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CENSUS OF INDIA, 1901. VOLUME XIX.

## CENTRAL INDIA.



PART I.

## REPORT

BY<br>CAPTAIN C. ECKFORD LUARD, M. A. (Oxon.)<br>supernatiendenty of consus oprbations.



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From

> Captank C. E. LUARD, I. S. C., Superintendent of Census Operations, Central India. To

Captain C. J. WIndham, I. S. C., First Assistant to the Honorable the Agent to the

Governor-General in Central India. Dated, Central India Agency, Indore the 24th May ${ }^{\prime} 1902$, Sir,

I have the honor to forward herewith the report on the Census of Central India for 1901; for submission to the Honorable the Agent to the GovernorGeneral in Central India.

The work was commenced by the late Captain A. MacIver Campbell on 2nd June 1900, afterwards taken up by me on 26th November 1900.
2. This is the first occasion on which the Census for Central India has been carried out on exactly the same lines as in British India. The same schedule was used in recording the figures, and all Tables, obligatory and optional, have been compiled. Unfortunately the destruction. of all pergana figures after the Census of 1891 has, in certain cases, made comparison impossible and robbed the results of some of their value.

The abstraction of the records commenced in March-1901, the report appearing in May 1902 , or 14 months after, which compares favourably with the time taken on the last occasion.
3. The report is divided into four volumes. The two first volumes, XIX and XIX-A, contain the letter-press of the report and the Imperial Tables, which give results by political charges. The third volume, XIX-B, contains statistics by states, and is known as the Provincial Part. The fourth volume is the Administrative volume and describes the working of the Census.

The third volume will be of most importance to Darbars. I could not in this volume give everything that had been recorded, as space would not allow of it, but I think that everything that is likely to be required administratively, has been included. If any information is wanted on special points it can always be obtained from the Tabulation Registers preserved in the ofice. I have also in this volume given some short notes on the Census' of the more important states in each charge, and also a few subsidiary tables. Besides this a note on . the effect of famine, and on overcrowding in the Agent to the Governor-General's Camp has been added.

The fourth volume gives a detailed account of the carrying out lof the Census. Only a few copies are printed, as practically it will only concern the officer in charge of the next Census.
4. It will be noticed that no mention is made of Gwalion State in any volume. As a special report has been written for that State by Mr. Johnstone it was not necessary to deal with it.
5. The report is divided into ten Chapters dealing with the usual subjects. I have in each case begun the Chapter with an introductory paragraph giving, as far as possible, a résumé of the results. This will, I hope, be of use to those who are sufficiently interested in Central India to want to know something of the conditions obtaining there without being obliged to wade about in a sea of figures. I had hoped to have given in Chapter III a full account of the special forms of worship (they can scarcely be called sects), which are met with in Bundelkhand. Unfortunately the supineness of a single Darbar so delayed the collection of the necessary information that I have been reluctantly obliged to abandon this scheme, and content myself with a brief sketch only.
6. Chapter VIII deals with a difficult subject of which I do not profess to have any special knowledge. All that is intended is to give local examples illustrating, certain caste institutions which regulate inter-marriage and social intercourse. I had also intended, originally, to give a fuller account of certain tribal characteristics, but when the Ethnographic Survey was sanctioned I cut the matter out.

A good deal of information was collected on miscellaneous subjects, such as tattooing, curious sect marks, etc., but I found that without many diagrams it would be impossible to deal with it properly, and therefore I have not touched on it.
7. As to the conduct of the work I think all Darbars and Native State Oficials may fairly be congratulated on the carrying out of the enumeration.

The Provisional Totals were all sent in on March 6th-no inconsiderable achievement in a country where elaborate arrangements are often required to ensure rapid communication owing to the broken nature of State areas in Central India, and the lack of telegraphs. In spite of the haste used in getting in results these totals only differed-by 0.02 from: the final results arrived at after abstraction.

Where all have done their best it may be invidious to draw comparison, but the clearest and best written up books among the large'. States were those from Riwa, among the small from the Petty States of Bhopawar.
8. Besides the figures the Census has entailed endless queries on endless subjects. I can only tender my grateful thanks to all Political Agents and State Officials, to whom, I fear, I have been a wearisome burden, for the able and ready way in which they have supported me. In conclusion, I must offer my special thanks to Rai Sahib Kashi Pershad of Charkhari, who beisides supplying me with numerous interesting' notes. has in truth-done everything for the Bundelkhand Census. Also to Mr. D. F., Vakil of Ratlam, Khan Bahadur N. M. Khory of Dhar, Lala Raushan Lal, Superintendent of Narsingarh, and Rao Bahadur Narayan Rao Bhikaji, late Diwan of Jbabua for their admirable monographs on various subjects, which have done much in adding interest to the pages of the report and in assisting me. in my endeavour to give some. life to the very dry bones of Census. To Bhan Shastri of Indore my thanks are due for information on castes and local groups.

The Givalior Census was carried out entirely by Mr. Johnstone, who had this burden added to his ordinary duties - no light task. My sincerest thanks are due to him for the help he has given me, and for the way be put up with and alopted my methods. A pleasanter colleague to work with I could not have wished for, To Rai Sahib Pandit Dwarka Nath, his Personal Assistant, I would also convey my thanks.

For the care with which the work has been done at the headquarter office I am deeply indebted to the untiring energy displayed by my Head Clerk Shridhar Pant, than whom I could wish for no better assistant in work of this kind, and also by Gopal Rao Khanwalkar who did all the work of preparing subsidiary tables and the various calculations which were necessary. S. M. Chunekar, who was deputed by the Indore Darbar to look after their portion of the Census and who has been at head-quarters throughout has done first class work and relieved the Imperial staff of much trouble.

It is impossible to mention by name all who have worked with me. The following who had charge of Agencies, Messrs. K. M. Pusalkar, B. A., Maneckji Jamshedji, RR.G. Natu, B. A., C.M. Tembe, Utam Nurayan, Dinshaw Bazonji and Shiva Pratap deserve all praise. I trust that the many others who have worked with me and done good service will accept my thanks for their exertions.

I must also thank the Darbars of Dhar and Ratlam, and Seth Chand Mal of Ratlam for kindly placing houses at my disposal during the abstraction.
9. Sir Lepel Griffin said in regard to the Census of Central India in 1881 :-
"It must be understood that the returns of Central India are only approxi-" " mate and only approaching the truth in that they concern areas so large and ". "populations so varied, that the average percentage of error being the same and" "the excess in one direction counterbalancing the deficiency in the other, a rea-" "sonably correct result may be assumed to have been obtained. But to accept"" "these figures for purposes of more minute and precise analysis, to assume the" "figures supplied by the States to be data from which correct and useful con-" "clusions may be drawn would be altogether to mistake their character, and if" "these conclusions purely fanciful and fictitious were incorporated with the ace" "curate reports and irrefragible deductions of the Census of British India an". "element of error would be introduced which would vitiate the whole proceed-" "ings of the Census."
,"The Census returns of Central India are for comparative and deductive" "purposes not worth the paper on which they are written."

I think the Census may on this occasion lay claims to greater accuracy and be held worthy of incorporation with those of the rest of India, and that the experience now gained will materially increase the accuracy of the next enumeration.

I have the honor to be, Sir, Your most obedient servant,

C. E. LUARD, Captain, Superintendent of Census Operations,

Central India.

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## INTRODUCTORY.

I. Central India. -Judging from experience it would appear to require strong measures to impress people with the fact that Central India is not the Ceutral Provinces nor even a part of the Bombay Presidency. 1 have been so fur unable to obtain any definite information as to how the name of Central India, a translation probably of "Madhya Desha" or the middle country came to be restricted to this Agency. The name as used by Hindu Geographers appears to have bad a much wider signification.

Colonel Tod appears to have first used the term in 1815 when drawing a map of a prrtion of Rajputana and Malwa, (Fide "Western India" ax).

The Central India Agency was formed in 1854 when Sir R. Hamilton was appointed Agent to the Governor-General.

The Central İidia Agency lies between $21^{\circ} \cdot 24^{\prime}$ and $26^{\circ}-52^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. Latitude and $74^{\circ}-0^{\prime}$ and $53^{\circ}-0^{\prime}$ E. Longitude and may be said to consist of two large detached tracts of country, which with Jhansi as a pivot, spring outwards east and west into the Peninsula, reaching northwards to within some 30 miles of Agra, and southwards to the valley of the Narbada and the Vindhya and Satpura ranges. The total area is 78,772 square miles, almost equal to that of Holland, Belgium, Greece, Denmark, and Switzerland, combined.

It is bounded on the north and north east by the North-West Provin: ces, on the west and south-west by Rajputana, some Native States of the Bombay Presidency, and Khandesh. The Central Provinces and the Bengal district of Chutia Nagpur enclose it on the south and east, while the Jhansi district of the North-West Provinces separates the two tracts.
2. Physical Characteristics. The physical characteristics of a country, geological and climatic, are so intimately connected with the means of subsistence of the people, which determine their distribution over its area, as well as with its etknology, that I think a brief description of these characteristics will not be out of place here.

We may divide Central India into tbree great natural divisions. The Highlands of the Malwa Platenu, with a mean elevation of some 1,500 feet above seă-level; the Low-lying country some 600 feet above sea-level, comprisung the greater part of the Eastern section of the Agency; and the Hilly-tracts "which lie mostly to the South

## 3. . Geological History.-To take the Highlands first-

Every traveller from Bombay into Central India must have noticed the abrupt rise he makes after passing Barwabs and Choral stations on the Holkar State Railway. This rise takes him over the edge of the Vindhya range and on to the Malwa Plateau. He will, during his journey, have been struck with the similarity in the appearance of the country passed through.

Great undulating plains, separated by flat-topped hills, whose sides are boldy terraced, with here and there a scarp rising above the general level : the flora consisting of long grass, stunted trees, and scrab, which owing to the prevalence of deciduous plants is, except in the rains, of a uniform straw colour. Abul-Fazl, the author of the Ain-i-Akbari, thus describes the Platean "the situation of tbis Soobah, (of Malwa) compared with the other parts of Hindostan, is somewhat high, and all the land is arable. Both harvests are very good. Wheat, poppies, sugarcane and grapes are here in high perfection. In Hasalpur (near Mhow) the vine bears fruit twice a jear, The betel leaf is very fine. Here are manufactured very good cloths." (Gladwin),

The foundation of this plateau is a bed of sandstone and shales belonging to the Vindhyan series. This bed which stretches east and west from Sasseram to Nimach, and north and south from Agra to Hoshangabad coupprises the whole of the Agency, except the northern part of Bundelkhand.

On the plateau itself the sandstones are generally overlaid by the "Dekban Trap" a blackish coloured basaltic rock of volcanic origin, the high-level tableland having been formed by a succession of Lava flows, the valleys of Central India being merely "denudation hollows", carved out by the action of rain and rivers. It is apparently the northern limit of what was once a vast basaltic plain stretching from Guna to Belgam, " one of the most gigantic out-pourings of volcanic matter in the world " (Geikie). The sandstone bed on which it gests is visible at a point just north of Guna, and in a small area round Bhilsa and Bhopal, as it is in these places freed from the layer of Trap.

The Low-lying land includes roughly that part of the Á gency which lies to the east of the Plateau and comprises the greater part of the Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand political charges, and the country pround Gwalior. The form, ation save in north Bundelkhand is sandstone of the Yindhyan series free as a rule from 'Trap', In the north of Bundelkband the prevailing rock is Gneiss (a very old formation) and Quartz. The Quartz takes the shape of long serrat, ed ridges which are in many places a characteristic feature of the lañdscape. Trap appears here and there in intrusive "dykes".

The Hilly;tracts lie chiefly to the south of the Agency, where the Vindhyz, Satpura and Kaimur ranges are met with. The country is rough forest and jungle land little used for cultivation.

4, Soil and Crops.-The greater part of Central India is covered with the well-known "Black Cotton soil", produced by the disintegration of the Trap rock. It is a very rich loamy earth, passessing an unusual power of retaining moisture, which makes artificial irrigation little needed: Its great fertility is largely due to the organic matter it contains, , Opium and Millet are the prin cipal crops grown upon it,

The ordinary "Red soil" covers a laige part of northern Bundelkhand and, as it requires much irrigation, tanks are a special feature in this country.

A word may be said regarding the "red laterite" (lateritis $=a$ brick), which overlies the Trap in many places, as at Nimach. It is a bright red earth containing a large proportion of iron salts from which it gets its cololour. It is too porous to be of much use agriculturally.

The crops grown in any country are of course dependent on the soils met with.

In Malwa on the Plateau land there is considerable variety of soil.
First comes the "Black Cotton" already mentioned, known locally as "Maletry," "Mal," or "Mar." It bears Opium, Cotton and Millet crops.

Next in order of fertility comes "Gohaii" a black soil but much lighter, more sandy in constitution. It bears Wheat, Gram, Alsi (linseed), Juar, etc., withont irrigation ; Sugar-cane and Opium with careful irrigation.
"Adan" cammon garden soil requiring irrigation.
Common to both Lowlying and Hilly country are "Kharda" a light sandy soil often strewn with boulders, and "Eardi" which is much atin to it. They bear Makka and Juar, and require irrigation.

The Lowlying tracts also have a fertile soil called "Galat" which will bear Oats, and, when water is very plentiful, rice.

The Hilly tracts are in most places covered with a soil called from its colour "Pandhri," a white sandy stone-strewn soil not of much use in cultivation.

The tables attached shew the crops, their seasons and the side, east or west of the Agency in which they are chiefly grown; where possible area and out-turn are given.

In the east the poor man's crops, and therefore the most important, are Saman, and Kodo, while in the west Makka is the most important.

The staple products of the east are Bajra, Kodo, Kutki, Latera, Saman, Barley, and Gram, of the west Bajra, Juar, Cotton and Opium.

This account is not exhaustive but will give some idea of the difference that exists between the east and west or roughly speaking the Plateau and Lowlying country.

These natural divisions of Plateanu, Low-lying land and Hilly-tracts will be. used throughout the report in commenting on the results.

These divisions differ slightly from those decided on by H, E. the Viceroy. I bave made this selection as $I$ think it brings out better local, physical, and ethnological variations. In the Imperial scheme Gwalior, by which Gwalior Residency is no doubt meant, and Bundelkhand are included in the Platean.

There is, however, i very great difference in the country. The descent off -the Plateau near Gwalior town is most marked, and the difference in climate such as every traveller cannot fail to notice when he passes from the high land into the district round Gwalior. From this point the country is practically the eame, and stretcies east to the end of the Agency, embracing all Bundlekhand and Bagbelkhand except such portions as I have placed under the "Hilly Tracts" division.

Ethnologically as well as climatically the differences between the Platean and the Eastern part of the Agency are distinct and the languages markedly so.
$10-V \& V 1$.
$16-\mathrm{V} 5 \& 6$

On the Plateau we meet with the Rnjput races, families whose ancestry can be traced back for centuries, with all their numerous offshoots. In the Lowlying country we find Rajputs again but to a large extent Rajputs whose descent is mixed and with whom the families of the Plateau will in most cases have no marriage connection whatever.

These low-lying tracts embrace part of the "East Satpuras" region of the Imperial scheme and part of the Central India Plateau (Bundelkhand).

The Hilly tracts are climatically very distinct from the Platean and physically consist of rough jungle land sparsely inbabited.

The races met with are semi-civilised tribes who often flee at the mere sight of a white man, and who have as yet, in most cases, been but little affected even by the all pervading, all embracing Hindu religion of their rulers.

My division of the Hilly tracts includes all the Vindhyns, Satpuras, and Kaimur ranges and thus takes in a part of the "Central India Plateau" and "East Satpuras" regions of the Imperial scheme.
5. Climate.-Ourdata of the climatic factors of Central India are somewhat scanty, but such as I have been able to get from the Meteorological Department are condensed in the Subsidiary Table. This shews that the Plateau is distinguished from the Low-lying tract by the greater equability of its mean temperature during the jear, while its diurnal range is considerable Thus in Indore the temperature ranges through some $30^{\circ}$, in January, while at Nowgong it falls through some $26^{\circ}$ only; In July, there is a difference of some $5^{\circ}$ between the maximum temperature of Indore and Nowgong. These peculiarities of the Plateau climate have long been known as their further quotation from the Ain-i-Akbari shews.
"The climate is so temperate that in 'the winter there is no occasion for warm clothing, nor is it necessiry in summer to cool the water with saltpetre. But in the four rainy monthis, the night here is cold enough to render a quilt necessary." (Gladwin).

The great mountain range which runs across the peninsula at the south of the Agency has a marked effect on the climate. Together with the two parallel valleys of the Narbada and the Tapti this range gives the prevailing wind. its west to east direction, and also assists to condense and distribute wuch moisture over Central India.

The greater part of the Agency is fed by the " south-west" monsoon. There is no change of wind as in northern India but the rapid substitution of a saturated 'west wind for a dry one takes place, accompanied. by a great fall of temperature. This rain-bearing current from the sea reaches Central India, as the average of the last 10 years' shews, about July lyth and lasts till the end of September.

The Eastern part of the Agency, which lies near the Gangetic phain is partly served by the " north-east" monsoon'as well as the "South-west," being situated near the junction of the two currents. The raius here last rather loter, as a comparison of the relative humidity of October, November, and December in Nimach and Nowgong shews.

There are no good data for the rough hilly tracts, but it would appear, that their rainfall is much the same as that of the Plateau.
6. Administrative Divisions-As can be seen in the Subsidiary Table, the Central India Agency is for administrative pürposes divided into eight units, two classed as Residencies and 6 as Agencies. For the purposes of the returns these divisions have been treated as if they were "Districts." Many changes in area have taken place since 1891, the most important being the formation of the Indore Residency under a Resident.: Every endeavour has been made to adjust the areas but the absence of regular surveys in most States makes the task almost impossible, and the result at best only approximate. Where surveys have been made the result has generally been to reduce the supposed area, and it is probable, I think, that fresh measurements will still further reduce the figure, States being inclined to overestimate their territory.

The Railway area was in 1891 distributed according to the magisterial jurisdiction. This seems to me a mistake as it is with territorial divisions only that a Census is concerned, and I have, therefore, included this area in the territory of the Agency in which it is situated. The one British District of Manpur, which lies in Central India, is included in the Bhopawar Agency, as it is administered by the Political Agent there.

I may call attention here to the fact that I have avoided using the word Agency in reference to the districts under Political officers as $I$ found that much confusion arose between Yolitical Agencies and the Central India Agency. I have, therefore, throughout the report used the term "Agency" for the whole Central India Agency only, and "political charge" or "district" for the territory under Political Agents.

A Brief Description of tee Census.
7: Previous Enumerations.-The First record we have of an enumeration taking place in Central India is that of a portion of Malwa which was carried out by Sir John Malcolm in 1820.

Only a small section of the country was dealt with, and the record was restricted to the number of houses and people. I have in the Provincial Volume compared these figures with those of later enumerations.

The next enumeration, the first attempt at a systematic Census, was made ,in 1881.

This enumeration was done by States only, not by Political charges. A comparison of results with those of the last Census and that of 1891 will be found in the Provincial Volume.

A modified schedule was used on this occasion containing only eight columns instend of twelve as the British India Schedule did. The British India Schedule was, however, used in the case of Railways and Cantonments.

The modified schedule recorded-
(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
(6)
(7)

Serial Number. Name. Sex. Age. Religion, Caste. Birthplace; Occupation
The next Census took place in 1891.
The same method was adopted as regards schedules as in 1881. The compilation was done at the headquarters of each political charge.
S. Census of 1901 :-The present Census is the first in which exactly the same information was collected as in British India, and the same tables prepared for the whole Agency, no distinction being made forRailways and Cantonments. The compilation for whole of Central India, except Gwalior State, was done at at a Central Office at Indore.
9. Ditis of Enumeration:-The unit of emumenation was the State. Large States appointed their own Census officer, in the case of small States and Estates the Political officer appointed a man to supervise the operations of a group of sach small holdings.

There was one exception to this procedure, the $G$ wallor State had their own Census Commissioner, Mr. Johnstone, who wrote a State repart. The Gralior figures, except in so far as they form part of the total figures, are, therefore, not touched on in this report, and no Gwalior State Tables are given in Vol. XIX-B

The first action of a State Census officer was to divide up his territory into pnits of convenient size,

The experience of the two previous enumerations had made matters easiew. No trouble was met with even in enumerating the wild tribes who were deal $\$$ with through men whom they knew well and trusted. Generally the work was very well done in spite of difficulties as to agency, want of communications, etc., which had to be overcome.

The schedule on this occasion contained sixteen columns recording : $\rightarrow$
(1). House Number,
(2). Serial Number,
(3). Name.
(4). Religion and Sect,
(5). Sex.
(6). Married, Jnmarried or Widowed.
(7). Age,
(8). Caste and Sub-caste or Race and Tribe;
(9). Principal occupation.
(10). Subsidiary occupation,
(11), Dependency,
(12). Birth-place,
(13). Language and dialect used at home
(14). Literacy,
(15), Knowledge of English, if any.
(16). Infirmity;

The most difficult column was No. 11. In this column was entered the accupation of the individual on whom the person being enumerated was dependent, e. g., in the case of a Khidmatgar's child the entry in column (1I) was "Khidmatgar" and meant that the child. was dependent on a Khidmatgar for livelihood. It was not, I must confess, easy to give any general pule by which an enumerator could say, especially in the case of women, when a person was to be considered as dependent. I went into the question most carefully during my tour and I think that the difficulty was to all intents and purposes sur-: mounted, but the column was not an easy one to fill in correctly, and a certain number of wrong entries probsbly took place.

I found that peculiar ideas existed in one district as to what should be patered in the Language column. This, however, I set at rest by a circular notice and agve for a return of Sanskrit from one State the record was correct:

To begin with the smallest unit the "Block"" was a group of from 30 to 50 houses. It was in charge of an enumerator whose duty it was to record all persons living in the houses, and to go round and check these entries on the night of the Census proper.

The "Circle" was the next unit. It consisted usually of 10 to 15 Blocks, and was in charge of a Supervisor who saw that the enumerators did their work properly, and understood orders.
$\therefore$ The nest unit was the "Charge." It was composed of a group of Circles, and was under a Superintendent, who attended to the general management of the Charge. The Charge was as a rule some recognized revenue or magisterial division of the State sach as a tahsil or pergana.

The basis of the enumeration wà the "Hoase." For Census purposes this had to be defined. In Central India it was laid down that every building having aseparate main entrance leading into a street was to be given a separate number. Thas a two-storied house in a town with only one doorway, even if let in flats, would have but one number assigned to it. Large buildings such as palaces were treated as separate blocke, while rows of servants qüarters were given one number for the row and letters to distinguish the rooms thus, $\frac{24}{A}, \frac{24}{B}$, etc. House-lists were prepared giving the number of people in each house and the number of families.
10. Agency.-It was not generally speaking easy to obtain persons qualified to act as enumerators. The native $S_{\text {tates in }}$ Central India have not as a rule a revenue establishment from which it is possible to borrow men, and schools are not sufficiently numerous to provide yorths_who can read and write, in any quantity. In one small State oukly tivo persons sufficiently literate to have carried out the work could be found, one was the "Kamdar" the other the State accountant, as it was not possible to obtain their services, enumerators bad to be imported. This was an extreme case but similur difficulties confronted us in many placès.
11. Preliminary Record.-This record was written up in Jinuary and checked in February so as to be ready for the final checking made on the night of March 1st,
12. The Census.-The Census proper took place on the night of March 1st, 1901.

On this night between the hours of 7 and 11 p . m. each enumerator went round the houses in his block and checked the entries, striking out persons who had died or gone away since the Preliminary Record had been taken, and entering any children born or people who had arrived.
13. Special Cases.-Special arrangements were made for the enumeration of serais, railmay trains, big fairs, fords, wandering tribes, etc.
14. Provisional Totals.-Orders were given that the provisional totals as they are called, that is the totals-hastily added up after the checking on March 1st, should reach the Census Commissioner by March 7th.

To do this all the Charge Superintendents were ordered to get their totals made up and telegraphed or sent in to the Political Officer in charge of their district as soon as possible. The Political Officer then wired the total figures for bis Agency to the Census Commissioner direct, a copy of the telegram being sent to Indore.

This involved a great deal of arrangement as Post Offices and Ilelegraphs are very few and far between in Central India.

One State had, I am informed, 40 sowar daks bringing in results from distant places.

The totals were necessarily made up very rapidly, but evidently with great care, as there was a difference of 1,814 only on a total of $8,000,000$ or $0: 02$ per cent.

The first political charge to complete its total was Indore Agency and the final figure for Central India was sent to the Census Commissioner on 6th March.
15. Abstraction.-As soon as the State Census officer had got in all his books they were sent to Indore where an office had been started for abstraction and tabulation. As soon as the books were received in the Indore office they were arranged in series by perganas, States and Agencies. Every book was then read through by examiners who noted all mistakes, corrected entries made in the wrong column and any other slips which it was possible to rectify. It was found that most mistakes were made in column 11. The best written up books were those of Dewas, Indore, Nagod, Riwa, Sihor, Maksudangarh, the minor States of Bhopawar, Chhatarpur and Ratlam. The books were then issued to the abstractors. It is the system of abstraction followed in this Census that has enabled the resalts to be arrived at so quickly.
16. Abstraction by Slips.-The abstraction was carried out by the "Slip ssstem." The system of using slips to write up the information in the achedules was firstintroduced by Professor Von Mayer in the Bavarian Census of 1871. The system followed here was a-modification of the Bavarian one, devised by Mr. Risley. Slips of paper were prepared differing in colour and shape and on to these the information out of the schedules was written. There were six different kinds of slip, shewing by their top shape Sex, their bottom shape, Civil Condition, and by their colour, Religion. The diagram below will make this clear.


Numbers $1,2,3$, it will be noticed are all cut square at the top, this square top denotes a "Male" slip. In 4, 5, 6 the top right hand corner is cut off, this denotes a" Female" slip. There are in each of these sets of slips, three shapes given to the bottom of the slip, the square bottom marking "Married condition," the $\Lambda$ shape " Unmarried," and the pointed shape "Widowed." Numbers of slips of these six kinds were cut out in paper of different colours, each religion being assigned a particular shade, Mahomedans 'fere given WFite, Hindus Yellow (Badami), Animists Purple, and so on.

Packets of these slips were then given to abstractors who arranged them in the pigeon holes of their tables (See picture at beginning of Report). All the slips in a horizontal row are of one colour, all the slips in a vertical row of one shape. Thus in hole No. 1 of the top row slips of white colour and shape No. 1. i.e., Male, Married will be found, in the hole immediately below this will be found slips of the same shape but yellorein colour, i.e., for Hindus, in the hole below this is a purple slip of the same shape used for Animists. If we follow along the top row horizontally we shall find that all the slips are white, but that the slip in the second hole is of No. 2-shape, i.e., Male Unmarried, while that in No. 3 is of shape No. 3, i.e., Widower. In No. 4 hole is a slip of shape No. 4, i.e., Female Married, and Nos. 5 and 6 slips of shape Nos. 5 and 6, representing Females Unmarried and Widows, respectively.

In the next row we shall find the slips repeated in the same order but yellow in colour representiog Hindus, while in the row below this they are purple for Aminists, and so on. We will now suppose that an abstractor has got his table arranged and is about to set to work. He seats himself before the table and is given a book of schedules. He first looks through the book to see if the serial numbers of those enumerated are in order, if these are correct he proceeds to work. He then proceeds to read the first entry in the book of schedules.

We will suppose that he finds the first entry is that of a Mahomedan Female Unmarried.

He takes out two slips from hole No. 5 in , the top row and gets slips of white colour and shape No. 5 , that is with the top right hand corner cut off denoting a Female anda $\Lambda$ cut out below marking the Onmarried condition.:

As information regarding Religion, Sex and Civil Condition are thus shewn by the colour and shape he has only to write in other facts recorded in - the scbedule, part of this information is recorded on one slip and part on another.

He first' of all writes "A" on one slip and "B" on the other, and on both slips the number of the book of schedules and the serial number of the person. He then takes the. "A" slip and on this he writes the information be finds recorded as to :-

1 Sects recorded in Column (4) of the schedule.
2 Age $\quad$ do. do. (7) do. do.
3 Caste, Tribe, etc.; Sub-

When a person was illiterate a cross ( $\dagger$ ) was put, and in cases where the entry was negative in character, a line was drawn (- - -

On the " B." Slip was entered:-
1 Caste or tribe (not sub-division) from column ( $\$$ ) of the schedule. ;
2 Pripcipal occupation recorded in " (10) ».

5 Birth-place " $\quad " \quad " \quad$ (13) " "
6 Dialect spoken at home " we have taken shewing how the

Slips for Mahomedan woman :-


For every person two such slips were written up. As soon as a whole . book was finished the "A." and "B" slips were made up into two packets and. labled so as to sherv to what Pergana or Town, Villuge 'or Mohalla and Block they belonged, what number of slips there were in the bandle, who abstracted them, the date and checker's signature.

The tiro bundles were tied up inside the book and passed on to the checkers.

The checking was done by two men at a time for each book, one read the slips while the other checked the entries: with the book. When checked the book was put aside until required for sorting.
17. Sorting and Tabulation-We now come to the stage at which the slips have to be sorted so as to give the information required for the various tables. Each sorting was made so as to lead on to another. Generally speating it was a process akin to dealing a pack of cards, as if consecutive deals were made so as to get the cards.in to a particular order, each deal leading on to the next. Men were told off in gangs, several gangs being under a supervisor. A whole Pergapa was handed oyer to the garig who then proceeded to sort for all tables. To sbew the method followed; I will give the sorting for a few tables as an example.

The VIth table was taken first. For this table it was necessary to get the slips sorted in groups by Religion and Sex. - To do this the slips were sorted into heaps of the same colour and same top shape, (bottom shape being left out of consideration). Say there, were five religions the sorter had to make ten heaps two to each religion thus :-


He then counted the number of slips in each heap and entered the figure in a " Sorter's Ticket." :

This is a form which differs with esch table. For the VIth Table it is as below:-
$\therefore$ Table VI-Sorter's Ticket.

Dated......n ............... . Dated...................................
These tickets were found invaluable in enabling mistakes to be traced and clecked. When all the sorters had finished their tickets they assembled and made a combined ticket for the unit, from which the figures had only to be transferred to the actual Tuble.

We will now return to the sorting. When the VIth table is finished each man has heaps of slips before him sorted by sex and religion.

The next table dealt with was Provincial Table B giving distribntion of non-Chrietian religions by sect.

He takes up each religion heap in turn, preserving the division into male and female, and re-sorts into sect groups getting several emall heaps orte for each sect.

He then as before adds them up and records them on a ticket.
The sorter then recombines the sect groups into heaps of religions.
These have now to be divided up for Table VIII which records Literacy by age-periods, $0-10,10-15,15-20,20$ and over. The heaps were sorted first of all into Literate and Illiterate and the Literate heap further divided up into age groups and language groups of which last there were 4, Hindi, Maratbi Urdu, and English. This was found the quickest method as the literate of Central India are in a very large minority. The numbers of illiterate and of literate under each age-period were entered in the tickets, and combined as before.

- The next table dealt with was Table VII giving statistics of sex by civil condition and age-periods.

The gege-periods into which the slips had been sorted were sub-divided to give the smaller periods now required, viz., $0,1,2,3,4,5$, and then quinquennial periods, six groups being at the same time made up, one for each civil condition and 3 to each sex. The result may be represented thus :-

Mahommedans
and bo on for other religione.

"0 This will, 1 think, give a sufficiently succinct idea of the system followed. The remaining tables were dealt with in the same fashion.
18. Tabulation:-The next step was to write up the tables from the Sorter's tickets.

Tables were first written up by perganas and then combined to give State and Agency totals, and finally the total for all Central India,

## 19. A brief comparision between the old system and the new slip system of Abstraction.

In 1881 the Sheet System was used for Abstraction, that is one man called out all the eatries in the book and several persons noted down the partiaulars on different sheets. Each sheet represented a block or village and in the case of certain Tables were most unwieldy in size

Four sheets were used:-
(1) For Age, Sex, and Religion ,
(2) For Religion and Casta.
(3) For Birth-place.
(4) For Occupation.

In 1891 the abstraction was conducted by passing the book through 4 hands each person noting certain particulars on sheets in the same way as in , 1881.
. On both these occasions a stroke or tick mark was made to represent each individual.

There was no distinctive colored paper for varions religions.
The religions, sexes, and age-periods were printed on the sheets.
The abstractor was very liable to put a stroke in the wrong place as the trouble of running the ese down to the correct column was great. This tended to make the poster write down the particulars in whatever column he chose.

Again in cases of re-abstraction the whole book had to be done afresb, which was a waste of time and trouble.

There was thus very great danger both of making entries in wrong places and of fudging to' complete the task assigned, as re-abstraction meant so much toil and trouble.

The rystem adopted in 1901 was more accurate and trustworthy and entailed less time and laboar, while check was very simple and possible at neveral stages.

- As the slip color and shape distinctly shēred religion, sex, and civil con dition there was no chance of making mistakes in these particulars, any mistake being at once visible to the eye ;and there was far less inclination to fuidge as the abstractor had to write out all the particulars on the distinctive slips which were eventually checked by syecial men and bad work meañt loss of pay.

Whenever re-abstraction was necessary all that the Poster had to do was to re-write a few slips instead of copying the whole book on the old system.

The progress of the work was far quicker, more accurate and more trustworthy.
20. Cost.-The cost of enumeration, abstraction, and tabulation was borne by the states concerned in 1881, 1891, and 1901. The charges for the supervising extabiishment were met from Imperial Funds. Information as to the expense incurred by the Native States is not at present forthcoming, but when it arrives later on mention of it will be made in the administrative volume.

The actual Imperial expenditure per 1,000 of population and per 1,000 houses is compared below:-

|  |  | 1901. | 1891. | 1881. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Actual expenditure |  | 61,500. | 48,622. | 18,891. |
| Cust of per thousand population ... |  | $7 \cdot 1$ | 4.7 | $2 \cdot 0$. |
| Do. houses | -.. | 36.2 | $24 \cdot 7$ | 11.2 |

In this connection it is to be noted that on this occasion the work was cirried out exactly as in British India. The full schedule was used and not a modified one, while all tables optional as well as obligatory have been done. Added to this all statistics have been done on two methods, once by administrative units, and again by states. When this is taken into consideration, the increase of 0.24 per cent. i., e., about 4 annas per 100 persous is not excessive.

## Subsidiary Table No. I.

 of Rainfall.| Year. |  | Plateag. |  |  | Lowlyina Land. |  |  | Hill Tracts. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Rainfall. | Rainydays. | Maxfall. | Rainfall | Rainydays. | Max. fall. | Rainfall. | Rainydays. | Mnx. fall. |
| 1891 | ... | 37-29 | 38 | 3:66 | 42.35 | 52 | 5.30 | 26-14 | 44 | $3 \cdot 25$ |
| 1802 | ... | $39 \cdot 95$ | 47 | 4.34 | 4.41 | 20 | $5 \cdot 24$ | 41.50 | 38 | 329 |
| 1893 | ... | 56.35 | 54 | $4 \cdot 37$ | 45.24 | 58 | 3.63 | 58.87 | 55 | 3.23 |
| 1894 | ... | 30.70 | 58 | 3.91 | 52.99 | 62 | 480 | 51.31 | 52 | $5 \cdot 47$ |
| 1885 | ** | 30.92 | 44 | 3.88 | 33.70 | 48 | 3.34 | 30.44 | 48 | 2.83 |
| 1836 | ... | 32.66 | 36 | 3.93 | 27-27 | 37 | 3.47 | 32:39 | 43 | 4.84 |
| 1897 | ... | 53.64 | 41 | 4.40 | 37.06 | 47 | 429 | $32 \cdot 68$ | 46 | 347 |
| 1898 | ... | 36.64 | 43 | 4.77 | 42.11 | 53 | $3 \cdot 65$ | $50 \cdot 89$ | 48 | 439 |
| 1899 | ... | 1992 | 23 | 4.51 | 31-23 | 33 | 4.9.6 | 19•42 | 27 | 3.06 |
| 1800 | ... | 42.66 | 48 | 5.71 | 35.04 | 48 | $2 \cdot 58$ | 32.93 | 40 | 286 |
| M ${ }_{\text {EAN }}$ | ... | 35.41 | 40 | 4.37 | 37.68 | 48 | $4 \cdot 1]$ | 34-43 | 45 | 9.62 |

Subsidiary Table No. II.
of Mifan Temperature and Humidity.

| Montr. | , | Pratesto. |  |  |  |  |  | Lowlying Land. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Indore. |  |  | Nimach. |  |  | Salna. |  |  | Nougong. |  |  |
|  |  | Max. | Min. | Hum. | Max. | Min. | Hum. | Max. | Min. | Hum. | Max. | Min. | Hum. |
| November | . 0 | 84.8 | 55.0 | 68 | $85 \cdot 8$ | $56 \cdot 1$ | 48 | 83.0 | 85.0 | 63 | 82.6 | 55.4 | 71 |
| Jecember | ... | $80 \cdot 8$ | $50 \cdot 4$ | 61 | 78.8 | $50 \cdot 4$ | 54 | 75.8 | $48 \cdot 6$ | 68 | $75 \cdot 9$ | $48 \cdot 1$ | 75 |
| January | $\cdots$ | $79 \cdot 1$ | 48.9 | 64 | 769 | 48.7 | 56 | 74.5 | 48.5 | 72 | 73.1 | 47.4 | 77 |
| February | . | $83 \cdot 4$ | 52.4 | 53 | 81.3 | $52 \cdot 5$ | 48 | 793 | 53.3 | 60 | 79.4 | 51.0 | 97 |
| March | ... | $32 \cdot 3$ | 60.1 | 41 | 91.2 | 61.2 | 36 | 80.6 | 61.5 | 89 | $91 \cdot 4$ | 603 | 48 |
| April | ... | 101.3 | $70 \cdot 8$ | 42 | 101.2 | $72 \cdot 3$ | 37 | 101.7 | 72.7 | 26 | 1028 | 72.1 | 83 |
| May | *- | 103.0 | 76.5 | 53 | 103.7 | 77.9 | 52 | 106.0 | 81.0 | 30 | 1.773 | 80.7 | 35 |
| June | . | 95.7 | 76.0 | 72 | 98.7 | 77.9 | 59 | 993 | 81.5 | 58 | 1009 | 82.4 | 54 |
| July | ... | 86.2 | 73.0 | 85 | 88.9 | 74.5 | 82 | 88.7 | 77.6 | 82 | 90.3 | 78.6 | 82 |
| Angust | -.. | $82 \cdot 9$ | 71.4 | 89 | $85^{\circ} 6$ | 72.2 | 85 | 86.2 | 76.3 | 87 | $87 \cdot 6$ | $77 \cdot 1$ | 90 |
| September | . 0 | $85 \cdot 2$ | $70 \cdot 2$ | 87 | 87.9 | 714 | 81 | $88 \cdot 3$ | 75.0 | 81 | 89.6 | 75.8 | 83 |
| October | ... | 88.9 | 62.7 | 63 | $91 \cdot 4$ | 63.9 | 51 | 880 | 65.6 | 67 | 89.6 | 64.8 | 70 |
| Year | ... | 88.8 | 64.1 | 64 | 89.3 | 65.0 | 88 | $88 \cdot 4$ | 66.4 | 61 | 89.4 | 660 | 66 |

Subsidiary Table No. III.
Comparative Table.


Subsidiary Table.IV.
Shewng the Administaative Units and tere Area by Natural Divisions.


Subsidiary Table V.-Showing Kharif and. Rali Crops of Central India Agency.



## CHAPTER 1.

## Tar Distribution or Population.

1. Introduciory-I am afraid that it will not be very eass to make the introductory paragraph of this chapter of interest to those, who are not directly connected with the Adninistration, I will, however,' give a résume of the results.

The area under the Agent to the Governor-General in Central India is 78,771.9 square miles, To appreciate fully what this means it is necessary to ápply eome well-known standard. The area of England and Wales as given in the Census of 1891 is 57,979 square miles after deducting water and foreshore aren, so that Central India is 21,000 square miles greater in extent. If we combine the areas of Holland, Deumark; Belgium, Switzerland and Greece we get a total area of $79,5 y 7$ square miles; only some 800 square miles more. As regards the internal distribution of this area the greatest difficulty was experienced.
$\therefore$ Surveys are unknown save in some of the largest states, and the task of drawing up comparative tables has consequently been anything but an easy one; and I was obliged in many cases to fall back on by no means unimpeachable bigha figures before I could çomplete my tables.

- The result is, howaver, the best that can be arrived at under present circumstances.
Another great difficulty had to be contended rith, and that was the absence of all pergana figures for 1891.: The result was that in the case of transfers often neither population nor area was known, and even when the area was known it was impossible to say what population had been transferred with ite •
- In caleulating for comparison I have in every case used the most accurate -value known for the area recalcalating the 1891 results where necessary, as sicme survess have been made since the last Census, which have altered the figare for the area although the actuil boundaries are the same as they were at that time.
$\therefore$ The chief chnnges which have taken place are these-
(1). In 1896 three perganas of Bhopal were transferred to the Gwalior Residency jurisdiction. The abolition of the Guna Agency and its absorbtion into the Gwalior Residency of which it once formed a part.
(2) In 1897 seven Jagirs were transferred from Bundelkhand ta Baghelkhand.
(3). The formation of the Indore Residency in 1899-

To do this eight perganas were taken from surrounding political . : : charges Six from the old Indore Agency, one from Bhopawar and one from Malwa.
(4). In June 1901, after the Census had been taken. the Bagod pergana of Dewas was transferred from the charge of the, Political Agent in Bhopawar to that of the First Assistant to the Agent to the Governor GeneraI,

For the rensons given above these changes involved a great deal of work.
I should have liked to give the relative proportions of cultivated, uncultivated and culturable land, but there are unstatistics which give the information with any certainty, so that the "pressure" of population cannot be estimated, not that it can really be severe in any district.
$\therefore$ The population of Central India is mainly rural, out of the $8,000,000$ people who compose it $7,600,000$ live in villages, some 88 per cent., that is of the total population.

The average population of a village is about two handred persons while most of the population, some 60 per cent. live in villages with a population of less than 500. The average town in Central India holds about 12,000 souls, but the majority of the urban population lives in towns containing over 20,000 persons. Of these there are ten in Central India, so that we ses that small villages and large towns are preferred.

- If we consider the district figures we notice a rery considerable difference in the political charges. Baghelkhand is much the most rural in character having 97 per cent. of village population, while at the other extreme stands the Indore Residency with 52 per cent.

Of the three Natural Divisions into which the Agency has been divided; up, the Billy tracts, ns is only to be expected, are the most rural in character; some 97 per cent. living in villages while the Lowlying and Plateau lands have rural populations of 91 per cent. and $8 \mathbf{2}$ per cent each. In density of por pulation there is a marked difference. The Hilly tracts shew but 74 persons to every square mile while there are only three villages in every ten square miles, of country, though even the Lowlying country, in which the villages are more, numerous can only borst of five villages per ten square miles. There is no great difference as to the number of people in each house, five being about the average.

- It will be noticed that a decrease has taken place of about 21 people per! square mile, I am inclined to think that this figure is too high owing to the 1891 Census returns being, as I believe, in excess of the truth, still it must be admitted that the last three or four bad years have affected the population considerably. The difference between the total population in 1891 and 1901 is $-1,690,031$ or $-16 \cdot 4$ per cent. ; in urban population it is $+16,780$ or $+1 \cdot 8$ per cent. and in rural-1,706,811 or- $18 \cdot 2$ per cent.

The figures for the sexes shew a decrease among males of 966,746 or 17.9 per cent. and among females of 723,235 or 14.9 per cent. Betweea the 1881 and 1901 figures there is a difference of-633,126 or-6.8 per cent. The urban population bas increased $29 \cdot 7$ per cent. and rural has fallen 9.6 per cent: Between the sexes we see a decrease anong males of 9.3 per ceat. and among females of $4 \cdot 1$ per cent.

Thus on the 10 years 1891-1901 the males have decreased 3 per cent. more than the females, and in the 20 years 5 per cent.

The increase of nrban population is very marked on the 20 years while a slight increase bas taken place on the last 10.

The bad years are no doubt responsible for arresting the progress of tomus. But within the last ten years the railmay lines between

Tjjain and Bhopal and Ujjnin and Ratlam and Godbra, also the Bina-Guna and Gona-Baran lines and the Gwalior Light Railways have been opened and caused as considerable expansion of trade in these parts.

## DISTRIBUTION OVER AREA.

2. Density.-The menn density per square mile is 109 persons, which is decrease of 21 persons per square mile compsred with the 1891 figures. I am bowever, inclined to think that the 1891 figure is too high and that the actual fall is not quite so great. It must, moreover, be borne in mind that as has been said in the introdnctory paragraph to this chapter all that was possible has been: done to get as near the proper figure for the area as possible, still the lack of surveys introduces a considerable element of doubt as regards the various political charges. We may, however, I think, take the figure for all. Central India as correct.

Compared with other provinces of India we find that the figure returned in 1891 by Coorg is exnctly the same, while Assam returned 112 persons per. square mile and the Native States of the Panjab 111.

As regurds the distribution over Natural Divisions, the Lowlying land stands first with 172 jersons per square mile. The country in this tract is level and little interrupted by hills and ravines, most of it being ander cultivation or used as grazing ground, and is consequently well populated. The Plateau comes next. In this case, alchough the soil is perhaps the most fertile in India, the country is to a certain extent cut up by hills and ravines and we, find the density stands at 102 per square mile. Another factor in this instance is the undoubled diminution in density which has been caused by famine.

The Hilly tracts come last with only 74 persons per square mile. The, difference here is most marked and it is no doubt accentuated by losses in the famine, as the distress in the Satpura and Vindhya region was very considerble.

No Natural Divisions were treated of in 1891 and comparison is unfurtu; nately impossible.

Before we proceed to discasss the district figures it will not be ont of plncẹ to draw atteutiun to the size of the different charges in the Contral India Agrency.
! The largest politicul charge is that of Gwalior Residency winich has an area of 18,054 square miles, some 7,000 square miles larger than Belgium.

The next largest is Baghelkhand with an area of some 14,000 square miles jast about equal to the principality of Suxe-Weimar, while the smallest charge that of Indore Agency which is under the First Assistant to the Ageut to the Governor-General has an area of about 780 square miles.

The highest density is shown by the Indore Residency which has 210.7 persons per square mile if we include Indore town. When we sabtract this population the density is reduced by 61 per square mile.

Indore Agency comes next with a density of 134.8 a considerable diference even if we compare it with Indore Residency after the town of Indore has been deducted.

Bupdelikhand comes third with 139.8 persons and Gwalior fourth, in. this case if we deduct hashkar town the density is reduced by five persons ouls, an insignificant difference.

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The charge which shews the least density is Bhopawar with only 71 persons per square mile. This, considering how much of the charge is composed of roughjungle country but sparsely populated, is what one would expect. It may be noted that this figure is lower than that for the natural division classed as Hilly, the reason being that in order not to make the divisions too finicking 2 certain amount of lowlying country had to be tuken in with the hilly and this has raised the figure for the density in this tract.

There is one charge which shews a very low figure for which it is not easy to account, and that is Bhopal.

The land in this charge is, save for a very small strip of conntry in the south all Plateau land similar as to soil and general conditions to Malra, and get there are 10 people less per square mile than in the Malwa charge.
3. Urban and Rural Density.-What is possible has. been done to get some idea of the urban and raral density. I must remark, however, that the want of messurements which has in so many instances been a source of difficulty else-: where is more than ever noticeable here. I have obtrined bigha figures where I could and used the average town in a few cases where eren bigha figures were not known still the results must be received with caution. The Indore Agency. and Bhopawar figures espicially seem unusual.

For all Central India the urban density is 4,077 persons per square mile.
The Lowlying Country comes first among the natural divisions with 622 people more per square mile than the Plateau and $9: 1$ more than the Hilly.

Indore Agency comes first in urban density (there is only one town). among the districts,Bundelkhand next and Malwa last, there being a`difference of 25,000 persons per square mile between Malwa and Indore Agency.

The rural density for Central India is 97 persons per square mile. The Lowlying country shows 157 persons, but the rough Hilly tracts only 72 or 85 per square mile less.

Burdelkhand stands first among the districts with 122 persons per square mile while Bhopàwar comes last with 67 only.
4. Variation.-The variation since 1891 shews a decrease of 21 people per square mile. If we compare 1881 figures we find there is a difference of 8 people per square mile only. And I believe that the great difference now found is in part due to the 1891 returns being too high.

No Natural Divisions were dealt with in 1891.
It has not been possible to compare district figures with those of 1881 as on that occasion the results were made out by states, such comparison as is possible will be made in the Provincinl Volume of this Report. The greatest loss has been sustained by Malwa which has decreased by 42 persons in every square mile, Bhopal coming second with a loss of 37 .

Both these charges suffered much in the famine and a decrease was to be expected, emigration and deaths from a virulent form of fever which attacked a population already weakened by want, having removed large numbers.

The unfortunate destruction of all the records of pergana figures for 1891 makes it impossible to discover in what portions of the charges the decrease was greatest, Indore Agency comes next with a loss of 32 persons per squate mile,

A daecrense of about 16 persons is shewn by Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand. These two charges were practically unaffected by the 1899-1900 famine s1-1-1s though they suffered very severely in 18:66.97. It would appear, therefore; that they have not altogether recovered from that visitation, still it is as well to bear in mind that there are indications of the 1891 envmeration being high.

Gwalior shews very little diminution indeed, and on its whole area this: charge suffered least from these famines.

The pressure of population in regard to cultivation ${ }_{\text {th }}$ has been impossible to deal with, as I could get no data : Where, however, in the case of certain Stntes . this information has been obtained the question will be gone into in , the Proa, vincial Volumé.
2 The variation returns show a fall of 249 persons per square mile in Urban, ${ }_{2}$. ${ }^{25}$ \& 16 and of 21 in Ruralarens. Four districts have increased their urban population Indore Residency, Bhopal, Bhopawar, and Indore Agency, The figure in the case of Bhopawar is so high that I doubt its accuracy.
5. Villafe Distribution.-If we consider the general distribution as uniform we find there are about four villages in every 10 square miles in Ceutral Iudia. It varies, however, in the different tracts-

TOWN AND VIILIAGE.
6. Urban and Rurat Distribution:-Before considering the urban and rurul figures it will be as well to define what a "tovn" is for Ceusus purposes.

The definition in the Code is as follows:-
"Town Includes-
(1) Every Municipality of whatever size.
(2) All Civil Lines not incladed within Municipal limits.
(3) Every Contonment.
(4) Every other continuous collection of houses permanently inhabited by not less than 5,000 persons, which the Provincial Superintendent may decide to treat as a town for Census pur* poses. In native States where there are no Municipalities this definition will have to be extensively npplied."
In Central India it was found that the only pussible way of dealing with the question was to lay down that places with more than 5,000 persons were to be returned as Town $s$.
T. This, however, excluded certain places which by virtue of their importance. locally had a right to be considered towns. These have, therefore, been classed as towns thaugh below the 5,000 standard. There are 17 of them, Agar (station) 32-1v 2 and Sailana being the most important.

The population of Central India is essentially rural as $7,600,000$ people out st-Vi 8 of $8,000,000$ live in villages.

There are in all Cencral India 80 towns including the 17 of under 5,000 . inhabitants, and some 33,000 villages.

The places given below are towns on this occasion but were not so jn 1891:-

Agar (Station).
Barwaha,
Govindgarh
Gwalior.
Guna.
Gura (Station).

Khilchipur.
Lashkar Brigade.
Hujgarh.
Sarangpur.
Umaria,

- The largest town is Lashkar town of Gwalior State with a popalation of 89,000 , next to which comes Indore with 86,000 and Bhopal third with $7,6,000$; these are the only towns with over 50,000 inhabitants.
: The majority of the towns have a population of between 5,000 and 10,000 inhabitants. The townward tendency does not appear to be so marked as it is in British India: The reason is perhaps that there is a rule but one town of any consequence in most States and that is the seat of the Chief and his surrounding; not always a desirable place for general residence. There are salso few attractions such as factories or works to draw those in search of occupation.

The number of towns, if we include those which have temporarily fallen, has increased since 1881. In the Census that year there were 53 towns, in 1891 there were 69 , while on this occasion there mre 80 , whice have nuen wa, -3assed.
 63. The reason of this is that certain towns which were always towns till their population was reduced in the famine have been retained as tornas, of these there are 16. These wirh Agar ( station) reckoned as tomn on this occasion makes up the 17 the populution of which is less tian $\mathbf{3 , 0 0 0}$.

Taking the towns then as 63 there has been a decrease of 6 towns since T891, and an increase of 10 on the 1881 figure.

As regards the class of town there are on this occasion, as in 1881 and i891, only three towns of 50,000 and over, these are Lashkar, Indore and Bhopal. Of the next class that of 20,000 to 50,000 there were 6 in 1881, 8 in 1891, and 7 in 1901. The town which has fallen out this year is Morar.: This is due to Brigade being taken separately this year whereas in 1891 Morar and Brigade were added together.

Anyong towns of 10,000 to 20,000 there were 13 in both : 1881 and 1891, while op this occasion they have been augmented by 2 , these being Lashkar Brigade and Gwalior.

In tha 5,000 to 10,000 class there has been a considerable fall since 1881 . There were on that occasion 31 such towns, while in 1891, there were 45 , now there are 3.8 .

Taking the towns separately we find that there has been an increase of population in 23 of them. In six of them it is trifling. Bhopal and. Ratlam have increased by about 6,000 each and Ujjain by 5,000 . The increase in the case of Ratlam and of $U$ jjain is no doubt mainly due to their increased importance since the opening of the Railways between Ujjain and Ratlam and Ratlam and Godhra. It is interesting to note that of the 22 towns in which any increase has taken place there are 12 which are either under administration or have been to during the last ten years, or else are places like Nowgong or Sihor, which are Cantonments or Stations under British rule.
" $\sqrt{ } 7$ The Village.-In British India the village for Census purpose is generally the "mauzah" or revenue unit. In Central India among a heterogeneous collection of states it was found necessary to leave the decision of village boundaries to the discretion of the native state officials, only pointing out that small hamlets which were in uo way separate villages should not be
returned separately. In a few instances, I am incli ned to think, from the smallness of the- figures, that, hamlets have been shewn separately, but on the whole the return is very accurnte. The village is in most cases a very different thing in the Hilly tracts to what it is in the other trwo Natural Divisions.

Here instend of a cliuster of red tiled cottages, we find a small collection of mud and wattle húts only built; perhap's during the last week, and which will te at once abandoned by its timid owners -if they are seized with any fear of molestation or of sickness. Permanency does not distinguish these villages at any rate as regards site though a similar eollection of huts will be erected elsewhere, leaving the total number of occupied villages as it was.

The average village community in Central . India has not changed materially " from the old fashioned-stereotyped body of people including just the necessary classes to make it-self-supplring in every economio aspect.
$\because$ The agricultaral Kurmí, the Gadaria, the herdsmen, the village priest of Brahman caste, the local Bania who supplies food and lends money, the Chamar who skins the dead animals, and the menial Balai who runs messages and acts as chaukidar, form the ordinary members of a village community here.

Railways are few in Central India and there is less expansion than' has taken place in many parts of British India.

There are in all 33,282 villages on this occasion; in 1881 there were 31,46 , and in $1891,32,415$, so that there has been an increase in the number by 1,817 over the 1881 figure and of 867 over the 1891 figure, and this in spite of famines.

If we look at the classes we see that there are more villages of under 1,000 than there were in either 1881 or 1891 , but fewer in the next two classes. The variation indeed between the 1891 . and 1901 figures is considerable, there being 308 less in one case and 204 less in the other.

Far the greater number of our villages bave a population of under, 500 people, as out of the 33,000 over 30,000 are in this class, while the next largest group contaips only 2,000. Large village are not common.

As regards Natural Divisions the Plateau has the largest percentage of villages under 500 , the Hilly tracts coming next and the Lowlands last. The Plateau indeed is 30 per cent. better than the Lowlands and 22 per cent. better than the Hilly tracts in this. The avernge Lowland villnge is larger than that of the other two, having 313 people per village to 202 in the Pla-. 31-11-13 teau and 196 in the Hills.

1. 8. Town and Village groups.-The greater part of the urban pnpulatinn jives in towns of over 50,000 or betryeen $5,00,0$ and 10,000 though the figures difter but little in any class some 200,000 being found in each.

In țe case of rural population the preference for villares of under 500 is marked $4,500,000$ persons or some 60 per cent, of the total population livins in them. The next most populous group is that of villnges with 500 to. 1,000 inhabitints but it can only boast of about $1,500,000$ persons. Any one who has toured in Central India will have noticed the small size of the villages. One fair sized house in which a Thakur lives surrounded by a cluster of red tileilmud huts half buried in creeping plants constitutes the ordinary Central Indiani village.

Among the three Natural Divisions we see that in the Platenu 51 per cent-:-

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-n $12 \& 13$ and in the Lowlands 46 per cent. of the population live in towns of 20,000 and ; :over. But in the Hilly tracts towns of 5,000 to 10,000 contain most, some 76 per cent. In the Lowlands about 46 per cent. live in villages of under $500_{\text {; }}$; and 45 per cent. in those betweeu 500 and 2,000 ; in the Plateau 76 per cent. live in villages under 300 , and 54 per cent. do so in the Hilly tracts, In' the district figures we find only Indore Residency, G walior, and Bhopal can boast of towns over 50,000 . Of the class of towns with a population of over 20,000 Malwa has four, three other charges having one each; Bundelkhand has five towns between 20,000 and 10,000 , and $G$ walior three, the others having either one or two each.

Gwalior has 10 towns of over 5000, Bhopal and Malwa 8, Bhoparrar 3 and the others 3 and 4 each.

Gwalior has most large villages 58 in all, 15 more than. Bundeikhànd, which comes next with 43. Indore Agency has lenst.

Gwalior has more villages under 500 than any other charge having over one lakh of them, while Baghelkhand, the most rural of the eight political charges, comes next with nearly one lakh, Bhopal following with 700,000.

It is worth noting how predominant this class of village is. Thus Gwnlior out of some 6,800 towns and villages has 5,800 with under 500 inhabitants. Indore Residency with 584 has 524 in this category and so on in the case of the other charges.
9. Comparative.-If we compare other Provinces of India we find that in 1891 the Panjab . British districts had an urban population of $11 \div 56$ and their Native States 10.7 per cent. The Central Provinces and Bengal are more rurnl having only 6.8 per cent., and 4.8 per cent. respectively living in towns. The Bombay Native States have 14.6 and Coorg 8.6 per cent, of arban popular: tion, as compared with 11 per cent. in Central India.

The Panjab British districts and Bengal have most of their urban popula-, tion in tomns of 50,000 and over, as is the case in Central India. The Bombay Native States and Rajputana, however, have most in towns of over 5,000.' The Coorg towns are all under 5,000 .

As regards villages Pajputana and the British districts of the Panjab hava: most of their rural population in villages of 200 to 500 , while the Panjab Native States, Bombay States, Coorg and Bengal have the greater part of their. villagers living in places of under 200 people.
10. Distribution of the people over Town and Village.--In all Central India the average town population is about 12,000 soulsand the arerage vi.lage ropulation about 200 .

In the three Natural Divisions we find that the average population of the Plateau town is about 12,000 , that of the Lowlying land is nearly 15,000 , while in the Hilly tracts it is only 6,000 .

