## CENSUS OF INDIA, 1911

## VOLUME XX

----

## KASHMIR

---

# PART I REPORT



#### BY'

#### MD. MATIN-UZ-ZAMAN KHAN, B. A.

OF THE PROVINCIAL CIVIL SERVICE, UNITED PROVINCES SUPERINTENDENT OF CENSUS OPERATIONS, JAMMU AND KASHMIR STATE



LUCKNOW
PRINTED AT THE NEWUL KISHORE PRESS
1912

Price: -Indian Rs. 4, English 6s,

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	1		i					Page
•	Introduction		•••		•		•••	i-iv
	CI	IAPTER I—DIS	STRIBUTI	ON OF TH	E POPULA	ATION		
I.	General description 4. Plains—5. Ri 8. Political statu 11. Means of c climate—15. Soi quakes—18. Epi	vers and lakes— s—9. Administ communication— il and agricultu	-6. Histor ration—10 -12. Rain ro—16. Ir	ical notice— ). Land ter fall—13. Te rigation—17.	7. Administrator and emporature Famines,	strative divi Revenue sy -14. Season	sions— stem— ns and	1 14
II.	Area, Population of torial comparison —25. Territorial Provinces and C population—28. 31. Comparison to density—33. I as Pressure in tean dirrigation—3 from other stand	s—23. Comparidistribution of the countries—27. Represented to the constitution of the	son among the popular that it is a consistent of the construction	get the intertion—26. Comes of districted density—32. Districultivated ar	mal division omparison ts with ref 30. Intra-to ibution of pea 34. Proble for cultiv	ns—24. Popwith other icrence to an erritorial de opulation accessure in disvation—37.	States, rea and nsity— cording tricts— Density	14— 22
tìi.	Towns and Villages and size—45. Pass of villages—50, area and population 55. Uninhabited in village and in the sity in towns—6 and 66. Decay a City statistics—7	at and present—4 51. Character of the continuous	6. Citics— f village compara roportion vons—62. wns, and	47. Villages sites—52. Stive distributof rural and in towns—50 Variation ithe causes	—48. Defir Size of villa- tion of villag 1 urban po 1. Religion i n urban po	attion—49. It lages—53. Ages among g opulation—5 n towns—60 opulation—6	Number Average rades— 7. Life D. Den- 3,64,65	22— 36
IV.		s Tract—75. H	ouses in t	he Outer H -79. Census	ills—76. In ' House '—	Kashmir— 80. House s	-77. In tatistics	
	system	••• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	***	***	****	***	•••	36— 41
	Subsidiary Tables 1		•••	*** 1	***	•••	***	42— 46
	APPENDICES I TO II		, , ,	•••		***		47 49
	84. Scope of the 87. Comparison of variations—90. Variations—90. Medical—96. Ec discussion—99. I tion—102. Effect according to dens conclusions.	of general totals- Vital statistics- Adverse circu- onomical develo- Frontier-100. It t of migration in ity-105. Variat	eference to -88. Adm -91. Natures— matances— pment—97 Xashmir— Kashmir	o statistics—inistrative cural populati -94. Impro , Prices curi 101. Forests -103. Jame	-86. Previous Previou	ons enumera. Forces go additions of 5. Sanitary ages—98. Influence on ariations by	verning decade y and Detailed popula- telisils	50 69
	Subsidiary Tables	to Chapter II	***		,e e,e	***	•••	70 <del></del> 71
	Appendix IV	• •••	***	***	. •••	•••		72 73

## CHAPTER III-BIRTHPLACE-(MIGRATION)

107. Nature of the 110. Inherent defect gration—113. Em 116. Sex and migrinternal migration and other parts of I population—122. Co	t in birthplace igration—114 ration—117. I —119. Of ext india—121. M sains and Loss	e statistics. Internal Religion an ternal mign	—111. Impended and migration of the migration—120	nigration— —115. Ext on—118. Co Migration	112. Internal tent of migro omparative no between th	l immi- ation— otice of se State l actual	4 8:
Subsidiary Tables to	Chapter III	***	407	•••	•••;	··· 8·	4 80
	CH	IAPȚER I	V—RELIC	SION			
bution of religions—depressed classes—1 Parsis—132 Sikhs—Sunnis—137. Chris Descriptive: 139. Gand Vishnavaism—145. Islam—146. Opractices and custom	-126. Territori 29. Other non- 133. Budhis tians—138. Re- ceneral—140. 143. Hinduisa Jonstitution of ns—148. Moh	ial distribut Brahmanic its—134. I eligions of Hinduism— n contraste the Mohan	ien of religi communiti Hindus—13 urban and -141 Fairs d with Ary nedan popu its—149. C	ions—127.  28—130. Ar  5. Musalma  rural populand festiv  a Samajism  alation in the	Animists—12 yas—131. Ja ans—136. Sh ulation— <i>Pari</i> als—142. Sh i—144. Budi he Statc—14	28. The ins and ias and s II.— iivaism hism— 7. Old ast and	
present-150. Exte			arieus com	munities.			7—106
Subsidiary Tables to	Chapter IV	• •••	***	427	***	107	<i>I</i> — 10!
•		CHAPTE	R V—AGE	1			
151. Object of the ch measures locally in figures—156. Age periods—158. By 161. Fecundity and ations—164. Mean	sed—154. Ins distribution b religion—159 longevity—16	structions in the struction of the structions of the structure of the structure of the structure of the structure of the struction of the structure of the stru	for recordi age-periode ze—160. D	ing age—1 s—157. By Fistribution	155. Value e quinquennia of age in ci	f age l age- ities—	)—116
Subsidiary Tables to C	hapter V	•	***	144	<b>.</b> ,	117	<mark>/—121</mark>
APPENDIX V	***	•••	***	. •••	<b>***</b>	***	121
	•	СНАРТЕК	VI-SEX		•		
165. Sex statistics—1 tions—168. General tion—171. Sex and cities—175. Sex p 177. Abortion, infan 179. Fomale mortal as worker—182. Co	66. Accuracy distribution— sge—172. Se proportions at aticide and neg ity and its etic	of the sex -169. Terri x and reli birth—17 glect of fe	rcturn—16 torial distri gion—173. 6. Compa male child	7. A few p ibution—17 Sex and c rison with ren—178. (	0. Sex and u caste—174. S previeus ce Causation of	nigra- Sex in ensuses sex—	-131
Subsidiary Tables to C	hapter VI	•••	•••	•••	•**	132	-134
Appendix VI	***	***	a ere		* ***	716	134
·	HAPTER V	II—CIVIL	CONDITI	ОХ—(УІАЛ	RIAGE)	_	
Part I.—Descriptive: archate—186. Polyagamy—189. Endog 191. Hypergamy— tion on morality—1 197. Marriago cere	183. Introduction 187. Introduction 187. Introduction 187. Introduction 189. Some constant 189. Introduction 189. Internation 189. Internati	ductory res Premarital s y and prob enrious mas -195. Age	marks—18- and ultrame abited degratings out of marriag	4. Promisc writal comm 1208—190. ( oms—193. ge—196. M	uity—185. l unism—188. Cousin marri Effect of civ larriage seas	Poly- age— riliza- ons—	—146
of relationship.	001 77	**************************************		iggreality	of marriage-		- 4"
Part II.—Statistical: Early marriage—20 Civil condition in cit	4. Widow n	narriage—2	05: Civil	condition	by locality-	-206.	-152
caste—210. Variatio	•	•••	***	***	•••	153-	
Subsidiary Tables to	Onapier VII	•••		,,,,,	; ;	158-	

#### CHAPTER VIII-EDUCATION

<ol> <li>Literacy tables—212. Extent of cation and ago—215. Education by in cities—218. Formale education—221. Progress of education—222.</li> </ol>	religio <del>n —</del> 21 -219. Script	6. Educat	ion by caste- -220. Engli	-217—Liter sh education	acy n—	
and newspapers-224. Ways and		***	(***	***	•••	160167
Subsidiary Tables to Chapter VIII	***	•••	***	***	••• ]	168—171
Appendix VIII and IX		***	•••	***	•••	172—176
CHA	PTER IX-	LANGUA	GE			
225. Opening remarks—226. Classi language—228. Scientific distribut Asia—(c) Languages of India—2—231. Languages of the Front—234. Lingua franca—235. Computational Subsidiary Tables to Chapter IX	tion—(s) La 29. Languagier Ilaqus— parison—236	nguages of ges of the S 232. Gype i. Literacy	Europe—( itate—230. sy language activity.	b) Language Odds and c	s of ends lects	177—184 185—188
CHA	PTER X-	INFIRMI	MES ,			
237. Statistics—238. Their accurate 240. Local distribution—241. Instantism 243. Local extent—244.—245. Deaf-mutes by caste—III. 247. By age and sex—248. Cas locality—250. Lepers by age and mities and religion—253. Local vices.	anity by ag. Age and Bhindness: te of the bisex—251. I	e and sex—sex with 246. Bli lind—IV J seprosy and	-242. By ca reference ndness distr Leprosy: 24 l caste—Gen	aste—II. D to deaf-mu ibuted locall i9. Leprosy teral: 252. I	tism ly— by	∳.
Subsidiary Tables to Chapter X			***	4=0	***	197-198
· C	HAPTER X	i—caste	i			
255. Preliminary—256. Statistical reciples of classification—259. Caste—(a) Dugar—(b) Chibhat—(c) Kashmir—262. Of Laddakh—263.—(2) Jain and (3) Parsi—(4) Inditribes—267. Caste rules and reseand functional groups—270. Trantribes, etc.—272. Comparison—25 classified occupationally.	e system—26  Eastern  Of Gilgit- lian Christia trictions—26 sitions of ca	60. Ethnol Hills—(d) —264. Cast n—265. Eu 68. Caste ste—271.	ogical distin  Western  e in other rel  ropean races government-  Local distrib	ctions of Jan Hills—261. igions (1) 8 3—266. Nom —269. Subcution of cas	Of Sikh adio aste ates, astes	100
Subsidiary Tables to Chapter XI		•••	***	•••		199-216
APPENDIX X		:	•••			217—219 220—223
	APTER XI	···· I—OCCEP	••• ATION	••••	•	220-229
275. Occupation statistics—276. The 278. General distribution—279. It 281. Subsidiary occupations—28 Workers and dependents—285. C 287. Occupation by religion—28 census Subsidiary Tables to Chapter XII	Local distrib 22. Industry eccupations i 8. By caste	y—277. Cloution—280 —283. Com n cities—2	assification Agricultumerce and 186. Occup	re and pastu profession—: ation and s	re— 284. ex— ental	
						OIL OF A

### INTRODUCTION

1. Although the present is the third regular Census of the Kashmir Present and State the enumeration and tabulation procedure has never before adhered past censuses with as strict and punctilious conformity to the Imperial rules as on the prepresent occasion. The count taken in 1873 was at best only an estimate, of the roughest type, and it did not extend to the outlying districts. The first attempt at regular Census made in the State was that of 1891, but even that did not include the unsettled area now known as the Frontier Ilaque lying beyond the district of Gilgit. The next decennial Census came on in 1901, but of the material collected on that occasion so little was preserved that in instituting the present operations everything had to be done on, as it were, absolutely 'untrodden ground.' The enormous difficulties that the present Census Department has had to encounter and overcome at all stages of the operations will be found enumerated in the Administration Volume and all that needs to be stated here is that the claim of being, in fact, the first regular Census of this State arrogated to the present Census is, it is hoped, neither untrue nor ostentatious.

#### I.—Enumeration

2. The first step in organising the Census operations was the prepara-tion of 'the General Village Register' and 'the Circle List' by means of which the whole area of the State and its dependencies was split up into units, big and small, technically called blocks, circles and charges. The Census divisions having been formed were allotted to the various grades of the Census officersthe enumerators, supervisors and charge Superintendents. Each Tehsildar was placed in the entire supervising and controlling charge of his Tehsil Census and the Wazirs-i-Wizarat were all treated as Census District Officers. The size of the various Census units though in general conformity with the Imperial standard varied with local conditions and requirements. As ultimately settled there were altogether 20 District Officers, 16,102 enumerators, 1,680 supervisors and 205 charge Superintendents through whom the executive portion of the enumeration stage of the Census work has this time been carried out; each enumerator thus having dealt on an average with 196

Formation of Census divisions

3. As soon as the Census divisions had been formed and the Census agency determined and trained, house numbering was started and the 'House List' prepared. The houses were serially numbered and the number assigned to each house painted on a prominent spot. According to the final figures there were 553,124 houses in all yielding an average of 6 houses to the mile and 6 persons to each house. The slight difference in the definition of Census house on the present occasion ought to be borne in mind; each commensal family constituted a separate unit for purposes of Census, whereas last time the chulha (hearth) was not the exclusive test but the enclosure with a main entrance. The one great object of registering the houses was the ascertainment of the name of the head of each family from whom all the information required for filling up the enumeration schedule could readily be obtained.

House numbering

4. It is a physical impossibility to carry out the enumeration of a large mass of people with all the detail required for filling up the 16 columns of the general schedule within the short space of five hours' time allowed for counting the entire population synchronously. The enumeration books are therefore written up ahead of the Final Census and all that is left for the final date is to bring the preliminary record, so prepared, upto-date by giving effect to changes that might have subsequently occurred in the shape of incomings and outgoings through birth, death or ordinary traffic. This stage was gone through with all possible care and supervision and, like the one preceding, finished in time. In addition to the usual testing

Preliminary enumeration and checking by the superior officers, the entries so made were, in view of the relatively inferior quality of the enumerating community, wholly revised here by the supervisors, who were paid servants of the State of sufficient intelligence and capacity to understand the nature and scope of the enumeration census seeks to enforce; the majority of them came from the Revenue and Settlement departments—the Patwaris, Shajrakashes and Munsarims.

## Final enumeration

5. The final enumeration, that is to say the Census proper was held in the night between 10th and 11th March 1911 from 7 to 12 p.m. in all places except where climatic conditions made the nocturnal check impracticable. The present Census thus took place fully 10 years and 9 days after the date of the preceding one. A list had been prepared of all places where travelling by night was unpleasant because of the rigours of the climate, or which were so remote and ill-connected that their totals could not reach the head quarter in time for incorporation in the tehsil totals. A margin of time, accurately calculated, was allowed within which the provisional totals had to be brought in after having been finally tested as near the end of the day as possible. Everywhere else a proclamation had been circulated for the people to stay at home with light burning and facilitate the final count in every way. Fixtures for marriages, and other social gatherings were also required to be put off and no barats (marriage procession), fairs or other festivals seem to have interfered with our operations. Matters were made very easy by the gracious accord of sanction by H. H. the Maharaja Saheb Bahadur to two days holiday and the State servants of all the departments engaged on Census work were able to devote their whole time to this part of the work. An untoward event, however, caused a great deal of inconvenience and difficulty in carrying out the final operation; the morning of the Census date dawned with dense clouds and a very unseasonable fall of heavy and continued rain came on at night causing much discomfort to the whole Census agency, whose personal trouble was only surpassed by their dogged perseverance in the pursuit of their duty. The downpour extended throughout the Jammu and Kashmir Provinces but the local officers assured me that it, in no way, affected the progress of the work,

Provisional totals

The collection of the preliminary totals was a task of no mean difficulty in this intensely hilly and broken country. It had been arranged well before hand that punctually on the morning of the 11th March the enumerators would congregate at an appointed trysting-place with their supervisors who would check the total of each block after it had been prepared by the local enumerator and revised by two other enumerators, prepare the totals of their own circles and carry them forthwith to their charge superintendents; the charge superintendents were to deliver the rough totals of their respective charges to their tehsildars who were to communicate the tehsil total to their district officers. The latter officer was charged with the duty of wiring the district total to me and to the Census Commissioner, India, simultaneously, and everything was carried through with clock-work punctuality. The expedition with which this part of the work was carried out may be judged from the fact that instead of the week's time allowed by the Imperial rules the provisional totals of the State were reported to the Commissioner within five days of the final Census. This organised effort at dispatch has had its full reward in the appreciation of the Census Commissioner expressed to me in the following words.

"I congratulate you on the speed with which you got in the provisional total for your large and scattered charge."

Final totals

7. The rapidity with which the totals were communicated was excelled only by their accuracy as tested with the final results obtained after compilation. The total population as originally reported amounted to 3,157,352 and that obtained after detailed compilation was 3,158,126; an increase of only 774 or 02 per cent thus occurred, which redounds to the great credit of all grades of Census officials concerned in working out the provisional totals.

#### II.—Tabulation

8. Arrangements had been made well in advance as to accumulation of the enumeration books and other connected record at prescribed centres within the appointed time. Two Tabulation offices were opened, one at Srinagar for the whole of Kashmir Province and the Frontier districts and the other at Jammu for all the districts and Jagirs of that province. The raw material so collected was operated upon at the two offices and tabulation work was, in spite of the difficulties and dangers of transporting the bulky record, begun in good time. Conformably to the practice of the last Census the slip system of compilation was adopted with the slight alteration in the procedure, which was in fact an improvement upon the older method, that only one slip was used for each individual instead of two. Religion, sex and civil condition were indicated by distinguishing colours and marks on the slip and other particulars were copied from the schedule under the proper headings provided in the slip. To further save time certain abbreviations were prescribed and uniformly used. Such mistakes as could be corrected without reference to the local officers were corrected before the enumeration books were issued for copy. To obviate omission by oversight infirmities were abstracted on a separate slip. The preliminary sorting by sex and religion was carried out along with copying work and the final totals were quickly ascertained by that means.

9. The slips so prepared were then made into boxes and delivered for sorting. One set of the slips was dealt with by the same sorter for all the final tables in turn. The sorting was done by means of pigeon-holes labelled with the necessary particulars required for the various tables and results were noted in appropriate columns on the sorter's tickets. The first six tables and Table XV-D, required no sorting, Tables XII and XII-A could readily be prepared from the infirmity slips, and the rest were

sorted out in the following order:
VII, VIII, XI, X, XIII, IX, XIV, XVI, XV-A, XV-B, XVII and XVIIL

10. All tabulation work up to the end of sorting was done at the two provincial offices, but compilation took place wholly at Jammu, the Srinagar office having been abolished at the end of the Kashmir season and necessary record transported to the former place. The totals of the sorters' tickets were transcribed into the compilation registers, the unit of tabulation adopted being the tehsil. These registers were then totalled up by districts. The most difficult part of the tabulation work was sorting and once that it had been accomplished it was all plain sailing. The need for supervision, however, became greater as each subsequent stage was reached, because larger quantities were dealt with at the concluding operations and any errors of commission or omission occurring at later stages led to more serious results. Having kept this in view I tried to exercise close and constant supervision

quent work it was done under my immediate supervision at Jammu.

11. Compilation registers having been filled in and totalled up, the final tables were easily prepared from them. Some delay occurred owing to revision of certain tables necessitated by detection of some mistakes. The tables when ready were examined at my office and any discrepancies

over every part of the tabulating operation. Having started the Jammu office and set it in full working order I went to Srinagar and put the work of that office to a searching scrutiny and inspection, and as to all subse-

detected were corrected by reference to the original record.

III.—Concluding stages

12. The next step was the working out of proportional figures for the various sets of the subsidiary tables appended to the different chapters of this Report. This entailed a large amount of figure work requiring much arithmetical and statistical ability, which is difficult to find in a backward country in the requisite quantity. No endeavours were, however, spared to make the most of the material available, although this entailed a lot of subsequent personal trouble and work under high pressure to me in emending the tables prepared erroneously in principle or detail.

Copying

Sorting

Compilation

Final Tables

Subsidiary Table Census Re-

13. The Table Volume could be printed soon after the final tables were ready and had been examined, but the Report Volume of this State though not later in production than that of several other Imperial units, could not be turned out as early as I had wished it to be. I do not remember a single subsidiary table which did not undergo extensive corrections under my hand and those relating to the last three chapters had to be mostly prepared afresh.

The Report is, however, how ultimately presented to the public, and contains a brief description of the geographical, historical, administrative, political, fiscal, meteorological, sanitary, economical, religious, educational, linguistic, ethnological, commercial, and industrial conditions of the Kashmir State in all its component parts and a concise account of the customs and manners of its people. If of sufficient interest to the reader, my prolonged labour over it will not have been in vain. A set of seven maps has been provided to illustrate the various matters dealt with, and the fact that they are not more numerous, and that the salient features of the statistics have not been represented by means of diagrams and squares, should not be ascribed to lack of inclination but to the narrowness of the scope for comparison. The firmer ground that the statistics collected and arranged on the present occasion provide will, it is hoped, enable the future generation of Census officials to compare the results by means of inset maps and diagrams more freely.

