6.SOCIAL WORLD OF THE CULTIVATORS

The Social structure of the agrarian community of the region as else where in the Circars was heterogeneous and complex. It consisted of several layers with several castes playing an important role in maintaining and preserving it intact with their own customs and traditions. These customs in turn determined or maintained the differences between various castes. The presence of cultivating groups was common every where unlike the artisanal groups who were mostly clustered in specific geographical locations. This omnipresence of the cultivators is not surprising, given the predominance of agriculture as a prime rural occupation and it found expression even in the popular proverbs like 'Rajuleni Rajyam Kapu Leni Gramam' (Kingdom without a King, VII-

Agrarian Castes and tht Rural Structura :

In the Madras Presidency, the cultivators generally belonged 2 to the Vellalar community. The word Vellalan was derived from Vellanmai, vellam meaning water, anmai is management, that IS, cultivation or tillage. According to a legendary account, when a severe drought fell upon the land and when people prayed to Bhudevi for aid she had produced from her body a man carrying a plough who showed them how to till the SOil and his offsprings were the Vellalars. The term Vellalar was commonly used IN the

records for the cultivators of Telugu districts or Northern Circars, though it did not represent the Telugu cultivating castes.

Telugu counter parts of the Vellalars of Tamil origin were Kammas, Kapus, Velamas, and Razus. Velamas were often ferred to as **Velamvars** and the Razus as Rachewars. Though all these were agricultural castes, not all castes were dominant in a particular region. For instance, Reddis who formed a division of the Kapus were the dominant agrarian caste of the ceded districts, whereas Razus were most commonly found in Visakhapatnam. Velamas were more common as Zamindars and as large estate owners in both Masulipatnam and Godavari districts. Generally claiming themselves as belonging to the military class and having a nant position in the agrarian setup they never cultivated lands on their own. Another caste which in spite of enjoying large Inam grants, never cultivated lands on their own was of the Brahmins. Thus the region had cultivating castes like Kammas, Kapus, Rachewars, Velamwars, Brahmins, and to a extent Muslims who were limited to only specific localities, and around Masulipatnam.

As seen in the second chapter, the cultivating groups in the region were not homogeneous. They had several hierarchical gradations based not only on the economic strength of the group but on the prevailing local customs and traditions. For instance, in Masulipatnam as else where in the Northern Circars, as already noted, the cultivators were divided into two groups

Kadeem ryots and Payakarı ryots. The Kadeem ryots belonged to the Kamma caste as also the Ulcudi ryots. The Paracudis, the non resident cultivators who had come to the village to cultivate lands for a stipulated term of years might have belonged to various caste groups.

Besides these main cultivating groups, there were other castes whose presence was necessary in agricultural operations and who occupied the lowest rungs in the rural social structure. They were the Malas and Madigas. They were mostly the landless agricultural labouring groups and generally were employed on the fields of the dominant ryots as farm servants and seasonal la
7 bourers. But though both the groups were the lowest castes they still had their own gradations and even had different social customs which maintained their separate identity. Between the two groups also, Malas were mostly employed in agriculture and Madigas were attached to the cultivating groups for making agricultural implements though they were also employed as agricultur
9 al labourers.

Kammas :

Kammas, the main cultivating caste was divided into many sub sects. The sub sects were divided mainly based on the social practices and these differed from region to region. This implied that the sub sects were not common through out the region

and each sect had its own strong holds. For example, in the Godavari region the Kavati sub division of the Kamma seemed to be predominant, whereas in Masulipatnam the Illuvellani and Pedda 10 Kamma sects were dominant.

11

The word Kamma in Telugu literally meant the ear ornament. Many legendary accounts seemed to be in voque regarding According to one account the rishis being troubled Rakshasas applied to Vishnu for protection who in turn directed them to Lakshmi. The goddess gave them a casket containing one of her ear ornaments and enjoined them to worship it for a dred years. At the expiry of the period, a group of five hundred armed warriors sprang up from the casket. They, at the οf the rishis, attacked and destroyed the demons. After this 12 they were directed to engage themselves ın agriculture. Interestingly the story is common to both Kamma and castes though the reasons for which the casket was worshiped differed in the two cases. Another story revolved around the Kakatiya king Pratapa Rudra, indicating that originally all cultivating castes were one family and later on were divided into different castes. According to this account the ear ornament king Pratapa Rudra fell into the hands of an enemy whom the section of the Kapus boldly attacked and recovered the jewel and hence were given a title Kamma. Those who ran away became Vela-13 mas.

254

lar castes kept women confined to the domestic space, under the so called gosha. But as they got more involved in cultivation, the Vellalars needed the extra help that women could provide in agricultural operations. It was therefore determined to abandon the gosha custom so as to meet these needs. An agreement was drawn up on a palm leaf scroll and all the members were required to sign on it. But some abstained from signing. Those who signed were said to have become Kammas and those who declined to 14 do so were Velamas or outsiders.

The Kamma caste was not a homogeneous one and was divided into several sub sects. Though they were not very prominent divisions they were mostly divided based on the existing practices of the region. Those who were Zamindars became Zamindari Kammas. In status and economic position, next to the Zamindari Kammas were Pedda Kammas. This group though economically not as powerful as Zamindars followed the same social customs as the Zamindars. Those who cultivated and lived as agriculturists were known as Chinna Kammas. These divisions were mainly based on the economic position of the groups.

There were certain divisions which were mainly based on the marriage customs and other social traditions. Those who brought the brides in the basket during the marriage were called Gampa Kammas. Those who did not allow their women to go out and work

the fields were known as Illuvellani Kammas. There were in others like Gampa chatu, Godachatu, Kuchi Kamma, Macha Kamma, Yedamapaita Kamma, Kudipaita Kammas. But not all the were common in the region and these divisions also were again differed from district to district. For example in the Godavari district the sub sects In the Kamma caste were mainly derived from curious house hold customs deriving generally from traditional methods of carrying water. They were Kavidi, Eredis, Gudas, Uggams and Rachas. The Kavitis generally carried water pots on a Kavidi, the Eredis always on a pack bullock, Uggams in pots held in the hand and not on the hip or head. The Racha 17 Kammas always carry water in a pot carried by two persons.

But generally the Kammas inter dined with all the Satsudra castes. Originally among the sub sects marriages were not allowed as they were related closely. The minor differences between the sects were generally maintained on important occals

sions. For instance, the thalibottu of the Gampa Kammas was a concave disc of gold whereas that of the Godas was a large flat disc. In the marriages the bride price also seemed to have varied depending on the sect to which they belonged. It seemed to have been the highest in the Gampa section of the Kammas.

