked in every village. Along with the growth of the Vijayanagar empire, the administrative system also developed. The revenues were reduced to a regular form, regulated by ordinances and later on a new system of accounts and management was introduced, calculated to improve the revenues of the empire. The extent of land was determined by the quantity of seed sown. For lands sown with one *kolaga* of seed, the rent payable was fixed at rates varying from three to ten Kantiraya Pagodas (one Kantiraya Pagoda equalled about three rupees) according to the nature of the soil. Land watered by *Kapile* wells was assessed in cash rent. Paddy lands irrigated by tanks had to pay one half of the produce. In some districts, the cultivators tendered one-third of the produce together with two or three pagodas in cash. In order to encourage cultivation of waste lands, a new system of incentives was offered, called *Bhumala gutta* or *Kala gutta*. The cultivators by agreement had to pay a stipulated sum for a term of years. Gardens were classified as *niravari* or wet lands and for these, rents were

collected in produce. The Vijayanagar rulers encouraged cultivation and also colonisation. Cultivators were given money advances to buy cattle, agricultural implements and other necessities. The Government spared no efforts in restoring tanks and irrigation channels that were in disuse. It also provided subsidy to sink wells.

The Vijayanagar kings evolved a new system of revenue hierarchy called the Barabaluthi, consisting of twelve village officials *viz.*, Shanbhogue, Gowda, Kammara, Badagi, Agasa, Panchangi, Nayinda, Madiga, Akkasale, Talari, Nirganti and Kumbara. In Kannada, the system was called Ayagar. These men were given a share of the crop for the efficient performance of their allotted tasks. All these offices were hereditary in character. In the revenue branch, the chief officer was the *Sarvadhikari* or *Athavane Parupathegar* who was to collect land revenue. The cultivable land was divided into three classes *viz., Jirayati, Bagair-Jirayati* and *Khushbash.* From the brief description given above it will be observed that the revenue administration had advanced under the Vijayanagar kings to a high level of efficiency but this progress received a rude check as the empire itself crumbled after the battle of Rakkasa-Tangadgi in 1565 A.D. Among the vassal chiefs, who rose to power after the fall of Vijayanagar, the more important were the Paleyagars of Chitradurga.

Under Paleyagars

Under the Paleyagars, the main items of State revenue consisted of customs on goods movement, local taxes, *hullubanni,* lease amount on brick kilns, tobacco duty and *abkari.* During the reign of Bharamappa Nayaka, a new procedure of collecting revenue was evolved. Each year, every member of the royal household went on a pilgrimage to worship the deities, Uchangamma, Kalamma and other goddesses. In the places they visited, the *Talavar* of each village had to pay to the ruler, one ghee pot and a goat. The monarch used to wear the robes of a mendicant and collected from each Gowda of a village, one *varaha* as offering. On the auspicious day of *Vinayaka Chaturthi,* each head of a religious matha had to tender to the palace special cakes made of copra. The weavers had to tender to the palace one *noolu* for each loom per year. The rural folk, particularly the *syces,* had to go to Chitradurga and clean the palace stables. The village patels had to give to the palace stables ten head loads of fodder. From each village, two able bodied men had to do, in the confines of Chitradurga, some specific duties. The whole country, for purposes of revenue administration, was divided into a number of *hoblis.* These *hoblis* were administered by special officers who were the relatives of the ruler. The revenue department, the palace possessions and the management of the *batayi* system were all under one administration called the *Athavane Chavadi.* The village hierarchy consisted of the *Shekdar, Shanbhogue* and *Gowda* (Patel). The Paleyagars introduced a novel system called the

Begars, which was an adjunct to the revenue administration. For the men who formed the *Begar* wing, revenue-free land was specially given. The *Begars* carried out a number of duties which were helpful to the villagers. The evolution of the revenue system under Bharmappa Nayaka raised the revenues of this State by about 1½ lakhs of rupees.

Under Haidar and Tipu

During the period of Haidar, no radical fiscal changes were made and the pattern evolved by Chikka Devaraja Wodeyar remained intact. In every taluk, *Harikars* were appointed to check the oppression of raiyats and to detect defalcations. But in Tipu Sultan's time, a new system was introduced. He divided his entire territory into *Tukadies* of 5,000 pagodas each and appointed officers for each *Tukadi* for the management of revenue. Twenty or thirty *Tukadies* were placed under an *Asuf*. At the head of Asuf Katcheries, a president was appointed. Tipu Sultan dispensed with the *Harikars* appointed by his father which act gave rise to needless oppression. The system of farming out villages to the highest bidder was also in vogue. The revenue regulation which Tipu Sultan issued contained little that was new.

Under Krishnaraja Wodeyar III

After the fall of Srirangapatna in 1799, Mysore State was restored to Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III and Purnaiya who was then the Dewan, tried to bring order out of the chaos into which the revenue system had fallen owing to frauds and also to the adverse claims set up by earlier rulers. The new Government proclaimed an unqualified remission of all balances of revenue and the restoration of the ancient Hindu rate of assessment on lands. The general land tenure consisted in the right of a tenant and his heirs to cultivate the field so long as they continued to pay the customary rent, the tenant having no right to alienate the land. When he ceased to cultivate it, the Government was free to confer the land on another. One of the first steps taken by Purnaiya to systematise the land revenue administration was a general measurement of fields called *Paimaish*. The work done was no doubt imperfect under the peculiar conditions of those days. He was able to fix a regular and adequate assessment of lands in some districts and in others he continued the old system with suitable modifications. In the district of Chitradurga, all the dry land owners paid a fixed assessment in cash calculated at about 1/3 of the gross produce. Wet lands paid nominally in kind about one half of the crop but generally discharged the revenue in cash at the specified rate prevailing in the district. The system of renting out villages to the highest bidder was abolished. The whole of the revenue was under the direct management of Government with *Subedars, Amildars* and *Parupathegars*. After the close of the Dewan-Regency, Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III assumed full powers. The first notable thing the ruler did was to reduce the land tax on sugarcane in Chitradurga. It was found that sugarcane fields were under a severe impost of rates varying from

ten to 72 pagodas per *Khandi*. Chitradurga became a Faujdari under his rule and he began to consolidate several taxes imposed by the Nayakas and allowed reductions wherever necessary.

At that time the land revenue assessment in Chitradurga was of a complicated nature with rates varying from a minimum of one anna to a maximum of Rs 9-4-11. The unit generally employed for assessing lands was the *Kudu* which was 3,200 square yards of dry land. The different rates of assessment were 465 in number all over the district which gave rise to all sorts of difficulties.