This is as we should expect, The Hilly tract figures, it must be remem. bered, are even higher than they should be as a certain smount of Platenu and Lowlying land is of necessity incluaded - to prevent the sub divisions keing too minute.

- "Ay regende villagetpopalation the Lowning land comas first with 300 .per-
sons" on" an average, rather higher thanethat: for ally, Contral India while the Plateau and Eilly tracts have about, 200, the figures for Hilly tract being as before a littee too high.

If" we examine the District fgures we find that Indore Residency" cómes first as regards average town population. This is due, of course, "to 'its 'large' towns of Indore, Mhow and the A. G.-G.s. Camp, 34,000' beitg "its average urban population, twice as many as the next highest, Indore 'Agency. * Bhopawar has the lowest figure.

In villages Gwalior has the highest Taverage" 289 pérsons "while "Bundel:
rhiand comes next, Bhopal kiewing the lowest fagure: ? ? 5 , I ! !
There are reason Why the fares should fall this?
The physical-nature of the land, the meteorological conditions, the classes of people residing on it and the administration of the state an" pay their part in determining the average size of the village.

Indore Agency and Malwa, all have about 200 persons por village. In these districts the fainfall is good and the soil extra-ordinarity fertile for the most part the classes decidedly agricultural and the administration as a rule patababe.
'Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand hare aboat 250 persons per village...TThe country in these cases is open, fertile and save in jears : when; both the monsoon currents fail, is well supplied with: waixe The people; are essen-j tially agricaltural and though the states are not rich for, the most part, they are sufficiently well-to do $0_{2}$ while there are fory towns to attract away the rural population,

Bhopawar which has an average village population of 184 suffers by containing such a large proportion of uncula vable Hiliy land jnhabited by noncultivating classes and with many small and poor states whose management is necessaridy not on a lerel with that of wealthier chiefships.
is Bhopal it is not sa easy to account for. The land is all plateau, fertile, inhabited by the same classes as Mulwa ond Gwalior and set the difference is marked and is gven lower than that for Bbopawar.
2. Comparative 11 The meanevilhge papulation for all India in 1891 was 363 a litile mare than the mean population in the Low lying , tracts of Central India. In Panjab British districts it was 532, but in the Panjab Native States oply 190. The Bombay States shewed 449, Bengal 399, Coorg 320, and Rajputana 346 .

12 Urban and Rural distribution by religion and Sex.-I propose now to examine the distribution of the people by religion and sex in towns and villages. ${ }^{\text {a }}$
(a) All religions -- We have already seen that about 11 per cent. of tie ${ }^{\text {i }}$ total population live in towns and 89 per cent. in villages.

There is no great difference in the percentage of males and females in town and country. There being aboput 11 per cent. of each sex in towns and 88 per cent. in villages.

The proportion of females to every 100 males is 95 in villages and 92 in torns a difference of 3 in 100 or 314 in 10,000 .
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w $\quad 3$.
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Little varintion is observable in the districts, The population is, es a sule, very equally divided as regards the sexes between town and country. Indore Residency alone sherve a distinct difference, there: being 9 per cent. more females in the urban population than in the rural. The attractions of Indore town for educationsl purposes and the large male population of Mhow Canton. ment raise the figures.

The figures in the lower half of Subsidiary table VI show how the different charges share the total population. Malra, it will be seen, contains 25 per cent. of the urban population which is due to the number of towns it comprises not to their size. Of the rural population Gwalior contains 26 per cent.
(b) Individual Religions :-To begin with the most rural. The Animists of course come first. Of them 99 per cent. live in villages leaving indeed actually less than 1 per cent. as town dwellers. Malwa claims most of such as live in towns there being 2,600 in this charge of whom 1,400 are males and 1,200 females. It is curious that the figures should be so similar as. Animistic females wander little. The town which has most urban Animists in it, chiefly Bhils, is Ratlam where there are over 800 . Kuksi in Bhopawar coming next with 500. This last case is less noticeable as Kuksi is situated in the heart of the Bhil country whereas Ratlam is a large town away from jungles and on the railway. In each case the male population is in excess.

The ratio of females to males among Animists is 7,200 to every 10,000 males in towns and 10,020 in villages. : This shews how little the female population of this class are given to wandering.

The Hindus come next 90 per. cent. living in villiges. The largest Hindu community is found in the Lashkar town of Gwalior, and the next larg. est in Indore. The females are in defect in each case. The proportion of females to 10,000 males in this case is 9,164 in towns and 9,478 in villages. The excess is not a great one, and is, in part no doubt,' due to the better circumstances of the town people.

Jains come third. The difference in this case is marked, only 70 per cent. live in villages, some 20 per cent. less than the Hindu figure. This is after, all what we should expect, seeing that the Jains are a commercial class. Malwa has in its urban area most Jains, 18,000 . Ratlam town containing one quarter of the total urban population of this religion, having nearly $.5,000$ of them, while they form one-sixth of the total population of the town. Lashkar and Indore follow with aboat 2,000 each.

There are in this case 952 Jain women to 1,000 men in towns, and 901 in villages. This preponderance is no doubt due to the members of the community, who live in towns, being as a rule well-to-do, and possessing large establishments.

The least rural of the religions in Central India is the Mahomedan. They partake in this respect of the invariable characteristic of foreigners who always congregate in towns.

Some 53 per cent. live in villages. Malwa has most, some 3,000 more than even Bhopal has.

Most of the urbnn population of this religion is found in Bhopal town where there are 40,000 , while Lashkar and Indore follow with 18,000 each. The towns almost all shew a certain number of these people, the greater number of whom in small Hindu State towns belong to the Bohra class of Shia Mahomedans.

The proportions of females to males among Mahomedans is what we should expect 959 females to every 1,000 males in towns while in villages there are 889. The Mahomedans who live in towns are wealthier and keep generally more than one wife.

Of Christians, Parsis and others I have said nothing. They are all essentially town dwellers and as they form but a small part of the total popula. tion, I do not think they need be examined.
13. Proportion of the Sexes in Town and Village.-This question will be treated of in detail in another chapter; it will not be, however, out of place to notice the general conclusions which the figures in this chapter allow us to draw.

- Females are, as a rule, in excess in towns in the case of every religion except that of the Animists.

Another point is that where the women are in excess in villages the differrence is marked, there being an excess of nearly 258 persons in 10,000 or 3 per cent., whereas in the case of urban populations such excess when found amounts to 1 per cent only.

The townward tendency of males seems to be much less marked here than it is in most British districts. The reason for this is possibly as I have said that as a rule there is but one town in a State which is the seat of government and the habitation of the Chief and his generally predatory following which makes a sojourn there, a matter for a careful consideration of pros and cons.
14. Houses and Families.-On this occasion both occupied and unoccupied houses were returned in the house lists. As, however, this was not done in 1891 except for occupied houses it is not possible to compare the latter.

Before considering the figures it will rbe as well to define a" house" as regards the Census work.

The general definition was " a building to which a separate number had . been affixed." This only raised the question."To what building was a separate number to be affixed?"
4. Instructions were, therefore, given to those conducting the operation of numbering, that in areas where there were no regular numbers, a dwelling house, for Census purposes, was any place in which one or more persons habitually slept.

That this rale is open to objections is certain, but it is impossible to give any hard and fast definition which would include every dwelling place from the moveable pent roof shelter of a wandering Banjara and the shifting home of the Bhil to the rabbit warren like palace of a ruling Chief, and embracing " at the same time between these extremes the ordinary village hut and the more or less permanent erection raised by the cultivator during the crop season, in his most distant fields.

Much had to be left to the discretion of the official, the object kept in view being to miss no one out.'

In judging of buildings it was laid down that where there was but one main entrance, i.e., front door, only one number was to be affixed, even if the house was let in flats to several families, A building with any form of partition wall provided there was a separate entrance to each portion; bad a number assigned to each part. Generally speaking there were as many "houses " as front doors. Certain exceptions to this rule were specially dealt with.

While on tour I examined the numbering most carefully, especially in torns where difficulties were more likely to occur but: I found practically no mistakes of any importance.

In all Central India there are about 21 occupied houses to $a$ square mile. In 1881 there were 22 and in 1891 nearly 25.

Among the Natural Divisions the Lowlying land shews the greatest den: sity which is what we should expect from what we have seen of the village distribution. The Plateau shews 10 bouses per square mile less and the rough Hilly tracts 17 less than the Lowlying land. Among districts Indore. Residency and Indore A gency shew most houses per squaremile while Bhopawarwith itglarge extent of jungle tracts shews least. In each case the figures have fallen since 1891 except in the Indore Residenç. The greatest fallis apparent in the case of Bhopal where, as we saw, the general decrease in the population was, very heavy, Malwa comes next.

Nowhere in Central India do we find the common courtyard which figures so largely in parts of the Panjab districts and separate houses are the rule in villages and even in towns where large bouses are let in flats, most of the tenements are held by single families and are not ordinarily of great size.

The figures fall as one would expect them to. The Lowlying country is level little interrupted by hills and ravines and there is no obstacle as a rule to building a village wherever you wish. The Platean land is much more cut up, and the Hilly tracts are of course mostly rough jungle land. There is little difference in the class of house in the Lowlying land on the east of the Agency and the Plateau except that tiled roofs are perhaps more common in Bundelkhand and Baghelkband. In the Hilly tracts watcle and: mud huty thatched with grass or leaves are common.
15. Families per house.-No record of the number of fumilies was made previously. There is very little to choose between the different pants of the Agency as regards the numbers of families in a house, in one house one family is alinost in variably the rule. The rural character of Central India and thesmall size of most towns make large houses rare.

The districts also shew but little difference, Indore Agency aloneshews: in its urban area nearly two families per house.
16. Persons in each Family.-The average family in Central Indiaconsiats of 4.8 persons which, it will be seen, is almost the same as the figure for: the number of persons per house. The Hilly tracts have the smallest families in towns but then as the members of the jungle tribes who are foundin towns are as a rule only wandering males away from their families, this is what we should expect. The village population is just 5 persons per family, a little higher than the rural family figure for the Plateau,

It is interesting to note that everywhere the village family is larger
than the town, giving for all Central India nearly one person more 'per fa mily in villages than in towns.
17. Average number of persons per house.-In the whole of Central India there are on an average $5 \cdot 1$ persons per house, in 1881 there were $5 \cdot 5$ and in1891, 5•2. In the three Natural divisions we find in Plateau 4.7 and about the same in the Hilly tracts, while the Lowlying country shews $5 \cdot 5$.

There is not much to choose between the districts. Gwalior and BundelLhand come first with 5.6 and $5 \cdot 4$; while Indore Residency comes last with 4.4 only.

One would have expected the big town of Indore to raise the average of this charge. There is no great difference between 1891 and this year,

The figure for all India in 1891 was 54.
18. Unoccupied houses.-Complete returns for Baghelkhand, Bundelkhand and Bhopawar have been compiled.

In Baghelkband there are 13 unocsupied houses to every hundred occupied, in' Bundelkhand about 12. Bhopawar shews 23 uooccupied to 100 occupied houses, a large difference.

There is not much difference between the urban and rural figures of Baghelkhand, but in Bhopawar it is most marked, there being 10 unoccupied houses to every hundred̆ occupied in towns, but in villages 23; famine has no doubt caused this desertion of houses. Bundelkband bas a greater defect in its urban figures where there are about 20 unoccupied houses to every hundred occupied, while in the raral area there are 11 .
19. The family group in Central India - Seeing how close the connection is between house and family, it will not be, I think, out of place to give a brief description of the family groups met with on the West and East of the Agency. Groups are, as a rule, of three kinds, domestic, proprietary or agricultural.
(a). The domestic group. -This group common in the West, as a rule, consists of the father of the family and his sons married or unmarried, and the unmarried daughters. This undivided group, however, as a rule soon splits up through dissension. The sons then go. off with their wives, and live apart as far as all domestic matters are concerned, though as regards the property there is, as a rule, no separation. In Ratlam state no cultivator has any proprietary rights but only occupancy and consequently when any separation takes place, those separating generslly take up a new piece of ground, the father lending bullacks, etc.

A son-in-law when his father-in-law has no other children goes to live with the father-in-law making his "Ghar-jamai" there.
(b). The proprietary group.-This group consists of a number of people with entirely separate domestic arrangement, who possess common rights over the family property. It is not met with in Malwa except among some Mercantile families, and may be said generally not to be a group peculiar to the west of the Agency.
(c). Cultivating associations.-Not known in Malwa.

Among the jungle tribes of Malwa the customs are different. Bhilalas live entirely separate, and sons, except the youngest, cannot inherit the father's
estate. The younger son never leaves his father ; but others do so on marriage; My informart finds this system of separation immediately after marriage a good one, as it gives "domestic pleasures far superior to those of other. Hindu cinstes" by giving fewer chances for dissension.

Bhils act similarly, except Naiks who are the only section of the Bhil community who have any proprietary rights. This is due to their being in state employ in Barwani where they act as policemen. The income from this and the Sukadi (Grants of grain) which taey get from cultivators keeping them together. They live in separate honses but have a common granary. The average family of this kind consists of 22 people.

Riwa gives a very similar account of the family in the East of the agency. The members of a family live together as long as they can but dissension soon breaks it up. The causes of dissension are, my informant says, jealousy, greater earning on the part of some member of the family or bad behaviour. This: leads to separation for domestic purposes for family Beohar as it is called exemplifying the common saying Desa Des Chal, Kula Kul Beohar is every country has its own customs, so has every family its own domestic ways. .

The earnings of the individual members are usually collected at the chief member's honse, members being allowed to live wherever they like,

Cultivating association:-An association much the same as that met with in the Panjab and called there Lana, is found in Bundelkhand but it has no special name.

There are two other forms peculiar to this country. Adhia Batio-a family or an individual possessing land but no materials. He takes a partner who can supply these requisites. The produce is divided half and half. The partner has no right over the land but only over the share of produce.

Ji Kata :-A man possessing land only, gets one who has bullocks, \&c., to co-operate in cultivating. The land is cultivated, taxes are paid and the remainder divided equally. The partner has a claim on the land in this case.

Generally we may say that for domestic purposes fansilies in Central India split up into separate bouse-holds which accounts for the distribution noticed of one family, one liouse.

Subsidiary Table I.
Density of Papulation.


## Subsidiay Table II.

Distribution of the Population between Towns and Villages.


House-room.


Subsidiary Table IV.
List of Touns of 1891 , the population of which has gone be'ow 5000 on account of Famine, etc.


SUBSIDIARX TABLE V. HOUSES AND FAMILIES.


Subsidiary Table VI.
Abstract shewing the Urban and Rural Populations of Central India in 1901.


Subsidiary Table VII
Proportion of Sexes
All Religiona,


Subsidiary Table VIII
Proportion of Sexes.
Hinlus.


Subsidiary Table 1X.
Proportion of Sexes.
Jains.


Subsidiary Table X.
Proportion of Sexes.
Musalmans.


Subsidiary Table XI.
Christiant
Proportion of Sexes.


Subsidiary Table XII.
Proportion of Sexes.
Animist


## DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN $1891 \& 1901$

## SHOWING RATIO TO TOTAL OF URBAN POPULATION.

POPULATION IN LAKHS


POPULATION BV 5 LAKHS

[^0]

## CHAPTER II.

## Movement of the Prople.

20. Introductory.-In this Chapter we deal with what is probably the most important result of Census, those figures which bear on the dynamics of population. No excuse is, therefore, needed for treating the subject in some detail. The waut of figures for Emigration has obliged me to omit detailed examination on some points.

Speaking generally these results are affected by two forces, the natural force of birth and death, and the accidental force of migration. It is the resultant of these two forces that we have to determine.

As regards the first we have in Central India no returns of birtbs and deaths with which to compare the Census figures, and our deduction must be made simply from the figures to our hand.

A separate section has been given in the Provincial Part to the effect of famine.

Before passing on to consider the results it will be as well to describe the different types into which the migration has been divided.

Mr. Ibbetson in the Panjab Census Report for 1881 thus defines the types:-
" Migration may be roughly referred to four different types":-
(1). Temporary.-Due to a local failure of grass, or even food, driving people to seek the one or the other in more favoured districts; to a temporary demand for labour on public works or for transport purposes, attracting a large number of labourers to a particular locality, and the like.
(2). Periodic.-Due to the changing seasons which drive men to and fro between the cool mountains and the warm valleys and plains, or from the scorched-up steppes to the grassy river banks and lower hills, which send them forth for purposes of carriage, trade and so forth.
(3). Permanent.-Where over-crowding or distress on the one hand, or physical or political advantages on the other, drive away from one district and attract to another, people who settle down permanently on the land.
(4). Reciprocal.-Where in the absence of any local attraction to induce movement from either quarter persons pass from one district to another and are re-placed by others moving in the opposite direction.
These four types, he goes on to say, can be in great measure distinguished by the proportion of the sexes in each case.

In Temporary migration males are largely in excess, in Periodic less so as a rule, while in Reciprocal migration females are in large excess. Types, however, shade off into one another.

The cause of Reciprocal migration is mainly the search for wives. The rules provide generally that a wife must be of the same caste as her husband, but may not belong to the same sub-division, a fact which often necessitates women having to be brought from a distance and which stimulates traffic between contiguous districts. It can be seen from Table IV how far these definitions hold good. Reciprocal migration is common only between contiguous districts unless there is some special family bond such as exists between Dhar and Baroda States. It will be seen in this connection that the North-West Provinces, Central Provinces and the Rajpatana Agency shew the smallest proportion of male immigrants per 1,000 of both sexes, and that the figure increases till we reach Haidarabad State and "Other Provinces" where males are in considerable excess.

## 21. Retrospect of the last ten years.

## A. Platead.

Bhopal.-The rain-fall was on the average only about, 45 inches during the last ten years, as compared to an average of over 50 in the previous decade.

The years 1895 and 1899 were the worst, only 33 inches falling while in - 1900 there was practically no rain at all and a severe famine resulted.

The distress was such that it touched the better classes, even Brahmans and Rajputs being affected. Crops appear to have been about normal in 1891-94-95-96-97. In 1893 the crops were attacked by rust. (كيروز) ; ;

The year 1898 was bad and 1899 very bad leading to a famine in 1900.
Cultivated area has decreased everywhere, and apparently from 50 to 60 per cent.

Trade, however, although bad for all save Butchers and Chamars in 1899.00, has on the whole improved, owing to the net Railways which have stimulated trade and created new centres.

Public health was bad during the last five years of the decade. Besides cholera, famine, diarrheea, etc., which began in Ujjain and spread rapidity, a curious paralysis of the lower limbs became common. It was popularly attributed to the consumption of "Teora" a wild pulse which is one of the few plants that will grow in a famine. Special investigations in Gathi and Raisen shewed that the plant did have this effect. Deaths among those attacked were common especially among men.

Malva Agency.-The rainfall averages 33 inches in the decade.
In 1894-96, and 1899 it was very low, while in 1893 and 1900 it was excessive.

The seasous generally have been rather below the average, and in 1899-00 there was a severe famine.

Public health was not good, bowel complaints, diarrhco and after the famine a virulent form of fever caused much mortality.

Trade though bad in the famine year has on the whole increased owing to the opening of railways and the formation of new markets. A metalled road from Piploda has also done much to improve communication. A cotton press was started in 1893 which is paying well.

Ratlam.-The rainfall was 34 inches, or normal in all years save $1899-00$ when it fell to 15. Mortality in ordinary years was 20 per mille while in the famine year it rose to 56 per mille. In 1893 and 1896 there was a partial failure of crops, in 1899-00 a complete failure. Of cultivated land 3.75 per cent. went out of cultivation in the famine year. Trade was bad in the famine year but the railwaysopened have on the whole caused an increase in trade. Health was not good, and cholera, fever and small-pox were severe in the famine year.

Sailana-Average rainfall is about 35 inches, but in the last ten years was rather less. Crops fair save in 1899-00. Public health not good and in famine year very bad. Trade suffered. But the road to the railway at Namli has improved trade connections generally.

Sitamau.-Average of last ten years shews a rainfall of 29. In 1892-95-97 the fall was small. In 1893 and 1895 the opium failed while in 1899-00 all crops failed. Much land has gone out of cultivation.' Public health was bad on the whole and in the famine specially so.

Gwalior Residency.-In 1895-96-97 the country round Gwalior suffered. Otherwise the crops have been fair. Public health was bad in 1891-92 and 1896-97. Trade improved by Guna-Baran and Light Railways.

Indore Agency:-
Dewas Junior Branch.-Rainfull was 36 on the average. In 1894-97 and 1899 it was low particularly on the last occasion. Crops spoilt in 1893 by excess of rain and by defect in 1899-00. Trade bad in the famine but improved generally, railway at Maksi very useful in this. Pablic health bad in 1891.-94-96 and very bad in famine year.

Dewas Senior Branch.—Average rainfall 36. Crops good and fair save in 1899-00. Trade generally improved but was thrown back in famine.

## B.-Low-lying Countrif.

Baghelkhand:-Average rainfall 46.6. Rainfall was excessive in the first five years and deficient in the latter. In 1892-93 it was very excessive, and in 1895-97 very deficient, causing famine in 1897. In 1899-00 it was also rather short in parts of the Agency. Public health was very bad in the famine year 1896-97. Trade much as it has been for the last 20 years.

Bundelkhand.-Same practically as above save that it was untouched by the famine of 1899-00.

## C.-Hrley Tracts.

Ali Rajpur:-The average rainfall of the last ten years was 34 inches. One.third of the land has gone out of cultivation. Famine was bad in.1899-00 when only 13 inches of rain fell.

Jhabua.-The avernge rainfall of the last ten years was 32 inches.: The crops were average till 1899-00 when famine visited the State-

Baruani.-The average rainfall of the last ten years was 20.9 inches.
In 1899 only $7 \cdot 26$ inches fell in Barwani itself and in Jolgaon only 6 nnd there was cousequently no crop of any kind. A regular registration of births and deaths has been Kept in this state since 1897. The results show that the death-rate has risen 74 percent., while the birth-rate has only rispn 60. In the famine 6,900 deaths were registered as due to famine "sicknesg that is to bowel complaints and severe fever which caused great mortality among 2 population already weakened by want.

Crops.-In 1891-92 thie crops:suffered for want of rain:
In 1893-94-95 there was an excess of tain which spoilt the harvest. In 1896-97 a similar calamity befell. In 1897-98-99 the crops were fair, but in 1899.00 a severe famine visited the country.

General Résumé.-The general result of this résumé is to shew that the Plateau and Hilly tracts suffered severely in 1899-00 and the Low-lying country in 1896-97-98.

Crops have on the whole period of ten yeurs deteriorated, and except perhaps in Bundelkhand much land has gone out of cultivation.

Commerce has, howover, in spite of the famines, increased everywhere. Some branches of course, were affected by Famine but the increase of comflouncation given by net rail ways and roads has eaused a gereral improvement.

Public health has been good except during the famine jears which nata: rally affected the health of the tracts where it was prevalent.

## IMMIGRATION.

22. General.-How little Central Indin is dependent on outside farits

48-I-2. population is at once seen from the fact that of the total population 92.2 per cent. were born within the borders of the Agency. Of the rest 7.7 per cent. were born in other parts of India leaving only 0.1 per cent. to the rest of the world. The langurge returis bears this out ( $q$, , V) . . There we find that 93.6 per cent. of the people speak tongues proper to Central India, 6.3 per cent. other vernaculars of India and the remaining ${ }^{\prime} 1$ per cent. other tongues. There were 668,236 persons born in parts of India, other than Central India or 7.7 per cent. of the total population. Of this again 94.7 per cent. were born in contiguous provinces.
23. North-West Provinces and Oudh.-To take the North-Western Provinces and Oudh first-Of the two sexes together some 320,000immigrants or $47^{\circ} 6$ per cent. come from these provinces. It will be seen that the wanderers do not go very far Bundelkhand takes 117,000, Baghelkhand 68,000 and Gwalior 50,000 . These political charges all border on the North-Western Provinces; if we look at the return for the distant "Indore Agency " we find only 2,000 inamigrants from these parts.

As regards the proportion of the sexes females are in excess to 52.0 per cent. It is curious that in Baghelkhand, however, males are in excess.

The chief excess is in Bardi pergana of Riwa which lies cn the AllahabadMirzapur border ; there are 14,997 men and 3,323 women.

The reason is said to be that most of the sepoys in the Army are drawn from the North-Western Provinces, and when they settle downin Baghelkhand they get their wives from over the border, they then return themselves as of Baghelkhand but their women-folk as belonging to North-Western Provinces.
24. Rajputana.-Rajputana (including Ajmer-Merwara) comes second in regard to the supply of immigrants. Some 175,000 or 26.0 per cent. coming from the states of this Agency, Ass in the last case it is to contiguous parts of Central India that they cheilly resort. Malwa gets 70,000, Gwalior 44,000. Females exceed males by 9,918 or 53 per cent.

When we go into the state figures we find Marwar comes first giving some 34,000 persons, females being in excess - by 51.0 per cent. Bhopawar, Bhopal and Malwa take $27 ; 000$ of these between them. Males are in excess in the case of Malwa. This is explained by the Marwaris and other Rajputaria sections of the community acting much as I have shewn the people from the North-West Provinces who live in Riwahave acted, but theexcessis a smalione.

Jaipur comes second with 28,000 ; males predominatiog. Malwa gets 11,000 and Gwelior 8,000 , mates being in excess in each case.' Jhalawar comes next. with 16,000 , females in excess. Of these 11,800 go to Malwa and 2,000 to, Bhopal.

Eota stands 'fourth.' It gives us 14,000 of whom 10,000 go to Gwalior and 1,900 to Malwa. Females are in excess here also. Dholpur comes next with 8,700 of whom 8,000 go to 'Gwatior. Males are here in excess.

Partabgarh follows with $5 ; 052$ females in excess. The distribution is 3,452 persons to Malwa, 1,013 to Indore Residency and 500 to Bhopawar, Karauli givess 3,600 of which $3 ; 400$ go to Gwalior. Females are in excess.

Bharatpur sends, 3,300 of which i,700 go to Malwa. Females are in great. excess.

The remaining states send only small numbers. From this distribation by 20 states of the Rajputana Agency we find that 12 send an excess of females and 7 an excess of males while Sirohi sends an equal number of each sex.
49.-IV-6 and 12.
" $n 19$.
" " 6 and 12 .
$3 \quad 19$.
$51-\nabla$ - 23 and 26 .
so-,, 11 and 13.
,"一, 14 and 16.
$51-\ldots 20$ and 99.
$50-$, , 8 and 10.
$51-, 29$ and 31.
r-, 17 and 19.
$50-, 5$ and 7 .

Of the 12 states which send an excess of females 7 are states whose territory either borders on or intermingles with the territory of Central India States. There are, however, some exceptinos Marwar, Bikaner and Bharatpuir, all of which send a considerable excess of females. The figures were returned by Gwalior State and from contigunus territory. Banswara and Dholpur alone of contiguous states send an excess of males. We may, therefore, look'on it as characteristic of contiguous states to send an excess of females. . The reason is I imagine that Rajputs of Central India usually get their wives from the home of their race.
25. Other Provinces.-Bombay comes next on the list giving uṣ some 75,000 persons or $11 \cdot 2$ per cent.

In this case most of the immigrants are to be found in the "Indore Residency." This is due to the cantonment of Mhow, the A.-G.G.'s Camp and the town of Indore. In each case there is a preponderance of males. The Parsi and Bohra trading communities swell the figures, as also Marathi and Gujarathi people. On the whole though the females preponderate, Gwalior, Baghelkhand, and Malwa together shewing. an excess of $50^{\circ} 0$ per cent.

The Central Provinces come next contributing 99 per cent. Of these Bhopawar, Bundelkhand, and Baghelkhand which border on that province take the greater proportion. Females are in excess here by 50 per cent.

Bengal sends some 5,000 persons of whom 41 per ceat. found in Baghelkhand which borders on the Chutia Nagpur district. Females are in excess by 56.2 per cent.

In almost every case, therefore; we find that females are in excess. This is, as we have seen, a characteristic of "Reciprocal Migration, " due to the rule that requires a man to go and geti- his ${ }^{2}$ wife from among his own people, but which at the same time requires that she-should not: come from among his immediate neighbours.

As regards the immigration from other parts of India the Panjab sends us an excess of males, the reason being that these people are almost all soldiers in British or Native State troops.

Of separate states Baroda sends us most. Males are in excess and gómostly to Bhopuwar. and Malwa, these two taking 4,000 oution 4,452 . $\because$ The house of Dhar is connected by marriage with Baroda which accounts for the immigration from that State. Haiderabad (Dekhan) 'sends us 2,627 persons, males being in excess. Of these 2,035 go to Bhopal where there ..is large Mahomedan State.

Of immigrants from distant spots little need be said. Aden may, however be mentioned. It sends 362 people. They are all reeturned by the .4 th Bombay Rilles, now in Mhow who are occasionally quartered at that place.

## EMIGRATION.

26. General.-It is a matter for regret that except in the case of Rajputans the Emigration returns for Central India record only figures for the whole Agency. This being so it is not possible to compare aught except total figures.

The total number of emigrante from Central India is 453,660 of whom 200,885 are males, and 252,775 females, or $5 \cdot 4$ par ceut. on the population born in Central Indid. The distribation shews that 44 per ceat. of the people go to the North-Western Provinces, 33 per cent. to the Ceatral Provinces and 12 per cent. to Rajpatana or 89 per cent, in all, the rest go to more distant provinces.

The high figure for the North-Western Provinces is what we should expect. The connection between the people of Bundelkhand and the British districts on which they border is very close, and there is no natural boundary such as the plateau presents to hinder movement. Women, it will be seen, predominate. This is according to Mr. Ibbetson a sign of the " Reciprocal Migration," due to marriage regulations. There is no doubt that as regards Bundelkhand a very large amount of marriage traffic does go on.

In the case of the Central Provinces also there is an excess of women, and for the same reason, but the general movement is mach smaller.

That Bengal should come so high up is, I think, peculiar. Unfortunately having no retarns to shew where the people go te I am unable to say from what part of Central India they come. It is possible, that they enter Chutia Nagpur which is on the borders of Baghelkhand.

Other figures are insignificant.

## mIGRATION:

* 27. General.-We have now to deal with the resultant of the forces which tend respectively to increase and decrease the population. Owing to the want of returns by either states or political cbarges I can only, as before, desi with figures for the total movement, and for internal movement between states in Central India, except in the case of Rajputana, where details are available. Migration is of course largest between Central India and the Provinces which immediately border apon it. Central India gains on the whole by the moveueut some 21,000 persons of whom 12,000 are males and 9,000 females.

There is a slight excess of females among emigrants as compared with immigrants. In 1,000 of both sexes there are 557 female emigrants while among immigrants there are 517.

We have on the whole gained 26 persons in 1,000 by the movement 29 : males and 23 females.

The total number of people born in Central India and now alive is 8,410,178. If, therefore, no movement took place the population would be less, by 218,603 , or 2 per cent.
28. Variation since 1891.-No district figures can be shewn. The totals: as 1 ll . shew that the Central Indian born population has fallen 17 per cent.

The net result of our interchange with British territory is a gain of 57,412 males and 33,315 females or 90,727 persons.

49 IV 2
n $n 9$.
\# $\% ~ 20,21$ and 23.
" $n \quad 18$ and 19.

66 IX 2,3 and 4. $\Rightarrow 2$
$49-1 V-20,21$ and 2.2.
.. 21 and $: 2$.
$3 \because-V-3 x .39$ and 40.

49-IV-15, 18 and 19.

52..., 38, 39 and 40.*
$50,16$.
$\therefore 1$, 24 and 95.
52 " 38 and 39.
51 .. 23.

29 Migration between Central India and places other than Rajputana.Taking the North-West Provinces we see that wé gain 120,000 persons, 73,000 males and 47,000 females. The Central Provinces, on the other hand, tale more than they give us; they make 80,000 by the exchange, some 40,000 of eack sex. No other Province gets as large $a_{4}$ number from us.

We gain from Bombay and the Panjab, Bombay sending females mostly, probably to the Dakshani populntion of the Maratha states, while the Panjab sends many more males, as is only natural, seeing that most of those from this Province are soldiers.

Bengal takes more than it gives us, gaining some 11,000 males and 7,000 females.

From the remaining provinces and from places outside India we gain by exchange.

30 Native States.-We give more than we receive in the case of Haidarabad, some 1,700 , mostly males. In the case of Baroda, however, we gain 3,600, 1,800 of each sex. These people are nearly all found in Dhar state.

31 Migration between states of Central India and Rajputana:-I have gelected a certain number of States to show how the interchange takes plice.

The total interchange results is a gain to Central India of 121,000 persons, 62,000 males and 59,000 females.

The immigration is about 3 times the emigration, and as regards the sexes males among immigrants are about 4 times the males among emigrants. This points to permanent migration and is due apparently to the settlement of Marwaris in Central India who have been attracted by the increased facilities . for trade opened up by the railways started in the last 6 or 7 years. To every 1,000 immigrants there are 323 emigrants and in every 1,000 of both sexes, 472 are males among immigrants and 387 amoag emigrants.

The first thing brought out by the table is that the interchange save for Baghelkhand is restricted to the west of the Agency, thus Chbatarpur, Charkhari, Orchha, and Datia shew practically no interchange. No more striking proof of the isolation of the Bundela Rajputs from those of Rajputana could be devised. It shewe also how if intermarriage is impossible intercourse at once ceases (vide Bundelas, Chapter VIII). .

Of Rajputana States Marwar gives us most, 22,000, Jaipur comes next giving 21,0u0, women being in defect in each case. The migration is of a permanent kind, the settlers being traders. Mewar comes third, but in this case women are in excass. We lose only to Dholyur, giving them women.

Bhopal gains some 4,900 persons, men being a little in excess. Of these people 9,000 come from Marwar, chiefly males. Tonk and Jaipur follow. In the case of Tonk females predominate.

Dewas gains some 3,000 persons, there being 300 more women thare men. The number of women who come from Jhallawar is extraordinary, 377; it gives more men than it gets. The biggest general movementis between Dewas and Marwar, women being in excess.

Duar gaius in all some $\overline{0}, 000$ persons, males being in excess. They come: from Marwar for the most part.
46.

Gwalior gains 49,000 in all males being in elight excesa $\quad \mid \therefore \Rightarrow$
$\therefore$ The greatest movement is with Mewar, which seids 13,000 , females being in excess, while Marwar and Tonk send 8,000 and 7,000 respectively: The number of women who come from Bharatpur is curiously large; while Dholpur kakes more persons than it gives, women being in excess. This is due possibly to Gwalior state possessions in Dholpur, with which there are marriage relations. Indore gains on the whole 14,000 persons, males being in slight excess. Marwar sonds about 6,000 persons, females in excess, Jaipur 5,000 males in excess. Koti and Jhallawar take most, 800 and 400 respectively, in the case of Jhallawar females are in large excess.

Jaora gets 3,600 in all, females being in excess, most come from Marwar, chieflymales. Riwa gains 2,165 parsons by, interchange with Rajputana mostly males. Marwar and Jaipur send most.

The connection of the Riwa Chief's family with that of Thodpur causes this increase of communication though the distance is considerable. :
22. Internal Movement.-As there' are no figures for the movement between political charges I have taken a few states to illustrate the general interchange which takes place. I do not intend to go into the subject in any detail, as though it is one of considerable interest to those immediatély connected with the administration of any particular state, it has not the same interest to people in geneneril.- The state figures will be found in the Provincial Volume for all states of any size, and figures for small holdings can be obtained from the recordet
. It must be remembered that many states have territory in more than one political charge.

The first point that the figures bring out is the separation of the Eastern - Trom the Western section of the Agency: Only Gwalior state, which lies bet-- ween and connects the fiwo seetions, has anything in the way, of interchange with thejBundelkhand states. To take the Eastern states first. As an example we may take Charkhari. We find that this state only gets 1,202 persons from all theWestern states put together, 692 men and 510 women, whereas her traffic with Chhatarpur alone amounts to 5,969 persons.

Of the character of the movement little need be said. An excess of females is found in the movement between Charkhari, Datia, Panna and Samthar. Similarly Chhatarpur shews an excess of femsles in its interchange with Samthar, Gwalior and Datia; Orchha with Chhatarpur, Dacia, Panna, and Riwa; Panna with Riwa. There is, however, less inducement to "Reciprocal Migration" in the case of these states whose borders, are as a rule inextricably confused and whose population is racially the same every where.
T.urning now to the Western States. As interchange always goes on most freely where borders tonch, ir is only natural that the greater part of the movement is to aud fro between small states and the two big states of Indore and Gwalior whose territory uccupies so large a proportion of the $\Delta$ gency.

There is no need to gointo the figures. Of all the states we see that 6 have gained by interchange with orher states of Central India, but the proportions of immigrants and migrants is as a rule very even.

Chhatarpur sbews a difference of 9 per cent, in favour of emigrants; Dhar one of 8 per cent. in favour of immigrants. All except Indore, Dhar and Chattarqur shew over 100 females to 100 males.

62 『 38, 39 nd 40
$51,286$.
63 n 23jand 39:
50 , 6 and 8.

53 , $38,39_{r}$
C1, 90 and 23.
$50 \quad 11$ and 14
$53,38,30$ and 40.

48-I-2.
56.-X 2, 4 and 5.

The proportion of migrants to total population shews that Dewais gets most by migration. Some 70 per cent and of these 99 per cent are vomen. Dhar comes next but with only 69 per cent. of migrant population;

Women migrants preponderate in 4 states: Only Datia shews any marked difference petween males and females among migrants, females being 20 per cent. in excess.
33. Indigenous Population:-The indigenous population of Central India is 7,956 , git or 92 per cent.

It is not possible to get at the district figures, but $\mathbf{I}$ will give some of the chief states.

Riwa heads the list with 90.5 per cent. of indigenous population while Bhopal, Indore and Orchha all shew over 80 per cent. It is, I think, peculiar that Dewas and $d^{\circ}$ Dhar should shew such a low figure, both are situated off the line of rail, and away from British India for the most part, yet Dewas, has only 30 per cent. of indigenous population, 30 per cent less than Charkhari which comes next and which is near the railway and touches British India.

I have no figures by which to deal with urban and rural migration.
34. Comparison of actual and estimated population.-There being no vital statistics for Central India this celculation was made with the rate of increase for all India given by Mr, Hardj in his note on the 1891 Report. The results are as follows :-

Population found in Census $1901=8,628,781$ I.
Population estimated by method $=10,413,745$.
Actual population found in $1891=10,318,812$ :
This shews that the population is less by $1,784,964$ persons than what it - would be, had the normal rate of increase been maintained. The data are, how"ever, not strictly applicable to Central India," and I do not think the estimate is worth much.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.

Immigration per 10,000 of Population.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.
Emigration per 10,000 of Population.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE III
Variation in Migration since 1891,
Conscr.

Statement shewing Migration from and to Central India.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE $\nabla^{\prime}$
Migration betveen Central Indios and Kajputana States.


Migration betiveen Central India and'Rajputana States.-Continued.


## SUbsidiary Table v

Migration between Ceniral 'Tndia and Rajputana States-(concluded.)


Internal Migration between the Central India Selected States.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE PI-(Continued),


## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII

Statement shewing the relation of Immigrants to Emigrants within the Provinco.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII
Statement shewing the percentage of Migrants on Total Population.


## SUBSIDIARY TABLE IX.

Statement shewing the relation which the total Population of Central India bears to that lorn in the Province.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE X
Comparison of Actual and Estimated population.


35. Introductory.-The information dealt with in this Chapter was recorded in column : 4 of the Schedule in which each man's Religion and Sect were put down. The Imperial Tables connected with this subject are VI; VII, XYII, XVIII, and Provincial Tables A. and B.

When Tabulation of the resulte was begun it was found necessary to have some rule by which to.distinguish who were "Hindus." As long as the upper classes only are being dealt with there is not much difficulty, but when we begin to get among those classes which are, so to speak, on the fringe of Hinduism; some arbitrary distinction is found to be essential.

It was, therefore, laid down that every person who had entered his or her s religion as "Hindu" should be so returned, except any who were"shent by the entry in column 8 to belong to one of the twelve tribes noted below :-


All these were classed as "Animists." A definition of the term will be found in para 51.
. This distinction is purely arbitrary. It. was based on the facts that these tribes are, in all probability of Dravidisn stock, and also that their religion is certainly primitive, and that they keep to hunting and predatory habits and do little or no cultivation.

I am quite prepared to admit that there are many objections to be urged against this selection, but some line had to be drawn, and my appeal to states and special enquiries made confusion worse confounded. Each state sent in a list of Aninist tribes differing from the other, one state returning as Animists people whom the contiguous state returned as good Hindus. One large state, indeed, practically limited the real Hindus to the "twice-born."

In these circumstances I was obliged to take my own line.
$\therefore$ Some members of the fwelve tribes have pretensions to Hinduism, this has been recognized in Provincial Table $A_{2}$, where they are shewn separately, though their Hidduism is little more than a veneer.

It is found chiefly among those who, having acquired wealth and risen in social importance, have at the same time discovered the value of making at least a show of deference towards the gods of their rulers.

The main religions of Central India are the Hindu, Jain, Mahomedan, and Animist. . Of these the Hindu and Animist are the most numerous.

Out of $8,000,000$ people nearly $7,000,000$ are Hindus and nearly $1,000,000$ Animists.

Hindus form the greater part of the population of each political charge. - Mahomedans are.found chiefly in Bhopal and Gwalior, Jains chiefly in Indore and Ratlam states, while Animists are found in largest pumber in the Bhopawar and Baghelkhand political clarges.

The proportions which Mahomedans and Animists bear to the total population are given in the maps attached to this Ohapter.

The term Hindu is necessarily an open one and includes every shade of this creed from that of the strictest Brahman down to the low easte sweeper; who is never quite sure what; he is and often returns himself both as Hindu and Mahomedan at the same time, rivalling the Vicar of Bray in the ease with which he passes from one form of faith to another.

The Jain returns we may take as far more correct than on the last occasion, as the record of seet has enabled us to separate Hindius and Jains more accurately. This community has progressed considerably. The increase is not only due to better enumeration but also to actual increase owing to the opening of new trade centres.

There is no reason to suppose that the Mahomedan record is inaccurate as they are unlikely to be confused with any other faith.

The increase among Christians is largely due to the number of famine children received into missidnary establishments.

The natural division retutns shew that the Plateau and Lowl-ying'country are chiefly inhabited by Hindus, with patches of Mahomedans here and there. The Hilly tracts are in main peopled by Animists. The Chapter, it will be seen, has been arrangedin sections A-Statistical; B-Descriptive; C'Sects; touching briefly, very briefly, I fear, oñ common forms of worship met with añd on the sects. Instances of the various forms of minot worship could have been multiplied indefinitely, but I have restricted myself to a few examples by way of illustrating the innumerable objects bf wotship thatiare to bee met witt in Central India. "A tavigled jutgle of disorderly saperstitions, ghosts and demons, dèmi-gods." "and deified taints, hotsehbld "gods, tribal yods, Yocal gods, "mīiversal" "gods, with their countless shrines and temples, and the din of their dis-er. "cordant rites."

## A. STATISTICAL.

36. Consideration of Figures.- Before considering the figures I must remark thatowing to the fact that no pergana records of the 1891 Census were preserved it has been impossible to make the adjustments which certain transfers? of territory from one political charge to another have rendered necessary. In this case I can, therefore, only compare the figures for all Central India.

As the term Animisty on this occasion, as I have already pointed out, only includes 12 specially selected tribes it has been necessary, when comparing the 1891 and 1881 figures to re-arrange these to suit the present classification.

In 1891 the aboriginal tribes, as they were then called, consisted of a long list of a somewhat heterogeneous character, while in 1881 only four tribes were? taken. I have thus been obliged to make out a table for the comparison of 1881 and 1901 figures, separate from that for 1891 and 9901.

The tribes taken on this occasion were selected after chreful considerationand $I$ am confident that the returns of the next Cenotisi will give Interesting results regarding the progress of the hinduising process among them.
37. Variation.- There bas been a fall in the figares of tall important reli-
$97-\mathrm{II}-8 \& 11$ gions resulting in a decrease in the total population of 16.4 par cent. in the last ten years, and in spite of an increase in 1891, of a met decrease of 6.8 on. the 20 years.

C (a) 1891 and 1901-The Eiudus in this period shew a fall of 15.7 per cent., Mahomedans one of 7 per ceht. and Animists one of 27 per cent.
f It is to be remembered that the Animist figures were certainly too high in 1891 and thut the fall $i s$, therefore, not in veality quite so great as' this. Still the forest tribes suffered very iseverely ini1900 from famine and disease:

The fall among tiadus is no doubt in; lagge measure due to increased mortality and emigration, the results of bad seasqus and, faminess,

The Mahotaedaṇs do not shew a yery large fall.
Without any vital, statistics et ant ato guide one, it is by no means easy to give authotitative reasons for varibiotsi I am inclined to think, from various: points that have arisen in comparing the figures that the Census of 1891 was throughout rather in excess of the facts, Christians, Jains, and "Others" shew a rise.

The rise among Christians is considerable, and is due principally to an 100 v -14. increase among Native Christians.

In 1891 there were only 1,084 Native Christians whereas in this Census there are 3,715 . These are found mostly in Indore, Bhopawar, and Bundelkhand political charges In these charges there are Mission establishments which in the two late famines secured a very large number of orphan children, and it is their numberg which go to swell the list. I have gone into this subject in рага. 41.

The increase among Jains is due to two causes. ' One is that the record of seeté hàs separated the Jain and Hindá Banias of the rame caste nume, and also to an actual increase which has taken place through the formation of newt trade centres, and to the stimplus to the sple of grain which the famine gave.
$\therefore$ The increase among "Others" is due to an increase of 19 per cent. among Parsis, and of 9 par rentramong Sikhs. In the frst case trade is responsible, in the second the altered constitution of regiments in Central Indir.
(b). 1881 and 1901--This table has been prepared so vs to adjust Animists to 'sume the classification of "1881: It will be seen from this that Bindus and Antinists baty she $\begin{gathered}\text { a fall, the others all siowing a rise, which in the case of }\end{gathered}$ $J_{\text {ains }}$ is enorinotis. This is undoubtedly ane to non-separation of Hindus and Jains in 1881 as much as to actual increase.
$\therefore$ The total population has fallen $6: 8$ per cent. in the twenty years.
38. Distribution-This table has been done in two ways showing in one case the distritation by ro,000 of each religion, and in the other case by 10,000 of total population, Gwalior Residency contains some 27 per cent, of the whole Hindu population of Céntral India, the next highest proportion being claimed by Bundelikhand, Baghelkband coming third. Indore Agency comes last, This is more or leas in orden of their respective areas.
a. Btiopal and Malma hold most iof the Jain population, over 20 per cent. each, Gwalior coinimign next, Indore Agency does mot shew 2 per cent, of this religion, Of Aaimists; Bagbelthand and Bhopamar claim most, some 30 per cent. each, while Indore Residency and Indore Agenoy do not shew 1 per cent,

Of Christians most are found in Indore Residency where the Jhow Cantonment raises the percentage to 56 , Indore Agency, on the other hand, only
„"5\&9.
99 „ 5.

97-II-11,

98-111-3.

$$
\text { " } 7
$$

" ${ }^{6}$ boasts 5 in 10,000 ,

98-111-6.

- ${ }^{-1 V}$-IV-2. hinduised district, 93 per cent. of itz population being of this, faith. Indore Agency and Gwalior come next, some 7 per cent. behind. Mahomedans are found chiefly in Indore Residency and Bhopal, Animists being found chiefly in Bhopawar where they make up 37 per cent. of the population.
$\therefore$ 39. : Natural Divisions.-Hindus compose most of the Plateau and Low-lying population. Out of every 100 Hindus in Central India, 41 live in these tracts, and only 18 in the Hilly.

When we turn to the distribution of 100 of the total population of each tract we see that the Low-lying tracts have 90 per cent. Hindus, the Plateau 81 per cent. and the Hilly 65 per cent.

The most Animistic in character are the Hilly tracts with 30 per cent. of this religion.
40. Christians.-Such comparisor as was possible has been made. The 1891 figures unfortunately do not tally among themselves, some mistake having crept in in distributing the figures between Cantonments and States.
100-V-2.
Most of the' Christians; some $70 \cdot 6 \cdot$ per. cent. live in cantonmente and stations so that the comparison of these figures is of more importance than of those : for states.
" 3 and 18.
Taking the figure, for all Central India there was an increase in 1891 of 1,049 and in 1901 of 2,115 .

The Christians bear a ratio of 9 in 10,000 to the total population of all. „-V-3, $4 \& 5$.religions, while; of 10,000 . Christians, 47 are Europeans, 7. Eurasians, and 46 Native Christians. Only the Native Christians have increased on this occa-
" $n-17$. sion, and the increase among them is a very large one.
.All districts shewan increase, Indore and Malwa the highest, then Bhopawar. . The only political charge in which there are no mission establishmente, viz., Baghelkhand, comes last. , This brings out strongly the effect of missions during . the late famine, .in increasing the number of Native Christians.

Eurasian figures are always too low, but why there should have been such a great fall in the numbers found in Gwalior, I cannot say, unless the feeling there against returning, "Eurasian". has increased abnormally, or the , return is incorrect.

European Christians are Military and Civil servants and their numbers, therefore, vary on artificial grounds.
41. Mission Establishments.-In connection with the remarks made above as to the : increase of Native Christians I think it, willinot be out of place to mention what work is being done in Central Indis in this direction.
' The following missions are aptually at work in Central India:-
(1) 'The Canadian Presbyterian mission, several stations;
(2) St. John's mission, Mhow;
(3) Friend's mission, Sihor;
(4) Society of Friends of Ohio, Nowgong;

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(5) Revd. Handley Bird's mission, Nimach ;
(6) Pandita Rama Bai's mission, Nimach ;
(7) Roman Catholic mission, various stations.

Besides these, with headquarters actually in Central India, there are missions on our borders. The Church Miseion at Bina, the U. P. Church of Scotland in Rajputana, the American Presbyterian Mission at Jhansi, the Methodist Missiorpu at Khandwa aud Barhanpur, the Irish Presbyterian Mission at Dohad, and the C. M S. establishment at Khandwa.

Of these different societies I have no special information save two, the Canadian Mission, and the Friends of Ohio, kindly furnished by Mr. Ledingham and Miss Fistler.

The Canadian Mission is far the most important. This Nission was started originally in 1877, at Indore and Mhow. Later on five new stations were opened at Nimach (1885), Ratlam (1885), Ojjain (1885), Dhar (1895) ind Awkhut (Ali Rajpur, 1897).

The work is done under three main bead, Evangelistic, Medical and Educational. The last head has been dealt with in Chapter V. - - -

The medical work is what brings the people most in contact with misstion. workers, and the famines through which Central India has passed have undoubiedly in this way greatly aided them. Thns it is said in the Report that "instead" "of having to go to distant villages to make known the Gospel, here were" "numbers of people from places which ordinarily we should not have reached," "instead of tens or scores our audiences numbered hundreds, instead of being" "regarded with fear and suspicion, here were timid wild men and women" "recognizing us as friends and benefactors and listering to us accordingly......" ...and many women and children remained with us permanently, as men gladly" "would have done if we could have employed them."

At the end of February 1901 there were 200 boys and 111 girls in the orphanage at Ratlam.

The figures below quoted from the report will shew how much relief was given medically. -
This medical work began in 1884 and has steadily increased. In Indore in 1891 there were 116 in -patients, 4,108 out-patients and 15,884 treatments; in 1899 the figures were $219,5,255$ and 1,522 respectively.

Nimach in the first year treated 15,775 cases, in 1899, 39,000 famine cases came through this dispensary and in 1900, 27,987 famine cases, and 52,459 of all kinds.

Similar figures are returned from othar dispenearies, all shewing that the work is considerable, and that famine years give an enormonsly increased number of patients and therefore of listeners, while the orphanages receive large numbers of parentless children.

Mhow reports only 50 children in the homes in 1891, but 140 in 1901. Ratlam had 500 to 700 people in 1901, mostly women and children.

Of results of evangelistic work only' the 1901 report gives any figures, 142 adulte and 28 infants of Christian pareats being baptised in the year.

The mission at Nowgong is managed by the "Friends Foreign Missionary Society of the Ohio Yearly meeting." It is on a small scale and worke in the district east of the Dhasan. river and round Nowgong and Chbatarpur. It started in 1896.

Since the start some five baptisms a year have taken place, among Boris, Chamars etc., mostly. Of the converts six now earn their own livelihood, only those who make a pablic confession of faith are allowed to receive baptism.

This will give some idea of the mission agency and particularly of the effect of famine years in assisting the work, and accounts for the increase emong Christians.


As to the value of the returnit is not very easy to give an opininn though it isan mos interesting one. The retary has been useful as serving to distinguish the followers of different faithe, but I do not know that we can say very moch more for it. $\chi^{\text {The record }}$ is prolific in names, but it is difficult to bay always what is meant.

There is good reason for this. Leaving the Brahman out of consideration the ordinary villager of Centrat India has ideas on Eect which we may class thus:-
(i). He attends a certain temple and the name by which it is known he gives as that of his sect.
(ii). Some particular guru is known to him personally, or has some connection with his family, and this guru's name does duty for a sect name.
(iii). There is some famed deity in his locality, this, he reveres, and gives the local deity's name as that of a sect. 'He has often been taught to place a sect mark on the forebead without well knowing why. He has been told it is efficacious, and knows that it is connected with a certain cult and particular Brahman, that is sufficient.
Instances of all these classes are met with.
The adjustment of the various names was not always easy, confessing myself igaorant I, however, found others knew little more. Wilson and other authorities soon failed, and one had to work through local channels.

Another fact also came to light that sectarisns of the same name from different parts of the country were not always willingly admitted to be of the same faith by co-sectarians elsewhere, which supports Bishop Wilberforce's remark that "Orthodoxy is my doxy, heterodoxy another man's doxy."
43. Hindu Sects.-Before we turn to the actual record of sects it will not be out of place to glance at the aspect of the Hindu religion with which we are ooncerned.

Monier Williamodixides the Bindu religion inththrcenpripds-
(1.) Vedism (в. c. 1500-1000.)-This period is represented in sacred songs and prayers found in the Vedas. The worship at this time was, broadly speaking, nature worship mingled with a vague idea of a supreme deity. The gods met with are Agni, the god of fire, Indra, the god of rain, Surya, or Savita the Sun, and so on. There is no trace of image worship, the faith was not idolatrous but animistic in character.
Brahmanism (в. с. 7-4. D. 4).-The natural development of Vedism. The forces of nature; become identified with a creative spirit, a single entity, Brahm (neuter). Later this spiritual form becomes manifested as the triune deity Brahma (Masculine) the creator, with Vishnu the preserver and Shiva the destroyer and regenerator. It is the age of Ritual, of Philosophical speculation, of Mythology and Law, producing the Brahmanas laying down rules for sacrifice and prayer, the Upanishad's, holding out the ductrine that this world is all Maya illusion, and freedom from earthly existence, and re-union with the great spirit the summum bonum; the great epics of the Mahabharatia and Ramayaina, and the code of Manu, were written at this time.
A special class of men has also developed, the Brahman, teaching a philosophy rather than a religion, a kind of spiritual pantheism.
Hinduisin (A. D. 8) - This development dates roughly from the time of Shankar-Acharya. it is Brahmanism run. to seed, a claos of incarnations and individual divinities.
The primordial essences Brahm (neut.) and its manifestation in Brahmá are of little account. Vishnu and Shiva claim all attention. It is in fact Bralimanism modified by all the creeds with which it has come in contact. "Starting" "from the Veda Hinduism has ended in embracing something from all religions" " and in presenting phases suited to all minds. It is all tolerant, all compliant, all" "comprehensive, all absorbing. Those who rest in ceremonial observances find" "it all sufficient; those who deny the efficacy of works, and make faith the" "one requisite, need not wander from its pale; those who are addicted to"; " sensual objects may have their tastes'gratified ; those whodelight in meditating" "on the nature of God and man, the relation of matter and spirit, the mystery" ? "of separate existence, and the origin of evil, may here indulge their love of" " speculation." And this capacity for almost endless expansion causes almost endless sectarian division, even among the followers of any particular line of doctrine. Such is briefly the creed with which we are concerned.

43A. Rustic faith.-I have tried to get an idea of the every day working faich of the rustic and of the rules by which he regulates his conduct. Of the Pandit's religion "rich with the sounding jargon of the schools" there are records enough, but the more primitive faith of the "swinked bedger " bas been unfairly neglected, possibly because information is so hard to get. It bas been almost impossible to get a genuine and at the same time an intelligent and satisfactory reply to the queries on this subject. It is not; however, surprising, as many men of mach education would not find it easy to describe their every day working religion in a few words, like Roger's, the perplexed examinee is apt
to reply that his religion is that of every sensible man, and that that no sensible man ever cells. Such few replies as are more or less to the purpose 1 will give.

An illiterate but intelligent inhabitant of Narsingarh State described his faith thus:-
"When I wake in the morning I cry " 0 Rám Rám grant me blessings and keep my name clean before the Raj and the Panches and save me from dangers," then I think on Ganeshji before beginning work, and ask for good crops from my fields. I think only on Rám and Ganesh as my support. My standard of right and wrong is what otbers think."

The advantage of doing good he summed up thus:-
"I shall gain respect and will have access to the Raj and the Panches and after death shall again get human form and be perhaps an Ijardar of four villages instead of one village as now, or even be a Jagirdar or Raja. If I do ill the Dharmrai, an epithet of Yama (Pluto), will throw meinto a maggoty pool, and I shall be sent down again to earth later on as a pig or dog. I keep fasts when told by the Brahman to do so. In my family there is a custom of putting one lonf aside every day for the cow."

Another instance, that of a quite rustic cultivator of Bundelkhand may be given :-

He said " All I know about religion (Dharm) is that every day I call Rám morning and night. All my time is taken up in work.

I do not do things which would outcaste me, associate with the low caste or eat forbidden things. This is all my religion."

Some digression might be made as to the ideas of right and wrong in . different communities, I will, however, only mention one.

In parts of Bundelkhand it is not thought wrong to graze your cattle by night in a neighbour's field, you are only taking a fair advantage, and are in no way condemned for having done so, but if you destroy another man's standing or growing crop the wrath of the whole village will fall on your head.

Among the post rustic classes ang regular daily form of worship, even by women is quite unusual. Big feasts are, of course, kept but without their reason. being known. The only regular and important act of worship carried out in. such uneducated classes is a worship of the tutelary deity, who is generally., known as Thakurii, or else is Devi in some local form. No Brahmanis employed and the worship is entirely a propitiatory one to avert evils during the year. from crops and family.

Generally the replies have given a view of rustic faith which we may sum up in these words.

Conduct is regulated by public opinion which is represented in each case by the views of caste-fellows, and the orders of the Raj or Sirkar.

Fear, utility, tradition, and hope for an improved earthly career at some other time are the principal regulators of conduct.

Heaven is a place where scented winds blow over a fruitful and watered land. Here the gods dwell, fairies dance and sing, and sacred hymns sre recited. And here the man of low station may eventually hope to mix with his superiors. This prospect of heaven is, however, a remote one; it is to an limproved earthly existence that he looks for future happiness, to command over
others, and increased possessions, not to association with his innumerable deities.

To this bliss he can reach only by pleasing the Panches and those in authority over him. Failure to do this wiil submit him to an unpleasant sojourn in the hell through which there flows a filthy stream.
> -_una pegola spessa che inviscava la ripa da ogni parte.