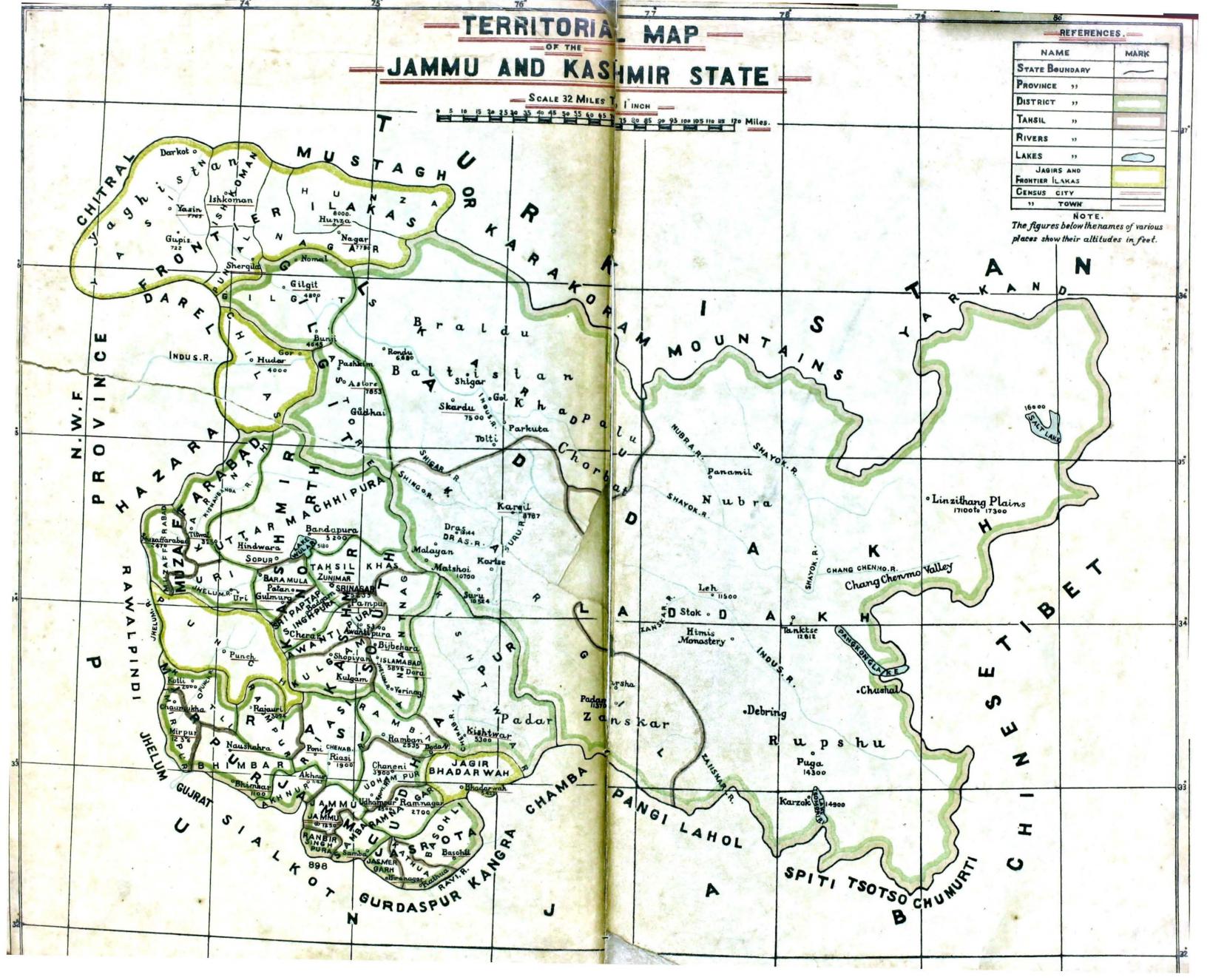
Cost of Census

14. In the course of the three financial years over which the operation extended amounts totalling Rs. 108,678-10-0 were from time to time, budgetted for Census expenditure, but the strict economy with which the whole thing was accomplished resulted in a saving of Rs. 36,648-10-0. The incidence of the Census cost is, thus, 22 per mille as compared to 26 of Baroda and 28.6 of Mysore. This will further be reduced after the expenditure incurred on behalf of Jagirs has been recovered and the net incidence will then become only 19.8. This may look excessive as against 20 of the last Census, but that the increase is merely apparent and not real will be evident when it is considered that a large proportion of the Census work having been done by the regular Revenue staff and many miscellaneous charges having never been shown under Census but amalgamated into the departmental accounts, the statement of account exhibited in the last Report is neither complete nor accurate. On the present occasion, however, a self-sufficient and selfsupported Census department was organised, and the cost incurred is exclusively its own.

Acknowledgments

15. Before I conclude these prefatory remarks I must express my deep sense of gratitude to Khan Bahadur, Shaikh Mukbul Husain, Revenue Minister, whose kindly encouragement and support enabled me to grapple successfully with the heavy difficulties my work in a country like this involyed and to Mr. W. S. Talbot Settlement Commissioner, whose helpful advice to me was as diversified as it was invaluable. Among the District Officers I have to make special mention of the zeal and energy which Munshi Hashmat-ul-lah Khan, Wazir-i-Wizarat, Laddakh, and Pundit Ramdhan, Settlement Officer of Udhampur, displayed in carrying out all the Census duties allotted to them. The Census Report in all its volumes has been printed by the Newul Kishore Press of Lucknow, which carried out the work to my greatest satisfaction and my thanks are due to Babu Manohar Lal, the Superintendent of the Press, who gave me every facility for getting my Report through the Press. The clerks of my office, senior and others, were obliged to work under high pressure all through, and Shaikh Ghulam Nagshband did his best as the Head Clerk. Maulvi Fazl-ud-din, I may add, has proved very useful to me in all matters connected with the printing and Babu Tara Chand in statistical details.

MD. MATIN-UZ-ZAMAN KHAN,
Superintendent of Census Operations,
Jammu and Kashmir State.



### THE CENSUS REPORT

OF

## JAMMU AND KASHMIR STATE

1911

#### CHAPTER I

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION

#### (I)—General Description

1. The territories known as "Jammu and Kashmir State", and more commonly as "Kashmir", constitute the extreme western section of the Himalayas and lie between 32° and 37° N., and 73° and 80° E. They occupy an area of 84,432 square miles\*, and beginning in the south where the great plain of the Punjab ends extend northwards to a point "where the three empires meet", having Chinese Turkistan as their northern boundary, from which they are separated by the Karkorum ranges. On the west they are bounded by the North-West Frontier of British India, and on the east lie the territories of Chinese Tibet. The map facing this page gives in detail the points and bearings of this country, and serves to show how extensive, yet how compact, it is.

2. The agglomeration of a variety of physiographical entities within this State with all its mountains, valleys, rivers, lakes, passes, glaciers, plateaux and plains, affords a fertile field for the geographer, but the scope of a Census Report scarcely-admits of any detailed description of this nature. From a demographical point of view it is nevertheless necessary to describe the various portions of the country with reference to their physical features, which so intimately affect the growth or decline of the population and the material and economic condition of the people. No attempt has hitherto been made to divide this State into 'Natural Divisions', and the Census figures have so far been displayed only by its administrative units. In order to make camparison of the new figures with the old possible, it has been found necessary to adapt the scheme of natural divisions laid out on the present occasion to the limits of the tehsils and districts. Some of our fiscal units are no doubt ill-arranged and have tracts within them diametrically divergent in physical characteristics†, but in a general scheme of division of the country according to its broad

<sup>•</sup> Drew, in 1857, estimated the area as 68,000 square miles (vide his book on Jammu and Kashmir territories, p. 3) but even in the official records it has hitherto been quoted only as 80,900 (see reports of the last two censuses and the Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. XV, p. 72). The extent of the unsurveyed area has of late diminished considerably and the present figure has been worked out by the Settlement Department of the State from reliable data, and may therefore be regarded as very authentic. Bhadarwah, and the Frontier ilagas are the only units whose areas have still been taken only conjecturally, but the estimates of these areas as made by the local officers are as approximate as possible.

<sup>†</sup> Udhampur District, for instance, has within it ilaqas so distinctively different in physical features as Padar, Kishtwar, Doda, Ramban, and Ramnagar.

of Kotli and Basohli on the one hand, and the plains of Bhimber and Kathua on the other. Kashmir tehsils include the flat catchment area of the Jhelum with its tortuous, long and high side-valleys, as the Sindh, the Liddar, the Lolab and even the Gurez.

Khapalu, Rukshu, Rong, Zanskar, Suru, Dras, Purik, Kharmang, Baltistan, Rondu, Haramosh classed together in one tehsil or another rather promiscuously.

physical features all minute differentiations must be discarded. In the Government of India scheme, this State is classed under the major head, "Western Himalayas and Sub-Himalaya", and within this head the internal divisions determined in the present Census are:

- I. The Sub-montane and Semi-mountainous Tract:—This is the partly plain and partly broken kandi country skirting the great mountain ranges of the Himalayan series, and consists of tehsils Kathua and Jasmirgarh of Jasrota district, the entire district of Jammu, and tehsils Bhimber and Mirpur of the Mirpur district. This practically includes all the Dugar and Chibhal ilaques.
- 11. The Outer Hills:—Consisting of the country of low-lying hills this side the Pir Panjal ranges and all the southern side of that range of mountains itself. It is to these low mountains that the name of Siwalik (sawa lakh) is given because of their number. The Chinab river, with its numerous feeder streams, flows through this country until it emerges into the plains at Akhnur. Basohli tehsil of Jasrota, Kotli of Mirpur and the entire districts of Riasi and Udhampur, as well as the jagirs of Punch and Bhadarwah are comprised in this division.
- III. The Jhelum Valley:—Comprises the flat and wide upper section extending from south-east to north-west, called Kashmir proper, together with its side-valleys, and the hilly and sloping portion of it named the Wizarat-i-Pahar (Muzaffarabad\*), including the Krishna Gangga valley. This part is enclosed by the Panjal on the one side and the great Central Range separating the Indus valley on the other. It includes all the seven tehsils of the Kashmir Valley proper and the three of the district of Muzaffarabad.
- IV. The Tibetan and Semi-Tibetan Tracts:—These form the central portion of the valley of the great Indus river which, taking its origin in the Manosarwar Lake in Tibet proper, traverses the whole Frontier Province of this State, running from south-east to north-west. It is enclosed by the central range of the Himalayas on the south and the Karakorum mountains on the north. This part of the country is highly mountainous and is meagre both in cultivation and population. The physical characteristics of the many portions of this country vary according as it slopes down from east to west, and we have the almost rainless and therefore dry and barren tract of Laddakh on the one extreme, and the semi-Tibetan country of Baltistan and Gilgit on the other, where the lower hillsides and valleys are verdant with orchards and corn fields. This division comprises the Laddakh and Gilgit districts and the Frontier dependencies.

More briefly described, the State consists of the valleys of the three great rivers of northern India—the lower portion of the Chinab valley, the upper of the Jhelum and the middle of the Indus.

- 3. As has been noticed, the main portion of this country consists of the western end of the Himalayas, the Siwaliks, with their sub-divisions the Kalidhar, Devidhar, and Karaidhar hills, the Panjal, the Nunkun, the Kajnag and the Harmukh, the high central range reaching up to the Nanga Parbat and dividing the valley drained by the Indus from that drained by the Jhelum, being all but parts and offshoots of the great chain of mountains forming the northern boundary of India. On the far side of the river Indus are the Mustagh (Karakorum) and the eastern section of Kuen Lun ranges with their high peaks, such as Chichikot, the Dubani, the Haramosh, the Ganchen, the Koser Gunge, the Mango Gusor, the Kashumal, the Konkon, the Changoks, the Digar, the Khardung and the Lokzung. The highest peak within the State is Mount Godwin Austen (K. 2) with an altitude of 28,265 feet; this is the second highest peak in the world. These nothern chains are supposed to be extensions and continuations of the Hindu Kush, and form part of the Kohi-i-Suleman system.
- 4. Of real plain there is very little in this State except the small fringe at the foot of the mountains called the Daman-i-Koh, which is from 5 to 15 miles wide and extends from the Ravi at Kathua (Jasrota, to the Jhelum at Mirpur. The other open spaces are found either where mountains enclosing valleys have receded in varying proportions from the river bed, as in Kishtwar, Kashmir and Skardů, or where several chains of ridges or spurs, having con-

But for the necessity of avoiding too minute subdivision, Muzaffarabad district, being so much different from Kashmir, might well have stood as a natural division by itself.

verged to a common point, have formed a high roof, like the Deosai plains across the Burzil Pass, or where huge mountains, instead of ending in sharp edges have flattened summits, like the plains of Kuen Lun, Dipsang and Lingzithang. The altitudes of these necessarily vary, the sub-montane plains near Jammu being 900 to 1,000 feet above sea level, the Kashmir from 5,000 to 6,000 feet, the Deosai from 12,000 to 13,000 and Lungzithang and Kuen Lun from 16,000 to 17,000 feet. The last are devoid of all cultivation and population and might well be called miniature Pamirs.

5. As can well be understood, considering the hilly nature of the country, the number of nullahs, brooks, hill torrents and rivers Rivers and is legion. The whole land is a complex network of Lakes streams of all widths, lengths and depths, either formed temporarily during the rainy season or at the time of the melting of the snows, or having a permanent origin in glaciers, lakes or natural springs. The stream, the valley through which it flows, the principal site of human habitations situated on its banks, the range of land it commands (called an ilaqa), are all known by a common name. It is impossible to enumerate even the more important of these, and all that need be noted here is that, of the five great rivers to which the British Province of the Punjab owes not only its fertility but also its name, three pass through our territory—the Ravi just touches the State at a south-eastern point, where it divides our district of Jasrota from that of Gurdaspur in the Punjab. The Chinab has a long course from where it enters the Kishtwar ilaga and traverses in a zigzag direction our tehsils of Ramban, Udhampur and Riasi until it leaves us at Akhnur and enters the Bijwat tract of the Punjab (Sialkot). The Jhelum has its source in Kashmir near Verinag, where for some distance it is still known by its Sanskrit name, Watista, and flowing through the whole of Kasmir valley and Mozaffarabad district it only severs connection from us at a point between the villages of Chechian and Panjeri, where it separates our Mirpur district from the Punjab district known by the name of this river. Besides these there is the great Indus itself, which flows through the Laddakh and Gilgit districts for several hundred miles, and receives the rainfall of more than two-thirds of the area of the State. Of the minor rivers, the Nubra, the Shyok, the Zanskar, the Surû, the Dras, the Shingo-shighar, the Gilgit, the Krishnaganga, the Sindh, the Liddar, the Punch, the Tawi and the Ujh may well be mentioned.

In a country so replete with rivers and glaciers\* it naturally follows that large bodies of water abound, and we have many lakes of various sizes and depths, which, while ministering to the æsthetic sense in enhancing the natural beauty of the landscape, afford, in many cases, great material benefit to the population. The Dal and the Wular of Kashmir, for instance, are peculiarly adapted to the cultivation of the water-nut (singhara) and support floating vegetable gardens (locally termed rädh). Other, lakes of note are the Anchar, the Mansabal, the mountain tarns of Ael Pathri, Konsanag, the Sheosagar (Deosai) and the Satpura (Skardu). Then there are the salt lakes in the east of Laddakh, the Pangkong, the Pangûr and the Tsomoriri being some of the largest. The natural cavities at the bases as well as on the tops of hills, and the meeting of spurs at an angle, have provided beds for many of the tanks and lakelets; but some of them must have been formed by seismic action, the upheaval of rocks, and the consequent deposit of detritus, resulting in streams being blocked in their courses. The lakes of Kashmir, on the other hand, are supposed to be mere remnants of the great Satisar, the name given to the hollow of Kashmir when it was completely submerged until, according to Hindu tradition, Vishnu used his trident to break open the bund at Baramula and let the water flow out. The scientific view is that some volcanic agency caused a fissure and created what is now known as the Baramula gorge; the waters were then drained off and the alluvial plain of Kashmir was exposed.

The mountains in the east and north of the State, rising to great altitudes, shelter extensive glaciers, which are the perennial sources of the numerous rivers of this country. Those of the Karakorum ranges, the Chogo Ganse, the Biafo, the Baltoro, the Hispar, the Saichar Ganri, etc., and those of the Nun Kun mountains, are among the largest ico-fields of the world.

6. The history of the State as at present constituted is the history of various countries and peoples, and extends over a long series Historical of epochs, and it would be impossible to narrate it here in Notice any detail. A bulky literature on this subject has accumulated which, consisting of articles and books by persons of various nation. alities, Chinese, Tibetan, Persian, Indian, English, American, French, German. and other writers, makes most interesting reading. Scarcely any traveller of repute has come to this country, either for pure recreation or bent on geographical or scientific research, who has not written something or other about our famous land. Of the classic indigenous literature on Kashmir one might mention the Rajtarangini \* the Rajavalipataka and the Tarikh-i-Rashidi +. The Gulabnama was compiled in the reign of the late Maharaja Gulab Singh, the founder of the present ruling dynasty, by his Prime Minister, Diwan Kirpa Ram. Mention is also made of Kashmir by the Chinese traveller and historian Huien Tsiang, and also in Ain-i-Akbari and Tuzuk-i-jehangiri. People of various races, nationalities and religion have ruled various parts of the country in various ages, at times in perfect harmony with subjects and neighbours, at other times in bitter antagonism to one or both. What is now the Province of Jammu was in older days, and even in later times, a congeries of hill principalities of more or less independence, according to the strength or weakness of the central authority which is known to have existed from time immemorial at Jammu. Its history has been traced back for about 5,000 years. The importance of Jammu rose and fell alternately until, in the middle of the eighteenth century, Raja Ranjit Deo brought his kingdom to the zenith of its power. The reign of this chief also marked the beginning of the end; his unworthy successors gradually allowed the State to pass under the power and influence of the Sikhs, and thus the city of the great Jambu Lochan (for Jammu was founded by and named after that great ruler) with all the country dependent on it dwindled down to a state of mere subordination, only to be resuscitated in 1820 by the late Maharaja Gulab Singh. Gulab Singh, Dhyan Singh and Suchet Singh were the greatgrandsons of Surat Singh, a younger brother of Ranjit Deo, and these three brothers, distinguishing themselves at the Sikh Court of Ranjit Singh of Lahore, gradually obtained the Jammu Raj entirely for themselves. Gulab Singh was made Raja of Jammu in 1820, in consequence of his defeating and capturing Agha Jan, the Rajput Musalman Raja of Rajauri, who was fighting the Sikhs. Dhyan Singh obtained the principality of Punch, and Suchet Singh the Ramnagar ilaqa. With this as a nucleus, the State began to expand. Basohli, Bhadarwah, Kishtwar, Bhimber, Rajauri were conquered and absorbed one by one, and the Dogra power travelled across the heights of the north-eastern hills until it reached the Laddakh country in 1840. The Budhist Raja ruling there succumbed to the Dogra forces under Wazir Zorawar. The Mohamedan Rajas of Kharmang, Kiris, Skardu, Khapalû Shighar, etc. in Baltisan were subdued one after the other, and there remained only Kashmir with its appurtenances to be incorporated to make this extensive State complete. This was accomplished on the occasion of the war between the British and the Sikhs in the Punjab. Appearing on the scene first only as a mediator after the battle of Subraon in 1846, Maharaja Gulab Singh acquired from the British under a treaty, on payment of Rs. 75 lacs, not only Kashmir (with Mozaffarabad, the land of Bambas and Khakas) but all the country lying between the Ravi and the Indus. This included the turbulent ilaqa of Hazara; while, on the other hand, under Major James Abbot's demarcation Manawar and Garhi ilaqus had been transferred to the Punjab. An exchange of these in 1847 made the State quite a self-contained and compact territory.

Kashmir itself has seen many vicissitudes of political power. Its history commences from the days of the Hindu Raja Gonanda, and the Budhist influence under the Rajas Asoka, Kanishka and others is also known to

The joint production in Sanskrit of Kalhana, Jonaraja and Srivara, recently translated by Dr. Stein.
† By Mirza Haider who, during the reign of Humayun, attacked Kashmir (in 1532) from the side of Laddakh.

have prevailed in the valley. Then came the White Huns, under Mihirakula. Kashmir is known to have once owned allegiance to the Emperor of China, from whom Lalitaditya obtained his investiture. In the reign of the latter the power of Kashmir extended to India in the south and Central Asia in the north. During the rule of the Lohara dynasty, the Damaras gave much trouble by their depredations. In the early part of the twelfth century Khan Dalcha, the Tartar, invaded Kashmir. In the weaker days of Hindu rule two soldiers of fortune, Rainchan Shah (also known as Ratan Shah) of Tibet and Shah Mirza of Swat came into prominence. The former became a Musalman, and, marrying the daughter of the last Hindu Raja Ramchand, became the first Mohamedan king of Kashmir (1341 A. D.) He was succeeded soon after by Shah Mirza, under the title of Shamsuddin, and the dynasty known as that of Salatins of Kashmir (1359-1552 A. D.) takes its origin from him. These rulers were followed by the indigenous kings of the Chak tribe (1553-1585) who ruled the country until it passed into the hands of foreigners, the Mughals (1586-1751), the Afghans (1751-1818), the Sikhs (1819-1845) and the Dogras (1846-) in succession. After the acquisition of Kashmir by Maharaja Gulab Singh there was some trouble with the chiefs of the Frontier. Astore and Gilgit had to be reconquered and the petty principalities of Yasin, Hunza, Nagar, Ishkoman, Punial, Chilas, etc., had to be brought into political relationship with the State of Jammu and Kashmir. Chitral also was once subordinate to the State, but it eventually came under British rule.

The present dynasty of the ruling chiefs thus reaches back nearly a hundred years.

The rulers, with dates of their regime, are:

MAHARAJA GULAB SINGH, 1820-57 A. D.

Mahabaja Sir Ranbir Singh, G.C.S.I., 1857-85 A.D.

MAJOR-GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SIE PARTAB SINGH SAHEB BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Indar Mahindar, Sipar-i-Saltanat-i-Inglishia, the present ruler.

The State was further consolidated by the amalgamation of the Chibhal and Ramnagar ilaqas. The latter was inherited by Maharaja Gulab Singh upon the death of Raja Suchet Singh. In Maharaja Ranbir Singh's time it was given as a jagir to his second son, Raja Ram Singh, but on the death of this prince it was again merged with the State. Chibhal originally formed part of the jagir of Raja Dhyan Singh of Punch. Under the family division it went to his son, Raja Jawahir Singh, who eventually became a recluse, and the ilaqa was amalgamated with the State.

7. Although there has been no change in the external boundaries of the State within the decade under notice, extensive territorial Administrarearrangements have taken place within the limits of its intive Divisions ternal divisions of administration, owing to the activities of the Settlement Department and otherwise. These will be dealt with in detail later on, when the figures of variation in population come under discussion. It is only necessary to state here the administrative units as they exist at present, and it is these which have been followed in the present Census. Of what may practically be termed Revenue Divisions there are three: the Qalamrau or Suba (Provinces) of Jammu and of Kashmir, each under a Governor (Hakim-i-ála) and the Frontier Districts and Dependencies. Altogether there are ten districts (Wazarats) within these Divisions, each under a District Officer styled Wazir-i-Wazarat. The districts are again subdivided into tehsils. The latter have had numerous sub-divisions within them but the recent tendency has been to curtail their number. They have consequently not been taken into account in our operations at all, and their Census figures have been amalgamated with those of the tehsils to which they are

The State proper is thus divided as follows:

Rajauri Bhimbar (2) Mirpur (3) Kotli

"

DISTRICT

5. MIRPUR DISTRICT

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					
I. Jammu Province	II. Kashmir Province	III. Frontier Districts			
1. JAMMU DISTRICT  (1) Jammu Tehsil (2) Akhnur " (3) Samba " (4) Sri-Ranbir " -Singhpura "	1. KASHMIE (1) Uttarmachhipura Tehsil (2) Baramula Tohsil (3) Sri-Partab	1. LADDAKH (1) Laddakh Tebsil* District (2) Kargil ,, (3) Skardu ,,			
2. JASROTA (1) Jasmirgarh ; (2) Kathua ; (3) Basohli ;	-Singhpura ,,  (1) TohsilKhas  (2) Avantipura  Tohsil	2. GILGIT {(1) Astore a n Distract {(2) Gilgit n			
3. UDHAMPUR (1) Udhampur ,, (2) Ramnagar ,, (3) Ramban ,, (4) Kishtwar ,,	(1) Karnah ,,				
4. RIASI (1) Riasi "	8. MUZAPFAR- ABAD (2) Uri " (3) Muzaffarabad District Tehsil				

Astore has since the date of Census been abolished as a tensil and amalgamated with Gligit tensil as a sub-division.