Under British Commission

During the early years of the British Commission, the land revenue system was brought back, as far as possible, to the condition in which it was left by Dewan Purnaiya. The British Commissioners gave serious thought to the land revenue problem and set about liberalising the system in all its varied details and vigilantly supervised its working, having regard not so much to a swelling of the revenues, but to make it as liberal as possible for the cultivators. All money rents which were exorbitant were lowered and the payment of the *Kist* was made easy. The prevailing system of exacting the *Kist* before the crops were harvested was abandoned and payments were allowed to be made in five instalments. In areas where the *batayi* system prevailed (equal sharing of the crop between the cultivators and Government) every effort was made by the Government to convert it into a money payment. Where, however, the *batayi* system could not be dispensed with, it was rid of most of its vexatious characteristics. The corrupt practices employed by the village servants were put an end to. The grain was divided before a body of influential men. The result of all these helpful measures was that the assessed revenue was collected without difficulty.

Preliminary Survey

Sir Mark Cubbon, the then British Chief Commissioner in Mysore, fully realised the need to have a scientific revenue survey and assessment and decided to carry it through. Before he set about the task of implementing this idea, he investigated thoroughly the existing tenures. The main tenures which were in existence in the district were the *Kandaya or Raiyatwari* tenure and the Inam tenure. All cultivable land was classified either as dry (Kushki), wet (Thari) and garden (Bagayat). The dry variety of land was sown with ragi and jowar depending mainly on the rainfall and the wet variety usually with paddy, sugarcane and other staple grains requiring irrigation facilities and the third variety was planted with coconut or arecanut plants. The last two, *viz.*, wet and garden lands, were irrigated with the aid of wells, tanks or *anicuts*. At the time of the initial survey and settlement, the land measures in the district were based on an ancient system, *i.e.*, on the area of land which could be cultivated with a given

quantity of seed. On dry land it was calculated as one *Khandi* or *Khandaga* of seed which would suffice to sow 64,000 square yards (13 acres, 8 guntas and 112 square yards of land). This represented a *Khandi* of dry land. On wet lands it was a *Khandi* of seed which enabled sowing in 10,000 square yards (2 acres, 2 guntas and 78 square yards). This was also called a *Khandi* of wet land. This basis of measurement gave rise to all sorts of bad practices and attendant fraud. Sir Mark Cubbon thought that this cumbersome land measurement must at all costs be done away with before a new scientific survey and settlement was ushered in. After a lengthy correspondence between the Mysore Commissioner and the Government of India, it was decided by the latter to introduce a regular system of survey and settlement. The Government thought that the Bombay system was cheaper than the Madras system and in 1863-64, a separate department was established to conduct survey and settlement under a Commissioner. The main objectives of the new survey and settlement were the regulation of the customary land tax so as to secure to the administration an adequate revenue, the progressive development of the agricultural resources of the country and the preservation of all proprietary and other rights connected with the land.

The system and the agency to be employed for introducing survey and settlement were settled and, in 1863, Mr. L. B. Bowring was appointed Commissioner. Having preferred the Bombay system, he addressed the Bombay Government to spare the services of Major Anderson to Mysore. He was then Superintendent of the Southern Mahratta Survey.

Initial steps

The first step in the introduction of survey and settlement in any taluk was the division of the village lands into fields, the definition of the limits of such fields by permanent works and the accurate measurement of the area of each field by chain and cross staff. The next step was the classification of the land. For this purpose, every variety of soil was referred to one of nine classes, such classes having a relative value in annas. In the Chitradurga tract, the deep black soils of a fine uniform texture were classified in the first order, and the red loam varieties in the second order. Each field was divided into a number of equal compartments and the soil of each compartment was dug up to a depth of $1\frac{3}{4}$ cubits for purposes of examination. The class of the soil was then noted, having regard to the composition of the soil, its depth and the deteriorating influences, if any. The basis adopted for classification of irrigated lands was also under similar circumstances. The survey authorities specially noted the several factors affecting the class of water supply such as plentiful sources, channels conveying the water and other incidental details. When all the fields into which each village was divided had been classified, then the taluk

was ready for settlement. The villages in each taluk were divided into groups for which a uniform standard of assessment was to be fixed. In the grouping of villages, the climate, the position of that village in relation to markets and communications, the agricultural skill and the actual condition of the cultivators were the main factors for consideration. The maximum rates of assessment to be levied on each variety of cultivation in a group were then fixed. The average of the previous 20 years was generally adopted in the fixation of assessments, unless there were special reasons such as shrinkage of cultivation or decrease of population to justify a reduction. After determining the total assessment for the group of villages, the maximum assessment for each variety of cultivation was calculated by converting all lands into the equivalent of the 16 annas land. Once the maximum rate was fixed, the rates for individual fields were calculated having regard to their value in the anna scale.

From the foregoing account of the procedure adopted for introducing survey and settlement, it will be clear that the assessment levied in Mysore did not profess to be a specific share of the net or gross produce and that the main purpose of the survey and settlement was to distribute the burden of land revenue more equitably on the lands in the area having regard to the relative productivity of the lands.

Original Survey and Settlement

The original survey and settlement operations commenced in Harihar area in 1864-65. The highest maximum dry assessment levied as per original settlement was Rs. 3 per acre for the I Group and 8 annas per acre for the II and III Groups. These maximum rates were leviable only on the best dry lands valued at 16 annas and as the soil decreased in quality, the actual assessment levied was of the order of about 2 annas per acre. Thus the average rate of assessment was Re. 0-3-8 per acre in Hiriyur taluk after the original settlement. In other taluks, it ranged from Re. 0-3-8 to 10 annas per acre. The rates of assessment fixed during the original survey and settlement were guaranteed to be without enhancement for 30 years and they were revised after the expiry of the guarantee. Only the wet and garden lands were reclassified during the revision survey and settlement and the statute laid down that a revised settlement shall be fixed not with reference to improvements made from the private capital and resources during the currency of the original settlement but with reference to general considerations of the value of land, prices of produce and facilities of communication (*vide* Section 115 of the Land Revenue Code, 1888).

The initial revenue and survey settlement was introduced in Davangere in 1866. When the settlement operations were going on, Harihar was not a pucca taluk. The area determined then

was 2,41,588 acres dry, 3,711 acres wet and 1,650 acres garden lands.

In Chitradurga taluk, the first revenue settlement was introduced in 1867 and the revision settlement in 1905-1906. The cultivable area determined after the revision was 1,75,732 acres dry, 6,388 acres wet and 3,371 acres garden lands.

The settlement operations in the Hiriyur taluk were conducted during the years 1868 and 1869 and the revision settlement from 1904 to 1905. The cultivable area determined after the settlement was 1,89,900 acres dry, 5,117 acres wet and 8,093 acres garden lands.

The first revenue survey and settlement in Holalkere taluk was conducted in 1868 and the revision settlement during 1905-1906. The area under cultivation at the time was 15,574 acres dry, 4,850 acres wet and 3,386 acres garden lands.

In Hosadurga taluk, resurvey was conducted in 1908-1909 because the original survey had been completed in 1868 along with Holalkere taluk. The cultivable area determined after resurvey was 1,40,813 acres dry, 3,317 acres wet and 8,534 acres garden lands.