The Kammas generally worshipped hero stones. Women commonly performed pujas like Chata vayanamu and Pustedanamulu. Some during the marriages go to worship the village deities walking on 20 the wet clothes spread on their way. Kammas also had gotras

and house names. But these sometimes coincided with those of the Velamas also. Some of the common household names and gotras of the caste were - Addagada, Arekapudi, Yalamanchili, Katta, Kandibedala, Singamaneni, Viramachaneni, Velanki. Vallabhaneni, Vasireddi and gotras were like Kundutla, Vallutla, Vipparla, 21 Thalluri, Sarijala, Kulukunalla, Dynolla, Puvvada.

Kammas were both Vaishnavites and Shaivites. Most the Shaivites were disciples of Aradhya Brahmanas and the vites had gurus of Vaishnava Brahmanas and beside worship village deities like Draupadi, Manarsami, Gangamma, Ankamma, Peddavetiamma, were worshiped by Gampa chatu Kammas, whereas Godachatu Kammas worship Poleramma, Veikandlathalli and Padavetiamma, Perhaps this was the reason why we do not have much evidence right and left hand caste disputes involving Kammas as they belonged both to the Shaivite and Vaishnavite groups. Although these divisions, and some of them fell there were across the hand and the Left hand divide, we have little evidence Right conflicts between these subdivisions, suggesting that the Kamma caste as such provided a cohesive link.

Thus Kammas formed one of the dominant and major agricultural caste of Masulipatnam. Their success as good cultivators and hard labouring groups was generally expressed through proverbs like 'Kamma vaanı chetulu kattina nilavadu' (though you tie a Kamma's hands he will not sit quiet), 'Kamma vaallu koodite

kadama jaathulu vellunu' (if Kammas come together other castes go out), 'Kamma vaariki bhoomi bhayapaduthundi' (the earth fears the Kammas), 'Kammavarintlo Panditi Gunjalaku kuda Pani Chebutharu'(In the Kamma house holds even the pillar posts will also be given 25 work).

Razus :

Another cultivating caste was that of the Razus. Though they were predominant in Visakhapatnam and Godavari regions as dominant agriculturists and Zamindars of big estates like Peddapuram, Vijayanagaram, they were also common in the Masulipatnam region. The Razus had two prominent divisions among them. One was Konda Razus and another Bhu Razus. The Konda Razus were further divided into the following sections to which various Zamindars belonged like Kodu, Gaita, Muka, and Yenati sections. The Konda Razus were believed to be the hill chiefs who in course 24 of time adopted the title Razu.

They were regarded as the descendants of the military section of the Kapu, Kamma and Velamas. They always tried to maintain this distinction and be different from other cultivating castes in their social practices. At their weddings they worshipped a sword which usually denoted a soldier caste. They also use a string made of cotton and wool the combination peculiar to Kshatriyas during the weddings. They had endogamous subdivisions 25 like Murikinati, Nandimandalam, and Suryavamsam.

The Razus were mostly Vaishnavites and their priests were Brahmins. They wore the sacred thread and mostly followed, the customs of the Brahmins thus maintaining a distance from the other group of agriculturists and had Brahmanical gotras. They did not inter dine with other non Brahmin groups. In the well to do families the females generally observed pardah the that even during the marriage ceremonies they were extent allowed to sit in the Pandal. During ceremonies special re3pect shown to the families of Pusapati and Gottimukkala 2.7 generally.

Kapus :

Another important agricultural caste was that of the Kapus. Rather confusingly the term Kapu was commonly used also for the ryot or the cultivator and in some areas the term Pedda Kapu also meant the head of the village, because mostly the head ryots acted as village headmen. This term was used, however to refer to Reddi and Balija cultivators also. These were distinct from the Kapu caste, also a caste of Cultivators.

Kapus were again divided into several sub sects like Akanati, Palle, Panta, and Velanati. The Panta Kapus were said to be divided into Pedda Reddis and Katama Reddis. Reddy was the title of the Kapus and also the title by which the Village Munsiful 29 was called in the Telugu districts. May be because of their

numerous sects the proverb came 'Redlaki vadlaki perlu cheppale-58
mu'(we cannot name the reddis and varieties of paddy).

Kapus like the Kammas were both Vaishnavites and Shaivites.

Besides, they also worshipped a variety of deities like Thallamma, Nagaramamma, Putlamma. Ankamma, Muneeswara, Poleramma and 31
Oesamma.

Balijas though generally known as trading castes were also known to be cultivators. In their customs there was very little difference between the Kapus and Balijas. The general name title among the Ballias was Naidu. The name Ballia was said be derived from the Sanskrit Bali (sacrifice) and ja (born) signifying that the Balijas owe their origin to the performance of a Yagam. The Balijas also employed Brahmins and Satanis as their priests and Gown was their main caste deity. Balijas sub sects like Gajula Balija, Telagas, Musa Kammas, Jakkulas, and Adapapa. In both these groups of Jakkulas and Adapapas it was 32 customary for each family to give up one girl for prostitution. One particular ceremony performed by this caste before every auspicious occasion was Parvati Puja that is, the worship of 33 their female ancestors.

Velamas :

Velamas were another cultivating caste of the Masulipatnam district. Most of the Zamindari estates $1\,\text{n}$ the region were held

by Velamas. The Zamindars of Nuzividu , Charmahal and Mylavaram 54 belonged to the Velama caste. There is a lot of controversy over who the Velamas were. According to one account, they were stated to belong to a subdivision of the Balijas. Other accounts claim that they belonged to Kammas but were divided from them in consequence of the difference of opinion on the subject of the gosha system among women of their castes.

Even among the Velamas there was division on the question of gosha, into Adi Velamas and Padma Velamas. The Velamas themselves Telugu Vellalars not because of any connection between two castes, but because they were at the top of the castes as the Vellalars were of the Tamil castes. important sub division of the castes were Kapu. Koppala, Padma, Ponnet, and Yanadi. The ancient Zamindari families of Bobbili Venkatagiri, Pithapuram, and Nuzividu belonged to the Racha sect. Among women the practice of sat 1 was prevalent. The social position among the chief cultivating castes in the region seemed to be as follows: Velamas were called Velama Doras and were followed by Kammas called as Karma varu and were followed by who called simply Kapus without any title.

Though the above described groups formed the dominant section of the agrarian population there were two other castes who occupied the lowest social strata but whose presence was a must in agricultural operations, was that of the Malas and Madigas. Mostly these two castes were the landless agricultural labouring

groups. They were either employed on the farms of rich cultivator as farm servants or worked as daily wage labourers. They were the Pariahs of the Telugu districts. It had been suggested 57 the word Mala was derived from Maila or dirt. that The Malas were almost equally inferior in position to the Madigas. ate beef and were debarred entrance to the temples and were allowed to use the general village wells. They served as own Barbers and Washermen. In Masulipatnam there were pariah weavers in sizable number who wove coarse cloth mainly for consumption. This was the case only with the Masulipatnam and Guntur regions and their presence was not noticed in other Cir-39 cars like Godavari and Visakhapatnam.