Of the internal jagirs and dependencies there are: (1) Punch, (2) Bhadarwah (with miscellaneous jagir villages of Sri Raj Kumar Hari Singh Saheb Bahadur), and (3) Chaneni, the holders of which enjoy powers of internal management in a descending order. On the Frontier there are several petty Chiefships in feudatory relation with the State; these are under the direct charge of a Political Officer of the Government of India. Such are:

(1) Punial, (2) Ishkoman, (3) Yasin (with Kuh and Ghizar), (4) Hunza, (5) Nagar, and (6) Chilas.

There is another isolated unit, Mansar village, which, though lying in Tibetan territory, belongs to the State, paying revenue to it. This village is under the Wazir-i-Wizarat of Laddakh. To guard the interests of the Central Asian trade a Political Officer, designated the British Joint Commissioner, is stationed at Laddakh. In the event of disputes between the foreign traders this officer exercises coordinate jurisdiction with the State Wazir at Laddakh. He also directs the maintenance of the treaty road between Yarkand and Kashmir, through Laddakh. The nayabats (subdivisions of tehsils) now existing are Naushahra, in Mirpur district, Dorû, and Malshahibagh in Kashmir South, Bandipura and Gurez in Kashmir Northand Bunji † and Astore in Gilgit.

8. Simultaneously with other marked characteristics of the State, its political status has gone through a variety of changes ever **Political** since its inception and consolidation in its present form. Under the treaty of 1846 Maharaja Gulab Singh entered into a Status federal alliance with the British Government, and during his life-time the State enjoyed an independence larger than is possessed by the ordinary Native States of India. Later on, in the reign of the late Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh, a 'Political Officer on special duty in Kashmir' was appointed to grant passports to European visitors (whose number had increased as the country became more settled) and to serve as a medium of communication between the Durbar and the Government of India. With the accession of His Highness the present Maharaja in 1885, a Resident in Kashmir was appointed in place of this special officer. In 1887, at His Highness the Maharaja's own request, a Council was constituted to conduct the administration of the State, under the general control of the Resident. This Council consisted of His Highness' brother, the late Raja Sir Amar Singh, K.C.S.I., and two selected officials from the British service. In 1891 the Maharaja assumed the Presidency of the Council, with Raja Amar Singh as Vice-President. Full powers were resumed by His Highness the Maharaja in 1905, since when he has himself carried on the administration. The State, amid all these changes, has all along enjoyed full sovereign powers so far as its internal administration is

<sup>†</sup> Abolished since and included in what is now the nayabat of Astore in the district of Gilgit.

concerned, and is under the suzerainty of the British Government, through the Government of India, in respect to its foreign affairs.

9. During the rule of the two previous Maharajas only one official assisted in the administration as Prime Minister of the State. At the beginning of the present regime two Ministers were Administration appointed, and when the Council period passed away their number was increased to three—the Revenue, the Judicial and the Home Ministers—whose functions were supervised by Raja Sir Amar Singh, as Chief Minister. Later, the office of Judicial Minister was converted into that of High Court Judge, and the other Ministers were in charge of Revenue, Home affairs and Public Works. This arrangement has undergone a fresh change only recently (April 1912) when one ministerial post was abolished and the departments attached to it were distributed among the remaining Ministers, the Forest Department at the same time being transferred from the direct charge of the Chief Minister to that of the Revenue Minister. The allocation of the business of the State as it now stands is as follows:

Chief Minister .- Rai Saheb Diwan Amar Nath. C. I. E., in direct charge of Foreign Department, Dharmarth Funds, Toshakhana, Reception, Bughikhana and Stables, Malmaveshi, Trout Culture, Game Preservation and State Rakhs.

Home Minister.—Rai Bahadur Dr. Mitra, in charge of Home, Public Works (Buildings, Roads and Irrigation), Education, Police, Medical, Mining, Electricity, Dredging, Municipality, Jail, Telegraph, Meteorological, Archæological, Press. and

Museum Departments.

Revenue Minister.—Khan Bahadur, Sheikh Makbul Husain, B. A., M. R. A. C., Bar-at-law in charge of Revenue, Settlement, Agriculture, Horticulture, Wine Manufacture, Mulberry culture, Sericulture, Moghul Gardens, Hop Gardens, Forests, Kût Root, Customs and Excise, Civil Veterinary, Horse and Mule Breeding, Cattle Breeding, Ashairalture, Vineyards, Revenue Canals, Grazing Dues, Nazul State Property in Arboriculture, Vineyards, Revenue Canals, Grazing Dues, Nazul, State Property in British India, Accounts, Reserve Treasury, Stamps and Stationery

The Judicial administration of the State is in the hands of the High Court Judge,

R. B. Pundit Radha Kishun Kaul.

Army and Transport are under the Commander-in-Chief, which office is held at present by His Highness the Maharaja Saheb Bahadur himself.

The affairs of the State are governed by definite laws, rules and regula-The land has been assessed to cash revenue in lieu of payment in kind, the rights of agriculturists have been defined and determined by means of a regular settlement, and the people on the whole enjoy a much greater sense of security than prevailed ever before. Justice is administered by a well regulated hierarchy of courts (possessing combined civil and criminal powers -Munsifs, Sub-Judges, Chief Judges and the High Court. Crime is dealt with by means of a well organised police. The Accounts, the Forest, the Settlement, the Public Works including Irrigation, the Game Preservation, the Silk Manufacture, the Wine Factory, Dredging and Electricity are in executive charge of European officers of great ability and experince, and the whole business of the State is conducted with an efficiency it has never known before.

10. The fiscal history of the State is also a long one. The revenue system here as elsewhere in India dates from the Moghul Land tenure period of Indian history. The first methodical settlement of revenue in Kashmir was made by Raja Todar Mal, and revenue system the Revenue Minister of Akbar. The primitive and crude system of payment of the share of Government in kind lasted here till very recent times, and was a source of great oppression and hardship to the people, resulting in wholesale corruption in the collecting agency and the consequent impoverishment of the people. The Kardars and Chakladars robbed both the State and the ryots, and the whole revenue adminstration was rotten to the core. The first attempt at a revenue settlement, in its modern sense, was made in 1873, when the short term of three years was given. Cash payments do not, however, seem to have been introduced till 1880 A. D.; but even then much latitude was allowed to the local officials in fixing the proportion of payment to be made in cash and in kind, in individual cases,

<sup>•</sup> In Laddakh, grain payments are still in force in certain cases. This is unavoidable, as in site interests of the Central Asian trade the State has to maintain granaries at important, hilting stages, and.

settlement did not come into existence until 1887, when a complete survey was made of the valley of Kashmir and a ten years' settlement was given. Since that time the operations have been constantly going on, originally and as revisions, in various parts of the State, and now every tehsil and district is properly settled with the exception of Basohli, Ramnagar, Ramban and Kishtwar, where, however, operations are now in progress.\* Amongst the jagirs Punch alone is known to have had a regular settlement. The proportion of the State share of the produce of land has also been changing from time to time. It is alleged to have been half in the time of the Salatins of Kashmir, and two-thirds during Moghul rule, but it is now at an all-round rate of 30 per cent on gross assets, which include fruit crops and all siwai (miscellaneous) items.

The land tenures here are of a rather bewildering description, but the system is mainly ryotwari, except that in the majority of the tehsils of Jammu Province proprietary rights are possessed by landowners. In the Frontier districts, Kashmir Province and the milkiat-i-sarkar tracts and tehsils of Jammu Province all land is regarded as the absolute property of the State, and the people (cultivators and others) hold it directly from the State. A variety of tenant rights exists, from tenancies-at-will to occupancy tenancies, and even exproprietary right and inferior proprietorship. Classed erritorially the existing land tenures are:

#### I.—Kashmir Province and Frontier Districts

#### I. LANDHOLDERS:

- (1) Asamis—peculiarly so called as they are not mere tenants but used to be landowners prior to the appropriation of the proprietary rights by the State. But for the fact that the dues they pay to the State are revenue, as distin
  - more appropriately be called exproprietors; Chakdars—who acquire under Regulation 6 asami rights by one year's cultivation;

guished from rent, they might

(3) Absentee asamis—cultivating only by means of hired labour;

#### TENANTS:

- (1) Holding directly from the State
- (ryotwari system); Mustaqil Kashtkars—holding (3) land in occupancy title from the asamis;
- (3) Sub-tenants.

#### II.--Jammu Province

- 1. LANDHOLDERS in milkiat-i-sarkar and LANDOWNERS in milkiat-i-samindar areas:
  - (t) Maliks—enjoying full pro-prietary rights. They exist only in milkiat-i-samindar areas;
  - (2) Maurusi harf-i-alif-holders of occupancy titles, class A. These exist only in milkiat-isarkar areas and correspond to the maliks of milkiat-isamindar areas of this Pro-vince, and the asamis of Kashmir and Frontier Provinces;

#### TENANTS:

- (1) Occupancy tenants of class B. (maurusi harf-i-be) holding land from maliks and maurusis A. They correspond to mustaqil kashtkars of Kashmir;
- (2) Tenants-at-will-holding from the landholders as well as from the State, having no rights of occupancy;
- Sub-tenants. (3)

Besides these there are some other shades, both of proprietary and tenancy rights, which it is difficult as well as unnecessary to define here. All this complexity, which must necessarily lead to a good deal of confusion, is

† The Settlement Commissioner has reported that Mirpur, Ramnagar, and probably Basohli, will be the only tehsils in Jammu Province where proprietary rights will not be conceded to the landholders.

The settlement of Udhampur tehsil has been finished only within the course of the present Census operations, and the dates when others have had a regular settlement, either originally or on revision are: Tehsil Jammu 1895 A. D., Samba 1895, Sri Ranbirsingpura 1885, Akhnur 1896, Kathua 1892, Jasmirgarh 1892, Baschli is under settlement at present, Riasi 1908 (Kund and Nandimarg circles 1906), Rampur Rajauri 1906, Udhampur 1911, Ramnagar, Ramban and Kishtwar are being settled, Mirpur 1900, Bhimber (untraced), Kotli 1904, Muzaffarabad 1899 (Thakiala Parao 1906), Uri 1898, Karnah 1901, Anantnag and Avantipura 1905, Kulgam 1905, Tehsil Khas 1905, Baramula 1905, Sri Partabsingpura 1903, Uttar-Machchipura 1905, Laddakh 1209, Kargil 1911 (Zanskar ilaga 1909), Skardu 1901. Astore 1903, Uttar-Machchipura 1905, Laddakh 1909, Kargil 1911 (Zanskar ilaga 1909), Skardu 1901, Astote 1894, and Gilgit 1894.

due to there being no local law of rent and revenue. The Tenancy and the Malguzars' Bills are now upon the anvil, and when they have become law land tenures will have been placed on a definite and more intelligible footing. the purposes of Census, however, all this detail was not required. The important distinction from an economic point of view is between the persons who cultivate themselves and those who do not, but live on rent paid to them by others. Our classification of agriculturists has therefore been only amongst rent receivers, rent-payers and agricultural labourers.

11. In spite of all that has been done to improve the situation in this connexion there is a great paucity of means of communica-Means of Com- tion and there are still many parts of the State which at munication certain seasons of the year remain quite cut off. The cost of opening up the country is exceedingly heavy, and extensions can be taken up only gradually. At present there is much activity (especially in

•	Reported roads of al	length of
Provinces and Jagirs	1901	1011
Prontier Districts and Ilaqus Kashmir Province Jammu Punch Ilaqu Bhadat wah Jagir	1,379 681 679 141	1,534 643† 714 88 141

Jammu Province) in improving road communications. Former bridle roads are being opened out for cart traffic and the Revenue authorities are trying to establish good communication between village and village. A great scheme for opening the Banihal road for wheeled traffic, with a rope-way for the transmission of goods across the Pass, has

been sanctioned. The widening of the Batot-Kishtwar road, which will open up trade between the higher hills and the Udhampur mart, forms part of this scheme. Katra, the terminus of the pilgrimage route to Vishnu Devi, has been made accessible by tonga. The abstract given in the margin will show that there has been an all-round increase in road mileage during the decade, but even so there is much room for further activities in this direction.

Of Railway the State continues to have very little, sixteen miles of the Tawi-Suchetgarh branch of the North-Western Railway being the only length of line that lies within it.

Telegraphic facilities are ample, but it would be well to connect all the

Phonostanta :		Length io m	
Description		1901	1911
Imperial (British) State	•	366-84 590-0	652-79 57011

remaining tehsil and district headquarters with the seat of Government. It is a special feature of the State that it has its own Telegraph Department, which deals with messages not only in English, but also in Urdu. The mileage of Telegraph lines is quoted in the margin. It has, it will be

observed, increased considerably during the decade under review. The Postal Samios is Imperial throughout, and though extensive there is room for further expansion.§

Statistics concerning the rainfall in the State during the decade have kindly been supplied by the Director-General of Observa-Rainfall tories, Simla, and the following averages have been worked out from the same:

				OMPARA'	TIVE AN	NUAL RA	LINPALL	STATIST	rics			
NAME OF DISTR	NCT	-520	ļ				Actual	rainfa]	L			
		Normal ratinfull for decarle 1901-10	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1969	1910
1		3		4	- 5	-	7	8	9	10		12
Ismmu District Insrota Insrota Insrota Insi Insi Insi Insrota Insi Insi Insi Insi Insi Insi Insi Insi	20 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 0	42 34 49 40 54 41 61 63 88 96 59 62 36 41 32 55 49 90 6 79 5 36	37-10 40-86 45-49 50-80 35-83 48-19 18-71 20-38 46-94 4-56	21-79 23-66 35-50 42-40 26-90 48-90 18-52 14-40 38-53 6-92	64:58 50:67 56:16 60:35 85:46 51:67 41:10 85:29 53:81 7:28 4:74	30.87 46.43 47.98 45.16 33.94 53.92 53.92 53.93 53.93 53.93 53.94 53.93 53.94 53.93 63.93 63.94	38:46 45:91 53:75 58:47 70:63 35:86 81:07 54:21 10:67 7:33	63-79 60-33 51-46 83-76 40-98 64-79 99-68 30-26 48-93 69-2 5-04	36:44 40:94 56:40 55:78 37:10 61:70 38:80 38:02 53:10 6:20	51-41 61-29 60-14 76-41 38-38 57-81 42-89 33-30 48-47 7-86	49-02 62-63 69-13 78-57 43-89 67-66 39-74 41-69 47-88 4-38	39-59 52-77 61-65 42-81 61-76 40-60 33-45 53-99

oronation boons His Highness the Maharaja has been pleased to grant occupancy rights to all the tenants holding from the State. This is a very substantial gift, and the cultivators have halled it with

§ For a further discussion of Telegraph and Postal Services see Chapter XII.

The rainy season, as a season, obtains only in the regions outside the Panjal ranges, or, in other words, the Province of Jammu. The strength of the monsoon becomes diminished as it crosses the first high range, which may be called the outer wall of Kashmir, and the rainfall in that valley is comparatively scanty\* in consequence. There is a further diminution in precipitation across the central range, which is higher still, so that in the Tibetan and semi-Tibetan tract of Laddakh and Gilgit districts, that is to say the Indus valley, the rainfall is only nominal and becomes a negligible factor in the economy of seasons and agriculture of the place. The mean averages worked out from the annual rainfall during periods varying from 1891-1910 to 1905-'10 give the normal quantities of the fall for the four natural

I. Submontane and semi-mountainous tract
II. Outer Hills ... 66-16 II. Outer Hills

Total Jammu Province

.. 48-59 .. 34-81 Kashmir Proper III. Kashmir Province (Jhelum Valley) ... 87-69
IV. Tibotan and semi-Tibotan Tract (In-)
dus Valley) i.e. Frontier Districts
6-44

and the three main administrative divisions, as given in the margin. Within each tract there is, however, a large range of variations. In the submontane and semi-mountainous tract, for instance, we have a normal rainfall of from 35.23 inches of Mirpur to 47.71 of Akhnur; in the Outer Hills from 34.51 of Kishtwart to 107.57 of Gulabgarh in Riasi tehsil; in Kashmir

from 28.31 of Srinagar to 77.72 of Sonamarg; and in the Frontier districts from 3.35 of the Leh Observatory to 20.46 of Dras in Kargil tehsil. From an examination of the detailed figures it further appears that the precipitation is greatest in places lying at the foot of high ranges on either side: e.g., Gulabgarh (107.57), Kulgam (38.10), Baramula (37.97), Sonamarg (77.72) and Dras (20.46), stations on the far side receiving the lesser quantity.

This distribution, it is noteworthy, is quite in accordance with the needs of the several localities concerned. The ordinary plain lands of the submontane tract require just that amount of rain for rearing a good crop which is required elsewhere on level and open grounds. They have a regular rainy season from July to September, when the greatest falls are registered. The cultivation in the outer hills, where snowfall is light and the snow does not last long enough to be of use for irrigation purposes, must of necessity be very precarious. That tract, therefore, requires a larger rainfall; this Nature duly provides in normal years. The country beyond the first high range, over which snowfall is fairly heavy, is dependent on the melting of the snow for the irrigation of crops, and consequently does not need much rain. Occasional falls at a time when the hill torrents are dried up in August and September are all that is needed; the remaining quantity of the rain only falls with sleet during the winter months. In the tract beyond the central range, with very indifferent and sandy soil, cultivation is solely confined to irrigated areas, and irrigation is effected only by means of streams caused by the melting of the snow that is so plentiful there. Absolutely no rain is required, and scarcely any falls.

This country, it may further be noted, lies mainly in the range of the Arabian Sea current of the monsoon, and it is only the outer fringe of the Bay of Bengal current that reaches, when strong enough, its south-eastern parts.

13. Closely connected with rainfall, and a factor equally important as regards its effects on the population, is the temperature Temperature of the atmosphere. The abstract in the margin, prepared from figures supplied by the Meteorological Department of the Govern-

	10 Ze	ars me (190				
Place	Jan	uar <b>y</b>	Αυg	đeur	Annua	l mean
	Kar.	ų Į	Kar	d F	Kax.	Min.
Brinsger (Kashmir) Leh (Laddskh) Gligit:	40.0	#7·0 7·9 32·3	85·1 74·9 95·8	66-4 40-9 71-8	66'8 54'0 72'4	44·9 99·2 52·0

ment of India, tells its own tale, and the figures need but little comment. January and August may be considered the coldest and the hottest parts of the year in the hill countries; this is fully borne out when we examine the figures in detail. The maxima and minima show the mean averages during these months, as well as the annual mean

and consequent famines.

<sup>•</sup> For if we exclude Sonamarg figures, the mean for Kashmir falls to only 33 61 inches, and that of Srinagar itself to 27.65.

+ The configuration of this itaga and the peculiarity of its situation make it very susceptible to droughts,

worked out from the actuals of the last decade. When a mean is struck between the two extremes of the annual average the figures obtained are 41.6, 55.2, and 62.2 for Leh, Gilgit and Srinagar, respectively.

These figures taken absolutely are, however, misleading, inasmuch as they simply represent the thermometric condition of the locality where the Observatory stands. To gain a true idea of the temperatures of the different tracts of this country it is necessary to take into consideration the following further facts and figures. The temperature of Srinagar, for instance, should be collated with that of Sonamarg in the Sindh valley, which has in January a maximum of 32.9 and a minimum of 11.9. In August its temperature never rises above 70.5, and falls as low as 48.7; and its annual means are 53.6 and 29.4. In the District of Laddakh, Leh should be compared with Dras on the one hand and Skardu on the other; the figures for them are given below:

	- 1	(	***	Maximum	`•••	18'8
Dras	}	January		Minimam	***	9.8
		A		Maximum	4	79.0
		August	1	Minimum.	•••	48.5
	- 1	January	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Maximum	***	34 5
Curpou	{	January		Minimum	•••	16.7
SKARDU				Maximum	***	87'0
		August .	··· {	Minimum	***	60.3

No complete meteorological statistics are available for Jammu,\* but, like the State as a whole, that Province is a microcosm all by itself, in this as in many other respects. Its temperature ranges from what may be roughly stated as considerably above 112° in summer at Jammu khas to a variable number of degrees below zero in winter in Padar (near Zanskar) Marua, Warwan in Kishtwar tehsil, Gulabgarh in Riasi and Nandimarg and Kund near Ramban.

14. With this diversity of rainfall and temperature, the seasonal and climatic conditions of the country must necessarily vary a ·Seasons and great deal. In respect to seasons the State may be considered `climate under two main heads, viz., (1) the country this side the Panjals, where the three usual seasons of India obtain, the summer, the rains, and the winter; and (2) that beyond the Panjals where summer and winter alternate, with, of course, the intermediary periods of spring and autumn. Climate varies according to the altitude, the configuration of the land, the situation, the presence or proximity of forests, accumulations of snow, moisture and geological peculiarities. Every gradation of climate prevails. the sub-montane and semi-mountainous tracts of Jammu Province heat is experienced which is even more than tropical at times; then we have the temperate climate of Kashmir and the frigid cold of the Frontier districts, especially of the Dras, the Zanskar and the Rukshu valleys. In low-lying parts of the valleys the temperature is always much higher than on the hill sides or mountain tops. Again, the airy and cool climate of the open vale of Kashmir differs materially from the simmering atmosphere experienced in deep, narrow valleys like Karnah, Bunji, Gilgit, and Chilas. The climate of the well-drained ilaqa of Kishtwar, notwithstanding its narrower dimensions, is much more salubrious than that of damp Kashmir, even though their elevations are about the same. It is cooler at Dras than at Leh, because of the heavier snowfall at the former place. The shady Gulmarg and Tahjawaz afford a much more healthy climate than can be found in any other side-valleys of Kashmir. The formation and consistency of the soil, too, exert their influence upon the climate. Even where the country is open and flat the proximity of rocks to the surface causes the land to become rapidly heated during the day, and the radiation after sunset being equally rapid, the nights are rendered cool. To this cause are undoubtedly due the extremes of heat and cold in summer and winter that form the distinctive feature of the climate in the kandi tracts of and around Jammu. Situated as is this State in the extreme north-west of India, the days in summer are longer, there being a clear difference of one hour between

The Meteorological Observatory at Jammu was opened only on 1st May 1910. The hottest part of the year in 1910 was June, with 112°, and the coolest, December, with 37°, as against 110° and 42° of 1911.

here and any place in Hindustan proper. In June the sun at Jammu or Srinagar sets at about 8 r. m.; thus the summer nights are only of nine hours' duration, as against fifteen of the day.\* In winter the position is naturally reversed, and we have long nights and short days.