In 1867, survey and settlement was conducted in Jagalur taluk and the revision settlement in 1905-1906. The total area determined was 1,24,192 acres, out of which 1,20,404 acres were dry, 1,467 acres wet and 2,321 acres garden lands.

The revenue survey and settlement in Challakere taluk was introduced in 1872 and the revision settlement in 1906-1967. The area under cultivation at the time of the revision settlement was 1,63,481 acres dry, 6,784 acres wet and 12,639 acres garden lands.

Revenue survey and settlement in Molakalmuru taluk began in 1872 and the revision settlement during 1907-1908. The cultivable area determined then was 55,270 acres dry, 3,231 acres wet and 6,502 acres garden lands.

In 1921, a long-standing grievance of the cultivating classes was redressed. The landholders, who had lands under tank *atchkats*, had to pay wet assessment on their holdings even though the tank received insufficient supply of water. At the meetings of the Representative Assembly, this subject was being repeatedly pressed and the Government came to a decision that whenever in any tract not less than half the total cultivable area or *atchkat* was left uncultivated in any year, or if cultivated, did not yield more

than a quarter of the normal yield, the collection of half the assessment was to be postponed for a year and if similar conditions prevailed during the following year also, the suspended assessment was to be remitted. This measure was to some extent a departure from the established principles of survey and settlement as introduced in Mysore. In Mysore, the Bombay system of settlement was followed under which wet lands were classed with reference to the capacity of tanks which supplied them water for irrigation. The assessment on these tank *atchkat* lands was fixed with reference to the average of a series of years, good and bad, making sufficient allowances for occasional deficiencies of rainfall and other vicissitudes. A system of assessment under which a soil assessment and a water assessment are separately imposed on wet lands and the water assessment is remitted when no water is given for irrigation is regarded as more equitable on account of its simplicity and elasticity, though in actual practice some difficulties may be encountered.

Land Revenue Code, 1888

During the British Commission days, the Government thought of framing a Land Revenue Code but owing to unforeseen circumstances, the idea of putting such a code on the statute book was put off. In 1882, after the rendition, a Special Officer was appointed to examine the land revenue rules prevailing in Mysore and the laws in the neighbouring provinces, in order to see how best to evolve a new code. The Special Officer, after a careful study of the subject, reported that the revenue rules then in force in the State were in a very unsatisfactory condition and formulated fresh proposals. Thereupon, the Mysore Government decided to base their codification on the Bombay Land Revenue Code which was found suitable for the territories of Mysore. The first draft of the Mysore Code was published in 1883, and referred to a Select Committee for proper scrutiny. The salient portions of the draft Code were fully debated at the Mysore Representative Assembly sessions held in 1883 and 1884 and the views of the representatives were given due weight. The considered opinions of all the revenue and judicial officers were obtained. In 1885, the revised draft was circulated for public information. After a few necessary alterations, the final draft was sent to the Government of India in 1886. In 1888, the Government of India agreed to the final draft and the new regulation called the Mysore Land Revenue Code (Act IV of 1888) was duly promulgated to come into force from 1st April 1889. The regulation underwent many changes by way of amendments in 1891, 1892, 1905, 1906, 1909, 1912, 1916 and 1919. The Code had 239 sections enumerating the various duties and functions of the revenue officers, the various measures to be adopted to realise land revenue, the several descriptions of tenures, the mode of conducting survey and settlements, the fixation of boundary marks, the penalties to be imposed on the cultivating class for failure to pay land revenue and other points of guidance for the proper functioning of the Land Revenue Department. Together with this Code

the Land Improvement Loans Regulation (IV of 1890) and the Land Acquisition Regulation (VII of 1894) were passed into law during 1890-94. The rules framed under the Mysore Land Revenue Code were first published in July 1890 and revised in 1901. This was followed by the appointment in August 1902 of the Revenue Commissioner as head of the Revenue Department. In 1903-1904, a scheme for the devolution of larger powers and responsibilities on the Assistant Commissioners was ushered in.

According to Section 115 of the Land Revenue Code, 1888, revisions of original settlements could be carried out having regard to certain basic principles, the main provisions to be followed being that the revised assessment should take note of the value of land as to soil or situation, prices prevalent in the region and improvements made with private capital. If, for instance, a land was improved by recourse to private capital and as a result of those improvements the land yielded more than the average, the settlement authorities had statutory powers under the Land Revenue Code to effect suitable revisions in the assessment so as to bring more to the coffers of the State.

Acting on the above principles, the survey and settlement authorities found ways and means of implementing the desired objective. The first taluk which was ready for a revision was Davangere. Though the taluk became ripe for revision settlement in 1895, it was actually revised nine years after the due time because of some administrative bottlenecks. The effect of revision settlements was that the assessment on *bagayat* lands (garden) was reduced with a moderate increase on that of wet and dry lands.

Land Revenue Act, 1964

At the time of formation of new Mysore State, different Revenue Codes were in force in the various integrating areas. In order to have a comprehensive legislation for the whole of the new Mysore State, a new code was adopted in 1964, called the Mysore Land Revenue Act, 1964 (Mysore Act 12 of 1964). This new Act contains many of the provisions of the old Mysore Land Revenue Code of 1888, and facilitates the smooth working of settlements, assessments and collection of revenue. Reasonable powers have been given to revenue officers in respect of remissions, fixation of holdings and the like. Soon after the promulgation of this comprehensive piece of legislation, new assessment rates were fixed after necessary settlements.

Inam lands

Apart from the raiyatwari tenure, there were Inam lands which have been now abolished under an Act of the Legislature. All the Inam lands now vest with Government and Inam Deputy Commissioners have been appointed to determine compensation. Though the Inam tenures have now been abolished, a brief description of them in a survey of revenue administration may not be out of

place. The origin of Inams dates back prior to 1880. The origin of the Inams may be traced to three epochs, *viz.*, those gifted upto the end of Dewan Purnaiya's administration in 1810, those granted during the reign of His Highness the Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar III and those granted by the Chief Commissioner of Mysore. An Inam was a grant by the Government for the personal benefit of an individual or individuals or for religious, charitable or other purposes or for services rendered to the State or to a village community. Lands so granted were held free of assessment or subject to a *jodi* (light assessment) or quit-rent. According to the Land Revenue Code, the term "Inam" or "alienation of land" meant the assignment in favour of an individual or individuals or of a religious or charitable institution wholly or partially of the right of Government to levy land revenue. *Kayamgutta* villages, *i.e.*, villages granted on a permanent assessment with a view to promoting cultivation were also treated in the same manner as Inam villages since 1877.