Malas

Though both Mala and Madiga castes were inferior, they had gradations between them. Malas did not draw water from the same well used by Madigas and looked down upon them for they eat pork.

40

Malas belonged to the right hand section. Malas did not eat food prepared or touched by the Kamsali, Medaras, Beri chettis, Boyas, Bhatrajus or Madigas though these castes were much higher than the Malas in the social scale. Perhaps this was because they belonged to the left hand castes.

Malas had their own dancing girls, priests and also attached or dependent caste beggar. Usually in the village festivals

especially those of the village deities both the castes played a prominent role. The Malas did not wear leather shoes. If they were seen with them a fine was inflicted on them and the money was spent on drinks.

Originally the Malas belonged, it was believed, to the kudipaita section of the community that is their women wore the the right shoulder but in course of time there were Kudi and Yedama paita section among them. This custom was the basis for the division among the Malas. The Kudipaita as section was again divided into Reddy Bhumalavaru and the Pokana-The Yedamapaita section was divided into Arava, and Murikinativaru. But again in them there were divisions according to the religious faiths that 19 followers of 43 faith and Vaishnavite faiths. Mostly 1t was these castes were converted into Shaivite and Vaishnavite religions as those religions did not have caste barriers. Besides, Malas worshiped a variety of deities like Gurappa, Subbarayudu. Gunnatadu. Sunkalamma, Poleramma, Gangamma, and Gontiyalamma.

Madigas :

Madigas were the leather working caste of the region and they corresponded to the **Chakkiliyans** of the **Tamil** origin. The Madigas belonged to the left hand caste and often quarrelled with the Malas regarding these rules. Madigas also had their own 45 dancing girls dedicated to temples and she was called **Matangi**.

According to one legend the head of Renuka the wife of sage Bhrigu was beheaded by her son in accordance with the sages order. The head which fell into the house of a Madiga grew up

46
into a Madiga woman.

The Madigas like Malas did not take food or water from pariahs. The main duty of the Madigas was cleaning and tanning of hides and the manufacture of crude leather articles, though they also worked as agricultural labourers. But they were not as common as Malas. This was revealed through proverbs like `under the magali system of cultivation even a Madiga will grow good crops' and `not even a Madiga will sow before Malapunnama'.

This also reveals Madigas hatred towards Mala community.

Generally the Madigas in the villages were attached to one or more families of cultivators. They made leather articles like sandal trappings for bullocks, large well buckets used for irrigation and were entitled to receive the dead animals from the cultivators. Usually they were paid in kind.

The Madigas had the Panchayat or the tribal council system for the adjustment of disputes and settlement of various questions at issue among members of the community. The head man was called Pedda Madiga. The office of the Pedda Madiga was hereditary and generally he was assisted by two elected officers called Oharmakarta and Kulam bontrothu. The Madiga also like Malas

participated actively in the festivals of village deities in the village and also had dependent caste beggars like all other castes. The Madigas were Vaishnavites, Shaivites, and Sakteyas 49 and worshipped a variety of local deities beside these.

Muslims :

Another cultivating group was that of the Muslims. Though in a minority when compared with other cultivating castes they were found in some pockets in the region. Muslims of higher class held huge jagir lands and ruled the Circars as renters in the initial period of the Company rule. Certain other categories of Muslims like the Qazis also held Inam lands though in small quantities, and were a sizable number in Masulipatnam.

The first Muslims in the district might possibly had been Arab traders at Masulipatnam. But in the fifteenth century Muslim soldiers were in the employment of Reddy Kings of Kondavidu and of the kings of Vijayanagar. Muslims also had two sections among them called Shias and Sunnis. The great majority of the Muslims in the Masulipatnam district were orthodox Sunnis and only few Shias were found at Masulipatnam.

The Muslims chiefly engaged themselves in trade, in cloth, indigo hides or cotton. But though they did not work on others fields they cultivated their own fields. In Masulipatnam there 55 were many Muslims who held lands on Inam tenures as Qazis.

Perhaps as they did not have any caste restrictions like Brahmins to cultivate their own lands, they settled as cultivators.

But this section formed a minority among other cultivating castes.

Castes and the Customs :

Though the caste distinctions were very wide and distinct, still each caste in their social customs especially on ceremonial occasions had to depend on or interacted with several other castes. These castes always were inferior in the social hierarchy but still played a dominant role in the marriage or death ceremonies of the dominant groups. The agrarian castes of Masulipatnam were no exception to this. In the marriage and death ceremonies of Kammas, Kapus, Razus, Madigas and several others had a prominent role. Though several reasons were given for this as to whether the inferior groups helped the agrarian castes in earlier times or were told to depend on them, still it stresses the interdependence of several castes in the village system and also the caste ties among these groups.

Generally in almost all the Kamma, Kapu, Velama and Razu marriages Barbers pared the nails of the bridegroom and touch the nails of the bride. Like wise Chakali or washerman in the marriages of these castes tied a small wooden frame work called dhornam with cotton threads wound round it to the marriage pan-

dal. The Kapus proceed to the house of washermen with some food and gingely nil undbring the dhornam which was tied by him to the pandal. For this service the washermen were given certain quantity of Paddy. Like wise the Kapus visited the house of goldsmith for the bottu and the potter's house for marriage pots. Madigas gave a new pair of chappals to the bridegroom for which food was given to the Madigas placed in a basket on eleven leaves. In the Kapu families the Bhatraju tied the basingam on the forehead of the bridegroom and remained with him throughout the ceremony, whereas for the bride a Bhogam woman generally waited on the bride. Not only that, even on the marriage dais both the Bhatrajus and Bogam woman accompanied the bride and the groom.

However these customs differ slightly with the sectarian differences among them. For instance, in the marriage of Panta Kapus the washerman dressed up as a woman heads the procession and kept on dancing and singing till the destination was 56 reached.

In the Kapu community generally women played an important role except in matters connected with agriculture. This was accounted for by a story to the effect that when they came from Ayodhya the Kapus brought no women with them. They were told to marry women who were the illegitimate issue of Pandavas and the women consented on the understanding that they were to be given

the upper hand and that menial service should be done for them for which they employed Gollas and Gamallas. Malas and Madigas 57 freely enter Kapus houses except the Kitchen.

In some sections of the castes Chakkiliyan played a prominent part in the marriages. He was deputed to ascertain the status of the other party before the match was arranged and his 58 dreams were considered as omens of its desirability. He was also honoured at the marriage by being given the first betel and nuts.

In the **Velama** marriages they always arranged for a Mala couple to marry before they had a marriage in their own house and they provided the necessary funds for the Mala marriage. They accounted the custom by a story to the effect that a Mala once allowed a Velama to sacrifice him in order to obtain a hidden treasure and this custom was observed out of gratitude for the discovery of the treasure.