15. These general remarks regarding the influence of the country on population may not be concluded without some reference to the agricultural conditions of the country. With such varia-Soil and agriculture tions in the climate it is not surprising that we find as great a variety in the staples grown in the various parts of the

State. Of the soils in Jammu those in the flat sub-montane, tract are of the same classes as exist in tarai lands elsewhere in India; next above this moist and malarial tract come the kandi table-lands of red loam, intermixed with shingle and stone, cultivation on which depends entirely on the monsoon rainfall. The next belt includes the higher mountain surfaces (the outer hills) with its prati lands, where limestone beds either penetrate or are immediately beneath the surface of the soil, and cultivation is consequently precarious. The northern parts of this tract, consisting of Bhadarwah, Kishtwar, Ramban, upper Riasi, Rajauri, and Kotli are cold countries, and have all the character of the country beyond the Panjal range. In Kashmir valley itself there is real alluvial soil of great fertility. The classes generally recognised are grutu (clayey soil), bahil (rich loam), sekil, (light loam with sandy subsoil), dazanlad (low-lying swamps) and nambal (a rich peaty soil). The famous karewas (plateaux) consist of dark gruta. In the Frontier districts cultivation is very stinted and is confined to the alluvial lands of their river system. and their classification is based on their distances from the village site.

In the sub-montane and semi-mountainous tracts, and the lower hills of Jammu Province the crops and grains sown are very much the same as in the Punjab; viz. wheat, barley, gram, sarshaf (rape) in rabi (spring) and maize, millet, pulses, cotton, rice and sugarcane in kharif (autumn). Of rice there is very little except in the district of Jasrota. In the higher hills of this Province, as well as in Kashmir proper, the chief crop is kharif and—what may appear to be a contradiction in terms—it is principally an irrigated kharif. A severe winter prevents a good rabi cultivation. The principal crop in these parts is rice, and next to it the grain peculiar to this country, buck-wheat, locally called trumba. Maize is grown on higher levels having good drainage. In the Frontier districts the Tibetan barley (grim) is the main produce. In Baltistan the turnin is largely grown. Saffront is grown only on the karewas

of Pampur in Kashmir, and in a couple of villages in Kishtwar.

16. As has been noticed above, irrigation on the higher hills is mainly from the hill-torrents formed by the melting of the snow, Irrigation and it is regulated by the cultivators themselves, who provide watercourses, properly graded, for their fields. The only attempt on the part of the State to render assistance in this respect is the construction in Laddakh of the Karbathung canal, which is still in progress. This will, by regulating the flow of the Pashkim nullah, reclaim a plateau several miles in extent near Kargil. Of the canals, some are worked by the Revenue and others by the Public Works Department. No details of the mileage of the former are obtainable, but of the latter (parts of which are worked by

	of Date of Mio 180001 (parts of manners
•	the Irrigation Branch of the Punjab Public Works
	Dept.) details are noted in the margin. The greatest
138-97	Dept., decembrate in the same and same
25-59	need for State assistance is in the parched kandi
164-16	tracts, both in Jammu and Kashmir, where even
87-00	drinking water is obtained with great difficulty and
20.00	thinking wood to be a large that he had
	the people are in great distress during the long
57-00	summer months. It may be found possible to work
	Summer monens. It may be read positive to the
	out some scheme of tank irrigation in those parts.
17-28	There is also a crying need for the utilisation of the
000 00	There is also a crying need for the dishibation of the
335.79	State share of the Ravi water in Kathua. Most of
	. 128-97 . 25-59

The longest and the shortest day being, of course, the summer and the winter solstices, respectively. There is great scope for improving the valuable industry of saffron cultivation, which is at present deteriorating. Suitable lands for the purpose are by no means restricted in either of these two places.

the improvements under this head have, it must be noted, taken place within this decade. Wells as a source of irrigation form a negligible quantity in this hilly country. They are met with in any considerable number only on the plains at the foot of the Jammu hills, and also to some extent in the flat portions of Kashmir wherever the water level is, owing to the proximity of the river, not very low.

17. No account of this country can be complete without a mention of the natural calamities to which it is susceptible and which have played so important a part in the past history of its Famines. floods and people. Famine caused by drought is confined to the areas earthquakes which depend for their crops on the seasonal rainfall, viz., the Province of Jammu. In the Frontier districts it is only the deficiency in snowfall that matters. The peculiarity of Kashmir, on the other hand, is failure of crops due to floods. The outlet at Baramula for the drainage of the expansive valley is very narrow and, given a heavy snowfall in the winter and a rainfall of two or three days continuously in the ensuing summer, the volume of water that passes through the Jhelum exceeds the capacity of its bed, and the inundation of the whole flat portion of the valley which results causes considerable loss of life and crops with the ensuing famine conditions. The memorable floods of 1893 and 1903\* played great havoc with life and property in Kashmir valley. The former flood swept away six of the seven bridgest over the Jhelum in Srinagar city. The State is making every effort to prevent these recurring floods and consequent distress, and a large dredging scheme is being carried out at Baramula, at an estimated capital cost of Rs. 14,36,500. The overflow of the Indus also causes occasional damage in the lower valleys of the Frontier districts.

Earthquakes are not uncommon. The Laddakh country constantly experiences shocks, but these are generally slight. In Kashmir valley shocks of earthquake are often felt; there were two in 1910 and five in 1911. The great Kangra valley earthquake in April 1905 was felt throughout Jammu Province, with varying severity at different places, and besides causing a few deaths did considerable damage to house property. The occasional injury to crops in Jammu Province and Punch owing to excessive rain, heavy snowfall,

hail, and locusts scarcely calls for remark.

Cholera is the one great scourge of this country, especially of the 18. Kashmir valley, where the accumulated filth of ages affords **Epidemics** a fertile breeding ground for the germs of this fell disease. A cholera epidemic, once it breaks out, becomes very difficult to control, still more so to eradicate; it runs its course month after month ruthlessly decimating the population. During the decade under report two severe outbreaks have occurred in Kashmir, resulting in considerable reduction of population. The last one synchronised with the present Census, and this coincidence did not fail to elicit adverse comments against the measure amongst persons superstitiously disposed. The epidemic prevailed in a virulent form throughout the valley, and travelled even across the high mountains enclosing it into Ramban, Kishtwar, Bhadarwah, Punch and Rajauri in the south and Skardu in the north. The figures supplied by the Chief Medical Officer of Kashmir show a total of 18,448 seizures and 9,218 deaths in that province alone.

In Jammu Province plague remained active throughout the decade and accounted for a heavy death roll, especially in the low-lying parts of the country, where the physical conditions that prevail are similar to those in the plains of the Punjab. Even in the year of the present Census it caused some loss of life in Mirpur, Akhnur, Sri Ranbirsinghpura, Jammu and Jasrota. It is to be regretted that no reliable statistics of death from plague are procurable, but the disease has no doubt been a powerful factor in arresting the growth of, if not actually reducing, the population of this province.

There have been some minor floods in recent years, too, viz., those of 1907 and 1909, and there was a slight overflow in the present year.

<sup>†</sup> These numerous bridges of the city also cause much obstruction to the Jhelum waters, and no doubt contribute greatly to the rapid submersion of the riparian portions of the town whenever there is a flood.

Of the minor ills which human flesh in this country is heir to may be mentioned malaria, which occasionally occurs in a malignant form in the lower regions of Jasrota, Jammu, Mirpur districts, Punch Ilaqa and Karnah tehsil in Muzaffarabad, small-pox and measles in Gilgit and Skardu, and typhoid fever in Laddakh. The latter were active in the Frontier districts in 1910 and 1911. Considering the highly contaminated water consumed by the majority of the people in this hilly country enteric fever must be a constant companion of theirs, and it is only owing to lack of proper diagnosis that it is so rarely mentioned. Eczema on the crown of the head (ganj) and venereal discusses in chronic and acute forms are national ailments of the Kashmiri and of the hill tribes of Jammu Province, respectively, and goitre is very much in evidence in Baltistan on the one extreme, and the environments of Jammu on the other.

19. Amongst the minor matters connected with an account of the general conditions of the State may be mentioned the special calendar in use here, and the language in which the State offices keep their records. The Hindi year in vogue, though called "Sambat," is somewhat different from that observed in India. The months and days of 1868, Kashmir Era, corresponding to 1911-12, were, for instance, as follows:

Name of month.		No. of days.	Name of month.		No. of days.
Baisakh	•••	31	Kattak	••••	30
Jeth		31	Maghar	•••	29
Hár	***	32	Poh	•••	、30
Sawan	•••	31	Mágh		29
Bhadron		31	Phaggan	***	30
Asuj	•••	31	Chet		, í, , <sup>30</sup>

The days in each month, as is apparent from the official diaries published every year, vary each year, the chief aim being to adjust the local months to the English calendar and complete a year of 365 days. This is treated as the financial year.

The Court language has till very recently been Persian. In Maharaja

The Court language has till very recently been Persian. In Maharaja Ranbir Singh's reign an attempt was made to introduce Dogri script, but it did not succeed. At present all the State business is conducted in Urdu, except in the Secretariat, where English and Vernacular (Urdu) branches are maintained side by side.

20. The detailed figures of matters connected with this chapter are contained in Imperial Tables I, III and IV, and Provincial Table I, that form part of the second volume of this Report, and the percentages and proportional expressions will be found in the seven subsidiary tables printed at the end of this chapter. The figures in the Imperial tables are displayed by provinces and districts, in the Provincial tables by tehsils and in the subsidiary tables by natural divisions. The discussion of variations will form the subject-matter of the next chapter; here we have to confine ourselves to the exposition of the figures as they stand, according to the present Census.

21. The total area of the State as ascertained at the present Census is

84,432 square miles, as against 80,900 of the former.\* The

Area only new area that has for the first time come under Census operations is the small village of Mansar, with a total population of 190 souls, but it can hardly affect the total area to any appreciable degree, considering that its estimated extent is barely 55 square miles. The increase is solely due to the more accurate compilation of the figures that was secured through the assistance of the Settlement Department of the

State.

22. From the totals now obtained it will appear that among the Native States of India this State is second to none in respect to States of India this State is second to none in respect to Size. It is distinctly larger than Hyderabad (82,698), is nearly three times as large as Mysore (29, 475), a little less than four times the size of Bikanir (23,315) and of Gwalior (24,384), more than five times that of Jaipur (15,579) seven times

As to the authenticity of the new figures, vide footnote to § 1 supra.

that of Indore (9,004) and of Bhopal with other petty States included in that Agency (9,154), more than ten times the area of Baroda (8,182), and very

nearly twelve times that of Travancoie (7,593).

Among the British Indian Provinces the State stands in a ratio of 28 to 13 with the North-West Frontier Province (38,918), 28 to 33 with the Punjab excluding its Native States (99,779) and 21 to 28 with the United Provinces (112,356). It is considerably larger than the Central Provinces excluding Berar and the Feudatory States (82,057), is in the proportion of 7 to 12 with Madras (143,924), and 21 to 19 with Bombay, excluding Sind,

Native States Agencies and Aden (75,993).

When we compare this State with foreign countries we find that while on the one hand Nepal (54,000) has a little less than two-thirds and Ceylon (25,332) less than a third the area of it, it has on the other hand nearly one-third that of Afghanistan (250,000), more than one-half that of Japan (147,655) and is almost equal in extent to Korea (86,000) and Queensland (87,884). It has seven times the extent of Egypt (12,013). England and Wales (58,324) have about two-thirds the area of this State and Scotland (30,405) and Ireland (32,360) a little more than one-third each. It is much more than double the size of Portugal (35,490), treble that of Greece (25,014) and about half that of Spain (194,783). Turkey-in-Europe (65,350) is but slightly more than two-thirds its size.

23. As regards its internal divisions, a glance at the territorial map, and Imperial and Provincial Tables I, would show that it is the Comparison Frontier Province which makes up the largest proportion of amongst the the area of the State, being more than two-thirds of it, if we internal diviinclude the Frontier ilaque, and very nearly that if we exsions.

clude them. Of the remainder, the areas of Jammu and Kashmir Provinces stand in the ratio of 3 to 2. Among the districts, excludng the jagir of Bhadarwah (607), the smallest is Jammu itself (989) and the largest is Laddakh (45,762). In Jammu Province, Udhampur (4,399) is the most extensive of all the districts. It comprises one-third of the entire rea of the province. When the pass on to consider the areas of the tehsils we meet with the striking feature that the two Provinces of Jammu and Kashmir combined make only two-thirds of the area covered by Laddakh sehsil alone, and if we exclude from Jammu Province the two internal jagirs of Bhadarwah and Punch, as well as its large mountainous district of Udhampur, either of the two other tehsils of Laddakh district exceeds that Province in area. The other large tehsils are Uttarmachchipura (2,492) in Kashmir and Kishtwar (2,823) in Jammu; and now that Astore has been amalgamated with Gilgit, the latter has become yet larger (3,118). The smallest is Sri Ranbirsinghpura (159). The areas and populations of these territorial divisions, however, will, when we come to the discussion of the density of the population, be found to vary in an inverse proportion to each other; this is because the more extensive units are so intensely mountainous.

24. The total population of the State, with all its jagirs and dependencies, as enumerated on the night of 10th March, 1911, amounts **Population** to 3,158,126\* souls (1,674,367 males and 1,483,759 females), as against 2,905,578 (1,542,057 males and 1,363,521 females) at the last Census, which was taken on 1st march, 1901, with a net increase of 252,548 souls and a proportional increase of 8:69, or roundly 9 per cent. The proportion of this increase spread over the various parts of the State is discussed in

the succeeding chapter.

25. The population is distributed over three Provinces of the State: Jammu (1,597,865), Kashmir (1,295,201) and the Frontier Territorial Districts (265,060). Kashmir proper has now a population distribution of 1,099,996. Of the internal divisions, the largest district of the demographically, that is to say, the one possessing the largest number of human beings, is Kashmir South (639,210), population and the other larger districts are Kashmir North with 460,786, Jammu with

<sup>&</sup>quot;It is a curious coincidence that the latest population in round numbers should be 31 thousand for Jammu city, 31 lace for the State and 31 crores for all India.

326,691, and Mirpur with 324,933; while the smallest is Gilgit, with only 23,969. Of the dependencies, Punch leads with 334,393, and the total population of the jagirs of Rajkumar Harisingh Saheb amounts to 62,701. Of the Frontier ilaqus the largest population is possessed by Nagar (13,347). As to tehsils, if we disregard the city population, the largest is Uttarmachchipura (200,609) in Kashmir, and Bhimber (130,693) in Jammu, while the smallest is Astore\* in Gilgit with only 8,294.

26. As compared with other States the population of this is a little less than one-fourth that of Hyderabad (13,374,676), and more than half that of Mysore (5,806,193), Travancore States, Provinces and Countries

State in population of this is a little less than one-fourth that of Hyderabad (13,374,676), and more than half that of Mysore (5,806,193), Travancore (3,428,975) exceeds it, and Gwalior (3,090,798) falls short but slightly. Baroda (2,032,798) is scarcely two-thirds of the State in population, Bhopal (1,050,735)† bne-third, and

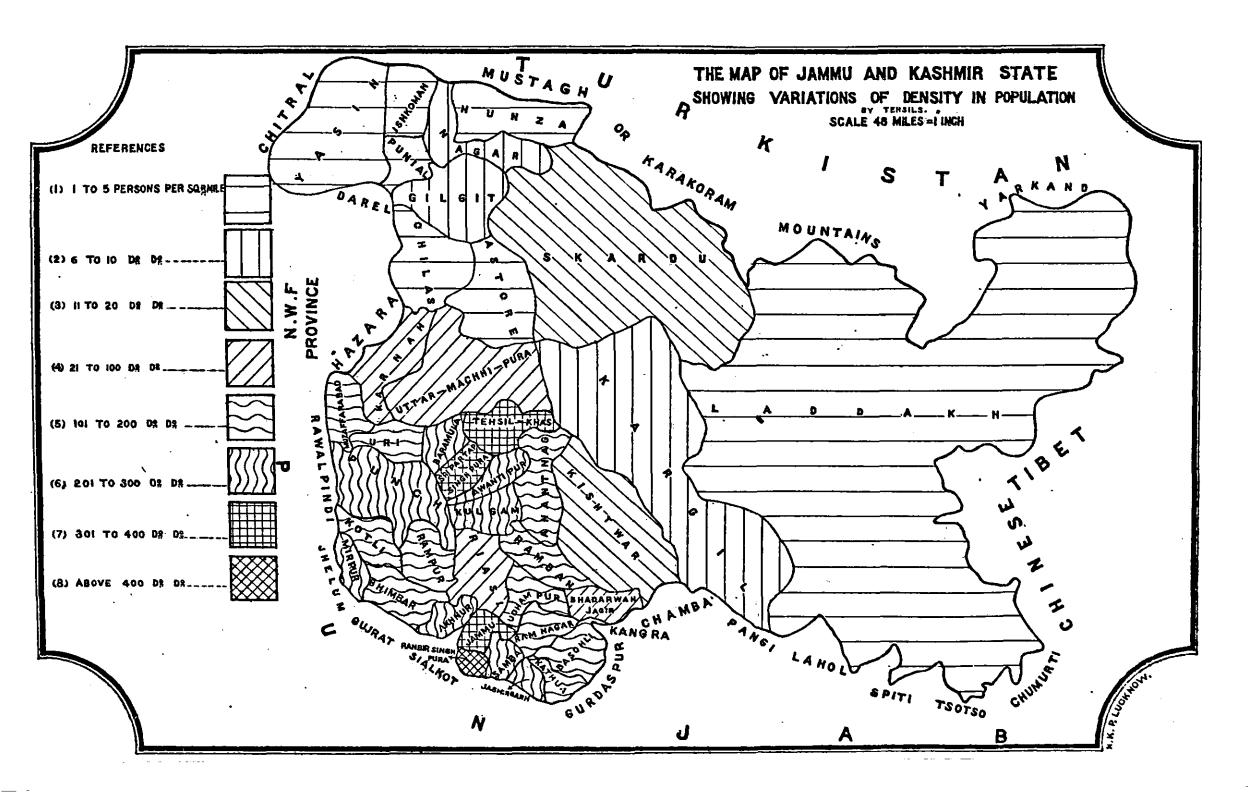
Indore (379,360) even less than one-tenth, while a comparison of our figures with those of Jaipur and Patiala works out in the ratios of 31 to 26, and 31 to 14, respectively. It would be quite unprofitable to compare this hilly State in respect of population with any of the thickly populated Provinces of British India on the plains, where even a single division contains far more than the total population of the State; e. g., the Jullundur, the Rawalpindi and the Multan divisions of the Punjab have 39, 33, and 38 lacs of persons as against our 31 lacs. In the United Provinces the only comparison that can appropriately be made is with its Kumaun Division, where the population (1,328,790) is a little in excess of Kashmir Province, and considerably short of Jammu. The conditions in the North-West Frontier Province are, however, very similar to this State and the Census figures of it, therefore, compare more favourably, viz., 38 lacs against 31 of ours. The figures for this Province compare with our State even in detail, as its Hazara district has 603 thousand persons against 639‡ of South and 460‡ of North Kashmir. As regards the neighbouring districts of the Punjab, to the west and south of the State, Rawalpindi contains more than 24 times as many persons as the adjacent Muzaffarabad does, but 334‡ of Punch do not compare unfavourably with 547‡ of Rawalpindi, nor 324‡ of Mirpur with 5111 of Jhelum. Gujrat, on the other hand, has a population more than double that of Mirpur, and Sialkot and Gurdaspur have each a population somewhat in excess of the totals of all the three submontane and semi-mountainous districts of the State that adjoin them, viz., Jasrota, Jammu and Mirpur. Among foreign countries, comparison can be made with but The State possesses a population very nearly equal to that of Switzers land (3,765,000), more than half of either Nepal or Afghanistan (5,000,000 each) and a little less than one-third of Persia (9,500,000).

Relative sizes
of districts
of districts
with reference
to area and
population
to area and
population
to area and
population
and all else that need be stated is that Kashmir North is the

28. Density, in its ordinary sense, is the average number of persons per square mile, worked out on the total area under consideration, but it is also customary to work out the average on the cultivated area to ascertain the demands of the population upon the resources of the country it inhabits. With the large variations in

Converted into a nayabat only subsequently to the Census.

<sup>†</sup> The figures for Bhopal are for the entire Agency. I '000 omitted.



the figures representing both the cultivated and total areas, and the doubtful area totals of the previous enumerations, no true comparison can be made between the results of this and former Censuses. All that can be done is to test the present density with the standards of other states, provinces and countries, and also discuss the distribution of it over the various parts of the State itself. This can now be done with a greater degree of accuracy than has heretofore been possible. The density with reference to the total area is (omitting fraction) 37° for the State as a whole, which thus ranks among the lowest in India in this respect. The great variety which exists within the State will appear from succeeding paragraphs.

29. The figure quoted above is, however, extremely delusive. The extensive Frontier districts consist chiefly of a dense net-

work of broad and lofty mountain ranges which are, and Real state of ever will be, quite uninhabitable, and which bear the density nominal population of four persons to the square mile. If we leave these districts aside, as we must needs do if we would even approximate to the true general density of the State, the figures work out to 138, as against 178 for the whole Indian Empire. To form a yet truer conception of the matter we should further eliminate the large forest area (5039.55 sq. miles) which can never be inhabited. This brings the density of the State to 200, in round figures. The State becomes in this way quite comparable with the Punjab (200, British territory), while the North-West Frontier Province (98 for the whole and 163 for British districts) and the Central Provinces (132) and Bombay (159) fall much below it in point of density. Of the Native States, Hyderabad (161), Mysore (196) and Jaipur (169) have densities of population only approximating that of this State. Even taking the absolute figure of 37, this State is much denser than sandy Bikanir (30), almost double as dense as Afghanistan (20), and 21 times as dense as Persia (15). In the Eastern Himalayas, Nepal (93) is a little more than 21 times as thickly populated as this State, and in the Central Himalayas the Kamaun Division of the United Provinces (96) stands in a ratio of nearly 19 to 48. As regards European countries, Sweden alone, with its 32 persons per square mile, can be compared.

