INTRODUCTION
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Location - Brief History of Tiruchirappalli District

Tiruchirappalli is reputed for the antiquity of its civilization cradled on the banks of the Cauvery. It has been the centre of many empires and battle fields, besides being an important strategic place. It is also chiefly noticeable for its remarkable rock and group of temples clustered on and around it. The Rock Fort, rising abruptly from the plains to a height of 83 meters in the centre of the city on the southern bank of the river Cauvery is a famous landmark of Tiruchirappalli. Around the rock there was a fort (now all the walls of the fort have been removed) which is called 'Rock Fort' or 'Malaikottai'.

Tiruchirappalli is an important educational centre in the state. The economy of the district is essentially agrarian in character. It has also a few household industries. Of late an attempt has been made to develop the district industrially. In the agricultural field, the development has been good, but economic prosperity has varied from tract to tract.

The district of Tiruchirappalli, called by the British as 'Trichinopoly' was a part of Uraiyur till the close of the 14th century and had no separate identity. In the writings of early Greek travelers Uraiyur is figured frequently. The author of the Periplus of the Erythrean Sea mentioned

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Argaru (Uraiyur) as the centre of trade. It is also referred to as 'Koli' in Sangam literature. It would appear that, upto Viswanatha's reign Uraiyur was the capital of the country, and that he found Trichinopoly at all events, fortified and greatly enlarged it.

**Physical Description**

Tiruchirappalli is an inland district in the south of the presidency lying between 10°16' and 11°32' north and 77°45' and 49°30' East. It is bounded on the north by Salem and South Arcot districts. On the west by Coimbatore and Madura, and on the south and east by the native state Pudukkottai and the district of Thanjavur.

Tiruchirappalli district is divided into two unequal portions by the river Cauvery, flowing from west to east. The two territorial divisions are traditionally called Nirarambam and Kadarambam. The places coming under *Nirarambam* are fed by the rivers of Cauvery, Kolliyam, Amaravathi and Nandiyar. A well thought out irrigation system provides water facilities not only on the basins of the Cauvery but in the interior too. Land on either side of Cauvery in Musiri, Lalgudi, Tiruchirappalli and Kulithalai taluks contain alluvial deposits. They are the fertile regions of Tiruchirappalli. The concentration of the peasant proprietors and agricultural labourers in that area mark the mobility of the people. (Map 1).

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5 *Nirarambam* is the wet land which covered the taluks situated on either side of the Cauvery river.
6 *Kadarambam* refers to dry lands. Dry crops are raised in this area depending on periodical rains and tanks.
Map 1: Location of study area
On the other hand, in the dry taluks like Udayarpalayam, Perambalur, Kulithalai and part of Musiri, the density of population is limited. Two thirds of the soil of the dry tract consists of ferruginous soil. Dry crops like ragi, cholam, cumbu and varagu are produced in Kadarambam territorial division.\(^8\)

Tiruchirappalli district is one of the privileged few to have the river Cauvery, one of the biggest rivers in south India and its main branch the Coleroon to the traverse through its lands. The other important rivers flowing in the district are the Amaravathi, the Aiyar, the Karuvattar, the Nandiar and the Vellar. The Cauvery is one of the major rivers of the Indian Peninsula and is the most important river of Tamil Nadu. There are 33 river basins in Tamil Nadu, of which the Cauvery basin is the largest. It is 44016 sq km in extent and occupies 34 per cent of the area of the state.\(^9\) The river Cauvery is the only one which can be said to be perennial. The river Cauvery rises in the Western Ghats near Mercara in Coorg, in the state of Karnataka. It is held in high esteem by the people of Tamil Nadu as the nature's precious boon. This is referred to as 'Dakshina Ganga' or 'Southern Ganges' in the Vedic lore and finds mention in many a piece of literature, epic, poetry and drama that have been made in this land.\(^{10}\) (Map 2)

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Map 2

RIVER BASINS IN TAMIL NADU

1. ARANIYARU  8. MALATTARU  15. VELLAR  22. GUNDAR  29. NAMBIYARU
2. KORTALAIYAR  9. PENNAIARU  16. KOLUVANARU  23. VEMBARU  30. HANUMA NADHI
3. COOUM  10. GADILAM  17. PENNAIARU  24. VAIPPARU  31. PALAVARU
4. ADAYAR  11. VELLAR  18. MANIMUTHAR  25. KALLARU  32. VALLIAR
5. PALAR  12. CAUVERY  19. KOTTAKARAIARU  26. KARAMPALLAMARU  33. KODAIYAR
6. ONGUR  13. AGNIARU  20. VAIGAI  27. TAMBARAPARANI  34. TAMBARAPARANI
The river drains the eastern slope of western ghats and flows to a distance of 792 kilometer eastward and finally enters the Bay of Bengal at Kaveripoopampattinam or Poompuhar or Puhar in the Nagapattinam district of Tamil Nadu. The river flows 280 km in Karnataka state and the remaining 512 km in Tamil Nadu. It has a catchment area of 87900 sq km of which Kerala has 3.3 per cent, Karnataka 41.2 per cent, and Tamil Nadu 55.5 per cent. During the months of June to September there is a heavy rainfall in the western ghats, which is the catchment area of the river Cauvery. As a result, usually in 3rd August (Adi 18, in Tamil Month) the overflow is celebrated as the eighteenth increase (*Pathinettam Perukku*).