Even during the death ceremonies the presence of some of the castes was a must. In the death ceremonies of the Kammas the food that was offered to the dead in the burial ground was first taken by the Pariahs followed by Barber, Washerman and other 60 mendicant groups. In the case of Kapus the news of a death in the community was conveyed by a Pariah and it was the Barber and 61 not the son who carried the water pot in the burial ground.

Tht Dependent Caste Beggars:

major cultivating castes in Masulipatnam who were prosperous and economically dominant in the village hierarchy and enjoyed high social status had various groups attached to them as dependent castes. These dependent castes or the caste beggars lived on the alms provided by the particular castes to which they were attached and their dependent status was continuously underlined by a variety of rituals which they performed in the houses the respective caste groups. However, this feature was conspicuous of only the cultivating castes. Each caste had ported a beggar caste and sometimes the beggars had two or supporting castes. For instance, the Picchaguntalu were supported by Kammas, Kapus, and Gollas. Again legendary accounts prevalent for their dependent status and also why each supported these groups. It is interesting to note that not the dominant castes even lower castes like Malas and Madigas also had certain mendicant groups dependent on them. The practice which was common had reference in the literature speaking of their obnoxious presence under each caste.

Jangala palu Devangula Vittambu
Kapu vittamu Pambakani palu
Balija vittambu Pattedasarı palu
Golla vittamu Pichagunta palu
Vyapari vittambu Varakantala palu

Kaliju vittamu Runjakani palu

Parajala pal Sistu karanala sommu

Gurjarula vittambu Taskarulu palu

It 18 interesting to observe that other agricultural castes like Razus and Velamas did not have any attached mendicant groups. The Kammas and Kapus had caste beggars called Pichiguntalu. Balijas patronized Patte Dasaris, whereas Madigas had Dakkalı and Malas also patronized Mastiga besides Pambalas.

Apart from these groups there were several others like Sarada kandru, Viramushtis, Bhagavatars, Pusabalijas, Birannalavaru, Suddulagollalu, Gangireddulavaru, Balasantavaru, Budabukkalavaru, Chindumadigas, Jogulavaru, Bavanilu, Jakkulavaru, Hakaru-63 lu, Kommuvaru, Viravidyavantulu, Mastilu, Dakkalivaru.

But it 19 important to note that most of the names of these castes were derived from either the instruments they used or from the sounds the instruments produced. Almost all the caste beggars prepared the genealogies of their superior castes and sang the songs or the viragathas, the songs of the valiant in their castes and recited caste gotras and genealogies. They played an important role in the death ceremonies and also on other occasions. Perhaps these groups were maintained by the superior castes to sing their caste puranas and also to maintain minor sectarian differences or caste differences among the castes in their social customs and rituals. It was reported that some of

these caste beggars enjoyed land grants in the villages. The fact that these depended castes maintained and articulated caste genealogies and also constantly reiterated the differences between the different gotras, helped to reinforce the separate identities of the different sub sects.

Picchikuntlas:

Picchikuntla or pitchukakuntla or bikshakuntla were caste beggars of **Kapu** and **Kamma** cultivating castes. Reference was made to this group even in the literary text of Palkuriki From the statement "maaku veevanga chetulu nadichi povanga kaallu levayya andhakulamayya pichhukaguntulamayya " It is evident that they were handicapped and the proverb "pichukaguntu pa 1 brahmastramu" revealed their weakness and their 64 They mainly received alms from the above mentioned handicap. castes. They recited the genealogies and caste gotras Among their popular songs were stories of Lakshmamma, Kapus. Kamamma, Balanagamma, Somanadri, Sadasıva Reddy, Parvalata Mallareddi.

Again among them there were sub sects like Golla. Telaga, Ganta, Turaka. Togaru, Manda, Thitthi. They generally did not inter marry among the sub sects. Their common gotras were Ganteduvaru. Bandaruvaru, Singamavaru, Pidamuvaru, Antugalavaru. They mostly follow Shaivite faith and Mallikarjuna was their main

deity. They also worshipped village deities like **Pochamma**,

Yellamma, Mallamma, Edamma. Jangamas acted as their priests and
65

QUIUS.

The name **Pichigunta** literally meant an assembly of beggars.

They were called **in** Telugu speaking districts as a class of mendicants who acted as herbalists and medicine men. Some of the **Pichaguntas** served the Vellalars **in** their fields and others lived 66 by begging.

Pambalas :

Another mendicant group was that of the Pambalas or drum people. They acted as musicians and caste Pujaris at Mala marriages and festivals in honor of their deities. They also took part in the recitation of the story of Ankamma and put muggu at the death ceremonies of the Gamallas. This group was also known by the name of Bavanilu or Baindla. These names indicate the instruments of music they use. Their music instruments were called Bavanika, Javanika or Pambas. During the village festicals they took part actively beating the drums and dance.

Mastigas :

Another group of mendicants were **Dakkalas** or Mastigas.

Dakkalas generally beg from **Madigas** only. The **Dakkala** meant the

one who was brought to life from a vertebral column. Though they beg from Mad: gas, they do not enter their households and females in the Madiga caste were not allowed to serve them food. This practice was followed to the extent that Madiga women did not 68 tread on the foot steps of the Dakkalas.

Mastigas was a caste dependent on the Malas. They were supposed to be the illegitimate descendants of the Malas. They also begged from Madigas and Gollas and were commonly known as Mala 69
Mastigas.

Dasaris :

Dasaris were another religious mendicant group. Generally there was a Dasari for every three or four villages. A few Dasaris had Inam lands but the majority lived on the charity of the people. They sang hymns in honor of Chennudu or Peddamuni and officiated as priests. Their services were mostly required at ceremonial occasions like marriages, deaths and the initiation of Basavis into profession.

Thus each caste maintained a dependent caste. These dependent castes did special services to the castes to which they were attached like singing caste gotras and preparing their genealogies. Though the caste beggars played an important role in the ceremonial occasions they were inferior and this status was always distinctly maintained by the dominant castes.

Cultivating Castes : Right Left Divide :

Another important social distinction very clearly maintained by several castes was the right and left hand division. A peculiar feature only applicable to South Indian society, this divi-Sion seems to be in existence right from eleventh century and ceased to exist after nineteenth century except in mild forms. The society was vertically divided into two sections engulfing most of the castes on each side. The number included ın each division seemed to differ from one account to another, But this division was clearly not for the first two higher castes Brahmins and Kshatriyas. It included Valshyas and involved mainly the Sat Sudra groups. There were certain neutral groups who did not participate or were above this division. But the castes which belonged to this category differed from region to region. For instance, the Vellalars who formed a dominant caste in right hand division in Tamil areas were not included in the Telugu speaking areas.

As the name itself indicates the left hand division IN South India had connotations of impurity whereas the right hand had powerful and positive normative associations. Thus the left hand castes were looked down upon by the right hand castes and each division had certain religious symbols and INSIGNIAS that distinguished them from one another. These should not be encroached upon by other divisions. Any small breach in this prac-

tice led to serious conflicts involving all the castes in each division. This, at the lowest level became one caste against the other like Malas who belonged to the right hand caste against Madigas who belonged to the left hand caste.