30. Still more interesting is an examination of the figures for the internal divisions. Here we find a great diversity in the density Intra-territoof the population, ranging from barely one per square mile of Laddakh tehsil to 428 of Sri Ranbirsinghpura rial density (vide col. 12 of Provincial Table I in Vol. II of this Report). Disregarding the city figures, the next densest tehsil in Jammu Province is Mirpur (251), † and in Kashmir Sri Partabsinghpura (304). The map facing this page shows the variations of density for each tehsil, jagir and ilaga and shows that the most densely populated part of the State, as pointed out above, is the tehsil of Sri Ranbirsinghpura. Next come tehsils Jammu, Sri Partabsinghpura and tehsil Khas (of Kashmir). Both the sadar tehsils of the two provinces owe their density of population to the city totals. In the Frontier country, Skardû tehsil, with its teeming and prolific Balti population, is relatively a densely populated tract, and the petty chiefship of Nagar posses-

ses a population exceeding in density all its compeers.

31. The comparison of the density figures will not be complete with-Comparison out a reference to the districts and states in British India with neighbouring districts with like "the following comparison may be made:

British		•	-	State
Hazarah	•••	202-145		Muzaffarabad, minus Karnah.
Rawalpindi	• • •			Punch ilaga.
Jhelum	***	181—185	***	Mirpur district.
Sialkot	***	491-428	•••	Sri Ranbirsinghpura tehsil.
Gurdaspur				Jasmirgarh tehsil.
Kangra	•••			Basohli tehsil.
Chamba	•••			Bhadarwah iagir.

As against 36 of 1901 and 31 of 1891.
† Even Jasmirgarh has 241, against 231 of Jammu minus the city.

It will thus be seen that the figures of the State do not compare at all unfavourably with those of the adjoining tracts in the British Indian Provinces of the North-West Frontier and the Punjab, a fact which shows that the State offers as much inducement to the people to settle in peace and security as any other part of the country. The population decreases only as one proceeds northwards, where the climate is severe and the conditions of life are hard. This is the reason why it is densest in the warmer and easier Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract (235 per square mile) and becomes gradually attenuated according as it spreads over the higher altitudes in the north, with 98 per mile in the Outer Hills and 4 in the Tibetan and semi-Tibetan Tract. The high density of 154 to the mile in the Jhelum Valley is largely due to the well populated flats of Kashmir proper.\*

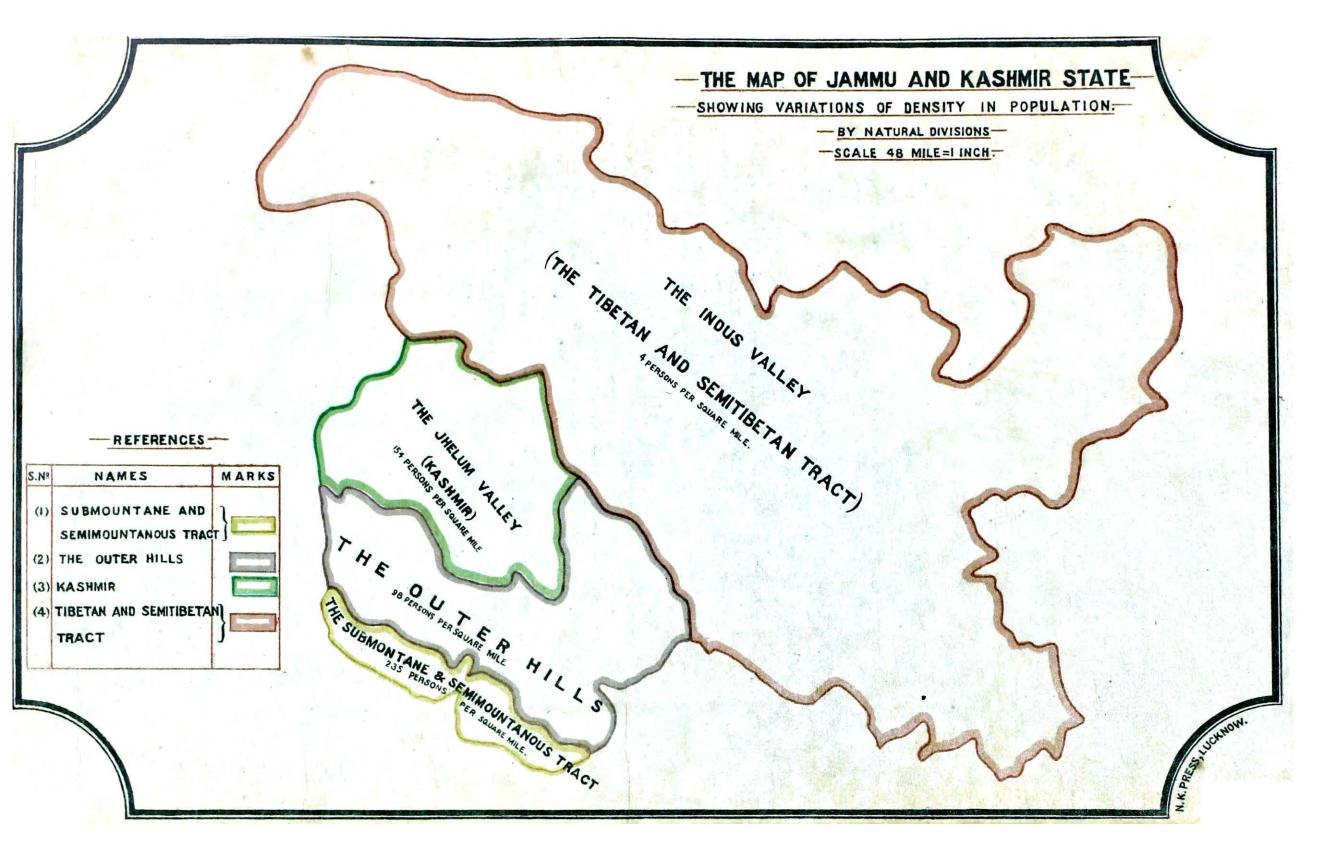
32. The details of this information are contained in subsidiary Table II of this chapter, a reference to which will show that 89.1 Distribution per cent of the total area of the State is covered by of population the tehsils that contain a population of under 150 per square according to mile, 8.9 per cent by those of 150 to 300, and only 2 per cent Density by those of 300 to 450. This indicates that but a very small portion of this country is really thickly populated; even there the density does Conversely, 34.6 per cent of the whole population is in the not exceed 450. first grade of the tehsils, 48.2 in the second grade and only 17.2 in the third. Taking the total area and the total population therefore into consideration, this proves to be a sparsely populated country par excellence. Looking into the internal divisions, it will be seen that the densest part is the sub-montane and semi-mountainous tract, 80.2 per cent of its area and 70.8 of its population being contained in tehsils with a density of 150 to 300. The Jhelum valley constitutes the happy mean, with corresponding percentages of 36.2 and 491. Its densest part, however, is Kashmir South, where 74 6 per cent of the area and 66 per cent of the population fall within the grade of 150 to 300.

Density with reference to cultivated area for the various units of the State, especially those having their own internal management, and the still backward condition of its land records, would make one hesitate to assume their accuracy with much confidence, but the Settlement Department, which collected these figures for the Census Department with great perseverance, diligence and care, has left little room for any large omissions or additions, and the totals and percentages furnished as set out in subsidiary Table I of this chapter may be taken as correct for all practical purposes. Before discussing the figures it should be pointed out that some confusion arose between the terms 'cultivated' and 'cultivable' as yeard have and in the instructions of the Census Commissioner for preparing sub-

used here and in the instructions of the Census Commissioner for preparing subsidiary Table I. Here the term mazrua (cultivated) is understood to mean not only the land actually cultivated in any particular agricultural year, but all that has ever been, and can ever in future be, cultivated. The term thus includes not only the area under crop, but also kharaba (the area of unsuccessful sowings) as well as fallows—in short, all culturable lands—and is, as such, convertible with cultivable. It was with some difficulty, therefore, that the lower revenue agency could be disillusioned on the point and brought to realize that the mazrua area in its local acceptation was to be entered in column 3 of this table, and that it was only the area under crop in 1910, whether single or double, which should be shown in column 4.

The total culturable area in the State (excluding the Frontier ilaqus, for which no details of this kind could be obtained) amounts, according to the latest revenue records, to 2,314,199 acres, or 3,616 square miles, which works out to a percentage of only 5·18 on the total area. In other words, only a little more than one-twentieth of the land can yield crops. The people here, as will be shown in the chapter on occupation, are essentially agricultural, and the pressure of the population on the land would therefore appear to be exces-

<sup>•</sup> See the map of Natural Divisions facing this page.



sive. The natural adaptability of mankind has, however, adjusted circumstances to the best advantage and the density of population is found to vary directly with the area available for cultivation. The mean density on the cultivated area works out for the entire State to 858 per square mile. Taking this as the standard of the resourcefulness of the State we may proceed to discuss the congestion or otherwise existing in its various parts.

34. Details are given in the margin of the mean density on the cultivated area for the ten districts, the three Provinces and four natural divisions of the State. They show that the greatest pressure is in Laddakh, to which the great con-

reduced to very small holdings owing to division among the descendants from a common stock, and the income from them does not suffice to support the growing families. The result is that they go out in search of employment and add to their petty incomes by common labour. The large average of the Laddakh district, with the small population that it has, further shows that the cultivated area is at its minimum there.

Next comes southern Kashmir, but its figure is somewhat misleading as it includes the population of Srinagar city. The men in cities are rarely agricultural. Exclusion of the city figures, both of area (8,1% square miles)\* and population (126,344), reduces the density figures to only 941. The high density in Muzaffarabad is also reflected in the economic condition of the inhabitants of that district. They are seen in large numbers working as coolies on the Jhelum valley road throughout the year. On the other extreme, the sparseness of population in Gilgit appears remarkable, but the explanation is not far to seek. This is a country cut off by high and difficult mountain ranges. The comfort-loving Kashmiri naturally does not like to leave his own 'Vale of Happiness' and cross the Burzil and Kamri passes to go to settle in the deep, warm and unhealthy valleys of Gilgit; even the hardy Balti considers it easier to pass on to the Simla hills or the plains of the Punjab, rather than to cross the dreadful Burgi pass and the dangerous Deosi plateau to reach Gilgit in search of land for cultivation.

35. The figures for smaller units must next be examined to explain Pressure The Laddakhi is outgrowing certain local conditions. in tehsils, etc. the resources of his country (1,033), owing to the decline in the practice of polyandry which has been recently very noticeable; if the rate of increase continues it will not be long before there will arise acute necessity of finding occupation for the surplus population of that country elsewhere. The congestion of Ramban (1,093) is due to the influx of Kashmiris who are settled there so largely, as they find its climate as good as that of their own country and as they are able to obtain more land to cultivate. Kishtwar, with its snowy ilaqas of Marua, Warwan, Padar, etc., has very little cultivable area, so it is not at all surprising that its population (1,134) should be fast outgrowing its resources. Ramnagar (697) and Bhadarwah (595) have such small densities because of their forests. The intensely dense Mirpur (691) Jasmirgarh (484) Sri Ranbirsinghpura (558) with yet smaller averages only indicate the high proportion of cultivated areas that exists in those tehsils.

o In default of separate figures for cultivated area in the city, its total area has been set off.

36. Closely connected with the subject of cultivated area are the agricultural conditions of the country, and it has now Density, and to be seen how they affect the population. Only 5.1 per cent of the total area is, according to the Revenue land available forcultivation records of 1910 A. D., cultivable, of which again only 83.9 is net cultivated (excluding double crop area) and the rest is fallow. Of the gross cultivated area 24.09 is irrigated. The full significance of these figures can not, however, be realized without going into minuter details. The percentage of the cultivable area of the State as a whole is reduced to such a low level, owing to the vast extent of mountainous country, that it has in the Frontier districts ('6), in the district of Muzaffarabad (8.4) in Kashmir, and in Udhampur district (5.4) of Jammu. The sub-montane and semi-mountainous tracts possess no less than 35.1 of cultivable lands, and Kasmir South 19.7, and these are just the most populous tracts of the State. Within these major divisions, too, there are large variations of cultivability. On the one extreme there is the Laddakh tehsil, with its 1 per cent, and on the other Ranbirsinghpura, with 77.4, and, as has repeatedly been said above. these are respectively the most thinly populated and the densest tehsils. Gilgit has a larger proportion of cultivable area (5.5) and there is yet room for growth of population, especially in Astore. Among the tehsils of Kashmir proper, Kulgam (25.5), Awantipura (37) and Sri Partabsinghpura (38.2) are the most resourceful. In Jammu the most unproductive tract, as might have been expected, is Kishtwar tehsil, constituted as it mainly is of huge mountains. Among the more favourably circumstanced tehsils may be mentioned Samba (35.8), Mirpur (36.3) and Jasmirgarh (50.5). Density and extent of culturable lands are thus found to vary directly.

37. The percentages of irrigation are also contained in subsidiary Table I of this chapter, and they tell a different tale. Although Density and the 24.38 of Jammu tehsil, 34.17 of Ranbirsinghpura, 26.5 Irrigation of Jasmirgarh and 41.27 of Kathua would indicate that facilities of irrigation do contribute to growth of population, the 2.16 of the fairly well populated Samba, 1.07 and .49 of the dense Mirpur and Bhimbar, respectively, on the one hand, and 27.57 of the sparsely populated Kishtwar on the other, would lead one to believe that there is no necessary connexion between density and irrigation. The only tract where one notices irrigation affecting the population in this respect is Kashmir proper. The case of the Frontier districts is just the reverse, for although no crop can be raised there except by means of irrigation—and these means abound—the population there is extremely scanty. But it has to be remembered that in all these exceptional cases there are other causes that affect adversely, viz., the climatic severities, the difficulties of communication, the presence of hills and forests, infertility of the soil, and so forth. Besides, the tracts with small percentages of irrigation are principally barani and they depend more on rainfall than on artificial irrigation. That rainfall is usually plentiful there will be seen from the next paragraph.

Density and Rainfall

Rainfall

The majority of the sparsely populated tracts are at the head of the list, while some of the most populous tehsils appear very low

	Inches	i	Inches
Ramnagar	78.38	Ranbirsing hpura	38-88
Riasi	67-18	Jannirgarh	38:31
Baschli	69-43	Kulgam	38:10
Baiguri	56 09	Bhimbar	\$6.50
Udhampur	55.84	Mirpur	35·23
Uri	54-51	Anantnag '	34 82
Ramban	48.91	Kishtwar	84.51
Kathua	47-46	Awantipura	28-97
Akhnur	48-71	Srinegar	28-31
Uttarmachipura	46.04	Partabsinghpura	23-23
Kurnah	45.29	Kargil	9-74
Mozaffarabad		Skurdu	7-29
Samba	44-57	Gilgis	5.38
Koshi	42.46	Astore	•
Baramula	39-97	Leh	3.85
Jamma	39-20	Į	i
	• Not	available.	

down. In the Frontier, Skardû, though the most thickly populated, gets a smaller quantity of rain than Kargil. In Kashmir, although Sri Partabsinghpura is the densest tehsil, its rainfall is the smallest. In Jammu it is the tehsils in the outer hills that receive the largest amount of rain, and its densest tehsils, viz., Ranbirsinghpura, Jasmirgarh, Bhimbar and Mirpur stand last in order in that province in this respect. All this would

lead one to suspect that rainfall affects density here only adversely, if at all; but, as has been said in the last paragraph, the causes of sparseness of population in tracts well served by the monsoon are other than excess of rainfall, viz., the physical features of the tracts themselves. Taking a broader view of the country we notice that it is the Frontier Province, which gets the smallest quantity of rain, that is the least populated. The Province of Kashmir receives an average rainfall, and has as a whole a moderately dense population, and it is the Jammu Province which, taken as a unit, leads, both in the amount of the rainfall that it receives as well as the total number of the people that inhabit it.

- 39. The principal crops vary here with the locality, and the general percentages, 17:1 rice, 5:9 pulses, 27:2 maize, 1:1 trumba, 17:7 wheat, 3:1 barley, and 1:6 grim, can afford no possible basis for calculation. It is only on entering into details Density and Crops that it is found that rice and maize form the chief crops in Kashmir, wheat in Jammu and Tibetan barley (grim) in the Frontier. (buck-wheat) is grown only in the Frontier districts and higher hills of Jammu and Kashmir. In Jammu the only place where rice is grown to any extent is the district of Jasrota, with its low lands and the means of irrigation it has in the systems of the Ravi and the Ujh rivers. The relation of rice cultivation to density discovered in Bengal on the occasion of the last Census applies with some force to Kashmir proper, and it may be cited as a corresponding fact that in the lower parts of Jammu density varies with wheat cultivation in direct proportion, Ranbirsinghpura, Mirpur and Bhimber being the largest wheat growing tracts. It might also be interesting to note that the wheat-growing Jammu man is of slim, though smart, build; the rice-eating Kashmiri, though of large proportions, is considered to be loosely built, and it is only the barley consumer on the Frontier (the Laddakhi and the Gilgiti) who is credited with the possession of real nerve and muscle.
- Density viewed from other standpoints

  ber of persons on each square mile. The converse process is to divide the area by the population and see how much land, in square measure, falls to the share of each individual. The latter is what is called areality. This for the State works out to be 17·11 acres per head on total population, as against 2·58 in Baroda and 3·96 in Hyderabad among the leading Native States, and 6·52 in the North-West Frontier and 3·6 in the Punjab, among the British Provinces. These figures indicate how sparsely populated the State is.
- (b) Yet another method of expressing density is in terms of proximity.

  Bub-montano and semi- notations track.

  The presumption in this case is that the individuals of the population in question are evenly distributed over the entire of the tract inhabited by them. This is only a lineal measure of density and consists of the square root of the lum valley).

  Frontier districts (Indus valley).

  For the entire State it works out to 288 yards and the detail for its main internal divisions, administrative as well as natural, is noted in the margin.
- (c) A third point of view is concerned with the number of souls dwelling in each house. This is affected to a certain extent by the change at the present Census in the definition of the term 'house', which now practically denotes only a family. The present figures under this head are 6 for the entire State, 5 for Jammu Province, 7 for Kashmir and 6 for the Frontier districts as against 6, 6, 8 and 6 of the last Census (see subsidiary Table VII of this Chapter). Within the province of Jammu the average for the submontane and semi-mountainous tract is 5 and that for the outer hills 6 persons per house. These figures fully establish the noted fecundity of the Kashmiri; each family in Kashmir proper comprises a much larger number of individuals than is found elsewhere in the State. Another factor which leads to an increase

in this average is the joint-family system, but it prevails to a larger extent in the Dugar ilaqa, where the Hindu element preponderates. The low averages per family in the hills of Jammu are due to a decrease known to be taking place in the productivity of the people inhabiting those parts; the insecure life of the people on the northern Frontier as well as the need for mutual help in agricultural work owing to scarcity of men, makes them lead a family life as little disintegrated as possible, and raises the averages for the ilaqus that lie there. The family of the polyandrous Laddakhi is only rarely large, and the average of Laddakh district owes its magnitude to the overgrowing Balti race of Skardû.

41. From the physiographical and demographical description of the State given above, it is clear that of the large range of Resume conditions affecting density the more salient ones are fertility of soil, configuration of the surface, means of irrigation, rainfall, climate, facilities of communication and proximity to trade centres. The population is dense or sparse according as these forces prevail to a greater or less degree. The sparseness of population in the Frontier districts, for instance, is due to the rigours of the intensely cold climate that exists there, and to the presence of the dense mountain systems of dry and bare rock, affording little room for expansion of cultivation. The salubrity of the temperate climate of Kashmir, the abundance there of rich soil for cultivation, and of the means of irrigation, make its level and flat portions the most populous, notwithstanding the adverse circumstance of that country being so much liable to floods and visitations of cholera. Kishtwar, on the other hand, though possessing a better climate (cold, yet dry) suffers in population because of the presence of large forest areas and high snowy mountains; water is also scarce theret and the rainfall is the smallest in Jammu Province. Malaria markedly-affects the district of Muzaffarabad (especially its Karnah tehsil) and the ilaga of Punch. The density in the submontane and semi-mountainous tracts of Jammu Province is due to the easier conditions of life, the availability of large areas for cultivation, the plentiful rainfall and the accessibility of the neighbouring markets of the Punjab-Jhelum for Mirpur, Gujrat for Bhimber, Sialkot for Ranbirsinghpura and Sujanpur for Jasmirgarh and Kathua. The Ranbir and Partab canals have, by improving irrigation in Jammu and Ranbirsinghpura, immensely bettered the lot of the cultivators of those tehsils, in spite of the loss to their crops caused by the depredations of the blue bull and deer that abound in the neighbouring rakhs (game preserves of the State). This improvement in the material condition of the people is bound to conduce to the growth of population in these tracts, but at least another decade must elapse before the extent of their benefit can become appreciable.

#### (III) Towns and Villages

- 42. The tables that relate to this subject are III to V Imperial and Reference to Tables

  Reference to Tables

  Tables

  They show full details of the population by sex and religion for each town and village, arranged territorially.
- 43. The Imperial code of rules for the present Census imposed the Definition of following limitations on the treatment of any abadi as a town:
  - (a) That it enjoys a municipal administration;
  - (b) That it constitutes civil lines, outside the municipal limits;

This is discussed more fully at the end of the fourth section of this chapter.

† A scheme of waterworks is now in course of execution in the town of Kishtwar. It is one of the items of improvement of sanitary conditions in the towns of the State for which a special grant has been made along with the other concessions graciously announced by His Highness the Maharaja Saheb Bahadur in connection with the Coronation of the King-Emperor.

(c) That it is a cantonment; or
 (d) That it is any other continuous collection of houses inhabited by not less than 5,000 persons, provided it possesses urban characteristics and is not merely an overgrown village.

Municipal self-government is still very backward here; some semblance of it exists only in Srinagar and Jammu. Of civil lines they have as yet no idea in the State. Satwari is the only cantonment of any magnitude that could be, and has been, treated as a town under clause (c). In an essentially agricultural country like this one could little expect the existence of any large town of the population limit prescribed in clause (d) above. At the same time there do exist certain abadis which are of considerable historical and administrative importance locally, and the mere fact that they are locally known as gasbas determined their status as something superior to ordinary villages. The population limit originally imposed in consultation with the Settlement Commissioner was 2,000, but since many important places of known urban character would have been left out because of their happening to possess smaller populations, the population test was abandoned. The idea of township had to be looked at relatively with reference to the ideas of the people here, and with a view to make a real difference between rural and urban populations fifty-nine places were determined as towns.