The flow of Cauvery is augmented by its tributaries, the Karnagi, the Hemavathi, the Shimsha, the Arkavathi, the Lakshmanathirtha, the Kabini and Swarnavathi in Karnataka. The river enters Tamil Nadu making a waterfall in Hogenakkal in Dharmapuri district. Three minor tributaries, the Palar, the Chinnar and the Thoppaiyar join the Cauvery near Mettur. Then the Cauvery river is joined by the rivers Bhavani in Periyar district and Noyyal and Amaravathi in Tiruchirappalli district. (Map 3)

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After flowing through Dharmapuri and Salem districts, the Cauvery enters Tiruchirappalli district in its north-west corner with the name 'Aganda Cauvery' (Broad Cauvery) after running for a few kilometers touching the border lines of Karur taluk (Tiruchirappalli district) and Namakkal taluk (Salem district) it passes through the middle of the district, west to east, dividing it into two equal parts. Nine miles west of Tiruchirappalli town, it splits into two branches of which southern retains that of the Cauvery while northern takes the name of Coleroon. Between these rivers lies the holy island Srirangam. The Coleroon is called in Tamil as Kollidam. The river function as safeguard to carry off the surplus water of the Cauvery. Thus except in times of high floods, the Coleroon carries less water than the river Cauvery. The historic Grand Anicut has been built which is situated in the Thanjavur district (in the border of Tiruchirappalli district). From the Grand Anicut the Coleroon or Kollidam branches off the river Cauvery, flows towards north eastern direction skirting the eastern border of Tiruchirappalli and western border of Thanjavur districts and enters South Arcot district away from Vembukkudi of Udayarpalayam taluk, while the Cauvery enters Thanjavur district from the point of Grand Anicut. The greatest breadth of the river in the district is about 1.5 km near the Upper Anicut. The total length of the river in the district is about 150 km, nearly one sixth of its length from source to sea.

From the Cauvery many channels have branched off on either of its banks few of which are as old as that of the Cauvery. There are 17 channels...

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and 24 drainage canals branch off from the river Cauvery in Tiruchirappalli district.\textsuperscript{15}

The Amaravathi river which joins Cauvery irrigates 1000 acres in Karur taluk and 2500 acres in Kulithalai taluk. It is also fed by the south-west monsoon, but its flow is regulated at the Amaravathi Sagar in Coimbatore district. The Karur taluk is benefited by the tail end of the lower Bhavani project canal. Another 100 acres are benefited from the Noyyal river a tributary at the Cauvery.\textsuperscript{16}

The Aiyar river rises between the Pachaimalais of Tiruchirappalli district and Kollimalais of Salem district. It flows in the Musiri taluk to a distance of about 40 km and joins the river Cauvery near Srirangam.

The Karuvattar river, having its origin in the Kolli hills, flows into Musiri taluk and falls into the river Cauvery. In the scattered hills of Kulithalai taluk rises the Mamundiar and empties into the Uyyakondan channel which is a branch channel of the Cauvery.\textsuperscript{17}

The Nandiar river rises near Perambalur flows in the south-eastern direction through Tiruchirappalli taluk and joins the river Coleroon. There are two Vellar rivers in the district of the two, the northern one rises in the Salem district and during its course forms the boundary between South Arcot and Tiruchirappalli district. The Southern Vellar rises in the hills of Kulithalai taluk and passes over to the Pudukkottai district.

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{16} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 461.
\end{itemize}
The Noyyal river is a tributary of the river Cauvery which flows along the north western boundary of Karur taluk. Some minor rivers are the Rudraksha and the Kambayar in the Musiri taluk, the Chinnar and the Kallar in the Perambalur taluk, and the Killiar and the Marudaiyar in the Udaiyarpalayam taluk. The Marudaiyar joins the river Coleroon.\(^\text{18}\) The Chinnar and the Kallar of Perambalur taluk join the river Vellar (north). The Poonaniar and the Tekkumalai river in Manapparai taluk are other important rivers in the district. Puliancholai is situated at the foot of the Kolli hills in Turaiyur taluk bordering Salem district is a Perennial jungle stream which flows and joins the river Cauvery.

The lakes and tanks are also the sources of irrigation. There are natural and perennial in the river beds of the district. In the Coleroon river perennial spring water is available in many places in the course of the river even during summer season, when there is no flow in the river.\(^\text{19}\) In some river beds of the district natural spring is found. Hence Tiruchirappalli district plays prominent role in the agricultural sector in the state due to its irrigation facilities.