And he returus to earth as a pig or some lower form of life.
After all the rustic of Bundelkhnnd has in truth much the same aspirations, the same fears, and hopes as other human beings.

My brother bows (so saith Kabir)
To brass and stone in heathen vise,
but in my brother's voice I hear
'My own unuttered agonies
His god is as the fates assign
His prayer is all the world's and mine-(Kipling).
; Jainism.
44. General:-In forner days Jainism was of first importance in Central India, now-a-days its power has waned and the community is a small one, still I think it has somewhat special claims on our attention. I will briefly touch upon it.

The first idea that strikes one on examining the Jain religion is its resemblance to the better known faith of Budha.

Modern research appears to shew that of these two religions that of the Jains is the older.

One point in favour of this hypothesis is that of the two religions Jainism is much the simpler. "The ritual of the Jains is as simple as their moral code." "The Yati or devotee dispenses with acts of worship at his plensure and the lay' "votary is only bound to visit daily a temple where some . images of the' "Tirthaukars are erected" (Wilson): In this connection Brian Hodgson pointing out the greater complication of the Budhist faith says "Buddhism (to hazard a' "character in a few words) is monastic asceticism in morals, philosophical' "sceptism in religion; and whilst ecclesiastical history all over the world' - "affords abundant instances of such a state of things resulting from gross abuse' "of the religious sanction, that ample chronicle gives us no instance of it' "'as an original system of belief. Here is a legitimate inference from sound' "premises ; but that Buddhism was in very trath a reform or heresy and not an' 'soriginal system can be proved by the most abundant direct testimony of friends' "and enemies." Colebroke was also of opinion that Jainism was the older faith.

Further information can be found in the writings of Leumann, Bhuler anc others, a good review will be found in the introduction by Jacobi to the "Gaina Sutras" in the "Sacred books of the East" series.

The name Jain is from Jina, a conqueror, their saints having conquered th, temptations of this world.

The laity are called Srávalis "listeners," their priests Yatis "monks."
From the word Srávak has come Saraogi, a term which ịs rapidly becoming the name for a caste group, instead of general term for the laity.

The road to emancipation from the evils of this world was pointed out by 24 saints or "Tirthankars" preceptors (tirthankar). Now-a-days only 4 are at all common, ddhi Nath, the first of the 24, Nem Nath the 22nd, Parswanath the 23rd, and Mahavira the last.

The last is the most important and least mythical. He appears to have lived about B. C. 526 being contemporary with Budha.: There are even grounds for believing that he was Budha's tutor and that Budha seceded from Jainism to form hisown religion. The Jain tenets like those of Budha are that all life is sacred, that there are no castes, no deity, and that the Vedas of the Hindus have no sacred character such as is claimed for them, while the Brahman is the arch enemy of mankind.

Asceticism and celibacy are essential to a really holy life, one sutra runs thus "As a pot filled with lac will melt near the fire so even a wise monk will" "fall through intercourse with women." Mr, Gandhi, the Jain revivalist states that the ideal of Jain philosophy is physical, mental, moral, and spiritual perfection and after death for if necessary re-birth) the attainment of perfect individuality which does not vanish or merge into a supreme being, and is not a state of unconsciousness bat one of eternal perfected consciousness and eternal rectitude.

It differs in this from the Budbist idea of Nirvana which "implies the" "ideas of intellectual energy and of the cessation of individaal existence" (Rhys Davids). In Central India Jains profess to have'no connection with Hindus at all. This I have found to be practically the case as , regards the Digambaras and Dhundias, but it is not so with Swetambaras.

The Swetambaras have considerable connection with Vaishnav Hindus, so much so that sometimes in one family part will be found to be Sivetambara Jains and part Vaishnay Hindus. The two classes intermarry also. If a Jain girl marries a Vaishnav she conforms to Vaishnav usages and vice-versa.

Caste theoretically does not exist among Jains but actually whatever may have been the case in former days, the usual Hindu ideas on this subject pre: vail, especially among Swetambaras.

- It has been decided in the law courts even that a Jain family which becomes Vaishnav, but still follows Jain customs may rely on those customs, they being in spite of their change of faith to all intents and purposes Jains. (I. Le R:Cal. 17,518.)

45. Jains in Central India.-The Jains of Central India though nume. rically a small commanity are. by no means an unimportant one, as they hold the greater part of the trade in their hands, and are very wealthy.

I have been unable to find any records which give information as to the former position of these people in Central India, though legends are plentiful, I will briefly relate one or two.

The tenth Tirthankar Sithal Nath is said to have been born at the ancient city of Bhadalpur, which was overwhelmed in an earthquake but on the site of which the modern town of Bhelsa now stands. In these days Jainism was a power in the land.

Various royal houses seem to have followed this faith at various times, and Buchanan in his travels mentions that he met many Rajas professing this
religion (A. D. 1801). Tod relates as a sign of the position they held, how it was customary for the Udaipur Rana to go out and receive a Jain yati whenever one arrived at his capital. . Legend mentions one Bajra Karan as ruling at 'Dashanagar (Mandsaur) some 2500 years ago. This king is remembered for his brave refusal to do namaskar to any one who did not profess the Jain faith, and in consequence to have embroiled himself with his suzerain Singhodar of Avantika (Ujjain). Bajra Karan prevailed in the struggle and Singhodar was converted to Jainism, and thenceforth ranked as a Jain king.
. Central India is full of Jain temples, but none of these as they stand now are older than the year 1000 A . D.; though their foundations may often be much older. This is accounted for by the wholesale destruction of temples which appears to have taken place about A. D. 650, after which "for three centuries we have ouly the faintest glimmerings of what took place."

A revival of Jainism in Central India is said to have taken place in the daỳs of Chandra Gupta when the sage Bhadra Bhao came to visit Ujjain, but on that king's death, and during the twelve years famine which ravaged Malwa in those days the Jains seem to have been in bad case.
46. The Digambaras.-The Digambaras "clad in the four points of the compass," (i.e, "dky-clad" because their holy men go about naked) are found everywhere.

They appear to be the orthodox sect as Ananda Giri, who was a contemporary of Shankar Acharya and wrote in A. D. 910 , mentions no other sects in his treatise.

I will briefly enumerate the points on which they differ from other sects. They revere the 24 Tirthankars or holy men, but do not worship them, they: worship the Deva, Gurus and Dharm, looking on the Tirthankars as models and mediators but not as in themselves objects of worship. Sravaks at first are taught to worship the Tirthankars; as they rise in knowledge, and religious standing, they cease to do so. Gurus (Yatis) only look on the Tirthankars as examples to be followed.

The points of difference are:-

1. Digambaras do not adorn their images or fill the eyes with crystal, etc. I have been into many of their temples and should say that their images were distinguished by a more pensive attitude. In the case 'of seated images the right hand restson the left. Hindu gods are not found in their temples except Indra.occasionally, and they do not employ Brahmans to officiate.
2. They believe in 16 heavens.
3. Their Gurus go naked (or would but for police regulations) and only eat from the hands of a disciple.
4. They deny that women can attain eternal bliss. (Forbe's Ras Mala 1,172.)

In Central India they claim Makshi, Bawangaza, Bamera, Khajraho and Sonagir as Digambara places of pilgrimage, but as a matter of fact all sects resort to them.

Makshi, Bamera and Khajraho are Ati-shaya Kshetra, places where a miracle
has taken place. Aurangzeb once came to Makshi: On his arrival he ordered the destruction of the image of Paraswa Nath which stood there. That night he was hurled violently from his bed. Attributing this to the anger of the holy man whose image he had disturbed he replaced it and went away.; Sonagir is a Sidh Kshetra or place where a Tirthankar obtained his Nirvan.
5. They do not wear the Jáneo, or:use a sect mark though a tika is sometimes applied.
6. Their anthorities are various and shared with those of other sects.

47, Suetambaras.-The meaning of this name is "clothed in white." It is divided into 84 "Gachias." There is a local tradition' as to the foundation of this sect, which is undoubtedly of later origin than that of the Digambaras.

It is said that in the days of Chandra Gupta of Ujjain, Bhadra Bhao (Baha) went to that city. He demanded alms at a certain house; in this house he was warned miraculously by a child to go away for 12 years as famine was imminent. He had with him 2,400 disciples. He took 1,200 of these and went to the Dekhan, while the other 1,200 remained. They suffered much in the famine, and were obliged through stress to live entirely in the town. The people then induced them to put on clothes to hide their nakedness, and they adopted the langoti. When the famine was over the other monks came back and found these monks wearing clothes. They tried to induce then to give them up but they were met by refusal. On this they declined to associate with these clothed monkg at all. This is said to have been the origin of the Swetambara sect.

They are furthar considered to be divided into two groups, the Samvegis and the Dhundias. The Dhtndias will be treated separately. The Samvegis are the ordinary Swetambaras.

They differ in many points from the Digambaras:- $\rightarrow$

1. They adori their images with jewellery and insert crystal in the eyes. Their images are clothed always and on seated statues the left hand rests upon the right. They admit statues of Hinda gods into their temples and Brahmans often officiate:
2. They believe in i2 heavens.
3. Their Gurus go about in cléan white elothes (Swetambara) and eat fout of diskes.
4. They allow that women can attain eternal bliss.

In Central India they clain Makshi, Manda, Bibrod, SemFia Karaundi and Mandsaus as their particolay places of pilgrinaage.
5. They often wear a sect mark - like a flame called the Joti Sporirup or holy flame. This is very common among the Swetambaras of Indore and Ratlam. They do not as a rule wear the Janeo but when worshipping they throw the rumal across the shoulder in the position in which the Janeo rests, this they call Dttarasana.
6. Their authorities are 45 Angamas.
48. Dhundias.-This sect of which there are considerable numbers in Centrat India is a curious and interesting development.

They themselves strenuously resent the appellation of Dhundia which they assert has been given them by outsiders as a term of reproach. They call their belief Sadhu margi or Mfath margi.

This sect is of modern origin having come into existence apparently about S. 1545 (A. D. 1409), Another source gives S, 1700 (A. D. 1643) as the date at which oue Langia Lonka seceded aud formed a new sect. Tod in his "Westera India" mentions Lonkas as Jains who worship "one alone and not in temples made by art."

- I happened to be in Ratlam when one of their grent Gurus who was on tour was stopping there. I went to the monastery and had a long interview with him. -He expressed his views strongly as to the fact that there was no, sanction in the Jain books for the worship of images, or the need of temples ?

The name is said to have been derived from their having had to live in ruins (Dhund) or as the old Guru asserted from the fact that they always seek (Dhuidha) carefully to remove all animal life from their path for fear of destroying it.

Their tenets are these.

1. They have no images or temples at all.
2. They worship the abstract ideal only of Dharm and follow men who have overcome their passions.. They admit the good example of the Tirthankars but pay them no special respect.
i. 3. Their Gurus are dressed in dirty white. . They always carry a small broom of cotton fibre with which to sweep all animal life out of their path and wear over the mouth a pad to prevent themselves swallowing any small insect. They never wash or shave removing all hair by pulling it out. They eat only stale vegetables as there is less danger of their inadvertently destroying any animal life, They live in monasteries (Thanak).
3. They place women on an equality with men is regards the Sidh condition. These women are celibates. They dress in white and wear the pad and carry the broom just as the Sadhus do. They are also often educated and can read the sacred books. I myself saw them so engaged in a female Tradnak at Ratlam.
4. They do not wear the Janeo or use a sect mark.
5. They accept only 32 of the 45 Angamas and reject the Commentaries (Bhashya Charitra).

## The Deistic Hindu Religions.


49. Brahma Samxj.-The Hindu theistic creeds are not wholly the outcome' of the preaching of reformers of this class.

The unity of the Universe with the "Spiritual Essence" is the foundation of Brahmanical Philosophy, and if monotheism is not very distincily discernable in the te.ching of the old books, there is always a strong leaning towards "henotheism", or the exaluation of one individual god of the pantbeon orer all the rest. This striving towards monotheism is very strongly brought out in the tenching of Ramanuja, Vallabha and other Vaishnav reformers.

The Samaj movement was started by Rammohun Roy. He was a high caste Bengali Brahman, born about 17i2. He started his first meeing house in 1830 in Calcutta, He died at Bristol in 1833.

His work was continued by Debendra Nath Tagore. In $18 \stackrel{5}{8} 8$ Keshab Chandra Sen joined the Samaj. He differed from Debendra Nath on many
proints. He advocated the abandonment of the 浪red thread, of child marriage, and of marriage with more than one wife. He supported the edication of women, and held that all castes should intermarry freely.

This cansed a split and his followers started the "! Progressive Brahina Samaj" in 1869. In 1878, however, Keshab married his infant daughter to the Raja of Kuch Bibar thus violating ai his own tenets, this caused another split, and those who left him formed the "Sadharan Brahma Samaj."
-The Brahma Samaj movement in Central India began in 1883, . Babu Shiva Chandra Sen of the Sadharan Brahma Samaj of Calcutta and Mr Balkrishna Raghonath Jadhav of the Prarthana Samaj of Bombay introduced the theistic doctrines, or rather organized a regular community; there bad been sympathisers in Indore for some time

The Indore "Prarthana Samaj" was then started. In 1891 it was converted into the "Central India Brahma Samaj" and a mandir formally opened.

The Indore Samaj without.hetually subscribing to the tenets of any of the Calcutta Samajes approach in their views most nearly to the opinions held by the Sadharan Samaj which seceded from Keshab in 1878.

The Indore community, moreover, do not make any nice distinction between' the name "Hindu" and "Brahmo.". They' still keep to the name Hindu as shewing their origin, giving the term Brabmo as the designation of their seetBut they have not actually any castes.

- The followers of this form of religion are found chiefly in towns, Indore being their eentre.
... 50. The Arya Samaj in Central India.-This form of theistic Hinduism was started by Dayarianda Saraswati about the year 1875.

He preached a monotheism based on the Vedas, taking as his moto Ekam eva advitiyam. "There is but one being without a second".

He is suid, however, to have deliberately miscoñstrued texts for his own ends. He died in 1883.

In Indore the movement started in 1888, when Shri Swami Vishweshara Nand, and Shri Brahmachari Nitya Nand, missionaries of the Arya Samaj, came to Central India.

There were only fifteen members ${ }^{\circ}$ at first, but by 1894 , there were fifty. The branch in the Agent to the GovenoreGeneral's Camp was started in June 21st 1897.

Theso branches are all connected with the Ajmer Sabha. There are Sabhao at Nimach, Gwaliory Dewas and other places.

The Shrimati Paropakarini Sabha is recognized as the main body to which the Ajmer Sabha belongs. But the Central India branches have no connection with that section of the Sabha which allows meat to be eatent They observe the Vedic, Caste distinctions, that is Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaish, and Shudra, as known by their surnames of Sharma, Varma, Gupta and Das. They admit that a man can rise from a low to a high caste; or fall, in accordance with his actions.

In the Census they have returned their castes; and often shewn themselves fas "Hindu" with Arya as a sect. They say, however, they prefer to be called

Arya and nat Hiidu.'This mrovement is practically a patriotic protest igainst the spread of Christianity and the teaching of the Brahmo Samaj, assuriting as it does that the Hindu religious books can teach all that Christanity does, if properly interpreted.

## Animist.

51. General.--It is necessary to explain the meaning of the term "Animist:"

The term was, I believe, first introduced by Professor Tylor, and is used to designate that class of people who worship natural objecte and phenomena in the belief that they contain or are connected with spirits:
"As the buman body was held to live and act by virtue of its own inhabiting spirit, so the: operations of the world seemed to be castied on by other spirits".

Mr. Baines ita the 1891 Report quotes $\mathrm{Dr}_{\mathrm{r}}$. Tiele's interpretation which is that ased on the present occasion.
"Animism is the belief in the existence of Souls or Spirits, of which only the powerfut,.those on which man feels himself dependent, and before which he stands in awe, acquire the cank of divine beings, and become objectiv of worship: These apirits are conceived as moving rapidly through earth and air, and, either of their own accord, or because conjured by some spell, and thus under comparsion, appearing to men (Spiritism). But they may also take up their abode either permanently or temporarily in some object whether lifeless or living it matters not ; and this object, as endowed with higher power, is then worshipped or employed to protect individuals or communities (Fetishism). Spiritism, essentialIfy the same as what is now called spiritualism, must be carefully distinguished from Fietishism, but can only rarely be separated from it."
. The spirit was first; attached to some material object; but the belief.indetached spirits followed, and demons, genii and fairies-were the result.

The term animism has not always been used in the same sense. For the purpose of this Chapter it designates, as I have indicated, both spirits who areattached to trees, stones, etc. and those, who though free, inhabit them periodically. It excludes, however, the Hindu deity, such as Vishinu, Shiva, Ganpati and others, who has a distinct personality, and belongs as it were to a higher grade of beings.

Early man, it should be remembered, was much on the level of a civilised child as regards mentnI attuinments. He did not fully appreciate the difference bétiween himself and the animals round him. Lacking the critical faculty he accepted any explanation, however, grotesque, and the transformations familiar in fairy tales presented no more difficulties to him than they do to the child in the nursery:

The chief peculiarity of his mental attitude was that he regarded everything as animated, as endowed with life similar to his own, animism was the basis of his religion.

This "animism" is met with in all religious systems in those of Chine and" Egypt.irt that of the Incas; of the Semitic races and of the Aryans.

Mr. Lang says this is easily accounted for, as "an ancient identity of-mental status' and the working of similar mental forces at the attempt to explain the same phenomena will account without any theory of borrowing or transmission.
of myth, or of original unity of race, for the world wide diffusion of many mythical conceptions."'

We may, 1 think, divide the objects so worsbipped 万nto four classes, (1) Parts of Nature (i) Great, (ii) Minor.' (2) Spirits of Ancestors and others. (3) Objects endowed with Spirits, e. g.s. Fstishes. (4) A.Supreme deity who controls the rest, an over-lord, but who is distant and does. not concern himself with the everyday life of his creatures.

The whole subject is a fascinating one, due perhaps ns Professor Tylor says to the fact that "the higher deities of polytheism have their places in the" "general animistic system of maukind," .that animism forms the foundation from which spring all our omn ideas on the existence of deities generally, was the source whence came the advance "from the visible to the invisible, from ${ }^{\text {" }}$ "the thing that could be tonched-that could be seen-that could be heard-to" "devas that could no longer be tonched or heard or seen. The way was traced": "out by Nature herself", (Max:Mïllar).

As I have already explained the twelve tribes mentioned were selected as being animistic in their faith. I am aware that there are others who have claims, but they are as a rule more civilised, and their mode of life more settled.

Provincial Table A' shews those among Animists who have some claims to be considered as partly hinduised. Some rule had again to be made in selecting. these, and I , therefore, decided that all persons belonging to these 12 tribes who had returned themselves as "Hindu" and had given a legitimate Hindu sect at the same time, should be put iuto Table A, but not those who gave "Hindu": only and as often as not the name of their sept or of a local deva as that of their sect. This is, I think, quite a safe rule; and will, I hope, be of use to my successor ten years hence in enabling him to iguage the increase of Hindu proselyteism among this class. There is no doubt that this is going on steadily, especially. near military stations and towns.

It must be remembered that Animism is not confined to these 12 tribes, as. can be seen in the section on minor forms of worship, it is common enough among all Hindus; nor on the other hand are these 12 tribes free from all traces of the worship of Hindu gods. Far from it, they almost all pay some court to the best known gods and goddesses and to the deities of local shrines. There is no hard and fast line, those who live near and associate much with regular Hindu communities soon pick up Hindu ideas ; it is only those who live in the wilds who are Animists proper.

Instances of the classes I have divided the worship into are common: enough.

The Sun and' Moon are worshipped by the Satpura Bhils under the name of Sondal Deo.

Cases of minor nature worship are endless, and instances will be found in the section of this Chapter which deals with the suhject and in Chapter VIII under Totems. The Tutelary deits agfin is a feature of :rvery Bhil village. He may reside in a tree, rock or other object, and will guard and watch over
his own people, so long as he is well treated. Besides general reverence for their ancestors, the Bhilalas worship them at a great feast called Oojban held yearly, when all members of a clati meet. and go through various ceremonies. Large numbers of animists were returned as Pret pujaki. I have not very good instance of Fetish worship though sach things are bound to exist.

As supreme lord the Bhils have Bade Deo (or Bhagwan as they often call him borrowing a Hindu term). He is said to have no wife or child and pules all the world.

This very brief sketch will I think suffice for our purpose.

## MINOR FORMS OF WORSHIP AND REVERENCE.

52. Worship of rivers, etc.-Leaving aside the worship which is paid to the Narbada and other large streams of general repute, I will give a few instances of the worship of local streams and lakes. There are endless instances which might be given, and all I, therefore, propose to do is to take a typical example or two.

In Barwani there is a junction of two streams known as the Kapild-sangam from the name of the smaller of them. Near the village of Lohára in Barwani State this stream joins the waters of the Narbada.

It is, my informant tells me, the most sacred spot in the State. A festival is held here every year on Shivratri.

There are two legends connected with it which I will give.
About two handred yeare ago a certain cowherd noticed that a black cow - (black cows are here now generally named Kapila) used to come every evening ou't of the Narbada and feed among his cows.

As no one paid grazing fees for her he determined to follow her home and find out to ${ }^{\circ}$ whom she belonged. The cow made her way towards the Narbada. When she reached the bank to the cowherd's great satonishment the ground opened and she passed in. Nothing daunted, and determined to secure his fees, he entered behind her. They passed down ander the bed of the river and continuing for a little way the cowherd suddenly found himself face to face with a very venerable old gentleman who asked him what he did there and 'what he wanted;'

The cowherd told him the reason, upon which the old man gave him some Sal (nohusked rice). The cowherd as he retarned bome threw the rice away on the bank. Some grain, however, remained on his kandora (rope belt). On reaching lis house he was surprised on taking of his belt to find it was covered with goid dust. He then related his story and the neighbours agreed that the old man was Kapila Rishi who was known to be doing penance (tap) under the bed of the holy strearh. Ever since that day the spot where the cow entered the river has been held sacred. And as a stream flowed near this spot it was: called Kapila-sangam (Sangam-Junction).

The other legend rans thas:-
Many years ago Vasudhan, King of A yodbya, came to Lobára and made a great eacrifice there.

The Rishis who were present, when the sacrifice was over, bathed the king with milk, curds, ghi, and water from all the sacred rivers of Hindustian.

The stream caused by this aoointing flowed into the Narbada; the stream later on was called Kapila and its place of junction Kapila-sangam: The people still shew what they say are the heaps of ashes left from : the sacrifice, and their size warrints the assumption that the sacrifice must have been on a colossal scale.

To this place people go every Tuesday and bathe and its waters are supposed ta cure leprosy.

Various pools are also held sacred. An instance is that of the Malankund (corruption of Malikkund) in the Rajpur pergana of Barwani near, a place called Vagatta. This pool is a natural one in the Nihal river. On the bank of the river, which is very steep, is a large stone which is called Ifalon Dev.

The water of this pool is supposed to be specially effective as a cure for cattle disease... And if sprinkled on healthy cattle it acts as a prophylactic. People resort to it frum long distances with their herds. an offering of a piece of rope and a rod is made. The rod is planted and left till carried a'way by a flood. A rod and rope are uatually carried by graziers.

At Jobat there is a spring whose waters never fail, it is known as the spring of Mal Dev.

The legend is that many years ago there was a terrible drought in Jobat and men and cattle were dying by hundreds for want of water. One Mal Dév then wert and brought water from the Dohad tank and sprinkled it on the ground, thus starting the spring which goes by his name:

Of local river worship the Mahi is an instance. Bhils call it Mahi Mata and when setting out on a dakaiti expedition usually make their vows to this stream, promising a share of the booty to the spirit of the stream if they are successful. Among certain sections of the Bhils the feeling of awe for Maki Mata is so strong that if made to swear by the pame of this goddess man will dare to tell an untrath.

The waters of the stream are able to cleanse an unfatthnil wife of all impurity and make her fit to be taken back by her husband:

There are many instances of Tri-veni i.e., the meeting of three streams which are, as in other parts of India, always sacred.
53. Suake Worship, -The usual feasts common in other parts of India are observed in Central India and there is no need to go into them.

Almost every village in Central India has some-where, within its borders,* what is:called according to the locality a Bimbia Bhidat, Bami, Bhia-rani; Tanderia or Khakar:babaji.

As a rule the spot so named consists of a platform buitt round a snake hole but in some places, chiefly in the south of. Bhopaiwar: small shrines are erected.

Such shrines are to be found in Barwani. : These shrines always face east and in form much resemble the ordinary Hindu shrine. 1 stone is placed inside but not apparently of any special shape.

To the snake who inhabits these shrines it is usual to offer what are called

$\stackrel{1}{5}$Tubas. The Cuba consists of a wicker cover of this shape with a small crest on it. This is put over the stone and is said to act as a protection to the snake.

These covers are chiefly made and offered by women when they return thanks (mannat) for some wish fulfilled, generally the birth of a male child.

It is interesting to note that modern artyhas come to the rescue and a brilliant coloured picture of a cobra is allowed to do duty for the snake himself when the Bhilat is deserted or its rightful owner is out for the day.

In Jobat on the 14th day of the bright half of Bhàdrapada men tie a thread of 14 knots round the wrist and arm and go out to the snakes abode to worship. They make an image of a snake in grass, fthe sacred darbh grass being used for it. The usual offerings are made.

Dasora mahajans are specially snake worshippers and always carry about copper image of the cobra.

In Jobat the Bhils and Bhilalas also worship the python (Ajgar) and never injure it.

Women are the chief worshippers of snakes, and it is with regard to bearing children that the aid of the snake is specially invoked.

In Bundelkhand certain snakes are deemed sacred, the Bhia-rani, which is now looked on as a form of Devi. It appears that this word is a corruption of Bhuarahna a compound of Bhu earth," ah a snake, and rahna to dwell. There are many villages in Charkhari where this form of worship is common.

The special power attributed to them is that of curing gout and rheumatism and on Sundays and Wednesdays sufferers from these diseases come and offer cocoanuts, etc. There are priests at these places, not Brahmans, but as a rule a Brahman lives close by and manages to secure a portion of the gifts in return for his additional intercession.

There is an interesting legend that the people of Garkhera village in the Maksudangarh State are immune from the effects of snake bite. This immunity was conferred on them in perpetuity by a Gusain who was succoured by them in former days. So certain are the inhabitants of this village of the charm that protects them that they habitually have large numbers of snakes in their houses. and even the most venomous and deadly are, my informant says, treated "as playthings." "Large numbers are found in each house especially $;$ the summer season, beside a bed or hearth or grinding mill, and when in 1 \& way people simply throw them aside with the hand like other innocuous anim s."

My informant concludes by saying that "no death from sns\%e bite is ever reported from Garlhera?"

In this connection there is a well-known man in Indore why has the power to cure snake bite, is popularly supposed to have such power ans way.

I will give the origin of this power as it was told me.
One Yeshwanta, a dyer by trade and the great-great-grand ether of the prosent possessor of this power, once came upon a wounded cot. a. He took the animal home and credit. The snake when set free asked Ye 2wanta what gist
he could give him in return for his kindness. Yeshwanta asked that he might be granted the power of curing persons bitten by snakes, and that the power should be continued to his discendants for 7 generations. The. snake granted his wish and allowed the gift to continue for 14 generations. The person bitten must go to the curer's house and the circumstances of the bite being explained the effects of the poison are at once removed by the curer pronouncing the words "Leave him."

- The present possessor of these porvers is fifch in descent; his name is Chini Lal and he is, like his ancestor a dyer by trade. As an instance of the estimation held of his power I may mention that he is said to have lately cured a lady of wealth and position from Barwani. Chuni Lal is absolutely confident of his power aud is open to any form of trial ! My correspondent concludes by saying' that "Simple folks when bitten by snakes may be seen going to his house even in these days!"

A sinilar gift lies with a family of Orchha State.
54. Tree worship.-Trees are worsbipped in Central India much as they are in other parts of India. The Bar (Ficus Indica), the Pipal (Ficus Religiosa), the Nim (Uelia Azadirachta), the Güllar (Fićus Glomeraia), the Bel (Aegle Marmelos), the Tulsi (Ocymum sanctum), the Shami (Acacia Suma), etc., and the dual and three fold combinations such as the "Har-Skankari" combination of Nim and Pipal and the Triveni of Bar, Pipal and Nim are all sacred.

Many trees are tribe toteins among the Animists, this will be noticed in Chapter VIII.

There is no need to go into this subject of tree worship in any detail.
The Pipal is supposed to be specially occupied by the whole pantheon on Saturdays. ". In the root lies Brahma, in"the naval Vishnu, in the branches Mahadeo, and in every lenf a deota, Vasudev is its name."

On other days of the week minor personages of the deo class frequent it.
Of the Bar and Pipal every child learns this saying. "It is better to die a leper than pluck a leaf off a pipal, and he who can wound a Bar will kick bis little sister."

Every place has sicred trees of this class.
There is a very well-know Triveni 3 miles from Barwani town at Rajaghat.

One use of the sacred tree is to avert the ill luck which attends a third marriage. •Thus many Hindus, who have lost two wives and are about to marry a third, before doing so go through the ceremony of marriage with the Rui plant (Calatropis Gigantia). His actual marriage then counts as the fourth!

The shami (Acacia suma) is always used at the Dasehra festival. It is. enclosed in branches from the Apta tree (Banhinea' tomentosa). Persons who have witnessed the ceremony at Indore will recollect how the branches of Apta are pulled to pieces by the crowd at the conclusion of an act of worship that takes plate.

The 'Khejra' is sometimes similarly used, and at Ratlam the Raja when going in procession on that day gets off and pays bomage to every tree of this kind passed.
55. Worship of Heroes.- Worship of this class is very, common, the personage worshipped in the case of hero-worship being generally nearer actual deification, the greater the interval since his death.

I will give one or two instances out of many which have been collected.
Among all Hindu classes in Bundelkhand the worship of one Hardaul is common.

The story runs thus-
Somewhere about the years A. D. 1735-40 one Jujhar Singh was Raja of Orchha, he had a younger brother Hardaul Singh. Jujhar Singh had a young wife whom he suspected of undue intimacy with his brother. Proteste of innocence were of no avail, and Jujhar Singh determined to test the sincerity of the protests.

He gave his wife a cup of poison saying, "If you love me give this cup to Hardaul, if you love him, drink it yourself."

When she next maw Hardaul she told him the conditions. Hardaul said "If the king thus • buspects me I will obey his order, give me the cup." He drank the contents and died on the spot. A platform was erected to his memory at the spot where he was cremated.

Hardaul had a sister who lived near Orchba. On hearing of his death she erected a chabutra in her villsge to bis memory.

When she was about to be married she asked her living brother, with whom she had never been on good terms since Hardaul's death, to assist her. He refused and she weeping bitterly went to the chabutra and implored Hardaul to send her help. She heard a voice which directed her to a certain spot where she would find treasure and be able to defray the marriage expenses. The fame of this miracle spread far and wide and in almost every village chabutras were erected to the memory of Hardaul.

Women always go and worship at the particular chabutra in their village on occasions of marriage ; and towards the end of August a regular day of . worship is fixed.

A certain Diwan of Charlhari State Hansju, a son of Maharaja Bijay Bahadur of Cbarkhari, died in 1768 in Charkhari.

A platform was erected on the spot where he was cremated. Hansju was not, my informant says, particularly famous during life, but since death he, or rather his place of cremation, has been credited with the power of curing fever, and in the early morning of Sundays and Wednesdays people go and worship there in hope of getting cured. The chabutra is looked after by the women of the town.

In Maksadangarb there are two rather interesting cases of the process of elevation to deified rank,

Hira Lal lived in Maksudangarl 80 years ago. He was killed by dakairs, who cut of his head. His decapitated body, it is said,'ran three miles till it fell beside a hill near the town. Here it was cremated and a cairn (pathuari) raised on the spot. His cairn is now resorted to as a place of prayer whence requests are obtained.

Another case in the same place is that of "Chogare. Thakur" as the was called, he lived only 40 years ago and is remembered by plenty of people still living.

He was well-known in the country side for his habit of wearing a green branch in his turban (whence his nickname) as his real name was Suraj Singh.

He was killed by dakaits and a cairn raised at the place where he was cremated.
Out of respect to him or, as it seems, more out of respect for the badge which made him so well-known, all passers-by stick a green bough into the cairn when they pass it. And it is almays seen stuck full of these. His real name has almost been forgotten but the title of "Chogare Thakur" is known to all. In this case the spot has not set become one for regular worship, but there are signs that it is rapidly becoming so as actual recollection of the dead man dies away, and in another ten or twenty years his tomb will be credited - with miraculous powers.

There is a rather curious custom reported from Bhopawar for exorcising the demon of cholera.

In all villages there are stones which go by the name of Moti Mata or Lalbai Fulbai.

When cholera is prevalent these stones are worshipped. A Burwa offciates (the Burwa is the witch finder or "medicine-man" of the Bhil country). - He cuts off the head of a goat and offers it to the goddess, with some lemons, pice, a few eggs, flowers, etc., in a potsherd (Khapra) are offered, while a small toy cart (Ratha) is placed beside the stones.

When the goat's head has been properly offered the Burua takes up the .Khapra and places it on his head. A Balai takes a living goat, another Balai carrying a pot full of conntry liquor which drops slowly out of a small hole in the , bottom. Behind this man comes the Ratha which is pulled by athird Balai.

The Burwa with the Rhapra on his head follows. After him come the villagers. Every one as a rule takes part in the procession. , They direct their way towards Unkareshwar (Onkarnath). On reaching the boundary of the town or village the Burwa throws away the Khapra and the villagers return home. The Balais, however, take on the Ratha and goat which are passed on from village to village till they reach, Sailana a village near Unkareshwar.

Here the goddess Sát Mátrá (सात्त मात्रा) hà her real home. By this means the goddess of cholera is said to be enticed away out of the limits of the town, and is induced to return to Unkareshwar where her proper dwelling place is, the Katha is provided for ber conveyance, the goat and wine to attract ber away.

The greatest alacrity is shewn in passing on the goat and the Ratha in which the goddess is supposed to be travelling. The Balais conductiug them, shout on nearing a village and are immediately relieved of their charge which is hurried on to the next place.
56. Hero worship among Mahomedans:-There are endless.instances of hero worship to be met with among the Mahomedans of this country. Almost every village has its Pir's tomb and in places such as Dhar where the Mahomedan element was at one time very strong, a shrine may be found ,at every corner, each with its legend, often quaint, always interesting. Space will only allorv me to quote one or two examples, the rest will, I hope, one
of these days see the light elsewhere. These examples, shew how easy it is for a man who was distinguished by no: special attributes while in this world to attain to sainthood after death.

One instance is reported from Maksudangarb. At Kherar village there is a tomb to one Saikh Saadullah which has now a high repute for sanctity and for the power it has of conferring benefits. Saadullah was in life only a sowar attached to the forces of the Subab. He was killed in a fight at Lohangi Bari, a village near Bhelsa. - His head being cut off his horse fled home carrying the body.into the village. Where the body fell the villagers buried it, and erected a tomb over, it. They also went out and buried the head on the spot where it had fallen.

As time rolled on the tomb in the village acquired a reputation for holiness and the dead sowar, now known as Saikh Saadullah Wali, was credited with powers which he certainly never possessed in life. Mahomedans and Hindus equally revere the tomb and resort to it to obtain answers to their requests. It is locally known to the people as Pir. Sahib ki Dargah.

In Charkhari, on the bank of the lake, on which the Guest house stands there is the tomb of one Shahid. Local reports have it that Shahid, who used to frequent the neighbourhood of the tree when alive, is still often scen at night standing by it dressed in white. And he often opens the closed doors of the Guest house at the dead of night and enters, but when sought for no one. is found. A shrine was put up to him in 1881, which is visited by Mahomedan women every Thursday with offering.

Another rather curious case is that of Gulab Rai Baba. It shews how a man who suffers from some unusual death may be credited with miraculous powers, though when alive he led a life in no way connected with religious observances. Gulab Rai was a juggler who visited the state of Charkhari in the days of Maharaja Khuman Singh. He undertook to walk on a slack rope from the fort to a tall tree fome hundreds of yards away. The Raja promised hima jagir if he succeeded. He started and got close to the fort when, as my correspondent says, either by "chance or treachery," the rope snapt and he was killed. - He was buried where he fell. He has now acquired the power of preserving people from death by snake bite. Those who wish to be made immune, visit the tomb on a certain day about the end of August. They eat black sugar and Zhali (oil cakes) and make the usual offerings.

One more instance may be given.
A. little north of Dhar fort there is a tomb known as that of Data Bandi Chhora. This man's real name was Saiyad Mahomed and he was in charge of that fort hawalat. The chief of those days (name unknown) was a leper. His hakim had told him that there was only one certain cure for bim and that was to bathe in the blood of nine hundred newly married couples. After much difficulty the requisite number was collected and put in charge of Saiyad Mahomed. He was ignorant at the time why they had been confined. At length an auspicious day and hour were fixed on and Saiyad Mahomed then heard what was to be done: He went to his mother and consulted her as to whether it would not be a righteous act to free those innocent people. She agreed that it would be. Saiyad Mahomed, therefore, returned to the fort and set all the prisoners loose.

The chief heard of this and was naturally furious.' He sent his guard up to apprehend Saiyad Mahomed.

As soon as they got to the fort Saiyad Mahomed attacked them with fury but was overpowered and his head cut off.

His body, however, went on fighting for some time after, until it fell down at a spot outside the fort. His friends buried his head and body at the places where they fell. Next day the tombs were found covered with flowers which had been strewn by no mortal hand. This was believed to shew the
approval of heaven to his action. The chief sent for some of these flowers which, he kept some time in water. He afterwards drank this water (history does not relate why) and was astonished to find his leprosy cured. Recognizing the miracle he at once built tombs over the head and body of Saiyad Mahomed, and appointed grants for the maintenance of Mujauivars to look after the tombs and gave further grants in charity, all of which are still kept. My informant says that the reputation of these tombs is immense and reverence is paid equally by Mahomedan and Hindu. He adds "nine out of ten beggars in the street will be heard pronouncing the benediction "May Bandi Chhora bless you. "" The name Bandi Chhora has been given bim for his action in freeing the prisoners.

56 A. Hinduising of the Animistic Tribes.-This table shews, as I have mentioned, all Animists who return themselves as Hindus and at the same time gave a definite Hindu sect.

It will be seen in all cases the figure in the Hindu column exceeds that in the Animistic.

This merely illustrates the strong desire there is to be considered as a member of $a$ superior religion, or at any rate of the religion of the raling race; in actual observances these "Hindus" differ in nowise from the rest of the tribe.

Locality, it will be seen, affects the numbers. Thus the Gwalior Minor states and Gwalior state shew the highest percentage of hinduised; while Bhopawar and Malwa come last in this respect.

Among the tribes Korkus shew the least influence, Seherias most.
The real interest of the table, however, lies in the possibility which it gives of gunging at a future Census how far the Hinduising bas progressed.

The tribes selected are representative, and come from all parts, thus serving as a good criterion for the general progress of Hinduising among other tribes in the same localities, who have not been specially selected as "Animits."
C.-SECTS.
57. General.-I propose in this section to give a brief sketch of the sects which have been recorded. Time and want of information have made it imperative to cartail somewhat the description which I had hoped to give of the numerous local sects found in Bundelkhand.

The whole record was prolific in names, but many of the names. were only those of castes or general terms, such as Kori, Ahirwansi, Mandir-margi Parswa-nath, Bhagwan etc.

The Animists have properly no sects and as often as not give the sept name as that of their sect.

I propose to divide this section into three parts dealing respectively with, Hindu sects, Mahomedan, and Christian. The Hiadu sects part will be further divided into four sub-sections on (1) Regular sects, (2) minor deities, (3) Local and miscellaneous and (4) Ascetics.

Even when sifted the names are sufficiently numerous specially among the Bindus and as a certain writer on this subject has said, "If one of the Rishis by whom the Vedic Hymns are said to have been composed, could visit again the scenes of his life everything would excite his wonder. His own people would be strangers to him. "He would need a guide to their temples, their images woald be un-meaning. hieroglyphics, the trident of the Vaishnavite and the sacred ashes of the Shaivite would be a mystery.

Ram, Krishna and Grnesh would be strange gods and the wild poetry in which their deeds wers recited would recall sad memories of the stern. simplicity of the chants in which he has invoked the favourable influences of Indra, Varuna and Agni."

It must be remembered that there is nothing usually antagonistic in the opinions of sects such as Shaivites and Vaishnavas both appeal to the Puranas and admit each others gods, only placing their particular deity above the rest.

## I.-HINDU SECTS.

## 58.-Regutar Sects :-

- Aghori $\quad . . . \quad \because \quad$... $\quad . . \quad$... 5
(A-ghorn,: "not teriffic" a euphemistic title of Shiva.) There are only five of this class of persons in Central India. They are well-known for their disgusting habit of eating carrion and have been detected exhuming haman bodies. The origin of the worship seems to be some form of Durga worship, the sect, however, is fast dying out.


The founder of this sect lived about the end of the XIV Century. His birth is obscure, but he was brought up by some weavers at Benares. Later on he met-Ramanand and was taken by his teaching. He is curiously mixed up with boch Hindus and Mahomedans, as when he died they disputed as to who should carry out his.funeral ceremony. One special interest attaching to his writings which are most voluminous, is that they were freely used by Nanak Guru, the founder of the Sikh religion, in the Adi Granth. The sayings of 'Kabir are known to all educated natives whether Hindu or Mahomedan, and together with those of Nazir are in common daily use. He was very liberal-minded, and though, as a disciple of Ramanand he gave a preference to the worship of Yishno still it was "No part of their faith" "to worship any Hindu deity or to observe any rites or ceremc.nials of the" "Hindus whether orthodox or schismatical." He even held that there was but one God, be his name Vishnu, Shiva, Allah or Christ. No special dress is worn and no mantra used, such things being of no importance, the inward man alone is to be regarded. .He held also that obedience to spiritual teachers was essential, but that before accepting any teacher his tenets and his adr. herence to them.in daily life must be carcfully tested, blind obedience was a sin. They are distinguished for their "quaker-like spirit, and their abhorrence of all violence, their regard for truth and the unobtrusiveness of their opinions." Local interest centres in Kabir who at one time is said to have resided in a cave at Bandogarh near Riwa. The place is still known as s: Kabir ki gufa" and is held sacred. The weavers (Kori) are almost all of this sect. Dadu-Panthis are the followers of a cotton cleaner Dadu who was a disciple of Kabir (A. D. 1600). They follow much the same doctrine as Kibir-panthis.

Madhucachaxiss ... ... ... ... 2047.
A South of India sect practically unknown in the Gangetic basin. The sect was founded by a Brahman in A. D. 1199 at Tuluva. He travelled much and had many disputes with the great Shaivite teacher Shankar Acharya.

They wear the trident mark but often make the centre line black, They differ from the Ramanujas in denying the non-duality of Vishnu, and holding that there is no such thing as Moksha, that is absorption into the supreme spirit after death and loss of all individuality. They have
strong Shaivite leanings and admit Shiva and Ganesh to equal honours with Vishnu in their temples.

Muluk Dasis or Ram Sanehis ... ... . ... 1,145.
A sub-division of the Ramanandis, Malik was borñat Kara Manikpur abont 1600. He does not seem to have introduced any very striking variatious into the ordinary $\mathrm{F}_{\text {nishnav }}$ doctrines, save perhaps that of allowing the ascetics of the community to be householders. They worship Vishnu as Rama.

$$
\text { Narayani } \quad \cdots \quad \text {... } . \quad . . . \quad . . . \quad 20,364
$$

Fontrucs of Swami Narayan a Vaishnav teacher who was born in 1780 at Lucknow. . He was strongly opposed to the easy tenets of Vallabbacharya. He went in 1800 to Junagarh and later to Alumedahad where he raised a fullowing. His teaching was a protest against the Vallabhacbari idea that asceticism and abstinence were useless.' Bishop Heter relates bow he interviewed bim.

Nimavatarer .... ... ......... 540.
Founded by Nimbadyta. They worship Krishna-Radha.


Rai Das was a pupil of Ramanand and a Chamar by caste. The Brahmans objected to his acting as a priest in a temple dedicated to Rama which he had himself erected. When called upon to explain how he dared to act thus, he relied on his boly character to carry him through and in a test miracle with the Brahmans came off victorious, and was left in peace -afterwards.

The real interest lies in the fact of a Chamar being thus recognized ps a teacher by higher castes. Local tradition says he was borin in Mandu near Dhar in 1591.

Most of the followers of this sect are Chamars. Rama is their object of worship.

This sub-division of the Vaishnavas was founded by Ramanand in the XIV or XV Century. The story runs that he was a follower of Ramanuja, but having travelled a great deal his co-sectarians refused to receive him on his returu, saying that he must have transyressed the rules about feeding and could not be allowed to associate with them. He then founded a new sect, He repudiated caste distinction, and a Dum was the historian of the sect. The famous poets Sur Das and Tulshi Das were his pupils. They worship Vishnu in: his incaraation of Ramchandra. . They are much less strict in their observances than the Ramanujas.

Shaivism.-Those who come under the head of Shaivites are worshippers of Shiva the third person of the Hindu Trimurti. He is the destroyer and regenerator and it is this power of conferring regeneration through the process of death that gives his worship its strong individuality. Sir Alfred Lyall has well described these characteristics in his poem on Shiva.

He is shewn in his representations as wearing a necklace of skulls (munda mala) carryinga trideut (Trishula), a noose (pasha), in bis eurs are serpent earrings (naga hiundla). He has three eses, one in the middle of his forehead. His
hair is done up in a matted crown (jata) and he is usually seated on a tiger skin ( $P$ yaghrambar). In temples and shrines he is represented by his emblem the Lingam and its counterpart the Yoni. While outside there is ordinarily the seated figure of the bull Nandi.

The great Shaivite teacher was Shankar-Acharya who lived about the VIII Century. He was a Smart Brahman and Sanyasi. He advocated a panthestic religion, and non-dualism. There was, he said, only one essence of all things, Bramh para Bramh. As, however, this was too lofty for conception by ordinary mortals they were enabled to appreciate it by the adoration of material deities such as. Bramba, Vishnu and Shiva.
Shaivies $\because \cdot . . \begin{array}{ll}\text { Shaiv 737,229 } & \text { Lingasats } 56 . \\ \text { Shivbhakt } 5,380 & \text { Shiv upasi } 313 .\end{array}$

- It will be seen that the worship of Shiva is not nearly so prevalent as that of Vishnu, although it is far more obtrusive in as much as, at any rate in Central India, you cannot wally five miles without coming across several Shaivite temples or at any rate shrines with the Nandi seated outside, and the Lingans within. What Shiva himself lacks in the way of worshippers is more than compensated for by the number who revere his wife, as will be seen under Shakts.

Shation. ... . ... ... . ... ... 759,297.
Every. God of the Hindu pantheon has a female counterpart his shakti. Shakti properly speaking is the "active principle" the power or energy of the divine nature in action.
-The shakti' of Bramha is Saraswati, of VishnuLakshmi, of Shiva Parvati. Each manifestation of the God has a shukti to suit it. Thus Vishnu as Krishna has Radha; as Rama Sita, while Shiva in his peaceful aspect has Parvati and inhis character of the destroyer Kali or Durga.

It wifl also be found that the female counterpart of the god is the more important of the two, and is attributed with most power.

When Shaktism is spoken of it usually means the worship of Devi, 'that is of the Shakti of Shiva. She has endless forms ranging from the peaceful one of Annapurna, the goddess who supplies food, to the savage blood demanding Durga or Kali.

| Sinarit | ... | ... | $\cdots$ | ...1,069,137. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Punct Dev pujak | ... | ... | ... | ... 11,901 |

The Smartas are followers of Shankar-Acharya, and, therefore, nominally Shaivites.' As a matter of fact, however, their doctrine is a liberal one. They hold that Bramha, Vishnu and Shivia all have their place, while Shiva is supreme the other two being manifestations of him. They are thus lenient in their treatment of the views of other sects. They are often called Panch Den Pujak (especially in Baghelkhand) being supposed to hold Bramha, Vishnu, Shiva, Gànesh and Durga in equal veneration. Actually the: Smart doctrine should only extend this absolute equality to the three persons' of the'Tri-murti.

$$
\text { S.ivaiguay } \quad \cdots\left\{\begin{array}{llll}
\text { Vishnu } & \ldots & \ldots & 344,168 . \\
\text { Ramanuja } & \cdots & \cdots & 91 .
\end{array}\right.
$$

It is not easy to say how many of those returned as Vaishnav are really Ramnnujas, only 91 having actually distinguished themselves as such.

This sect was founded by Ramanujar. He was born in Madras in A. D: 1017 (Wilson) and travelled teạching his doctrines. According to their tenets Vishnu is primarily the first canse of all things as the soul of the Universe, and secondly as matter he is the efficient cause of all, things, there is, however, no duality in this, Vishnu and the Universe being one and the same.

The distinguishing trait of this sect is their minute scrupulosity in matters of eating and drinking. They must always wash first and only eat in a silk garment, never in cotton. The meal must be private, if the glance of a stranger falls on it, it must be rejected and at once buried.

$$
\text { Vaishnavas. ... ... ... ... ... } 1,883,618
$$

The Vaishnavas are, as their name implies, the followers of Vishnu. It must be remembered that this does not mean that they worship Vishnu exclusively, but that they give him the preference over the others. -

This is the same in each case as Kali Das says.
"In these persons the one god was shewa"
"Each first in place, each last not one alone"
"Brabma, Vishnn, Stiva, each may. be".
"First, second, third among the blessed three."
(Griffith's translation.)
Vislunu is generally recognized as the second of the \#indu triad' of Bramha, Vishnu and Shira. His attributes are of a peaceful nature. He has had numerous incarnations which give him considerable advantages as regards collecting a folloring, each important form having its own set of devotees.

- The sect mark of this community is gencrally the trident drawn on the forehead, which is varied as to details of colour, and shape in different sub-sects.

| Vallabhacharis | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | ... |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Radha Vallabhis | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\cdots$ | ... |
| R1,576. |  |  |  |  |

These two sects are respectively worshippers of Krishna, and of Krisbna and his wife Radha together. The sect was founded by Vallabhacharya, who was born 1479 (M. Williams). He at one time went to Ujjain where he took' up his position (baithak) under a Pipal tree on the banks of the Sipra river at a spot which is still revered as having beepn his seat. The only strikiog difference in his teaching to that of ordinary Vaishnavism was that ascetism was useless, and his doctrine is called Pushti-Marga or the way of eating and drinking. The result of this was that all the rich commercial community adopted his views especially in Malwa and Gujarath. In Malwa nearly all the Banias are either of this class or Jains.

The sect mark which is often seen in Indore consists of the trident which meets below in a curved line just above the nose. Over this a small round spot is made. A yellow line is sometimes drawn across the forehead just above the eyelids. This mark is supposed to represent Krishna by the perpendicular lines, and Radha by the dot. Their form of salutation is Jaya Gopal. There is a famous temple of Sri Nath Dwar in Ajmer belonging to this community, to which every member is supposed to go at least once in his life when he is given a certificate of having sone there.
 deity, especially among Marathas. Aninapurna is Shiva's wife. She is the "filler with food". She has a temple at Benares.

Dalaji ".. ... ... .. ... ... 3,949
This god was a minor incarnation of Vishnu. He is the god of riches and wealth and is especially supported by the Bania classes. His incarnation took place at Tripati in Madras but he is essentially a Dekhani and Maratha deity. He-had two wives one Lakshmi the other Satyabhama, who are generally represenced with him. The name Balaji is a common one among natives.

| Bhairavg | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $20,766$. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\overline{\text { Bhairon }}$ | $\therefore$. | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $67,191$. |

The name of this deity is derived from Bheru, "terrible." He is $a$ son, or form of Shiva. This god is very common in these parts where he has come from the Dekban. He is represented as a rale holding a cup in one hand and a severed bead in the other and is accompanied by a dog. In his other hand be often carries the trident and mace of Shiva. There is an image just outside the old palace at Datia.


A Shaivite teacher and Yogi. He lived in the XV Century. Supposed to be an incarnation of Brahma, Vishnu and Shiva. In the temple at Wai near Satara he has three heads. There are temples at Indore, Gwalior and in Maratha States generally.

Dharam Raj ... ... ... ... 119.
Fama the god of Narakia or hell is thus titled. He is worshipped on the second day of Kartik, together with his sister Yamuna (Jumna), and in commemoration of her having ministered to bim on that day, sisters give entertainments to their brothers.

| Ganapatyas | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | ... | $\ldots$ | 949. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: |
| Ganeshji | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | ... | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots 3,129$. |

Worshippers of the elephant headed god Ganesh.
As a matter of fact all "Hindus worship Ganesh as he must be invoked before nny piece of work is undertaken or any journey commenced.

| Hanuman | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $3,520$. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Mahabir | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $40,631$. |

The well known monkey god who helped Rama to recover his wife from Ravana.

$$
\text { Indra } . . . \quad \text {... } \quad . .
$$

The god of the firmament and atmospbere. His worship was in the Vedic period of the highest importance but now-a-days bolds a very minor place.

Khande $R_{\text {Rao }}$.... ... ... ... ... 12,812
Khande Rao is an incarnation of Shiva. This incarnarion took place for the purpose of delivering people from the oppression of a giant ralled Manimal. There is a well known temple to him at Jejuri, a town 30 miles souil-east of

Poona. Images of Khande Rao are very :common- He is represented riding on a horse, with a sword in one hand and generally his wife Malsara on his thigh, while nometimes a dog is also with themv, People living in Indore will know the temple to Khande Rao near Piplia ka pala village on the west side of the Mhow road just beyond the big bridge. It is curious that though the Nandia and even Devi's tiger are shewn, the temple is full of figures of Krishna, while Vishnu's foot marks accompanied by Shankh, Gada and Chakra stand on a slab just without the temple.


This personage is an incernation of Vishnu. It took place at Pandharpur a town about 130 miles south of Poona. There is a fine temple to him there. He is popularly known as Vithoba. He was made famous by the verses of Tukaram. He is usually represented standing on a brick. "Beautiful is that object upright on a brick resting his hands on the loins". (Tukaram).

Shani or Shanischar is the planet Saturn. The worshippers are almost fall found in Gwalior. The reason for this is the temple at Gwalior dedicated to the planet.

These men are worshippers of the sun, though not exclusively so.
They say that the sun is Brahma in the morning, Shiva at noon, and Vishnu in the evening.

The worshippers are nearly all Brahmans. They must see the sun before they can eat. They have three caste marks, either of three straight lines across the forehead of red sandal, or of a single perpendicular line, or a double cresent joined by a bar in the centre.
 derived from $A i$, "that has come" and Mata "mother," she having been revealed to the founder of the sect in a dream. The sect seems to have its origin in Marwar and there is a quaint legend regarding its origin which it is not possible to insert owing to its length.

Most of the Salvis, weavers of Ratlam are of this sect. They formally dedicate the first born child to the goddess. Information can be found in the second volume of the Jodhpur Census report for 1891.
$\|_{\text {Amba mata }}^{\text {An }} \ldots$ is in Ahmedabad whence a priest comes periodically to Ratlam. He carries a trident covered with Sindur and a cloth called Odhani of red colour. The curious thing about thiq, sect is that the day for marriage is fixed by revelation about once every ten or twelve years. This takes place at Ahmedabad where a letter is "precipitated" by the goddess, giving the date. As soon as this is known it is circulated and arrangements are made to perform the marriages of every boy and girl who are still single
be their age as tender as you will, for unless this is done there will be no chance of carrying out the ceremony for another ten or twelve years. There is apparently a mixed reverence for Vishnu and Shiva, as the Shaligram, Tulshi plant and Rama are found in the temple along with Amba mata and both the Ramayana and Bhagwat are their sacred books.

The sect mark is a line made with Sindur between the ege brows or else a smear of it over the forehead.;

( 4000 in Bundel). Connected with Devi in the form of Bhawani in which shape she fought and slew the Bhainsasur demon.

$$
\text { Chauladevi (Chamunda) ... ... ... ... } 179
$$

Devi is worshipped in the form of Chamunda. The Risini Markanda is said to have founded the sect. The sect mark is a red (Sindur) line between the brows and a small dot above it.

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text { Dev Narayan } & \cdots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \cdots \\
\hline \text { Dev Dtaiaram } & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \ldots \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

A Vaishnav sect. Dev Dharam Raja, Dev Narayan or Udoji, as he is variously named, is said to have been an incarnation of Krishna. The sect started some 900 years ago. He descended in this form to deliver the village of Gotha in Meywar from the tyranny of three brothers known as the Bhngdawats. With.out going into the story at length it may be stated that he was born as the nephew of the three brothers, as their sister's child. When seven years old he assisted the Raja of Dhar, Jaysingh Ponwar, in driving the demons from his country. Gujars are the chief worshippers. They abstain from living in brick houses as the figure of this deity is always carved on a brick and placed in their temples. He is pictured riding on horse back with a spear in the hand and generally attended with snakes. The Bhopa or priest wears a.black cord round his neck from which is suspended an image of the god. He also carries pictures depicting scenes in the life of Dev Dharam called Fads. Dev Dharam's horse is painted green. The Pujaris of Dev Dharam's shrines in Marwar are generally Gujars who lead celibate lives.
Dhamime ... ... ... ... ... 576
The founder of this sect was one Pran Nath, a Kshatriya. He nppears to have been a native of Sindh and flourished about the time of Aurangzeb (A. D. 1700). He came to Bundelkhand in the days of Chhatarsal who was much taken by his teaching and became a follower. He increased his popularity with this Raja, it is said, by pointing out the diamond bearing rocks at Panna. He wrote a book called locally Kulzum (Wilion snys it is called Mahitariyal).

He appenrs to have held wide views and wished to reconcile the Hindu and Mahomedan religions.

He held that no idols should be used and that there is but one god of all. It appears that locally the image of Kirishna has been admitted into the Panna temple. The other objects of worship there are a copy of Pran Naths' book and the model of a bed with bedding on it ; why this is there is not explained.

Locally Panna is a place sacred to the memory of Pran Nath, who by the way, is considered now to have been an incarnation of God, (some say of Krishna) and he is worshipped as such. It is said that Surat, and Jumbngar
are also places sacred to the memory of this teacher. The Dhamis wear the Radha-vallabhi tilak, consisting of two straight white lines, about the thickness of a pen drawn line, from the roots of the hair to the centre of the : nose, where they meet in a curve. Between them is a small red dot: On the cheeks and temples they make a rosette like mark by bunching up the five fingers dipping them in a solution of sandal, and applying them to the face.

They regard Jamna water as sacred and not Gauges water nor do they reverence the Tulshi'plant.


Lalbegi is the Bhangi or sweeper god. Practically nothing is known about this form of religion. The sweepers cannot themselves give any definite information and are never quite sure whether they are Mahomedans or Hindus. There are I believe many stories about Lalbeg, one given me was this :-

A man of the Bhangi caste took to wandering about from village to village crging as he went "Peri Pia" a form of salutation. In his wanderings be came to the tomb of Falmiki the poet where he saw a pot standing in which were some red clothes. As usual he uttered his salutation and was astonished to receive an answer from the pot peri pia sachhe Ramako, that is salutation to the true Rama:" This he took as a sign of his own sanctity: He then took the clothes and settled on the spot setting up as a Guru of the Bhangi caste.