After the restoration of the State to the Maharaja in 1799, the British Commissioners advised Dewan Purnaiya that no alienation of land should be made without the Resident's approval. This advice was accepted by the Dewan during his administration, the alienations between 1799 and 1811 being in reality not frequent, and the Inams which were being entered as having been created during Purnaiya's administration being chiefly those which had been resumed during the administration of Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan and which it was thought proper to restore. From 1810 to 1831, Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III alienated some lands, besides confirming others on Kayamgutta or permanent tenure, and the system of administration in vogue then afforded his subordinate officers also opportunities for alienating land without proper authority. The third epoch dates from the commencement of the British administration in 1831. The grants made during the period were comparatively of small value and were held on condition of service consisting of the upkeep of choultries and maintenance of groves, tanks and avenue trees. In addition to these, a considerable number of 'Sthal' Inams or as they were sometimes called 'Chor' Inams were in existence. Under this category were comprised all such Inams as (although enjoyed for some time) had not been granted by competent authority.

Under the orders of Dewan Purnaiya, a survey was made of all Inam lands. This survey was called "Akshaya Paimayish" because the survey was conducted in the Hindu year Akshaya. The investigation was neither accurate nor systematic. Still, the results of such survey were of some use for purposes of Inam settlement. Further, it was not a survey in terms of acres or guntas but on the basis of *bijavari* (quantity of seeds required). The Inam accounts in Purnaiya's time were prepared "Isuwar" and "talukwar" and not for the village, and they constituted the original *jari inamti* accounts or a record of valid grants confirmed

by due authority. During his settlement, Purnaiya also dealt with excesses discovered in all personal Inams over and above three Kantiraya pagodas (about Rs. 9) in value. The offshoot of his settlement appears roughly to have been the confirmation of Inams of the value of about eight lakhs of rupees with a *jodi* of about three lakhs of rupees.

Inam Commission, 1866

A searching investigation into the Inam tenures of the Indian States had long been contemplated by the British Government, but it was not until 1863 when the first revenue survey was introduced in Mysore that the necessity for the investigation became urgent. In January 1863, skeleton Inam rules were submitted to the Government of India and their advice was solicited. The general principles then laid down served as a sufficient guide in revenue survey matters where the interests of Inamdars were concerned. In 1866, an Inam Commission was set up for a full probe into the various aspects of the tenure. At that time, various Inam tenures were in existence in Mysore. In some Inams, there were *sannads* under the seal of the ruling authority. In others, there were none. In some, a hereditary title without restriction as to the heirs and powers of alienating were added in the *sannads,* while in others no mention was made of such privileges. Again, excess holdings were the rule and there were a large number of cases in which land had been surreptitiously occupied for a long period. But in doubtful cases and where there was a probability of the Inam having been in the enjoyment of the holder for a period of 50 years, the quit-rent to be imposed was one-fourth of the assessment. It is seen from this principle of assessment that the quit-rent was imposed for extension of rights to the Inamdar.

At the time of its organisation in 1866, the Inam Commission was composed of an Inam Commissioner, one Special Assistant and three other Assistants. In 1872-73, the control of the Commission's proceedings was transferred to the Survey Commissioner while the settlement was carried on by another officer called the Superintendent of Inam Settlements. Under this scheme, the judicial powers exercised by Inam Officers were withdrawn and claims were referred to ordinary civil courts. Upon a representation of the Survey and Settlement Commissioner in 1872 that the procedure laid down was not conducive to securing the full amount of quit-rent and local fund cesses, a survey of all the Inam villages for ascertaining their correct valuation was approved by the Chief Commissioner. In 1881, the Government on the complaint of the Inamdars directed that the survey assessment on the lands under cultivation with 25 per cent of the assessment on the arable waste on account of prospective improvements, together with a reasonable pasture rent on the unarable waste, would be a fair valuation to adopt. All Inam villages in the district were dealt with in accordance with these orders and final title deeds were issued. The classes of Inams in the district were personal Inams for personal benefit, Brahmadaya

Inams including Agrahar Inams, Religious and Charitable Inams, Kodagi Inams, Service Inams and Miscellaneous Inams. Some of the Inams comprised whole villages, while others comprised a few specified lands in a village. These latter were called Minor Inams. The whole Inam villages fell into three categories, *viz., Sarvamanya, Jodi* and *Kayamgutta. Sarvamanya* villages were held free of all demands and only cesses on the recorded value were recovered from the holders. *Jodi* villages were those held on a light assessment. In the case of *Jodi* villages the holder had to pay the original *jodi* plus the quit-rent, if any, imposed during the Inam Settlement, together with cesses on the recorded value of the villages. The *Kayamgutta* villages were the nearest approach to the permanently settled estates prevailing then in the Indian provinces. The holders of these villages paid the *Kayamgutta* together with cesses. All Inams confirmed as *Kayamgutta* were hereditable and transferable.

Inam Commission, 1918

The condition of Inam villages came up for serious consideration of Government several times as a result of the discussions in the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. Two committees were appointed in May 1915 and May 1916 but as the deliberations of these committees did not lead to any useful results, a Commission consisting of seven members was appointed in July 1918 to examine the whole question. On the recommendation of the Inam Commission of 1918, the Mysore Land Revenue Code was amended to incorporate certain decisions. Certain reliefs were obtained by the tenants of the Inam villages as a result of several amendments. This was the first attempt to protect and secure the rights of tenants in Inam villages. A new section (Section 119-A) was added to the Mysore Land Revenue Code empowering Government to take over the management of Inams during the period of minority or unsoundness of mind of a holder. This provision in the Code was widely welcomed. Certain other directions were issued by Government without amending the Land Revenue Code to safeguard the interests of raiyats. These were implemented in 1925 and 1927. According to the Government's decision, the raiyats in Inam villages were treated in the same manner as raiyats in Government villages regarding the responsibility apportioned to them in the restoration and maintenance of irrigation works. Inamdars were held solely responsible not only for the *Jodi* but also for the water rate. Inam villages were also brought under the village improvement schemes.

Inam Committee, 1932

In spite of these helpful measures, the relationship between the Inamdars and their tenants did not improve. Most of the tenants in the Inam villages felt that their position was insecure and their lot not as happy as that of their counterparts in Government villages. The Inamdars, on the other hand, complained that the tenants were very irregular in the payment of rent, forcing the Inamdars frequently to civil litigation for the recovery. On the

approval of a suggestion to appoint a mixed committee of officials and non-officials, the Government appointed another Inam Committee in 1932 to go into the question of the entire Inam tenure with all its problems. The Committee after fully going into the question, recommended that survey and settlement should be compulsorily introduced in all Inam villages in which they had not yet been introduced. Several other reformative features relating to resumption of tenures, disputes arising out of settlements and the fixation of rents to be charged were enumerated in the Committee's recommendations. The Government accepted the recommendations with the modification that action should be taken only if not less than 50 per cent of the tenants or 50 per cent of the *vrittidars* desired Government management of Inam villages. The necessary amendments to the Land Revenue Code were effected in 1939 and 1940. The Alienated Villages Purchase Act (Act II of 1944) enabling Government to purchase an alienated village at the request of the holder or holders at a price agreed to by the latter also came into force in 1944.