However in the form of the conflict between the artisans and the dominant agricultural castes, the disputes seem to have been most common in the Tamil country and to some extent in the Canarese country. It is interesting to note that the most important Telugu agricultural castes such as Reddis and the Kammas seem to have avoided this classification and Velamas and Razus were not mentioned in any of the lists. This must have been due to their claim that they belonged to Kshatriyas. However this right and left hand conflict sometimes found its expression in the religious sectarian conflicts of the times, in the region the two dominant sectarian faiths being Shaivite and Vaishnavite. Though the Brahmins were not supposed to be involved in these schisms as it became a matter of faith among the castes sometimes the higher castes seemed to have indirectly supported one or the other of 74 these divisions.

In this manner also the cultivating castes of the region seemed not to have participated in any of the conflicts as they belonged to both Shaivite and Vaishnavite groups. It was not that this divisions of right and left hand caste was totally absent in the region. We do have references to schisms and

consequential participation of artisanal groups in these schisms
in the region.

The right and left hand division which was absent among the higher agrarian castes seemed to have involved the lower agrarian castes like Malas and Madigas. It is necessary in this connection to know who generally formed the right hand caste and who formed the left hand division though the number did vary regionally. Vellalars though supporting indirectly the right hand faction were above the classification. The following list shows 75 the castes included in each of the divisions.

Occupations	Right Hand	Left Hand
	Division	Division
Traders	Ba 1 1 j a	Berichetti
	Komatı	Vaniyans
Weavers	Jandra	Devanga
	Saliyan	Kaikolan
Art i sans	Chakali	Kammalan
	Kamma ri	Kamsali
Leather workers	Madiga	Mad iga
	Females	Males
Field labourers	Mala	Bedar
Agri cultur ists	Vellalar. Reddy	Bedar
	Kamma, Golla	Pal li

It **15** interesting to note that **sometimes these** divisions were followed within the family. In some castes males **10** a family represented a particular division and females another. According to Burton **Stein** the right hand and left hand divisions seemed to have forged significant social links among a group of dependent people of diverse localities.

When the society was so sharply divided into these divisions and when there were so many schisms between different castes over their rights it is important to know what were these distinctive customs followed by the two divisions and different emblems and religious symbols peculiar to each caste and each division on these lines.

Right hand castes exclusively had the privilege of erecting marriage pandal with twelve poles, only they could mount horse during the marriages. There were disputes whenever one division of the society tried to follow the rules or the customs 77 For instance, in the lower castes of Malas the other. Madigas during the marriage procession of Madigas, Malas closely followed them to see whether the bridegroom would mount the These differences were carried to the extent horse. that each caste did not allow the other marriage party to go in a proces**sion** in their street. Malas especially always objected the dance done in group by Madigas in processions popularly known 78 Madiga Chindu.

Each caste had their own religious emblems and flags with different signs. Vaduga Vellalars had the swan as their caste emblem; for Reddis it was the plough; Kammas had the bull; Komatis had the sloth as their insignia; Gollas had the their symbol; a five coloured tent was the symbol of Kannada Gollas: for Telugu Gollas it was the Conch; Padma Sales Tiger; whereas Pattu Sales had two headed bird: Jandra caste weavers had crocodile as their emblem; and the Berichettis the eagle. Though earlier they might have used these symbols in the war times representing each caste but later on they formed a part of all ceremonial occasions like marriages. The castes led the procession holding the symbol perhaps to specify 79 that they belonged to a particular caste. But it is important to note that this division which was so explicit in Tamil Kannada speaking regions was absent among the agrarian castes in the region.

inferior status of the artisan groups to the Vellalars given even in the legendary account regarding the origin The architect of the Gods Viswakarma intruded the Vellalars. on the privacy of Shiva and Parvathi. Annoyed by this. thev said they would cause an enemy of Viswakarma to be born on the should punish him for his temerity. Having found all who the he waited for the birth of the enemy to annihilate him with a single blow. He failed to do and knocked only the crown. As peace was concluded between the two on the condition that the

panchajati who were the sons of Viswakarma should be subservient 80 to the earth born person whose offsprings were Vellalars.

In almost all the higher agrarian castes there were both Shaivite and Vaishnavite followers and we do not have any references to the schisms involving any of these castes in this region though they had serious Vaishnavite and Shaivite sectarian conflicts. This perhaps must have been due to their claim that they belonged to the military caste, that is, Kshatriyas and as mentioned above the first two sections of the society were above this division.

Caste divisions in the rural structure played a dominant role both in social interaction and maintaining respective traditions and customs intact. Each caste has its own rules in social conduct, and religious practices. Different castes were expected to follow these rules strictly so that they could maintain the differences among their traditional values and customs intact and thus maintain the rigidity in the social customs and traditions.

Birth In a particular caste fixed ones ritual status and 81 along with that one's economic and social position. These caste distinctions which were already there, were maintained and reinforced through many factors. One such factor according to 82 Andre Beteille was physical appearance. This to some extent was true but this factor could not be the main distinguishing mark. Perhaps because of these beliefs there came into existence

proverbs like 'nalla brahmanuni, yerra komatini nammakoodadu"
meaning Brahmins were generally had a fair complexion and Komatis
had a dark complexion. So if they were found in opposite ways

85
one cannot trust them.

Costume was another medium through which inequalities were maintained and various castes had different customs in dress patterns. Economic inequalities at one level were reinforced through costume. For instance, the Zamindars generally wore cloths embroidered with gold laces and also cloths of finest texture. It was given that each pair of dress in some cases 84 costed several hundreds of rupees. But In contrast a locally woven coarse dhot; and a kambal; was the daily attire of the This inequality was reinforced by the rich farm servants. cultivating sections who employed lower castes as their field laborers and farm servants. The attached field labourers locally called palerus were given two dhotis and a kambalı which costed not more than three rupees all together.

Another factor that reinforced disparities among the castes was settlement patterns in the villages. The upper castes had their settlements in the heart of the village, whereas the Malas and Madigas being out castes lived outside the village especially in settlements like Malapalle or Madigageru respectively as they 86 were called. Further among the higher castes generally Brah-

mins were distinguished from non Brahmin caste9 and Brahmin 87
settlements were known as Agraharams. It was seen that in the region there were pettahs named after each caste as a group of people belonging to a particular caste built a pettah. They were Velamagudem Kammavaripalem, Chakirevupalem, Kannereddivaripalem, Kapupalem, Kummarapalem, Kimmarapadu, Chinagollapalem, Gollagudem, Peragolla palem. These names indicate either they were built by persons belonging to a particular caste or indicate the castes which resided in them.

The distinctions between different religious faiths were also indicated by the caste marks. Shatvites wore horizontal caste marks whereas Vaishnavites wore vertical. These practices which were carried to extremes were criticized by Vemana In several of his poems.