He has no temples but is represented in villages very often by a fat slab of stone on which two foot prints are carved, the slab often having a rude mud shelter built over it. A red flag is set up byit.' Generally speaking while they follow. Hindus in their worship, the Bhangi class model their marriage and funeral ceremonies on the Mahomedan plam

$$
\text { Mahimata } \quad . . . \quad . . . \quad . \quad . . . \quad \therefore \quad . . . \quad . \quad 88 .
$$

The river Mahi flows between Ratlam and Dohad. It is much revered by Bhils and such folk.


This goddess is a form of Devi. In this cbaracter she has command. over all epidemic and contagious diseases. She is proritiated by offerings of animal sacrifice. There is a temple to ber at Ujjain. They keep a trident corered with Sindur (red lead) in the temple. Their book is the Durga Sapt Shiti. She is practically ifentical with Sitala mata who presides especially over small pox. Foliowers of Sitala mata have a special sect mark.

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text { - Narsinghji } & \ldots & \cdots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\
\text { ThaN } & \ldots 13:
\end{array}
$$

The Narsingh or man-lion Avatar of Vishnu is generally reckored the fourth. Vishnu on this occasion slew the demon Hiranya Kashiapu. Tbe ascetics of this sect wear the Jatz and almays carry a pair of tongs.

Pabuji
This is a case of local hero-worship. Pabuji lived in Marwar 600 years ago. He performed prodigies of valour and was consequently deified after death. He was found as a child by a Rajput of the Rathor fagaily called Dhandal. He gave her to his wife to, nurse. She consented on the understanding that he was never to enter the room without warning her by knocking. One day he entered without doing so and found the child being suckled by a lion. The lion almost immediately resumed the shape of his wife, who was Devi in disguise, rebuked him for breaking his word and left him. The child was supposed to be an incarnation of Laxman, Rama's brother. It is a low caste form of worship. Pabuji is usually depicted on horseback carrying a spear. The chief seat of the sect is Koln Mandal in Marwar. The sect mark consists of two straight perpendicular linesjoined by a cyrved one, between the two is a rectangular mark, all are white; only the Pujaris use it.
Pret pujak .... ... . ... ..... 38,301.
A pret is a dead man's spirit. There are many local dead who are thus worshipped specially.in Baghelkhand: As a rule the spirit haunts a tree and is there worshipped. Some person is usually sapposed to be "possessed" by the spirit and he acts as priest. It is a form of hero-worship.

| Rampir | ... | .0. | ... | ... | . 0 | 17 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ramdeo | ... | - | - 0 | - | ... | 835 |

Ramdeo has been reported as a special sect and not merely as follower of the ordinary incarnation so $I$ give the report as it stands, though from the numbers I fancy Rama is at least partly responsible.

In Samvat 1399 Krishna visited the earth in the form of a Tonwar Rajput as the child of Ajmalia Thakur of Pokhar in: Marwar. The Thakur had made many pilgrimages and this was his reward. Ramdeo had miraculous powers and was even able to restore the dead to life. He could also make inanimate objects come to him. Ramdeo's samadh exists near Pokhar. His chief worshippers are not of high caste and his shrines in Central India are only wretched huts. In these, foot-prints only are kept, carved on stones. The B hopas or priests always carry about with them the figure of a horse made of rags or clay and collect alms in the name of Ramdeo's Ghora. Their form of address is "Jay Ramdeo Maharaj." He was so famous that he acquired a reputation among Mahomedans who called him Rampir.

Rinduasi (Corruption of Vindhya wasi) ... ... 129
A local form of Devi in the Vindhya hills near Mirzapur. Mr. Wilson says of this that " the worship of Vindhya wasini near Mirzapur has existed for more than seven centuries."

Tarni or Yarni Baba ... . ... ... ... 381
Alocal Vaishnav sect in Baghelkhand chiefly met with in the Unchhera and Govindgarh perganas of Nagode and Riwa.

The sect was founded by a Vairagi generally known as Kartal Baba. He is supposed to have flourished in the last century, Their tenets are practically those of other Vaishnavas, and it appears that it is due only to the Vairagis personality and energetic revival of worship that caused the formation of this local group in his memory.

## IV.-Ascetics.

61: General :-Every sect of sany importance has its ascetics. They are or were originally intended to be all persons who had retired from every day affairs of this wordd, and given themselves up to the contemplation of heaven. As a matter of fact this retirement is not how-a-days strict.

The origin of this order is to be found in Manus Institutes where it is laid down that every twice born ( $D$ wija) should yo through the four grades of Brahmachari or pupilage, Grahastha or the householder's state, Wanaprastha or the forest anchorite's, a preliminary stage of contemplative life, and lastly that of Sanyasi" or the condition of one "separated" from the world. This idea has been sxtended and persons of any caste can enter into this life of retirement, the ceremony of initiation indeed is such that it cuts off all caste connection, the Sanyasi is dead to the world, and rank and caste have no longer any meaning for him.

All ascetic orders have the last two stages, although as a rule theiey are passed through almost sipaltanzoucly,

The fral ceremony is callea. Vijaya Hama or 4 the oblation to victory, " the man having conquared his passions:

Another respult of this ceremony is that Sanyasis are always-buried. The VijayaHoma ceremony is looked npon as a form of cremation; he has been already consumed by the fire of his devotion, and therefore, when he dies bis remains are thrown into a river or buried.

Sanyazis are theoretically all equal and the twice-born, when he becomes a Sanyasi, discards his sacred thread. Each class weare the pest mărk of its order.

Bairagi $\quad \cdots \quad .$.
The name is derived from Wi privative and Ragya passion denoting one Who is free from all worldiy passions. This term like qusain is used vaguely but should strictly be applied only to Vaishnav ascetics. At times indeed it is used only of the Trizandi section of thisclass. The Bairagis owe their origin to Srí Anand á disciple of Ramanand. They are like Gusains rapidly developing into a caste and setthing down.

Earth besmeared Bairagis are often called Khakis (Khak, earth) of these 42 were returned in Central India,

Gusains ... ... ... ..... ... ... 37,378
The name Gusain is ordinarily used as a generic term for any class of religious mendicant, be the Sanyasi or no. Strictly speaking it should be used only of Shaivite ascetics just as Bairagi properly denotes only Vaishnav. This is brought out ip the returns, as these people are found not in the sect returns, but in the caste. Gusain as being given as castciand Shaiv as a sect, Bairagis similarly give Bairagi and Vaishnav, Tod says of Gusains 2nd Bairagis "Both are celibataries, as - "Gosen" "imports from mastery (sen) over the sense" (go)." (Annals II-141). Another derivation is from "Goswami,","Lord of ccws."

The order was apparently a celibate one in former days, but hias now ceased to be one and may indeed without exaggeration be considered a caste. Many Gusains live settled lives and most have wives and families. In the Census 27,514 were returned with Gusain as caste and not sect.

The wandering Gusain is known by his matted kair (jata), the Shairite sect mirrk, a rosary of rudraksha berries of 32 or 64 beads, kamandalu or pot and often e tiger ekkin verír rarelyatrident is borne. They appear to have always played a considerable partin the hietory of Central India.

Malcolin says: "They used always to go armed and in bodies under" "leaders (Mahant) and often enforced that oharity which others solicited." "They are ready to take service as soldiers and are brave and faithful. They" "trade and employ themselves in agriculture." This shewis how they differed from the ordinary wandering mendicant. Broughton in his "Letters" mentions how a Gusain Bania used to accompany the Sindia of those days and supply him with loans, and how he was robbed of 70,000 Rupees. He also says "The army received" a considerable reinforcement since, my last letter by the arrival of a body of Gusains ander Kumpata Gir."
"This chief sacceeded to the command of the corps which cousisted of" "nearly 1,500 men, chiefly horse, on the death of Ram Gir." Het mays that "when acting in this way as soldiers they disearded all the usual marks of a" "religious mendicant distinguishing themselves alone by the jata or long" "matted hair folded like a turban on the head and having some portion of" "their dress dyed of an orange colour called geroo, peculiar to this sect-" "when one dies he is intered in a sitting posture with his staf and tumbri, a" "small kind óf calabash, the emblems of his mendicancy, placed before him in" "the grave."

There are generally said to be ten classes of Gusains called after the ten disciples of Shankar-Achar ya

The name is derived from Xaga, union, meaning union with god. They are all Shaivites and strictly speaking followers of the Yoga or patan-jala school of philosophy which maintains that command over all matter may be obtained in this world. by the obsorvation of certain austerities, especially that of inhaling apd exhading, the breath in $a$ certain manner.

This class receives:a large number of jugglers pretended necromancers, and-such folk into its fold, who make an easy and secure living by trading on the simplicity of the rustic.

Marco Polo says in his travels that Yogis or as he calls them Cuigi a corruptione of the word Togis, "live to an extraordinary age even 150 or "200 years--" This is owing to their great abstinence-They mingle also " "quicksilver and sulphur, making a beverage" which they drink from their " "infancy saying that it lengthens theirlives (Marco Polo-Murray 1856), Mr." nWilson sazs that modern reciluses are, tagrants "following only the dictates of "their own caprice as to worship aṇd belief and often it may be conceived employing the character as a mere plea for a lazy livelihood".

$$
\begin{array}{lllllllll}
\text { Sadhes } & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \ldots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
m & , 027 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

The pame comes from Sadh pure, or saint-like. This again is often used in a general sense to designate any holy man. Moreover it is used invariably by dains in reference to their holy men while the Dhundia sect call their form of worship Sadhu Margi or the path of the pure. The sect appears to have been started by one Birlhan in 1658. They have their own religious books. They profess a unitarian doctrine and follow to a considerable extent the
teaching of Kabir and Nanak, while the influence of Christianity is noticeahle. They have no temples. They are often called Satnami. 27 .were returned at the Census) i. e., the true named ones that is god's. The Satnamis have a eect mark of a straight line down the forehead drawn with ashes from an offering to Hanuman: Monier Williams says satnamis are a sect founded in 1750 by JagJivan Das whose Samadh is near Lucknow. He followed Kabir's teaching.

Sanyasi . ... : ......... ... . . .129
From Sanyasi, abandonment of worldly affections. Like the other terms we have dealt with this is often used ambiguously. Strictly it should only be applied to Shaivites.

This class of person is supposed to be dead to all worldly affection, passions and interests generally and to lead a life of contemplation, he becomes absorbed into the soul-world.

As a matter of fact this order is the refuge of all who have been outcasted, lost their position and wealth or suffered other misfortunes, 'against which they cannot or do not care to struggle as the saying below: has it:-


Those who prefer to live on others find an easy and remunerative calling by joining the ranks of these recluses. -Yati
... ... ... 2
This name is usually given to Jain teachers and means one who has subdued his passions. The Yati officiates in temples, but does not look after them as.a rule, this being generally done by $2 . B r a b m a n$.

## V.-JAIN SECTS.

62. The Jains of Central India have already been treated at length. Twenty six names were returned as sects, of these some are intelligible and some merely the names of Tirthankars, no doubt given by uneducated persons because they worshipped at a temple with an image of $a^{2}$ particular holy man in it.

Digambaras are most numerous some 54,605, next come Swetambaras 35,475, then Dhundias, Dhundi, 5,715 combining those retarned as Dhundias, Mandir-Margi, Sadhu-Margi and Thanakpanthi" all are designations of this sect. We may add also Bais panthi 3, and Terapanthi 889; which are sub:sects; this brings the total up to 6,607. The Terapanthis are extremists and would not interfere with a wild animal to prevent its taking life, for fear such interference might necessitate killing it.

The remaining names are chiefly those of Tirthankars. We have Keseriivala, Kesrinath 214, referring to Mahavir the last Tirthankar whose emblem .is a lion, Kesri.'Nemnathi after the 22nd Sadhu, Rishabnathi after the , irist.

Vallabhadeo and Vaishnav also occur. These are due to the close connection between Vaisnav Banias and Jains who as I have mentioned elsewhere are often found as members of the same family circle. The rest of the names are not explicable.

| 63:- | VI-ZOROASTRIAN SECTS. |  |  |  | are correct. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Zorosstrian | four |  | ret |  |  |  |
| STadni | ... | ... | ... | ... |  | 95 |
| Shen Shahi | ... | ... | $\ldots$ | ... | ... | 27 G |

- These two sects sprang up in A.D. 1736 when a Zoroastrian priest Jamshed raised a question as to the accuracy of the method of reckoning the Parsi year. . The dispute resulted in a split. . The Kadmis reckoning it after the lersian and the Shen Shahis after the Indian method. It is said "regarding the reckoning of the year, which was the main cause of division, it may he noticed that the reckoning of neither sect is correct. Though the jear adopted by both is a solar year it does not correspond correctly with the movement of the sun."

The first day of the year in the case of these two sects falls in August or September, on varying dates.

## 64:-

VII-MABOMEDAN SECTS.
The Mahomedan sects are of less importance in Central India than Hindu.
In all 44 names of sorts were recorded but several are not intelligible. Chistis. $\quad . . \quad$..... ... $\because . . . \quad$... 15

An order of Faqirs foundel by one Abu Ishaq who cane from Chisti village in Khurasan. A pupil of his Munitud-din setcledin Ajmer. Thes are mostly Shias. They very often wear clothes coloured with ochre and repeat the words "Illa Illahu" with great emphasis wagging their hends and the upper part of the body.
Dussaini . ... . ... ... ... ... 37
A terni often approprinted by saiyads. They are, as the name implies, Shias.
Khoja $\quad . \therefore$... ... ... ... 1,226
This is the name not of a sect but a communits.

- The Khojas of Central India come chiefly from Kathinwar and are all merchants.

The Bombay Gazettecr says thit these Klojas are descended from some Kshatriyas who were converted and whose designation of Thakur was translated by the persimu title Kwajah which signifies bard, teacher, or merchant. They are mostly Shias and recognize the Aga Khan as the head of their community.

Madaris ... ... ... ... ... 136
Followers of Zindah Shah Madar a saint of Makhanpur in Cawnpore district. He is equally revered by Hindus and Mahomedans. He lived about 1400.; One of his followers was Baba Kapur whose tomb is at Gwalior; his real name was Abdul Ghafur. "Baba Kapur" was returned for Gwalior among Hindu sects.
Miansuri ... ... ... ... ... 33
Founded by Ahmad Hasan son of Mansur. He held that God was not a colitary supreme being but that all motter was God. He was executed as a heretic.

$$
\text { - Slias } \cdots\left\{\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { Shias } & \cdots & \cdots & \ldots . & 50,403 \\
\text { Ali Nabi } & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & 18
\end{array}\right.
$$

The Shias reject the successors of Mahowed and uphold the claim of Ali, his son-in-law, saying that the succession was his by descent. the Sunnis declaring that the succession was purely a matter of election and had nothing to do with family claims.

They recognize the twelve Imams, Ali, Hasan, Husain, erc., the last being Abu Qasim called Mahdi, i.e., the guided one. He is still supposed to be living
and will reappear as a deliverer one of these days. His persotators liave already made themselves notorious on more than one occasion.

This difference in their opinions is, or should be, shewn at the Muharram festival, Shias mourning the first ten days, but Sunnis only on the tenth day.

As I have noticed elsewhere this is not adhered to. Shias hold the arms straight down while prasing, while - Sunnis cross them on the breast.

$$
\text { Suinnis } \quad . .\left\{\begin{array}{lcccr}
\text { Sunnis } & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 449,885 \\
\text { Allah } & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \mathbf{1 , 1 0 4} \\
\text { Khudaparast } & \ldots . & \ldots & \ldots & \mathbf{7 9 8} \\
\text { Hanafi } & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \mathbf{3 6} \\
\text { Sbafi } & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \mathbf{5}
\end{array}\right.
$$

The Sunnis may be considered as the orthodnx Mabomedan charch. They recognise the Khalifs abu Bakr, Uinar and Usman and follow the Sunnat or traditions of the faith, whence their name. They accept the first, six books of the Hadis or sayings of the prophet. They are divided into three schools the Hanafi, Shafi Maliki and Hambal.

The Sunnis of Northern India are mostly Hanafis, of Southern IIndia Shafis. The Sultan of Turkey is looked on as head of the Sunni church.

| Wahabis | $\ldots .$. | $\ldots$ | .. | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 10 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Muhamadis | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | ... | 96 |

A reforming sect started by Abdul Wahabi in 1700. His views were introduced into India in 1826 by Saiyad Ahmad Shah of Rae Bareli, who -afterwards caused trouble by preaching a Jihad on the frontier.' They call themselves the Ahl-i-hadis or people of the traditions, Muhamadis or Muwahidin, i.e., unitarians, as the name Wakabi became, on account of these disturbances, of bad repute. They are purists holding that God -alone is to be worshipped and the reverence paid to Mahomed and Pirs is idolatry. They accept the first six books of tiue Hadis.

## The Bohra Community of Central India.

The history of the Bohra section of the Mahomedan community is very obscure.

Malcolm in his History of Persia (Tol. I-407) sass "The Bohras, 'an industrious race of men whose pursuits are commercial, and who are well known in the British settlements of India, belong to this (Shia) sect, and they still maintain that part of the creed of Hussun Subah which eujoins a complete devotion to the mandate of their high priest."

He thus connects them with the Ismalignh sect whose leader in the midille ages was known in Europe as the Assassin (or old Man of the Mumutains) a corruption of the name Hussun.

Colebroke, however, sdys that this is entirely incorrect though a common iden. They do not agree with the follower of Ismail or the Ali-Ilahiyas witlir whom also they are confounded, as they neither blieve in the deification of Ali, nor reject the last six Imams, being on the contrary true Shias. He atates that the Bohra community was started in Gajarath some 400 years ago by one Mulla Ali whose tomb still stands in Cambay. He converted the then ruler of Gujarath (Colehroke Collected Esayas II-202). The local community are chiefly found in Ujjain.

I made inquiries of those among them who might be expected to have so:ne knowle ige of their origin, but they did not seem to have very clear notions on the subject.

They state that their traditions sny they came from Yaman in Aribia. That about A. D. 1030 -1130 the Arabiai funudirs of the commanity lauded
in Iudia and went to Piran Pattan in Gujarath. There their Mulla converted the Raja, (see Forbes' Ras Mala for a similar account 1-343- note). From this place they entered Malwa.

They are mostly followers of the Daodi sect, in Malwa indeed there are hardly any others. Three other sects are, however, met with. The Jafarin founded in H. 841 (A. D. 1403) the Sulaimania in H. 979 (A. D. 1579) and the Alia in H. 1030 (A. D. 1612). These sects are named after their founders. They seem to differ but little if at all from ordinary Mahomedna Shias in their tenets.

There is a tradition that a great dispersion of the community took place in the time of Aurangzeb (A. D. 1700). That fanatical monarch came to Abmedubad and wished to convert all the Shias to Sunnis. A general order for the massacre of those who would not conform was given.

They all fled. Their Mulla Kutub-uddin was taken and killed, his successor Pir Khan Shuja-uddin fled to Lahore where he was thrown into jail. He remained in prison some years. The prison caught fire in the reign of Bahadur Shah, but he escaped. The emperor looking on this as a miracle set him at liberty. Pir Khan returned to Ahmedabad. A successor of hiz however, went to Ujjain, where the headquarters remained twenty years till removed to Surat by Mulla Yaki-uddin.

From Surat come all orders, and all mullas in other places are appointed by the Chief mulla there. His commands and orders regarding matters religious and social are absolute, and no Bohra woold dream of disputing them. All the communities send a regular contribution to Surat.

They allori widow re-marringe. Cbildren, male and female, marry between 14 and 15 . No boy is allowed to remain a bachelor after 15 . Betrothals take place in infancy.

Buhra women have taken to the Maharashtra dress. They wear when -married the nose ring (Nath) ; no widow can wear it. Men wear the long dress called Baga and Chotani.

The Bonrah Shins of Oudh shave the beard, apparently to distinguish them from Sunnis. In Central India they never shave the beard

The Bohra Shias of Malwa never touch any form of intoxicating liquor -and are yery clennly, keeping their houses in excellent order.

They keep the Diwali festival. This I fancy is due to their being traderes, =as this is the season when all Banias make up their books.

## 65:-

## VIII-CHRISTIAN SECTS.

There are in all 16 different denominations recorded. The Roman -Catholics are the most numerous, both among Europeans and other classes. The European figure is raised by the preserce of the Royal Irish Regiment now stationed in Mhos, most of the men being of this church.

The Church of England is the next most numerous community while the Presbyterians come third along way behind the other two.

The remaining figures are insignificaut.
The age-periods do not tell us anything. As we should expect the greater number of Europeans out here are between 15.50 years of age, the next highest figure being for 0-12, the period of childhood. The Eurasian figures are too small to be of any use.

There has beeu an increuse of Roman Catholics and a diminution of Church of England members in the last ten years. This is, as bas been said, mainly due to the presence of an Irisin Regiment in. Mhow.

The increase among the Presbyterian community is due to mission work and has been already dealt with else where.

- 66:-

IX-ANIMISTIC SECTS.
Owing to the delay in receiving the information cn this subject from Bundelkhand and Bhoparvar I have been obliged to omit rhat I had intended to write on these local sects, if we may call them so.

I will, however, give a sketch of the general conditions-which are met witbs in Bundelkhand. Looking at the usual practice in Bundelkhand it seems to me to bear much stronger traces of former animistic practices and viers in it than is ordinarily the case.

Tradition shews that the Bundelas are of mixed origin, and that this mixture of blood took place at a comparatively late date, and this perhaps accounts for the influence I mention. They were still a predatory class when the Plateaus races had become settled rulers and founded cities. The priests they had were tribal or else Brahmans who had been obliged to leave more regularly constituted communities for sone breach of caste etiquette. Literate for the most part they were not, nor indeed are a very large percentage of them literate even now-a-days, they could recite certain verses and mantras, and this constituted their sole claim to officiate.

Each village as usual has its tutelary deity. Nominally this is, as a rule, Devi in some form, or Mahadeo. But actually it is found that the agricultural and artisan classes of the community do not worship these deities but more local ones such as Hardaul, whose stors has been given under "Hero-worship," Karuababa and such personages. The seat of these deities is a simple ontla or chabutra (platfurm) under a Nim or Pipal tree. Here the Lodhis, Nais, Lohars, etc., will collect on Saturday evening (sometimes on Wednesday) and give offerings of coconnuts, gur, etc., either in return for boons received or in hope of obtaining help.

As they sit on, some one of the commonity at length becomes "possessed," ghutla-it is culled. The rest then salute him saying "Diwan Sahib panam" (panam corruption of pranam). All these deotas who were Thakurs in life are addressed as "Diman".

My informant tells me that when the tree is in a compound the owner manages the business, and sees that the person possessed is the right man ; it is remunerative.

The higher classes only take part in these ceremonies in times of cholera, or on great festivals.

It is interesting to note that the tribal gods, though still existing, have lost. power. Thus if you say to a mạn " How is this, it rained in spite of Gond baba's prophecy " He will reply, "That is so, but Ran can now do everything, Gond baba cannot dispute his authority."

[^1]
## Temple of ter Sun at Baramjo vifage, Datia.

 ( From a note by Rai Saheb Kashi Pershad, Dakil of Charkhari).The temple faces due east and stands some fifteen paces from the river Pahuj which flows before it.

Inside the temple is a piece of stone representing the sun. It is of circular form about six inches in diameter. On the edge are engraved twenty-one triangles representing twenty one phases of the sun.

The stone stands on a brick platform covered with brass plates.
There is a protective brass cover or ghilaf which is ordinarily kept in a separate room but which when large crowds of people come to visit the temple is used to cover over, and protect the stone.

Sunday is the special day on which it is worshipped and Magh the particular month. A fair is held on Chait Badi 5 (called Rang-Panchami). It is then risited by immense crowds from all round.

The worshipper first washes in the Pahuj and then, taking a lota of the river water, sweets, flowers, money, etc., as offerings, comes still in his wet Dhoti to the temple and offers them. Rich people besides this feed Brahmans, and offer a crest (Kalsa) made of brass or gold. A winnowing basket chhaj is offered by people who are suffering from the skin disease called "Chhajan." The blind, childless and lepers especially resort here for relief. The belief in the power to cure skin diseases, possessed by the deity of this temple, is especially strong.

The priests are Jijhotia Brahmans who came originally from the village of Kachera near Jhansi.

The tale regarding this temple runs thus:-
There was formerly in Baramju (or Onao) a Lodhi who was very rich and owned an immense number of cattle. These cattle used to graze near the Onao river. Once, at a certain spot on the banks, it wàs found that cors gave mills without being milked. The Lodhi on hearing this went to the spot and prayed that if it was the resting place of any deity that deity should manifest itself to him. He then saw a vision and was told that he must search there for an image. This he did, found the image, (that now in the temple) and set it up.

A Jijhotia Brahman came and began to officiate as priest, later on calling in his brothers. Some dissensions, however, arose between them regarding the duties and a Kachhi was hired to do the menial work of sweeping out the shrine. The result has been that all offerings are now divided thus.-Ten portions are made, seven go to the Brahmans, as there were originally seven brothers, one goes to the family of the Kachhi, and two are kept for the purpose of repairing and looking after the temple. The present temple was erected by the Maharaja of Datia. The spot is one of great renown.

## Temple to Sanischara (Saturn) near Gwalior.

On a bill about one mile from Sanichara station on the Gwalior Light Railway there is a temple to Saturn.

The legend runs that in the XVII Centory there was a saint called Mathura Das who used to live on this hill. One night Saturn appeared to him in a vision and told him that he was to search for his (Saturn's) image which he would find on the hill and install it in a shrine. This Mathara Das did.

## 96-B

In Samvat 1901 (A. D. 1844) a proper temple was built bẏ Mama Sahib Jadhar then Sindia's minister of the State.

There is a carved image of black stone inside representing the planet in the form of a man.

Outside the temple are hot springs to bathe in which people come from long distances.

This is the principal temple to Saturn in all India, and my informant asserts, that thousands of pilgrims from remote parts visit it on Sbanischari Amavàsyà (conjunction) and offer Sesum, (Indian rose wood), Jau, Urd, Gur, black cloths, iron, oil etc., with a prayer to be spared from his unpropitious influence.

The Pujari is a Bairagi and subsists on the offerings which amount to from 500 to 600 Rupees in the year. Some land near the Residency is given in grant to the temple.

The former abode of Shanischar was in the country south of the Narbada, Mars inhabiting Malwa, but now my informant tells me Shanischar is said to have deserted the south for this hill.

## SUBSIDIARY.TABLE I.

General distribution of Population by Religion.


## SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.

General distribution of Populatoon by Religioni,


## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III,

Distribution of 10,000 of each Religion by Districts and Natural Divisions.


SUBSIDIARY TABLEIF,
Distribution of 10,000 of the total Popubation by Religıonstin Districts and Natural Divisions.


Figurer of 1801 are only dealt with in this Table as those of 1881 and 1891 are not available.


|  | － 1 C01． |  |  |  | 1891. |  |  |  | 1881. |  |  |  | Variation betwben 1891－1901． |  |  |  | Vabiation betwern 1881－1901． |  |  |  | Remarise |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Distaltis． | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 弟 } \\ & \text { सें } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { E. } \\ & \text { En } \end{aligned}$ | 总： 苞 甸： |  | 号号。 | 圖 |  |  |  |  | 曾 ot 気 | 易 |  | ＂ |  | 宫 | 爯 |  |
|  | 2 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 0 | 7 | 8 | 0 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 10 | 20 | 21 | 22 |
| － |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | ， |  |  |  |  |
| Bhopawar Native States ．．．．．． | 181 | $\cdots$ | －•• | 171 | 4 | $\ldots$ | 4 |  | ＊＊ | $\cdots$ |  | $\cdots$ | ＋177 | ＋10 | －4 | ＋171 | ． 0 | － | ．＇． | $\ldots$ |  |
| Cantonments ．．ic ．．： | 261 | 18 | 1 | 242 | $\} \quad 20$ | 13 | 1 | 6 | ．＇． |  |  | －＊＊ | $\}+241$ | $+5$ | $\because$ | ＋236 | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | ．＂ |  |
|  | $\cdots!$ | ．．． | $\cdots$ | $\because$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | ． | ．．． |  |  |  |  | ．．． |  |  |  |  |
| Total Bhopawar Agoncy．．！．．$\quad$ ： | 442 | 28 | 1 | 413 | 24 | 13 | 5 | 6 | $\cdots$ | －${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |  | ＊＊ | $+418$ | $+15$ | －4 | $+407$ | $\cdots$ | $\ldots$ | ．＇4 | ．$\cdot$ |  |
| Bundelkhand Native States en | 18 | 2 | 10 | －．＂ | 25 | ＊＊ | 25 | ＊＊ | ．．． | ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |  | $\cdots$ | $-7$ | 42 | －9 | ． 0 | －．• | $\cdots$ | ．．． | $\cdots$ |  |
| Cantonments ．．． | 690 | 454 | 3 | 133 |  |  | 8 |  |  |  | 管 |  | $\}-62$ | $-179$ |  | $+117$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Uailways ．．．．．．．＇ | A． |  | ．．．： |  | \} 652 | 6,93 | 9 |  | $\cdots$ | ＊＊ | 䂞… | $\cdots$ | $\}-62$ |  | \％ |  | $\ldots$ | ． |  | ． |  |
|  |  | 460 |  |  |  |  | 28 | ＂io |  |  | 艺． | ．．． | ．-80 | $-177$ | $\cdots$ | ＋1i7 | ．．．． |  | ．．． | ．．． |  |
| Total Bundelkhand Agenoy ．．： | 808 | 460 | 19 | 133 | 677 | 033 | 28 |  | $\cdots$ | ．${ }^{\prime}$ |  | $\cdots$ | ．－ |  |  |  |  | ． |  | $\ldots$ |  |
| Mulwa Nalive Stntes－．．．＇．．．． | 685． | 30 | 47. | 606 | 03 | －＊ | $\cdots$ | 93 | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | ， | ${ }^{*} \cdot$ | $\pm 590$ | $\stackrel{+36}{\square}$ | $\pm \underline{47}$ | $\ddagger 513$ | $\cdots$ | ＊＊ |  | － $6 .$. |  |
| Cantonmeats ．．．．．． | 531 | － 420. | 20. | 80 | $\}$－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\}+48$ | －24 | $+40$ | ＋32 |  |  | $\cdots$ |  |  |
| mailways ，．．．．．． | 268 | 84 | 120 | －64 | \} 751 | $6 \underline{8}$ | 105 | 118 | ＂．．＇ | ＊＊ |  | $\cdots$ | $\}+48$ | －24 | 7 |  | ＊＊ | ＊＊ | $\cdots$ | ．．． |  |
| ，Total Malwa Agenoy ．．．．．． | 1，488 | 840 | 102 | 786 | ＇ 844 | 628 | 108 | 211 | ．．． | ．．． |  | $\cdots$ | ＋644 | ＋12 | $+87$ | ＋545 | $\cdots$ | －0． | ．- | $\cdots$ |  |
| Central Indin Native States－．．． | 1，653 | 107 | － 113 | 1，573 | $5!16$ | 120 | 280 | 100 | $\bullet$ | ．．． |  | $\cdots$ | $+1,057$ | ＋41 | －107 | ＋1，183 | ．．． | $\cdots$ | －0＊ | $\because \square$ |  |
| Cantonmisnts ．．．．．．． | 5，735 | 3，4is | $\therefore 180$ | 2，123 |  |  |  |  | 0，507 | 5，601 | 36 | 870 |  |  |  |  | －782 | －2188 | 163 | ＋125s |  |
| Railway ．．．．．．． | \％ 736 | 2.17 | $\because 870$ | 210 | \} 5,403 | 4，136 | 373 |  | ．．． | ．．＊ | $\stackrel{\square}{ }$ | ．．． | $\}+105 x$ | －476 | $+86$ | ＋1，448 | ．．． | $\cdots$ | －${ }^{\circ}$ | $\cdots$ |  |
| i ．$\cdot$ ： |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sotal Oentral India ．．．${ }^{\text {a }}$ ． | 8，114 | 3，827 | 672 | 3，716 | 8，898 | 4282 | $653{ }^{\circ}$ | 1，084 | 7，085 | $\cdots$ | ＊＊ | $\cdots$ | ＋2，115 | －436 | －81 | 2，031 | $+1049$ | $\cdots$ | ．．0 | －＊： |  |
| $\checkmark$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Percentage of ench to the totul Population | 100 | 47 | － 7 | 40 | ．${ }^{\circ}$ | ．．． | $\cdots$ | －$\cdot$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | － | ．．． | －•• | ．．． | ． | ．．． | ．． |  |

## SUBSIDIARY TABLETI.

Distribution of Christians by Race and Denomination.


SUBSIDIABY TABIE VII.-Showing the Percentago of $\Delta$ nimists returned as of Hindus Sects in tntal of Tribe.



## CHAPTERIV. <br> Age, Sex and Cifil Condition.

67. Ineroductory.-The Statistics dealt with in this Chapter will be found in 'Imperial Table VII,' where the resulis recorded in columns 4,5 and 6 of the Sckedule are collected.

Three important aspects of sex are here dealt with, sex in relation to age, ses in relation to marriage, and sex in relation to sex. I have divided the Gliaptef, therefore, into three sections, deating with Ages, Civil Condition, and the proportion of the Sexes.

Marriage in relation to caste will be found in Chapter . VIII, and is only: fust touched on here.

The chief interest in the age return lies, of course, in its being taken in' conjunction with other data, though a comparison of age distribution at different énümerations is useful. Unfortunately we have, in Central India, only timo enumerations to compare.

It is a matter of regret also that we have no vital statistic returns, even for a portion of the Agency, as some idea of the annual birth and death rates would ${ }^{-}$ have been most useful as a chẹck. I am glad to say that the Indore State are now starting a systematic record of vital statistics, which should be most' Interesting, and will certainly be of great assistance in the next Census.

I have gone fully into the question of "lumping" on certain age-periods in the body of this Chapter. I may, however, remark that this phenomenon is not peculiar to the East, but is met with in Europe. It is found that ladies between the ages of 25 and 35 always understate their ages, while girls under 16 return their age as being above this eritical point.

To go briefly through the general results shewn by the figares.-
The age distribution figures sher a a that of the various 'sections of the population of Central India Jains are the most long-lived, while Animists are the most short-lived, though they are at the same time the most fertile.

The return for those under five years of age, shews clearly the effect which ${ }^{\text {' }}$ the late famine, and the disease and sickness which followed in its train, have had on the young, the Plateau figures especially bring this out.

The mean age of men is about 30 . The different religions shew some slight variation. The Juin, who is well-to-do and lives mostly in towns, has the highest figure, while the jungle dwelling Animist shews the lowest. The short duration of life among females of the Animistic tribes is most noticeable, being sone 4 yearṣ less than that of their sisters on the Plateau and in the $\mathrm{L}_{0} \mathrm{w}$-lying tracts. Hard work from an early age, scanty food, and exposure are no doubt" responsible.' TLis trait has been met with among the jangle tribes in other parts of India.
": The return for the proportions of the sexes shews a considerable falt ò the differehce between the male' and female figures, which shews that the people are becoming more accustomed to enumerations and shew less tendency to omit women frum the return. Only one district can boast of an actual excess of females, Baghelkhand, while Gwalior even goea so far as to shew a defect of 12 per cent.

$$
\underset{\substack{127-111.8: \\ \text { and } 13 .}}{13,12 .}
$$

", 2.
n. 8 atad 1 上.

128-17-11.
$137-\mathrm{xr}$.
$122-X-12,13,15$ and 19.

13i-XV゙ッ.

140-XIS. 3.
$3: 3-\mathrm{XV}$

4-XIII-2.
There are more women in villages than towns:. This is generally the case, as men resort to towns in search of work leapiag their families behiud, The difference is about 3 per cent.

Women generally preponderate in each of the Natural Divisions, there being most in the Hilly tracts, where there are betryeen 5 and 6 per cent; more than in the other two.

## Animists shew the highest proportions among the religions.

The selected caste returns shew that the number of females is on the whole greater among low castes and jungle tribes, though there are some notable exceptions.

There is nothing to shew that female infanticide is practised anywhere, as the Ajna figures are quite unreliable.

There are 948 women to every 1,000 men in Central India.
This agrees very well with the returns for other narts of India: Thus for all India in 1891, the figure was 958 , the Panjab Native States shewed 834, Rajputana 891, the Native States of the Central Provinces 984, those of Bengal 956.

In European countries there is an excess of females as a rule. In 1891, the Census figures for England and Wales shewed 940 males to 1,000 females.

It appears also that the proportion of boys to girls at birth is smaller in England than in any other European country, and curiously this excess of boys is declining year by year, and although at birth males are in excess, by the third year of life they are in defect.

In one case males at $0-1$ are in exsess at 1-2, 2-3, 3-4. 4-5, females are in excess, but it is at the age of child bearing $1 \underset{\square}{\text { a }}-30$ that female figures fall in this country.

The figures for Civil Condition in Central Indis shew much the same results as those for all India on the last occasion.

There is a marked difference in the age of marriage among the girls of the Animistic tribes as compared with those of other religions, some 22 per cent. of this religion appart to marry after 20 years of age, their average age of marriage being about 14 , whereas only 5 per cent. of Hindu girls marry after 20.

The mean age of married males is four sears higher than that of married females, due no doubt to the bardships of early child bearing, the difference is, however,small compared with that of all India in 1891, which was 7 years. Burma alone of provinces in India has a fgure at all comparable:'

In the natural divisions, only the Hilly tracts shew an excess of wives, 103 wives to 100 husbands.

This is due to the Animistic tribes among whom the Gonds, and Kols shew signs of polygamy. The districts in which they live, Bhopal, Bundelkhand, and Baghelkhand shew this preponderance, while Bhopawar which has almost entirely a bhil pupulation doea not shew more than 98 , wives to 100 husbands.

The results in the section which deals with the influence of locality on civil condition are interesting, as shewing the effect which the predominating religion has on other religions brought into touch with it.

The infant widow is not very common, the figures hardly reaching 1 per $\quad 132-x-487$. cent.

Of polygamy only the Gond and Kol community shew any decided signs of polyandry there is not a trace.

Widow remarriage is dealt with in part II and is not very prevalent, but is met with mostly in the east of the Agency.

The general figures for Central India are much the same as those for other parts. For all India the figures in 1891 were 46 per cent. married males, and 48 per cent. females. Central India has 47 per cent., and 49 per cent.

The Panjab in 1891 shewed 41 per cent., and 49 per cent., Bengal 48 per cent., if each case. England and Wales in 1891 shewed 34 per cent. married males and 33 per cent. married females. European figures are of course lower.

European countries, as a rule, shew more than 100 wives to 100 husbands, this is due of course not to polygamy but to the large extent to which husbands serve away from their country.

## PART I-AGE DISTRIBUTION.

68. General.-There are several sources of error which are always present in a record of ages.

The first is the great ignorance of their own ages which is displayed by most of the uneducated classes, and even many of the educated. Another is the vagueness of the reply given to the question "How many years old are you?" This peculiarity is not met with in India only, $D_{r}$. Ogle commenting on the English Census remarks that "the greater number of adults do not know their own age and can only state it approximately.? The order to enumerators in the case of children under one "year of age was to enter them as "infant." This was translàted bachcha. ${ }^{\top}$ Nố the term bächcha is, às a rule, applied to all children who are not weaned, and weaning in this country often does not take place till the child is' two," or even three years old." The return of children under one is thus raised at the' expense of those of two years and over.

Then there are certain 'stereotyped expressions also' which influence the return. 'Table I shews clearly which these are:' Quinquennial and decennial periods are preferred but besides these there are others.

In the first ten years of life there is a preference for 8 years old. This is the year when the Hindu boy reaches the period of initiation, and it will be seen that the female return is not subject to exaggeration, due no doubt, to the . fact that the age of unmarried girls of this age is understated, and 7 years gets a higher return ; next to 8 years comes under one year, which as we have noticed is almost certain to be unduly high, five years old shews a rise also.

Passing on we see tbat 10 has a high figure and also 12, the expression Das bara baras being largely responsible. Chauda pandhra, Bis bais, Pachis tis, Tis battis and so on are all common answers and have produced " lumping."

As we go on the depopulation between certain figures and the consequent " lumping" on a few favoured years becomes more and more marked.

It will be noticed that the male and female figures differ as regards this "lumping." The weaker sex avoid 8 years old and 22,32 , and 45 years old, and generally exhibit a preference for decennial as compared with quinquennial periods.

A correspondent writes that on looking at the Table of unadjusted ages, "it appears that age-periods in most cases were unconsciously adopted, classifying the people into bachcha, larka, jawan, and buddha." He adds that the. poorer people having no horoscope are always vague and that those, who have, purposely give a wrong age as this information when it' reaches an enemy's ears would, he thinks, enable him to know the fortunes and to foretell when his evil days would fall, and this would give him an advantage over him. The enemy, who knows the age and date of birth, would by calculation find out when the stars are unfavourable atd will choose that time for attacking. Sadhus, Mahants, etc., generally give a bigher age.

A preference for decennial periods is a feature of the English census also. It must be borne in mind that all tables in which age periods are used are affected by this peculiarity, and in Central India where there are no records of vital statistics ${ }^{\circ}$ we cannot apply the check which such retarns afford.

I may add that there is a well-known verse (Shlok) which militates against the Census official. It runs. :-

आयुर्वित्तम् ग्टहचिच्चद्रम् मंत्रमैथुन मौवधम्।
दानमानापमानश्व नव गौप्यानि कारयत् ।।
which means that the nine things meationed $\cdot$ Ayur Wittam, etc., should always beakept secret. Ayush, the only one which concerns us here, meaning "age.".

Another source of error is non-allowance for the period which intervenes between the preliminary Census and the actual Census night, on this occasion about 6 weeks or about $\frac{1}{9}$ th of a year. In the Panjab Census of 1891 orders were issued to enumerators to enter the ages as they would be on the Census night, such perfection was, I regret, beyond attainment in our case.

The result of this difference in time is to exaggerate the figures of early years about 6 or 8 per cent. while making those of 60 and over too small. Those who were born in the intervening period were recorded on the Census night, and those who had died were struck out, but no allowance was made for those who had passed on into another period.

Yet another source of error remains and that is due to the method in which a man gives his age in thia country. He says he is 30 meaning he is in his 30 th year, but actually he has only completed his 29th.

So many errors seem to have been introduced according to the foregoing remarks that it may be thought that any consideration of the results would be useless. I will, however, give Mr. Ibbetson's summary of the effect these errors have on the return. As the errors are constant throughout they do not affect the comparison in most cases.

Mr. Ibbetson's remarks may be summarised thus :-
(1) The numbers for between one and two yeare of age are probably too small.
(2) The numbers of under one year of age are too large by some 6 or 8 per cent. owing to the interval betwoen the preliminary record and the final Census.
(3) The numbers for 60 and rupwards are a good deal too amall owing to the same caure.
(4) The numbers for the intermediate periods are too small owing to the eqrae cause.
(5) The figures for 40,45 , etc., are too high owing to preference for certain ages.
(6) Advanced ages are exaggerated, mediam periods, for women especially, too small.

The ages dealt with throughout this Chapter are unadjusted but as our comparisons are made with the unadjusted figures of 1891 it does not interfere with our restults.'

I hope later on to treat of a certain number of adjusted age figures for certain districts, should time allow of it. As, however, it is of minor importnnce in the case of a smafl return such as that of Central India it has been left to the Provincial Part.

In the earliep ages there is practically nothing to choose between the different religions.

At 5-10 Jaips ahew \& slightiy lawer figure, Animists a samewhat bigher one.

The Jains appear to live longest as their figures for males at $\mathbf{p} 5-60$ shew an excess of 26 per cent. oxer Hindus and $\cdot 5$ per cent. above Mahomedans aud 1 per cent, above Animists, the difference; are, however, not great.

Animiats are more fertile but less long-lived losing many at $55-60$ and 60 and over periods the roogher life telling on the old. Jains are less fertile but live to a greater age.

Locality seems to infuence the figures. Thus Hindus on the Plateau have about 3 per cent. less males under 5 years of age than Hindus living in the other two tracts have.

127-111.8\& 12.

Jains and Mahomedans shew similar ratios.
1:8-1\%-10. is only natural as a large number of the Animists in the other tracts ara simply wanderers from the jungle country and are of full age.
The Plateau shews least children in each case, and there can be little doubt that the bad years we have passsd through have fallen severely on those who were of tender years.
Occupation and mode of life has probably something to do with it also.
The agricultural Hindu, and the outdoor dwelling Animist shew the greatest fertility, while the shopkeeping Jain shews a greater number
127-111. of old men as do also the Mahomedans. These last two classes are chiefly dwellers in towns, which shews that. old age preserves better when properly housed and fed. The Animist shews most children and this too although his daughters marry late. Whether this increased fertility is due to meat-eating which is urged as a factor in such cases, or to lesser child mortality I am unable to say, the first is a question for the biologist, the second can only be decided by vital statistics, and we have none.
The mean age of males is about 30. Jains with their preponderance of old men shew the highest figure, Animists shew the lowest, differing by 2 years from Hindus and by 4 from Jains.

## : Females.

The ages in this case are more inaccurate than in the male returns and there is no need to dwell on them to any extent.

Taking all religions together it is only at $10-15$ that there is a noticeable difference, males exceeding femates by 25 in 1,000 . The returns are probably low here as it is the marriageable age and unmarried girls of this age would be returned as younger than they really were, females are generally in excess.

There is nothing to note in the different age-periods among the different religions.

Hindu females are in excess over males at most periods. They are in greatmen. At 60 and over females are 10 in excess per 1,000 . Women seem to " $6 \& 7$. live rather longer than men; therefore among Mahoredans, the differences are smaller than among Hindus.

Jains also shew a smaller difference. Animists shew, as a rule,- a defect
males, the greatest difference being at $10-15$ where it rises $t_{\varphi} 18$ per 1,000 .
The mean age of females is higher than that of males taking all. religions together. This is curious when we consider how females are neglected in infancy and sickness, and how severe the burden of early child bearing is.

Under-statement of female age is partly responsible, buta higher ratio of male deaths must also be looked on as a cause. Males lenving their families wandered in search of work during the famine and succumbed to wëakness and disease in large numbers. Taking the religions separately Christians alone shew a lower figure which is only natural.

The Animists shew the greatest difference, their mean age for females being
hard life they lead: A general review then sherss that, in the period of infaneg only Hindus and Animists shew an excess of male children, and that at 0-1. At $0-5$ all religions shew a defect of males.

At $35-45$ which we may take as the prime of life women are in defect
3 $\stackrel{1}{4}$ in all religions except the Hindu.
$\because$ At $50-50$ wromen predominate, but at $55-60$ males predominate, except among Hindus.

Hindus thus shew in 13 out of 19 periods a predominance of females, Maboredans in 11 periods, Jains in 10 and Animists in 8.
$\therefore$ How far the departure of males in search of work and food during the famine is accountable for the excess of females it is not easy to say, but I think that a considerable number of men did so depart and never returned, their women folk being left in the village.

- 70. Persons over 100 years of age.-In all Central India 225 persons were returned as of over 100 years of age.

These have been returned as they were received so as to prevent delay. Inquiries were, however, made regarding them and in all there were only three cases in which the claimants for this honour had undoubted right to their claim.
Tro of these cases were in Bundelkhand, one that of a man and the other that of i woman. The man in this case had got two new front teeth part of $\dot{a}$ third set.
$\because$ The other case was that of a womap in Bhopal. To obtain the information "required on' this point these people were interrogated as to former rulers of their State, the mutiny and other events likely to be remembered.
$\because$, The remaining cases were; as a rule, all pver 90 gears. Thereis no need to go into the figures moreminutely, but it is interesting to note that of those persons 41 males and 32 females had never been married, 65 males and 15 females weré still married, and 37 males and 68 fémales were in a widowed state.

The fact that the widow lives longer apparently than the unmarried woman, is apparently due to these long-Fived widows having started as child widows.
71. Age periods in detail. - The first five gears of life-The figures for the first five years of life are always interesting, and it is often p ossible to trace some connection between seasons and fecundity. It is of course obvious thit the ckildern returned fran ane year can at the best only equal those in the next below it, and this, moreover necessitates the assumption that no deaths riave occurred, which is impossible.
$\therefore$ There are po vital statistics in Central Indin by which to check resulte, and the figares here given are only such as the Census returns are able to provide . I will take male figures as the female returns are admittedly less accurate.
-We see that the number of children under five enumerated in 1901 are

[^2] :4 per cent. less than those enumerated in 1891 from which we may gather that the years 1885-1889 were more propitious to births than those of 1895-1899. This was the case. The last quinquennial period includes two famines and several poor gears.: These did not affect the whole Agency equalit, one famine, that of $\mathbf{1 8 9 6 - 9 7}$ affecting the East and that of 1899.00 the West. The results will be better seen when the district figures are treated, and still more clearly in
the special section on famine distrists in the Provincial Volume. Taking the successive years we notice that the greatest variation is shewn in the 3-4 period where there is a difference of 0.8 per cent. The people of this age in 1901 were begorten in 1896 which was a very bad year in the east of the Agency, famine being rife in Bundelkhnnd and Baghelk hand.

Ta pass on to other periods.-The figures for males have risen in 1901 over those of 1891 at every period except between 5-10 and $30-45$ and 60 and over. The greatest rise is at 15 - 20 where it amounts to 2 per cent. Presuming that similar errors as to lumping occarred in 1891 the result would point to greater fecundity or a smaller death rate than usual in 1880.85: The greatest fall is in $5-10$ period. Persons in this period were begotten in 1895-99. The retrospect of seasans in the last ten years shews that this lustrum was a bad one and included a severe famine in the east of the : Agency and touched on the commencement of a still severer one, which visited the western districts. The mean ages, such as we can arrive at without adjusth ment,shew that male life is about 6 months higher than it was in 1891. However the calculation is based on rough data and $I$ do not wish to put special reliance on the figures. The loss of young life in the late distress would, however, necessarily raise the age.

The female figures which are admittedly more incorrect than the mate need not be treated in detail. Save at $30-45$ years of age the female figures sher a rise everywhere, the cause I have already noticel. The mean age of. females was higher than that of males in 1891 . by about 4 months: in the present Census the difference shews a superiority of about 1 year over male figures.
\%2. Natural Division.-The influence which locality has on ages is, of course largely dependent on the seasons through which that locality has passed.

The Plateau shows everywhere a defect of children compared to the other divisions.

At $0-5$ it is 3 per cent. behind the other two tracts, and at each of the first fire years the same difference is shown.

The other two tracts show more or lesa the same figures, but it is noticeable that the Hilly tracts show bigher figures for people under 3, 4, and 5 years of age than the Low-lying tracts; while under 1,2, and 3 year periods they shew lower figurea,

Now as we have seen people of 1,2 , and 3 years of age were subjected to all the hardships of 1897-1899, none of which were particularly good years, while 1898-99 were specially bad in the Platean and in the Hilly tracts. The fever and disease which prevailed in 1899, was extremely severe and mast have raised child mortality in the affected regions very considerably, and the Platean was the region that suffered most.

There is nothing special to note in the figures for the same religion in different localities.

The mean age is, however, interesting. Taking all religions, males in the Low-lying country show the highest figure, about 1 year ahead of the Hilly
tract and nearly equal to the Plateau. Females on the other hand show the greatest longevity in the Platean and the luwest in the hills. The predominance of ihe Animistic tribes in the Billy tracts lowers the age. Hin--dus shesp little difference in the three tracts, Mahomedans show a mean age in. Low-lying country which is 1 year ahead of the Plateau, and 2 ahead of the Hilly tracts. Women show a sizmilar variation. Jains show little differeace.

Animists show for males a lower age in the Hilly tracts than in the other. two tracts, and generally a lower figure than other religions.

Animist females show a remarkable difference, nearly 4 years lower in the ease of those who live in the Hilly tracts. No doubt the severe life and hard work to which they are subjected kills off many while still comparatively young, the dweller in the Lowlying tracts seems to have the best chance of reaching old age.
73. , Dist ricts:-The table in this case shows the proportions in which 100 persons are distributed over the age periods in each political charge. The $0-5$ period includes some 11 per cent. of the whole population. The Baghelkhand and Bundelkhand charges show the highest figure. This bears out what we have already noticed. Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand have bad time torecover somewhat since the famine which visited them in 1896.97 while the western districts which. were visited by the later famine show a reduced number of childern.

- Ine male children of 3-4 in the twe enstern political charges are in considerable defect ; in 2-3 they are better, and in $1-2$ betrer still. Bundelkinnad, which entirely escaped the 1899 famine while Baghelkhand suffered somewhat in the southern portion, shows most improvement.

I do not think there is any need to go in great detail into the figures for other periods.
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PART IL-CIVIL CONDITIQN.
74. General-There is no need of an excuse for treating this subject in some detal. It must be remembered that in this country marriage does not.mean cobabitation except perhaps among the Animistio tribes and in the Hilly tracts. Scientifically the record loses for want of this distinction but it is obviously impossible to collect information on such a point.

Before tarning to the figures 1 mat note that marriage in relation to caste is dealt with in the Clapter on Caste-Chapter VIIT:
"The record of CivilCo rdition is, I think, generatly spenking an accurate ne. "The age figures are of course atfected by the "lumping" on certain' periods which was noticed in the section on ages, bit as we may presume that the same , error rans throughout such lomping will not uffect the comparison of aiferent age-periods.

No comparison with the returns of 1891 is possible, only Cantonments and Railways being enumerated on that occasion so as to give figures for Civil Condition.
75. Civil Condition and Alge.-This subject is an important one seeing how fecundity, female and infant mortality, the proportion of the sexes and kindred matters all rest on the marriage age.

- Out of the total population of $8,623,781$ we see that $2,080,562$ males and 120-1V-3 \& 6. 2,066,7.17 females were married, or about 47 per cent. of males and 49 per cent. females. n , 2\&-5. gatory as it is here some 44 per cent, of the men remain backelors while 31 per cent. of the women never marry.

In the widowed state we find a difference of 11 per cent. betreen males and females, the prohibition to re-marry raising the female figure to 20 per cent. the male figure being 9 per cent. only. There are 2,000 widows to every 1,000 how different conditions are. Here 62 per cent. remain bachelors and 3.5 per cent. widowers, while 59 per cent. of the.women never marry, and $7 \cdot 5$ per cent. remain widows. Thus the widowers in England are about half as many as in Central India, the widows about one third as numerous.
76. Age and Civil Condition.-From Subsidiary Table $\mathbf{X}$ it is seen tbat most men marry between $20-40$ probably really between 20 and 30 . No great rise takes place in the number of married till after 15 years of age, the difference between the 15-20 and 20-40 periods being abont 2,700 persons per 10,000, or 27 per cent.

Girls marry earlier. The female figures are about double those of the male in ench age-period until we reach the $20-\mathbf{4 0}$ period when the figures becume more equalized.

The rapid incrense of widows at the $20-40$. perind is noticeable. By 30 years of age it would seem that every woman who is going to marry has secured a husband as only 5 women in a hundred nre unmarried at this period. In England at the "under 45" period there are 12 per cent. spinstezs,

It is probable that among the 'married' all women belonging to the prostiture and dancing girls' class have been returned, of these, ao far as the return shervs, there are some 5,000 in Central India. As it is the usual custom to formally marry these persons to pipal trees, flowers, etc., they are almost certain to have returned themselves as "married." -

Widows now increase rapidly as we find that the proportion of unmarxied at 5-10 is practically equal to the widows at 40-60. In England at 15-20 we get 1 widow in 10,000 to 692 in Central India, and at the 45 and under 132. $\frac{1}{}$. . sis period at home 1,700 widows.

We may now consider the number belonging to each condition in 10,000 of ench main age-period. We may neglect the $0-10$ period, I think. Marriage in the East does not mean co-habitation, and though 10 is too low an age still 15 would be too high, 12 is probably nearest the mark. Taking the $10-15$ period we find that while 76 per cent. of the males are unmarried only 50 per cent. of the girls are spinsters. In the next period 15-40 the spinsters are less than half the number of bachelors, so that about $\frac{1}{3}$ of the boys and $\frac{1}{2}$ of the girls are married by 15 .

The bulk of the married men is found in the 40 and over period, while "n ${ }^{3 \&} 6$ the married women figure is largest in the $15-40$.

Some more interesting results can, I think, be got from this Subsidiary Table as to the early or late age of marriage : I have taken Hindus and Animists as useful for illustrating this.

Among Hindus we find 89.6 per cent. females who are or have been married between the ages of $20-40$, while $84 \cdot 1$ per cent. are or have been married between the ages of $15-20$. The difference $5 \cdot 5$ per cent. gives us the number of girls who maxry after 20 .

The male figures shew a greater variation.
Thus 80.9 per cent. Hindus are or have been married between the ages of $20-40$ and $50 \cdot 2$ per cent. between the ages of $15-20$ giving 30 per cent. who

$$
\text { " } \quad \text {, sill. }
$$ marry after 20 years of age, or six times the number of the women who marry at this age.

Among Animists we find a much later marriage age flourishes. Thus 92 per cent. females are or bave been married between the ages of 20 and 40 but fily 70 per cent. at the $15-20$ period, which gives 22 per cent. who marry after - 0 , a strong contrast to the Hindu figures. Among the men we notice a greater number of late marriages but the contrast is, as would be expected, not so great. Some $82 \cdot 5$ per cent. are or have been married at the $20-40$ period and 41 per cent. at $15-20$ giving 414 per cent. who marry after 20 .
77. This. brings out very clearly the artificial state of the Hindu marriage customs.

Diean Age in each Condition.-The mean age of married males in Cen- "n $3 \times 0$. tral India is $37 \cdot 9$ years, that of females $33 \cdot 9$, only a difference of 4 years.

This difference is small as we find that in 1891 the mean age for all India was 35.5 for males and 27.6 for females or 7.9 years difference.

If we look at the figures for different Provinces in 1891 we see the Panjab retürns $31 \cdot 8$ for males and 25.8 for females as the mean age, a difference of 6 years. Madras shewed 10 years difference and Assam 10.8.
", $2 \& 5$

$$
" \quad, 12 \& 13
$$

${ }_{132} \mathrm{X}$ 2, 4.5.\& 7 In England and Wales the difference is only $2 \cdot 4$ yearg-43.1 for males and 40.7 for females.
. In the other conditions it is $\mathbf{1 8}$ years for unmarried males and 15 for girls, 46 for widowers and 48 for widows.
78. Proportion of wives to husbands.-We see that in all Central India there

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3.
6.
, " $\mathbf{0}$. " $\quad 3$ \& 4 .
, . 2. are on an average 99 wives to 100 husbands, the defect being principally due, I fancy, to the omission of females remarked on in the section on ages. .

In the different Natural Divisions we find that the Hilly tracts stand first with 103 wives to 100 husbands. . This is due no doubt to the fact that the women kind of the Animistic tribes leave their homes so little, the men only wandering as a rule. It will be noticed that the Fiadus of this tract also shew a kigh percentage of wives, but the reason is that a considerable portion of the Animists always return themselves as Hindus.

The Cluristian population slews very few wives being chiefly Europeans, their wives are often at home.