At a later stage, there was a general feeling that the action taken by Government on the recommendations of the Inam Commission of 1918 and the Inam Committee of 1932 had not resulted in any substantial improvement in the condition of the raiyats of Inam villages and the complete abolition of all Inams was urged in the Legislature. Ultimately, the Inams were abolished by necessary legislation.

Present System of Survey

The land revenue system prevalent at present in the Chitradurga district is *raiyatwari* and is based upon a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of the assessment of each holding. With the abolition of all Inams, the ex-Inam villages were subjected to a cadastral survey. Till recently, survey was done by chain and cross staff. By a recent decision, the Government introduced the plane table method of survey instead of the old chain and cross staff. This new method visualised a better improvement in work. The training of surveyors in the use of plane table sets commenced from March 1959 and all the surveyors were trained in this new method. The unit of area employed in the survey was the "English acre" with its sub-division, *i.e.*, guntas (40 guntas make one acre). Recently, the Government took a decision to adopt the metric system for the survey and maintenance of land records. Now, the unit area is the hectare with its sub-division, the are.

In August 1957, the reclassification work in some districts was undertaken and by employing additional survey parties, it was completed well in time. The settlement of land revenue had long expired in all the taluks of the district. According to the settlement procedure till recently in vogue, a settlement officer

had to conduct a detailed enquiry in the taluk to form an impression as to the agricultural economy of the area. On the basis of his examination, he recommended certain rates of assessment to the Government. The process of these investigations had no scientific basis. It was mainly the impressions of the Settlement Officer which formed the basis of his recommendations. Regarding the economic conditions of the tract, there were no efforts to conduct any socio-economic survey. The Taxation Enquiry Commission of 1953-54 formulated certain scientific principles in respect of land revenue assessment and enunciated a new theory so as to bring about a relationship between the actual yield and the prices of the principal crops. The formation of zones as units in the place of taluks for purposes of settlement was suggested. The standard rate to be fixed had to be calculated at a certain percentage of the price of the gross yield per acre of principal and money crops. Instructions through circulars were issued to Tahsildars to conduct crop-cutting experiments and to note the results in the relevant registers and make them available to the Settlement Officers as and when they were posted.

Recent Revision Settlement

As the revision settlement was overdue in the district, the Government ordered a fresh settlement, having regard to the economic development of the region. The revision settlement work was taken up in 1960-61 by posting Settlement Officers. The district was divided into three zones, namely, zone IV, zone V and zone VI and each zone was divided into three Groups. The first zone comprised the taluks of Harihar and Davangere in Chitradurga district and Honnali and Channagiri in Shimoga district. The second zone comprised the taluks of Chitradurga, Holalkere, Hosadurga and Hiriyur of Chitradurga district and Sira, Madhugiri and Pavagada taluks of Tumkur district. The third zone consisted of the taluks of Challakere, Jagalur and Molakalmuru taluks of Chitradurga district. The settlement work was completed in about two years in all these three zones. The following rates, as approved by the two houses of legislature, were brought into force in the district from 1965 :—

			Standard rates (in rupees)		
Zone	*Group*		*Dry land*	*Wet land*	*Garden land*
IV	I	..	2.77	6.46	7.68
	II	..	2.62	7.96	7.68
	III	..	2.28	8.32	9.60
V	I	..	2.27	8.32	11.52
	II	..	1.69	8.32	11.52
	III	..	2.45	10.59	12.80
VI	I	..	1.75	8.32	11.52
	II	..	1.48	10.13	11.52
	III	..	2.48	10.20	11.52

Percentage surcharges have been levied on land revenue as per legislative enactments.

The present system of survey in the district is according to the procedure laid down in the Mysore Revenue Survey Manual which enumerates certain basic principles like the submission of settlement proposals for the sanction of Government, *pot pahani* or inspection of fields and shares in fields, detailed calculation of assessment and announcement or introduction of the rates of assessment. The Superintendent, who is in charge of the work, has to submit proposals for consideration and orders of Government. When the examination of the classification work of a taluk is completed, he begins to work out his scheme of settlement and then to have the *pot pahani* carried out by the Revenue Department under the direct supervision of the Tahsildar. It has always been the practice to include in a proposal for settlement no larger area than a single taluk and occasionally a group of villages forming a portion of a taluk. The points which are usually discussed in the settlement report may be roughly divided under six main heads *viz.*, introductory remarks, position and physical characteristics, climate, general condition of the people and resources of agriculture, past revenue history, grouping of villages and fixing of maximum rates. In formulating his proposals for revision settlement, the Superintendent has to pay particular attention to the limits of increase prescribed by Government as follows :—

(1) The increase of revenue in the case of a taluk or group of villages brought under the same maximum dry crop rate shall not exceed 33 per cent ;

(2) No increase exceeding 66 per cent shall be imposed on a single village without the circumstances of the case being specially reported for the orders of Government ;

(3) No increase exceeding 100 per cent shall in like manner be imposed on an individual holding ;

(4) In calculating the above percentage limits, the calculation shall be confined to the land revenue assessment proper.

As soon as the proposals for the re-settlement of a taluk are ready, the Government will, in consultation with the Survey Superintendent and the Deputy Commissioner concerned, determine the general lines on which the assessment should be revised in respect of the re-grouping of the taluk and the percentage of increase of assessment for the several classes of land. The Survey Superintendent will then submit the proposals for the orders of Government with all necessary details. As soon as the proposals for the resettlement of a taluk are ready, the Survey Superintendent will forward a notification in Kannada and the Deputy

Commissioner of the district will cause it to be published without delay by pasting the same in the chavadi or other conspicuous place in the village. All objections preferred by individual cultivators or by a body of cultivators holding lands under one common source of irrigation or under the same group will be received by the Deputy Commissioner who will forward them with his opinion to the Survey Superintendent. The Survey Superintendent will then submit the same for the orders of Government with his final remarks on the objections. Prior to the introduction of an original settlement in a taluk, it was customary to carry out in the field what is called *pot pahani, i.e.,* a detailed inspection of every number and sub-division thereof. It comprises an examination of every field and its boundary marks and a verification of the entries as to tenure and holder's name, made by the survey officials in the preliminary survey records from which the *akarbund* is eventually prepared. For purposes of a revised settlement, *pot pahani* is not necessary for each and every field. It is restricted to such numbers as have *pot kuls, i.e.*, numbers which are in the holding of more *khatedars* than one. Ten per cent of the numbers subjected to *pot pahani* should be tested by the Tahsildar or the Sheristedar or such other subordinates as the Deputy Commissioner may appoint.