**Brief History of the District**

Tiruchirappalli played a predominant role in the later history of South India. References about the antiquity of Tiruchirappalli region are found in the Sangam literature. The first dynasty which ruled Tiruchirappalli was the ancient Cholas of the Sangam period. The Cholas built their capital around Uraiyur and laid out streets.\(^\text{20}\) Karikala Chola (50-95 A.D.), the greatest

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\(^{19}\) Ibid., p. 18.

among the ancient Cholas defeated the Cheras and Pandyas, enlarged his kingdom and shifted the capital from Uraiyur to Kaveripattinam. \(^{21}\) Thereafter, Uraiyur remained the administrative headquarters. Its glory as a capital did not vanish until the establishment of the Nayakship of Madurai.

Following the decline of the Cholas, the Cheras established their hegemony and afterwards the Pandyas became the suzerains. The Pandya ruler, Kadengon (590-620 A.D.) was in possession of the localities of Tiruchirappalli upto Srirangam. The rise of the Pallavas under Simhavishnu (575-600 A.D.) and their expansion towards the south of Tiruchirappalli resulted in the confrontation between the two powers owing to the might of the Pandyas, the Pallava boundary did not extend to the south of Tiruchirappalli. \(^{22}\) Then Tiruchirappalli province was controlled by the Pandyas and Pallavas till the rise of the imperial Cholas under Vijayalaya (850-871).

Vijayalaya revived the Chola rule and established his capital at Uraiyur. On account of the expansion of the imperial Chola kingdom to the east of Tiruchirappalli the capital was transferred to Thanjavur in the ninth century A.D. \(^{23}\) In order to check the arbitrary attitude of the Chalukyas, a new capital was built at Jeyamkondan, in the Udaiyarpalayam taluk in Tiruchirappalli by Rajendra I (1012-1044) and the place was named as Gangaikondacholapuram.

The Cholas ruled up to the thirteenth century. The last ruler Rajendra-III (1246-1279) unable to bear the rise of the later Pandyas, sought the help

\(^{21}\) Kaveripattinam served as the second capital of early Cholas which stood at the mouth of joining Cauvery with the Bay of Bengal.


\(^{23}\) Hari Rao, *op. cit.*, p. 133.
of the Hoysalas of Dwarasamudra in Mysore. The Hoysalas established a new capital at Kannanure, eight miles west of Tiruchirappalli city and began to expand towards the Chola territory under the guise of helping the Cholas. The Pandyan invasion of the Chola territory during the time of Maravarman Sundara Pandya-I (1190-1238) wrested the Tiruchirappalli province upto Srirangam.

During the year 1251, Pandyas under Jayasundara Pandya rose to power and Tiruchirappalli was brought under Pandya rule by putting an end to Chola supremacy over Tiruchirappalli. Pandya rule over this region lasted a little over half a century followed by Muslim domination till 1334-35. The Muslims under Malik Kafur plundered temples like Srirangam and Uyyakondan Tirumalai in Tiruchirappalli. The second invasion of Muhammad-bin-Tughlak in 1327-28 practically sealed the rule of the Pandyas. Jala-ud-din-Askan-Shah, the Governor of the province declared himself independent in 1335, when he felt certain that Muhammad-bin-Tughlak was not likely to march upon him. Thus the Madurai sultanate came into existence.

In the middle of the fourteenth century the Muslims were defeated by the Vijayanagar ruler and Tiruchirappalli was brought the Vijayanagar rule. In 1374, Kumara Kampana, the Commander of Vijayanagar Kingdom, dethroned the Madurai Sultanate. From 1374 to the formation of the Nayakship of Madurai in 1529 Tiruchirappalli continued under the direct

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control of the Vijayanagar kingdom. It was Viswanath Nayak, the first Nayak ruler of Madurai who realized the importance of Tiruchirappalli for offensive and defensive purposes. For the same reason he gave Vallam to the Thanjavur Nayaks and acquired Tiruchirappalli. Viswanath Nayak repaired the old Fort of Tiruchirappalli and constructed a city by clearing the jungles. For nearly a century, Tiruchirappalli continued to be a place of strategic importance.

In 1616, Muthuvirapa Nayak-I made Tiruchirappalli the capital of the Nayak kingdom of Madurai. During the time of Bangaru Tirumalai Nayak in 1640, Madurai became the capital again. But in 1666 Vijaya Ranga Chokkanath Nayak retransferred the capital to Tiruchirappalli. Thereafter, Tiruchirappalli remained the capital of the Nayaks. The Nayak rule continued to exist till 1736 with various vicissitudes. Queen Meenakshi, unable to face the exigencies of the times became a victim to Chanda Sahib, the confidential adviser of the Nawab of Arcot.

In 1736, Chanda Sahib seized the fort of Tiruchirappalli and thereby became the ruler of Madurai. His sway extended from Tiruchirappalli to Cape Comorin. His misfortune started when the Marathas tried to extend their control over Tiruchirappalli. In the month of May 1740, the Marathas sent Murari Rao, an able Commander to Tiruchirappalli. Murari Rao investigated the city closely and took steps to prevent the introduction of any supplies or reinforcements. Chanda Shahib's brothers attempt to assist him became futile as they fell a prey to Murari Rao. Chanda Sahib

29 R. Sathiyanathaier, History of Nayaks of Madurai, Madras, 1924, p. 53.
30 Vallam is a small town situated between Tiruchirappalli and Thanjavur.
31 R. Sathiyanathaier, op. cit., p. 55.
32 Ibid., p. 166.
surrendered after a siege of three months on 26th March 1741. Murari Rao was appointed the Viceroy of the kingdom with 14000 of the best troops. Tiruchirappalli did not remain in the hands of the Marathas for a long time.