The Lowlying country shews a defect of wives, 99 to 100 husbands and the Plateau 97 . Hindus shew a little under 100 as do Jains. The Christian figures are higher. The district figures shew a good deal of variation. Taking all religions together only Bhopal and Baghelkhand shetw over 100 wives to 100 husbands. The remaining political charges, except Indore Residency, shew about the same figure. Indore Residency shews 91. I fancy the reason of this is that the Jains, Animists and "Others," who shew such low figures in the case are outsiders who come to Iudore town and Mhow chiefly for trading purposes and whose homes are elsewhere. Many youths too come for educational purposes, while the sepoys, most of whom are Mahomedans, have no families with them as a rule.: $\because$
(a) Hindus.-The highest ratio is shewn in Bagheikhand where the wives are almost in a ratio of 5 per cent. more than the husbands, Bhopal shews an excess of 2 per cent. The other figures are about 98 per cent. except Indore Residency where as we have noticed the figure is abnormally low.
(b) Jains.--The average figure is aboat 98.3 per cent. In Malwa and Bhopal, however, they reach 100.
(c) Musalmans.-It is curicus at first sight that the Mahomedan figures nowhere show 100 or over, their average being aoout 93 per cent. only, 99 per cent. in Baghelkhand being the highest figure. In Indore Residency they fall to 87 per cent.

I am inclined to think that this is partly due to the loss of Mahomedan customs which su characterise the Musalman in Central India where in his method of merrying and eating he has to a very large extent adopted the customs of the Hindu population among whom he dwells. Another factor is, however, tie large number of Mahomedan outsiders who come to Central Indic, to trade and also to the sepoys of regiments both British and state scrvice who are mostly Mahomedans and have no families with them.

Christiais. - They average about 90.7 wives to 100 husbands. In Bhopal and $G$ walior they shem over 100 , otherwise the ratio is low.

- The high ratio in Lashkar can only be accounted for by the men foll-being out on service. Buadelkhand has only 48 wives to 100 husbands. This is due to most of the Christians being Europeans in Nowgong Cantonment who have no wives with them.
(e) Animists. -The average in this case is about $99 \cdot 8$. They rise to over 100 in Bhopad, Bundelkhasd, Baghelkhand, Malwa and Indore Agency. Bhopawar which has far the larger number of this class shews only 97 per cent. of wives. I fancy the husbands wander less in the southern ranges where they are more separated from civilization than they do in other parts, whereas in Bhopal and Malwa towns are more plentiful and the tribes more educated.
( $f$ ) Others.-The average in this case is low. It is attributable to the fact that the people of this class are to a large extent strangers and have come to Central India without their wives and families.

79. Polygamy.-This subject will be more fully denlt with in Chapter VIII. on Caste. I will, however, just touch on the general results.

Bhopal and Baghelkhand only shew over 1,000 wives to 1,000 husbands, while again among the Natural Divisions it is the Hilly tract that shews most wives. We naturally turn, therefore, to the Animistic tribes to search for this excess.

The tribes in Bhopal and Baghelkhand are chiefly Gonds, Kols, Kotwals and Minas, who shew the following number of wives to 1,000 husbands :-


Bhopawar, where there are more Animists than in any other political charge some : 37 per cent. does not shew this trait, which is accounted for as the Bhils and Bhilalas who predominate in Bhopawar shew only 959 and 942 wives to 1,000 busbands.

We may take it that generally it is the tribes mentioned abnve who are polygamous. Elsewhere there is nothing pointing to a plurality of wives.
80. Retations between Marriage, Lacality and Ruliuion. -I think we can draiv some interesting conclusions from Subsidiary Table XIV as to the age of marriage in different part of the agency, and as to the effect of Brahmanising on the jungle tribes of the Hilly tracts.

The point which it most forcibly brings out is that customs governing the marriage of infants, and the re-marriage oi widows, depend principally, nut on religion but on locality, on local usage rather than ;eligious faith, so that we find Mahomedans sepaazted from the influence of Musulman surroundings acting in accordance with the Hindu customs they see around them.

I will take the two sexes sepurately, as though no doubt the marriage of girl's is of more importance, the figures for boys are not without interest. I will take first the figures for married boys at the $0-5$ and $5-10$ periods.

Males.
The influence of locnlity is at once seen. Hindu boss of the Lowlying tracts, under 5 years of age, that is to say principally inbabitants of Bundelkhand, marry to a greater extent than the boss of this age in the other two tracts do, $2 \cdot 4$ per cent. being married here to 1 per cent. in the other two tracts.

135 \& 136 XIV $3,12, \& 21$.

In the case of Mahomedans the infueuce of locality as well as of religious castom, is most marked. Practically no hoys under 5 are married at all, such figures as do appear being easily accounted for by marriages among. Hindu converts, still such difference as there is shews that more marry in the Lowlying tracts than in the other two natural divisions.

This is what one would expect. On the Plateau we have two strongholds of Mahomedanism, Bhopal and Jaora, where Musulman traditions are kept up, while in the Lowlying tracts the population is overwhelmingly. Hindu and such Mahomedans as live there, are impregnated with Hindu customs and usages, adopting in great part Hindu marriage ceremonies.

The Jains shew the least tendency of all to infant marriage among boys nor is there anything to choose in this case besween the different tracts. This is what we should expect in a community such as the Jains of Central India.

The Animist figures are very high, mach bigher than I should have expected, and tend to shew that the Hindu custom of child marriage is more prevalent than one would have thought, or indeed than local inquiry had shewn it to be. It must be borne in mind, however, that probably "lumping" has more effect in disturbing the age returns in this case than in that of the Hindus, as the Animists are wholly uneducated and have less idea of age than even the ordinary raiat, which is saying a good deal.

The figures for the $5-10$ period shew the same relations but the differences are more marked. We find that the Animist figures are in this period $\mathbf{1 . 3}$ per cent. lower than those for Hindusin the same tract.
81. Bachelors.-If we consider the unmarried males 'at the next period " $15-20$ " I think we get a good idea of the age of boy, marriage.

Among Hindus the Plateau shews 53 per cent. of bachelors at this ageperiod, the Lowlying 43 per cent. and the Hilly tracts 58 per cent, Local custom is thus very clearily brought out.

The religion is the same but local usage produces a difference of 10 per cent. between the Plateau and the Lowlying tracts, and of 5 per cent. between the Plateau and the Hilly country, while there is a difference of 15 per cent. between the Lowlying and Hilly tracts in the number of unmarried boys.

Jains similary shew a difference of 11 per cent. and Mahomedans one of 4 per cent. between the Plateau and Lowlying tract figures.

The Animists of the Hilly tracts shew 7 per cent. more bachelors than the Hindus of the same natural divieion.

These differences are what we should expect. The Lowlying tracts are in direct and easy communication with the North West Provinces, which much facilitates taking and giving in marriage between those who are by custom bound to intermarry, and obliged to seek their wives a way from home, while the more isoluted Plateau and still more inaccessible Hilly tracts offer no such advantage. The Hindu boy of the Billy country has evidently to follow to some extent in the footsteps of his Bhil neighbour and be content to marry when he is of age or not at all.
82. Widowers.-All men can re-marryif they wish, and since the wife, of the poor man at least, is an essential unit in a household, most widowers do remarry. The only deduction, therefore, that one can draw from a prevalence of widowers is that a locality is.not prosperous.

How far we are justified in taking the rise and fall in the number of widowers as a barometer of prosperity I am not prepared to say, but I will briefly give the results found in our table.'

Taking all ages-Hindus on the Plateau shew about 8 per cent. and on the Lowlying tracts much the same, while the Hilly tracts shew I per cent. more.

Jains shew 10 per cent. in the Plateau and 11 per cent. in the Lowlying country. While Mahomedans shew about 8 per cent. in both tracts. At the 40-60 age-period we find Hindus shew 20 per cent. in the Plateau, 22 per cent. in the Lowlying and 23 per cent. in the Hills. Jains in each case shew a higher figure, $24 \cdot 6$ per cent. in the Plateau and 24 per cent. in the Lowlying country. The small difference is, $I$ fancy, due to their being in large part a community whose real home is out of Central India, and who are less affected by local custom.

Mahomedans shew 18 per cent. and 17 per cent. in the two tracts respectively. I merely give the figures for what they are worth and do not mean to place any special reliance on the deductions I have suggested, the differences are nowhere remarkable.

## Females.

We now come to the more important part of this inquiry.
83. Infant marriage among females.-0—5.-At this age there is no great ", 21. indication of a general prevalence of infant marriage, the figures being about the same as those for boys. The Hindus of the Hilly tracts alone shew a figure of some importance, which is curious.

The Mahomedan figures in the Lowlying tracts approach near to the,$\ldots 12 \& 18$. Hindu, while in the Plateau they are much lower than the Hindu figure,,$\ldots 3 \& 9$. which again illustrates the effect of local influence.

The Animist figures are again extraordinarily high and possibly for the same reason as I mentioned above, indeed, as female ages are generally more vague than even those of males, it is not unlikely that "lumping" is here very largely responsible.
$5-10$. -The Hindu girls of the Lowlying country are about 3 per cent. " $\quad 3,12$, \& 22 . ahead of their sisters in the Plateau as regards catching husbands and 2 per cent. ahead of girls in the Hilly tracts.

Jains in the Plateau have just half as many girls married as Hindus have, ", ${ }^{3} \& 6$. but in the Lowlying country the figures are'closer only differing by 1 per cent.

The Jains of the Plateau marry 9 per cent. less girls of this age than their
 o-religionists in the Lowlying country.

Mahomedans in the Plateau show one-third the number of married girls " 9.918. than Mahomedans in the Lowlying tracts do, and differ in each case by 8 per $n n, 9,12 \& 18$. cent. and 4 per cent. from Hindu figures for the same tracts.

Animists show only 5 per cent. of married girls to 14 per cent. shown by " ${ }^{21} \& 24$. Hindus in the same tract, showing clearly the difference that exists in marriage customs between the two religions, and illustrating how little Hindu influence has really affected the tribes in this respect.

10-15:- We can, from these figures, get a rough idea of the age of marriage of ging neglecting the few who are married under 10 years of age.
135\& 136-EIV.2. In the Plateau the Hindus have about 47 per cent of unmarried girls which would fix the average age of marringe at about 12 years and 4 months. Jains " "5. have 49 per cent. which gives 12 years and 6 . months, Mahomedands 69 per " "8. cent. from which we see 13 years and. 6 months to be the age.

In the Lowlying tracts the figures are lower and we find that Hindus
" $11,14, \& 17$.
„ $20 \& 28$.
" ${ }^{2}$ \& 14.
" " "
" ${ }^{2 \&} 81$.
" 88 \& 17 .
" $n 23$.
" $\quad 20$.
" ${ }^{16}$ \& 19.
" $\quad, 4,18, \& 22$.
" 7 7, 16, 10\& 19 .
" $n 25$.
$">4$
$\because \quad, 4,13, \& 22$. marry their girls at 12 years, Jains a little earlier at 11 years and 4 months, and Mahomedans at 12 years. The Hilly tracts show' that Hindus marry at 12 years and 6 months, while the Animist young lady in the same tract does not marry until she is 14 years old, an age by which most of her Hindu sisters are already mothers.

15-20. -If we consider the figures for unmarried girls at this age we see that there are less among the Jains than the other religions, this is due nodoubt to their generally being people of position and substance, who are always able to marry off their daughters.

There are only 6 per cent. of unmarried Jains on the Plateau and 12 per cent. in the Lowlsing tracts. Hindus show on the Plateau 12 per cent. and on the Lowlying tracts 16 per cent. Mahomedans shew 21 per cent. and 19 per cent. on the Plateau and the Lowlying tracts respectively. The Animists shew 35 per cent. of unmarried girls at this age, whereas Hindus in the same tract only shew 22 per cent. This gives us a clear idea, I think, of the relative ages of girl marriage in the different tracts.

It shews, moreover, how much longer Animistic girls remain unmarried than those of other classes.

The Hindu figures for the Hilly tracts are also certain to contain a certain number of Animists who have returned themselves as Hindus,: which tends to make the difference between Hindus and Animists in these tracts less marked than it would otherwise be.
84. Infont. Widows.-There are very few widows to be found in the $0-5$ and 5-10 periods. Only in the case of Jains and Mahomedans of the Lowlying tracts do the figures amount to 1 per cent. The Mahomedan Ggure is curiously high, 1.8 per cent.
85. Givl Widows.-At $10-15$ there is a marked rise in the figures, fromabout 2 per cent. to 4 per cent. among Bindus and 2 and 3 per cent among Mahomedans and Jains. Even Animists shew the rise, but in no case are the figures excessive.

In the $15-20$ period the highest figare is $9 \cdot 7$ per cent.' and is ${ }^{2}$ shewn by Hindus in the Plateau. . The average is about 6.6 per cent.
86. Re-marriage of Widows.-From the remaining age-periods, I think, we can make some deductions as to the prevalence of widow re-marriage in different parts of the Agencty.

Taking all ages and all religions together we see that broadly speaking. widow re-marriage is more common in the Lowlying tracts than: in the other two.

Thus Hindus of all ages shew 4 per cent. more widows on the Plateau than in the other two tracts.

At 40-60 there are 9 per cent. more widows on the Plateau and 5 per cent. more in the Hilly tracts than in the Lowlying tracts.

A similar variation is shewn by Jains and Mahomedans. The Eastern side of the Agency is apparently less strict in this respect than the other portions.

To examine it in detail :-
We find that the Jains sherv the least signs of widow re-marriage, there being at $20-40,4$ per cent. more Jain widows than there are Hindu, and at 40-60, 10 per cent. more. Compared with the Mahomedan figures at these periods Jains have 7 per cent. and 12 per cent. more, respectively.

Even at 60 and over where the figures become more equalised we still find 13 per cent. more Jain widows. This all bears out the well-known aversion the Jains have to any form of widow re-marriage. It is, however, apparently practised to some extent among the Jains in the Lowlying tracts who are separated from the great Jain centres of Ratlam and Indore.

There are 2 per cent. less Jain widows at the $20-40$ period and 6 per cent. less at the $40-60$ period in the Lowlying tracts than in the Plateau.

It should be noticed that though the Hindus of the Lowlying tracts give their daughters in marriage at an earlier age than in the other two tracts we still find less widows in these tracts than in the other two, whereas the natural result of a greater prevalence of child marriage would be to increase the number of widows.

It may be remarked that the Brahmanical prohibition of widow re-marriage is a comparatively recent institution and as far as low castes and jungle tribes are concerned carries no weight until an individual or a section of a community aspires to a higher social position.

Oür results tend to shew, I think, that widow prohibition precedes infant marriage: Animists and Hindus who live in the same tract shew a very marked difference in the age at which they marry their daughters while in the case of widows the difference is much smaller. To probibit widow re-marriage is the thin edge of the wedge, as the gap widens room is made for infant marriage and other institutions, and the social status of those who have adopted these customs is raised. The introduction of infant marriage is usually, I believe, the first step towards a social rise, but the figures here point to the probibition of widow re-marriages as coming first.

135 \& 136-XIV.
4. 13, \& 22.
" ${ }^{7,16,10 \& 19}$
$" 1487$.
" " ? \& 10.
" $\quad 4,7 \& 10$.
$", 7 \& 15$. is one of great interest and considerable complexity and is made much more difficult in this case by the absence of all vital statistics. In all Central India there were $4,428,790$ males and $4,119,991$ females or 228,799 less women than men. The ratio of women to 1,000 men was in 1881, 896 ; in 1891, 912 ; and on this occasion 948.

This regular increase is satisfactory as it shews that the people are becoming more accustomed to enumerations andithat the female returns are fuller. There are three causes which chielly lower the returns of females. Firstly, deliberate omission from dislike to publishing any facts relative to women-folk, secondly, omissions due to the idea that women are of too little account to be worthy the notice of Government ; and thirdly the natural causes of greater mortality or lower birth-rate.

The first cause is the main factor in this case, though the otber two, and especinlly an increased death-rate are nó doubt in part responsible.

It is satisfactory to see, therefore, that in spite of the natural fall which must have taken place through an increase in the number of deaths and a lowered fecundity, both the effects of famine, the general return shews an increase of 3.6 per cent. over the 1891 , and of 5.2 per cent. over the 188.1 female figures.

Immigration has very little effect. If we subtract the immigrants, it only lowers the figures 1 per cent. in 1891 and $1 \cdot 3$ per cent. in 1881.

In the natural divisions we find that the Hilly tracts shew the most females about 9,900 to every 10,000 males while the Plateau and Lowlying divisions shew about 9,400 and 9,300 respectively. The Hilly tracts have thus between 5 and 6 per cent. more women than the other two tracts. This may be in part due to an actual excess of births in these regions, but it is no doubt also due to the absence of any prejudice against returning women more than men, and to the fact that the women of the Animistic, tribes, who constitute the major part of the population in the.Hilly tracts, seldom leave their villages there being no marriage customs to draw them from home in the way Hindu women are drawn.
88. Districts.-The district figures vary somewhat, Baghelkhand alone of the districts shews an excess of females.

Bhopal and Bhopawar show a defect of about 3 per cent. Indore Agency, Malwa and Bundelkhand about 5 per cent. while Gwalior and Indore Residency shew as much as 12 per cent. and 10 per cent. respectively.

Between Baghelkhand and Gwalior there is a difference of 13 per cent.
It is, I regret, impossible to subtract the immigrant figures, as the retarn was made by States and there is no means of distinguishing between people born in different parts of a State:
" $2 \& 3$.
89. Variation.-The variation between the three enumerations shews that the proportion of women to men has increased in all but one charge, three shewing a rise of 6 per cent.

Gwalior alone shews a decrease. As there is no reason to suppose that people enumerated by Gwalior State have not become as accustomed to the Census as those of other parts of Central India the fall must be due to natural causes.
90. Urban and Rural-To examine these figures in detail would be out of place here; as before this can be properly carried out, it would be necessary to make allowances for immigration, ratio of different religions, etc., which I am unable to do - In Central India there are 920 females to every 1,000 males in towns while in villages there are 950.
T. This may be due to several causes. Less objection among the raral population to returning their females, the fact that men go to towns to seek work leaving their 'women-fols behind them, and possibly also to the open air life being more favourable to the weaker sex especially at critical periods such as child-birth. It is interesting to note that the difference between the town and village figures in 1881,1891 and 1901 is considerable.

- In 1881 there were 122 more women than men in villages than in towns, while in 1891 there were 60 more, only about half the number, while on this occasion there are only 32 more, nearly 50 percent. less than in 1891. This is due undoubtedly to a fuller retarn of women in each succeeding enumeration.

For the sake of comparison I give the figures of Lashkar, Bhopal, Indore and Ratlam.

- The Mahomedan town of Bhopal shews the highest figure for females, 88 more females tó every 1,000 males than Indore shews. The proportions in Ratlam and Lashkar are much the same while Indore shews the lowest figure. $91:-\therefore \quad \because \quad$ Proportions át different ages.

0-5. Infancy.-Taking all religions together there are more femate infants in the Low-lying and Hilly tracts than in the Plateau. Both the other divisions shew over 1,000 girle to 1,000 boys at this period but the Plateau only shews 907 . There are 15 per cent. more female infants in the Hilly "racts than in the Plateau, There is no reason to suppose that the same errors do not hold in each case and at this period the inclination to conceal a girl's age is absent, some natural cause must, therefore, be responsible, but the absence of all vital statistics makes it difficult to assign causes.

I think that the Famines of 1896 and 1900 are in part responsible, as the children of this age were begotten in 1895-1899 and there is no doubt that the mortality among them was great. But why the Hills should retarn so many it is difficult to say as, the famine of 1900 was very severe in most of these tracts, and the greater fertility of the Animistic women is hardly sufficient to counteract the effects of bad years.

The figures for children increase in the case of Hindus and Mahomedans from Plateau to Hilly tracts where there are 19 per cent. more Hindus and 9 per cent more Musalman children thay on the Platean. Animiste shew a fall of 14 per cent. in the Low-lying tracts.

5-10. Childhood.-The same rise from Plateau to Hilly tracts isobservable in the ratio here. Hindu figures rise some 19 per cent. from Platean to Hills. Mahomedan figures fall in Low-lying tracts but rise in Hilly. Animists sher the lowest figure in the Plateau country.

10-15. Girlhood.-There is a regular rise here from Platean to Hills some 22 per cent. in all.

Hindu figures rise from Plateau to Hilly tracts, while Mahomedan figures riee in Lowlying, and fall in the Hilly,
$n \neq 2,3, \& 4$.
" ${ }^{4} 4$.
" $n$.
" ${ }^{2}$.
" " ${ }^{2}$.

138-XVI-9, 6, \& 10 .
$n, \quad 3,4,11 \& 12$.
n ${ }^{9}$.
" $n^{8 \& 11}$.
" ${ }^{8} 8 \& 12$.
" ${ }^{\circ}$ b.
" ${ }^{2}$ \& 10 .
" ${ }^{3}{ }^{8} 11$.
" ${ }^{8} \$ 12$.

15-20. Age of marriage. - Most are found in the Hilly tracts.

138-XVI-10.
", 2.
; ${ }^{\prime}$ 2\& 6.
" 3 3, 7 \& 11.
" 18 \& 12.
" $\quad 2$ \& 10.
" ${ }^{\prime} 8 \& 12$.
" ${ }^{3}$ 5, 1 .
" ${ }^{2} 8$.
" XVI-3, 4, 7, \& 8 .
" $8 \& 13$.
$140-X I X-3$.
20-40. Platean shews the higest figure. Hindus fall in Low-lying and rise again in Hills. The Animist figures rise through 10 per cent. Hindus shew most women on the Plateau.

40-60. Middle age.-There are almost the same number of women of this age in the Plateau and Hilly tracts which is largely due to the high return among the Hindus and Animists. Hindus shew 5 per cent, less in the Lowlying but 12 per cent. more in the Plateau than in the Hills. Mahomedans shew most in the Hills, but least in the Lowlying tract.

60 and over.-The figures fall from Plateau to Hilly tracts. Everywhere there are over 100 women to 100 men. Hindus shew their highest figure in the Plateau which is about 10 per cent. 'higher than that of either of the other trio tracts.

Mahomedans shew most in the Hilly tracts, some 8 per cent. more than in the Low-lying.

Animists shew most in the Plateau, in each case their figure is higher than that of any other religion.

The general conclusion we reach is that, in the case of each religion, most women are, as a rule, met with in the Hilly tracts. Whether this is due to healthier life and greater fertility or to constant departure of males in search of work I am unable to say for certain but all these causes are no donbt at work.
92. 'Excess and defect of females:- It will be seen that in 1891 there was a defect of females in every charge and that this defect is again apparent in 1901, aave in the case of Baghelkhand where there has been a rise of about 12,000.

Another point is the diminution in the defect, which is due to better enumeration as I have already remarked.

The rise in Baghelkhand is remarkable and not easy to account for but is I fancy chiefly due to more accurate enumeration. There was a defect of about 8,000 females in 1891, while now there is an excess of 12,000 , or a total gain of some 20,000 .

In all Central India we gained in 1891, 31,479 women on the 1881 return and in 1901, 143, 461, on the 1891 returns.'

The natural division returns shew that there are more females in the Hills than there are in the other two divisions. The difference here between the men and women is only some 6,000 in favour of the stronger sex, whereas in the other two divisions the defect of women is over 100,000 .

The proportion of women among Hindus is always in excess of that among Mahomedans in each tract, while the Animists shew excess both in the Low-lying and Hilly tracts, As we have seen they are more fertile but less longlived, however the differences are nowhere great.
93. Proportions of selected castes.-The general result shews that the lower a caste the greater is its number of females.

Thus out of the castes shewing 100 females to 100 males ten belong to the Animistic tribes or tolow caste Hindus. Of those who are, at any rate locally, given a high social position it will be seen that Marathas shem this trait. It is curious that Srigode Brahmans should also appear here.

From those castes which fall between the numbers 13-34, 15 belong to decidedly low castes or Animistic tribes, while 2 are Mahomedans, and two of quasi high caste Joshi and Bhat.

Generally the jungle tribes come early, Seherias only being found in the 80 per mille group.

Dhangars hold a position well down the list. These people are nearly all found in Indore State where they bold an entirely. artificial position owing to their being of the same caste as the Maharaja. They are consequently employed in position in which under ordinary conditions, they would not be placed, and they have undoubtedly risen socially. The education return sherrs that they have a very large proportion of literates. The position of Ajnas is peculiar. They are fuund.almost entirely in Gwalior State. I applied to the State Census Commissioner for information regarding this caste as their female returns were so abnormally low. He said that judging from the totul figures and such enquiries he had made it was due to careless enumeration and not to female infanticide or any special mortality among their women-folk.

Compared with the returns of other provinces none of the figures are in any way peculiar.

Thus the Panjab in 1891 shews 841 females to every 1,000 , Brahman males, our return including " other Brahman" is 906, Panjab Bhat figures are $855^{\circ}$ ours 903 , Nai figures 863 ours 884, Bania 843 to our 848 (All Banias).
94. Female infanticide.-The figures for the different religions, as we have seen, gave no indications of the existence of this castom.

It was thought that perhaps investigations into the proportions of females in certain castes would give some information on the point.

The only class in Central India to whom the suspicion of carrying on this custom was attached were the Rajputs, whether it was also extant among the jungle tribes was not known. The reports from districts, however, all denied the existence of any general custom of female infanticide among any class. The truth of this denial our figures bear out fully. Leaving the Ajnas aside whose figures are not reliable, nowhere do we find the proportion fall below 700 females to 1,000 males.

If female infanticide is carried out it is always done immediately after birth and the figures for children under five would shew it, but they do not. The castes who fall into each class are somewhat mixed but certain general groups are met with.

Thus of the 12 Animistic tribes 7 fall in the 1,000 group and 2 in the 900 , while Bharuds are only just out of the 900 group.

The number of females in these tribes is, therefore, on the whole high.
Of Hindu castes we find the Brahmans are in the 1,000 or 900 group and Rajputs are also here.

Banins shew a low figure, and the difference between the Jain Oswal and the Hindu Oswal is very noticeable, about 8 per cent.

## Note on season of merriage.

95-In Central India where no record of birthsand deaths is kept it has not been possible to discover if any connection could be traced between the way of
living of the people, and the sex of children born. However a note on the seasons in which marriages take place will not be without interest.
(a) Bindus in general:-There are certain months which are always considered unpropitious.

The four rainy months (Cháturmásya) Ashadh( June-July), Shrávan (JulyAugust), Bhadradapa (August-September), Ashvin (September-October), Kartik (October-November), are always avoided. The season commences in Ashadh, 11 Sudi and ends in, Kartik, 11 Sudi.

The popular reason given for this avoidance is that Vishnu is asleep. In the marriage ceremony $a$ vow has to be taken by the parties that they will be faithful, and this is taken in the presence of Vishnu, Agni, the household deity and the family priests. Obviously if Vishnu is asleep it cannot be a valid oath. Thereis, however, the more common-place season, which is that it is no easy matter to get about the country at this reason, and it would be difficult for a marriage procession (bar ai ) to proceed to the house where the function is to take place.

The months of Poush (December-January) and Chaitra (March-April) are also unpropitious. Chaitra because itis supposed to be unhealthy and Poush, popularly, because Sita the wife of Rama who met with such misfortunes, was married in that month. Marriages must also never take place in the intercalary (Adhik) months which may be Chaitra, Vaishhákha, Jyeshtha, Ashádha, Shrávan, Bhádrapada or Ashvina.

No marriage can take place when Jupiter or Venus is invisible (concealed by the sun). Nor if Jupiter is in Leo can any marriage take place.

The popular reason for these prohibitions is that Jupiter, (Brahaspati) is mounted on a boar (my informant writes elephant but this is wrong, Satarn sometimes rides an elephant) which is antagonistic to the horse ridden by the sun, Surya.

Venus is called Shukra which also means "the vital essence." If absent it would prove a bad omen for the newly wiedded pair. My informant says "the fallacy of equivocal terms is perhaps the caase of marriages being prohibited at this conjunction of Venus."

The lion and boar being antagonistic it is impossible to hold a marriage when Jupiter is in Leo.

There are thus out of the twelve months six in which marriage can take place. Vaishákha (April-May) Jyeshtha (May-June) Ashádha (June-July) np to Sudi 11, Aghan (November-December), Mágha January-February) and Phálguna (February-March).

Of these again the best montbs are Vaishaikha and Jyeshtha. With the exception that no first born child, male or female, can marry in Jyeshtha.

This it will be noticed is the slack season as regards agriculture.
None of these prohibitions apply to those who live beyond the Godavari river where marriages may be celebrated at any time ; any one willing to marry, say in Chaturmasya season goes to hill known as Balaji-ki-giri on the Western Ghats and is able to marry (Vide Muhurto Martand, Astrology).

Gauna Ceremony:-In Central India at any rate there is no connection between the Gauna Mukhlawa or Dwiragaman ceremony, or ceremony entitling a man to take his wife to his house, and cohabitation.

The Gauna ceremony is generally gone through within the firsttwelve months after the ordinary marriage ceremony. If it is not then carried out the third year must be awaited, as the ceremony can never take place in a lyear bearing an even number, it must fallin the 3 rd, 5 th, 7 th , etc.

The persons following the luni-solar reckoning, (i.e., from full moon to full moon) can marry in the portion of Rártik in which the sun is in Scorpio, all through Márgashirsha (Aghan), in that portion of Poush when the sun is in Makara (Capricorn), in all Mágh, all Phalgun, in that part of Chaitra when the sun is in Mesha (Aries), in all Vaishrkh and Jyeshtha and in that portion of Ashadh when the sun is in Mithuna (Gemini).

The position of the Sun favourable to the bridgegroom and of the planet Jupiter favourable to the bride has to be considered.

The Kachhis of Bhopawer marry in Shravan even. This caste also takes the girl to their house even if she has not shewn signs of puberty as soon as she is twelve jears old.
(b) Jains.-Theoretically the Jains profess not to putany credit in astrology but as a matter of fact they to all intents and purposes follow the Hindu custom sometimes secretly. Gauna though very common is also not theoretically recognized. It may be said that though the Jains profess to have a very simple marriage system they in practice act as Hindus do.

Some Jains assert that the reason for not marrying in the Cháturmásya is because insect life is likely to be destroyed, being plentiful it is attracted to the torches of a marriage procession.
(c) Mahomedans.-Mahomedans also profess not to have any belief in astrology, but those who have long lived among Hindus always almost consult a Hindu Joshi as to a propitious time. The months of Safar which is the month in which Mahomed fell ill and died, Shauwál and Sábán and the ten days of the Muharsam are avoided as not suited to a joyful ceremony, such as a wedding.

Puberity is the ouly guage as to when cobabitation is to commence. The Gauna ceremony may have been gone through ages before or have been only just gone through, the only essential is that it must have been carried out as till that takes place the man cannot carry home his bride. It does not, however, mark the time of cohabitation as it usually takes place long before the girl is of age.

Cohabitation must commence within 16 days of the girl's having her first menses. The actual day is often fixed by astrology.

Cohabitation is forbidden on the first three nights after the menses, also one informant says on the 11th and 13th days.

- There is a curious idea prevalent that if intercourse takes place on the 4th, 6th, etc., up to 16 th night the child will be a boy while if it takes place on the uneven numbers it will be, a girl. (Muharta Martand Astrology).
(d). Special customs.-Among Brahmans the periods are determined differently according to the method of reckoning time the particular class uses.

There are three divisions, those using solar time the Saura or solar year, those using the Lunar months and those using Lunar-solar reckoning.

In the Saura year the months correspond to the transit of the sun through the different signs of the Zodiac.

The months when according to this section marriages can take place are Vrishabh (May 12 to July 12) when the sun is in Taurus, Mithun (June 12July 12, when in Gemini, Vrischika (November 14-December 15) when in Scorpio, Makara (January 13-Feburary 13) when in Capricorn, Kumbha (Feburary 13 - March 15) when in Aquarius.

[^3] periods already described.

## Subsidiary Table I.

Unadjusted Age Return of 11,118 of both Sexes.


Subsidiary Table II.
Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex.


Subsidiary Table III.
Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex by religion.


Subsidiary Table IV.
Age Distribution of 10,000 of Each Sex by Religion and Natural Division.
Plateau.


## Subsidiary Table V.

Distribution by age of 100 persons for each Agency.


Subsidiary Table VI.
MARRIAGE.
Distribution of 10,000 of each Sex by Age and Civil Condition.

| $\because \quad$. | Matiss. |  |  | Fenalis. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unmarried. | Married. | Widowed. | Comarried. | Married. | Widowed. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| $0-5$ - 0 | 1,047 | $19^{\circ}$ | 2 | 1,070 | 89 |  |
| $5-10 \times 0$ | 1,069 | 85 | 6 | 935 | 141 | 10 |
| 20-15 .00 $\quad .0$ | 967 | 284 | 21 | 518 | 475 | 23 |
| 15-20 . 0 - .. | 530 | 444 | 41 | 164 | 690 | 63 |
| 20-40 - 00 | - 657 | 2,462 | 828 | 342 | 2,573 | 883 |
| 40-60 . . . . | 129 | 1,220 | 364 | 49 | 900 | 92! |
| B0 and over : 0 - | 28 | 184 | 112 | 7 | 104 | 313 |
| Not stated - -00. ... | 1 | $\cdots$ | ** | $\cdots$ | 1 | 1 |
| - Total ... | 4,428 | 4,008 | 874 | 3,073 | 4,921 | 2,008 |

Subsidiary Table VIT.
marriage.
Distribution by Civil Condition and Mfain Agc-periods of 10,000 of each Sex.


Subsidiary Table VIII.
Dstribution by Civil Condition and Main Age-Periods of. 10,000 of each Sex, at the last three Censuses.


Subsidiary Table IX.
Distribution by Main Age-Periods of 10,000 of each Civil Condition.


Subsidiary Table $X$.
Statement shewing for different Religions at six Age－periods the proportion of Single，Married and Widowed in．each 10,000 of the Population．

|  | All Reltarone． |  |  |  |  |  | Hindos： |  |  |  |  |  | Animists． |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\therefore$ Males．$\therefore$ |  |  | Females．${ }^{\text {／}}$ |  |  | diales． |  |  | Females． |  |  | Males． |  |  | Females． |  |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \frac{0}{20} \\ & \stackrel{5}{6} \end{aligned}$ | 㵄 | Widowed． |  | 至 |  |  | 苞 |  | 官 | － |  | 安 | 家 | 烒 | － | 家 |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |
| 0－10 | 9，499 | 466 | 35 | 9，148 | 789 | 63 | 9，475 | 490 | 35 | 9，074 | 864 | 62 | 9，537 | 434 | 29 | 0，432 | 510 | 58 |
| 10－15 | 7，600 | 2，233 | 167 | 15，021 | 4，652 | 327 | 7，454 | 2，376 | 170 | 4，558 | 5，111 | 331 | 8，171 | 1，669 | 160 | 6，981 | 2，686 | 333 |
| 15－20 | 5，220 | 4，374 | 406 | 1，785 | 7，524 | 692 | 5，042 | 4，549 | 409 | 1，581 | 7，730 | 689 | 5，887 | 3，687 | 426 | 2，991 | 6，270 | 739 |
| 20－40 | 1，906 | 7，141 | 953 | 959 | 7，211 | 1，830 | 1.898 | 7，153 | 949 | 1，029 | 7，145 | 1，826 | 1，749 | 7，205 | 1，045 | 516 | 7，298 | ：， 0 ¢5 |
| 40－60 | 753 | 7，123 | 2，134 | 227 | 4，825 | 4，948 | 758 | 7，088 | 2，154 | 210 | 4，876 | 4，914 | 572 | 7，359 | 2，065 | 325 | 4，835 | 5， 0.010 |
| 60 \＆over | 885 | 5，673 | 3，442 | 163 | 2，447 | 7，390 | 961 | 5，511 | 3，528 | 153 | 2，486 | 7，361 | 461 | 6，482 | 3，087 | 185 | 2，808 | 7，007 |
| All ages． | 4，428 | 4，698 | 87.4 | 3，073 | 4，921 | 2，006 | 4，367 | 4，745 |  | 2，951 | 5，013 | 2，036 | 4，827 | 4，377 | 706 | 3，836 | 4，372 | 17.92 |
| Mean Age | 18 | 38 | 46 | 15 | 34 | 48 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Subsidiary Table XI．
Proportion of the Sexes by Civil Condition for Religions and Natural Divisions．

| Religion and Natural Division． | Nomber of Fehalds per 1000 yales， |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | －$\Delta$ t all agea．＇ |  |  | 0－10 |  |  | 10－15 |  |  | 15－40 |  |  | 40 and over． |  |  |
|  | 家 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 淢 } \\ & \text { 㢄 } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ت邑 } \\ & \text { 要 } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 官 } \\ & \text { 它 } \\ & \text { 品 } \end{aligned}$ | a 0 0 0 0 | 官 | 完 | 家 | 宮 | 宦 | 号 | 迦 | 官 | 号 |
| 1 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 22 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| Religions－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Hindus | 998 | 638 | 2，104 | 1，641 | 878 | 1，618 | 1，565 | 451 | 1，436 | 1，056 | 415 | 1，845 | 75 | 274 | 2，45 |
| Jains | 983 | 528 | 2，200 | 2，168 | 999 | 1，275 | 2，873 | 429 | 1，559 | 1，123 | 91 | 2，225 | 485 | 02 | 2，361 |
| Musalmany | 930 | 685 | 2，131 | 2，035 | 936 | 2，183 | 1，771 | 682 | 1，637 | 1，110 | 272 | 1，627 | 50.6 | 300 | 2572 |
| Christiais | 907 | 874 | 1，155 | 7，714 | 927 | 1，000 | 1，580 | 1，288 | ．．． | 856 | 652 | 1，180 | 6.13 | 723 | $1!95$ |
| Animists | 998 | 794 | 2，251 | 1，176 | 988 | 2，003 | 1，389 | 737 | 1，794 | 1，903 | 682 | 1，859 | 090 | 611 | $\because, 7108$ |
| Others | 448 | 506 | 856 | 2，667 | 723 | ．．． | 593 | 602 | 333 | 637 | 327 | 328 | 273 | 2 CO | 1，172 |
| All Religions | 993 | 658 | 2，175 | 1，624 | 899 | 1，700 | 1，585 | 503 | 1，488 | 1，069 | 404 | 1，839 | 700 | 297 | 2,68 |
| Nutural Dicisions－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Plateau | 474 | 625 | 2，255 | 1，701 | 823 | 1，036 | 1，482 | 438 | 1，558 | 1，053 | 502 | 1，912 | C17 | 289 | 2，916 |
| Low lying ，．．． | 562 | 642 | 1，981 | 1，440 | 931 | 1，561 | 1，589 | 480 | 1，485 | 1，003 | 277 | 1，762 | 22： | 2.17 | 2,106 |
| Hilly | 1，036 | 745 | 2，116 | 1，711 | 974 | 2，137 | 1，787 | 662 | 1：333 | 1，126 | 401 | 1，788 | 671 | 44.4 | 2，344 |

## Subsidiary TableXII．

Distribution by Civil Condition of 10,000 of each Sex for Districts and Natural Divisions．

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Agencies } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { Natural Divisions. } \end{gathered}$ |  | Civil Cusdition＇or 10，000 Males．－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | All Ages， |  |  | 0－10． |  |  | 10－15． |  |  | 15－40． |  |  | 40 and over． |  |  |
|  |  | \％ | 号 | 宮 | － |  | 宫 | 灾 | 定 | － | 家 | 咎 | 家 | － | 䔍 | \％ |
| 1 |  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| Agencics：－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Gwalior Residency | －•• | 4，753 | 4，480 | ${ }^{6} 67$ | 9，604 | 383 | 13 | 7，011 | 2，306 | 83 | 2，831 | 6，505 | 664 | 1，293 | 6，254 | 2，453 |
| Iudore＂ | ＊ | 1，157 | 5，166 | 677 | 9，806 | 183 | 11 | 8，564 | 1，233 | ¢03 | 2，634 | 6，790 | 576 | 658 | 7，651 | 1，691 |
| Baghelkhand Ageacy | ．．． | 4，703 | 4，346 | 951 | 793 | 9，138 | 69 | 3.097 | 6，067 | 236 | 6，401 | 2，616 | 893 | 6，686 | 78.4 | 2，530 |
| Elinpal \＃ | ＊ | 4，385 | 4，634 | 991 | ¢，556 | 395 | 49 | 7， $\mathrm{Sz8}$ | 1，048 | 224 | 2，692 | 6，385 | 923 | 495 | 7，245 | 2，260 |
| Bhopawar＂ | ．．． | 4，711 | 4，531 | 758 | 9，695 | 289 | 16 | 8，610 | 1，291 | 99 | 2，746 | 6，449 | 805 | 476 | 7，429 | 2，095 |
| Burdelkiund＂ | －．． | 3，943 | 5，148 | 909 | 9，375 | 602 | 23 | 6，965 | 2，913 | 122 | 2，238 | 7，015 | 747 | 5.4 | 7，106 | 2，320 |
| Indore $\quad$＂ | ．．． | \＄，400 | 1，849 | 751 | 0,736 | 295 | 39 | 8，820 | 980 | 185 | 3，06t | 6，269 | 664 | 548 | 7，628 | 1，824 |
| Milva $\quad$ | ＊＊＊ | 4，373 | 4，589 | 1， 028 | 9，685 | 264 | 48 | 8，274 | 1，450 | 273 | 12，691 | 6，177 | 1，132 | 074 | 7,001 | 2，395 |
| Total Central India | ．．． | 4，428 | 4，698 | 874 | 0，489 | 486 | 35 | 7.800 | 2，283 | 167 | 2，e60 | 6，512 | 828 | 774 | 8，882 | 2，334 |
| Natural Dicisions－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Plateau | －． | 4，462 | 4，661 | 877 | 9，305 | 371 |  | －1，820 | 1，992 | 188 | 2，713 | 16，38 | 906 | 730 | 7，034 | 2，236 |
| Lowlying tracts＂．．． | －．． | 1，271 | 4，849 | 880 | 0，377 | 583 | 40 | 7，133 | 2，737 | 130 | 2，591 | 6，743 | 736 | 931 | 6，68．1 | 2，365 |
| Hilly ．．． | ＊＊＊ | 4，631 | 4，509 | 880 | 9.538 | 4.36 | 26 | 7，919 | 1，886 | 185 | 9，783 | 6，395 | 822 | 652 | 7，038 | 2，410 |

Civil Condition of 10，000 of Females．

| ． geacien：－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gwalior Residency | ．．． 3 | 3，098 | 4，910 | 1，993 | 9，296 | 662 | 42 | 4，053 | 5，668 | 270 | 1，810 | 6，935 | 1，255 | 179 | 4，213 | 5，603 |
| Indore | ．．． 2 | 2，633 | 5，278 | 2，09．） | 9，441 | 520 | 34 | 4，699 | 5，000 | 301 | 374 | 8，130 | 1，406 | 141 | 3，633 | 6，243 |
| Baghelkhand Agency | ．．． | 4，812 | 3，377 | 1，78 | 1，108 | 8，750 | 122 | 4，606 | 5，031 | 3003 | 7，122 | 1，93 | 1，407 | 376 | 4，791 | 4， 323 |
| Bhopal \＃ | ．．． | 3，072 | 4，894 | 2，034 | 0，2c9 | 671 | 60 | 5，537 | 4，147 | 316 | 902 | 7，292 | 1，806 | 236 | 4，544 | 5，230 |
| Hhopawar | ．．． | 3，543 | 4，552 | 1，905 | 9，453 | 510 | 32 | 6，275 | 3，509 | 216 | 923 | 7，471 | 1，606 | 211 | 3，530 | 6，259－ |
| Prodelkhand | ．．． | 2，954 | 5，324 | 1，722 | 9，139 | 833 | 28 | 4，710 | 5，068 | $2 \geq 2$ | 808 | 7，734 | 1，368 | 161 | 5，639 | 4，200 |
| Indore | ．．． | 2，534 | 4，960 | 2，506 | 0，258 | 677 | 65 | 5，284 | 4，244 | 473 | 416 | 7，577 | 3，007 | 205 | 3，971 | 6，824 |
| Slalwn Agency $n$ | ．．． | 2，567 | 4，783 | 2，650 | 0，039 | 894 | 67 | 4，770 | 4，606 | 534 | 306 | 7，272 | 2，332 | 123 | 2，806 | 7，072 |
| Total Central India | ．．． | 3，073 | 4，921 | 2,008 | ＇8．148 | 789 | 63 | 5，021 | 4，052 | 327 | 1，128 | 7，276 | 1，697 | 215 | 4，387 | 5，398． |
| Nalundt Diztsion－ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Plateau | ． | 2，962 | 4，823 | 2，218 | 10，199 | 73. | 67 | ［5，134 | 4，427 | 439 | 1，387 | 6，847 | 1，76G | 287 | 4，027 | 5，766 |
| Lowlying tracte ． |  | 2，951 | 5，172 | 11，877 | 0，064 | 871 | 65 | 4，300 | 5，458 | 242 | 772 | 7，800 | 1，428 | 226 | 4，757 | 5,017 |
| nilly |  | －3，470 | 4，699 | ｜1，831 | 9，205 | 740 | 55 | 5，90］ | 3，817 | 282 | 1，140 | 7，351 | 1，509 | 253 | 4，385 | 5，362 |

Subsidiary Table XIII.
Proportion of Wives to Husbands for Religion and Natural Divisivis.


Subsidiary
Statement shewing. Civil Condition per 10,000 of each sex


Table XIV:
for certain Religions by Natural Divisions and age periods.


Subsidiary Table
General Proportion of the Sexes.


## Subsidiary Table XVJ.

Number of Females to 10,000 Males at eaoh Age by Natural Divisions and Religions.

| Age Period. | Plateau. |  |  |  | Lowlying. |  |  |  | Rilly. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | All $\mathrm{Me}-$ ligions. | Hindu. | Musalman. | Animist | All $\mathrm{Re}-$ ligions. | Hindu. | Muraltman. | Animist. | All Religions. | Hindu. | Musalman. | Animist. |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
| 0-5 | 9,077 | 8,737 | 10,112 | 11,027 | -9,997 | 10,069 | 10,279 | 8,572 | 10,632 | 10,602 | 11,024 | 10,943 |  |
| 5-10 | 8,203 | 7,927 | 10,023 | 8,572 | 9,235 | 9,155 | 9,160 | 10,731 | 9,571 | 9,376 | 9,574 | 9,839 |  |
| 10-15 | 6,670 | 6,368 | 8,305. | 8,221 | 7,968 | 7,854 | 9,836 | 7,937 | 8,877 | 8,857 | 8,408 | 9,007 |  |
| 10-20 | 8,818 | 8,064 | 8,721 | 9,050 | 8,407 | 8,376 | 8,276 | 8,984 | 9,528 | 9,066 | 9,274 | 10,697 |  |
| 20-40 | 10,257 | 10,531 | 9,167 | 9,327 | 9,228 | 9,183 | 9,577 | 10,240 | 9,870 | 9,769 | 8,903 | 10,301 |  |
| 40-60 | 11,040 | 11,553 | 8,995 | 9,437 | 9,730 | 9,857 | 7,435 | 11,4131 | 10,570 | 10,352 | 9,128 | 10,990 |  |
| 60 and ovor | 12,631 | 12,936 | 10,106 | 16,784 | 32,357 | 11,993 | 11,983 | 15,288 | 11,864 | 12,0.18 | 12,732 | 13,549 |  |
| All ages | -2,414- | 9,466 | 9,232 | 9,339 | 9,295 | 0,275 | 0,180 | 9,881 | 9,938 | 9,814 | 8,217 | 10,330 |  |

Subsidiary Table XVII.
Actual excess or defect of Females by Districts and Natural Divisions.


## - Subsidiary Tabie XVIII.

Proportion of Sexes in Selected Custes under 5.


140
Subsidiary Table. XIX.
Proportion of the Sexes by Caste.




DIAGRAM SHOWING NUMBER OF FEMALES TO 10000 MALES AT SEVEN AGE PERIODS IN NATURAL DIVISIONS.



## CEAPTER V.

Education.

- 96. Introductory.-In this Chapter we deal with tables VIII and IX of the Imperial Series.

No comparison with the returns of 1891 is possible, as on that occasion the only literacy returns made were those of the cantonments and railways.

The record here dealt with was returned in the 14th and 15th columns of the schedule. The vernacular tongues a man could both read and write being given in 14, and his knowledge of English in 15.

The languages taken as the literary vernaculars of Central India were Hindi, Marathi and Urdu. I rather regret now that I did not include the Marwari language used by the mercantile classes.

I purposely excluded all dialects, such for instance as Rangri. These dialects bave no more claim, I think, to be considered as literary tongues than Yorkshire or Somersetshire would have in England. Many educated men acquainted with the dialect can if they wish to represent it in literary form, but such dialects are not used as regular vehicles for correspondence ; no man is taught to write them, and those who read and write all know one of the ordinary literary tongues.

As to the accuracy of the returns I think it likely that a certain number of people of position who can only sign their names, especislly if it is in English character, have been returned as literate, and probably many schoolboys have been entered as literate, even if their schooling only amounts to the registration of their names on a school list. The male figures, therefore, are probably rather too high.

The female figures are almost certain to be too low owing to the objection tbat exists, particularly among Hindus, of admitting the existence of anything like education among their women. We may take a brief surveg of the results given in this Chapter.

It has been said that in India, where the task of education has been undertaiken by the State, "the function of a census of literacy is to supplement the current record of progress in regard to this important matter," In Central India there is, however, no regular educational department whose returns we can supplement, and the returns must be taken as they are, though it must be admitted that comparison with the returns of an educational department are not as a rule of much use. Progress no doubt there is, thoogh seeing that 97 per cent. of the population is illiterate, education can hardly be eaid to have advanced with great strides. Still taking into consideration the conditions which obtain in Central India we are not hopelessly behind. Thus in 1891 the Panjab returned 92.7 per cent., Bengal 89 per cent. and Bombay 86 per cent. of illiterates, and all these Provinces have regular educational establishments.

Even if we suppose that the raiat of Central India is consumed with a burning desire to acquire knowledge it can be seen from the return of achools
$154-X I-10$ ́․ 11.

135-x 11
in S.T XV and P-T $C$ that the means at his disposal for satisfying the desire are not lavish, especially if we recollect the size of the Agency and the difficulties of communication in most parts.
$A_{s}$ regards the naturad divisions of the country the Plateau folk are the most instructed. The reason is not far to seek. Most of the towns, and three of the only four large colleges in the Agency are situated upen it.

Among districts the least educated is Bundelkhand, the most learned Indore Residency, which owes its superiority to the fact that it comprises Indore town, Mhow cantonment, and the A. G.G.'s camp within its borders.

Leaving the Christian population and "Others" out of consideration we find that the Jains are much the most educated. This is, as we should. expect, seeing that the Jain community is a purely commercial one and that most of its members are very well-to-do.

The Mahomedan community are first as regards knowledge of English.
Female education bas not reached a very high standard as yet, as can be seen, since 99.6 of the fair sex are illiterate. Mr. Tulliver's view that "an over 'cute woman is no becter nor a long tailed sheep, she'll fetch none the bigger price for that " is evidently also that of the father of daughters in Central India.

Finally we may say that there is plenty of space: for the expansion of education in Central India without our incurring the danger which a wellknown writer has said is the only result of a complete modern education, that is, to give people "the faculty of thinking wrong on every conceivable subject of importance to them."

As regards languages used Hindi is the ohief vehicle for correspondence, Marathi being used by a large section of the ruling class in official work and private letters, while Urdu is chiefly used in Gwalior State, the Mahomedan States of Bhopal and Jaora and our Government offices.

Generally we may say that even if the record is uareliable in its details the gross results may be taken as giving a good ides of literacy in Central India,
97. Literacy.-The illiterates in Central India are in such a large majority that I think they may be mentioned before the literate. In the whole Agency there are 97 per cent. of illiterate population taking both sexes together, 95 per cent. of the males being unable to read and write.

Bundelkhand is the most illiterate district, some 97 per cent. being illiternte, Indore Residency being the least backward, the difference between the number of illiterates in Indore Residency and Bundelkhand being 15 per cent:

## Male Edocaition.

98. General:-On this occasion no distinction was made between learners and literate. How far school boys have been returned as educated it is impossible to say, but I think that in all probability a good many have been wrongly placed in this category. We can, however, get an idea of the attitude assumed towards education by different classes and in different parts of the Agency by dividing the literate up into two periods, one 5 - 15 which we may call the school-going age, and the other $15-20$ which we may call the age of further education. This view of the results will also give us some idea of the chances for improvement which exist in different parts of the country and among different classes. The district or class with the greatest inclination to
reducation being presumably the most likely to advance. Want of 1891 figures makes the return less interesting than it would be.

I would call attention to the fact that the $5-15$ period does not include people of 15 , they are included in the next period and as "lumpiog" takes place on the 15 th and 16th years the returns are rather too high in the later age.
99. School-going period.- In all Central India some 3 per cent. of boys between 5-15 are at school. Of course, if the enumerators have been careful to exclude all who do not actually fulfil the conditions of being able to both read and write, these figures will be lower than the truth. Among the different religions the Jains stand first with 24 per cent. of boys at school, Mahomedans follow with 8 per cent. and Hindus next with 3 per cent.

The Jains it is thus seen are well ahead of the others, asresult which is borne out in the other tables.

Animists are not worth considering on this occasion, though when the figures of another Census can be compared there will be much interest in the result.

Among the districts Indore Residency comes out first. This.is due to its large arban population, Indore Agency comes next. This seems strange save that the town of Dewas is comparatively a large one and while the total population of the charge is $104,77 y$, the urban population is 15,403 or 15 per cent.

Malwa with its 22 towns comes next, Bundelkhand last. Taking religions and charges together we find that Hindus are most educated in Indore Residency, 9 per cente atteading schuol. In Bhopal and Bundelkhand only 2 per cent. and 1 per cent. go.

Among Jains Indore Agency shews most school boys, 39 per cent, Bhopawar rather curiously coming second with 38 per cent.
$\therefore 100$, Further Education of Males.-In all Central India 7 per cent, of the population are literate at 15-20. Jains again stand first with 44 per cent. and . Mahomédans second with 19 per cent. The Mahomedans are not so far behind as they were in the earlier period. Hindus shew the same figure as that for Central India. Animists shew about 3 per 1,000 or three times as many at the earlier period, this is no doubt due to the fact that such education as the Animists get is to a great extent received at a late age.

Among the districts Indore Residency comes first and Indore Agency some 7 per cent. behind, is second, Gwalior and Bundelkhand being last. The highest proportion of educated Jains is found in Indore Agency, 79 per cent. Bhopal is first as regards Mahomedans in this period with 22 per centi

Animistic figures just rise to 1 per cent.
As regards the second period all are not, of course still learning, as many no doubt consider their education over by 15 or so. Still a large number are still at school or college, and the figares can tell us something.
101. English.-English is not much studied at the earlier periods as might be expected, only 14 persons in 10,000 learning it between 5-15, while 56 per 10,000 are found at the later age.

153-1N•2

152-VIII-2.

153-1 $\mathbf{\Sigma} \cdot 1$.

159—V111-4

153-18.2 x :

153-15.2 \& 4. Mahomedans are to the fore in the acquisition of English some 4 per 1,000 learning while in the later period there are 24 per 1,000 .

Jains are next but some way behind with 3 per 1,000 in the earlier period and 10 per 1,000 in the later. Hindus come last with only 1 per 1,000 aud 4 per 1,000 in each period respectively.

The Mahomedan population is more educated generally than the Hindu. English is not of much use to the Jain community in their ordinary business which accounts for the small percentage of this class who care to study the language.
102. Natural Divisions.-The Plateau stands first with 7 per cent. of literate, some 3 per cent. better than the other divisions. This is no doubt, due to the large proportion of urban population which is comprised in this tract. I should have expected a greater difference between the Hilly tracts and the Plateau, but the fact that a certain amount of other country had to be included in the Hilly tracts in order to prevent the sub-divisions being too finicking has raised the average of literacy in this tract.

The 15-20 period is everywhere that which shews most literate. The large rise, 45 per cent. in the female figures of the Hilly tracts between the 10-15 and 15-20 periods is noticeable. .

The general result we notice is that the West of the Agency is better educated than the East or South.
103. District figures.-The Indore Residency comes first with 17 per cent. of literate males. This position is due to the towns comprised in the charge. The charge is a small one but contains Indore town, Mhow cantonment, and the A. G.-G.'s camp, all of which raise the literacy considerably. There are also many schools which attrnct a large number of people. If we subtract the literate European population it only lowers the literacy by one per cent.,' shewing that it is the native population who raise the standard. Indore Residency maintains its lead at all the age-periods. The greatest number of literates is returned at 20 and, over.

Indore Agency comes next. There is, however, a fall of 8 per cent. as compared with Indore Residency only 9.6 being literate. .

The 20 and over period has here also the largest return of literates, but the difference between it and the 15-20 age is trifing.

Malwa with its 22 towns comes next with 7 per cent., Bhopal following with 6 per cent. and Bundelkhand coming last with only 3 per cent. Except in Indore Residency and Agency and Bhopal the greatest number of literates are found in the 15-20 period. This pecoliarity is due to the colleges which exist in Indore as well as the position of Indore town as the headquarters of a very large State. In the case of Indore Agency there is only one town Dewas where education can be had which causes concentration there. Bhopal, as the only important Mahomedan town in the Agency; naturally attracts people belonging to that religion.

Indore Residency is well ahead in literacy in English. But the large European population of Mhow, which affects the English figures must be borne in mind. Some 4 per cent. know English.
? Malwa is second on the list in this respect but cannot shew even 1 per cent., a big drop. Baghelkhand is last.

In all cases it is the 15-20 age that has most literates. There is no doubt that after learning English a large number of students go away in search of work, which causes a fall in the figures for 20 and over.
104. Male Education by Religions.-I will now consider the Male figures for each religion except Christians and "Others." The Jains come out top easily with 36 per cent. of literate males. It must be remembered in this connection that the Jain community of Central India is entirely mercantile, and to be able to read and write is essential to the proper conduct of their business. They are also a very wealthy class who appreciate the benefits of education, as we have already seen in the section on school- going and higher education. Next to the Jains come the Mahomedans with 13 per cent. of literate males. Here again it must be borne in mind that the Mahomedans of Central India are connected only with the ruling section of certain communities, and are for that reason generally educated. A glance at the urban and rural distribution of Mahomedans in Central India shows this. Hindus form the bulk of the Central Indian population, which is, moreover, agrarian and not much given to education, a fact that accounts for the small proportion of its literate population to the whole population, only 5 per cent. The jungle tribes come last. Such education as they have received is chiefly through the military schools and missions, even so only 2 persons in 10,000 can read and write. Christians and "Others" shew a high percentage of literate on account of the number of Europeans in the first class and of Parsis in the second-as they are aliens I do not propose to consider them in detail.

## , Female Education.

105. General. -The inaccuracy of the female figares is so marked that I think it is useless to go into them in any detail. In all Central India only 3 per cent. of the female population is literate.

If the age-periods are examined we see a remarkable drop at the 20 and over period from 80 literates per 10,000 to 4 .

This points, Ithink, to the fact that female education is a very modern institution and did not touch those of a later generation.

The figures shewing the rate of females to males is curious. We have 13 literate females to 100 males at $0-10 ; 6$ at $10-15,8$ at $15-20$ and 5 at the last period.

In English they are more proportionate in the first two age-periods

| $"$. | $"$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $"$ | $"$ |
| $150-\mathrm{HII}-3$. |  |

, -IV-3.
" - II-3.

101-v-3.
$n$-VI, VII.3. and the last.

The Plateau land shews 4 per 1,000, the Lowlying 2 per 1,000 and the 151-XI-11. Hilly tracts 3.

Even making allowances for mission establishments where the standard of. female literacy is extraordinarily high, I can still hardly believe these figuren are near the truth.