During this period the caste distinctions and social distinctions as seen above were too many. Always it was the lower rungs of society in whatever profession they were in which suf-These conditions made the life of the lower castes fered most. full of exploitation and misery. It was only through the missionactivity In the region that the lower rungs of the society were relieved and their social position bettered. The missionaries whose main aim was to spread Christianity as an alternative choice to the many sections who obviously did not have any chance to improve their lot socially under the rigid caste system. The

missionaries through various means like preaching Gospel and starting schools to educate masses on Christianity succeeded in their attempts to convert many depressed classes. It was through the efforts of the missionaries that the social position of the deprived classes began to change.

There were several missionaries in Andhra as early as 90

1700. However it was the British missionaries in the 1850s that really started serious work. By 1700 the Portuguese Jesuits were already in Nellore and had been successful in converting 91

many of the inhabitants to Roman Catholicism. One way of quickly making the conversions was to take advantage of the economic crises in the region and by minimum monetary offers the poor were attracted. Thus in 1736 taking advantage of the famine conditions several concessions were made. But subsequently following a change of policy by the Pope the mission was closed and the 92 converts reverted to their religion.

However in the initial stages as the East India Company was mainly a private organization it did not show much interest in missionary activity as it was engaged in consolidating its own position in a alien political economy. It was only in 1813 with the act of British parliament that the East India Company which by then had firmly established itself granted permission to even non British missionary societies to work in India. Several missionaries chose different centres in Andhra for their activity.

The American Baptist mission functioned with Nellore as its

Centre. The Lutheran mission had Guntur as its head quarters.

The Church Missionary Society chose Visakhapatnam and the Society

for the Propagation of Gospel functioned from Rayalaseema and

94

Kakinada was the centre for the Canadian Baptist mission.

Thus though there was much activity In Andhra, Masulipatnam was left out. When Goldingham was made the Collector of Masulipatnam in 1854, not finding any Christian missionary in the area he wrote to the Church Missionary Society for the propagation of the Gospel to come and work in the region. They sent two English men Robert Nobel and Henry Fox to do missionary work and spread 95 Christianity in Masulipatnam.

The missionary activity was however started only in 1843 and Nobel opened a school with a limited number of boys and tried to the work through education. In the school Оb lessons were taught In New Testament, Gita, and Koran. Against the other faiths the merits of Christianity were highlighted. Though the schools were popular and educationally successful even the response of the students to his proselytizing appeals was not much and the first converts were a Brahmin and a Velama. This raised a great agitation and the angry Velama caste people attacked Nobel's house. For this reason, for sometime Nobel's school was almost deserted and the number of pupils fell sharply from 90 to 15. Thus education was one measure actively started by the missionaries to spread Christianity and in the process it ameliorated the conditions of the depressed castes.

But indigenous education had been prevalent in the region before the missionaries came and there were many schools in almost every taluk and even some colleges imparting instructions to the higher castes of the society. Students were taught Telugu and Sanskrit in all places; in some locations Persian, Astronomy, and Science of Law were also taught. Of all the people there were more Brahmin students and among the girls whose number was almost negligent, those who attended the schools were mainly the dancing girls. The main text books were like Bala Ramayanam, Amaram and students had to write on sand.

This was collected for paper, cadjans, books besides food as we il as the pay of their school master. Both of these charges of course depended upon the rank and circumstances of the relations of the scholars. The wages to the school master was commonly

from 1/4 to Rs 2 for each boy. Perhaps the expenses it involved in education and their futility to the cultivating castes was reflected in the proverb 'Bapani Sedyam Battem Chetu, Kapula Chaduvulu Kasula Chetu'(Cultivation by Brahmins was waste of 100 wages and education to Kapus was waste of money).

Another important factor was the perceptions of the cultivators to wards the Company and the law. The cultivators were not ignorant of the changes that were taking place in the region under the Company. The cultivators were aware of the existence of a government or an authority which was above that of their immediate rulers like Zamindars, Renters, Deshmukhs and Deshpandes. Though petitioning was not a new feature introduced by the Company, in the Company period the evidence from the records suggest that whenever there was a problem the cultivators petitioned to the Company. In fact, the petitions were sometimes against the village administrative officials, Zamindars and sometimes against the Collectors.

Generally the cultivators were averse to any changes in the existing revenue systems or modes of a revenue management. Though a common practice which was generally followed was desertion of villages in the case of oppression they did represent their grievances to the Board. For instance, in the estate of Divi, when the Collector proposed a change in the existing system in the wet lands from Ausara, the cultivators sent a petition to the Board and refused to take up the lands under the 101 new contract.

Whenever the terms of contract were not to their advantage
the cultivators combined with the head inhabitants petitioned
the government. For instance, some of the Brahmin inhabitants

of Viswanadhapalli in Divi taluk combined with Dastakdar of the village compelled the other ryots not to under take the dry lands under Visabadi tenure. Having sent the petitions to the Collector and also to the Board, they proceeded to Madras to present 102 their case.

The Zamindar of Devarakota levied extra cesses on the cultivators which were not customary in the region. The cultivators who were aware of the traditional practices in the region filed a petition through a vakeel Chilkalapati Bapıraju against the Zamindars in the Court. The cultivators resorted to the Court because they felt that the Collector was colluding with the 105 Zamindar and his staff to suppress the issue.

What is interesting in all these cases was the awareness of the cultivating groups of the administrative structure of the Company. Though in most of the cases these representations were turned down or the Court rulings went in favour of the economically dominant and politically influential groups. Still the people were aware of the legal redress that could be got from the courts. The Company in strengthening the position of the cultivators and protecting their rights, under the Permanent Settlement defined the powers of the Zamindars and left the cultivators at the mercy of the Zamindars though the Company made provisions for legal proceedings against the Zamindars in case of oppression and frauds against the ryots, in many ways they were not in the

reach of the ryots and even if they were the cultivators could
not afford such measures.