Calculation of Assessment

After the maximum rates are sanctioned by Government, the Superintendent has to issue necessary instructions for proceeding with the detailed calculation of the assessment, numberwise. The factors taken into account in working out the assessment of each survey number are the classification value of the survey number, the maximum rate adopted for the village, the area of the survey number, the distance of the survey number from the village site and the *dharsod* or elimination of fractions according to a fixed scale. The first step in the process of working out the assessment (*akar*) is to ascertain the *dar* or rate per acre of each and every survey number which is done by means of a *jantri* or ready reckoner. The rate gives the assessment rates fixed for the several classes of the valuation scale under a given maximum, taking at the same time into account the other factors such as distance and the population in a given tract. The next step is to work out the *akar* or assessment of each number. The *akar* of a number is the product of its rate and area. The product which is called the *katcha akar* is converted into a *kayam* or final *akar* by means of the *dharsod* scale for rounding. The application of this scale is the last operation in the process of calculation of assessment. The *kayam akar* worked out is then entered against each number in the column provided for it in the *akarbund*. The completed *akarbunds* are submitted to the Superintendent, who then transmits them to the Tahsildar for the preparation of the *Vasul Baki Patra* intimating the dates on which the rates have to be announced.

The records kept for the introduction of the survey settlement are generally known and spoken of as the settlement papers. They are prepared in order to effect and record the transition from the old to the new system of administering land revenue. With the above end in view, several forms, the efficacy of which has been proved by long experience, have to be prepared for each village in which survey settlement is introduced. The forms have been so arranged as to record clearly and exhibit the existing proprietary and other rights of all classes of the community. At the same time, it has been found easy to embody in the compilation, without much expense, a great deal of miscellaneous information which proves of the greatest possible value to the officer introducing the settlement.

The papers, which are necessary in order to introduce effectively the new survey settlements, are (1) the *pahani sud* or settlement showing the old numbering of lands and the survey numbers, names of fields, description of tenure, name of the occupant and survey area of each number ; this paper is always accompanied by a map of the village, (2) *akarbund* or register of survey numbers showing the total area under each head, arable and unarable, dry land, wet land and garden land in detail with the rate per acre and assessment of each and the total assessment fixed on the entire number, (3) *pot pahani* book or inspection statement showing the old and the new numberings of every survey number and full information regarding tenure and occupancy, (4) statement showing the number and description of trees in each survey number known as *Jhar Patrak,* (5) statement of grazing land known as the *Hulbanni Takhta,* (6) statement showing full particulars of each occupant's entire holdings under the old and new systems, known as the *Wasul Baki Patra,* (7) *Phutkal Patra* or detailed statement of occupancies when two or more are included in one and the same revenue survey number with the area and assessment of each, (8) statement of waste lands known as the *Banajar Takhta,* (9) the final settlement register known as the *Laoni Faisal Patra* and (10) the *Jodidar Takhta* or statement of Jodi Inam land .

Collection of Land Revenue

The collection of assessed land revenue is the special task of the taluk revenue officers and officials, *viz.,* the Tahsildar, the Revenue Inspector, the Shanbhogue and others. The actual collection is done according to prescribed procedure laid down in the Land Revenue Act which postulates the cardinal principle that the *Khatedar* of any unalienated land should be legally responsible for the payment of land revenue. The revenue authorities have powers to fix suitable dates for the payment of the *kist.* If there is failure on the part of the land-owners to make payment of revenue on stipulated dates, the Deputy Commissioner can exercise powers under the Land Revenue Act, 1964, to get the harvested crops released for sale or otherwise. The authorities will then collect the due revenue from the sale-proceeds. In the event of disputes arising over the ownership of the land, the

revenue authorities need not wait till the disputes are settled for collection of the *kist*. The Deputy Commissioner has the authority in such an emergency to take possession of such land or *hissa* and then proceed to collect revenue. The Land Revenue Act gives enough powers to the officers to declare defaulters and proceed against them according to law. Under relevant articles of the Revenue Act, the Deputy Commissioner has powers to seize the entire village for non-payment of tax and appoint special officers to collect the arrears. Provision has also been made to auction the defaulter's land under due notice.

The land revenue demand has been progressively on the increase in the Chitradurga district. In 1920-21, the total demand for the entire district was Rs. 9,46,208-13-10 and in 1924-25, the demand had increased to Rs. 9,67,026-0-0. In 1958-59, the total demand was Rs. 16,38,766-12 and in 1959-60, it was Rs. 17,94,544-89, whereas in 1963-64, the demand had increased to Rs. 20,73,807-08. A statement showing the demand, collection and balance of the land revenue for the years 1959-60 to 1963-64 has been appended at the end of this chapter.

The land revenue demand varies from taluk to taluk and is not uniform because of several factors like the area of the taluk, soil classification, irrigation facilities and nearness to markets. There has also been a liberalisation of the remission rules during recent years which indicates a gradual departure from the previously accepted view that as the assessment is based on the average conditions during a long period including good as well as bad years, the cultivator is not entitled to relief in years during which the crops suffer on account of adverse seasonal conditions. In July 1934, a committee of officials and non-officials was appointed by Government with instructions to make a rapid enquiry into the extent to which the fall in the price of agricultural produce in preceeding years had affected the resources, debt obligations and credit facilities of the land-owning and cultivating classes in different parts of the State and to report upon the nature and extent of the assistance that might be given to relieve them from the difficuties caused by the depression. The majority report of the committee did not recommend any reduction of land assessment, though liberalisation of the remission rules and a system of instalments to pay land revenue were recommended.

Remission Rules

There were no specific remission rules in the State prior to 1922 and when occasions for grant of relief did arise as in 1908-09, the Government passed special orders for the occasion. The first rules regarding grant of suspensions and remissions on account of adverse seasonal conditions were issued on 4th February 1922. These rules were mainly based on the Bombay system and provided

that when owing to failure of rains throughout a tract or if any tank did not receive adequate supply of water and more than half the area under it was left uncultivated or if cultivated, yielded a crop of not more than a quarter in the rupee, the recovery of half the wet assessment on all wet lands under it should be suspended. This suspended assessment was to be collected during the following year unless there was a failure of crop in that year also in which case it was to be remitted. These rules were revised from time to time. Up to the year 1939, the remission rules had no provision for the remission of dry assessment on account of loss of crops arising from the failure or insufficiency of rains. In tracts which suffered badly by drought, the Government were sanctioning suspension of revenue and even remission of a part of the demand as a special concession outside the rules whenever occasion demanded. For the first time, provision for the remission of assessment on dry lands was incorporated in the remission rules in the year 1939. These rules authorised the Deputy Commissioner to grant suspension of one-fourth of the assessment, if throughout any tract, there was a partial or total failure or destruction of crops on account of drought or other cause, the suspended revenue being normally collected in the following year along with the assessment of that year and remitted altogether, if the crops failed. A hobli in the taluk was to be treated as a tract for purposes of suspension of dry assessment. During 1945-46, when there were signs of severe distress in the district, remission and suspension of revenue were granted on a liberal scale. In 1960, the expected south-west monsoon showers failed in the district as a result of which severe distress prevailed throughout the area. Suspension and remission were ordered as also the expeditious execution of relief works. Again during 1965-66, a severe drought swept over the district and relief measures on a large scale were ordered by Government. Remissions were also given as per rules.