154-X1-11. . Among the different religions the Mahomedans stand first. This is to be expected as both the objection to female education and the feeling against admitting blue-stocking-hood is less pronounced than it is amang Hindus.
106. School-going and further Education Periods. - Here the figures are peculiar. Baghelkhand, a very backward district in education generally, comes

152-VIII-3\&5
155-X111-11.
"-XII-11. out first with a remarkable return of literate females. Bhopal which in general education of females heads the list comes in these two periods last of all.

Only 3 women per 10,000 in all Central India learn Englisb.
The difference between Mahomedan, Hindu and Jain wornen is this matter is remarkable and I cannot account for it

Thus Hindus shew 3 females per 100,000 knowing English at the earlier, period and 7 at the later. Jains shew none at all at the earlier and 20 at- the later. Mahomedans, however, shew 2 in 100,000 at the earlier period and 23 at the later.

It is impossible to account for the way the figures fall.
The Animists know no English.
107. Compared with other Provinies.-If we compare the figures for Central India with those for other places in 1891 we see that Coorg returned 10.6 per cent. of literate malen, $1 \cdot 4$ per cent. of females, the Panjab 7.4 per cent. males, not 1 per cent, females. The Panjab Native States $5 \cdot 9$ per cent. males, but not 1 per cent. females. Bengal Native States 11 per cent. males literate but not 1 per cent. females.
108. Education by Selected Castes.-It is not possible to compare tbese figures with any in 1891. The castes here treated of were selected from those returned at the last Census as being indigenous to Central India or otherwise of importance.

I have not considered the Animistic tribes in this section. : They only boast of 246 literate people in some 900,000 , and to have gone into the literate figures of each tribe separately would have been waste of time.

The Subsidiary Table XIV which deals with this subject should be read thus:-

Column 2 shews the proportion of literates in any caste relatively to the total number of literates in Central India.

Columos 3 and 4 shew the same relation for each sex. Coltrmn 5 to 19 shew what proportion of the entire number of literates in each caste are literare in various languages, While Columns 20,21 and 22 shew the proportion of illiterates in the whole caste and in each sex.

We will first examine the male figures.-
Among every 100 literates in Central India the Shaikh community come first with 21 per cent. of literates, Rajputs next with 15 per cents, Oswal Jains third with 9 per cent., Pathans and Agarwal Banias fourth with 8 per cent., Mahesris next with 6 per cent,, Marathas with 5 per cent., Jijotia Brahmans with 4 per cent., also Saraogi Jains and Shrigodes with 3 per cent., the rest making up 17 per cent. The Mahomedan thus lead the way. The Brahmans would have stood higher had the Dakshani been included, bat though numerous in Centrallodia they are foreigners and were, therefore, not taken.

As regards females the Milhomenans are again first. There are 57 per cent. of literate women among the Shaikhs, 13 per cent. among Saiyads and 5 per cent. among Pathans. Among Hindus only Rajputs and Marathas can shew any considerable number, viz., 10 per cent. and 4 per cent. respectively.
109. Percentage of Literate on the total caste number. - In this case each language will be taken separately.

Hindi.-The Shrimali Brahmans assert their superiority in this instance with 22 per cent. literate. Saraogi Jains follow with 21 per cent., Mahesri Banias with 20 per cent., Shrigodes with 18 per cent., Oswal Jains with 14 per cent., Agarwal Banias wich 13 per cent. and Oswal Hindus with 8 per cent. The restshew no figures of any consequence.

Thereis, it will be seen, a difference of some 4 per cent. between the Shrigode and Shrimali Brahmans, while the backwardness of the Hindu Oswals, as compared with their Jain caste fellows, with whom there is a considerable amount of caste intercourse, is marked, some 13 per cent. in fact.

Separate consideration of the sex figures shews that Jain Saraogis come fout first with 38 per cent. of lirerate males, Shrigode following with 37 per cent. Mahesris and Shrimalis are third with 34 per cent., Oswal Jains shewing 28 per cent. Only Shrimali Brahmans, and Saraogi Jains can shew 1 per cent. among females.

Urdu.-Mahomedans naturally take the lead in this case. Taking both sexes together Saiyads shew 7 per cent. Enowing Urdu, Shaikhs about the same, Moghals 4 per cent., and Patbans 3 per cent. Among Hindus ouiy Mabesri Banias seem to study the language and they only shew 1 per cent.

Taking males and females separately;Shailhs come first among males with
", ${ }^{-11}$.
$" n^{-12}$


In female figures only Shaikhs and Saigads shew over 1 per cent.
Marathi.-Both sexes together Marathas come first with 6 per cent., Dhangars following with 5 per cent. and Shrigode coming nest with 2 per cent.

Among males, Marathas lead with 11 per cent., Dhangars coming next with 9: par cent. and Shrigode third with 4 per cent. None of the female figures reach 1 per cent. The position of Dhangars is peculiar, if we consider the low status of 'the caste. I can only suppose their connection with the ruling chief of Indore and their employment in the State army and elsewhere has caused them to turn their attention to education more than they would have done otherwise.

English.-Here the figares are very low. Both sexes together, only Saiyads and Marathas shew over 1 per cent. Among males Saiyads shew $2 \cdot 4$ per cent., Marathas $2 \cdot 2$ per cent. None shew as much as 1 per cent. in female figures.
110. Literacy among selected castes.-Generally then we find that the priestly and trading castes are to the fore as regards education, which after all is what one would expect. If we combine them in classes we find professional and commercial combined give 8 per cent. of literate, priests 2 per cent. and agricultural 1 per cent.

150-I.8 \& 9.
'" $n^{-10 \& 11}$
" $)^{-12 \& 13}$.

151-VI-7:

150-II \& IV-11.

155-XII-10 \& 11

The difference between the Hindu and Jain members of the aame commu. nity is very interesting and striking; also the curious predominance of the Dhangar caste due to its state connection.
111. Languages. - I will now examine the languages used taking male figures first.

Hindi as might be expected comes first. Jains, and curiously enough Christians heading the list. This prominence of Christians is due to the teaching. of the mission schools. The returns shew that these Bindi knowing Christians are found chiefly in Indore and Bhopawar, where there are mission establishments.

Drdu is the next most used tongue, and that chiefly by Mahomedans.
Marathi is last in point of numbers, due to its being only the language of a ruling section of the population. It may be said that practically no one uses Marathi except those whose own vernacular it is. And most of those returning it as their literate language are Delkhani Brahmans. Christian figures are high in this case also and for the same reason as before.

We may dismiss the female figures in a few words.
The Christian figures are very high in Hindi chiefly due to mission returns. Jains come next.

In Urdu the Mahomedan women take the lead. It will be noticed that for $22^{\circ}$ Hindu women who know Hindi 130 Mahomedan women know Urdu.

In Marathi the Christians of the Mission schools raise the average.
The class shewn as "Other languages" consists mainly of Gujarathi, which is used by the Parsi and Bohra community. Marwari no daubt also swells the numbers of literate. Both are literate to a cqnsiderable degree, the females going to school.

To get some idea of these figures we may take the returns for Parsis who. shew 71 per cent. literate persons, 74 per cent. males and 70 per cent. females.

English.-Leaving the Christian community who are mos'tly English out of consideration, the proportion of those who know Eaglish is not large, only 25 males in 10,000 , and of women a negligible quantity. Mahomedans come first in both male and female figures, Jains second and Hindus next. Animists as might be expected know little or nothing.

The large return of English knowing people wader "Others" is due to the Parsi community who all know the language.
112. Means of Education.-l have given a condensed return of the schools in Central India in S.-T. $-X V$, a fult return by States will be found in the Provincial Volume.

There are in all Central India 888 institations of sorts for teaching, among them there are 27 "Rote Schools," i.e., where the Kuran or Vedas, as the case may be, are learned by heart by rote. This leaves 861 schools proper, or one school per 100 square miles in all Central India. In the Eastern part of the Agency there are 5 schools per 1,000 square miles and in the Western 13.

To the total population the ratio is one school to every 10,000 people, in the eastern portion it is 4 schools to every 10,000 , and in the west 13 schools to 100,000 of population. Taking the population between 5 and 20 as the age that uses these institutions there are. 3 schools per 10,000 people in all Central India, 1 in the East, and 4 in the West. The mission establishments
play some part in educating the people, the chief of them being the Canadiau Presbyterian Mission which has stations at Indore, Mhow, Dhar, Ratlam, Ujjain, Nimach, Jaora and Amkhut (Ali-Rajpar). There is one College which is situated in Indore. In other stations there are schools of various standards, High schools, Primary, Middle and Secondary; besides Industrial schools and Sunday schools. One feature of the Mission schools is that they educate girls as well as boys. The attendance seems from the report to vary considerably. Thus the Mhow school in 1901 reports 140 pupils on the roll and a daily average attendance of 125 . The Indore schools report an enrolled attendance of


The average actual attendance amounted to 78 per cent. in the High school, and 66 per cent. in the Vernacular.

The Friends Mission at Nowgong, and the Missions at Sihor and elsewhere (v.Chapter IV) all have schools but not on so large a scale.
113. Progress of Education:-In Subsidiary Table XVI has been collected so far as was possible information relative to examinations passed in the last ten years as returned in the administration reports. There is no need to go into the figures.

Subsidiary Table I.
Province:_Central India Agency.
Education by Aga: and Sex.


Religion: Hindu.


Subsidiary Table III.
Religion: Jain.

| $0-10$ | ** | 389 | 771 | 18 | 9,611 | 9,229, 9,982 | 721 |  | 35 | ... | 2 | 1 | 12 |  | 8 | 6 | ... | 287 | 11,130 | ..' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10-15 | *. | 1,840 | 3,268 | 82 | 8,160 | 6,732, 9,918 | 3,097 |  | 62 | 2 | 17 | $\cdots$ | 96 | 4 | 26 | 47 |  | 204 | 11,960 | $\cdots$ |
| 16-20 | ** | 2,401 | $4,485$ | 125 | 7,599 | 5,515 9,875 | $4,227$ |  |  | 2 | 44 | ... |  | 4 | 54 |  | 2 | 257 | 16,390 | 179 |
| 20 \& over | ** | 2,366 | $4,409$ | 98 | 7,634 | $6,591 \quad 0,902$ | $4,176$ |  | $48$ | 1 | 18 |  |  | 4 | 33 | 62 | ... | 201 | 15,956 | $\cdots$ |
| Total | ... | 1,024 | 3,612 | 82 | 8,076 | $\text { 6,388 } 9,818$ | 3,418 | 78 | 53 | 1 | 18 |  | 185 | 3 | $2 \theta$ | 54 | ... | 200 | 14,228 | 82 |

Subsidiary Table IV.
Religion : Musalman.


## $\therefore$ Sübsidiary Table $V$ :

Education by. Age and Sax.
Religion: Animistic.


Sobsidiary TabIe VI.
Religion: Christian.

| 10-10 | 2,897 | 3, $\mathrm{C84}$ | 2,709 | 2,103 | 6,918 | 7,991 | 1,205 | 1,299 | 57 | . | 43 |  | 129 | 43 | 1,75s | 1,965 | 1,542 | 8,744 | 10,407 | 7,810 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10-15 | 4,509 | 5,870 | 3,920 | 6,491 | 4,73b | 6,070 | 1,972 | 1,646 | 81 | $\ldots$ | 81 |  | 837 | 164 | 2,873 | 3,108 | 2,695 | 9,784 | 16,857 | 11,301 |
| 15-20 ... | 6,003 | 6,610 | 5,294 | (3,997 | 3,396 | 4,706 | 2,616 | 1,882 | 268 | 117 | 100 | 352 | 1308 | 352 | 4,267 | 4,496 | 1,000 | 6,852 | 1,188 | 7.011 |
| 20 \& over ... | 7,366 | 7,979 | 5,433 | 2,634 | 2,021 | 4,567 | 609 | 1,133 | 133 | 86 | 61 | 187 | 666 | 375 | 6,685 | 7,630 | 4,018 | 2,159 | 7,165 | 1,033 |
| Total | 6,205 | 7,085 | 4,456 | , 8,795 | \|2,915 | 6,545 | 886 | 1,322 | 127 | 51 | d2 | 180 | 644 | 250 | 58.872 | 6,340 | 3,146 | 3,169 | 1,574 | 2,494 |

## Subsidiary Table VII.

Religion : Others.


Subsidiary Table VIII.
Eduçation by Age, Sex and Agencies.

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{\multirow{3}{*}{Aaescr.}} \& \multicolumn{4}{|r|}{Litreatr per 10,000. $\quad \because \quad!$} \& <br>
\hline \& \& \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{5-15-School going Age. 125 -20-Further Education.} \& <br>
\hline \& \& Males. \& Femaleg. \& Malea \& Fermales \&  <br>
\hline 1 \& \& 2 \& 3 \& 4 \& 5 \& 6 <br>
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{Gwalior Residency-} <br>
\hline All Religions \& ... \& 320 \& 14 \& 627 \& - 26 \& <br>
\hline Hindus \& ... \& 289 \& - . 10 \& 577 \& $\bigcirc 20$ \& <br>
\hline Jains \& ... \& 1,870 \& - 24 \& 2,914 \& 107 \& <br>
\hline Musalmans \& ... \& 1,176 \& 72 \& 2.077 \& - 110 \& <br>
\hline Christians Animistics \& ... \& 3,134
28 \& 2,714 \& 6,000 \& 6,429 \& <br>
\hline \& \& \& ... \& - \& a \& <br>
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{Indore Residency-} <br>
\hline All Religions \& ... \& 1,122 \& 201 \& 2,132 \& 187 \& <br>
\hline Hindus \& $\ldots$ \& 1.962
+359 \& - 88 \& 1,984 \& 75 \& <br>
\hline Jains ${ }^{\text {Musalmans }}$ \& ... \& 3,599
1,300 \& - 249 \& 6,651 \& 138 \& <br>
\hline Christians
Animistics \& $\cdots$ \& 1,300
8,232 \& 193
7,750 \& 2,187 \& 211 \& <br>
\hline Animistics \& ... \& 26 \& ..* \& 107 \& .... \& <br>
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{Baghelkhand Agency -} <br>
\hline All Religions \& ... \& 339 \& 88 \& \& 169 \& <br>
\hline ${ }_{\text {Jindus }}$. \& . \& 418 \& 114 \& 841 \& 169
215 \& <br>
\hline ${ }_{\text {Jains }}^{\text {Musalmans }}$ \& $\cdots$ \& 1,304
725 \& $\begin{array}{r}1138 \\ \hline 36\end{array}$ \& 4,727 \& 429 \& <br>
\hline Christians
Animistics \& $\ldots$ \& 1,725
$\square$ \& - $\begin{array}{r}36 \\ \hline \mathbf{3 0 7 7}\end{array}$ \& 1,589 \& - 29 \& <br>
\hline Animistics \& ... \& $\cdots 11$ \&  \& 50 \& ... \& <br>
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{Ehopal Agency-} <br>
\hline All Religions \& ..- \& 246 \& \& 774 \& 112 \& <br>
\hline Jains \& $\cdots$ \& 209 \& 4 \& 655 \& 12 \& <br>
\hline Musalmans \& ... \& 1,449 \& 38 \& 3,750 \& 114 \& <br>
\hline Christians
Animistics \& ... \& 653
5,000 \& 21
1818 \& 2,286 \& 1,195 \& <br>
\hline Animistics \& ... \& -1 \& 1,818 \& 1,818
3 \& $\begin{array}{r}1,3 \\ 3,333 \\ \hline 2\end{array}$ \& <br>
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{Bhopawar Agency-} <br>
\hline All Religions \& ... \& 325 \& - 11 \& \& \& <br>
\hline Haindus
Jand \& $\cdots$ \& 461
4857 \& -12 \& - 1,108 \& $\begin{array}{r}\square \\ \quad 23 \\ \hdashline \quad 29\end{array}$ \& <br>
\hline Musalmans \& ... \& 3,857 \& -123 \& -6,263 \& $\therefore 124$ \& <br>
\hline Christians
Animistics \& $\cdots$ \& 707 \& \& 1,808 \& , 116 \& <br>
\hline Animistics \& $\cdots$ \& 682
6 \& $\ldots$ \& 3,913 \& - 588 \& <br>
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{} <br>
\hline All Rellgions \& \& 206 \& \& \& \& <br>
\hline $\xrightarrow{\text { Hindus }}$ \& .... \& 206

9 \& 11 \& - 507 \& 23 \& <br>
\hline Musalmans \& $\cdots$ \& $\begin{array}{r}922 \\ -\quad 928 \\ \hline\end{array}$ \& - 18 \& 2,720 \& 22
42 \& <br>
\hline Christians
Animistics \& $\cdots$ \& \& - $\quad 28$ \& 806 \& 46 \& <br>
\hline Animistics \& ... \& - ${ }^{2,916}$ \& : . 6,000 \& 8,571 \& 8,000 \& <br>
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{Indore Agency- ${ }_{\text {a }}$} <br>
\hline All Religions \& \& 815 \& \& \& \& <br>
\hline Hindus
Jains

a \& $\cdots$ \& 889 \& 25
21 \& 1,321 \& 02 \& <br>
\hline ${ }^{\text {Masalmans }}$ \& $\ldots$ \& 3,918 \& 368 \& 1,288
7,903 \& 58
299 \& <br>
\hline Christians
Animistics \& $\cdots$ \& 532 \& 29 \& 1,056 \& -81 \& <br>
\hline Animistics \& ... \& $\cdots 23$ \& .. \& ... - \& ... \& <br>
\hline \multicolumn{6}{|l|}{Malwa Agency- ${ }^{\text {- }}$} \& <br>
\hline All Religions \& \& \& \& \& \& <br>
\hline - Hindus ${ }_{\text {J }}^{\text {Jains }}$ \& ... \& 455
328 \& 27 \& 927 \& 47 \& <br>
\hline Masalmanz \& $\cdots$ \& 3,048 \& 47 \& 690
5,294 \& 142 \& <br>
\hline Christians
Animistics \& ... \& 937
5,098 \& 1103 \& 2,005 \& 179 \& <br>
\hline Animistics \& $\cdots$ \& 5,098
4 \& 1,993 \& 5,248 18 \& 4,821
6 \& <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}

Subsidiary Table IX.
Education by Age, Sex, and Religion.


Subsidiary Table X.
Education by Age, Sex and Agencies.

| Agency. | - Literata per $10,000$. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 0-10. |  | 10-15 |  | 15-20. |  | 20 and ovor. |  | All ages. |  |
|  | Males. | Females. | Males. | Females. | Males. | Ferales. | Males. | Females. | Mnles. | Eemales. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| 1. Qwalior Residency ... | 87 | - 5 | 475 | 18 | 627 | 26 | 501 | 9 | 415 | 10 |
| 2. Indore Residency ... | 387 | 90 | 1,488 | 238 | 2,132 |  | 2,186 | 126 | 1,775 | 135 |
| 3. Baghellhaud Agency, | - 95 | 39 | 438 | 87 | 718 | 168 | 603 | 58 | 457 | 68 |
| 4. Bhopal Agency ... | 33 | 2 | 401 | $\because 9$ | 774 | 111 | 870 | 72 | 620 | 54 |
| 4. Bhopawar Ageney ... | 115 | 3 | 459 | 16 | 826 | 23 | 803 | 16 | 601 | 14 |
| 6. Buudelkhand Agency, | 45 | 3 | 296 | 15 | 507 | 23 | 420 | 12 | 331 | 11 |
| 7. Indore Agency ... | 372 | 9 | 968 | 34 | 1,079 | 62 | 1,095 | 17 | 965 | 21 |
| 8, Malura Agency ... | 161 | 11 | 629 | 37 | 927 | 45 | 922 | 34 | 731 | 31 |
| Total for Central India... | 8 | 14 | 486 | 40 | 755 | 76 | 717 | 36 | 554 | 35 |

Subsidiary Table XI.
Education by Age, Sex and Natural Divisions.


## Subsidiary Table XII.

English Education by age, Sex, and Natural Divisions.


Subsidiary Table XIII.
Agency. English education by Age, Sex and Agencies.


Subsidiary Table XI.
Education by Age, Sex and Natural Divisions.


Subsidiary Table XII.
English Education by age, Sex, and Natural Divisions.


Subsidiary Table XIII.
Agency. English education by Age, Sex and Agencies.



TABLE XV.
Means of Education.


TABLE XVI.
Statement shewing the number of students appeared and passed during the last ten years.


## CHAPTER VI.

## The Lanevages of Central Imdia.

114. Introductory :-The record with which we deal in this Chapter is given in Imperial Table X. .. It, was returned in column 13 of the schedule.

When I was on tour I found that the ideas held by people as to what ought to be written down in this column were varied. As often as not the language of polite society was written in, whereas inquiry shewed that it was in no sense the real every day speech of the person against whose nome it was recorded, but only a school-acquuired tongue. In one political charge I found that distinct orders had been given to record "Hindi" only as the local form of speech!

These doubts were set at rest by issue of instructions to enter in column 13 the language or dialect actaally spoken by 2 man in the bosom of his own family. The results have been satisfactory, such few difficulties as wo met with being as a rule easily adjusted on reference to the locality which returned them.

The languages here treated of are only those which can rightly claim cannection with Central India, as being of local origin, or habitually spoken by large numbers of the pepulation. Three families are represented, the Indo-Euro-' pean, Dravidian and Munda.

Hindi is the stock from which most of them are derived. This name is usually employed as a generic term to denote all the languages spoken in the tract bounded on the north by the Himalayàs, on the south by the Narbada, on the east by the Mahananda, often written Mahanadi, and on the west by the Panjab:

These Hindi languages we may divide inte three groups corresponding with the old Prakrits from which they are derived. Diagrammatically we may represent them thus :-

> Indo-European family.
> (Aryan sub-family).

Western group. $\because$ (Sauraseni).

Eastern Group. (Màgadhi).

Central Group.
(Ardha-Magadhi).

- N. B.-Souraseni and Magedhi were not the anly prakrits of the west and east, or even the chief, and are merely given as types.
In Central India there are no languages belonging to the Eastern Group, but both the other groups are represented.

Before, however, turning to the actual records of the groups of languages met with and considering them in detail I intend to give a brief sketch of their general distribution, and of the effect which the physical aspects of the. country, its history, and administration have had on the local tongues.
$\therefore$ To begin with the physical conditions, I think perhaps the best method of bringing out the different languages we meet with in different parts of Central India will be to make an imaginary tour. We will start from Sohagpur in the Soath-east of the Baghelkhand political charge and travel up throngh Riwa, Satna, Panna, Chhatarpur, Nowgong and Datin to Gwalior. Then turn southwards through Guna, Agar, Ujain, Indure, Dhar, Ali-rajpur, Barwani and Khargon to the Railway at Khandwa.

We will suppose our traveller to be a linguist with a quick ear for local variations in speech.

We start in the rough hilly country and find our population consisting largely of Gonds speaking a bastard form of Baghelkhandi which; as we leave the hills and get up towards Riwa, becomes true Baghelkhandi, the characteristic dialect of Eastern Hindi, and as will be seen further on, belongs to the Central Group as it is called.

A Gond and Bagheli may be supposed to speak in his hearing:-
A. Gond.
A Baghela.
Q.-Who are you? What is your name ? तें कौन इस तोला का नाल है दाज. Tain kaun has Tola ka nam hai dau.
Q.-Where have you come from? चैं कहांके भाये दाइ. Tain kahànle aye dau.
Q. Why are you crying ? तैं काहेला सेभता इस दाज. Tain Eáhela roat has dau.
Q.-Where are you going now? अरदिय तैं फहां जात हस. Avahin tain kahàn ját has.
A.- My name is Ram Das. म्नार नाम रामदास है. Mwar nam Rám Dás hai.
A.-I have walked from Pipal. gaon. मै पीपब गांडते हीठत सहत्यों है or सै विपल्या से रेयगत ₹ भावत हौं. Mai Pipalgaonte hintbat auteon hai or Mai Pipaljase rayangat rayangat awat haun.
A.-A man has beaten me. एक मंषधी 'मांदिका मारिस क्षा. El大 mandai mohika maris hi.
A.-I am going to my brother's house in this village. यैढ़ गाबमां कपने: भाई के परे बरूत है. Yahai gaun má apne bhai ke ghare jait hai.

Nore.-In the case of the Baghela first the Mwar (or mor). which shews the connection of this language with the : eastern group of languages (see paran, 1). The "is" of the past participle in sentence (6) is the shibboleth of those who speak this language.

As we cross into Bundelkhand at Panna we find the Baghelikhandi die. away almost at once and give way to the western tongue of Bundelkhand, which language, though it loses some of its characteristics and becomes more like Hindi as we go further west, accompanies us as far as Dàtia and ovon Gwalior.

A Baghela and Bundela conversing woald speak thas :-:

## A Baghela.

Q.-Whe are you? What is your name? तुपनु (or को) आाहा-तुकार नार काहै. Tum ku (or ko) ahya tunhàr nau tà hai.
Q.-Where have you come from? जुप कदाते (से) भवते है. Tum kahante (or se) sute hai.
Q.-Why are you crying? हुम काते तोठत्यो दौौ or तुम काह गुरार मरस्ये है. Tum kahe routyo haoor tum kahe guhar
martye hai

A Bundela.
A.-My'name is Ram. Bas, मोरी माव रमदास है. Morau nanw Ràm Dàs? hai.
A.-I have walked from Pipal-
 Pipaliya sain nigat ao hana.
4.-A man hàs beaten me. (z) भादमी ने मोय मारो है. Ek admi nain moe maro hai.

Q．Where are you going now？ भवैे तें करां जाता हा．Absi tain Eahan jàt hà．

Nore．－The te ante hai form in the Baghela＇s speech．

4．－I am going to my brother＇s house in this village．मै भपने भाई़ं के． घहै ई गांदमैं ज्ञात हो．Main apne bhai $\mathrm{k} \dot{\text { é }}$ gharai i－ganw main jat haun．
Note．－The＇Meran＇the＇$e$＇of the： west．The 20 hann is very cbaracteristio also the past participle in＇ 0 ，and not in＇yo＇as it is in Rajasthàni and the moe for mujhko．
After merging partially into ordinary Hindi near Gwatior we find as we go South that we meet gradually with the dialects of Rajasthàni，Malwi and Rangri．becoming more common as we near Cjjain，and continuing practically till we get to Dhar．

A Maliwa man from the plateau and the Bundela speak a distiactly different＇speech as can be seen in this example ：－

## A Bundela．

Q．－Whe are you？What is yont name？तैंको है तोरौ का मांब है．Tain ko hai．Torau kà naow hai．

Q．－Where have you come from？ तै कांधै अावो है．Tain ksusain ae hai．

Q．－Why are you crying ？तैं काय रोषत है．Tain kae rout hai．

Q．Where are you going now？ अैैै तै कहां जात ह⿳亠二口丿 Abai tain kanhan jat hai．

Nort－The＂tain＇is characteristic and contrasts with the＇tu＇of Rajas－ tháni also＂he＇for！．hai．，

## A Malwi．

A．－My name is Ram Das．Fritt थाम रासदास ह̂．Mharo nàm Ràm Dàs he．

A．－I have walked from Pipal－ gaion．मुं पीपक गांबतु पगेपगे भठे आयों हें． Mu Pipalgaon sa page page athe àyo hun．

A．－A man has beaten me．एक． धादमांरा मने मारयो दे．Et àdmira mane màryo he．

A．－I am going to my brother＇s house in this village．सु म्हारा भर्शा
 bhai rà ghare jo ànij gaon me hai jau hun．

Nore．－The aspimated pronoun is very characteristic－also the past participle in＇yo，＇＇he＇is also used for ＇hai＇．The＇$u$＇of＇ha＇is characteristic． of this group－also＇rà＇in No． 4 for＇$k \theta$＇ see also＇炽＇for＂se＂in No． 2.

As we leave Dhar and descend over the edge of the Vindhyan scarp，we find ourselves among the Bhil dialects which become more and more pronounc－ ed as we cross into the Satpuràs by Barwani．

As specimens of the speech met with bere we will record a conversation between a Bhil and a Malwa man ：－

## A Malwi．

Q．－Who are you？What is your name？तुकुण है ？यातो नाम काई हे．Tu kun hai．Thàro nàm kain he．

Q．－Where have you come from？


## A Bhil．

A．－My name is Ram Das．F्वारे नांत रामदास डे．Mhàro nao Ràm Dàs chhe．
A．－I have walked from Pipal－ gaon．है पीपस्या थी धारीने क़ायो．Hun Piplya thi chaline ayo．

Q．－Whȳ are you crying？तुष्यु रों ⿳亠二口犬灬．Tuo kyua rowe he．

Q．－Where are you going now？ अने तु कुर्द भाड़ी（कठाने）जाय दे．Abe tu kain adi（kathine）jay hé．

Note．－＇IKin＇and again aspirate in ＇tharo．＇．
$\because A$－－A man has beaten më．मारा काले एक माणसे धुठुयो．Mara kaje ek mànse kutyo．
A．－I am going to my brother＇s house in this village．－हु स्हारा भांदा घर श्नाज（अणी）गांव मा छे तदां जाब．Hun mbàra bhaida ghar inàj（ani）gaon ma clabe tahán jaun．
Note．－－Here note misture of Malwi and Gujarati．＇

The Malwi aspirate in ${ }^{-6}$ Mharo，etc，＇ the P．P，ayo but Gujarathi chhe．：

The effects of the physical conformation of the country are thus clearly shewn．We start among the Gonds speaking a bastard Baghelkhandi，over
7．－V：15．$\quad 88$ per cent．of those speaking Gondi living in the hilly tracts．
We pass on to Baghelkhandi and Bundelkhandi with 70 per cent．and „ „10\＆11． 51 per cent．respectively；of those speaking these tongues living io the low－ lying land．

Then we rise up on to the Malwa plateau and find that of Rajasthàni speakers， 84 per cent．live on the plateau．

Lastly we arrive among the Southern hills and find the Bhil tongues prevailing，some 88 per cent．of those speaking these dialects living in the hilly tract．
115 Historical．－The part which history plays in the distribution of the tongues is closely connected with the physical aspects which we have just been considering．

I will first take Malwa and then the eastern pnrt of the Agency．．
The early traditions of Malwa relate how this tract was ruled by Bhil kings． The only one of these who is of any note is Dhanji who abbout 800 years B．C．，acquired some fame by assisting the strugghing Brahman community against their rivals the Jains．But as usual the Bhil，soon retired before the Aryan settlers，and the Rajput seized his kingdom，while he fled for refuge， to the fastnesses of the hills where his descendants now survive：

The Rajput families soon tonk complete possession of the whole tract， establishing chiefships which have came down to the present day．

The Mabomedan wrested sovereignty from them about A．D． 1387 when Dilúwar Khin became Viceroy of Malwa，soon after assuming royalty．

The Narathas next appeared on the scene obtaining a permanent footing early in the XVIII Century．

Great as was the power these two Suzerains had in Malwa，they have left＇ practically no traces of their influence on the common tongue of ．the country， and the reason is not far to seek I think．
－－ 3
It was the object of both these ralers not to upset the existing system while still keeping the sole control．

The Mahomedans only exacted＂a nominal submission，a moderate tribute and occasional military service．＂The ruling Rajput chiefs though they became feudatories were left undisturbed in the enjoyment of their lands，a
fact that is brought into prominence when we consider how promptly they resented any act of tyranny on the part of their suzerains, by revolting. They preserved their own customs and tongue unaffected by the foreign speech used in the court and official circles. The Marathas again, never subverted existing arrangements. They levied dues and took over the general management and control, but they divided the revenue with the Hindu chiefs, and while they held absolute power still "affected a scrupulous sense of inferiority in all their intercourse with their principal chiefs, particularly with the Rajput princes."

Thus these rulers speaking a fopeign tongue, who held aloof and governed as suzerains without taking an intimate part in the life of the people, exercised little or no effect on the local speech.

On the eastern side of the Agency the conditions were different. Here the country is open and connected directly with the country round Allahabad. There was no isolation as in the case of those who lived on the highlands of the Malwa plateau and we thus find the languages much the same as those of the British districts on which they abat.

Administration:-The chief effect of administration is, I think, to be seen in the speech of the jungle tribes.

The Bhil and Gond now. talk a dialect, which as far as I have been able to discover, shews no traces of an old atonic tongue but is simply a bastard dialect, a kind of lingua franca as it were, which connection with Hindu neighbours has caused him to adopt as a means of communication.

It is in the case of the Bhils as we have seen chiefly a Gujarathi-Mal wi dialect, and in the case of the Gonds either a bastard Baghelkhandi or Malwi according to the locality they come from.

Indeed a very large number of these people repudiated giving any tongue but Malwi and Bughelkhandi as their language. A notable instance of this is the Korku. There were 9,667 Korkus returned by race, but only 42 admitted to speaking the Korka dialect, the rest return Malwi.
-. . LANGUAGE GROUPS.
116. Western Group:-The languages belonging to this Group are derived from the old western pràkrits which had their home on the Doab. The languages of Westera Central India are more immediately derived from the old "lingua volgare" known as Sauraseni Pràkrit. We may take Magadhi as typical of the eastern Prakrit. The languages of this Group with which we have to deal in Central India are Rajasthàni, Bundelkhandi (Bundeli) and western Hindi, and their dialects.

There are certain general characteristics of the tongues derived from the western prakrits on which I will touch very briefly. In pronunciation the "a" is sounded like " $u$ " in "hut," whereas in tongues derived from the eastern pràkrits the " a " is sounded like " O " in " hot," this is chiefly so in the most eastern " dialects.

In declension again we notice a difference. The typical vowel sound of the genitive singular of possessive pronouns is "e", e. g., Mera, my; in the languages from the eastern prakrits it is "o", e.g., Bengali has Mor, my.

In the past tense there is a marked difference. The dialects from Sàuraseni retain the "i" of the original Sanskrit, e. g., from the Sanskrit "maritah" the western pràkrit formed "màr-i-o" whence in Braj-bakhà we get "mar-y-au" ( $\mathrm{g}-\mathrm{i}$ ). The " t " it will be noticed has dropped out, the modern vernacular having " màra" in place of "mari-t-al." In the vernaculars from the eastern pràkrits it is not dropped but " 1 " is substituted for it, thus Bengali has mari-1-a. In the Fature tense "ih" is the distinctive mark of the western dialect, thus Braj-Bakhà has "mar-ih-ai", and "mar-ih-au," I and they, will strike. It is
formed from the Sanskrit thus: The Sanskrit "màrishyati" became "marissai" by the dropping of the ' r ', as in the case of the Past tense. The "ss" then becmume "h" giving " maribai" which we meet with in the modern vernacular.

In the dialects from the eastern pràkrits on the other band the dis: tinctive particle is "ib". The tense is derived from the impersonal passive future participle of the Sanskrit"maritivyam" (pulsandum), it is to be struck by bim. The "maritavgam" becomes "mariavvam" and then " marib" to this enclitic pronouns are added, and we get in Bengali "mar-ib-a" (where " $a$ " stands for " $o$ ", by me,) meaning it is to be struck by me. These few instances will I hope shew how the two groups derived from one parent stock, Sanskrit, through different ohannels, the westèn (Sauràseni) and eastern (Màgadhi) Prabrits, have varied in the mode of their formation. As far as possible examples of the dialects have been given.

Distribution of the Western Group:-Of the $8,000.000$ people who compose the population of Oentral India some $6,400,000$ or 7,447 per 30,000 speak one of the forms of speech which belong to this group. Three languages and 25 dialects were returned in this group. Many of the dialects are, however, so much alike as hardly to be distingqishable,

The distribution is fairly general in all the political charges except those of Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand.

Rajastháni:-1,702,242.-There is a well defined collection of closely related dialects peculiar to Rajputana. These Mr. Griersoo divides into four main groups, Mewati the dialect of the North, Malwi the language of Malwa, Jaipuri which represents the Enstern tongaes, and Marwari which is typical of the Western. Malwi is the dialect with whioh we are chielly concerned; that, and Rangri, the form common among Rajputs, may be taken as the standard dialect. Malwi meets Bundeli on the east, and north-east, on the west it comes in contact with the Bhil dialects of Udaipur, and in the south with those of the Vind in an hills.

Rajasthàni partakes of the characteristics of Western Hindi and Gujarathi, though it is more closely allied to Gujarathi,

There are certain marked characteristics in the pronunciation. There is a strong tendency to cerebralize the " $n$ " when riedial or final, while the brosd " i " is frequent. There is also a cockney tendency to drop the " h ". In the Sondhwara country of Malwa " s " becomes " h ," and they call their own home " Hundwar."

In the post positions, in the oblique genitive, these dialects have the broad "a" and not "e" while "ro, ra, ri" for "ko," etc.," is typical. In the pronouns the distinction is marked, In Bundeli ma-, maj-, me-, form the $\dagger$ base of the singular ; in Rajasthàni it is "mâ-, (mhâ-), ma-, ta-, (tha-), ta-, the aspiration being very common. In the verbs also there are differences for instance in Malwi "I am going" "is mâ chalu hû" the simple present being conjugated with the verb substantive, while in Bundeli we have the present tense taken with the present participle "me chalt-h $\hat{0}$ ". In the participles we get Malwi "Chaltâ" and "chalyo," in Bundeli "Chulat" and "chalo" as present and past. (See specimens).

Distribution:-This language is spoken chiefly on the plateau where 84 per cent. of those speaking it are found. The dialects of this language are met with chiefly in Malwa where 6,041 persons per 10,000 speak some form of therin Bhopal follows with 3,000 odd. As regards residence 4,034 live in Malwa. .

Bundelkhandi:-2,206,458.-Besides standard Bundelkhandi. there are 9 other dialects 28 the Bhillali there given is I find Seheri.

It might perhaps have been a truer classification to have taken Bundelkhandi not as a language but a dialect of Western Hindi, however, I think its importance justifies the place given it here.

Its characteristics are those of Western Hindi and have been already touched on.

Bistribution:-Of those speaking the language 49 per cent. are found in the low-lying country; the dialects of this language are found mostly in 'Bundelkhand,' 'where in every 10,000 people 8,570 speak some form of it, while 5,086 out of every 10,000 speaking these dialects reside in Bundelkhand and 4,337 in Gwalior,

Western Hindi:-2,516,757 :-Hindi, Hindustani and Urdu are the most important dialects of this language.

Distribution:-Of speakers of this language some 35 per cent. live on the plateau land and a little over 20 per cent. in each of the other tracts. The dialects of this language are found in all charges. The Indore Agency heads the list with 7,010 per 10,000 speaking these dialects, Bhopal and Indore. Residency coming next. As regards residence Gwalior and Bhopal come first with respectively 3,100 and 3,032 per 10,000 speaking these tongues living in their borders. No distinction seems to have been made between Urdu and Hindustani. Gwalior only giving Urdu, and Bhopal as might have been expected recording Urdu chiefly.

Hiadi is returned by all, and I have no doubt that proper differentiation was made between this and Hindustani. Bhopal has the highest figure, Malwa coming next, Jadomati and Western Jadomati are the same. In all 2,917

169-1-4.




 埗

174-V-4.
$n \quad n \mathrm{nl}$.

167-1-4.

174-V.5.

169-1.7. persons in every 10,000 speak some dialect of this language.
117. The Central Group:-So large a proportion of the inhabitants of this Agency speak a diglect derived from eastern Hindi, the language of this Group, that no excuse is needed for treating it at some length.

It will be necessary in order to bring out clearly the nature of the dislects' we are dealing with, to repeat a good deal of what has already been said under the head of the Western Group,

We have already seen how the vernaculars of the castern and westorn groups sprang from the two great Pràkrits, of which Magadhi and Sauràseni, with their head-quarters respectively near Patna and in the Doab, may be taker as typical examples.

In the country ketween these, which corresponds roughly to Oudh, the language in use was the Ardha-Magadhi Prakrit, a form of speech combining the characteristics of the Màgadhi and Sauràseni "lingua volgare."

The existence of a langnage and dialects derived from this Pralrit was unknown till quite lately, when it was discovered by Dr. Grierson in connection" with the Linguistic Survey now in progress, Such information as is here given was kindly supplied by him.

It has been called the Central Group from its position which we may diagrans: matically show thas:-

Western Group
(Sauraseni ) Kanaujia, Bundeli, \&c.


Marátñi.

The Central Group is a group of dialects not of languages. There is only one language in it "Eastern Hindi" to which the dialects.belong.

There are three chief dialects, Awadhi, Baghelkhandi (Bagheli), and Chattisgarhi. In Central India we are only concerned with the first two and principally with Bagbeli.

The Geographical habitat of Eastern Hindi is the "irregular oblong tract of country extending from but not including Nipal, to the Bastar State of the Central Provinces ;".in Central India Baghelkhand only is occupied by speakers of these dialects.

The dialects of Eastern Hindi present several very interesting variations from the tongues of the Eastern and Western Groups.

Pronunciation:-In pronuaciation the dialects of the Central Group follow the Western Group, the "a" being sounded as " $u$ " in "nut".

Declension:-Here again Eastern Hindi follows the Western Group using "e" in oblique forms.

In the post-positions it however follows Bihari save in the Dative-accusative where it has "ka" or " Ea " while the Eastern Group languages (Bihari) have "ke" or "kê". In the locative it followsthe Western Group haviug"ma" or "má" while Bihari usually has "mê".

In the Pronouns Eastern Hindi follows the Eastern Group having "o" not "e" as the typical vowel in the genitive of the possessive, e. g., "mor" not "mera". see specimen.

Conjugation:-It is in the verb that we see most markedly the dual origin of these dialects.

The Past Tense:-In all the Indo-aryan tongues the Past Tense was originally a Past Participle Passive, e. g., in Hindustani "mara" (from :Sanskrit maritah) literally means not he struek, but struck (by him).

The Western dialects drop the " $t$ " and retain the " $i$ " of the Sanskrit. The Màgadhi dialects of the Eastern Group turn the " t " into " l", e.g., in Bengali we get "marila".

The Western dialects can use the Past Tense alone but the Magadhi dialects cannot, they must add enclitic pronouns "by me" "by him, \&c.," which are tacked on to this participle and form one Tense withit. Thus Bengali has "marilam," "marila" struck, "am" by me.

In course of time the origin of this construction was forgotten and Bengali now conjugates this tense as if it was that of an ordinary active verb. Now Eastern Hindi combines both these peculiarities, and it is this combination of the characteristics of the two prakrits that gives special interest to the dialects of this group.

Thus in Eastern Hindi the Past Tense while on the one hand it borrows its typical vowel " i " from Sauraseni (" y " is often substituted) still on the other hand follows Magedhi in not being capable of use with the enclitic pronouns, the examples below shew this ; it must be remembered that "i" "e" and " $y$ " are interchangeable.

## English. Awadhi Eastern Hindi. Bhojpuri Easiern Group.

| I struck | Mar-y-nu | (or Mar-e- $\hat{\chi}$ ) | Mar-a-lo |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Thou struckest | Mar-y-as | (or Mari-s) | Mar-a-las |
| He struck | Mar-y-as | (or Mari-s) | Mar-a-las |

Here the dunl origin is clear, the Sauràsenic " $i$ " is kept and Magadhi enclitic terminations are added. The root, the tense characteristic, and enclitic pronoun are in each case separated by byphens.

The termination "is" "es" or "yas" is pre-eminently the typical "shibboleth of a speaker of Eastern Hindi." Every one who has been in Baghelkhand will have noticed this sibilant termination in "kahis" "maris," \&c., words of daily occurrence, but as Mr. Grierson remarks "most people would be astonished to hear they were a relic of a mixture of Sauràseni and Màgadhi Prakrit." Another point is interesting. We have already noticed how in Bengali the original passive character of the Past Tense was lost sight of.

Here in Eastern Hindi we see "the process of forgetting actually going on."

The memory of the passive nature of the Tense is partially retained and the subject is put into the case of the agent, which, however, does not here, as in Hindustani, end in "ne" but is the same as the ordinary oblique form while the verb is made to agree in gender and number with its object.

As we go rest the Sauraseni influence increases and the agent form is kept up while eastwards it bas disappeared, thus in the west we get "ui maris" where "ui" the oblique cose of " $n$ " means" by him", while in the east we find " $u$ maris" he struck " n " be:ng the nominative case.

The Future:-There are two ways of saying "he will go" in Sanskrit.'
(1). Active : chalishyati, he will go.
(2). Passive: chalitavyam it will be gone by him (me, thee, \&c.) Sauriseni follows the first form. "Chalishyati" became, by the dropping of the " t ," "chalissai". The "ss" then became " h " and we get "chalibai" this form has survived to the present day. In Braj-Bakha and other Sauràseni derived dialects we have

> Mar-ih-aA. Mar-ih-ai, etc.

The " ih " is typical of these western dialects.
. Màgadhi followed the second impersonal form. "Chalitaryam" (eundum) became by the loss of the " t " "chaliavam" and this in the old Eastern Hindi of Tulsi Das's writings appears as "chalaba", it is still impersonal, the persons being distinguished by pronouns. The pronouns in Tulsi Das's time were not enclitic.

Taking Bengali as the modern representative of the Eastern Group we find that the future participle ends in "ib" which is the typical syllable of the future in this group.

The Pràkrit participle $>$ "mariavvam" becomes "marib" to this the enclitic pronouns are added, "mariba "I will strike is really ". marib" it will be struck " a " $(=6)$ by me

> Mar-ib-z
> Mar-ib-i
> Mar-ib-

In the Awadhi dialect of Eastern Hindi twe find both forms occurring, the "ih" and "ib" ("ab")

| Singular. | $\quad$Plurid. <br> Mar-ab-u <br> Mar-ab-es <br> Mar-ih-ai, |
| :--- | :--- |
| Mar-ab |  |
| Mar-ab-o |  |
| Mar-ib-ai |  |

In the Awadhi spoken on the western side where it comes more in contact with the Sauraseni derived dialects the "ib" dies out and "ih" only occurs. Bagheli shews the dual influence, even having alternate forms,

| Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :---: |
| Mar-avy-e | Mar-ab |
| Mar-ib-es or Mar-ih-es | Mar-ib-d |
| Mar-i | Mar-ih-ai |

Finally then the Central Group ne dialects with its language of Eastern Hindi shews the influence of both Prabritsits nouns and pronouns following the Màgadhi or Eastern Group, while its verb holds an intermediate position, showing Eastern Hindi to be the direct descendant of the old Ardha-Magadhi Prakrito

Another interest attaches to this Ardha-Magadhi Pràkrit in that it is the tongue in which the Jain sacred books have been written. It may be remarked that it is often spoken of as Magadhi. In their uncanonical compilations the Digambara sect used a form of Sauràseni (western pràkrit) the Swetambaras a form of Maharashto, also a western dialect.

Distribution of the Central Group: $-1,401,013$ persons speak languages of this group, of these 139,000 live in Baghelkhand and mostly in the low-lying country where 70 per cent. are found. The group is an exclusive one, 9,946 in every 10,000 speaking these dialects living in Baghelkhand.

Most people speak the Standard tongue, from which the other forms differ but little, and as it has been fully dealt with already no further mention is necessary.
IIS. Bhill Dialects:-222,231.-Whatever the original tongue of the Bhil may hare been in former days he appears to have entirely lost it, as his present language consists of a bastard Gujarathi-Malwi jargon, and contains no traces of an older speech.

Bhopawar claims most of those speaking these dialects, Malwa coming next.
119. Gipsy Dialects:-9,522.-These languages have little right to be considered as belonging to Central India, but as those who speak them are always to be found in some numbers between our borders, I have included them in the return.

Bhopal and Bhopawar receive most of them but the figures are small. Specimens:-Labhani, Banjara.

## A Labhana.

Q.-Who are you? What is your name? हृं कौन छे धारो नाम काउे. -Tun taun chhe. Thàro nàm kd chhe.
Q.-Where have you come from? हूंकहांती भां के. Tun kahanti awe chhe.

## A. Banjara.

A.-My name is Ram Das.: 'मारो नाम रामदास छे. Màro nàm Ràm Dàs chhe.
A.-I have walked from Pipalgaon. •में पीपड गांदे सी पगु पगुभयेसा. Me Pipalganvesi pagu pagu sye sa.
Q.-Why are you crying? त्यू
रोंबैड Tun kyun rowe chhe.
Q.-Where are you going now? अभी तूंकांजाप छे, Abhi tun kan jay chhe.
4.-A man has beaten me. एक अादमीचे मने मारियो छं. Ak admine mane mario cinhe.
4. - I am going to my brother's house in this village. मे मारे भाई केषषर अैज गारे मां जाउं हु. Me màre bhai ke ghar ej gàme màn jàun chbu.
120. In S-T. III some comparison has been attempted between the birth-place and race returns and those of language. It will be seen that the figures for those born in Baghelkhand agree in a remarkable way with the figures of those who speak the local dialects, there being only a difference of 50,000 . The agreement between the figures for Bundelkhandi and for those born in that political charge is not so good. The reason is that the boundaries of Bundelkhandi are not the same as those of the political charge of that name, many who speak this tongue being found in Gwalior.

In the case of the jungle tribes the agreement between the race and language figures for Bhilalas is very close.

In the case of Bhils the difference is greater, the reason being that these people in the parts nearer civilization prefer to give Malwi as their tongue, while Bhilalas do so less.

The Gonds similarly very often return Malwi or Baghellshandi and the Seherias Bundelkhandi.

The tendency of these tribes is to return what they consider a higher form of speech, and, indeed, seeing that the dialects they speak have often lost all trace $d f$ the old atonic tongues there is some justification for it.

A marked instance of this as I have already noted are the Korkus who are returned in the race return as over 9,000 but of whom only 42 returned themselves as speaking the Korka dialect and all of these were in the jungle country of Nimawar. On the other side, too, we have the clever enumerator who "knows" and enters the language he thinks fit in the case of 'people such as these forest tribes, however, I admit that clever enumerators are not plentiful in the rural districts in these parts, and the return probably gives what was stated by the people themselves to be their language.

Subsidiary Table I.
Languages or Dialects proper to Central India.


Languages or Dialects proper to Central India.


Subsidiary Table II.
Languages and Dialects spoken in Central India.
A.-Outside Central India


Subsidiary Table II.
Languages and Dialects spoken in Central India-Continued..

- A.-OutsidelCentral India.


Subsidiary Table II．
Languages and Dialects spoken in Central India．－Concluded．
A．－Outide Central India．


Subsidiary Table III．
Languages and Dialects spoken in Central India．


Subsidiary Tabie IV．
Languages and Dialects spoken in Central India．
C．－Vernaculars of Europe．

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 昙 } \\ & \text { 感 } \end{aligned}$ | 㝘 | Dislect or Languages． | Pergona： | Males． | Females． | Proportion per 10，000 Population． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Greek． | Indo－European Family． |  |  | ＇－－－ |  |
|  |  | $\begin{array}{rcc}\text { Greek ．．．．} & \\ \text { Total for Creek Gr }\end{array}$ | 17 | 2 | 15 | $\cdots$ |
|  |  |  | 17 | 2 | 15 | － |
|  | Romar． | $\left\{\begin{array}{llll}\text { Franch } & \text { ．．：} & \text { ．．．} & \text { ．．．} \\ \text { Portuguese } & \text { ．．．} & \ldots & \ldots\end{array}\right.$ | 7 | 7 | ＊＊ | ＊＊ |
|  |  |  | $98$ | 74 | 24 | －$\dagger$ |
|  |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{llll} \text { Total for Roman Group } & \ldots \\ \text { Eaglish } & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots \\ & & & \end{array}\right.$ <br> Total for Tentonic Group ．．． <br> Total for C．－Vernaculars of Europe | 105 | 81 | 24 | －＊ |
|  | Teutonic． |  | 4，119 | 3，275 | 844 | 6 |
|  |  |  | 4，110 | －3，275 | 844 | 6 |
|  |  |  | 4，241 | ．3，358 | 883 | $\checkmark$ |

Subsidiary Table $V$ :
Distribution of Principal Languages proper to Central India.


Subsidiary Table VI.
A.-Outside Central India.

Distribution of Principal Languages.


Subsidiary Table VIL.
Languages or Dialects Spoken in Central India. - and C.—Vernaculars of Europe.

| Agrscy. | Distribution by Language of 10,000 of Population. |  |  |  | Distribution by Residence of 10,000 , speaking each Language. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | B. |  | C. |  | B. |  | C |  |
|  | Arabic. | Persian. | English. | Portuguese. | Arabic. | Persian. - | English: | -Portuguese. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| Gwatior Residency ... | $\cdot 9$ | 04 | 1.4 | * | 3,562.6 | 348.5 | $\cdots 733 \cdot 2$ | 1020 |
| Indore Reaidency . ... | 17 | 5.5 | 94.6 | 13 | 921.0 | 5,938.2 | $\cdots 6,564 \cdot 7$ | 3,673.5 |
| Baghelkhand Agency ... | 1 | *** | $\cdot 1$ | ** | 319.6 | . $\because$ | $\therefore 269{ }^{\circ}$ | - |
| Bhopal Agency ... | -"• | $\cdot 5$ | $\cdot 4$ | ** | ...'* | 2,595.4 | $\because 140 \cdot 8$ | :" |
| Bhopawar Agency ${ }^{\text {a }}$... | - 01 | $\cdot 1$ | 4 | . 04 | 188 | 229.0 | $\cdots 72$ | 30.6 |
| Bundelkhand Agency ... | -03 | 01 | 2.0 | ** | 56. 4 | 763 | $\cdots 650 \cdot 6$ | - |
| Indore Agency ... | 7 | $\cdot 7$ | -1 | ** | 131.6 | $267 \cdot 2$ | $\cdots 2.4$ | ** |
| Malwa Agency . ... | 2-4 | $\cdot 1$ | 6.8 | -2 | 5,0000 | 6344 | 1,586.0 | 5,918 |
| Total for Central <br> India $\qquad$ | 7 | $\cdot 3$ | 48 | $\cdot 1$ | 10,000 | 10,000 | 10.000 | 10,000 |

Subsidiary Table VIII.
Comparative Statement of Language, Birth-place and Tribe.

| Layguage. | Persons, | Males. | Females. | Birth-place. | Persons. | Males. | Females. | Tribe. | Yersons. | Males. | Females. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Bundelthandi ... | 2,185,807 | 1,127,589 | 1,058,218 | Bundelkhand | 1,157,913 | 598,685 | 558,928 | ** | *** | '.. | -* |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Seheria ... | 4,7,674 | 26,427 | 21,247 |
| Sehcri $\quad$. | 20,649 | 8,568 | - 10,091 | $\cdots$ | ** | ** | ** | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | ** | $\cdots$ |
| Bagheikhandi ... | 1,401,013 | 691,004 | 7,10,009 | Baghelkhand | 1,457620 | 720,737 | 736,892 | *0* | 0 | $\ldots$ | ** |
| Blilati m | 187,798 | 68,267 | 69,531 | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | - ... | $\cdots$ | Bhilaies ... | 121,280 | 66,977 | 64,303 |
| Bhili . ... | 84,433 | 41,075 | 43,358 | ** | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | ** | Bhils | 202.494 | 104,695 | 100,799 |
| Gondi . . | 20,581 | 9,778 | 10,753 | - m | ** | - ...* | ** | Gonds ... | 195,015 | 95,117 | 99,888 |

Subsidiary Table IX.
Number of Rooks and Newspapers published in each Language 1891-1300.

| Language. | 1891 | 1892 | 1893 | 1894 | $\therefore 1895$ | -1896 | 1897 | 1898 | - 1899 | 1900 | Total. | Porcentage | Rbmarke |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 . | 10 | 11. | 12 | 13 | 14 |
| B00ks- |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| English ... | 1 | - 3 | 2 | 1. 1 | $\because 2$ | , 2 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 8 | 29 | 7 |  |
| Hindi ... | 1 | 4 | - 2 | 5 | 11 | 23 | 42 | 68 | 61 | 49 | 271 | 65 |  |
| Marahi -.. | 2 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 6 | 36 | 9 |  |
| Urda ... | 3 | ... | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 3 | 22 | 5 | 45 | 11 |  |
| Sanskrit ... | ... | ... | $\cdots$ | :.. | -* | 2 | 5 | 0 | 9 | 5 | 30 | 7 |  |
| $\triangle$ rabio $\quad .$. | $\cdots$ | ... | -* | ... | ... | 2 | 8 | 1 | - | -. | 6 | 1 |  |
| Total Books ... | 7 | 9 | 8 | 14 | . 17 | 37 | 60 | 91 | 101 | 73 | 417 | 100 |  |
| Newspapara - ... |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . |
| * English ... | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 240 | 7 |  |
| Ilindi ... | 156 | 150 | 156 | 156 | 156 | 156 | 156 | 156 | 156 | 156 | 1,560 | 46 |  |
| Maralhi $\quad$... | 52 | 52 | 52 | 28 | ... | ... | ..- | ... | ... | ... | 184 | 5 |  |
| Hindi and Marathi ... | 52 | 52 | 52 | 52 | 52 | 52 | 52 | 52 | - 52 | 52 | 620 | 15 |  |
| . Iliadi and Urdu ... | 128 | 128 | 128 | 76 | 76 | 76 | 36 | 76 | 76 | 76 | 916 | 27 |  |
| Total Newspapers ... | 412 | 412 | 412 | 336 | 308 | 308 | 308 | 308 | 308 | 908 | 8,420 | 100 |  |
| Grand Total ... | 419 | 420 | . 419 | 350 | 325 | 345 | 368 | 399 | 408 | - 381 | 3,834 | 200 |  |




## Chapter Vil.

## Infibuities.

121.Introductory.-The information dealt with in this Chapter was recorded in Column 16 of the schedule and is dealt with in Tables XII and XII-A.

The orders to enumerators were to record those who were insane, "बाष्वा", deaf-mute from birth "जन्प से बहेरा भौर गूंगा" totally blind दोनें "झंखों से कन्धा "and leper कोड़ चूताहे ."

The record as far as the numbers are concerned is probably fairly correct. The desire for concealment is not so strong in the east as in the west, at any rate as regards males. Leprosy is the only affiction which is likely to be kept back. As regards female figures it is less easy to give an opinion.

The real source of error is failure in diagnosis. This is at any rate the case as regards insanity and deaf-mutism. In the case of insanity any one who is suffering from senile imbecility is almost certain to be entered, while in the case of deaf-mutes it is a question whether enough care is given to finding out if the person is really both deaf and dumb, and if he has been so from birth, and aged people are probably entered in this case also.

It would only be presumptuous in one who has no technical knowledge to go into the results in any detail, even supposing they were sufficiently trustworthy and the subject will, therefore, be only briefly reviewed.

It is interesting to compare the figures recorded with those for other countries.

The report for the 1891 Census of England and Wales shews that there were 32 males and 65 females who were insane in each 10,000 of the population. Scotland returned 38 males and 39 females, the UnitedStates 35 males and 32 females.

The total figures for all India were only 4 males and 3 females per Io,000 in 1891 ; the Central India returns on the present occasion shew 5 males and 2 females in 100,000 people. These results shew that insanity is not so prevalent in India as in Europe. -

Deaf-mutes in Central India rise to 2 in 10,000 about for males and 1 in the case of females. The figure for all India in 1891, was 9 in 10,000. In England and Wales in 1891 it was 5 males and 4 females per 10,000 . Scotland in this case shews 3 per 10,000 for males and 2 for females, the United States shewing 7 and 6.

Blindness in Central India claims 4 males and 3.5 females per 10,000 . In all India in 1891 there were 16 males and 17 females. England and Wales shewed 8 males and 7 females per 10,000, Scotland 9 and 8, the United States 10 and 9.