In 1743, Nizam-ul-Mulk, the Nizam of Hyderabad marched against Tiruchirappalli and Murari Rao was forced to quit the fort. The Nizam controlled Tiruchirappalli as a part of the principality of the Nawab of the Carnatic swift political changes followed and in due course Anwar-ud-din became the Nawab of Arcot. His supremacy in Tiruchirappalli was challenged by Chanda Sahib, after release from the Maratha prison in 1748. With the support of Muzzaffar Jung, the Nizam of Hyderabad, Chandasahib restored the Nawabship of the Carnatic. In June 1749, Chanda Sahib and Muzzaffar Jung assisted by the French started the attack on Arcot. Anwar-ud-din and his two sons left Tiruchirappalli for the defence of Arcot. In the battle of Ambur fought on the 23rd July 1749, Anwar-ud-din was killed. His eldest son Maphuz Khah was arrested and his second son Mohammad Ali escaped and retained the control of Tiruchirappalli.

In October 1749, Chanda Sahib marched from Ambur to Tiruchirappalli. The momentous struggle for the control of the fort of Tiruchirappalli started in March 1751. Chanda Sahib had a formidable army which had been neutralized by the possession of an impregnable fort by Mohammad Ali. He mortgaged Tiruchirappalli to the English with effect from the 15th July 1750. The British demanded the withdrawal of the French

34 K. Rajayyan, History of Madurai, Madurai, 1974, p. 73.
35 Ibid., p. 75.
36 Ibid., p. 80.
38 K. Rajayyan, op. cit., p. 91.
and Chanda Sahib from Tiruchirappalli. As no settlement could be effected, the siege continued. The failure of Chanda Sahib to effect an alliance with Mysore drove Mohammed Ali to seek an alliance with Mysore at the expense of Tiruchirappalli on 1st September 1751, Robert Clive occupied Arcot. It made Chanda Sahib and the French send their forces to Arcot, but their forces were defeated. After the defeat and destruction the British forces from Arcot triumphantly marched to Tiruchirappalli and joined Mohammed Ali. It led to the collapse of the blockade instituted by Chanda Sahib, on the fort. To make confusion worse the British confounded the French troops crossed the Cauvery and took defensive positions at Srirangam.

In April 1752, Murari Rao and Clive routed the troops of Chanda Sahib at Samayavaram, a suburb Tiruchirappalli. The French forces at Srirangam were also defeated. The camp of Chanda Sahib was completely surrounded and he found it impossible to escape. On 17th June 1752, Manoji, the Maratha General, who commanded the Mysore forces for Mohammad Ali cut off the head of Chanda Sahib and sent it into the fort to the audience of Mohammad Ali for the first time Mohammad Ali happened to see the face of his rival and he ordered it to be tied to the neck of a camel and then had it paraded in the streets of Tiruchirappalli town. In 1752, Mohammad Ali became the undisputed Nawab of Carnatic.

After victory Mohammad Ali did not keep his promise regarding the cession of Tiruchirappalli to Mysore. He wanted to mortgage Tiruchirappalli except the fort for the money which Nanja Raja of Mysore had spent for the war. Nanja Raja of Mysore refused to accept Tiruchirappalli without the

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39 Ibid., p. 90.
40 Murari Rao was a Maratha General contracted into the service of Mysore. Since Mysore joined the war on there of Mohammad Ali, he had to join against Chanda Sahib.
fort. In 1753, Nanja Raja requested the Madras Council to pay him one crore of rupees or to cede Tiruchirappalli. But the Council refused to accede to his request. The agitated Nanja Raja, under French pressure declared war against Mohammad Ali. The French forces and Mysore forces laid siege to the fort. However, their efforts were repulsed. Having found his position weak, Nanja Raja persuaded the English to withdraw their alliance with Mohammad Ali for he agreed to pay the whole expenditure incurred by the British during the military operations at Tiruchirappalli. In turn, the English had to give Tiruchirappalli to Nanja Raja of Mysore. The British showed inclination to accept this proposal. In the meantime, Nizam Salabat Jang conquered Mysore. In April 1755, Nanja Raja with his forces returned to Mysore.

In 1761, Hyder Ali captured power in Mysore and he was determined to wreak vengeance upon Mohammad Ali. In 1781, Hyder began to invest the Fort. He was defeated by Mr. Hall, the English Commander, later he attacked the English and took many of them as prisoners. Meanwhile Tippu Sultan, the son of Hyder Ali with the help of Count Lally, the French Governor of Pondicherry began to attack the fort. The English recruited the entire civil population for the protection of the fort. Hyder Ali, who was in possession of Srirangam could not take the fort.