Thus the Agrarian Social structure of the region presented a complex and hierarchically organized multi layered structure where the caste and the customs interacted in many ways. In fact, it was through caste and social customs that the dominant cultivating groups reinforced their social status in the society.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

- For a detailed account of proverbs and the context in which they were used and also for proverbs classified under different heads like Agriculture, family, religion, customs refer P. Narasimha Reddy, <u>Telugu Sametalu Jana Jeevanam</u>, Tirupati, 1983.
- (2). For the details of population in the CITCATS and about the caste occupations see report on the census of the Madras Presidency, 1871 (Report), PP. 144-148.
- (3). Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India, 7, Delhi, 1975, PP. 361-389.
- (4). For a detailed account of cultivating castes in Masulipatnam, see chapter 2; Also for general account on the cultivators see A. Sarada Raju, Economic conditions in the Madras Presidency 1800-1850, Madras, 1941, PP. 31-40; Regarding the Muslims as land owners in Masulipatnam district refer, A Collection of papers relating to the value of land in the early years of the nineteenth Century, SRMG, New Revenue series. 11, Madras, 1916, PP. 84-87.
- (5). For a detailed discussion of the Ulcudi cultivators, and their position in the rural structure, see chapter 2: Also see latter from the Collector Masulipatnam district to the BOP. PBOR. V.821. P.3288.
- <6>. Collector Masulipatnam district to the BOR, 1784, MDR, v. 2894/d, P.1263; For an account of the non resident cultivators of North India and other cultivating groups see Zamindari Settlement in Bengal, v.1, 1879, (Rept. Delhi, 1985), PP.174-178.
- (7). Inhabitants of Guntur to the Collector Guntur district, April 1841, PBOR. V.519, PP.3071-3074; Also for a general discussion on the landless agricultural labouring groups see Dharma Kumar, 'Caste and Landlessness in South India', Indian Historical Review. 12, 142, (1985), PP. 337-363.
- (8). For an account of the customs and traditions see Edgar Thurston. <u>Caste and Tribes of South India</u>, V.4, Delhi, 1975. PP. 292-325 and 329-387.
- (9). P. Narasimha Reddi, <u>Telugu Sametalu Jana Jeevanam</u>. Tirupati, 1983, P.134.
- (10).Kotha Bhavayya Choudhary, Kammavari Charitramu, 1, Sangam Jagarlamudi, 1939, P.205.
- (11). Venkata Ratnam, Campbell, veeresalingam <ed.), Charles

- Philip Brown Dictionary Telugu-English New Delhi. 1986, P.247.
- (12).Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India. 5. New Delhi. 1975, PP. 94-95. But there seemed to be many legends current about the origin of the Kammas.
- (13).Kotha Bhavayya Choudhary. Kammavari Charitramu. 1, Sangam Jagarlamudi, 1959. P.206.
- (14).For an account of how Velamas originally formed a part of the Kammas and how they formed a separate caste, see Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India.</u>7, Delhi, 1975, P. 337.
- <15).Kotha Bhavayya **Chaudhari**, <u>Kammavari **Charitramu**</u>, 1, **Sangam** Jagarlamudi. **1939**, P. 205.
- (16).Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India.</u> 3, Delhi. 1975, **P.97.**
- (17).Ibid.
- <18>.Kotha Bhavayya Chaudhari, <u>Kammavari **Charitramu**</u>, **1**. Sangam Jagarlamudi, 1959. **P.206**.
- (19).Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India</u>, 3. Delhi, 1975. P.101.
- (20).Kotha Bhavayya Chaudhuri, <u>Kammavari Charitramu</u>, 1, Sangam Jagarlamudi. 1939, P. 212.
- (21).For a detailed account of the house names of each caste with their gotras refer Thella Sathyavathi, Teluguvari Intiperlu (Socio-Linguistic Study of Telugu Names), Guntur, 1987.
- (22).Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India, 3. Delhi,
 1975. P. 105.
- (23).Divakarla Venkatavadhani(et.al). Telugu Sametalu. Hyderabad, PP. 177-179.
- (24).Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India</u>, 6. Delhi. 1975, P. 249.
- (25). Thella Sathyavathi, <u>Teluguvari Intiperlu</u> (Socio-Linguistic study of Telugu Names). Guntur, 1987.
- (26).For an account of the origin of Razus, their social practices and traditions refer Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India</u>. 6. Delhi, 1975, PP. 247-256.
- (27). Ibid.

- (28).W. H. Wilson, Glossary of Judicial and Revenue terms and of useful words occurring in official documents relating to the administration of the government of British India. Delhi, 1968, P.262.
- (29). Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India, 3, Delhi, 1975, pp. 225-228.
- (30).For a brief account of the Castes and their social practices and also for proverbs relating to the castes refer P. Narasımha Reddi, Telugu Sametalu Jana Jeevanamu, Tirupati, 1983.
- (31).Kolluri Kama Sastrulu, Sudra Kamalakaramu., Madras, 1912.
- (32). Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India. 1, Delhi, 1975, P.138-139.
- (33) . Ibid.
- (34).For a description of the Zamindari estates and the family history of the Zamindari see `A Report on the Zamindaris of Masulipatnam', 1823, SRMG, PP. 3-27.
- (35).Kotha Bhavayya Chaudhuri, <u>Kammavari Charitramu</u>, 2, **Sangam** Jagarlamudi, 1939, P.205.
- (36).Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India, 7. Delhi. 1975, P. 341.
- (37).For a discussion on the agricultural labouring groups and their position in the agrarian structure see **Dharma** Kumar,

 Land and Caste in South India. Agricultural labour in the Madras Presidency during the nineteenth century Cambridge, (1965), PP. 33-48 and 144-167.
- (38).For an account of the social habits of Malas and Madigas refer Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India, 4, Delhi, 1975, PP. 292-325 and PP. 329-387.
- (39).For a clear account of the Pariahs in Masulipatnam and their weaving see P. Swarnalatha, `The World of the weaver in the Northern Coromandel 1750-1850', Ph.D thesis, University of Hyderabad, June, 1991. pp.78-80.
- (40).For an account of Right and Left hand division and the castes that come under each division see Arjun Appadurai, 'Right and Left hand castes in South India', IESHR, 11, 2, (1974), PP. 216-259.
- (41). Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India. 4. Delhi, 1975. P. 331.
- (42). Ibid.

- (43).For a detailed account of number of people under each division in the district see Report on the census of the Madras Presidency, 1871.
- (44).For the condition of these castes and their position in the society see V. Rama Krishna, <u>Social Reform in Andhra</u>, 1848-1919, Delhi. 1985. PP. 1-56.
- (45).Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India</u>, 4, Delhi. 1975, P. 296.
- (46) Ibid. P. 297.
- (47).P. Narasimha Reddi, <u>Telugu Sametalu Jana</u> **Jeevanamu**, Tirupati, 1985. P.135.
- (48). Ibid.
- (49).Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India.</u>4, Delhi, 1975. PP. 508-509.
- (50).For the details of the Inam lands held by muslims in the Masulipatnam district see `A Collection of papers relating to the value of land in the early years of the Nineteenth Century'. <u>SRMG</u>. New Revenue Series, 11, Madras. 1916, PP. 84-87.
- (51). For the early revenue administration in the region see Lanka Sundaram, 'The Revenue Administration of Northern Circars 1769-1786', Journal of the Andhra Historical Research Society, 7-15. Rajahmundry, (1932).
- (52).Gordon Mackenzie, <u>A Manual of the Krishna District</u> in the Presidency of Madras. Madras, 1885, **P.274**.
- (53). The evidence suggests that Muslims in Masulipatnam district enjoyed land grants. For details see, Table A 15. A 16. A 17.
- (54).For figures of the cultivators belonging to different faiths in various taluks of Masulipatnam, see table AV
- (55).Edgar Thurston. Caste and Tribes of South India, 5, Delhi. 1975. PP.237-238.
- (56).For the importance of the Bhatrajus the Social Occasions and how the Zamindars maintained them and gave presents on any social occasions see Report from the Collector to the BOR, 4.1.1828, PBOR, V.1154. p.651.
- (57). Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India, 5. Delhi. 1975, P.245.
- (58). Ibid, p.247.