Lepers are shewn in India only. For all India in 1891 the figure per 10,000 was 7 for males and 2 for females, in Central India we shew only 6

183-II-4 \& 5.
$" \Rightarrow \delta \& 0$. " " $7 \& 8$. males and 4 females per million. It is a curious thing that the figures for Gwalior Residency sent from the Gwalior State Census office are
extraordinarily high compared with those from the rest of Central India. They contain for the area of Gwalior Residency alone, 50 per cent. of total afflicted, 49 per cent. of blind, 54 per cent. of the deaf-mutes, 46 per cent. of the lepers, and 44 per cent. of the insane. It is impossible to suppose that these particular perganas of the state are regular charnel houses and I can only suppose, there is something peculiar in the way in which the record was made up.

No Indiun province shewed so Jow a figure in 1891 as Central India does on this occasion. The lowest figures for insane was in the North Western Protinces 16 males and 8 females in 100,000 . For deaf-mutes Berar shewed the lowest figure 21 males and females.
? Blindness was least in Coorg, 49 males and 50 females in ro,000. Ajmer shewed the lowest figure for lepers 6 males and 3 females,

Among the different religions we find the Mahomedans and Jains stand first in each case.

I fancy that the Bohra commanity who are well known as being generally a weakly set, raise the Mahomedan figures.

The Bohras and Jains are both purely commercial communities in Central India and possibly their indoor shop life is responsible for the greater prevalence of disease among them. Among the afflicted population ${ }^{21}$ Mahomedan males and 17 fernales, and 20 Jain males and 16 females per 10,000 of each sex are affected by one of the diseases we deal with.

Compared with other religions these figures are enormous. Hindus. only shewing 6 and 4 and Animists 5 and 4 in each sex respectively.

Some natural cause there most be, I cannot suppose the desire for con-: cealment among the two last is so great as to account for it.
122. Afflicted Generally. - The proportion of the afflicted bears but a small ratio to the whole population. In a population of $8,000,000$ only 5,000 . people are afflicted with the diseases with which we are concerned in this report, some 7 persons in every 10,000 . So small indeed were the figures that I was afraid that the abstractors might leave the afllicted out, and to correct this I had all the 16th columns of the schedule read through again and the entries on the slips checked. Blindness is the commonest of the afflictions, 60 per cent. of those afflicted being blind. The deaf-mutes come next with 25 per cent. Leprosy next with 8 per cent., and insanity last with 6 per cent. This is a reversal of the condition of things usual in Europe where insanity is far the most common affliction, blindnesi being second, and deaf-mutism third. Thus in 189r the figures for England and Wales shew 33 insane per $100,000,8$ blind and abont 6 deaf-mutes.

The Plateau contains most afflicted; the Lowlying land baving 2 per cent. and the Hilly tracts 5 per cent-less.

Among every 10,000 of the population about 4 are blind and 2 deafmutes, while only 4 in a lakh are insane and 5 in a lakh are lepers.

## Insantry.

123 General.-The term used in the schedule was biwall I think we may take it that those returned under this definition were what we should term generally persons of unsound mind, more accurate than this it does not profess to be.
124. Local Distribution.-There are only 300 insane persons in the whole population according to the return, which seems a low figure, or else the test applied by the Central India enumerators was a severe one.

Insanity is more prevalent in the Plateau and Lowlying tracts than the Hilly, possibly this is due to the jangle tribes being little addicted to the use of opium and alcohol. The freedom of jungle tribes from insanity was moticed in the Bengal Census of 1891. Still in no tract do the figures amount to 1 in 10,000 .
125. Sex, Age and Insanity.-There are !in all Central India some 69 insane men and 3 I insane women in every 100 so afllicted.

In most countries the males are found to suffer from insanity more than the females, The chief causes of insanity are apparently exposure, indulgence in excesses, and mental strain; the last particularly, and this no doubt accounts for the high figure for insanity in Europe as compared with India.

The worst age for females omitting infaney is $25-30$ and next $10-15$ whereas with males it is $30-35$ and 20-30. The above ages coincide more or less with the age of puberty and greatest fecundity among women, while $20-35$ is the time when the men work hardest and take to using intoxicants.

From Subsidiary-Table VI we see that 69 females are insane to every 100 males at 15-20, and 64 at 25-30, the proportion of insane women in every 100 insane, being at each of these periods 9 per cent. and 16 per cont respectivly.

The lower figure among women is due to their leading on the whole a life of lighter toil and less exposure and being less addicted to the use of opium and intoxicants.

The figures for "under 5 years" old shew a preponderance on the female side, 75 females to every 100 males.
126. Insanity and religion. -There is not much to be made out of theso figares, Mahomedans shew 18 insane in one lakh of the population, Jains 12; the rest of the figures are insignificant.

Among females the Mahomedans also shew the highest return. It is I think possible that this return may be due to a high percentage among Bohras who are notoriously a most unbealthy community, unfortunately I have not their figures separately abstracted.

## deaf-mutism.

127. General.-There are in all Central Indis some 2 deaf-mates in 10,000 among males and 1 among females.

The Platean and Lowlying Country ahow abont 2 per 10,000 , bat the Hilly tracts only 3 in a lakh of males.

The females ahew just over in 10,000 in the Platean and about 2 in the Lowlying tracts but only 2 in a lakh in the Hilly tracis.
128. Sex, Age and Deaf-Ifutaness. -Deaf-mutes are commonest among malen at $40-45$, nearly 12 per cent., and among females at 60 and over, or discarding this period as likely to contain many who are only suffering from the deafness due tol old age, we find most in the $50-55$ period, some 10 per cent.

At the $55-60$ period thiere are 95 females to every 100 males, and 80

186-VI-3.
185-IV-8.

186-VI-3.
" " "

189-11-4.
" ${ }^{-5}$.

185-IV-4 \& 9

186-VI-4.

35-IV-4 \& 9.

183-II-6 \& 7.
" $1-20 \& 23$.

186-VI.5.
185-IV. $5 \& 10$.
186-VI-5.

183-71.8.
" $126 \& 29$

18G-YI-6.

At the "under 5" period there is little difference, both sexes shewing about 4 per cent.

129 Deaf.muteness and religion.-Jains shew the most among males about 8 in 10,000 , Mahomedans coming next with 6. Among females Mahomedans shew 5 per 10,000 Jains 3 . The only connection traceable is with occupation, Bohras, ho are I expect chiefly responsible for the Mahomedan figures, and Jains both peing trader:.

It may be remarked that the deaf-mūte returns are supposed to record those deaf and dumb from birth. Had this been properly carried out the figures would necessarily have decreased towards old age. This they do not do, and hence we can only suppose that the deaf from old age have been included. This is less marked among males. .

## BLINDNESS.

130. General.-This record is supposed to contain those totally blind, blind of both eyes. Though it is of course not possible to diagnose in every case when a person is quite blind, there is no fear in this country of those blind in only one eye being returned as there is a separate term for it in the vernacular.

InCentral India some 3,300 are blind out of $8,000,000,4$ males and 3 females per 10,000 . The Plateau shews most, 6 in 10,000 , the Lowlying tracts 4 and the Hilly 2.
131. Sex, Age and Blindness.-There are 81 blind females to 100 males. Both sexes shew most at the 60 and over period as is ouly natural. Next to this period men shew most at $25-30$ and women at $30-35$, at this last period there are 96 women to 100 men afflicted, while in the 60 period there are 182 women to 100 men. There is little difference in infancy.
132. Blindness and Religion.-A mong males Mabomedans come first, 12 in 10,000 , Jains coming next with 6 and Hindus third with 4, while the jungle tribes shew 3 .

Among females Jains come first with 11 in 10,000 , the Musalmans with 10, Hindus and Animists following with 3.

Jains and Mahomedans are thus again at the head of the list.

## LEPROSY.

133. General. -The form of disease here recorded is the "black leprosy" not leukoderma so commonly seen in the street

The name on the schedule was Rodl to which was added the word Chutáho or Galit Kushth

How far the diagnosis is correct in this case I cannot say, there are, however, distinct names for the two diseases in the vernacular-

In all Central India there are only 6 lepers in a lalih of the population so that it is not a prevalent complaint in this part of the country, unless concealnent has taken place to a far greater extent than is common in orber parts of India. It is the one affliction of the four with which we deal, however, that they are most likely to conceal.

The Plateau shews most, 8 in a lakh of population, the Lowlying 7, and the Hilly tracts 1 only.

In all Central India there are 56 female lepers to 100 males.

The biggest ratio is at the $20-25$ period where there are 91 females to 100 males and at 45-50 where there are 90.

Among males most are found at $25-30$, some 14 per cent. while among women most are found at 60 and over. The male figure at 60 and over is nearly half the female figure.

Leprosy is not common among infants, 4 per cent. males and no females being returned at $0-5$. Of course thereris a strong inducement to conceal any such disease in unmarried girls.
134. Leprasy and Religion.-Jains sbew 2 males in 10,000, Mahomednns 1. Among females also Jains stand first with 2 in 10,000 , Mahomedaus shem I.

## Infirmities by Selected Castes.

135 General.-I had hoped that these statistics would have shewn some connection with the habits of opium taking or the consumption of intoxicants but I fear we cannot draw any such conclusions from the facts before us.

The Ain-i-Akbari mentions that "the people of this Soobah (Malwa) give their children opium to eat till they are three years old" (Gladwin). And it has been called "the stirrup cup of the Rajputs" while it is well known that at 30 years of age or so the taking of opium is a regular thing, anong men of Rajput caste. Occupation is apparently the only' cause which affects the numbers aflicted.

The Bania castes are well to the fore in each case. The sedentary unhealthy lives they lead being no doubt in large measure responsible. There is not very much to choose between their male and female figures. Thus among the afflicted generally the Agarwals shew 23 persons per 10,000 and the Mahesris 24 afflicted. The Shrimali Brahman holds a high place which I am unable to account for.

The Kandera whose occupation is cotton cleaning also holds a high place.
The jungle tribes are little affected by these diseases and only the Seherias and Kirars who are enumerated by Gwalion State shew any high results, and I have already noted how high the figures returned by Gwalior State are compared with those of the rest of the Agency.

136 Sexes.-The sex figures are peculiar. The Agarwal Banias shew 12 in 10,000 more males than females while the case is just reversed in the Mahesri caste. The Shrimalis shew 5 per 10,000 more females afflicted. The Kanderas 4 more, while the Marathas, Seherias, and Kirars all shew more males afflicted. On the whole the males are most affected.

137 Insanity.-The figures are at their worst very smallonly Jijhotias and Khangars can show as much as 1 in 10,000 , all males.

We cannot, I fear, make any deductions from this very low return, and some imagination, would have to be called in to play before we could assert that the occupation of Kandera women, who help-their husbands to clean cotton, can be supposed to affect their brains!
138. Deaf-mutes-The Banias come out first in this case. The Agarwals shew 8 aflicted in $10,000,10$ males and 5 females.
$1 \times 6-116$.
$\square$
185-1Y:GA 13.

The Shrimali comes next with 4 in 10,000 all females. Seherias, and Kirars alone among the jungle tribes shew 4 and 1 in 10,000 respectively.
-. Males seem to be most affected in all the selected castes, there are onls 9 females to 11 males afficted in one lakh of population.

There does not seem to be any local cause for this aftliction, occopation sgain is the only source from which we can draw any conclusions. The Bania with his unhealthy life is most affected especially the males. ' Why the Shrimali women are so much afflicted I cannot say. The high figures for Seherias and Kirars are probably due to the fact that most of them are returned by Gwalior; I have already noticed their high returns.
139. Blind.-Banias here again head the list, Mahesris and Agarwals lesding, and Kanderas coming third. Seherias and Kirars as before are the only jungle tribes showing any figures. Occupation again is the ouly source with which we can connect this infirmity.
140. Lepers.-Here the Shrimalis come first with 8 males in 10,000 affected and no females, Mahesri Banins coming next.

No conclusions can be drawn from these figures bave that leprosy is uot a prevalent disease in Central Ladia

## Subsidiary Table I.

Average number of afflictedper 10,000 of each Sex by Natural Divisions in 1881, 1891 and 1901.


Figures for 1881 and i891 are not available.

## Subsidiary Taable II.

Average number of afficted per 100,000 of each Sex by Religion.

| Religioss. | Population afficted. |  | Insane. |  | - Deaf.mute. |  | Dlind. |  | 'Irper. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Males. | Females. | Nales. | Females. | Males. | Females. | Males. | Females. | Males. | Fenalcs. |
| Hiadu | 60 |  | 4 | 2 | 16 | 9 | 35 | 31 | 5 | 8 |
| Jains | 203 | 157 | 12 | 2 | 79. | 33 | 23 | J07 | 19 | 15 |
| Musalmans | 214 | 165 | 18 | 8 | 61 | 45 | 121 | 1 2 | 14 | 9 |
| Arimists | 83 | 41 | 3 | 1 | 17 | 13 | 29 | 25 | 4 | 2 |
| A! Religions | $\cdots$ | 54 | 5 | 2 | 19 | . 13 | 41 | 35 | 6 | 4 |

Subsidiary Table III.
Infirmities by Selected CastesIribs or Races.


## Subsidiary Table IN.

Disiribution by Age of 10,000 persons for each Infirmity.


## Subsidiary Table V

Distribution of the Infirmities among 10,000 of the population.


Subsidiary Table 71 .
Proportion of Females afficted to 10,000 Mfales at each Age.


## CHAPTER VIII.

## Caste, Tribe and Race in Central India. <br> A.-DESCRIPTIVE.

141. Introductory.-Representatives of almost all the varied elements which go to make up the population of the Indian Empire are to be found in Central India, from the Pushtu speaking Pathan who takes service in state armies to the Telegu spenking inhabitant of Madras.

The greater part of the population of Central India is of the Hindu religion, but a few Mahomedan groups still exist, either traces of the days when the Moghal Emperors extended their. sway from the Panjab to the Dekhan or else the descendants of those northern adventurers who hired out their services to the great Maratha generals.

Of the first Bhopal is the only example, while Jaora is the only notable instance of the ocher.

Sir John Malcolm says "The Hindus (of Central India), as in all parts are divided into four great castes; but it will be preferable to speak of the inbabitants of this country as nations and classes, for it is in this manner they divide themselves and keep alive the attachments and prejudices that distinguish them from each other." The truth of this is very soon apparent to any one who has lived in Central India. Roughly there are four great sections. The Maratha section who belong to the ruling circles, the Rajputs who are similarly situated, the trading classes consisting chiefly of Marwaris and Gujarathis, and lastly the jungle tribes of Dravidian stock.

I think that as we are dealing with the institution of caste, it will be best for the purpose of this Chapter to neglect these differences of race altogether, and coisider the question from its religious side, still some attention should be drawn to predominance of racial distinctions which will not be noticed except in this preliminary section.

The Marathas are foreigners and though rulers of the greater part of Central India, have no true connection with the soil, and are little met with outside cities, the vicinity of courts, and administrative centres.

The Rajputs with all their endless ramifications form a large portion of the population. Originally invaders, they have so long held a stake in the soil that they have become a part of the indigenous population.

The Marwaris, with the exception of the Bohra class of Mahomedans, hold practically all the trade of Central India. They are either Vaishnavite Hindus or else Jains. Their advent into Central India dates, except in the case of one or two families, from the time of the Maràtha invasion only. The Jain portion of this community is very wealthy.
$\therefore$ The last section, that of the Jangle tribes, is mostly of Dravidian or mixed Aryo-Dravidian origin, these tribes being the modern representatives of the former rulers and inhabitants of this country. -. 142. Ethnical Divisions.-The Ethnical divisions of Central India follow broadly the natural divisions which I have adopted.

The Plateau which along most of its western border marches with Rajputana is peopled by Brahmans of Marwar and Mewar, by Rajputs who are off-shoots of the great clans, and by traders, who belong to the great Bania families of Jodhpur and are mostly Jains.

The Low-lying country, on the other hand, draws its Brahman population from the North-West Provinces, its Kshatriyas are of mixed origin and except the chief of Riwa are not generally recognized by the clans of Rajputana, while its trading population comes from Mathura and Agra. .

Caste is the type of these two tracts, the religion being mainly Hindu.
Lastly, we come to the Hilly tracts. : Here caste gives place to tribe and Hinduism to Animism or to a mixture of the two.

Instead of a community split op by endless elaborate rules regardinif marriage and social intercourse, we meet with tribes who regulate these matters in the simplest way, or who have only begun to employ the methods which they have found obtain amoug their rulers.

They are, as a rule, tribes divided into totemistic sub-divisions, here and there a section may be seen strnggling to get within the pale of Hinduism, while the rest are still following their primitive tribal ways, living by hunting and collecting jungle produce when times are good, and by dacoity when they are bad.

The lower classes of Hindus are of course found everywhere, except in the wildest parts of the Hilly tracts.

The tro classes of foreigners, the Mahomedan and the Maratha, do not belong strictly speaking to any ethnical division. Being ralers they are found at administrative head-quarters and but little elsewhere.

## 143. Scope of Chapter :-

I wish in this Chapter to give a sketch of caste as we find it now in Central India as compared with caste as it is described in the sacred books. Space is limited and the subject of caste is an intricate one which offers endless, opportunities for controversy. All, therefore, that this Chapter professes to attempt is to give a brief description of certain institutions, which are met with in the caste system, illustrating them by local examples while it lenves it entirely open to the reader to draw any conclusions he may wish.

Before proceeding further I will define the terms, Hypergamy, Endogamy and Exogamy.

Hypergamy is the giving of daughters to men belonging to a caste or class equal to or higher than that of the girl. This is a common trait. A caste (A) will take daughters from (B) which is lower in the social scale, but will not give their daughters to the men of (B).

An Endogamous group is one in which the men are obliged to get their wives from inside the same family group as they themselves belong to.

An Exogamous group is one, the male members of which are obliged to get their wives from some family group other than that to which they themselves belong.

In his "Castes and Tribes of Bengal" Mr. Risley has traced the connection which exists between Hypergamy and Infant marriage and Widow remarriage. Briefly it may be given thus :-

Hypergamy, or the law which requires a man to wed his daughter with a man of higher or equal rank sprang from his desire to preserve purity of stock.

A section of a caste loses social status from some cause or other. The rest of the caste then look askance at any matrimonial alliance with them.

Now the sacred books of the Hindus while absolutely prohibiting regular marriages between a woman of high rank and a man of lower position, have allowed the reverse to take place, consequently we find that the rest of the saste will take the daughters of the degraded section in marriage but will not allow their daughters to marry men of the degraded section.

The result of this is to produce a surplus of ${ }^{+1}$ women in the caste while the degraded section suffers from an excess of bachelore.

Instead of bride-price being paid bridegroom price is given, and the marringe of daughters of the un-degraded part of the caste becomes an anxious and costly matter.

The natural result of this, as regards widows, is to make the rules whioh exclude them from re-marrying more rigid than ever. They must at all costs be prevented from competing with girls in the marriage market, where there maturer years and experience would make them dangerous rivals,

In support of this view it is found that tribes who allow widow remar. riage do not possess the custom of hypergamy.

Hypergamy is a charateristic of the higher castes only.
Low castes, instead of forming hypergamous sections, simply split up into new eastss which have no connection wich the parent stock.

The effect of hypergamy on infant marriage may be surmised,
The sarred books require a girl to be married by 12 or 14 years of age. To have an unmarried gidl, who has reached puberty, in the house is a sin.

Hypergamy makes it hifficult to get husbands, hence girls must be married early, or they may be left out in the cold. Female infanticide is resorted to when conditions are very adverse.

The higher castes thus introduced infant marriage and the lower castes followed suit, as far as possitle, considering that what the upper classes did must be the proper thing to do, a fashion was set as it were,

Jupgle tribes when struggling to raise themselves to caste status always seize on this custom as one yhich shews improvement of social position.

Hypergamy then, by restricting ohoice in husbands, makes the rules prohibiting widow re-marriage stricter, and increases the tendency to infant marriage.

## The Theoretical system of Caste as given in tae Hindu sacred bouks.

144. General.-Thick 45 is the mist which conceals the early history of Malwa, there appears to be little doubt that in remote ages the rulers of Central India were of Dravidian stode, the forebears of the Bhils, Korkus and other races, who now lead a precarious existence in the fastness of the Vindhyas and Satpuras.

The first historical notice we have of the Aryan invasion of Central India is of the acquisition by a Rajput kiug of the Sovereignty of Malwa, about 800
years B. C. Then the mist once more hides everything from our view till we reach Vibramaditya's accession to the throne of Ujjain about A.D. 500.* A period when the institation of caste had long been firmly established.

As is well known the Hindu community is theoretically divided into four sections, Brahmans, Kshatriyas (Rajputs), Vaishyas (Banias), and Shudras (low. caste).

Of these the three first are known as the twice-born ( $D$ wi-ja) as they receive a second spiritaul birch whén invested with the sacred thread (Janeo) The Brahmans are the centre round which the whole caste system. revolves they are the framers and interpreters of the laws which regulate not only their. own caste but those of the other two orders also.

The Hindu theory bases these distinctions on function, the Brabman the ${ }^{-}$pricst, the Kshatriya the warrior, the Vaishya the trader and agriculturist, while the Shudra does menial services. The Shudra is once born and cannot wear the sacred thread.

Now-a-days, at any rate to the uneducated these distinctions of caste are, thought to be a law of nature, and a divine ordinance, which it wonld be futile to dispute, though the Englishman's disregard of caste distinctions has done much, at any rate in towns, to weaken the bonds.

There were seeptics and irregalar worshippers even in Vedic dass but the veneer of European education was not.

It is a far cry from the old Pandit, rigidly scrupulous about his foon, and believing firmly in innumerable gods to the up to date Brahman, who dines in European Hotels, and whose religious convictions might ofteu be summed up in the words of a well known character, "I reject the superstitions of the ages, I believe in nothing, I don't even believe that I don't believe ".
145. Theoretical System:-Professor Roth in his "Brahma and the Brahmans (Muir's Sanskrit-texts) says that the Aryans at someiperiod more recent than the hymns of the Rig- Feda [B. C. 2,000 or, 2,400] must have expanded and extended into the Gangetic plains and later on into Central India.

The priestly caste was then in process of formation and was rapidly becoming a concrete functional body. They socn saw the chance offered to their intellectual and moral superiority of making themselves essential to the warrior chiefs by their influence over the masses anc like the ecclesiastical orders' of the middle ages of Christianity "began to look tpon secular authority as in effulgence of their own power." So that though the warrior families possessed the sole right to sovereignty, their possession was incomplete till recounized by priestly sanction and inauguration.

The barriers of caste were at this time still easily surmountable as regards the relations of the three upper castes towards one another. The priests were. as yet no more than a professional group who were recruited from any of the upper classes, and it was the individual of a family who was "distinguished by his power of expressing devotion in a manner presumed to be acceptable to the deities or a realiness in poetical diction" who was employed to ${ }^{\circ}$

[^4]conduct the worship for the others, he was the puro-hita the "brought forward" one. From this it is easy to imagine the growth of an exclusive custe, from a professional group to an hereditary one, and thence to a caste in the Brahmanical sense of the term.

The Shudra was apparently even at this time separated from the iocher three, and still more so the "darked-skinned man" the aboriginal. "Those tribes which are outside the classes produced from-Brahma whether they speak the tongue of the Arya or not we call Dasyus." (Manu X-45).

In their social relations the three upper classes observed few restrictions between themselves. We read that in the Krita yuga or Krita age classes dxisted but wंere undistinguishable.
"They were alike in the object of their trust in observances and in their knowledge" and again "Though they had separate occupations they had but one Veda and practised one duty." Numerous passages shew that the ruaking of sacrifices, etc., was in no way confined to a priestly class as we now tow it. This is also shewn by there being Rajarishis or royal rishis, though later commentators, shocked at the idea of non-Brahmans sacrificing, Have tried to explain the term away. (Muir).

The Brahmans were at this time merely the clergy of their day. Brahma means prayer and a Brahman is any màn who offers one, and has nothing to do vith a special class. Tḥe term Rajanya or Kshatriya refers only to soldiers and cheir leaders, the chiefs and barons of the Aryan tribes, and often as these chiefs are praised in the Vedas, no mention of descent from the arms of Brahma is made, except in the Purusha Sukta as noted below. The chiefs in the Mahabharata even held councils without the presence of a Brahman, a great offence accordisg to Manu. The Kshatriya character is described as that of the reckless soldier. "The wretched Rajanya (Kshatriya) unlucky in play will eat the Brahman's cow saying 'Let me live to-day even if I cannot live to-morrow."

One famous passage there is in the Rigveda known as the Purushasukta or Hymn of the Primeval Male which accounts for caste. This passage all orientalists agree is a modern one which has been inserted.
The pantheistic "sentiment of this Hymn is quite out of touch with the pest of the writings. The passage rans thus "When they formed Purusha foto how many parts did they divide him? What was bis mouth? What were his arms? What were called his thighs and feet? The Brahman was his mouth, the Rajanya (Kshatriya) made his arms, that which was the Vaishya tras his thighs, the Shudra sprang from his feet." (Muir 7).

The theoretical classes of Hindu Society are thus made to be of divine origin and consequently authoritative; it is on this foundation that the Brahmans have raised the superstructure which has to day become so vast and complicated.

The duties of the various castes were thus defined. Brabma had prescribed "force criminal justice and war as the profession of the Kshatriyas, the dity of officiating at sacrifices, sacred study, and the receipt of presents to be the functions of Brahmans. The care of cattle, traffic, agricultare, to be allotted as the work of the Vaishyas, and the practice of the mechanical arts to be assigned as that of the Shudras. The duties common to the Brahmans,

Kīhatriyas and Vaishyas were offering of sacrifice, study and liberality." We see that only Kshatriyas and Vaishyas had a direct stake in the soil, broadly speaking, as landlord and tenant respectively. The Brahmans were above it, the Shudras' duty "was that of serving the other three classes without grudging."

Gradually the power of the priestly class became greater and they sav that what was wanting to secure their position was the seal of divine sanction to their priestly office. They had by the days of Manu (5 B. C.) arrogated to themselves the direction of all matters connected with civil administration, law and religion; to define and make this power absolute the collection of rules and maxims known as The institates of Manu was compiled. Here the divine origin of the castes was fully set out, the Brahman was confirmed in his pre-eminent position, and every caste given its proper place and assigned its special duty. Also the most complicated genealogical system was evolved to account ir the different sub-divisions of four great castes which then existed. The Brahmans now became a separate body of great importance, with bereditary functions, and they were to be revered by all other classes. A well-known popular shlok expresses their powe: thus "The gods are under the power of the mantras (mystical verses); the mantras are the possession of the Brahmane ; the Brabmans are our gods" again "Since the Brahman sprang from the most excellent part (of Brahma; that is from the mouth) since he was the first born and since he possesses the Vela he is by right the chief of the whole creation." (Rig'V, I-94).

As, however, the number of priests required was limited Brahmans were later on allowed to engage in other occupations such as soldiering, cattle keeping, and trade ( $\mathrm{\nabla}$. МАаиu $I X-319, X \cdot 80,82,101,102$ ).

When we tarn to the subject of intermarriage which now forms the great barrier between the endless sections of modern Hindu society, we find that as the castes get more and more distinctly separated so da the marriage laws be-come stricter. Endless passages shew how little restraint there was at first between the upper classes. Thus in the Atharva Veda (v. Athar: Veda IX-5-27, , a composition of comparatively late date, we find Brahmans marrying Kshatriyas, and the re-marriage of widows was evidently a common occurrence, The sharp distinction between the three upper classes and the fourth if maintained, however, only illicit connections producing degraded stock being possible between these two big divisions of twice born and once born. "Nor should one talk with evergbody (for gods do not talk with everybody) but only with an Arya, a Brahman, a Kshatriya or a Vaishya, for these can sacrifice. If any one bave occasion to speak to a Shudra let him say to another - 'Tell the man so and so'. This is the rule for an initiated man." (Sat. Br).

Ceremonial defilement by touch or eating with members of other ranks is never mentioned in the Vedas, bad it existed, it could not have escaped notice. (cf. Corinth. V-11).

By degrees, however, the gulf widened, purity of descent became a matter of the first importance, and marriage became a custom requiring careful rules for its regulation, food, professional occupation, funeral rites, and even the people one could associate with, all become the subject of rules, but marriage seems to have been the starting point whence all the distinction came.

Endogamous divisions arose, at first large groups which from one cause and another have split up into the endless ramifications we find to-day.

The curious confusion of matter and spirit which forms the philosophical basis of the Hindu religion no doubt greatly assisted the growth of this system, while the priestly class encouraged a mode of thought so useful in preserving their ascendency. Matter in the view of this system is non-existant, it is all Maya, "Illusion", the spirit being the only entity.

It is not difficult to follow the line of thought which results from the extension of this philosophy to material things.

Religious purity becomes of the first importance, and mere physical impurity a negligible quantity, and the pious Hindu, whom nothing will induce to take water from à Pasteur filter, will hasten to bathe in, and drink from, a stagnant cow-haunted pool which has a reputation for sanctity.

The above very imperfect sketch brings us down to the present time and I will now endeavour to shew how different Caste organisation as we meet with it in Central India to-day is from the classical system of the sacred books.
146.-Caste To-day.-It is probable that without making special investigations most people who have lived some time in India will have noticed that the terms Brahman, Rajput, (Kshatriya) Bania (Vaishya) which we call "castes," etc., are wide ones and indicate only a veryogeneral separation of the classes. That the term Brahman includes not only those who strictly adhere to all the traditions and rules of their order, but also many whose position is doubtful, who are nothing more than tribal priests, who have received a kind of honorary rank and with whom many Brahmans will have nothing to do ; similarly that the term Rajput includes not only those who can trace their lineage back for centuries, but also those who but yesterday obtained a new made pedigree from the local Bhat, and with whom the older races will hold no intercourse. These distinctions we find on examining the internal structure of the various groups are mainly based on marriage.

It is not, as will be seen the big groups of Brabman, Rajput, etc., by which caste rank is decided but by the smaller sub-divisions of these groups.

I hope in the short space which can be devoted to this question to be able to bring out by means of actual examples from local castes and tribes, that the word "caste" as ordinarily used is only a generic term and that the true caste, the social unit that is by which intercourse is decided, is the sub-caste, sept, clan or whatever the name the sub-divisions of the bigger group may be.

You ask a certain man A-what his caste is. He replies that he is a Brahman. If you ask him whether he will associate with, feed with, and above all inter-marry with the family of $\dot{B}$-from Bengal or of C-from the North. West Provinces, he will say "certainly not".

On making further inquiries you find he is not only a Brabman buta. Panch Gaur, a Kanaujzya, and a Jihhotia.

Even this bas not brought you to the goal, for we have not as yet discoverod the limits within which he can marry.

Another question illicits the information that he is not only a Jijhotia Brahman but a Bündelkhavidi Jijhotia, a local group.

This brings us almost to the end of the search. All these groups through which we have traced him are comparatively large and what is the real gist of the matter are endogamous, that is all men and women of the group are bound to marry within the group. We have got to the smallest endogamous group, the smallest unit from within which be is obliged to get his wife. As a Brahman he is one of a vast community within which he must marry; as a Parich Gaur of a smaller group, and so again in the cäse of the Kanaijiyo and Jijhotia groups to which he belongs. He must marry a woman who belongs to these groups in the same way that he does himself ; she must be a Bundelkhandi Jijhotia.

On examining the Bundelkhandi Jijhotia group we find that it is sub-divided into 71 sub-divisions. This Brahman belongs' to the 'Richaria sub-division. This Richaria sub-division is an exogamous group; that is to say, he cannot marry a woman who belongs to this group buit must marry one belouging to one of the remaining 70 .

He must marry within the Bundelkhandi Jijhotiä group but he may not marry within the Richaria sub-division of that group because he himself belongs to it.

It will not be out of place here to givè an instance of "Hypergamy."
Suppose another Brahman D—of the Bundelkiandi Jijhotió group, who belongs to the Gotamia sub-division, to askifor the daughter of A-in marriage. Now A-belongs to one of the 13 superior groups known as the Terah Patios while D-belongs to one of the Antaioan Panchadars who rank below the Patas.

A-refuses to give his daughter to $D-$, but $D$ _- being wealthy $A$ proposes to marry his son to D ——'s daughter.

A-has no objection to taking a daughter from $D$-mut he will never allow a daughter of his to marry a man of D -_'s inferior rank.

I hope these examples will shew the importance of marriage regulations in determining social position, and also that it is to the small Sub-divisions that we must look if we wish to discover the vital power of the modern caste? system, how it is the sub-caste or sub-division that really does what we expect caste to do and that caste, as we generally use the term, gives us no true idea of the restrictions of inter-marriage to which any group is subjected.

At the end of this Chapter are several schemes giving the constitution of certain local castes and tribes, and in all it will be seen that there are small exogamous divisions included in larger endogamous groups, all shewing that it is these small exogamous divisions to which we must get before we can, to use an Americanism, properly " locate " a man.

The section on local castes again affords many examples of how new endogamous groups are formed by sections of a community emigrating or otherwise separating from the parent stock, and of how these new endogamous groups split themselves up into smaller exogamous groùps.

In this way the number of "castes" is ever on the increase, and has given rise to the complicated system which we meet with to-day.

If there ever was a system consisting of only four castes as described in the Sacred Books it has long ago passed away.

The relations subsisting between caste and marriage are treated of in the pext section and illustrated by local examples.

## CASTE IN RELATION TO MARRIAGE.

147. General. - The subject with which we are here concerned is that of marriage in kindred groups, a phenomenon by no means restricted to the Hindu caste system, but which seems to have been at one time or another a phase in the life of every community. It dates back possibly to an age when descent was reckoned through the woman, when if the father was not unknown, he at any rate did not live with the mother of his children until they were brought up.

The woman was the keeper of family tradition, the agriculturist of the community, as opposed to the hunter, man. She was the "witch" or wise woman of the family skilled in herbs, local lore and religions rites.
$\because$ Gradually a kindred group developed, composed not of husband and wife but of brothers and sisters; the child looked for protection not to a father, whom he perbaps did not know, but to his mother's brother. Later, brother and sister marriages are met with, the group thus keeping its unity and ensuring purity of stock. Later on prohibition of marriage with an elder sister arises, followed by prohibition as to other relationships. The endogamous group grows and splits up into smaller exogamous groups, a process we still see going on among the caste groups of India.

Endogamy was thus in early days the strength of the family and as groups became consolidated they extended the limits within which marriage was possible, new endogamous groups formed by the departure of sections of the old groups and so the system developed.

The process was of course gradual, one phase overlapped the next. First comes the group which laid stress on maternal descent and which without letting woman have all dominant power, assigned her the position of regulator of social and religious matters, she was the priestess of the goddess of fertility, and the keeper of all traditions. Her chief importance lies in her being the charnel through which descent and possession pass.

Then man gradually arrogates all power to himself, husband and wife form more permanent unions, and the rule of descent changes. Folk-lore, old tales (the Marchen of Grimm for one) old lawa, customs and festivals, all bear testimony to the position held by woman in these days.

The feeling of kindred group marriage is not yet dead in Europe as the two instances below mentioned by Professor Pearson will shew.

One case of an exhibition of this feeling occurred at the village of Borsad near Kaschau in Hungary. "A girl who is a native of the village was married to a peasant from another village, but after the wedding, a number of the young men of Borsad tried to prevent her from departing to her new home. The bride managed to escape, but on seeing this the young men set fire to the cottage of her parents, and the flames quickly spread to other cottages.

A murderous fight then began between these young ruffians and tie brides' friends with the result that eight peasants were killed and about twenty of both sexes injured."

The other case is from the Tyrol (1886).
"The village of Ladis in the Tyrol has for generations observed the rule that its maidens must not take husbands outside their own village. . Lately, however, Catherine:Schran, reckoned the most beautiful girl of the whole district, accepted the proposals of a suitor from a! distant place. The youths of Ladis resented this as a personal injury. Six of them seized her, tied her on a manure cart and led her through the village, the other youths and boys jeering and singing derisive chants. At length her father rescued her."

These two cases reported by the newspapers as mere "disturbances". of no particular value are in truth deeply interesting as shewing how the old customs linger even when all need for their preservation has departed.

In India the idea of the kindred group as a marriage unit has remained thoughit has expanded, split up, divided and sub-divided into endless new endogamous and exogamous groups till its complexity is absolutely bewildering.
$i$
The strong feeling of the Aryan settler against the dark skinned inhabitant of the country and his desire to keep his race pure from the taint their blood would introduce, has given a persistence to the group which want of the same influences in Europe has allowed to die out.

The instances of this feeling quoted above come from isolated places where old customs are found long after the reasons, which called them into existence, have passed away.
148. Theories of Nesfield and Risley.-Thereare two main views as to the origin of caste: One is that of Nesfield, the "Occupational" theory as it may be called, in which it is asserted that "the bond of sympathy or interest 'which first drew together the families or tribal fragments of which a caste is com-posed-was not community of kinship-but community of : function. Function and function only as I think was the foundation upon which the whole caste system of India was built up." (Nesfield's 'Brief Revieco.)

There are many objections against this theory, bat one of, the most important is that "it pre-supposes an anbroken continuity in the national life" and "assumes as its necessary basis the unity of the Indian race". Nesfield admits that a white race of Aryans invaded India, but maintaina that they were swallowed up by the indigenous tribes. He also denied that any physiognomical difference could be noticed between the Brahman scholar in a Sanskrit School at Benares and "the scavenger who swept the roads."

The other theory is that put forward in Mr. Risley's "Tribes and Castes of Bengal." Here marriage is the basis on which caste distinctions are founded.

Anthropometry was also used and resulted in distinguishing three distinct types, the Aryan, the Dravidian and the Mongoloid, this last being intermediate between the other two; we are not concerned with this type here.

The Aryan type was distinguished by a straight fine-cut nose, long symmetrical narrow face, well developed forehead, regular features, and high facial angle. The stature is fairly tall and complesion "whent-coloured."

The Dravidian was distinguished by his broad nose, low facial angle thick lips, feshly face and coarse irregular features. His figure is sturdy and squat, and his colour dark brown to almost black.

Manu attempted in his 10th Chapter to account for the different castes by a complicated and obviously absurd system of crosses. But "in India it does not necessarily follow that because the individual applications of a principle are ridiculous, the principle itself can have no foundation in fact." The idea was in the main correct, and we can now trace the growth of caste from jungle tribes, and even see the eystem actually working, and there is no doubt that this process of rise from the status of $a$ jungle tribe to that of a regular caste is an illustration of what has actually taken place in former ages. The working of hypergamy, endogamy and exogamy can be seen in many instances and I will try to give local illustrations showing how a tribe glides gradually within the pale of Hinduism by means of marriage, and soon losing all remembrance of its old state, invents a legend to prove it has held that position from remote ages. Difference of colour was the first cause of separation. The light coloured Argan would not consort on equal terms with the dark skinned and generally inferior Dasyus and formed marriage regulations to preserve the purity of his stock. In the south of Europe where no colour difference existed we find the Aryan mixing freely with the Turanian.

The minor sub-divisions are the result of fiction; such as the belief that those, who live far off, or speak another tongue, must necessarily be of different stock, and are either Ethnic, Functional, Sectarian, or Social in their nature.

As an illustration of the effect of the marriage regulations in determining the internal constitution of a tribe or caste I propose to give examples of (1) A pure tribe; (2) Rise of a tribe to caste status; (3) Fall of a caste to tribal rank. An ordinary caste is dealt with in paragraph 146.
149. Instances of the effect of marrige regulations.
(a) Pure tribes.-The Barwani Bhils :-

The particular group of Bhils, which I propose to take as an illustration in this instance, are those. who live in Barwani. They inhabit the Satpuras which they have divided up into Hads each nominally under a Naik.

My informant tells me that the Bhil of this region has been little affected by civilization and lives a most primitive kind of existence. The report that $a$ white-man is approaching is often enough to cause immediate flight. My informant adds" this Bhil is almost always in hot water and I do not think he would be happy without a good deal of excitement (sic)." There are no fixed villages in this part. The collection of huts which does duty for them are abandoned at the least alarm, and each hut in such collections even is built far away from its neiglbbour as the Bhil himself says to guard against treachery and against too much attention being paid one's wife by one's neighbours.

This group is a good instance of a tribe which has as jet absorbed little from contact with its Hindu neighbours The group is divided into 41 septs, which as a fule have each its orn tutelary deity: There are some points of general custom which I will first touch on. All these septs reverence the Bor tree, (zizyphus jujuba). At a marriage the chula on which the feast to the marriage party is cooked is almays made out of enth from round the roots of this tree.

Some septs, however, have this tree as the object of their special worship. Septs with different names but whose object of special worship is the same cannot intermarry, e: g.; Kulbi sept cannot marry with the İKalamia sept.

They all pay reverence to their own Totem, in the case of a-tree by uever cutting or injuring it or as a rule employing it in any way, while in the case of other objects they avoid injuring them in any way. They make obeisance to the Totem when passing and their women do Gihungat, i. e., veil the face when passing. Women desirous of children make an offering called Mannat to the Totem. As a rule some spirit is supposed to live in the tree; or other object.

As regards tattooing they never tattoo on themselves the object they worship, which is, I believe, curious and contrary to the custom generally obtaining as regards Totems. This same custom is apparently observed by all the Bhil tribes.

The 41 septs are given below; it has not always been possible to find out the origin of a sept.
(1) Ava.-Called after a Moth (Ava). . They never injure moths:
(2) Avashya or Avaya. - This sept derives its name from a locality. They belong to Avashya a village in the Barwani State. Their tutelary deity called Nilai Mata is supposed to live in a Bor tree, which tree is therefore the object of their special worship, and they never injure it. ${ }^{3}$
(3) Avaya.-Named after the Avla Tree.
(4) Badir (or:Padir) - From the village of Padvi in Gujarath. Tiger warshippers, Wag-deo as they call him.
(5) Bagvai.-Worship the Bor tree. Their women are not allowed to approach close to it.
(6) Bamnia.-Local name from Bamnia.a village in Gujarath. .. They worship the Tiger.

This sept is considered of higher social standing than the others and will not take food from the rest. This is a beginning of development into a caste as no restrictions exist as to food among the other septs.
(7) Bondar.-They worship a tutelary deity Bondar Devi, probably a local goddess. She lives in the Sag tree (Tectonagrandis) or Salt tree (Shorea robusta) which ạre therefore reverenced by this tribe.

Bondar Devi is a local goddess whose chief place of residence is at Bijasan on the banks of the Narbada.
(8) Chauhania.-Claim mixed descent from the Rajput tribe: But their object of reverence is the Astara tree. This is another instance of the insertion of the wedge which will gradually widen the gap between themselves
and the other septs. It is curious that they do not as yet, so far as I have been able to ascertain, shew signs of having adopted restrictions regarding food, marriage, customs, etc.
(9) Chaungar.-Name not explained. Worship Snake as Nag-deo.
(10) Daoria.-Name not explained. Worship same as Dulia.
(ii) Dudwa.-Name not explained. Worship the Agon tree,
(12) Dutia.-Name not explained. Worship the Bamboo.
(13) Gadaria.-Name not explained. Worship the $P_{\text {pal }}$.
(14) Gaolia-Chothania - Named after a creeper called Giaola.

They worship this plant. They never touch it with the feet intentionally, if they do so accidentally they at once salaam to it.
(15) Ghat Bacria.-Worshippers of the Ghat Baeria Devi in Dondwara in Pansemal Pergana, Barwani state.
(16) Iskia.-Name not explained. Worship the Bor.
(17) 'Jamnia.-Worship the Jamun tree (Eugenia jambolana) which they respect.
(18) Jamra.-Name not explained. Worship Bamboos.
(19) Kharali.-No explanation. No special totem known.
(20) Khatta -Worshippers of a fish called the Khattia which they preserve.
(21) Khuntia. - Worship the stem (Khat) of the Sag tree, and never injure it.
(22) Kikria.-Name not explained. Worship the Agon tree.
(23) Kulbi or Kalamia. - They worship the Salami plant (Convolurous repent).
(24) Maoli.-This sept worships a goddess whose shrine is on a bill called Ámbapuri Pahar, at Bhilvani (Kajpur, Barwani). The shape of this shrine is the same as that of the grain basket known as Kilya and in consequence they never make or use baskets of this shape. Women may not worship at this shrine, They may, however, offer Mannat. No one is allowed to tattoo anything resembling the shape of a. Kilya on the body. The Ehakria. tree is also connected with this goddess and is never cut or injured in any way.

One section of this tribe is beginning to lay claim to Rajput descent and say that their ancestor was one Malia; a Rajput, who kept a Phil woman. This is a very modern development, and is the beginning of a social rise. I have been unable to find any signs of the adoption of Hindu restrictions as to food or martiage. The tribe has two divisions. Munda Maolias who wear no Chat or tuft of hair and the Chotia Moolias who do wear it.
(25) : Maheda.-Worghip the Bahera (Beleria Myrobolan) tree. Whence they are sid to have got their name.
(26) Bfori.-Worshippers of the peacock. They will not injure it. When they wish to worship it they go into the jungles and look for its tracks. On seeing, they salaam them: They clean the ground near the
 foot mark and spreading a piece of red cloth by it, put their offering of grain upon it. They describe a swastika beside the offering.

No tattooing of any kind whatever is allowed in this clan, a curious prohibition for which I have been unable to obtain any reason from the clan, A woman on seeing a peacock must veil the face or look away. If a Mori puts his foot on the trace of a peacock knowingly, he is sure to suffer from some disease afterwards.
(27). Mujalda.-Called after their goddess Mujai Mata whose shrine is at Nisarpur.
(28) Ningwal. - Name from local god Ningwal Deo who is said, to live. under the Amli (tamarindus indica) and Thuwar (euphorbia carinata). As usual their women may not pray to these trees.
, (29) Nirgai or Nirgawan.-Worship the Nirgun tree (Vitex negundo or trifolia). It is a shrub rather than a tree.

Another section of this tribe have taken to worshipping the Bor tree under which they say their goddess Nirgun Devi'sits. This section also worship the original Nirgun shrub, but the Nirgun worshippers proper will not have any thing to say to the Bor tree worshippers.
(30) Pavar.-Worshippers of the Bor tree and also reverence pigeons.
(31) Piplia. Worship the Pipal tree.
(32) Rastala.-They worship the Astera or Apta tree (bauhinia tomentosa).
(33) Sanyar.-(the Cat tribe). Tradition has it that one of this sept was chasing a cat. It ran for protection under the cover which they put over the stone figure of their goddess known as a Ghuba (see section on snake worship). The cat then appeared in the shape of the stone which served to represent the goddess, and the deity herself appeared seated on this stone. The cat Sanyar is therefore reverenced. by them. None of them will ever touch anything into which a cat has thrust its mouth. They must pever touch n cat except to preserve it from harm. That a cat should enter the house is considered unlucky, and to guard against this they as a rule keep a dog tied up near the door!
(34) Semlia.-Worshippers of the Semel tree (Bombax heptaphyllum). They will not touch a pot in which the flowers of this tree have been cooked.
(35) - Sisodya_Spurious Rajputs they claim to be, But save adoption of the name they have as yet advanced no further.
(36) Solia.-
(i) Ata Solia.-In this section the marriage always takes place at sunrise.

* (ii) Jata Solia.-Marriages in this section always take place at sunset.
(iii) Taria Solia.-This section always watch the sky at sunset and as soon as they can count 16 stars they begin the marriage ceremony.
(iv) Tar solia.-This section of the tribe apparently connect their name with cotton thread, as they wrap several skeins of raw thread round the bridegroom and bride at the marriage ceremony.
(37) Thakaria. $\rightarrow$ Name not explained. They worship the Sparrow.
(38) Valanka:-Worship the sali tree.
(39) Vaskala. - Worship the Bamboo and other trees.
(40) Veria.-Worship the Nim tree.


## (41.) Vhagella.-Worship the Tiger.

The information here given is such as I have been able to gather on the present occasion. I have done my best to insure its accuracy, but $I$ am by no means prepared to say that the more detailed re-searches of the ethnographic survey proper will not modify the facts I have given above. In general the statement is correct, and gives, I think, a fair illustration of tribal constitution.
(3) Rise of a tribe to Caste:-

I think that the best method of presenting this subject that I can employ will be to take a concrete illustration. I propose therefore to take the Bhangar caste as found in Bundelkhand. This community will give us an example of the evolution of a caste out of a tribe, one portion being still in great measure in a primitive state, while the other section has been admitted within the circle of Hinduism.

We have just seen an instance of a purely Tribal community. In this case half the community have risen socially and entered the pale of the Hindu caste system. They have not got very far beyond the border, but are nevertheless inside.

The Khangars appear to have been the original inhabitants and rulers of a large part of Bundellkhand before the Rajputs invaded the country. They were apparently of Dravidian stock. As we find them now they are divided into three large endogamous "groups, "Raj-Khangars", "Arakis", and "Dhanuks" though there is some doubt, however, as to the last group and they are at any rate insignificant locally. Each of these is again sub-divided into exogamous divisions. Of these divisions the first is now a caste proper though not a high one while the other two are looked on as jungle tribes or at best but on the fringe of the caste system.

There is the usual tradition to account for the rise of Raj-Khangars. It runs briefly thus.-A Khangar chief ruled at Kurar now in the Orchha state. The Bundelas had begun to enter the country and a Bundela noble was living at the Khangar court. He had a beautiful daughter with whom the Khangai chief's son fell in love. The Bundela hesitated to allow a marriage and said a consultation with his caste fellows was necessary. He went off and on returning said the narriage might take place, but that both sides must first of all dine together. The feast was attended by a large number of Rajputs who, when the Khangars were stupefied with drink set upon them and proceeded to Eill them to the last human being. Une woman, however, who was near her confinement, escaped and hid in a grove of Kasam trees. A. Brahman of the Sandal caste interceded for her, and her life was spared on the condition that should a son be born he would enter the Bundela chief's service and become his shoe-bearer. A son was born and entered the chief's service and he and his descendants took and have since borne the prefix of "Raj."

Later on an illegitimate daughter was born of this same womar she was named Arakh and her descendants are so called. They took a lower social position and returned to their own Jungles.

The Raj-Khangars, it will be seen, have become far more hinduised than the rest of the caste. This section is occupied in agriculture, they are ealisted
as sepoys and they have entirely abandoned predatory. habits. Widow marringe though not absolutely unknown among them is considered as degrading and is very seldom practised. They abstain from wine, employ Brahmans inall ceremonies, they thatch the Harwo or shed used at marriages with Jamun leaves, and they bore the nose of their women for the nose ring.

The Arakhs, on the other hand, engage chiefly in hunting, are not allowed to be sepogs. Widow marriage is the rule among them. They drink wine freely in public, never employ Brahmans, thatch the Marwa with Kans grass and do not bore their women's noses. They are well-known as thieves. Their worship is chiefly that of the snake whom they call Kartal Deo, while the RajKhangars worship IIindu Gods.

There does not seem to be any trace of hypergamy among them as yet, though one might have expected to see it in the upper group, perhaps their exogamous sub-divisions have not as yet been in existence long enough.

The Dhanuk section are not very numerous and are in babits akin to the Arakhs, but are said to keap pigs und the other two groups often diselaim. connection with them. There appeurs to be no sort of doubt as to the blood. connection between the two first groups, who admit it readily.

The children of both Raj-Khangars and Arakhs are always called after the facher's sept, and on marrying the woman -adopts the husband's sept name as, hers. The totemism exhibited by the septs is shewn in the scheme.

We see that the Raj-Khangars have apparently kept their old sept names (numbers 7 and 8, 8 and 3, 9 and 4) while becoming Hindus. They are an example of the 4 ch class of conversion as given by Mr. Risley. We have here a whole section of a tribe converted to Hinduism without abandoning the tribal name and retaining its totemistic exogamous sub-divisions. It will be interesting to see if in 10 or perhaps better 20 years this tribe will have for- ${ }^{-1}$ gotten its totems and taken to mere high eounding designations, their Hindu customs being more and more rigid, and hypergainy introduced. The Arakktoo, may be, will have risen in the social scale.
(c) Fall from caste to tribe:-

The tribe or perhaps more property caste I intend to give a brief descrip-' tion of, below is an instance of retrogression.

The Sondhias or Sundhias are fonhd in Malwa. Their name is said to be derived from their place of habitation on the Sindh and Kali Sindh rivers., The clan, as it now stands, is said to be a mixed one. Tradition assigns this; cause for it.

In the days of Shail Jaban a battle was fought at Fatchahad (near Ujjain). The Rajputs were worsted. Considering themselves disuraced the remnants. of the army were ashamed to shew their faces at bome. They, therefore, stay: ed where they were and took up their residence in Malwa. In this part of the country the Sondhias lived. These people readily gave their daughters to the Rajputs. Thus arose a mised race and the Rajput names now found mingled with the old Sondhi sept names thus originated. As we now find them the Sondhias can be divided into two divisions, the Rajput septs and the pure Sondhi septs.

The 24 septs into which the caste is divided are all exogamous divisions and give, moreozer, an example of Hypergamy.

The first ten septe, the Rajput septs have kept up, as it were, the old distinctions and although they will take daughters from the other septs, 11 to 24 , they will not give their daughters to them. The septs, from 11 to 54 , will interchange daughters freely.

In other ways too they shew a lapse from the strict laws of Hinduism. Some forty to fifty years ago widow marriage was quite unknown among the first ten septs, but gradually the strictness on this point relaxed and now all septs indulge in it freely.

Their religion is of a mixed kind partly that of the Sondhias and partly Eindu. When they first settled in the country they were little more than a predatory gang, but the greater efficiency of the police arrangements now-adays has made them settle and take to agriculture.

They employ Brahmans often in important ceremonies. They are said not to shew signs of progress, and not to be inclined at all to schooling or to improving their position:

## B.-STATISTICAL.

## Logal and selected Caste groups.

150. Local Caste.-The castes of Central India, and I am omitting all jungle tribes and those castes who are on the border land between a tribe and a caste from this category, are to all intents and purposes the same as those found in other parts of India.

There are, however, certain local groups, which owing to long residence in this part of the country or for other reasons have lost all touch with the parent stock and, although often bearing the same name, are still unable to associate with or intermarry with the original group. It is only these local groups that I propose to mention, and that but briefly. The Census records do not, I must add, give figures for these groups.
(a) Brabimans.

Generally speaking the Brahmans found in Central India are the same as those in the sarrounding eountry, whence indeed they came but in pany cases local, and now distinct groups are to be met with, who are distinguished by the "title" Maiw' or Bundelkbandi, etc., as the case may be. It would appear that there are some 79 main classes represented by about 84 clans.

The main classes are .Malwi, Nemari, Bundelkhandi, Audich, Marwari, Dakshani and Meivari. The Malwi and Bundelkhandi are the only groups which especially concern us.

The Malui group, in which we may include the Nemari, contains 11 sub-castes and the Bundelkhandi group 7, while there are 11 more sub-divisions which are of somewhat less importance, making in all 29 sections of Brahmans connected with Central India.
(1) Malwi Audumbar (Panch-Dravid):

The original stock belongs to Gujarath. The name is popularly said to be derived from the Audumbar tree under which their founder ased to sit at his devotions.

There are two sections, the Malui and Gujarathi.
The Malwi section has lost all connection with the other section and furms now a separate endogamous group which will not even feed with the parent group.

Both these groups are further sub-divided into endogamous groups Lad, Abhyantara, Potachor, and Rodwal, each of these groups being divided into exogamous sections.

The Potachor and Rodwal groups have, however, lately begun to feed together and intermarry.

All these groups eat kachchi together. They are found in Indore' and Ujjain chiefly.
(2) Bawise (Panch-Gaur Maithili).

This group is descended from Maithil Brahmans.
The story of the section now living in Malwa is this :-
In the days of Raja Bhoj of Dhar a great sacrifice was to be performed. For the proper conduct of this Raja Bhoj sent for 22 Brahmans. They came and officiated but refused all Dakshna for doing so, saying that Maithil Brahmans never took it.

When all the people were going home the Raja gave Itr Pan all round. In the leaves given to the Brahmans were concealed papers giving them grants of land.

As soon as they discovered the papers they threw away the Pan and returned home.

They reported what had happened to their caste-fellows. A panchayat was held and it was ned that, though they had received dakshna unwittingly, still they had broken a caste rule and could no longer mix with the rest of the group.

Thus out-casted they returned to Diar and were given the grants of land they had refused.

From their number they were called Bawise. They now form an endogamous group which eat kachchi among themselves and milk-pakki with any. Brahman. Their head-quarters are at Dhar.
(3) Chauwise (Panch-Dravid).

The original stbek came from Gujaratb, but the Malwi section is now a distinct endogamous division and cannot feed with the parent. group. There were 24 families who were outcasted and formed this group, hence their name. They are for the most part preceptors to the Bania class.
: (4)" Triwari-Mewari (Panoh-Dräid).
As the name shews they came originally from Mewar.
The name Triwari is only a corruption of Trivedi. There are three sectious: : Gujarathi, : Malvoi' and Bagri. They all intermarry and eat pakki together: Fachchithey only eat within the group, but milk-pakki with all Brahmans. . They are mostly found in Jaora, Bagli and Bhopal.

- (5) Ofalvi Nagar (Panch-Dravid.)

Originally from Gujarath. They have lost all connection with other Nagars and are a distinct endogamous group. They are met with chiefly in Indore, Dewas and Shajapur.
(6) Dasora (Panch-Dravid).

They were originally Prashrora Nagars. Ten families, however, came into Malwa where they intermarried with the people of the country and lost caste. They now form an endogamous group who eat kachchi among themseives.

They were once attacked by robbers but were rescued by a Rajput, called Hada Singh. This personage has now developed into the tutelary deity of the group. Another legend is connected with these people:-

A large number of them were washing in the river at Mandsaur during the Shravani festival. They were attacked by thieves and many killed. Since that day no Dasora Brahman will use or touch the water of this river.

There is a change of dress going on in this group, who are adopting Marathi dress instead of their own. It appears that the change is only affecting males, the women of the group still retaining their own costume.
(7). Jambu (Panch-Dravid).

Originally from Gujarath. Are found chiefly in Nimar and Malwa.
The local groups have no connection with the parent stock and form separate endogamous sections.
$\therefore$ - In the Skanda Purana the parent stock of these Brahmans is said to be descended directly from Brahma.

Two reasons for their name are given, one that it is the name of a tree [totemistic ? ] the other after a river on whose bank they lived.
(8) Naramdeo. [properly Narmadiga] (Panch-Dravid).

These Brahmans as their name implies live on the banks of the Narbada. They are mentioned in the Skanda Purana as dwelling by this stream.

They are found in Barwani state and in Nimar.
(9) Sikwal (Panch-Gaur). .

Originally from Northern India. They are met with in Ujjain mostly. Two sections exist, the Marwari and Malwi, which are separate endogamous groups eating kachchi within the group.
(10) Nalwi Audich (Panch-Gaur).
a From the North of India originally the parent stock being found round Delhi.

About A. D. 1,000 or 1,100, Molraj, Raja of Gujarath settled some of these Brahmans in his country ( $v$. Sristal). One thousand families were brought over and consequently the Gujarathi section, from which the Malni section sprang, are still known as the Sahasra.

The Malui and Gujarathi groups are both separated from the parent stock, and also from each other, being distinct endogamous groups who eat kachchi among themselves.
(11) Nagda (Panch-Gaur).

From the North of India originally. They are met with mostly in the Rampura pergana of the Indore state, and in the district round Agar. Some
of them are Sondhi speakers having lived so long in Sondhwara that they have adopted the dialect, losing their own.

Bundelkhandi.-We will now consider those Brahmans who have become localised in the east of the Agency, in Bundelkhand and baghelkhand.