In 1790, Tippu Sultan advanced along the banks of the Cauvery. He was forced to withdraw, since the English threatened Mysore. The Mysorean attempt over Tiruchirappalli not only weakened Mohammad Ali but made him a dependent upon the English. The treaties of Mohammad Ali

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42 Ibid., p. 112.
43 T. V. Mahalingam, Readings in South Indian History, Delhi, 1970, pp. 203-204.
with the English undermined the interest of the Nawab. As a result he gave the revenue of the country to the English to clear off his heavy loans and subsidies.

Hence the struggle for Tiruchirappalli between Mohammad Ali and Hyder Ali paved the way for the emergence of the English East India Company as a formidable power in that part of the Peninsula.

Mohammad Ali died in 1795 and was succeeded by his son Umdut-ul-Umra. He inherited the legacy of his father and found himself a dependent of the English. In 1799, the correspondence of Mohammad-Ali with Tippu Sultan came to light. Edward Clive, the Governor of Madras, asked the Nawab to sign a new treaty of Carnatic so as to transfer the authority of the country to the English. As Umdut-Ul-Umra died, the matter was thrust upon his son Ali Hussain. Though he was a young man of eighteen, he categorically refused his assent. Thus the English entered into an agreement with Azimul-Doulah, the son of Amir-ul-Doula, the second son of Mohammad-Ali. The English set aside the hereditary right of Ali Hussain and recognized in his place Azim-ul-Doula as the Nawab.\(^4^5\) He surrendered the civil and military power of the Carnatic to the English in 1801.

Tiruchirappalli thus came into the hands of the English and the district was formed in 1801 under Mr. Wallance, the first Collector.\(^4^6\) He produced a proclamation announcing the transfer of the civil and military government of the Carnatic from the Nawab to English. On 3rd August 1801, the Collector received the Sanads\(^4^7\) from the Manager to the different civil officers of the


\(^{4^7}\) *Sanad* means a document conveying to an individual government rights to revenue from land under the seal of ruling authority.
Nawab ordering them to give over charge of their respective trusts to the officers appointed by the English. These *sanads* were dispatched together with *sanads* from the Collector to the amils\(^48\) in the different taluks, announcing the transfer of authority and ordering them to retain their respective situation until further orders.

Thus the establishment of the British rule swift changes in revenue administration brought about behavioural changes in the people. Such changes though common to the Madras Presidency as a whole, specific developments in the Tiruchirappalli district either affect the structural developments of the presidency or the relationship between the people and the British Government.

**Formation of Tiruchirappalli District and subsequent Jurisdictional changes**

Until the puckle scheme for revision of taluk and village establishments was introduced, Tiruchirappalli consisted of nine taluks which under the new scheme were regrouped into five. Transfer of Karur taluk from Coimbatore district during 1910 and formation of Lalgudi taluk from parts of Musiri and Tiruchirappalli taluks raised the number of taluks in the district to seven. Subsequently three new taluks, *viz.* Kulattur, Alangudi and Tirumayam were added on by the merger of Pudukkottai with Tiruchirappalli during 1948.\(^49\) The number of taluks in the district raised to ten remained unchanged till 1961.

Between 1961 and 1971, three new taluks Ariyalur, Turaiyur and Manapparai were formed from parts of Udayarpalayam, Musiri and Kulittalai taluks respectively raising the number of taluks in the district to

\(^{48}\) *Amils* were the revenue officials in the villages.

thirteen. During the decade 1971-81, a major change in the administrative setup of the district was effected by the formation of Pudukkottai district in January 1974, by transferring Kulattur, Alangudi and Tirumayam taluks from Tiruchirappalli district. There are ten taluks in the district. The list of revenue divisions and taluks in the district is given below:

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<tr>
<th>Name of the Revenue Division</th>
<th>Name of the Taluk</th>
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<tr>
<td>Tiruchirappalli</td>
<td>Tiruchirappalli</td>
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<td>Lalgudi</td>
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<td>Udayarpalayam</td>
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<td>Manapparai</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Kulittalai</td>
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The district is divided into 18 Assembly Constituencies of which three are reserved for scheduled castes. There are three parliamentary constituencies of which one is reserved for scheduled castes. The district comprises of six municipalities 31 Panchayat Unions, 45 Town Panchayats, 882 Village Panchayats and 980 villages of which 894 are inhabited and 86 are uninhabited. There are 29 urban units in the district.

**Delimitation**

The study confines the period from 1934-1974. It is because the Madras-Mysore Agreement of 1924 gave a fair division of river flows between the two states of Mysore and Tamil Nadu to safeguard the existing irrigation. It also permitted the construction of two reservoirs. One in each state that is Krishnarajasagar in Mysore and Mettur reservoir in Madras. On the basis of this agreement the Cauvery-Mettur Reservoir was constructed in 1934. The vast development in the extension of cultivation in Tiruchirappalli
district was the result of the opening of the Mettur Reservoir, New Kattalai High Level channel, and Pullambadi canal. Hence, the present study is restricted to the irrigation development in Tiruchirappalli district from 1934-1974. It is quite interesting to analyse the irrigation development, the period in which the agreement was in operation.

**Hypotheses**

1. The construction of Cauvery-Mettur Reservoir led to the expansion of irrigation.
2. The technological change in agriculture has taken place due to irrigation facilities and Green Revolution.
3. Socio-economic changes occurred because of irrigation development.