44. Of these fifty-nine 'towns', seven have a population of more than 5,000, twenty are between two to five thousand, thirty Their number between five hundred and a thousand, and two even and size smaller. The population of Gulmarg (70!) is not at all real; the figure represents merely the population of the watchmen found there at the final enumeration, as the place is almost completely deserted in winter owing to heavy snowfall. It is the chief summer resort of Kachmir and possesses a large number of bungalows and cottages constructed in English style, as well as a fairly large native quarter and bazar. In its senson, which extends from June to September, its population rises to several thousands, and a true idea of its size will be formed by taking a supplementary Census of it, the next time in summer. Almost all the headquarters of nayabats, tehsils and districts have been treated as towns, not only because of their present importance as seats of administration of any grade, but also because of their historical associations. Rajauri (Rampur) was, for instance, the seat of Mohamedan Rajas of Rajput race, till the rise of the Dogra power in Maharaja Gulab Singh's reign; Minawar, though reduced even as a nayabat now, was once the headquarters of a district; Patan is only the remnant of the chief city in Kashmir built by Sankara Varman (883-902 A.D.) of the ancient Hindu rule; Akhnur, Bhadarwah, Kishtwar, Basohli, Riasi, Kotli and Doda, have all been petty hill principalities in the past. The average population is 4,932 per town, but if we exclude the two cities it comes down to only 2,420. In the mountainous country of the Outer Hills and the Frontier one can little expect to find any large-sized towns, and the averages of 2,045 and 1,683, respectively, for those natural divisions are not at all unreasonable. The average is the largest in Kashmir (8,979), and the submontane and semi-mountainous tract of Jammu takes the undisputed second place with 2,045. Although the towns of Kashmir count fewer (21 against 28 of Jammu) they are generally of a larger size, the average population being 8,979, as against 3,290. These figures clearly indicate the liking that the better civilized Kashmiri has for the amenities of urban life.

45. Before passing on to a detailed discussion of the urban population,

Past and present it seems necessary to point out that whereas in the Census of 1891 six places were treated as towns, in addition to the two cities, possessing as they did a number of inhabitants in excess of 5,000 the only urban population shown in the last Census was the total

One of the Coronation boons seeks to extend municipal powers and localize the funds, which latter have hitherto formed part of the general revenues.

of the two cities Jammu and Srinagar. Of the towns of 1891, however, Batala (Dewa Vatala) in tehsil Bhimber, though still inhabited by 5,498 persons, possesses no urban characteristics, and being only an overgrown village has been omitted from the new town list. Zunimar (8,095) constitutes the suburbs of Srinagar, but being beyond the municipal limit has been treated as a town by itself on the present occasion.

- 46. 'City' has been defined only as a large town with a population of a cities

  lac or more, and Srinagar alone falls under this category.

  But Jammu, being the seat of the present Government and having all the characteristics of city life as understood in this part of the country, has all along been treated as such. It has consequently been dealt with as a city in the present Census. Further particulars about them will be found discussed later on.\*
- 47. It is the village which forms the chief item in the demography of this preëminently rural country. No local code of Census rules having been framed on the previous occasions, it is not possible to say what tests were applied in the determination of a unit as a village for purposes of Census, but considering that the measurement of lands and regular settlements have been matters only of recent growth, not much reliance can be placed on the previous figures representing the total number of villages in the State.
- 48. In this connection the ground was cleared as far as possible on the present occasion by circulating the following definition of a village that was to be borne in mind in parcelling out the land into Census divisions and preparing the Village Register and Block List.
  - "Village for purposes of Census here will mean, in areas already settled or now under settlement, a territorial i.e. revenue village which has been duly surveyed, demarcated and treated as a unit for purposes of assessment. It may be actually assessed to some land revenue or its revenue may be released, compounded for or redeemed. In forest areas the smallest forest division should be adopted. In unsettled areas this term would mean the residential village, that is to say each collection of houseshaving an independent existence and name should be taken as a separate village."

Along with this it is necessary to consider the definition of a hamlet, which was:

"Hamlet signifies a small group of houses detached from the main abadi of a village, but still dependent upon the same."

The hamlets were to be shown separately, but not independently. They were alloted no separate number of their own and were shown below the principal abadi of which they formed only a part. There was thus little room for any confusion to arise in this connection, and a considerable degree of accuracy can be claimed for the present statistics in this respect.

49. Proceeding on these lines an exhaustive list was framed of all the villages, with the hamlets appertaining thereto, according Number of to which the total number is 8,865, as against 8,946 of 1901 and 8,411 of 1891. These numbers relate to villages alone and require some explanation. Many of the places shown previously as villages have this time been classed as towns. Uninhabited villages (bechiragh) do not seem to have so far been eliminated from the Census statistics. Their number is 178, and they have not been included at all in column 4 of Imperial Table I of this Census.† Then, Provincial Table I (column of remarks) will show that some 'abadis treated as a single unit for purposes of Census are comprised of several hadbast villages. Parol town, for example, consists of six villages, and Kathua and Pampur of three each, Skardû of two and Srinagar city includes as many as fourteen village units. In order to judge the village statistics rightly we must

<sup>•</sup> Vide §§60, 64 infra.

<sup>†</sup> Cf. § 55 infra.

therefore consider the number of villages and towns, whether inhabited or uninhabited, as a whole, and they are as follows:

<u>1891</u> <u>1901</u> <u>1911</u> 8,419 8,948 9,127

It is clear from these figures that there has been a steady growth in the number of villages in each of the last two decades; but once the remaining portions of the State are finally measured and settled, no matter how much its population may expand the total number of villages in the sense in which the term has been used in this Census can not be affected to any great extent. It will only be the inhabited sites that will increase, and not the number of hadbast villages, except that the present areas may be split up into smaller units.

- 50. The character of village sites varies in different parts of the State. In the plains, whether of Kashmir or at the foot of the Character of Jammu hills, the houses are, after the custom in the Punjab village sites and Hindustan proper, built in clusters, large or small according to the allocation of the cultivable land. It is in these parts, too, that hamlets abound, as with the spread of cultivation persons having their fields at long distances from the principal village-sites begin to reside in smaller groups at places nearer to their lands. On the undulating surface of the hills, cultivable land is not available in large areas at any one place. Wherever there is an open and level space with some means of irrigation it has been converted into one or more fields according to the needs of agriculture, and the cultivator has built his house close by. Villages in these parts, therefore, consist of scattered houses far apart from each other, extending not infrequently over several miles. In such tracts it is only rarely that one meets with two or more houses at one place. The villages in Muzaffarabad, Punch, and in fact in the whole of "the Outer Hills," are of this nature. In the Frontier the gregarious nature of man is much in evidence. It is only where the deep valleys widen out that any cultivation can be thought of, and, given sufficient sources of irrigation from the hill streams originating in some accumulation of frozen snow higher up, and a tractable soil, men are sure to congregate there to embark together upon a course of existence at best precarious. All the mountain slopes and surfaces being barren and dry, the scattered houses noticed in Jammu Province are never met with, and the distance between village and village is generally very great. The Indus valley has, however, opened up considerably in the neighbourhood of Leh and on the left bank of the river, between Tstok and Hemis, there are 339 houses spread over a large area stretching for nearly ten miles from point to point. This is the colony of Balti Shiahs, and is called Chachot village. It forms the single instance of this kind of abadi in that part of the country.
- 51. The arrangement of houses on the village site also differs materially. On the plains conterminous with the Punjab the houses often merge into one another and are ranged along narrow irregular streets and blind alleys. In the Jammu hills, the houses being situated on the slopes and on crags are only rarely built together, so that even where there is a collection of several houses at any one place the houses are far apart, and on different levels. In Kashmir the system of house building is quite different. Each house generally stands by itself with the usual number of stories and apartments, but the houses are usually concentrated on a small site. In the Frontier it is just around the villages that trees are to be seen, and orchards often stand in close proximity to residences. The Budhist villages in Laddakh begin and end with manis (prayer-walls) and churtangs, and are built along the valley, lengthwise. The mani is a raised platform of varying length made up of loose stones of all sizes, the top being generally sloping, but sometimes flat, the upper surface being strewn with pieces of slate inscribed with Budhist mantras, so that the passer-by may, even by a mere glance at them, be sanctified, obtain the merit of repeating the prayer and be blessed for it. Churtangs are constructions of kutcha bricks raised in honour of the dead. The ashes of

distinguished ancestors are buried at the base, or are preserved in the upper portion of the structure. Sometimes a large churtang forms the main entrance to the village, the roadway leading through it. In Hindu villages the graceful pinnacles surmounting the temples are conspicuous; in Mohamedan villages unpretentious mosques are necessary adjuncts. The latter are not, however, the majestic cupolaed structures flanked with tall minarets that are met with in the more advanced parts of India, but consist of a single flat-roofed hall with a small courtyard in front of it. The mosques in Kashmir have more the appearance of pagodas than musjids. There they are built in several stories, like the houses of the people, the whole block covered with a single wooden roof sloping on all four sides, with a tall turret in the centre. In the Shia villages of Baltistan matam-sarais (the public buildings where the battle of Karbala, and the hardships and loss inflicted in it on the family of the Prophet, are commemorated and mourned) are found in place of mosques. In Laddakh, every village of any importance has its Budhist monastery (ghonpa) which stands on the highest available site and at some distance from the main abadi. The lamas (monks) and chhumos (nuns) reside there, and these monastries also contain the usual appanages of Budhistic worship.

It is only in the villages of Jammu Province that any distinction is made as regards the location of the houses of the untouchables—"the depressed classes"—who are made to live in a colony of their own in the outskirts of the village, occasionally altogether cut off from the main block of houses. It is here, too, that the proud Rajputs of higher classes, hitherto called mians, live in castles which stand all by themselves on commanding sites. Each consists of a large enclosure containing separate houses for individual families, with a common gateway. These are only reminiscences of the olden days of petty chiefships, and although these families have lost all political power they continue to live a life of haughty isolation and inactivity in these fortifications.

52. A reference to the Urdu publication containing the village tables Size of villages of the State would show that the largest village has a population of 5498, and the smallest of only one. Imperial Table III gives the classification of the villages according to the population contained in them, and it will be found there that, with the exception of places treated as towns, there is but one village in the grade 5,000 to 10,000. The rest are as in the margin, the figures being exclusive of the units of towns.

Grade of village		Number					
	Total	Jammu province	Kaslımlı province	Frontier districts			
Under 500 .	7,266	3,683	2,981	622			
500—1,000 .	. 1,172	593	473	107			
1,000-2,000 .	. 369	209	,133	27			
2,000-5,000 .	. 84	47	19	5			
Total .	8,804	4,524	3,579	761			

Of the total number of villages, 82 per cent have a population of less than 500, 13 per cent of 500 to 1,000, 4 per cent of 1,000 to 2,000, and scarcely 1 per cent of 2,000 to 5,000. By far the largest number of villages in the State thus fall within the smaller grades. A noteworthy feature of the statistics of the size of villages is that the highest percentage of the larger vil

lages is found in Jammu Province. These large-sized villages, it may further be remarked, do not abound in the densely populated plains at the foot of the hills but exist in the region known as the "outer hills." The reason for this is that the villages in those parts are widely spread over mountainous areas. The habitations, as already referred to above, being scattered over those areas, no question of congestion arises to limit their population. Their totals thus swell to large proportions.

Average area village. The area and population averages of villages for the and population in villages in the margin. The proposition enunciated in the last paragraph is further illustrated by these figures, as it will be seen from them as well as

from the district figures given in Subsidiary Table III that the largest number of persons per village is found in the

Averages per village of MATURAL DIVISIONS AND PROVINCES Population I. Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract 279 1.2 378 8-9 II, Outer Hills 828 87 . Jammu Province iii. Jhelum Valley (Kash- ) 309 IV. Indus Valley (Front-) 62-7 122

number of persons per village is found in the Outer Hills, the maximum being 672 in Punch ilaqa. In area, too, the largest average (excluding the Frontier of course) for villages is found in the same natural division. The case of the Frontier districts is a special one. As has been shown in preceding paragraphs, that tract consists of large mountains devoid of all vegetation, and villages there are met with only very far apart. An average of

82.2 square miles per village for that part of the State should therefore not be surprising. On the other hand, in natural division No. I, where density is at its maximum, it is but natural that the land should be much cared for, and should be split up into a large number of small villages, resulting in an average of 1.3 square miles per village. It is the great number of villages in this tract, too, that gives such a small average of population, viz., 279 per unit.

Comparative distribution of villages among parison is made with the percentages of the last Census. The proportion of persons living in the smallest and largest

grades proportion of persons living in the smallest and largest villages has, it will be seen, undergone little change during the decade,

Grade of villag	Percent populat	age of ion in	Variation :		
G1200 (2 1)225-2		1901	1911		
Under 500 500-2,000 2,000-5,000 5,000 and over	::	49·0 37·7 6·2 1·5	49°3 45°5 5°1 3°0	+ '3 + 7·8 1·1 + '5	

but the rise of 7.8 per cent in the second grade clearly indicates great development in the agricultural population of the State. The reason for deficiency in the two to five thousand grade is not far to seek: most of the places in that grade have been classified

as towns in the present Census.

55. In a mountainous and wild country like this one would expect to find many more uninhabited villages (in the revenue sense Uninhabited of the term) than really exist. Of a total of 9,127 villages, villages 178 uninhabited gams (pinds) is but an insignificant proportion. By far the largest number of these exists in Jammu district (61) and Kashmir valley (57). They are dealt with as separate units for purposes of the assessment of revenue, the land being tilled by non-resident cultivators (udarach) who live in the neighbouring abadis. They are numerous in the hot kandi and hardo-kandi tracts of Jammu and Jasrota (14) districts, to which cultivators from the colder hills near by migrate only for the purpose of raising crops, returning to cooler climes as soon as they have reaped their harvests: nor will they be pursuaded to come down and reside permanently in these hot tracts. The excess of such villages in Bhadarwah (17) is due to the dearth of men in that sparsely populated tract; and in Kashmir North (21) and South (36) the largest number is contributed by the hilly and intensely cold tehsils of Uttarmachchipura (8), Awantipura (10) and Anantnag (13). In the Frontier, where presence of cultivable land is the very raison d'être of an abadi, it is no wonder that there should be but one uninhabited village. For purposes of Census, however, these units have absolutely no importance; they have therefore been disregarded in all our calculations.

Table III. It will be seen from them that, taking the State as a whole, of every thousand of its population oil what proportion of the State hears to rural.

villages. Even this unpretentious figure owes its size mainly to the two cities, for if we exclude them it falls to only 45.2. Of the urban population. again,525 per mille go to the credit of the two cities, and of the remainder 172 reside in towns with a population of five to ten thousand, and 303 in those of under five thousand persons. The largest proportion of towndwellers is, of course, found in Kashmir (146), and the smallest in the rugged Outer Hills of Jammu (30). The figures 173 per mille for Gilgit and 177 for the Frontier ilaque should not be taken to signify that the people in those backward districts are more inclined to urban life. The urban population there is indeed very small, but the rural population being smaller still as compared with other districts of the State the proportion must needs work up to a high figure. Besides, the internal divisions in the latter district are numerous, each petty state having been treated as a unit and its headquarters classed as a town. On the whole it may well be premised that this State is, as might well be expected from its physical features, an essentially rural country.

57. As is the case throughout India, social conditions in villages are simpler, truer to nature and more genial than in towns. Life in village The village community forms a self-contained and self-sufficient unit, swayed by common feelings of fraternity, and in town and the economic forces act and react mutually upon the members forming, as it were, a large family. This common bond is particularly noticeable in this primitive country, in the larger portion of which the residents of each village are all of one and the same class and the differentiations arising from caste restrictions seldom or never arise. Any rigid notion of caste is realised only in the Dugar ilaga. The ignorant rustics of the Outer Hills seldom care for these matters. In the Mirpur district of Jammu, and in the whole of Kashmir and Frontier almost the entire population is Mohamedan, and there are no real castes to give rise to differences. The Laddakhi Budhist, too, recognizes no caste. The bonds of union among the villagers in the State are therefore closer than usual. It is only in Jammu Province that functional groups, in the real sense of the term, exist in any considerable numbers. Elsewhere almost every man (and he is a cultivator of course) is his own carpenter, blacksmith, washerman, tailor, mason, and even aweeper. There is therefore nothing to choose between man and man, and all live on terms of perfect equality. In towns, on the other hand, individual professions, trades and occupations do exist to a greater or less degree. The smaller towns differ but slightly from villages in their social life, but in the larger ones an aloofness in transanctions between class and class, absence of sympathy and the independent life led by the various families constituting the population are disfinct features of social economy. This is naturally more pronounced in the two cities, notwithstanding the fact that they compare but ill with even the most backward townships in other parts of India.

58. The discussion of the various aspects of the rural population being a lengthy process must needs be reserved to a later stage, but Sex proporthe salient features of the urban population may approprition in towns ately be considered in this chapter. Of the 300,879 persons of the latter class registered at the present Census, 167,028 are males. and 133,851 females. These figures give a proportion of 80 females to every hundred males, as against 89 of the rural nopulation, that is to say the women are fewer in towns than in villages. The reasons are plain enough. The civilized population in towns is largely composed of men who enter into industrial and commercial pursuits which bring them from long distances into the towns in search of business or employment, and they leave their women-folk at home. The traders and shopkeepers who immigrate are generally men from the Punjab; they do not usually, if at all, bring their families with them. The labourers who come in from the country for a. temporary sojourn also come all alone. These circumstances swell the male population at the cost of the female. In the cities are found quite

considerable communities of State servants; the majority of these are also men from the Punjab. This makes the sex difference in the two cities conjointly (80) and especially in Jammu (64)\* particularly marked. The military units contribute to this result largely. †

The percentage in towns of the persons professing the four main religions in the State is given in round numbers in the margin by natural divisions and provinces as well as for the entire State. Subsidiary Table IV of this chapter gives proportional, and Imperial Table V actual figures on this subject. These

Matural Divisions and			PERCENTAGE OF						
F	ro rinom		Hiodus	Bikhs	Budhists	Mohemedans			
No. (1)			19	27		7			
<b>,</b> (11)	••		6	4	•				
" (1) an	d (II) Jan	mu	10	16					
. (III) <i>(</i>	Kashmir)		<b>56</b>	6	23	11			
- (IV) (	Frontier)		48	49	5	8			
Tot	ial State		13	9	4	•			

figures show a distinct tendency on the part of the Hindu to congregate in towns, the Hindu percentage for the State as a whole being the highest of all. Nextin order come the Sikhs, and it is no wonder that the essentially agricultural Budhist of Laddakh should rank last

as regards residence in towns. The real significance of these figures, however, can only be fully understood on a more detailed scrutiny of the statistics. The Mohamedan owes his proportion chiefly to the trading classes of Srinagar city (218 per mille). The high percentage of Hindus in Jammu district is largely due to the presence of the Durbar and the State offices of all the civil and military departments at Jammu city, and the figure for Kashmir South is swollen to 657 mainly by the Kashmiri Pundit, who is so pre-eminently a townsman. The high percentages of Laddakh and Gilgit are due chiefly to the presence of military garrisons at the Frontier outposts in those districts. In Mirpur town itself there is a numerous class of Hindu money-lenders whose usury keeps the agriculturists of that district in great misery and whose activities are at present taxing the talents of the Revenue administration to control. The percentages of Hindus in other districts are swelled by the staffs of the tehsil and wizarat estabblishments as well as the mofassil employes of some other Departments. The Sikh is the second in the field because he is so much a man of business. In all towns of any importance the trade in grains, piece-goods, confectionery and condiments is in the hands of Sikhs, and they also form an important proportion in the money-lending and trading communities of Mirpur, Udhampur, and Kathua; it is the Sikh, too, who monopolizes the trade of the towns in the Frontier districts (610 per mille in Laddakh, 351 in Gilgit and 625 in the Frontier ilagas.)

Of the other religions, the far-advanced, trading Parsi can exist only in the cities, if at all, in this country of hills, forests and wildernesses. The whole of the Zoroastrian population (31) thus resides either in Jammu (5) or in Srinagar city (26) and comprises the proprietors and managers of shops and firms that exist there and a few persons in the State service. Of the Christians, the Europeans and Anglo-Indians all reside in towns, with the solitary instance of a Moravian missionary who lives in Khaltse (Laddakh). This Bodh village also forms the single exception in regard to the residence of Indian Christians, as two men and two women of that class are found there; the rest are in towns and cities. The Jaini Agarwal also has a great predilection for town life.

60. In the absence of a detail of the areas of towns it is not possible

Density in to work out density for the entire urban area, but the avertowns ages of Srinagar (24.6 per acre) and Jammu (28.3) give some idea of the state of affairs in this connexion. The present site of Jammu being circumscribed, its area is thoroughly congested,

<sup>•</sup> See column 4, Subsidiary Table VI.

<sup>†</sup> Vide Subsidiary Table V, Col. 4, and Imperial Table IV.

but the town is likely to extend towards the Nauabad and the Rolki on the south-west, where ample space exists for house-building. As regards Srinagar, though the pressure of population there is already very great it can continue expanding indefinitely along the banks of the Jhelum on either side. Among minor towns, those lying in short open expansions of the beds of valleys appear naturally congested, but there is plenty of room for the towns on the plains, either of Jammu or Kashmir, to expand. Mirpur is, however, peculiarly situated on the flat spur of a low hill, of which it occupies nearly the whole area, and already complaints are heard regarding the lack of space for house-building. The same is the case with Muzaffarabad, Riasi, Kishtwar and Bhadarwah.

61. Mention of the sizes of towns has already been made in paragraph

Grades of towns

44, but when all the urban units are classified according to the Imperial scale it is found that there are no towns in the State in the second and fourth grades, and the rest classify themselves as follows:

Grade	Nùmber	Population
I (100,000 and over) }	. 1	126,344
III (20,000—50,000) }	, <b>r</b>	31,726
V (5,000—10,000) }	7	51,671
VI (under 5,000)	52	91,138

The two units of the first two grades are of course the two cities. Islamabad was in the fourth grade in 1891, when its population exceeded 10,000, but as it has now less than that number of residents it is classed in the next lower grade.

As regards the distribution of the population among these grades of towns, it may be noted that taking the whole urban population as 100, 42 persons will be found living in the first grade, 11 in the third, 17 in the fifth and 30 in the sixth grade towns. It is thus in the largest and the smallest towns that most people reside.

62. For the changes in the treatment of places as towns at the various censuses of the State the last paragraph and § 45 may Variation in be consulted. The only comparison possible is in respect urban to the population of the two cities, which have uniformpopulation ly been shown separately from the rural population, and reference to column 6 of Subsidiary Table V will show that Srinagar has been steadily and uniformly growing, 3 per cent having been added to its population in either of the last two decades. Jammu, on the other hand, has been vacillating; although its population increased by a little over 4 per cent in 1891-1901, it has fallen by 11 per cent in the last decade, and there is thus a net loss of about 7 per cent in twenty years. Of the smaller towns, five are common between the present Census and that of 1891, viz., Islamabad, Sopur, Punch, Mirpur and Baramula, and they are all important places. A comparison of their figures shows that Islamabad has lost heavily, and Mirpur to a certain extent; Punch is almost stationary, while Baramula has developed very largely.