- (59). Ibid, 7, p.340.
- (60). For details of how each caste was dependent on other castes in their social customs and traditions see, Edgar Thurston. Caste and Tribes of South India, 7, Delhi, 1975.
- (61).For a detailed account of the ceremonies performed and the amount spent on different groups in the Zamindari families during the death ceremonies see Collector to the BOR, 4.1.1828, PBOR, v.1134, p.652.
- <62).Adidamu Sura Kavi, `Ramalinga Satakamu', In Suravaram Prata-pa reddy, <u>Andhrula Sanghika Charitra</u>, Hyderabad. 1982, P. 346.
- (65>.B. Rama Raju, <u>Telugu Jana Pada Geya Sahityamu</u>, Hyderabad, 1958, pp.792-793.
- (64).Mention is made of these Caste beggars called Pichikuntlu in literacy sources also. For details see Suravaram Pratapa Reddi. Andhrula Sanghika Charitra, Hyderabad. 1982; P. Narasimha Reddi, Telugu Sametalu Jana Jeevanamu, Tirupati, 1983.
- (65).Ibid.
- <66>.Kotha Bhavayya Chaudhuri, <u>Kamma van Charitramu</u>, 1, Sangam Jagarlamudi, 1939, P. 212.
- (67). Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India. 6. Delhi, 1975, P.29.
- (60).B. Rama Raju, <u>Telugu Jana Pada Geya Sahityamu</u>, Hyderabad, 1958, p.800
- (69). Edgar Thurston, <u>Caste and Tribes of South India</u>. 5, Delhi, 1975, P.102.
- (70). Ibid, 2, pp.112-114.
- (71). For a detailed study of Right and Left hand division in the Society in the South and the nature of disputes refer Arjun Appadurai, 'Right and Left Hand Castes In South India', IESHR, 11, 2, (1974), PP. 217-259.
- (72).Kotha Bhavayya Chaudhuri, Kamma vari Charitramu, 1, Sangam Jagarlamudi, 1939, P. 212.
- (73).F. Brenda Beck, 'The Right left division of South Indian Society', JAS. 29. (1970). Pp. 779-798.
- (74).C. D. Maclean, Manual of the Administration of the Madras
 Presidency in illustration of the Records of the Records of

- Government and the yearly Administration Report, 1, Madras, 1885.
- (75).Arjun Appadurai, `Right and Left Hand Castes in South India¹, IESHR, 11, 2, (1974), P. 217.
- (76).Burton Stein. Peasant state and Society in Medieval south India, Cambridge, Delhi, 1985, p. 175.
- (77). Ibid.
- (78). Each division had certain set of norms to be strictly followed only by them during social occasions. For an account of these practices between both the groups see, Arjun appadurai, 'Right and Left had castes in south India', IESHR, 11,2 (1974) p. 252-257. Kotha Bhavayya Chaudhuri, Kammavari Charitramu, 1, Sangam Jagarlamudi, 1939, p. 214.
- (79) Kotha Bhavayya Chaudhari, <u>Kammavari Charitramu</u>, 2, Sangam Jagarlamudi. 1959. pp. 214-216.
- (80). Edgar Thurston, Caste and Tribes of South India, 7. Delhi, 1975, pp.362-363.
- (81). Ibid, pp. 362-364.
- (82). Andre Beteille. Caste. Class and power; Changing Patterns of stratification in a Tanjore village, California, 1971, p.48.
- (83).P. Narasımha Reddi, <u>Telugu Sametalu Jana Jeevanamu</u>, Tirupati, 1985. p.121.
- (84). For a detailed account of the Zamindaris expenditures on cloths and the variety of cloths Zamindars had see Report from the Collector Masulipatnam to the BOR, 4.1.1828, PBOR, v. 1154. pp. 649-651.
- (85).Collector Guntur district to the BOR. PBOR, v.519, p.3871.
- (86).Literary sources have many references to settlements of this kind, which was a common feature in almost every village for details see, Suravaram Pratapa Reddi, Andhra Sanghika Charitra, Hyderabad. 1982.
- (87).C.D. Maclean, Glossary of the Madras Presidency, Delhi, 1982, p.13; for a settlement pattern of various castes in the villages see Andre Beteille, Caste, class and power, Changing patterns of stratification in a Tanjore village, California, 1971.
- (88). Kaifiyat on Bandar' Village Kaifiyats Krishna district. Andhra Pradesh State Archives publications, Hyderabad, 1991, pp.15-17.

- <89).N. Gopi, Praja Kavi Vemana. Hyderabad, 1980, pp. 176-187.</p>
- (96). Brahmachari Vishwanathji, `Christianity in India. A critical Study. Madras. 8.2. (1979), p. 144.
- (91). For a brief account of the activity of the Christian missionaries in Andhra and the attitude of the company see V. Rama Krishna, <u>Social reform in Andhra (1848-1919)</u>, Delhi, 1983. pp. 49-56.
- (92).G. Krupachari. <u>Telugu Sahityaniki Chirstavula Seva</u>, Guntur, 1988, p.82.
- (93).Vittal Rao, Education and learning in Andhra under the East India Company. Secunderabad, 1979, p.42.
- (94). Ibid.
- (95).G. Krupachari, <u>Telugu sahityaniki Christavula seva</u>, Guntur, 1988, p.90.
- (96).Brahmachari Vishwanathji, `Christianity in India, a Critical study. Madras, 8,2, (1979), p. 147.
- (97).Regarding the details of Educations institutions and the nature of student composition in Masulipatnam district,

 Dharam pal, The Beautiful Tree: Indigenous Indian Education
 in the Eighteenth Century, Delhi, 1983, pp. 160-165.
- (98). Ibid. pp. 157-158.
- (99). Ibid.
- (100).P. Narasimha Reddi, <u>Telugu Samethalu jana jeevanamu</u>, Tirupati, 1983, p.118.
- (101).R.J. Porter Collector Masulipatnam to the BOR. 20.4.1844, PBOR, v.1134, p.6597.
- (102).Arzee from Lakshmi Narsaiah, Tahsildar of Divi taluk to R.J. Porter Collector Masulipatnam district. 29.1.1844, PBOR. v.1913. pp. 6602-6606.
- (103).An Arzee from Chilakapati Bapiraju vakeel on the part of the head inhabitants of Devarakota pargana to the BOR, 3.2.1817. Board's Proceedings (miscellaneous records) vol. 39. (no page numbers).