**Objectives of the Study**

1. To analyse to what extent the construction of Cauvery-Mettur Reservoir contributed for the development of irrigation.
2. To evaluate the major and minor irrigation system in Tiruchirappalli district.
3. To identify the different irrigation systems adopted by the British and the post-independent regime.
4. To bring out the various factors that hamper irrigation facilities.
5. To analyse the socio-economic impact of irrigation development in Tiruchirappalli district.

**Design of the Study**

The First Chapter analyses the historical background of irrigation system and its importance. It deals with the various factors responsible for
irrigation such as unequal rainfall, uncertain rainfall, increase of cultivable land, control of flood, intensive cultivation and increase in production. This chapter also analyses various efforts taken by the Pre-British period, British period and the post-independent regime. The Chola Kings did yeomen service to their subjects, mainly agriculturists. The most important irrigation structure that was built in the second century A.D. by the King Karikala Chola was the Grand Anicut across the Cauvery river. There were 13 channels built by Chola Kings. During the British period repairs and restoration of the minor irrigation and several major improvements were carried out to the Grand Anicut and Upper Anicut. After independence, the first three Five Year Plans (1951-56), (1956-61), (1961-66) gave top priority to irrigation development and generating power. In 1959, New Kattalai high level canal scheme and Pullambadi canal were constructed.

The Second Chapter deals with the Cauvery-Mettur Project. It includes Madras-Mysore Agreement in 1924 and construction of Cauvery-Mettur Reservoir in 1934. The Cauvery Water dispute has been a serious issue since 1974 when a 50 year old agreement between the Madras Presidency and the princely Mysore State collapsed. As many as 26 sittings spread over many years have been held by the Chief Ministers of Karnataka and Tamil Nadu to settle Cauvery water dispute but no solution could be reached and the problem continues. This chapter also deals with the project benefits like additional areas of cultivation with the higher yield, made possible through improved cultivation practices, has added substantial production of food for the state and for the country. Flood damages was reduced. Hydro power in this project is secondary and maximum power potential of 240 Mega Watts (MW) is available. Abundance of water and availability of power have facilitated the establishment of several industries.
in the Mettur township and neighbourhood. The dry areas have given rise to additional employment, the Mettur reservoir provides drinking water supply directly to the Mettur township and the Salem town. Boating in the reservoir is an entertainment and provides recreation.

The Third Chapter pinpoints the major irrigation system that is canal irrigation. There are 17 channels under the control of river conservancy division in Tiruchirappalli district. Among them, 11 channels take off on the right bank and six channels on the left bank of the river Cauvery. The River Conservancy Division of Tiruchirappalli district also maintained 24 major drainage-cum-irrigation channels. Hence canal irrigation is absolutely essential for cultivation. The Green Revolution (1960) paved the way for technological change in agriculture like High Yielding Varieties (HYV) of seeds.

The Fourth Chapter sketches minor irrigation system. It deals with tank, well, drip and sprinkler irrigation. Water conservation, water transfer and utilization are the three most important components of tank irrigation. The control, operation and maintenance of tank has been with the farmers. There are two types of tanks namely system tanks and non-system tanks depending upon the source of inflow. The tanks are under three categories namely PWD tanks, Panchayat Union tanks and Ex-zamin tanks. This chapter also deals with types of well irrigation like open wells, bored wells, driver wells, cavity wells, horizontal wells, tube-wells etc. and advantages and disadvantages of drip and sprinkler irrigation.

The Fifth Chapter describes various factors that hamper irrigation facilities such as political inability of not solving the Cauvery water dispute till now. The existing laws are outdated and inadequate to deal with all aspects of water resources management, so there is lack of irrigation policy.
Failure of monsoon followed by lack of rainfall was occurred due to deforestation. Deforestation has been made for the construction of river valley projects, roads, industries etc. Water was polluted by mining industries, stock breeding and fisheries and other human activities. Sediment is the by-product of soil erosion. Soil erosion displaces and takes away the top soil. Sedimentation is the process of deposition of the sediment and it disturbs the flow of water. The natural calamities like flood caused damages to the life and property of the people.

The Sixth chapter critically analyses irrigation administration. It deals with First Irrigation Commission (1901-1903), Second Irrigation Commission (1972), and the relevant provisions of the Indian constitution in respect of water resources. Four principal acts such as Madras Irrigation Cess Act (1865), the Madras Irrigation Works (Repairs Improvement and Construction) Act 1943, The Madras Irrigation Tanks (Improvement) Act 1949 and the Madras Irrigation Works (Construction of field bothies) Act 1959, deal with water regulations, offences and penalties. Besides Boards Standing orders come under this chapter.