The variations have been worked out absolutely as well as relatively, that is to say, taking urban population as a whole, and also by eliminating the part relating to places dealt with as towns at one Census and otherwise at another. From the latter point of view there has been an all-around increase of 2.25 per cent, and this is the real one; while from the former the total urban population has increased by 56.6 per cent, which, owing to the addition of a large number of new places to the town list, is a misleading figure.

63. The statistics of the variations in urban population having been noted, the causes that have led to this rise and fall may next be discussed. Mirpur is a centre of great industrial Decay and and commercial activity at the western end of the sub-montane and semi-mountainous tract, and from what has growth of towns, and the causes thereof already been said regarding the money-lenders of that place it can be judged that its people are very well off. They are men of enterprise as well. Numbers of them leave their homes to pursue service or trade, both in the State and beyond it, and are found in civil as well as military Nor do they confine their operations to India; they not employment. infrequently go abroad, especially to the colonies on the seaboard of South Africa. This is one explanation of the ostensible decrease shown by the figures for Mirpur. The more immediate cause, however, is that plague raged in that town at the time the present enumeration was made. The people had left the town in large numbers and had taken refuge with their friends and relations, both higher up in the hills and in the adjacent places on the plains of the Punjab. It can not therefore be said that this town is actually losing in population. Islamabad, on the other hand, is undoubtedly declining. This is a town of great antiquity and historical associations, as its ancient name, Anantnac, itself would show. During the old Hindu rule it possessed great importance, and the Martand shrine close by still attracts people to the town. Even in the days of Mohamedan supremacy (when its name was changed to Islamabad) it flourished. It formed the only emporium for wool, butter, food grains, medical herbs, spices, leather, walnuts, etc., from the hills in the south and east of Kashmir, and was the chief centre of trade between Wardwan, Kishtwar, Ramban and other contiguous ilaque of Jammu on the one side and the plains of Kashmir proper on the other. Of late it has been slowly, though surely, decaying, until it is now only famous for the manufacture of gabbhas (a kind of carpet made of pieces of well seasoned blankets stitched together artistically in floral designs). To a certain extent its decline is due to the development of means of communication between Srinagar and all other parts of the valley, but the main cause is the diversion of all trade between the Punjab and Kashmir from the Banihal route to the Jhelum valley road, as is evidenced by the fact that Baramula at the other extremity of the valley has gained proportionally what Islamabad has lost. The latter may possibly recover some of its prosperity with the opening of the Banihal road for wheeled traffic, which has been sanctioned only this year. This scheme is expected to help considerably the present growth of Udhampur town, which is the centre of all trade between the higher hills and lower levels of Jammu Province.

It is the decrease in the population of Jammu itself that is the more serious item for consideration, and although this may be attributed in some measure to the lack of efficiency in the arrangements made by the municipal authorities for taking its Census (the causes whereof have been dealt with at length in the Administrative Volume of this Report), that the town has actually decayed considerably during the last decade can not be denied; evidence of this is found in the various ruined bazars the large number of dilapidated houses that one meets in every part and the numerous gaps in the interior of the abadi that give it a somewhat bald appear-The causes are readily named: (a) some slight decrease is explained away by the change in the municipal limits by which are taken away (i) the railway area (ii) the abadi in and about the Divisional Engineer's bungalow, (iii) the shops on the Satwari Road, (iv) Bhatta Gulzarishah, and (v) the abadi known as Kunwan Shikarpurian and the segregation camp; (b) the opening of the Suchetgarh-Tawi line has diverted the local trade and commerce to the neighbouring town of Sialkot in the Punjab; (c) complaints are being made on all hands as to the severity of the customs tariff. Whatever truth there may or may not be in this allegation, the fact remains that the Jammu townsman finds it cheaper to import the articles of his requirements from Sialkot than to purchase them locally, provided he can manage to evade the clutches of the *chungiwala*. (d) The most cogent cause of all of the depopulation of this town has been plague, which has been working havoc with its people throughout the last ten years, and this is rightly taken as a circumstance over which man has no control.

The lack of good potable water has always been the greatest anxiety of the Jammu townsmen. Well water is a costly luxury, and it is, moreover, believed to cause goitre. Foul accumulations of rain water in the shallow tanks of the town, which do not dry up only because the sewers of the neighbourhood debouch into them, used to form the sole reserve of drinking water for the people at large. The wonder is not that their number diminished, but that any have survived! Great relief has latterly been caused by the introduction of water-works, although filtering arrangements are not yet all that can be desired. Conservancy and other sanitary arragements are being better looked after, and several schemes are in contemplation for opening up the congested parts of the town and removing the surplus population to the open spaces on the south and west. Signs of brisk activity in the improvement of the town are visible already in the new brick houses that may be seen in course of erection in several quarters. With such fair prospects, and the opening up of the Banihal and Kishwar roads, Jammu may yet look forward to the recovery of its past glory\* in the not far distant future.

66. The increase in Srinagar, with all its improvements in sanitation, lighting, waterworks, medical aid and general administration, is but natural. But for constant decimation by cholera its population must have outgrown its resources, notwithstanding the increase that has taken place in the latter by the inauguration of fresh fields of labour like the silk and the wine factories, the electric installation, the neighbouring quarries for road metal and the general industrial development that is seen in all quarters of the town. There is, however, much room for further improvement. The interior of the city is still much congested and the filth in its unpaved, narrow and dark alleys and by-lanes makes walking through such parts a painful experience. The authorities are quite alive to their responsibilities in this connexion, but a long time must elapse before these modern 'Augean Stables' can be thoroughly cleansed.

Of the minor towns, Riasi and Katra, since the opening up of the Katra tonga road, and Kishtwar, with the coming conversion of its dangerous foot-path into a decent bridle-road, have bright futures before them.

67. Jammu city consists of nine wards and a dense compact abadi. It stands on the right bank of the Tawi and occupies the summit and slopes of a low hillock, extending from southwest to north-east. Its present area is 1,120 acres. The Palace, whose outer quadrangle contains all the Secretariat offices, stands at the north-eastern end, on the brink of a precipice rising from the banks of the Tawi. The solitary cart-road from the railway station leads to the Palace, and, as far as the city is concerned, ends there. Near the Raghunath templest one branch of it leads to the dák bungalow and the State building reserved for the use of the Resident; an offshoot of this latter passes through the Urdu Bazar. The Pakka Danga, the Urdu Bazar, and the Kanik Mandi are the only markets now open for business. The Central Jail and the State

<sup>&</sup>quot;In the palmy days of Raja Ranjit Doo towards the latter part of the eighteenth century, it is stated that the population (of Jammu) was 150,000." (Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. XIV p. 50). This is of course a fanciful estimate. There is no room for such a large population on the site of the present town, and there are no relics to be found anywhere else in the neighbourhood which point to any other site having been abandoned in favour of the present locality.

<sup>†</sup> The Hindu temples are so numerous in this town that it has been rightly called "the city of temples." Their towering cones, whitewashed and surmounted with glittering pinnacles, give the town a majestic appearance and the distant view that one gets when the train steams into the Tawi station is simply magnificient.

Press are situated in the north-western portion of the City; the Military Lines

-		POPULATION					
Name of ward		Total	Male	Pemale			
<del></del>	<del></del>	1,845	1.174	671			
II	I	3.192	2,035	1,157			
111	1	4,340	2,548	1,772			
I∇		300	1,997	1,303			
▼		4.051	2,746	1,705			
VΙ		4.090	2.250	1.810			
¥Ú		4,570	3,664	1,900			
VIII		3,447	2,100	1.847			
ΙX	1	404	321	83			
Military area	••	1,859	1,650	219			
Gardena.		237	181	106			
Mandi Mubarak	{	361	96	285			
Total	]	81,726	19,362	12,864			

lie to the south-west. The depressed classes—Chamiars, Dums, Chuhras, Meghs, etc.—live in separate colonies in the outskirts on the north-west and south-east. The names of the important quarters are Ramnagar, Mohalla Bhabrian, Julah-kamohalla, Purani Mandi, Dalpatian, Raghunathpura, Gummat Darwaza and Nauabad. So much for topography. The details of the population of Jammu City by wards may now be noted in the margin.

68. So much has been said and written about *Srinagar* that it would be simply a waste of time and space to describe it in any detail here. The city of *Sri-Lakshni* (Goddess of Wealth) or of *Surya* (the Sun God) as its name has variously been accounted for, stands on either bank of the Jhelum and extends for more than three miles in a curve, occupying an area of 5,139 acres on a

			POPULATION				
	Name of ward		Total	Male	Female		
1. 2. 8. 4. 5. U.	Khanlar Rainawari Naulutta Banginlarwara Nawakadai Maharajgang	**	6,592 8,439 7,268 8,324 11,787 10,076	3,002 4,514 8,848 1,902 6,258 5,486	2,590 8,925 8,420 1,423 5,529 4,590		
7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13,	Ohattabal Zainakadal Tashawan Naraingarh Kothibagh Malauma Habakadal Bararanimbal Miliary	••	10,219 6,458 20,714 7,910 5,473 1,833 21,555 994 9,104	5,505 3,448 11,135 3,992 3,158 782 11,378 515	4,714 3,010 9,879 3,218 2,315 851 10,177 479 790		
	Total		192,546	66,307	56,239		

site almost in the centre of the plain of Kashmir. It consists of the parts detailed in the margin. In addition to the total given there, 3,798 (2,071 male and 1,727 female) is the water-borne population of the Hanjis and others.\* The Kothibagh and Munshibagh areas are laid out in English style. Rainawari is the stronghold of the Kashmiri pundit. Mahrajganj is named after the late Maharaja Ranbir Singh and was once wholly destroyed by fire, which is a standing menace to the wooden houses of the city.

The present density of Srinagar is 15,735 persons per square mile, as against 15,327 of 1901 and 14,870 of 1891. The previous figures of Jammu are, however, not at all intelligible; they are 4,516 and 4,318 respectively for 1901 and 1891, as against 18,129 of the present Census. The area adopted on the previous occasions must have been materially larger than that really occupied by the city according to its present municipal boundaries.

69. The details in percentage as to age, civil condition and literacy

	Unma	rried	Mar	ried	Wide	wed	Liters	ito	Illite	rate
Age	Jamas	Bringer	Jamma	Srinegar	Jamma	Brinagar	Jamma	Srinagar	Jammu	Srinegar
0-10 10-15 15-90 20-30 30-40 40-50 50-60 70 and over.	99-0 82-5 50-0 26-0 11-0 6-0 5-0 4-0 6-0	99-9 87-4 49-0 21-0 6-0 4-0 8-0 8-0 8-0	1-0 17-0 47-0 86-0 74-0 89-0 55-0 44-0 87-0	12.5 49.0 75.0 85.0 76.0 60.0 43.0	\$0 80 150 250 400 520 570	20 40 90 90 90 870 840 840	21.2 23.0 16.5 5.6	-7 8-5 11-0	974 83-8 78-0	99·3 91·5 89·0 88·3
Total	\$8.6	454	480	45.3	13.4	9-4	17:5	8.4	82.5	91.6

given in the margin in respect to both the cities may be interesting. A comparison of the figures under these heads as between towns and villages can be made at length only in the appropriate chapters. Here it will suffice to note that the people in these cities do not marry as early as in the plains below,

that child marriage is not favoured and that marriage is not as universal as in most other Indian cities, the ratio for the two cities taken together being 21 unmarried to 29 married and widowed. The maximum of married persons is reached at the period of 30 to 40 years of age. Unmarried widows, especially those of marriageable ages, are less numerous in Srinagar than in Jammu, evidently because of the majority of Musalmans in the former, who practice widow-remarriage largely.

o 127,400 persons was an excessive estimate of the population of this city made in 1873 A. D. This number is alleged to have fallen to only 60,000 in the great famine of 1877-9!

<sup>†</sup> Cf. § 72 infra.

Literacy is of course higher in cities than in the country, but even so the percentages compare very badly with other parts of India. It is larger in Jammu in comparison with Srinagar for the simple reason that at the time of the Census all the head offices of the State service were located in Jammu, and also because of the influx of literates from the plains of the Punjab in search of employment and otherwise. Of English knowledge, notwithstanding all that the State has done for it by opening a college at each of the cities, also high schools, it has not yet much to boast. The details for the two cities are:

	•	0-10	10-15	15-20	20 & over	Total
Jammu Srinagar	•••	17	4·1, 3·4	7·8 6·6	4'3 2'4	3.9
Me	an .	'9	3.7	7.2	3.3	3.1

70. Migration is the next important aspect in which the population of the cities has to be considered, but it is only the intrinsic value of the figures that can be discussed at this stage. In Jammu only 66 per cent, i. e. two-thirds of the population, is locally born. This includes again a certain percentage of persons born in the villages of the district. Among the districts of the Province, Udhampur contributes the largest number. This is probably owing to the brisk trade in hill-products of all kinds that goes on between the headquarters of that district and Jammu. The 3.3 per cent coming from Kashmir comprise mainly the Kashmiri pundit employees of the State, but a small proportion consists of casual births in Kashmir among Jammu people who go up to Srinagar every year with the Durbar. Of the rest, by far the largest proportion comes from the Punjab (5,768 persons) and especially the conterminous districts (3,569), Sialkot leading with 2,238. Persons from more remote places in that Province are not rare, 684 are from Gujranwala alone. The bulk of this section of the population is formed of men in the service of the State and they hail from all parts of the Punjab. The number of immigrants from other Provinces in British India is very insignificant, and this varies inversely with the distance, people from Hindustan (i. e. the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh) being 289, from Bengal 40, from Behar 15, from Bombay 48 and from Madras 11. In Srinagar\* migration is at its minimum in winter, but temporary migration during summer is enormous. Thousands of persons follow the Durbar and a large number of European and Indian visitors, which is steadily increasing from year to year, goes to Kashmir and stays in Srinagar and elsewhere for varying periods. In a population enumerated on the 10th of March a percentage of 98 of local people should not therefore be surprising; 890 persons of Jammu Province are obviously the State servants and a few tradesmen. The North-West Frontier Province being the nearest to that part of the country contributes naturally a larger number of persons to Srinagar (294) than to Jammu (140). Even the Punjabi element (632) is not large in Kashmir. The rest is not worthy of consideration. In all migrations from outside the State, especially from distant parts, the female element is naturally very small.+

The statistics of the converse, viz., persons born in these cities but enumerated elsewhere, are obscured by the fact that the words Jammu or Kashmir are used in British Indian Provinces beyond the Punjab indiscriminately to signify this State as a whole, or at least the two Provinces of it that are called by these names. Kashmir is used even locally to signify both the valley as a whole and the city of Srinagar. It is therefore not worth while to discuss this point with reference to the cities in particular; 53 persons of Srinagar and 477 of Jammu are reported to have been counted outside this State and these figures may be taken for what they are worth.

<sup>° 19</sup> per mille as against 340 of Jammu-vide column 5 Subsidiary Table VI.

<sup>†</sup> Cf § 58 supra.

As regards occupations in the cities, detailed figures will be found along with those for the districts in Table XV. Taking the combined population of the two cities as 100, there are only 42 workers, in round figures, as against 46 of 1901, and 58 dependents as against 54. On comparison with the percentages in rural population, which consist of 47 workers and 53 dependents, as against 30 and 70, respectively, of 1901, we find that the large increase in the number of actual workers in villages, due to the better classification insisted upon this time, is not reflected in the city population. On the contrary there is a distinct increase in the number of dependents in the cities. This may be partly ascribed to the fact that sufficient attention was not paid by the supervising agency employed in the cities to the rules circulated for the guidance of enumerators in this respect, and largely to the greater degree of luxury in the style of living of the city people, which always keeps pace with their advanced prosperity. These prosperous conditions are reflected in the manner of life of women and children in India, who become less inclined to activity and more and more dependent on the male head of the family. The bread-winner, with false notions of the male head of the family. respectability, also becomes imbued with the idea that it would be derogatory to his dignity and position in life to allow his women-folk and children to work. Moreover, a large proportion of the population in cities belongs to the artisan class, workmen and traders requiring more or less technical knowledge

Occupation	Jammu	Sri- Dagar
Agricultural and pasto-	8-8	<b>&amp;</b> 6
Workers is cotton, wool }	20	20-6
Workers in wood	1.7	34 20
Food industries	6-0	3-3
Tajtoring Whishermon, etc	2-6	7:7
Barbers and hair dressers Shoe-making	1.0	10 10
Solvenging	1.0	-7
Transport Trade in piece goods	-6	8-0 2-0
" milk, butter, ghee, etc. " grain, pulses, etc	-3 5-6	9.8
misoclianeous food	6-9	5-2
, fuel, etc.	-6 -2	
public administration	140	1·0 7·1
Domestic service	97	7-1

of the arts and crafts pursued; this necessarily precludes the help of the women and children of the family in their business. Details are given in the margin of the more important avocations of the people in the cities, and from these it becomes apparent that agriculture is at a great discount in city life. By far the largest proportion of the population is supported by the industries and trades connected with the feeding and clothing of the people (roughly 27 per cent in Jammu and 46 in Srinagar). Then come the personal servants—washermen, barbers, sweepers and the domestics (15 per cent in either city). The strength of the public services (14 and 7 respectively) is also at its best in cities, as large bodies of men concentrated at a single place have

to be dealt with, and all the head offices are located there. The percentage of workers in cotton, wool and silk is large for Kashmir because of the existence of the State silk factory, and also because the people in Kashmir villages as well as towns are engaged in spinning and weaving wool, large quantities of pattús and lois being turned out.

72. There are 7,293 occupied houses in Jammu and 23,840\* in Srinagar, which gives a mean average of 6.5 and 4.6 per acre, respec-Houses and tively. Srinagar is not, however, any the less cumbered house-room with houses than Jammu. Its honeycombed blocks of in cities wooden structures, running up to half a dozen stories, are proverbial, and give it an appearance of a very densely populated city, and so in fact it is; the small average is due to the larger number of open areasthe State Gardens, Hazuribagh, Munshibagh, Parade Ground and other spaces round about—being included in the acreage on which the mean has been calculated. There is a slight increase in the mean average of houses in Srinagar, as in 1901 it was only 3.5, which is chiefly due to the change in the definition, of course, and to a certain extent to the general growth of population. It is not possible to compare the figures of Jammu with so much certainty, as they work out for the last two censuses as only 1.3 and 1.9 per acre, from which it appears that the means were on those occasions worked out on some basis other than the real area of the town.

Unless the ancient Kashmiri had some peculiar notion of his own as to what constituted a house, Kalhana's estimate of the number of houses in Srinagar in the old Hindu period amounting to 3,600,000 must be taken as grossly exaggerated.

The number of persons occupying each house on an average was 5 for both cities in 1891, and 5 for Jammu and 6 for Srinagar in 1901, while the corresponding means now are only 4.3 and 5.8, respectively, for the obvious reason that it is each family with a common hearth that has been taken as one unit on the present occasion, while it is not uncommon to find one house occupied by more than one family. This is specially the case in cities, where many outsiders, who have no houses of their own, dwell as tenants in those of others. These figures, such as they are, however, do not not show the real state of affairs, as the strength of the majority of families is larger even in the cities. Had the number of shops (in which but one man sleeps for purposes of watch and ward) been singled out and eliminated from the total number of houses, larger figures of the mean average per family would have been obtained.

### (IV) Houses and House-room

73. The system of house-building, like everything else in the State, varies with the locality. Again, the country having experienced many political changes in times gone by and Architecture having been ruled and influenced by a variety of people of different races, colours and convictions, possesses an unique variety of architectural examples, ranging from the residential caves and cells of the aborigines, the old Indo-Aryan structures provided with all domestic comforts, houses in Tibetan style suited to the simple life in monasteries, the temporary sheds made after the fashion of the Central Asian Tartar's awls, the advanced models of the Persians and of the Moghuls of Delhi, to which gardens and pleasure grounds are necessary adjuncts, down to European bungalows, with all their provision for a civilized life in its most modern sense. Climatic conditions, however, overrule all these influences so far as the general public is concerned, and give the houses in various parts of the country their special character.

74. The low, flat-roofed, mud-walled, single-storied, houses in the villages of the sub-montane tracts are precisely the same as Types of are found in the plains of the Punjab, and scarcely need houses in subany detailed description. The houses generally have a small montane and enclosure formed by low walls in front of the main building, .semi-mounwhich consists of one or more rooms according to the needs tainous tract and means (particularly the latter) of the owner. A noticeable feature of the houses in northern India is the absence of any parapet above the roof. In Hindustan proper, and perhaps everywhere else in India where flat roofs are common, the four walls of a house rise to a certain height above the roof, which is not visible from the ground outside, while in the northern parts of the Punjab and all over Jammu not only are the roofs level, but they are continued on all sides in the form of flat, projecting eaves. This strikes the eye of the stranger at once, becauseduring summer in the warmer regions people of both sexes are accustomed to sleep on their roofs so as to have the benefit of the open air, without taking any precautions for privacy. In some parts, these open roofs are also used very early in the morning as domestic conveniences for the women of the house. In the kandi tracts of Jammu Province there is but little divergence from the general style of houses

75. In the Outer Hills the low-walled enclosures disappear, and houses Houses in the Outer Hills the low-walled enclosures disappear, and houses are formed more into single blocks with a bare open space in front; courtyards are replaced by deodhis (vestibules) or open verandals. The character of the roof, however, remains the same. Unsubstantial and frail as is the latter, it is surprising how well it serves to make the house waterproof in the excessive rains that fall in that part of the country. Nor is any binding, clayer mud available to give the roofs a firm and watertight coating. The striking feature of the

described above, except as regards the components of the walls, which, especially in case of the common people, are pieces of loose stone held together in various thicknesses by means of mud; and the whole building is coated

houses in the country of Bhadarwah and Kishtwar is that, towards the approach of winter, dry grass, rice stalks or the stubble of other crops is stacked in dome-shaped ricks on the roofs; this from a distance gives a house all the appearance of a tiny mausoleum. On the higher hills, where the houses are built on the mountain sides, one part of the roof adjoins the hill-side, and where the roofs of several houses combine together they look from above like a well dressed platform on the edge of the precipice, and are recognized to be houses only as one approaches the same plane, in front or at one side. It seems strange that, in spite of all the rain and snow that falls here, the roofs are not sloped on both sides, as is the practice throughout Kashmir Valley.