Land Reforms

Problem of tenancy.—The total cultivable area owned by holders in the district was 12,80,236 acres in 1964-65, out of which 92,347 acres were leased out to tenants. The problem of tenancy arises when the land-owner lets out the land to some-one else who then becomes the tenant on terms defined by contract or custom. The distinction between such a tenant and a mere agricultural labourer is well defined. The latter receives a fixed wage and works under the supervision and control of the employer. He has no right to the land and is not directly concerned with the produce. A tenant on the other hand works on his own. He agrees to pay the land-owner a certain cash rent or more often a specified share of the produce. He utilises his own labour and also that of the members of his family and may, in busy seasons or otherwise as need arises, employ hired labour to assist him. The land-owner may supply, besides the land, some capital and equipment. Often he supplies only the land and takes no interest in agricultural

operations. A tenant is thus not only his own manager but also in part an entrepreneur. His reward fluctuates according to the crops he obtains and the prices they fetch.

A study of tenancy legislation undertaken elsewhere indicates both the seriousness of the tenancy problem and its complexity which make the problem acute. Tenancy legislation aims at granting the benefits of fixity of tenure, fair rent and free transfers to tenants. But it appears that while the privileges of the landlord have been considerably curtailed by reform measures, their benefit has not yet fully reached the actual cultivator who is often a mere crop-sharer. The liberal view as expressed by the Famine Inquiry Commission projected the idea that the settlement of tenancy conditions should be fair and equitable to both landlord and tenant. The extremist view advocates the abolition of the landlord system itself and suggests the creation of a new owner-cultivator class.

The first measure in respect of land reforms that was enacted in Mysore was called the Mysore Tenancy Act of 1952. Before the passing of this Act, the rights of tenants were regulated by the Mysore Land Revenue Code. According to various provisions contained in the Code, there were two classes of tenants with permanent rights, namely, *Kadim* tenants in respect of Inam lands and permanent tenants in respect of both alienated and unalienated Government lands. *Kadim* tenants were those who paid only the land revenue; permanent tenants were those who had held the land from antiquity or who were in continuous possession on a fixed rent for twelve years under no contract regarding the nature or duration of the tenancy or who were recognised as permanent tenants by the landlord or by a court or who had made permanent improvements and were in continuous possession for 12 years or who had exercised the right of transfer which the landlord did not repudiate. Apart from these special classes of tenants, all other tenants were tenants-at-will.

Mysore Tenancy Act, 1952

The Mysore Tenancy Act of 1952 and the rules thereunder gave some measure of security to tenants in possession of the land. The Act laid down that those who were in possession of tenancy should be secure for a period of five years from the commencement of the Act and were liable to ejectment at the end of the period unless the landlord from whom they secured tenancy allowed them to continue. Those tenants who had been in continuous possession for a period exceeding 12 years before 1st April 1951 were given further security inasmuch as the landlord could, if circumstances arose, eject them on the ground of personal cultivation only from a part of their holding. Under this provision, the landlord could resume half the area of a tenant holding 10 acres or less. In the case of tenants holding more than 10 acres, the landlords were

able to resume from 50 to 75 per cent of the tenancy area. But those tenants from whom resumption of land was possible were liable to ejectment on the ground of sub-division of land, sub-letting of land, or failure to cultivate it personally, leaving the land fallow, using the land for purposes other than agriculture, failure to pay rent or for acts destructive or permanently injurious to the land. As regards the rent, it was fixed not to exceed one half of the produce or its value. The Mysore Tenancy Act, 1952, was amended by an ordinance dated 11th March 1957 continuing all leases where the period of 5 years had expired and also requiring that surrenders of land should be in writing and duly verified and registered in the Office of the Tahsildar. The land surrendered was to be taken under Government management, and was to be leased out to co-operative farming societies, agricultural labourers and other agriculturists.

Amendment Act

Earlier to the promulgation of this ordinance, the Mysore Government introduced a bill further to amend the Mysore Tenancy Act, 1952, adding one more category to the already existing categories of tenants. After the amendment, the categorisation consisted of three classes *viz.*, protected tenants, non-protected tenants and ordinary tenants. The protected tenants were those who had held land continuously for a period of not less than 9 years before 1st April 1951 and who had cultivated the land personally during this period. The unprotected tenants were those who had held land continuously for a period of not less than 5 years. The protected tenants were liable to ejectment on the ground that the landlord required the land for personal cultivation or for non-agricultural use up to one-fourth of the permissible holding which was defined in the Act as 25 standard acres. Where the landlord held the land on behalf of himself and other members of his family, the permissible holding was 25 standard acres for each member of his family subject to a minimum of 100 standard acres. In determining the area which a landlord could resume from protected tenants, the area already cultivated personally by him or leased to a tenant other than a protected tenant was to be taken into account. The income by the cultivation of such land was to be the main source of income of the landlord for his maintenance. This condition however did not apply to lands resumed for non-agricultural use. The non-protected tenants could be ejected on one year's notice on the ground of the landlord's requiring the land for personal cultivation up to one permissible holding. The condition that the land was required by the landlord as the main source of his income for his maintenance applied in this case also.

The ejected tenant was entitled to restoration if the landlord did not cultivate the land personally within two years. All other tenants were given a minimum term of 10 years instead of 5 years and were liable to ejectment at the end of the period; if however the landlord allowed them to hold over, their term would extend to another period of 10 years. They were also liable to ejectment

on one year's notice in exercise of the landlord's right of resumption in the same way as non-protected tenants. Protected tenants and non-protected tenants—but not ordinary tenants—were entitled to purchase the landlord's rights on payment of the market value either in a lumpsum or in instalments not exceeding six and spread over a period not exceeding 10 years. This right of purchase was subject to two conditions, namely, that the total land which the tenant could purchase (including the land held in his possession as owner) was 25 standard acres and the total area remaining with the landlord after the purchase would not be less than the permissible holding (from 25 to 100 standard acres). After the purchase by the protected tenant or non-protected tenant, the tenant had no right to transfer the land by sale, gift or otherwise. According to the Act of 1952, the maximum rent payable was half of all crops raised on the land. According to the amending bill, it was not to exceed half of the main crop raised on the land or its value. Other changes made in the amending bill related to limitation for payment of the reasonable rent, dwelling houses built on the land and other cognate matters. The interest of the protected tenant was made heritable and he was entitled to compensation for improvements made by him. The Bill had not completed all the necessary stages for becoming law at the time of the States' reorganisation in 1956.

Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee

Further steps in reforms.—After the States' reorganisation, there was a persistent demand to appoint a Land Reforms Committee to go into the question in all its details. The Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee was appointed on 10th May 1957 with a view to examining the existing tenancy and agricultural land laws and to making suitable recommendations for a comprehensive legislation. The committee went into the question of fixation of rent, security of tenure, right of resumption of land by landlords for personal cultivation, right of purchase by tenants and payment of compensation to landlords, ceiling extent of land-holdings, fixing the extent of basic or economic and family holdings and specifying the areas to which they apply, prohibition of land ownership as a source of income by persons who are not themselves cultivators or by those who do not reside either in the village in which the land is situated or on the farm and restraint on alienation of land in favour of non-agriculturists.

The committee after examining all these aspects submitted the report in 1958 recommending a ceiling on holdings. The report as presented to Government contained many far-reaching recommendations and their views on the changing pattern of tenancy legisation may be quoted here. The report said: "Ideas of tenancy legislation are fast changing. This is reflected in the frequency with which the tenancy laws are being recast. These rapid changes have affected the enforcement of law also. It is noticed that in

spite of new legislation on the statute book, the old practices still obtain in the field. There are also gaps in the laws which render them ineffective. The anxiety to balance meticulously the respective interests of the landlord and the tenant has resulted in the laws becoming complicated and beyond the understanding of the common peasantry. Attempts by legislation to harmonise the relations between the landlords and the tenants and not to widen the gulf between them have failed. The only remedy to safeguard the position of the tenants appears therefore to be to end the tenant-landlord relationship". The two objectives, namely, the elimination of the landlord-tenant relationship and the re-distribution of land to satisfy the aspirations of the landless mainly inspired the committee's recommendations.

Basing their faith on the recommendations submitted by the Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee (1957), the Government of Mysore introduced a new Bill called the Mysore Land Reforms Bill, 1958, before the Mysore Legislature. The Mysore Legislative Assembly discussed the Joint Select Committee's report and adopted the Bill in September 1961. Later on, the Bill was approved by the Upper House.

Mysore Land Reforms Act, 1961

The Mysore Land Reforms Act, 1961, as amended in 1965, came into force from 2nd Octiber 1965, in its entirety. However, certain provisions have been so framed that their effectiveness will be felt only at a later stage. For example, under section 44 of the Act, the Government has to issue a notification declaring the date from which the non-resumable land vests in the Government. But this can be done only after the land tribunals determine the non-resumable lands under section 14. Under section 14, the land owners who desire to resume land have to file a statement before the Tribunal. In regard to future tenancies, the statement has to be filed within five years from the date of creation of tenancy. For the present, the Munsiffs will function as land tribunals under sub-section (2) of section 111 of the Act.

Under the provisions of the Act, no tenancy can be terminated merely on the ground that its duration, whether by agreement or otherwise, has expired. Tenants who were cultivating land prior to 10th September 1957, but who had been dispossessed either by surrender or eviction, are entitled for restoration of possession. Eviction of tenants can only be done in accordance with Section 22 of the Act.

Land leased to permanent tenants or those leased by a company, association or other body of individuals (not being a joint family), whether incorporated or not, or by a religious, charitable or other institutions capable of holding property cannot be resumed.

From the date of vesting, all non-resumable lands leased to tenants would stand transferred to the State Government. Lands in excess of 27 standard acres in the case of existing holdings would be treated as surplus land, which would be vested with the Government. The ceiling area for future holdings is limited to 18 standard acres. A standard acre means one acre of first class land or extent equivalent thereto as laid down in the Schedule to the Act. The future ceiling would be, therefore, as below :

Class of land	*Ceiling area in acres*
I Class	18
II Class	24
III Class	30
IV Class	36
V Class	72
VI Class	108
VII Class	144

The ceiling provisions do not apply to regimental farm lands or to plantations as defined in the Act.

Compensation would be paid for all lands vested in the State at the rates prescribed in the Act. The Act does not apply to lands belonging to or held on lease from the Government or from religious or charitable institutions managed by or under the control of the State Government or from a public trust or a society established for public educational purpose created or formed before the 18th November 1961 and which was in existence on the 18th July 1965.

The Mysore Land Reforms Rules, 1965, have been published excepting the rules relating to co-operative farms and the rules relating to the issue of compensation bonds. One of the most important pre-requisites for the successful implementation of land reforms is the bringing of the tenancy registers up-to-date. As desired by the Planning Commission, a comprehensive scheme has been drawn up for providing the necessary funds for paying compensation.

Consolidation of holdings

It has long been recognised that one of the causes responsible for making agriculture an unprofitable occupation in India is the sub-division and fragmentation of holdings. The pressure of population on the soil and the operation of the laws of inheritance have resulted in the splitting up of a large portion of the cultivated land into holdings which fail to conform to any reasonable economic standard. The problem has two distinct aspects. The holdings not only tend to become small but the individual holdings tend to become fragmented into a number of plots often scattered over different parts of the village. As each generation enters into its

patrimony, the extent of land that goes to the share of each heir diminishes with the result that there is no steady and orderly development of the land. The Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee (1957) has observed that the implementation of the provisions regarding the rights of resumption, especially by holders, may result in the creation of fragments. As it was not in the interests of efficient agriculture to allow fragmentation in future, the committee suggested that where the exercise of the right of resumption would involve the formation of a fragment, such fragment should go to the person, who is entitled to the larger part. The Mysore Land Reforms Act which has been in force has, in its provisions, the implications of this principle.

Mysore Bhoodan Yajna Act

The great Bhoodan Yajna movement initiated by Acharya Vinoba Bhave has had its impact on the minds of the people living in the district. The gifted land is to be distributed to the landless poor who have no other means of livelihood. In order to remove certain defects in the transfer of land, the Mysore revenue administration introduced a Bill to regularise such transfers. This bill was passed by the two houses of Legislature and promulgated as a law from 1st July, 1965. There are several volunteers in the district who propagate among the people the importance of this movement.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE LAND REVENUE DEMAND, COLLECTION AND BALANCE FOR THE YEARS 1959-60 TO 1963-64 IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT.

Year	Arrears	Land Revenue demand	Land Revenue suspended	Land Revenue not paid/ remitted	Miscellaneous deductions if any	Land Revenue actually collected	Balance
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
1959-60 ..	42,591.65	17,94,544.89	..	10,452.66	..	17,00,261.54	1,26,422.34
1960-61 ..	1,26,422.34	15,03,857.21	..	8,356.86	..	11,70,519.51	4,51,403.18
1961-62 ..	4,51,403.18	15,66,329.85	..	6,802.32	..	13,98,036.68	6,12,894.03
1962-63 ..	6,12,894.03	29,61,929.00	..	15,685.53	..	25,98,609.36	9,60,528.23
1963-64 ..	10,96,655.68	20,73,807.08	..	14,389.60	..	23,97,457.72	7,58,615.44