The Seventh chapter highlights the socio-economic impact of irrigation system. It deals with changing agrarian order from 1934 to 1974 and class structure. The Brahmins and Vellalas formed the major land holding castes. The Kallars, Maravars, Reddiyars and Udayars formed the tenants and sub-tenants. The Pullies or Vanniyars and the Pallans and Parayans were the agricultural labourers. The agrarian class structure promoted agricultural slavery. The British administration had freed them as a community from the yoke of the hereditary slavery. This chapter also deals with employment pattern, education, population, landholding, land use, land transaction, land tenure and social issues in Tiruchirappalli district.
Review of Literature

Mohanakrishnan's papers on 'Water Resources Development and Management' discuss all the aspects of water resources systems, their construction, maintenance, drainage facilities etc. The author cites many problems in the field of water resources and chalks out remedial measures to overcome them. The author also cites various measures for the present much talked about topic of inter-state water problems and inter basin water transfer (linking of rivers). The articles in the book are useful not only for the irrigation engineers but also for all the professionals dealing with domestic and industrial use of water. On 'Selected Papers on Irrigation', the author deals with historical evolution of irrigation systems in Tamil Nadu, historical development of irrigation administration and integrated rehabilitation of irrigation tanks in Tamil Nadu. The author also mention about Grand Anicut and Mettur Dam. In 'History of Irrigation Development in Tamil Nadu', the author traces about irrigation development during Kings rule, British rule and after independence.

Kuppuraj's 'Poor People Living in Rich Country' discuss the interlinking of Peninsular river as a self financing scheme and sediment a boon and a bane. The author also presented a paper on 'History of Irrigation in the Last 2000 Years' in the Platinum Jubilee, Department of Indian History, University of Madras Souvenir and Proceedings of the International Seminar on 'Water Resources Development and Management in India through the Ages' give various information from classical work of Thirukkural and Silappadhikaram.

Guhan's 'The Cauvery River Dispute Towards Conciliation' furnish a lot of information regarding the Cauvery disputes, Agreements and Irrigation

Atheraya et al. 'Barriers Broken: Production relations and Agrarian Change in Tamil Nadu' give information regarding to changing land relations, labour relations and identification of agrarian classes in Kulithalai and Manapparai taluks in Tiruchirappalli district.

Sundararaj's 'History of Tiruchirappalli upto 1947' provides detail regarding the antiquity of Tiruchirappalli, working of Zamindari settlement and the ryotwari settlement. The author also edits, 'Indian Historical Studies and South Indian Historical Views'. It deals with agrarian relations in India. The author also wrote an article in 'Social Justice in Tamil Nadu'. It deals with agrarian class structure and distributive justice in Tiruchirappalli under the British Rule.

Willem Van Schendel's 'Three Deltas' accumulation and poverty in rural Burma, Bengal and South India sketches Cauvery delta during 19th and 20th century. It deals with land taxation, tenancy reform, wage labour, technological change in agriculture and a changing agrarian order.

**Methodology**

This research study is a macro analysis on socio-economic history of irrigation development in Tiruchirappalli district from 1934-1974. The methodology adopted in the research is partly narrative and partly analytical in character based on the sources collected.

**Sources of Information**

The sources used for writing the dissertation entitled History of Irrigation development in Tiruchirappalli district (1934-1974) are both
primary sources and secondary sources. These sources are collected from Irrigation Management Training Institute (IMTI) of Thuvakudy, Public Works Department and District Record Centre of Tiruchirappalli District, Tamil Nadu State Archives and Madras Institute of Development Studies (MIDS) at Chennai. Besides, Bharathidasan University Library and St. Joseph's College Library in Tiruchirappalli provide secondary sources.

The primary sources consist of original records such as Government Orders of Public Works Department furnish a lot of information regarding the Cauvery-Mettur Project, land acquisition, speeding up of the growth of irrigation under the project, and also deals with irrigation in Tiruchirappalli regarding the Pugalur and Nerur channels in Karur taluk and transfer of control to public works department. The Proceedings of Board of Revenue supply the facts regarding to Kudimaramath Act, the Madras Irrigation Bill of 1952, Maintenance of Irrigation and Suggestions of the Planning Commission. It also gives the final agreement regarding to Mysore-Madras Cauvery arbitration of 1929. The Madras Administrative Report of 1934, 1944, 1954, 1964 and 1974 by Public Works Department are available in printed volumes. It contains about Mettur Canals Scheme such as Kattalai High Level Channel Scheme and Pullambadi Canal Scheme. It also gives detailed expenditure incurred on irrigation works and the restoration of the old course of the Uyyakondan Channel in Tiruchirappalli.

'History of Cauvery-Mettur Project' by Barber gives early history of the project, construction of Cauvery-Mettur Project and its development. Moss's 'Cauvery-Mettur Report' provide details about reservoir capacity, site and project estimate. 'Hydrological Atlas of Tamil Nadu' by Kumaraswamy provides hydraulic particulars of Mettur dam, Upper Coleroon Anicut, Grand Anicut and Lower Coleroon Anicut. 'Schemes in Cauvery Basin in Tamil
Nadu' by Government of Tamil Nadu Public Works Department gives detailed information about growth profile in canal irrigation that is about New Kattalai High Level Canal, Pullambadi Canal. It also provides various information about Cauvery Mettur Project.

'Five Year Plan of Tamil Nadu' by Government of Tamil Nadu traces plan outlay for major irrigation and minor irrigation. It also helps to trace out irrigation development during Plan Periods.