There is no mention in any of the Puranas of the Brahmansin thia part of India, and it is therefore probable that their settlement here is of later date than that of the Kalwi sections. This country came under Aryan influence later than the western side, Gond and Khanyar rulera still holding sway after the Rajput had already established his sovereignty on the Plateau.

The Sama Sanhita says that the Sanadh Brahmans, who are the most important of those found in these parts, came from Northern Iudia, and adopted Brij (the country round Mathura and Brindaban) as their home.
(1). Sanadh (Panch-Gaur)

They came originally from the country round Mathura, and are found in Central India chiefly in Bundelkhand and Baghelkhaind and the country north of Gwalior. They form a separate local endogamous group which eats kachichi within the group and pakki with all other Bundelkhandi Brabmans, this group has 20 exogamous sub-divisions. They have four sections, Brijwasi the original stock, Bundelkhandi, these are the most important and the largest groups, Marwari and Bagri.

The name is derived from San "austerity" and adhaya "wealth" or "completeness," their founder having been a perfect ascetic. "In the NorthWest Provinces they intermarry with Kanaujiyas and Gaurs but in Central India this does not appear to be the case.
(2) Bhagor (Panch-Gaur.)

Name from their place of residence.
They are an endogamous group who eat kachchi within the group only but pakki with all other Brahmans of Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand. They have 5 exogamous sub-divisions among them.

They are met with in Bundelkhand, Baghelkhand, and in the country north of Gwalior.
(3) Bundelkhandi Jijhotia (Panch-Gaur).

The original home of these people is in Antarved that is the: country between the Ganges and Jumna.

They were introduced into Central India by Jujhar Singh, Raja of Orcbha [A. D. 1739] who gave them grants of land. They settled down and became localised as a separate endogamous group. They have 71 exogamous groups.

The sections into which they are divided are Jijhotia, original stock living round Delhi, Bundelkhandi. Jijhotia and Malwi Jijhotia described later on.
(4). Gware (Panch-Gaur).

A local group named from place of residence.
(5) Rivori (Panch-Gaur).

A local group.
(6) Rishiwart (Panch_Gaur).

So called as their founder worshipped the seven Rishis in hopes of getting a son. A son being born and considered as a gift from the Rishis ultimately started a local group.
(7) Gola purab (Panch-Gaur).

An offrhoot of the Golapurabs of the North-West Provinces.
They are not high class Brahmans. They form a local endogamous group * in Bundelkhand.
151. Local Brahman Castes of less importance connected with Central India:-
(1) Malwi Shrigode (Panch-Gaur).

Originally from the north of India from Shrinagar. Form a local endogamous group and quite separate from the parent stock. The Zamindar of Indore is a Shrigode Brahman of this group. His ancestor Rao Nand Lal assisted Malhar Rao Holkar to invade Malwa. (Malcolm Central India I-68).
(2) Mewari Shrigode (Panch-Gaur).

Originally as the name implies from Mewar but found in many parts of Malwa. Now a separate local endogamous group, eating kachchi within the groüp and milk-pakki with all Brahmans.
(3) Sera Shrigode (Panch-Gaur).

Found in Rampura and Nimar. Are an endogamous local group. Name derived from place of residence.
(4) Morphikda Malwi (Panch-Gaur).

Found in Gujarath and Malwa. The legend is that Jaipal, the Raja of Gujarath, presented their ancestors with a peacock feather chavra as a mark of respect. This they always wear at assemblies, etc., and thus acquired their name. They seem to have separated somewhat from the parent stock, and to be separating out still more.
$\therefore$ (5) Sanchora Shrigode (Panch-Gaur).
Started from Malwi Shrigode. Are an endogamous group, the name comes from Sanchari "Wanderer," or " one who enters" as their forebears used to wander about.
(6) Gujargaur Malwi (Panch-Gaur).

Came originally from Northern India but the Malwi group appears to have come from Gujarath. The Malwi group is local and endogamous. They are found chiefly in पjjain and Indore. They are divided into two sections Moti Sambha and Chhoti Sambha, which are endogamous groups. There is a small Marwari section, but they appear to be less particular than the other two as they eat pakki not only with all Brahmans but even with many Vaish castes.
(7) Audumber Potachor (Panch-Dravid).

From Gujarath originally. They intermarry with Rodwal and feed with them. . This is, however, a comparatively late institution. They are found in Dewas and Indore and are generally Genealogists and Astrologers.
(8) Audumber Rodwal (Panch-Dravid):

From Gujarath. Similar to Potachor, named from place of residence.'
These two groups are descended from Audich.
(9) Jijhotia Malvi (Panch-Gaur).

Similar to but less important than the Bundelkhandi group.
(10) Shrimali Malwi (Panch-Gaur).

Some 50,000 Sbrimalis of the parent stock came to Central India." Here they formed a local endogamous group. The poet Magh was a Mulwi Shrimali as was Kavi Dalpatram Dayabhai, C. I. E., the Kavishwar (Poet-laareate) of Gujarath.
(11) Khodi (Panch-Gaur). No information as yet.

> (b).-Kshatriyas.

## 152. Local Rajputs:-

The Kshatriyas of Central India are on the whole the same as those of the North.West Provinces and Rajputana. The West of the Agency particularly is nostly peopled by Kshatriyas who sprang from, and still keep up their, connection with the great families of Rajputana.

The on!y groups which can be said to be distinct and local are the Baghelas of Baghelkhand and the Bundelas, Parmars, Dhanderes and Chandelas of Bundelkhand.

The Baghelas are connected with and marry inta Rajputana families, but the other groups are distinct.

## Bundelkhandi Kshatriyas:-

This local group is always known as Thakur in distinction to the term Kajput, which designates a class of lower social position in Bundelkhand.

The Thakurs are an endogamous local group divided into three exogamous sections, Bundela, Dhandere and Parmar. They have no connection with any other Rajput class. They marry their children at a later age than most people.

The Dhanderes and Parmars say they are respectively descended from Ponwars of Dhar and Chauhans.

They assisted a former Raja of Bundelkhand and being given land became localised severing all connection with the original stock.

There is a curious custom among the people of this group. They never allow their women to wear any metal save gold anywhere above the feac.

On the feet they wear silver butif they cannot afford to wear gold ornaments above the feet, they must wear lac, or nothing. On no account must another metal be carried.

The Thakurs are very strict as regards the Pardos system.
The legendary tales about the origin of this family assign the rise of the race to one Pancham Gahirwar who in S. 1311 (A.D. 1254) became a votary at a shrine of Devi in the Vindhiyas. He determined to sacrifice himself and drawing a sword applied it to his neck. The goddess intervened, but he had already broken the skin' and one drop of blood fell. The drop, when it touched the ground, sprang up as a boy. His son and his suceessors were called Bundelas from "Bund" a drop in commemoration of the blood spilt. The goddess blessed Panoham and the boy, telling him he would become a king.

Another tale attributes the name to "bandi" a slave girl. This family
heing descended from mixed union between a Khangar slave girl and a Rajput. This would seem the most probable story and there are other facts which support this theory.

Chandel. -They came from Mahoba. They drove out the old original Gond rulers of the country but lost their position when the Moghals came into power. . .

Baghelas.-They are of the Agnikula race and Solanki Fansh. They came ipto Baghelkhand when the Mahomedans were subduing the country and overturning the old kingdom. Curiously enough it was in the days of Akbar that this section of Baghela Rajputs rose to importance, as Albbur and his mother were both received and looked after by Raja Ram Baghel when Sher Shah was asserting his rights in the usual oriental manner.

The name is derived either from that of Sid Bhag Rao an ancestor (see Tod, who therefore spells the name Bhagel) or else, which is very likely a totemistic title, after the tiget. There is a legend narrating hew one of the founders of the race was nursed by one of these beats.
153. The Selected Castes, and Tables referring to them.-The selection of certain castes for special treatment was not, I found, at all an easy matter. I liad little or no information on which tu go in making' my choice. To have taken all. who returned over a certain number would, I found, have made the list troublesomely long, while groups of local importance were not always included.

I cannot say that in the light of my present experience the selection. is the best that could have been made, but it will be easier to correct the list on a future occasion when the Ethnographic survey as well as our present experience will be at hand to assist us.

Seventeen Hindu, four Mahomedan, two Jain and twelve Animistic groups have been taken,

The selection of the Animists has been already dealt with in Chapter III.
Jijhotia Brahmans.-The Jijhotias of Bundelkhand are locally an important.group. They and the Sazadh Brahmans being the most influential on this side of Central India. They are sprung from the Kanaujiyas of the North-West Provinces. The Kanaujiyas are so named from the city of Kanyakubja whence they came.

They have three great sub-divisions, Sarwaria, Jijhotia and Sanadh ; lllliot says the Jijhotias rank low in public estimation. "Their correct name is Yajur-hota derived originally, it is said, from their having made burnt offerings according to the form of the Yajur Veda" (Elliot). The Bua-delkhand group say their name is derived from that of Jujhar Singh of Orchha in whose time they came to Bundelkhand.

However it appears they are in truth only an offshoot of the NorthWest Provinces Jijhotias.

The legend of their migration is this. Jujhar Singh, Raja of Orchba in S. 1678 (A.-D. 1651) gave a sacrifice and invited Brahmans from all sides. The Kanaujiyas refased his invitation and gifts, and would not come. He referred the matter to Kanauj asking the reason for it. Some of the Kanauj Brahmans hearing what was going on accepted and came. Thirteen came and afterwards remained in the country being given Jagirs for their maintenance.

The Bundelkhandi Jijhotias are divided into 71 exogamous groups. Of these the first 13 as descended from the 13 Brahmans who originally came
over consider themselves superior. These divisions are called the 13 patas. The other 58 divisions are called the 58 Panchadars, and seem to have arisen lately. As can be seen from their names they are mostly territorial.

The groups all intermarry but certain families of the Pataś will not give their daughters to the Panchadars. This tendency to hypergamy is not, however, general between the divisions in the two groups. -

Early marriage is the rule. No gifts are given to the bridegroom before the marriage is celebrated. The group will eat pakki with all Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Kayasthas of Bundelkhand.

They are well educated and act as Pandits, Pujaris and Gurus. They are much looked up to locally.

$$
\text { Ajna ... ... ... . ... . } \quad . .23,349
$$

Ajnas were taken because they appear to have been an isolated local group. Unfortunately record in their case is practically worthless. The Census Commissioner of Gwalior State, where they were mostly found, says that these returns are evidently quite incorrect through carelessness in enumerating. I have, therefore, been obliged to omit them in my discussions.

Crookes, Elliott and Risley make no mention of them but Sherring says they are peculiar to Central India.

Agarwal ... .... ... ... . ... $41,637$.
They are not, of course, a local group being met with generally in Northern India, but are of importance among the trading section of the Central India community. They say they are descended from Dhan Pal, king of Partabnagar, who had eight sons who founded eight gotras into which they say they are divided.

Crookes says they get their name from the town of Agroha in Hissar. King Ugrasen of that place having had seventeen sons from whom they were descended. The local Agarwals put Ugrasen as ninth in descent from Dhan Pal. They are mostly Vaishnav Hindus and are together with Mahesris the biggest opium traders of Central India.

Mahesri ... ... ... ... ... 19,935.
Not a local group but a very influential one. They derive their name from Maheshwar (Shiva). Their founder was son of Khandsen, king of Khandprasth. He went out shooting one day and being weary he and his 72 Sirdars proposed to bathe; in a tank where some Rishis were sacrificing. They begged him not to do so till the sacrifice was over. He paid no heed. The holy men then cursed him with immobility. After much prayer on the part of their relatives and friends Shiva (Maheshwar) released them from this curse on the understanding that they resigned their Kshatriya rank. They became Vaishyas and adopted Mahesri as their name. They are mostly Hindus : a few are Jains. They are, as a rule, of the Vallabh: achari or Ramanandi sect. They are great traders in Opium.

$$
\text { Oswal ... ... ... ... ... } \begin{aligned}
& \text { Hindu } 6,159 . \\
& \text { Jain } 48,282 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Also of local importance. They are descended from Upaldeo Ponwar. In A. D. 165 they were converted to Jainism by a Jain Yati called Ratna Prabhuji. They are nearly all Swetambari Jains but at the same time
worship Devi. They may be commonly seen in Indore with a broad saffron mark across the forehead under which there is a small crimson dot representing Devi.

Their name is derived from that of 0 ssi, 0 ssa or 0 ssanagar, a town in Marwar. Tod says "it is a curious fact though little known that the" "pontiffs of the faith must be selected from youths of 0 ssi."

Other castes were taken as generally representative of a numerous class, or as of special local interest.

Dhangars :.. ... ... ... ... 10,361.
Taken on account of their peculiar position with regard to the Indore State whose Chief belongs to this caste. The name is from Dhenukara dealer in cows (Wilson).

Marathas ... ... ... ... ... 34,305.
Were similarly taken as representing the warrior caste of the Marathi speaking race.

The rest require no comment.

## 154. Selected Caste returns :-

I do not think it would repay us to go very minutely into the figures of Table XIV, but if we take certain representative groups and follow them through the table we may be able to draw some general conclusions. I do not think that the accuracy of the figures warrants our doing more.

I will, therefore, take Agarwal Banias (2), Jijhotia (6), Shrigode (7), Shrimali (8) Brahmans, and Rajputs (16), Bhils (26), Bhilalas (27), and Gonds (28).

These examples are drawn from different strata of the social system, 5 belonging to the castes proper, and 3 to tribal communities. Of these last the Gond has considerable pretensions to Hinduism.

Two other minor comparisons may be made, one between Jijhotia and Shrimali Brahmans, as representing the people of the Lowlying and Plateau country or East and West of the Agency, and the other between Oswals of the Jain and Hindu sections of the commanity.

## Males.

General.-Taking all ages together we find the tribes show the greatest number of bachelors, Bhils showing about 50 per cent., the more hinduised Gonds 43 per cent. or 7 per cent. less, while Hindu figures vary from 41 per cent. for Agarwals to 30 per cent. for Shrimali Brahmans. This difference is due to the later marriage age of the tribes, which leaves a lot of youths in the prime of life still bachelors.

The figures for Jijhotias and Shrimalis seem to show that it is less easy for the Eastern castes to find husbands than for the West, or else child-marriage is less in vogue. This, however, is not reported to be so.

The Jain Oswals as compared with the Hindu seem to marry later.
The widower figures bring out the gustoms clearly. The castes come first with the greatest number, the tribal figures being much lower, the bighest being 12 per cent. below the lowest Hindu figure. The great expense of remarriage among castes is responsible for this.

224-III-2.

294 \& 295-III-
$18,20 \& 22$.

225-III-30.

There is no great difference between East and West, but the Jain Oswals shew fewer widowers than the Hindu which, taking their great trealth into consideration, is what one would expect.

Infant and child marriage, $0-5:-$ There is nothing much to be made of the, figures till we come to $12-15$ period.

Hindu figures run from 43 per cent. married among Jijhotias to 19 per cent. among Shrimalis. The tribes are far behind, their highest figure being 6 per cent. behind the lowest caste figure. This shews the difference in custom.

Between East and West, there is the large difference of 24 per cent. I can scarcely think this return is correct. Jain Oswals shew 27 per cent. less married at this age that Hindu Oiwals do. together and there is nothing to be said about them.

Widowers.-The last period shews us that there are more widowers among castes than tribes. This is due to marriage expenses as I have already stated. I must say that I think the Bhil figure is too high. East and West. shew a difference of 3 per cent. the East re-marrying more. .Oswal Jains shew more widowers than their Hindu caste fellows, which is not what I should have expected.

## Females.

Female figures are more important, but unfortunately are also much more inaccurate.

Taking all ages there are more married women anong the castes than among the tribes.

Infant and child marriage, $0-5:-$ There is no infant marriage to speak of the figures only reaching 2 per cent. at the 0.5 period.

Gonds shew a high figure at $5-12$.
The 12-15 period brings out the castes first with an average of 45 per cent. married, the tribes having 26 per cent. Gonds are to the fore.

The less hinduised Bhils and Bhilalas do, not show so much sign of infant marriage.

There is 33 per cent. difference between the highest figure for a tribe and the lowest for a caste.

The East shews most married, as do Jain Oswals.
Youth and prime of life, 15-40:-There is nothing to be said of these figures which are all nearer together.

Widowhood.-There are no returns between $0-12$ worth considering. At 12-15 Hindu caste figures range from 14 per cent. to 5 per cent., tribal from 8 per cent. to 5 per cent. Tribal figures are lowest generally, owing to the greater prevalance of widow re-marriage. Jain 0 swals shew 11 per cent. more widows at 40 than Hindu Oswals.

Our general conclusions are that infant marriage is not very prevalent anywhere, child marriage more common among castes than tribes and widow re-marriage among tribes.

The East of the Agency re-marries widows more freely, Jain Oswals, as would be supposed, discountenance widow re-marriage more than their Hindu caste fellows.
155. Proportion of the sexes in selected castes.-The proportion of the sexes is nowhere very extraordinary save in the case of Ajnas. Their return is, however, the Gwalior Census Officer informs me, wholly unreliable and there is no reason to suppose that female infanticide exists among them at all.

The question of infanticide in Central India wais first raised in 1881 . when a Circular letter was issued by the Government of India calling for statistics of all convictions for infanticide in states of Central India during the last five years.

The return shewed only five convictions. In forwarding the statement Sir Lepel Grifin snid that he understood from the circular that what had been called for was a general return of the murder by mothers of illegitimate children, and not what was generally recognized as female infanticide. Of female infanticide as generally understood he said "I doubt not the custom ......is largely practised in Central India especially among tribes and clans of Rajputs." The next reference to the subject was made in 1893 when the Political Agent in Baghelkhand reported that the deficiency of girls under ten in certain villages of Riwa State was suspicious. Rules were then framed and applied to certain villages.

The rules appear to have had some effect as the report in 1895 on their working shews the difference to be much less. Thus in 1893 there were 484 boys to 102 girls, or 210 girls to 1,000 boys. In 1895 the ratio was 867 girls to 1,000 boys and in 1896, 600 girls to 1,000 boys. On this occasion it is 640 girls to 1,000 boys.

The tehsild in which these villages fall shew a general population of boys and girls under 10 years of age as below:-

| Tehsils | $\ldots$ |  | Boys. |  | Girls. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Huzur | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 35,798 |  | 40,338 |
| Teonthar | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 11,722 |  | 12,291 |
| Madhogarh | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 15,537 | $:$ | 15,674 |
| Whole Riwa State | $\ldots$ | 161,213 |  | 163,798 |  |

Girls are thus everywhere in excess.
Generally speaking in this connection it may be mentioned that in the North-West Provinces infanticide is not suspected in a tract until the ratio of girls to 1,000 boys, under 12, falls to 666 , and no proclamation under Act VIII of 1870 is made until it falls to 613 (Punjab Census Report 1881).

The ratio, therefore, on this occasion would under these rules give reason for suspicion, but not require an immediate application of the Act. However, data are scanty I am not prepared to vouch for their accuracy, as sub-caste returns are apt to be faulty. The return for Rajputs generally gives 950 svomen to $1,000 \mathrm{men}$, and at $0-5$ and $5-12$, the age at which this infanticide is carried out, if done at all, the ratios are 1,042 and 943 girls to 1,000 boys respectively.

The custom is not, therefore, common to all Rajputs. It may be so in a few special tribes, but before this can be definitely determined more data are wanted. -

Generally the custom does not exist.
156. Polygamy.-Among the Hindu castes only 6 : ohew an excess of wives over husbands, Shrigode Brahman 106 wives to 100 husbands, Gelot 107, Kandera 101, Khangar 102, Rajput 105 and Sondhia 107.

The Animists have 7 tribes out of the 12 who shew an excess of wives, Arakh 126 wives to 100 husbands a rather high figure, Bharud 122, Gond 106, Kol 108, Kotwal 110, Mina 110, Patlia 107. It is only among these tribes that any very large preponderance of wives is found.

Some of the ratios at the different age-periods are quite inexplicable.
157. Variation in caste figures.- 0 wing to the classification of 1891 in which no separation of castes and sub-castes seems to have been made; 1 am afraid comparison gives us no results of any value, though where possible I have combined sub-castes.

The figures speak for themselves. It can be seen at once that they were made out on two different and noncomparable systems,

The Animist figures may perhaps be considered as being more or less on the same basis.
158. Social precedence in castes.-It has been almost impossible to reconcile the different positions given to the castes and tribes by different states. All I could do was to arrange them as near the average position as possible noting where there were any great variations in the place assigned.

The classification adopted was based on feeding and the giving of water which appeared to be the best method of distinction to employ. The classifcation follows that devised by the Census Superintendent of the North-West Provinces. The table explains itself. The order is certain to displease many, I fear.

## 159. Infuence on.Mahomedanism of Hindu surroundings.

The influence of Hindu surroundings on the Mahomedan popalation of Central India is very marked. It is especially noticeable in customs relating to marriage, dress and food.

The marriage ceremonies are so Hindu in character that it is not at first sight always possible to distinguish between a Hindu and a Mahomedan wedding. The following rites among others are adopted from the Hindus :-

The bridegroom is decorated with the Sehra, the wreath which he wears on the forehead made of flowers bound with gold and silver thread, the wristlet (Kangna) is also worn, his head is covered with the magan, a veil of red cloth, the bridegroom and bride are subjected to maiyan, the seclusion in the parents home which takes place a few days before the marriage, the bridegroom and bride are rubbed all over with pithi, a mixture of $g u r$ and, turmeric (ubatna ceremony), Joshis are called in to determine the muhurta as in the case of a Hindu wedding, coloured clothes are used, flowers are scattered, a mandwa is set up and the usual Hindu offering made, including that to a married woman (sawoashna). It is interesting to note that this presentation of an offering to a saucashna cannot be made by a bride who bas been converted to Islamism.
. ${ }^{\text {TThere one other minior customs which are often obseried also such as the }}$ abuse of the men at the end of the feast.

The regular barat of the Hindus is always used, dancing girls are hired, music is played and the bridegroom goes in procession through the town calling on his relations.

The eges of the corpse are anointed with black lead. On the 3rd day afrer the funeral all the relatives assemble and a pagari is presented to the deceased's heir. Women lament at the tomb, strew flowers, burn incense, etc.

The observance known as Phul is carried out. The deceased's. widow is forbidden ever to wear ornaments again and widow re-marriage is looked at askunce.

As regards dress and appearance Mahomedans commonly shave their benrds, young men wear Hindu jewellery such as the kantha and kara, nlso $d$ hotiós and Hindu pagaris are common, especially among the lower classes 'such as Rangrez, Nayata, etc. Women wear Lehenga and Lugra in Hindu fashion instead of Pyjamas and kurti, the choli and Odhani are ordinarily worn. Hindn ornaments are used by women such as the "Bori" on the hair and bangles. The right hand is covered with ornaments but on the left only bangles are morn. The ornaments are common. The tika mark is used, and mehendi applied to the bands and feet. The Angarkha among men is fastened on the right Hindu fashion, instead of on the left.

In feeding, too, Hindu customs prevail. Thus in many places the Maho-• medans take off their clothes, and perform ablutions also, liping the place where they eat. The women have to feed apart and very often each man has a separate dish. Brass utensils are common, beef is not eaten, even when procurable, the meal is served in parts separately to guard against polution, food is not taken in a sisters, or daughter's house. 'I have even known Mahorredan servants refuse cakes, etc., sent in a dali because they asserted that they might have been cooked by a low caste man.

Other miscellaneous customs are also met with.
Money is lent out at interest but under covert terms, excommunication. from a community takes place just as outcasting among. Hindus and entails penaluies, the barber will not shave him, no one will bring him drinking water, or smoke a chilam with him. Divorce is very difficult to get and often means the payment of a considerable sum on the part of the girls' people. .

Mahomedan Faqir disciples call themselves Balkas and inherit their teacher's property.

Till comparatively lately the Mahomedan Iav of succession was not followed in Barwani state much to the loss of Mahomedan women, now, however, it is understond.

The Dasehra, Divali, Holi and Rakisha Bandhan, are kept. Some of the lower classes, though Mahomedans, never observe Mahomedan forms of worship, they worship Blavaani and Sitala Mata, the goddess of small pox is invariably pr pitiated, goats are sacrificed at the tombs of Mahomedan pirs who are practically treated as if they were gods, astrologers are called in to name the lucky hour for a journey or undertaking, and Brabmans are employed to cast horoscopes at births.

The Chuti Godhbhirnx and other feasts relating to domestic matters are. kept. Hindu names are very common, i. e., Ganga, Marraj; Jamuni, Kesri, etc.' , The cistoms are not all followed in any one place and in Bhopal or Jaora town the influence of Mahomedanism is very strong of course and the observances: more strictly Musalman in character. The, Hindu chief is commonly the Kazi of the state. He delegates porver to Naib Kuzis who are Mahomedan Mullahs but final decisions rest with him. This power appears generally to have come ${ }^{t}$, the chief when the Mahomedin rule declined.
160. Influence of Mahomedans on Hindus:-This is of course not so marked as the opposite influence and does not much affect minprematters:- The most. noticeable effect it has is as regards festivals and specially the Muharram. This festival is kept by aluost all. Hindus while many also keep the Shab-i-barat and $I d$.

The Muharram is always the scene for general holiday especially in Maratha states. In his "Letters from a Maratha Camp" Broughton gives an interesting account of this festival. He remarks that "the universal ardour "with which the Hindoos participate in its ceremonies is curious enough." "Every one turns Fuqeer ; that is he wears some green rage, with a string" "of green or red cotton yarn tied up like beads across his shoulders, and goes" "about begging from such acquaintance as are fools enough to give bim any" "thing." He mentions how the Muha Raj was a "Faqueer during the whole of the Moobaram." This, same enthusiastic general participaiion exists now. a-days, as those who have witnessed the festival in Indore will have seen for themselyes; Sunnis take as much part in sending Tazyar, joining in the procession etc., as the Shias, and all rich and important Hindus send Tazyas, This custom seems to have been always more prevalent in these parts than in other parts of India. A writer in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society many • years ago noted that "the Mooharam is celebrated throughout the" "Delhan and Malwa with greater enthusiasm than in any other parts of" "India. Grand preparations are made in every town on the occasion as if for" " $a$ festival of rejoicing rather than of observing the rites of mourning, as" "they ought."

In Mahomedan torns like Bhopal and Jiora Hindus dress and spenk liké Mahomedans and are not distinguishable. This is especially so with the Kayasthas and Kashmiri Pandits. These people have discarded the use of the Iikka among other things. I am informed also that the Jain merchants of these towns have taken to eating after sundown. Men wear pyjamas and sufas instead of dlotis and Hindu pagaris, even tinṇed pote are occasionally: found in the bands of Hindus. The tombs of Hindu saints are reverenced.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.
Casté, Tribe and Race by Social Precedence.

 Re bachi from any other Eruhmans excent those of their own chass:
. SUBSIDIARY TABLE-I.
Crsse; Tribe and Race log Sociab Precedences


## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.

Caste, Tribé and Race by Social Prccedence.


SUBSIDIARY TAELEI,
Caste, Tribe and Race by Social Preceedence.

| - Casto, Tribe and Race. | Persong. | Males. |  |  | Remarbs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Beldar . ... | 6,964 | 3,758 | 3,206 | $\cdots$ |  |
| Kointi - ... | 1,267 | 737 | 530 | ... |  |
| Kharaola ... | 2,871 | 1,556 | 1,315 | ... |  |
| Klaugar . ... | 32.988 | 16,727 | 16,261 | $\cdots$ |  |
| Mirilla . ... | 10,038 | 6,139 | 4,899 | .. |  |
| Chubdar ... | 1,186 | 715 | 471 | ... |  |
| Khatik ... | 19,301 | 10,362 | 8,939 | ... | Bundelkhand place them in XI. - ... |
| Kandera | 17,480 | 9,633 | 7,797 | ... |  |
| Lakhera ... | 9,565 | 4,988 | 4,583 | ... | - . |
| Lania - | 6,311 | 3,143 | 3,168 | ... | ¢ . . |
| Dholi | 80,594 | 40,483 | 40,111 | ... | Do. ? $\quad . \quad . \mathrm{Do}$ |
| Dhuli | 9,260 | 4,533 | 4,727 | $\ldots$ | : |
| Silawat | 4,419 | 2,089 | 2,330 | ... |  |
| Ode ... | 1,648 | 994 | 654 | $\cdots$ |  |
| Nath ... | 10,612 | 5,930 | 4,682 | ... |  |
| Agaria ... | 3,665 | 1,823 | - 1,842 | ... |  |
| Bitligar ... | 6,118 | 2,825 | 3,203 | ... |  |
| Teli . ... | 163,028 | 82,814 | 80,214 | ... |  |
| Bargahi . ... | 3,730 | 1,860 | 1,870 | $\cdots$ |  |
| Mochi | 5,819 | 3,242 | 2,577 | $\ldots$ |  |
| Kacherz ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 4,088 | 2,042 | 2,046 | $\cdots$ |  |
| Koli - ... | 32,268 | 16,367 | 15,901 | ... |  |
| Kori . ... | 141,541 | 73,943 | 67,598 | ... |  |
| Matha $\quad \cdots$ | 1,971 | 1,075 | 896 | ... |  |
| Total Group $X \quad \cdots$ | 863,836 | 341,718 | 322,118 | $8 \cdot 45$ |  |
| Group XI.-Luw Castes whose touch is defiling but who do not eat beet. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Balai ... | 204,072 | 97,216 | 106,856 | ... |  |
| Dargunda (Basor) ... | 38,135 | 19,954 | 18,181 | $\ldots$ |  |
| Dlınnuk ... | 9,698 | 4,793 | 4,903 | $\ldots$ |  |
| Chidar ... | 7,871 | 4,473 | 3,398 | ... |  |
| Mloghia . . ... | 6,383 | 3,169 | 3,232 | ... |  |
| Baluelia ... | 1,938 | 1,034 | 904 | ... |  |
| Bhambi - ... | 6,778 | 3,270 | 3,508 | $\cdots$ |  |
| Runkar | 4,590 | 2,536 | 2,054 | $\ldots$ |  |
| Dahyat ... | 2,300 | 1,161 | 1,139 | ... |  |
| Phirkar . ... | 3,402 | 1,929 | 1,473 | $\ldots$ |  |
| bum... | 5,211 | 2,358 | 2,853 | - |  |
| Mahra | 6,486 | 3,144 | 3,342 | ... |  |
| Mavar | 1,647 | 835 | 812 | ... . |  |
| Mehgwal ... | 1,184 | 591 | - 593 | ... |  |
| Mer • | 2,607 | 1,424 | 1,183 | $\cdots$ |  |

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.

Caste, Tribe and Race by Social Precedence.

| Caste, Tribe and Race. | Persobs. | Maleg. |  |  |  | Remaris. | . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 \% | - 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |  | 6 | . |
| Panika $\quad \because \ldots \ldots$ | 24,276 | 12,202 | 12,074 | ... |  |  |  |
| Pasi | - 2,813 | 1,493 | 1,320 | ... |  |  |  |
| Pamak , $\because \because \because$ | 9,286 | -4,381 | 4,905 | !.. |  |  |  |
| Rebari : . $\because, \ldots$ | 1,704 | 812 | - 892 | .* |  |  |  |
| Sendho $\because \therefore \therefore \therefore \therefore$ - | 10,886 | 6,019 | 4,867 | ... ${ }^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |
|  | 8,495 | 4,236 | 4,259 | -." ${ }^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |
| Sor $\because \because \cdots$ | 14,677 | 7,113 | 7,564 | -0* |  |  |  |
| Bhilala : . ... | 131,280 | 66,977 | 64,303 | ** |  |  |  |
| Kirar - ... | 83,778 | 48,865 | 44,913 | ". |  |  |  |
| Seheria $\quad . . \quad . \quad .$. | 44,153 | 24,727 | 18,426 | ... $\cdot$ |  |  |  |
| Darman | - 594 | 357 | 237 | $\cdots$ |  |  |  |
| Total Group X1 ... | 644,242 | 325,069 | 319,173 | 8.07 |  |  |  |
| Gronp XII.-Outcaste tribes who eat beef, carrion, etc. |  |  |  | . | , |  |  |
| Arakh . . . ... | 2,142 | 1,004 | 1,138 | ..- |  |  |  |
| Bhil . . . | 206,015 | 103,395 | 102,620 | ... |  |  |  |
| Bharad : .. $\quad . . . c)$ | 9,366 | 4,840 | 4,526 | $\cdots$ |  |  |  |
| Gond . ... | 195,015 | 95,117 | 90,898 | ** |  |  |  |
| Eorku . ... | 9,667 | 4,648 . | 5,021 | - ... |  |  |  |
| Kotwal . ... | 32,358 | 15,281 | 17,077 | ** |  |  |  |
| Kol . ... | 156,357 | 74,633 | 81,724 | ** |  |  |  |
| Mina ${ }^{\text {M }}$ | 98,216 | 49,533 | 48,683 | *** |  |  |  |
| Patlis $\quad \because, \quad .$. | 14,111 | 7,360 | 6,751 | ** |  |  |  |
| Bachhra , $\because$ - - ... | 1,484 | 711 | 773 | -.. |  |  |  |
| Nat including Karnoti. | 14,374 | 9,813 | 4,561 | - ... |  |  |  |
| Bagri $\quad \therefore \cdots \because{ }^{\text {a }}$ | 22,160 | 11,108 | 11,052 | ** |  |  |  |
| Baiga | 9,158 | 4,182 | 5,026 | ${ }^{*}$ |  |  |  |
| Bernariha $-\therefore \quad$... | 1,801 | , 912 | 889 | ... |  |  |  |
| Khangar $\because \quad \therefore \because \quad$. | 1,527 | 886 | 641 | $\infty$ |  |  |  |
| Chamar - - ... | 733,144 | 366,095 | 367,049 | -** |  |  |  |
| Mehtar - ... | 47,471 | 24,672 | 22,799 | ... |  |  |  |
| Basuba $\quad \therefore$. . ... | 2,838 | 1,547 | 1,291 | -•• |  |  |  |
| Chikwa | 1,449 | 573 | 876 | ... |  |  |  |
| Mabar $\quad \therefore$ - | 7,806 | 3,952 | 3,854 | $\cdots$ |  |  |  |
| Madba - ... | 4,299 | 2,119 | 2,180 | $\cdots$ |  |  |  |
| Mudhpal | 1,093 | 695 | 398 | ** |  |  |  |
| Nahal $\quad$, ... | 5,017 | 2,599 | 2,418 | ... |  |  |  |
| Tirkihr . . ... | 1,129 | 540 | 589 | -•• |  |  |  |
| Chirwa ... | 776 | 439 | 337 | - $*$ |  |  |  |
| Kondar ... | 7,815 | 4,281 | 3,634 | ... |  |  |  |
| Pakhin - ... | 1,146 | 693 | 553 | :.. |  |  |  |
| Ratharia ... | - 206 | 98 | 108 | ... |  |  |  |
| Thori . ... | 234 | 101 | 133 | ... |  |  |  |
| Total Group XII ... | 1588274 | 791,675 | 780,509 | 18.91 |  |  |  |

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.

Caste, Tribe and Race by Social Precedence.


JAINS.
Strictly speaking Jains recognise no castes, but as a matter of fact they keep the Hindu castes and come in class V. The Swetambari sect are to all intents and purposes Vaishya Hindus, but Digambaris and Dhundias less so.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.
Variation in Caste, Tribe and Race.


SUBSIDIARY
Civil Condition by


## TABLE III.

Age for selected castes per 1,000.


## SUBSIDIARY TABLEIV

Proportion of Sexes in Selected Castes.


## SUBSIDIARY TABLR v . <br> schemes.

These schemes illustrate the constitution of Castes, Semi-castes and Tribes. I :-Caste proper:-
(A).-Brahman.

Main division: Panch Gaud.
Group: Kanaujiya. Local endogamous section: Bundelthandi Jijhotia.

Exogamous Groups.
(1). Rawat
(2). Ajariya
(3). Richhariya
(4). Buanreriya
(5). Mishr
(a). 13 Patas.

| (6). Pathak | (11). Sullere |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (7). Avasthya | (12). Chaube |  |
| (8). Pateriya | (13). | Dikshit |

(8). Pateriya
(9). Bajpai
(10). Gangele
(b). 58 Panchadars.
(21). Adarj
(22). Bilgainya
(23). Baraniya
(24). Acharya
(25). Gunnla Dube
(26). Bagnar
(27). Bhatchariya
(28). Saraf
(29). Byas
(30). Bharoria
(31). Intola ke Dabe
(32). Jhapura ke Dube
(33). Rahele
(34). Dunele
(35). Shukul
(36:- Sirbaiyna
(37). Soti
(38). Silisa Dube
(39). Latauria
(40). Bishdeva Tiwari
(19). Agnihotri
(20). Nisrele
(41). Pathreri
(42). Dhanwari ke Tewari
(43). Dadri ke Tiwari
(44). Chhitar ke Tiwari
(45). Paroidha Dube
(46). Khareria Dube
(47). Menchhe ke lube
(48). Makrariya Dube
(49). Silal Puria Dube
(50). Kalphariya Dube
(51). Dulariya Dube
(52). Orchha ke Dube
(53). Tinga Dube
(54). Pangara Dube
(55). Chhirauriya Dube
(56). Joshi
(57). Binhare ke Tiwari
(58). Barauni ke Tivari
(12). Chaube
(13). Dikshib
(B). Kshatriya of Bundelkhand.

Main division: Rajput.
Local endogamous group: Thakur.
Exogamous divisions.
(1). Bundela.
(2). Dhandere.
(3). Parmar.

II:-
Instance of Tribe which has in part become a caste.
The Khangar's of Bundelkhand:-
Main divisions: Raj-Khangars, Arakh.
Raj Khangare.
Exogamous septs.
(1). Bel-gotia.-Revere the Bel tree which they never cut or injure. .
(2). Beln-gotia.-Revere the Bela plant and never cut it, etc.
(3). Samad gotia.-Hold the Samad tree sacred.
(4). Suraj-Profess to be descended from, and be worshippers of the sun.
(5). Guae.-Called after the iguana (Guae) which they never injure.
(6). Nag.-Revere the serpent and never destroy any snake.
(7). Ghur.-Revere the horse (Ghur, ghora) Never mount one and will not allow them to be used in marriage processions.
(8). Hathi-Revere the elephant.
(9). Gau.-Have the corv as a totem.
(10). Magar.-The alligator is their totem. Special acts of worship are paid to it at weddings, etc.
(11). Chandan-guae,-Another species of iguana. They never injure it.
(12). Kusam.-Revere the Kusam tree and never use clothes died in its juice.
(13). Nim,-Revere the Nim tree and never use its fruit or cut it.
(14). Karil.-Revere the Karil Tree.
(15). Chanwar.-Have rice as a totem. Nerer eat it.
(16). Haldi.-Revere the turmeric plant and never use its dje, etc.
(18). Bharat $_{\text {(18) }}^{\text {Bat }}$ \} Origin of name not known.

Arakgs,
Exogamous Septs:-
(1). Lahher Gotia.-Abstain from touching the Lahera tree which is their totem.
(2). Ent.-Ent, a brick. Never use bricks, all their houses are made mith plain wattle and mud.
(3). Hathi.-Revere the elephant.
(4), Gau.-Cow is worshipped.
(5). Pahan.-Not known.
(6). Chandan.-Worship the Chandan Tree and never harm it.
(7). Chanwar.-Chanwar, Rice. They never eat qice or touch it.
(8). Ghora - Revere the horse.
99. Sandal.-This is Eponymons, the sept being called after the Sandilya Brahman who saved the woman ( v . tradition of Raj-Khangars in text).
It will be noted that Sandal-gotia occurs only among the jungly section of the Tribe.
III.-Instance of semi-Rajput tribe.

Bhiláa.
Main Divisions :-Badi and Chhoti.'
Septs:-Badi.
(1). Rawat.
(2). Waskala.
(3). Tandwala,
(4). Jamra.

These four tribes form the aristocracy of the Bbilalas?
They do not drink wine or eat fowls. They have not as yet beçome a distinct

- hypergamous group but seem to be tending towards it.

There are 44 more exogamous groups in the Badi section. To give their names
would be waste of space. They are totemistic. Chhoti.
Is similarly divided into 58 septs of totemistic origin. These septs are all exogamous.
IV. Pure Iribe:-

Bhils:-
Are divided into two big endogamous groups "Badi' and "Chhoti."
Badi is divided into 52 and Chhoti into 9 exogamons groups.
They are all totemistic many eponymous but far the grenter, number called after trees, animals, etc. Very few appear to be territorial.
An instance of totemism has been given in the text.
V. Loss of Caste :-

## Sondhias.

1. Chauhan
2. Solanki
3. Pedihar
4. Parmar
5. Torwar
6. Ghalot
7. Borena
8. Kachwahe
9. Tagar
10. Mori
11. Nagod.
12. Dhulot.
13. Soti.
14. Charote.
15. Geadula.
16. Chandel.
17. Aad.
18. Lapdi.
19. Kajola.
20. Lada.
21. Amal.
22. Dhagan.
23. Jendi.
24. Bateawel,
25. Introductory. -The record with which we deal in this Cbapter was made ${ }^{\prime}$ in columns 9,10 and 11 of thescledule, and the results will be found in Imperial ${ }^{\prime}$ Tables XV and XVI. The treatment differed on this occasion from that adopted in is91.

No ages weere recorded, actual workers and dependents were separated, thile, though the general scheme of classification was the same, an attempt whs made to distinguish between makers and sellers, and between home industries and those carried on in factories.
$\uparrow$ The scheme contains 8 Classes, 24 Orders, 79 Sub-orders and 520 : Groups. In a few cases some further sub-dividing of the groups mas: made.

The record of the subsidiary as well as the principal occupations which was ${ }^{-}$ carried out on this occasion has been aseful in distinguishing between the occupation actually followed and a traditional caste occupation. Thus a Brahman who did not actually follow the occupation of a priest as a means. of livelihood, often returned it as his occupation, when in reality be at most ouly occasionally officiated at ceremonies.

- One of:the difficulties met with was the correction of entries made in general terms such as "Naukrisirhari"" Naukri dukandari"etc. I am on the whole, howerer; surprised at the care which has been used in making the entries and the details shewn; it was, moreover, often possible to correct an ambiguous entry, and the few which it was not possible to correct bear buta very small ratio to the whole return.

It must be remembered that the record of these occupations was not easy and that the class of man who acts as an enumerator in Central lndia is not, as a rule, very brilliant.

The actual number of occupations recorded is enormous, especially in; towns such as Indore, and some confusion is sure to have arisen in sub-divid-. ing, still on the whole the record is as accurate as other statistics, and a useful : one.

I would draw attention to the entry in column 11 which recorded. "Dependents. $i$ " This was found to be far the most difficult column to fill in in the whole schedule and especially so in the case of women. The rule was' that a person, who was dependent on some one for her livelihood, should be entered as dependent on the profession which the person who supported her followed.

Thus the wife of a Bhisti, who was dependent on him for her subsistence, would be returned in column 11 as "Bhisti" meaning that she was dependent on a man who followed the occupation of a Bhisti. If a woman, when asked if. she bad an occupation, said " yes, cooking," further inquiries were made as to whether she only cooked at home for her own household, or cooked for othersfor wages. In the first case her husband's occupation would be entered in column

11, in the other case this column would be left blank, the return of "Cook" being made in column 9.

To ensure uniformity of classification I allowed no combination or classification of occupations to be made until the retarn ;was complete for all Central India.

No translation of names was permitted, only vernacular terms, exactly as recorded in the books, being used. I saw to the classification myself when the return was finished, this ensured at least nuiformity of error.

I must add that these remarks do not apply to the figares received from Gwalior State. There, as I understand, the classification was done during tabulation. This was a pity, I think, as tabulators even if they could be trustednot to classify carelessly, are very apt to have their own views on the subject, and when not cognizant of local terms, are apt to enter an occupation where they think it best suits to save the trouble of reference.

Some instances of this I noticed in the returns sent from Gwalior notably female authors, female barbers, pearl divers, dancing girls, female doctors with diploma

The record is on the whole accurate and as its chief use is for broad comparison the result may be considered to have justified the trouble expednded on its' compilation. 162 Dependents.-No record of dependents was made in 1891. TI have already explained how the entry was written up in column i1. The largést number of 239-V.8. dependents is found in the commercial part of the population and amounts to about 57 per cent.

This is due, no doubt, to the generally wealthy condition of this class whose women folk are only concerned with the ordinary operations of a household, and contribute nothing to the family income.
240 -VI.8. The professional classes come next with 53 per. cent., the agricultural and industrial following. with 48 per cent. and 47 per cent. respectively.

This is what one would expect. In the case of the agriculturiets it is not always easy to say when a person does or does not really do work. I think the return is a correct one and shews the care which was taken to discriminate between actual workers and those who only help occasionally during the crop season.
163 Local Distribution.-Again taking the same four groups we find that in
235. 236 \& 937 1-13.
industrial, 2 per cent. to the commercial and 1 per cent. to the professional, or 70 per cent. in all, the remaining 30 per cent. being distributed through the other classes. In 1891 the figares were agricultural 48 per cent., industrial 13 per cent., commercial 3 percent. and professional 1 per cent. Only the commercial retiurn shews a fall; and this müst be due to differenee of classification as commerce has actually increased very considerably owing to the opening of railways and formation of new trade centres.

- As an iustance of the improvement which the more detailed classification has made I may quote the return for pleaders. In 1891 there were some 3,000 pleaders and law agents returned for Central Indis which must have been very-
much above the truth, added to which they were served by 33 clerks only. On this occasion there are 304 pleaders only, which is I fancy much nearer the
$2.21-\mathrm{VIII}-2$
The Natural Division figures shew no great differences save that Plateau figures are generally lower. The ratio of agricultural to total population being 7 per cent and 8 per cent lower in the case of the Platean than it is in the other tracts. Dependents in the Plateau are always in excess of actual workers.

Of the districts Baghelkhand is the most agricultural, its pre-eminence depending on the numbers returned in groups 37C. "Rent payers unspecified", and 38 "Farm servants", that is "permanent hands, not daily labourers. Bhopawar comes next and Indore Residency last some 40 per cent behind Baghelkhand.

Bundelkhand sherfs the highest figures in industrial population, most being returned in groups 78, "Cow keepers and milk sellers", 97 "Grain and pulse dealers" 98 "Gıain purchasers", 100 "Oil pressers", 101 "Oil sellers", 103 "Sweetmeat sellers" and 123 "Betel sellers". Bhopal which comes next has its highest returns under groups 149 "Grass, hay and fodder sellers", and 163 "Masons and builders".

- It is interesting to note the very different position here held by the two charges which compose the eastern side of the Agency.

The most commercial charge is Gwalior which returns large figures under groups 392 "Bankers", 394 "Money changers" and 398 "Shopkeepers unspecified".

Malwa which comes next shews the same groups and also 402 "Brokers and Agents."

Indore Residency heads the list of professional occupations, groups 447, "Church and temple services", and 452 "Teachers and professors" coming first. Bundelkhand comes next with high figures in 444 "Priests" and 447. "Churc̣ and temple service".
164 Male and Female occupation.-The principal male occupations are-IIDefence in which no women at all have been returned, III-Civil and military officers where there are 6 women to 100 men, I-Administration where there are 7 women to 100 men , XIX-Transport and storage where there are 13 women to 100 men.

In $\dot{V}$-Agriculture, VII-Food, XII—Textile fabrics, XV—Wood and cane, and XVI-Druga, women and men bear the burden almost equally.

The occupations, which women preponderate in are those in XXIII-Indefinite and disreputable, where there are 347 women to 100 men, VIII-where there are 118 women to 100 men, and XXII-General labour and earth work, where there are 95 women to 100 men.

Subsidiary-Table X. shews much the same thing in detail for certain occupations. Women landlords are 47 to 100 men. Most are met with in Gwalior State.

As cultivators women no doubt do, a large share at certain seasons and it must be remembered that it is very hard to separate dependents and actual workers in this class, and probably a certain number of dependents have been wrongly entered as pleaders and clerks women do nothing or little. The priestesses refurned come from Gwalior State.
165. Combined occupations :-Of those who go in for subsidiary occupations, herdsmen head the list with 16 per cent. Their proper occupation falls in Class B, their chief subsidiary occupations in D. They are engaged mostly in 78 "Cow and buffalo keepers and milk and butter sellers".

Money lenders come second. They appear to engage mostly in agriculture. I have no doubt that ownership over land due to mortgage has been taken as entitling them to return this calling as their profession. There is a feeling against giving "Money lending" as an occupation.

Goldsmiths come next, their subsidiary occupations falling under agriculture ( 37 c) unspecified. A certain amount of this also is certainly accounted for by mortgage as many men who are goldsmiths by caste return this occupation instead of "Money lending", when in trutbit is the last that they subsist by.

Leather-workers follow "Agriculture and unskilled labour", which is probably the same thing in this case, as all these men assist in the fields in the crop season. Weavers are similarly situated.

The priest return shews how common it is to return "Priest" as an occupation when it is not so. Thus the priest's own occupation falls in column 17, but

- most priests are engaged in agriculture, which is no doubt their real principal occupation, in Baghelkhand Brahman agriculturists abound.

Like barristers-at-law in England pleaders seem to follow everything except law, as a profession.
166. Urban and Rural:-Central India is so rural and its towns so little separated in character from villages that 1 have only taken the 9 chief towns as places which may be considered urban for our purpose. Even then the figures for urban areas are very small.

Of course the agricultural population is found almost entirely in villages, only 1 per cent. residing in towns. The return for dependents is 80 per cent. in towns and 90 per cent. in villages, and shews that families are about the same in each case.

There is no preponderance of industrial population in towns, only 9 per cent. being found. It shews that our industries are carried on largly in the villages, and the products only come to urban markets for sale. The sub-orders, which stand first are 53 Leather-workers 95 per cent. in villages, 41 Cotton 93 per cent. and 18 Vegetable substances 91 per cent.

The sub-orders most common in towns are 1 Civil service 74 per cent., 2 Army 78 per cent., 28 Book printing 79 per cent., 65 . Literature 63 per cent., and 68 Engineering 56 per cent.
167. Provincial sub-divisions of sub-orders:-Some sub-dividing,was done. I do not think comment is needed, the table explains itself, and at the same time shews that, the sub-dividing was not well carried out, as for instance $\lesssim,!00$ Manager's clerks and accountants are returned among merchants, and only 74 servants for them all.

Such minute sub-dividing was far beyond the capacity of our enumerators and of the people also.
J6R. Homeand Factory Industries:-An attempt was made to distinguish between.
bome and factory industries, but I cannot say that it was successful, the distinction -
was apparently too subtle for the enumerator. The Census Commissioner of Gwalior State found the same thing and writes "Table XV with the some" what edaborate instructions connected with it seems to have been rather too "complicated for the class of enumerators available in Gwalior."
I hare, bowever, obtained special returns from factories which will shew how the figures fall.

Railwizs, Aerated-water works, and Printing offices have only factory working bands in them.

F do not know how the Collieries come to have home workers among their staff, but 199 are so returned; unless they are charcoal dealers wrongly classed.
:The staple industries of Central India dealing with "Cotton," "Leather" and "Flour" are practically entirely home industries.

The Arsenal figures are peculiar. I do not know who works at home in this case. It is thus seen that those who carry on industrial work away from their bomes form a very insignificant fraction of the total number of actual workers. 169. Note on Midwifery in Central India :-Certain information was collected on this sulbject with regard to the Victoria Memorial Scholarship Fund, and it was suggested that it might be inserted in the Chapter on Occupation.

The Census returns shew 1,193 midwives.
The classes of people from whom the midwife comes are usually Nais, Basors, Balais, Marathas and to a less extent Brahman widows.

The occupation in the case of the first four classes is hereditary; and also particular to a certain village and family. Their knowledge, if it can be called so is entirely empirical. A young woman learns by attending cases in company with àn old one, and at the expense of poor patients picks up sufficient information to enable her to deal with the rich.

As an example of the method of treatment generally pursued I will give that common in Bundelkhand.

Here the services of both Nai and Basor midwife are employed but at different periods of the process.

As soon as the woman commences to feel pains the Nai midwife is called 'in who massages and oils the woman's body while all her lady friends stand round and encourage her with the assurance that the labour will soon be over. As soon as her time approaches the woman is taken off her bed and seated on two bricks about three inches off the ground. She is supported from behind by her friends, who also hold her so that she may not draw a breath at the moment when the child is born as it is supposed to make it difficult to remove the placenta should this occur. The midwife sits herself in front to receive the child. As soonas the child is born it is taken by the Nai midwite in her hand, and the Basor midwife is called in. The child is in the meantime wrapped in a cloth and put on the ground.

If the new born child appears weak the midwife places some grass on the after birth which is still connected with umbilical cord, the irritation and beat thus produced being said to communicate itself to the child and quicken it.
$\ddot{O}$ the arrival of the Basor the Nai leaves. The Basor woman cuts the cord and looks after the woman for three or four days.

In cases where the delivery is likely to be dificult the Basor woman is sent for beforehand, who rubs the woman with oil while her friends shew her complicated designs on paper, and colours, also making her drink water sanctified by mantras, and in which holy stones are dipped. .

If this fails, and the most skilful midwife, can do nothing, it is left to nature, and when the child is dead it is removed by hand.

After the child is born the midwife washes it and then fumigates it by burning aniseed beside it.

The greatest care is taken to exclude every particle of air from the room, even holes being carefully filled up as a breath of fresh air is considered most dangerous.

The mother, as long as the Basor woman is in attendance, is fed on gur and spices, as owing to the low caste Basor's presence she may not touch cooked food. The woman and child are daily rubbed with oil.

When the auspicious day, usually a Tuesday, Thursday or Sunday, is fixed the woman and child are washed and the house liped, the Basor being sent away.

The Nai woman returns and attends to the mother. On the tenth day after the delivery the "daschami" as it is called, the mother and child are washed again and a feast is given to the relatives. From this moment the mother mixes freely as before with her people.

In cases of difficult delivery the methods of these midwives are barbarous in the extreme.

The midwife often uses her heels, or even jumps upon the lying-in-woman to hasten action, the results may be imagined. This is done bocause there is a belief that in cases of this kiud the child has caught hold of the mother's heart and must be induced to leave go !

As a rule the child is allowed no food for three days, save perhaps a little $g u r$, on the fourth day it is given a drink of cow's urine and then put to the breast.

Another remedy in difficult cases is to tickle the nostrils of the woman or the back of her tbroat which causes her to sneeze, or be sick, the exertion aiding the delivery.

That accidents should often happen is hardly surprising. Yet the people prefer the rude methods of their hereditary: Dhai to those of a trained nurse.

Thus the states of Ratlam, Sailana and Sitamau state " there is some pre: judice among various classes to employ a trained midwife" so long as they can obtain the services of a country-experienced Dhai of the places."

I myself when in Nowgong tried hard to get midwives to obtain some instruction at the hospital, but Ifound that the people would not support me and attempts failed. For some reason they looked askance at any woman who had been taught more than ber fellow workers and experiment could teach.

SUBSIDIARY TABLĖ I.
General Uistribution by Occupation.


General Distribution by Occupation.


SUBSIDIARY TABLEI.
General Distribution by Occupation.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.

## Distribution of the Agricultural Population by District and Natural Division.



SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.
Distribution of the Industrial Population by District and Natural Division.


## 230 <br> SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV.

Distribution of the Industrial Population by Domestic and Factory Fndusiries.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE $\bar{V}$.
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## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI.

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## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII.

Occupation by orders 1901 and 1891.


## 241 <br> SÚBSIDIARY TABLE VIII.

Selected occupations 1901 and 1891.


SUBSIDIARY TABLE IX.
Occupation of females by orders.


Occupations of Femalss by selected Sub-orders and Groups:


## SUBSIDIARY TABLE XI. <br> Combined Occupations.

|  | Solected occupation. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Proportion of total subsidiary occupations to the principul oceupation. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Order. |  |  | A. Goveriiment.' | B. Agriculture. | Porsonal service. | D. <br> Proparation and mupply of qubstances. | E. <br> Commerce, | Profespion. | Unskilled labour. | Total. | A. Government. | B. Agriculturo. | C. Personal ведvice. | D. Preparation and supply of sunhs- tances. | F. Commerce. | $\underset{\substack{\text { Erofes- } \\ \text { sion. }}}{\text { E. }}$ | Unskilled labour | Total. |  |
| 1 | 2 | 8 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 0 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16. | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
| IV | Herdsmen | 83,240 | 62 | 7,528 | 12 | 4,598 | 1 |  | 1,107 | 13,823 | 32 | 8,6E0 | - | 8,408 | 1 | 4 | 898 | 10,000 | 16.0 |
| V | Landlorda | 108,405 | 304 | 6,170 | 1108 | 274 | 228 | ${ }^{9}$ | 187 | 7,210 | 505 | 8,658 | 150 | 380 | 816 | 12 | 79 | 10,000 | $70 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{c}$. |
|  | Cultivatprs ... | 2,603739 | 11,372 | 19,827 | 886 | 11,727 | 1,874 | 1,138 | 19,004 | 66,818 | 1,702 | 2,067 | 133 | 1,755 | 280 | 171 | 2,992 | 10,000 | 4.3 p. 0. |
| xill. | Weavers | - 50,359 | 11,45 .4 | 2,130 | 31 | 468 | 1,8 | 1,18 | 1,067 | 3,734 | 121 | 6,704 | 83 | 1,226 | 8 | $\cdots{ }^{\circ}$ | 2,858 | 10,000 | 7.3 p.c. |
| X1II. | Goldsmiths .... ... | 17,510 | 1 | 878 | 9 | ${ }^{6}$ | 731 | $\bigcirc 1$ | 80 | 1,608 | 6 | 5,159 | 18 | 35 | 4,305 |  | 471 | 10,000 |  |
| XVII. | Leather workers | 99,880 | 324 | 6,247 | 21 | 127 | 135 | 6 | 28,38 | 9,644 | 834 | 6,464 | ${ }^{22}$ | 131 | 139 564 | 9 | 2,928 | 10,000 | 9.7 p.c. |
| XVIII. | Money luaders -.. | 9,903 | 61 | ${ }^{470}$ | ${ }^{9}$ | ${ }^{51}$ | 36 | ${ }^{6}$ | - 6 | ${ }^{638}$ | 893 | 7,367 | 141 | $847$ | 564 | 94 | ${ }^{9} 9$ | 10,000 |  |
| XX. | Pricsta Pleadera O.:. | 16,094 | 23 | 1,681. | 121 | - 868 | 12 | 20 1 | 246 8 | 8,341 19 | 98 1,679 | 6,668 $\mathbf{3 , 1 5 8}$ | 517 | 2,105 | 61 1,053 | 86 580 | 1,081 | 10,000 <br> 10,000 | $14.5 \mathrm{p.a}$ $6.2 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{c}$ |
|  | Clerks | 22,764 |  | 577 | ... | 11 | 424 | , | 21 | 1,040 | 1, 38 | 5,648 | $\cdots$ | 106 | 4,077 | 29 | 202 | 10,000 | 4.6 p. 0. |

subsidiary table Xit
Occupation and caste.



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[^0]:    GPOPLAATIONOF
    

[^1]:    N. B.-Shoull it be possible the information not available here will be put into the Provincial Part.

[^2]:    126-11-2\&

[^3]:    … Those who reckon lunar months (new moon to new moon) follow the

[^4]:    - The Hindus for reasons best known to themselres have clected to start the "Vikramajit" era of B.C. 66 , which was not apparently the actual date at which this king lived.