Report of the 'Indian First Irrigation Commission 1901-1903' by Government of India suggest that the irrigation of India as a protection against famine and the 'Second Irrigation Commission 1972' record the fast development of irrigation in the country since the first irrigation commission has made and it also suggest all aspects of irrigation expansion in future. The first and second irrigation commission are available in printed volumes.

'Towards an Affluent District Economy' by State Planning Commission gives a perspective plan for Tiruchirappalli north and south development district during the Five Year Plans. It provides details about climate and rainfall, geology, minerals, water resources and agriculture in Tiruchirappalli district.


'Irrigation Laws, Policies, Procedures, Offences and Penalties in Tamil Nadu' by Government of India, Ministry of Water Resources and

'A Report by committee for Protection of Cauvery in Tamil Nadu' deals with the role of the Centre and Karnataka and the apprehensions of the Tamils regarding the Cauvery issue. 'Short Term Course on Integrated River Basin Planning and Management' by Irrigation Management Training Institute of Tamil Nadu provides information regarding to River Water Dispute.

Papers from the Cauvery Technical Cell (CTC) status report on agriculture in Tamil Nadu with special reference to Cauvery basin and Cauvery delta provides details of area irrigated under various systems in Cauvery basin as furnished to the Cauvery Fact Finding Committee (CFFC) in 1972.

'Board Guidelines for the Preparation of Socio-economic and Environmental Evaluation Reports of the Completed Surface Irrigation Projects' by Central Water commission Basin Planning and Management Organisation of Water Resources provides Socio-economic impacts and changes of irrigation.

'Project Reports before the Cauvery Water Disputes Tribunal Information in Common Format' by Government of Madras furnish lot of information regarding to Pullambadi Canal Scheme and the New Kattalai High Level Channel extension scheme. 'Compendium of Rules and Regulation for Irrigation' by Public Works Department of Madras gives
detail description of Kattalai Scheme, the New Kattalai High Level Channel, Uyyakondan Canal and Pullambadi Canal.


'Irrigation Reservoirs in Tamil Nadu' by Irrigation Management Training Institute of Thuvakudy provides a list of river basin in Tamil Nadu and the physical structure of the reservoirs. 'Tiruchirappalli District Passana Karutharangu Special Issue of 1990' by Government of Tamil Nadu provides detailed description of canal irrigation and tank irrigation under Cauvery basin.

'Interdisciplinary Diagnostic Analysis of action Programme Area in Cauvery Delta of Tamil Nadu' by Taramani, Irrigation Management Training Institute gives information regarding the agricultural practice and irrigation development in Cauvery delta. 'An Interim Report' by Tsukasa Mizushima and Tsuyoshinara provides abstract details of Mahizambadi village in Lalgudi taluk. The author traces out the micro study of socio-economic changes in the village.

The original sources are further corroborated with the secondary sources. They are, 'The Tiruchirappalli District Gazetteer' by Hemingway in 1901 and Lewis Moore in 2000 gives detailed description of location, brief history, land and people in Tiruchirappalli. It also provides details regarding the cropping intensity and irrigation intensity.

'Gazetteers of Tamil Nadu' by Anbazhagan in 1998 and Velmani in 1960 furnish a lot of information regarding to agriculture and irrigation. It
gives list of canals under Cauvery basin in Tiruchirappalli district and it also provides details regarding tank and well irrigation.

Symposium on 'Tank Irrigation in Tiruchirappalli' by Department of History, St. Joseph's College traces out types, importance and modernization of tank irrigation.

Kumar and Kakran's 'Water Environment and Pollution' deals with water pollution by mining industries and manufacturing industries.

'Water Management Forum Gandhinagar' by Saksena in the Seminar on 'Irrigation Management' provides information regarding the advantages and disadvantages of sprinkler and drip irrigation.

'Economic Structure of Indian Agriculture' by Sharma gives new strategies for agricultural development. 'Agricultural Economy of India' by Sankaran deals with importance of irrigation and its agricultural development. 'Agricultural Economics (Models, Problems and Policy Issues)' by Desai and 'Agriculture and Problems in India' by Mamoria provides information regarding to agricultural practice and technological change due to Green Revolution. 'Theory and Design of Irrigation Structures' by Varshney et al. provides information regarding principal crops in India, irrigation efficiencies and method of irrigation. 'Growth of Agriculture and Rural Development in India' by Subramanya and Satyasundaram gives information regarding the agriculture in India during Five Year Plans.

'Indian Agriculture' by Agrawal deals with deforestation and its evil consequences. It also deals with Irrigation, and its importance, potential and utilization. It also provides information about new agricultural technology and Green Revolution. 'Forest Resources Conservation and Regeneration' by
Anita Roy Mukherjee provides information about recent attempts at afforestation.

'Studies in Socio-cultural change in Rural Villages in Tiruchirappalli District' by Subbaiah and 'A Study of Social and Economic Change in a South Indian Village' by Dagfinn Sivertsen furnish a lot of information regarding the social and economic change in villages due to irrigation development.

The above mentioned sources were highly useful to write this dissertation along with the personal observations of the scholar.