76. Houses in Kashmir, both on the plains and the mountain sides, are what one would expect them in a hilly country to be. They are In Kashmir constructed of wood in scantling or small logs nailed together to make up the walls, which latter are plastered with mud from within. They are built in stories—never less than three. The house is in a single block, the whole being covered with wooden planks sloping on both sides and ending in a central ridge. The poorer classes cover their roofs with earth in which grass is encouraged to grow. Those whose means permit spread the inner bark of the birch over the wooden planks; a coating of mud plaster is given overall, the whole resulting in a completely water-tight covering. Frame houses represent the most recent style in vogue; a frame-work is made of wooden rafters, planks and logs, the intervening spaces being filled in with kutcha or pucca bricks. Some builders are content to let these walls remain bare, others finish by plastering them with mud or lime. In contrast with the blank walls in Jammu, one's attention is particularly attracted to the openings in the shape of windows of various sizes that are generally found in Kashmir houses. They are provided with perforated or latticed shutters, which are covered with paper in winter to keep out the biting winds.

The ground floor is used as a cattle pen; the first storey, divided into one or more apartments, forms the residental quarters, there also provisions are stored and food is cooked. The uppermost section, which is frequently open on either side, is covered by the sloping roof, and provides store room for all the lumber, agricultural implements, grass, fuel and other household articles of no great value. There are no courtyards or enclosures attached to the houses, except where large spaces are available; these, when they exist, are converted into vegetable gardens and enclosed by mud walls of indifferent heights. The house is entered generally by a single door, even when it contains more than one family residing in separate apartments. Latrines are conspicuous by their absence, except in the houses of well-to-do people. The Kashmiri is no discriminator between cleanliness and filthiness; the excreta of man and beast lie round about the dwelling houses, being offensive alike to the eye and the olfactory nerve. In this respect the dwellings of Kashmir are in marked contrast with the well-kept, cleanly houses found in Jammu Province.

For storing grain the Kashmiri builds separate granaries, which are, like the houses, made of wood. They take the form of a small, isolated room, supported on four vertical posts, the floor separated from the ground by a wide space to avoid damp. They are erected close to the residences and provision is made for one of the members of the family to sleep therein for purposes of watch and ward. These had to be numbered separately as houses, but only such of them as harboured any person on the night of the Census were retained on the list.

77. When the Zojila or the Burzil Pass is crossed the whole aspect of the country changes once more, in this as in every other respect, and the tall wooden houses of Kashmir, with sloping roofs, give way to the low, dingy houses of Laddakh. These are built of mud or loose stones, with frail flat roofs of wooden shingles,

covered with mud. Timber for purposes of house building is non-existent. The few poplars of indifferent growth and thickness have other uses, and, can be applied to architectural needs only by the exceptionally rich, or by the State. The common people cover their houses with brushwood, which is put together in a thickness just enough to support the thin layer of earth that is thrown over it. The walls in Laddakh proper are made of kutcha bricks of very uncommon proportions—a foot in breadth, two in thickness and three in length. Sometimes, instead of building them of separate bricks, the walls are constructed of mud, layer by layer, the material being supported on either side by wooden planks, which are removed only when the earth has dried up.\* Each house contains a few rooms, and without exception a verandah. The cattle-shed is generally built apart from, but in close proximity to, the residential quarters. In poverty-stricken Baltistan and south-western parts of Kargil pieces of loose stone form the chief building material. The houses are very low and small; entry into them is obtained through a door in summer, but through a hole on the top of the roof in winter. The snow falling on the frail roof has to be constantly scraped off, being thrown down alongside the walls of the houses, and so blocking up the summer door.

It is very fortunate that in this land of flimsy structures rain falls but slightly, else the whole abadi would be razed to the ground with the first heavy downpour, and even the strongest houses would not long be habitable, owing to the leakage to which the roofs would become subject.

78. The description of houses given above relates to rural areas. In cities, and in some of the larger towns, the people with some-Style of houses what advanced ideas and better means build a superior in cities. class of residence for themselves. Brick and mortar houses, similar to those built by Indians and Europeans, are therefore not uncommon in Jammu and Srinagar. A marked feature in the high class architecture in Srinagar is the ornamental wooden ceiling formed of small and well-dressed chips of wood (chir and deodar) dovetailed together in floral designs. Sometimes the ceiling is coloured in lacquer work, and the superb decoration thus given to the interior of the house would satisfy the demands of the most fastidious taste. The Palaces are a combination of Hindu and Mohamedan architecture, and some of the State buildings are the best productions of the Kashmir and Jammu architect. Recently a few bungalows and kothis in the Indo-European style have been built out in open spaces, away from the congested parts of the cities, with ample grounds for gardening and recreation. "The Amar Villa" of the Chief Minister in Jammu is one of these. It is a magnificent and elegant building.

79: The essence of the difference between the definition of a house as adopted on the present occasion in the State, as elsewhere in India, and that of the past is that the one is a social unit while the other has been a structural unit. The new definition is almost co-extensive in significance with 'family', and it is this interpretation of the term that is of greater statistical value demographically. Moreover, it leaves no room for the confusion and controversy that the older definition is known to have created in the past. As a measure of prosperity or poverty, plenty or scarcity, health or disease, effect of migration, fertility or unproductiveness of the various races and places it is the mean size of a family, and not of the house in its ordinary sense, that is of any utility. The definition was, owing to considerations like these, worded as follows:

'House is an enclosure, shed, building or any other structure in which a single commensal family resides',

and the term family included such dependents as widows and other disabled and unprovided for relatives, also the servants, all eating from the common chulha (hearth).

This latter method of house-building is also practiced in Punch ilaga.

It is an open question, though, if it would not be well to do away with the use of the term 'house' altogether, as it appears to be only a misnomer to use that word where what is really meant is the family.

80. In preparing the house-list the enquiry for human habitations of all descriptions was very searching and thorough at the present Census. The executive erred, if at all, on the side of excess, but the subsequent scrutiny of the house totals, both on the spot and in the Tabulation Office, eliminated all mistakes, and the final total for the State comes to 553,124, as against 464,635 of 1901 and 447,993 of 1891. There has

The state of the s	Hom	Variations	
Natural Divisions and Provinces	1901.	1911.	(per cent)
I.—Submentane and Semi-mountainous tract		140,950	
IIOuter Hills		169,222	
Jamma Province	271,887	\$10,I7£	+14
IIIJhelum Valley (Kashmir Province)	153,136	197,382	+29
IV Indus Valley (The Frontier Districts)	273,68	45,570	+15
Total	484,635	553,134	+19

thus been registered an increase of 19 per cent as against 4 (roughly) of the previous decade. The comparative figures are arranged in the margin in respect to natural divisions and provinces. The increase in the population is fully reflected in the proportion of increase in the

number of houses, the corresponding figures being:

			Population	House <b>s</b>
Jammu		•••	+ 5	+14
Kashmir	•••	•••	+ 12	+ 29
Frontier	•••	***	+14	+ 15

That the progress of house building in the Frontier should not have kept pace in similar proportion is fully representative of the poverty of the people and the difficulty in procuring materials in that part, and above all the check exercised by the special customs of Laddakh on the disintegration of families.

That the disproportionate increase in the number of houses at the present Census, as compared with that of the last, is not due to any great extent to the change in the definition is clear from the fact that although the chulha was not the sole test for the Census on the last occasion, in all the rural area—and it is that which forms the largest part of the State—each family generally lives in a separate house. The excess is chiefly the result of the more careful and accurate enumeration that it has been found possible to secure at the present Census. It is a known fact that on former occasions the houses in remote, difficult and out-of-the-way places were never visited or numbered.

A comparison with the figures of the Census of 1891, however, gives no instructive results, as an increase in houses of only 3 per cent in Jammu and 5 of Kashmir, as against 6 and 22, respectively, in population, is not at all intelligible. In the Frontier districts, on the other hand, there was a decrease of '6 per cent, even though the population is shown to have gone up by over 46! The latter curious result is due, as has already been pointed out, to the inclusion of the Frontier ilaques in the Census operations for the first time in 1901. The net increases from 1891, it may well be noted, are 18, 35, 14 for the three Provinces, and 23 for the State as a whole. It is a remarkable coincidence that the net increase in population ever since 1891 is also precisely 23.\*

S1. The above figures relate only to the houses that were found inhabited by one or more persons on the night of the Census, whether the occupants were permanent residents or only temporary sojourners. At the house-numbering, however, every house, building, shed or other structure where there was any possibility of any person being present at the final Census

<sup>\*</sup> Vide Provincial Table, I, Vol. II of the present Census.

was numbered and registered. The total obtained by that means was 610,564 'houses.' All the places found vacant at the final enumeration were expunged from the list and the number according to the provisional totals dropped to 554,039, which further fell to only 553,124 upon detailed compilation. The net decrease of 57,440 houses arose partly from a mistake in the totals of Punch, and the rest is accounted for by sarais, staging bungalows, schools, dharamsals, granaries, cattle sheds, roadside caves, plane and banvan trees where travellers sometimes stay for the night, shops, temples, mosques, matam-sarais and other places and buildings of like nature. In the Outer Hills and the Frontier Districts it is a common practice for the people to build two sets of houses, one on the lower levels and the other on higher altitudes far removed from the village site. The latter are used as summer houses when the cattle are taken out and led to more verdant places for purposes of pasturage. The gawars of Bhadarwah and Kishtwar are instances of this. All such houses were, of course, vacant in winter, when the Census was taken, and they did not therefore count.

House-room cussed in § 40 (c) supra. Subsidiary Table VII also gives for each administrative and natural division the number of houses per square mile. It will be observed that the allocation of houses is, naturally enough, thickest in the sub-montane tract (52) as that is just the part where density of population is at its maximum; and the average is lowest in the thinly populated country on the Frontier, viz. one house per square mile. For the high averages of the districts Jammu (61) and Kashmir South (36) it is obviously the two cities that are largely responsible. With the previous enumerations comparison can, owing to territorial changes, be legitimately made only as regards the provincial figures of 1901 and the total of the whole

Provinces		Houses per square mile			VARIATIONS			
	1891	1901	1911	1891- 1901	1901- 1911	1891- 1911		
STATE	6		6			••		
Jammu	21	22	25	+1	+3	+4		
Kashmir .,	17	18	28	+1	+5	+6		
Prontier	1	1	1			••		

State for 1891. The figures in the margin have, however, been worked out on the present areas of the provinces and the State, and give some idea of the changes that have gone on in this respect during the last two decades. There has been no appreciable variation in the average of the State as a whole, but a steady growth has been recorded in the number of houses per square mile in the Provinces

of Jammu and Kashmir. On scrutinizing the figures for districts, it will be noticed that although there has been a general increase in the house averages since the last Census, a big drop has been registered in that part of Jasrota district which lies in the Outer Hills, viz. the tehsil of Basohli. The figures, however, disclose the state of the case only too truly, as it is a known fact that the population of that tehsil is in its decadence. The average of 75 houses per mile shown in the last Census Report in respect of the Frontier districts is startling only so long as the explanation is not forthcoming that it is based on cultivated, and not on the total, area.

The joint-family system is essentially an Indo-Aryan custom, having the imprimatur of law affixed to it by the Mitak-Joint-family shara. The system is fully represented in this State as system elsewhere, the community in which it is largely in force being the Hindus of the Dugar ilaqa, especially those of the higher castes. Amongst the Charak Rajputs, for instance, the tendency for large families to live together is the greatest, while the lower Thakkar families disintegrate rapidly. The Brahmans and Khattris hold this practice in much favour and the lower classes, Meghs, Dums, Chamiars, etc., prefer to live separately. Occupation has its own influence in this respect, the people engaged in service, trade, banking, etc., live together as a matter of expediency or security. Agriculture acts both ways. In certain cases it tends to encourage communal living, as the larger the number of members in a family the more economically is the industry carried on. On the other hand, in cases where the resources are limited large families cannot be supported by

them. As a matter of fact, it is noticed that agriculturists prefer to live separately in the majority of cases. Religion is another factor governing the condition of life. The Mohamedan, for example, is no respecter of the joint-family system, and the individuality of rights created by the Mohamedan Law has gone far to disintegrate the people of the Chibhal (Mirpur district) ilaga, who lived jointly in their Hindu days. The peculiar customs of the Buddhists of Laddakh, as already noted, conduce to the maintenance of the joint-family existence to the greatest extent. Polyandry and primogeniture oblige the younger brothers to be dependent upon and live jointly with the eldest. Among the local circumstances affecting civic life are: (a) the fear of begar, which prevents the people of tracts in close proximity to the Bhanihal road in Jammu and the treaty road in Laddakh from dividing, the conscription of labour being based on individual families; (b) absence of power to transfer or alienate land, which prevents the people in Kashmir from breaking up families, as no man can acquire land for himself and all must live together to obtain the benefit of the common ancestral property; (c) the limited extent of level tracts in Kashmir, which afford no room for further house building on any large scale; and (d) the traditional tenacity of the Kashmiri, whether Musalman or Hindu, to his ancestral property and residence, which makes the people in the valley cling to the central stock without ever giving a thought to division. A peculiar custom is reported from Kishtwar, under which the home is always given up to the younger son. This places the elder under the obligation to build a separate dwelling for himself, and may be a powerful cause of the congestion of the houses that is noticed in the level portion of that ilaqa which has the further disadvantage of being naturally very limited in extent. The social conditions in towns and villages have also some bearing on this subject, as in all the urban areas of the State the joint-family system is in greater vogue than in the country. The march of civilization has left its mark on this practice. With the progress of the ancient Aryan cult the joint-family system flourished; the spread of Mohamedanism has had a disintegrating effect; and the sections of society affected by the modern style of living show a greater tendency to separate living than the people of the old school. This is partly due to the increase in the cost of living, which is fast rendering it impossible for the average head of a family to support any others than those most immediately dependent upon him.

From a territorial point of view it may be noted that the joint-family system obtains in Dugar, Laddakh and Zanskar ilaqas, and in Kashmir proper. It is conspicuous by its absence in Chibhal ilaqa, the Outer Hills, and Baltistan. In Gilgit and the Frontier ilaqas the people are more gregarious according as life becomes more unsettled and insecure in the distant and difficult parts of that country. This fact is fully borne out by the average number of persons in each family worked out for the various territorial divisions of the State.\*

Among the causes that are locally found to tend to the breaking up of families may be mentioned petty quarrels and jealousies among the women, the practice of keeping concubines in the *ilaqa* of Udhampur, and the ordinary disputes between brothers in regard to the father's legacy. It is not uncommon for the sons to set up separate homesteads of their own soon after they are married. Among the Buddhists of Laddakh there is a peculiar custom of the father retiring from the business of the family as soon as his eldest son comes of age and is married, the parents withdrawing from all connection with household affairs and living on the produce of a piece of land set apart for their exclusive use. They, however, build no new house but live in a separate apartment under the family roof.

N.-B.—Next follow the subsidiary tables to this chapter. In addition to them there are three appendices containing actual figures of (a) the total, the cultivated, the irrigated and the cropped areas for the various tehsils, districts and jagirs of the State; (b) the rainfall and (c) the temperature averages registered at each raingauge and observatory existing within the State.

<sup>·</sup> Vide subsidiary Table VII of this Chapter.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I Density, water supply and crops

I		per 1911	PERCE OF TO AR	DTAL		IVABLE	gross which	1.5	P	RCENTA	GE OF	Bross C	ULTIVAT	ED ARE	A UND	EB	
	District, Jagir or Ilaqa and Natural Division	Moan density square mile in	Cultivable .	Net cultivated †	Net cultivated	Double crop-	tage of ted area gated ‡	Normal rainfall	Rice	Wheat	Pulse	Maize	Trumba (buck-wheat)	Barley	Grim (Tibetan barloy)	Other crops (including Kharaba)	Remarks
Ī	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	. 11	12	13	14	15	16	· 17 .
ŀ	ENTIRE STATE	37	5.1	4.4	83,3	16.6	24.09	35.44	17.1	17.7	5.9	27.2	1.1	3.1	1.8	16.4	
	I.—Submontane and Semi- mountanous Tract	235	35.1	275	81.6	21.38	<b>14</b> .5	39.97	6.86	33.08	10.8	10 <sup>.</sup> 3	•••	4.88	404 -	29.75	O This corresponds to what is understood locally by the term 'Cultivated'.
A	Jammu District Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh)	280	39.7	35'1	88'4	16.6	17:97	42.34	5.6	28.8	8.5	9 4	•••	6.6		27'2	† This corresponds to what is
	and Kathua tehsils only) Mirpur District (Mirpur and )	211	39-9	28.2	70.7	15.6	34.1	42'88	24.7	29.7	5'4	7.4	•••	5'4	***	27.2	called here 'net area sown after de- ducting area doubly cropped.'
1	Bhimber tehsils only)	198	28'6	8-1	68.0	31'2	7	35'86	*4	37.9	11.4	11.9	***	1'1	414	31'8	‡ By 'Gross area' is meant ''net
	II.—The Outer Hills	98	11.2	9.8	88.2	179	9.6	56·11	<b>3.</b> 3	16.8	4.3	43.2	.2	3.8	•••	9.1	caltivated (col. 4) plus double cropped (col. 6.) area " for which the corres-
İ	Jasrota Dt. (Basohli tehsil only), Mirpur,, (Kotli tehsil only),	113 161	15.2 19.1	13·3 14·5	86.4 76.2	27 <b>·4</b> 34·1	8'62 '91	62.43 42.46	24'1 1'0	16 <sup>-</sup> 1	3·4 6·6	25'1 41'2		7.0 1.1	4+4	12.2 7.7	ponding expression used here is "Area of crops sown."
	Udhampur District	49 110	5·4 12·0	4·7 10·3	88.5 86.1	19·2 22·2	14 <sup>.</sup> 93 10 <sup>.</sup> 60	54.41 61.63	10'8 10'4	12.6 21.3	4·2 3·7	27.6 41.8	2.9	8·9 2·2	•••	14·4 8·9	& The normals are worked out on
Į	Bhadarwah Jagir	62 203	11.7	11.1	95·2 93·7	9 4		59.62	8.9	11.3	4.4	64.8		7	***	5.3	the actual rainfalls of the decade
j	•	154	15.2	12·4	81.4	13.1	•	39.62	37.0	4.2	2.2	33.0	1.0	1.1	-1	12.2	the whole period were not available.
١	III.—The Jhelum Valley  Kashmir North	130	15.9	12.2	78'4	15.2	ł	36.41	34.1	4.4	2.6	32.3	1.5	.9	-2	13.2	The irrigation figures of the Frontier Districts are not accurate as
	,, South	228 94	19.7	16·6 6·8	84·3 82·9	12.0 8.8		32·55 49·90	48.0 9.1	4.6 4.8	2.6 1.3	23·1 71·9	•9 •1	1.0 1.8	•••	12.5 7.2	there is no cultivated land in that part of the country which is not irri-
1	Muzaffarabad District		8.4	-6	97.8	8.8	1091	6.07	.8	28.2	11.2	6.2	6.8	4.1	18.0	21.2	gated. Cultivability and irrigability are synonymous there.
	IV.—The Indus Valley	4	i -											3.8 4.1	26.2	27.3	ate of none andre.
ł	Laddakh District Gilgit ,,	8	5.5	5·5	97'3 98'3	10°3 7°9	01 08	6·79 5·36	1.7	19.0 34.7	7°1 14°6	1 11 6	10 0 4 2		11.6	16.6	

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II

Distribution of the Population classified according to density

		Тенял	8 WITH A	POPULATIO	n per squ	ARE MI	E OF
		Unde	r 150	150-	-300	300-	
District, <i>Jagir</i> or <i>Ilaqa</i> and Natural Division		Aroa	Population ('000 omitted)	Area	Population ('000 omitted)	Area	Population ('000 omitted)
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
ENTIRE STATE .	-	75,224 89°1°	1,091 34.6	7,494 8'9	1,521 48°2	1,714 2	544 17'2
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun- tanous Tract	}	•••	•••	2,193 80°2	454 70°8	5 <del>1</del> 0 19'8	187 20 2
Jammu District	.		•••	627 <i>53</i> -7	139 <i>42°6</i>	540 46°3	187 57'4
Jasrota District (Jasm rgath and Kathua tchails only)	}		•••	410 100	- 86 100		•••
Mirpur District (Bhi/nber and Mirpur tohsils only)	}	•••	•••	1,156 100	228 100		
II.—The Outer Hills	۲.	7,460 76`9	525 55	2,246 23°1	430 45	••••	
Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only)		579 100	65 100	•••	***		•••
Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, ,, ) .	.		<b></b> ;#	598 100	96 <i>100</i>	•••	
Udhampur ,,	.	4,399 <i>100</i>	215 100	· •••	*** .	•••	
Riaci ,, .		1,875 100	206 100	*** .	•••	•••	•••
Bhadarwah <i>Jagir</i>		607 100	37 100	•••	***		
Punch Raga	.	•••	•••	1,648 <i>100</i>	334 100		
III.—The Jhelum Valley .	.	4,204 49°9	301 23 3	3,055 <i>36°2</i>	636 49°1	1,174 13°9	356 27°6
Kashmir North		2,677 75°3	200 43°5	416 11'7	120 <i>26</i> 1	460 13	139 <i>30</i> '4
Kashmir South	<b></b>	•••	•••	2,092 74.6	422 66	714 25'4	217 34
Muzaffarabad District		1,527 73'6	100 51'7	547 26°4	94 48° <b>\$</b>	•••	
IV.—The Indus Valley	-	63,560 100	265 100	•••	•••		
Laddakh District	.	45,762 100	186 <i>100</i>	***	•••	***	***
Gilgit "		3,118 100	23 100	***	<b>,</b>	***	•••
Frontier Ilagas		14,680) 100	54 100	•••	•	•	•••

The figures in Italics represent the proportion per cent which the area and population of each density group bear to the total area and population of the State or of the unit concerned as the case may be.

†Density groups with no entries have been omitted.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III

Distribution of the population between towns and villages

District, <i>Jagir</i> or <i>Ilaga</i> and Natural Division	popu	rage lation er	per read	nber mille ding	urba	an pop	per ma pulation owns vulation	resid-	of r	և ութ	opul in vil	ation lages
	Town	Villago	Towns	Villages	20,000 and over	10,000 to 20,000	5,000 to 10,000	Under 5,000	5,000 and over	2,000 to 5,000	500 to 2,000	Under 500
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
ENTIRE STATE	4,932	322	95	905	525		172	303	2	51	455	492
I.—The Submontane and } Semi-mountanous Tract	4,535	279	99	901	500		187	313	9	94	371	526
Jammu District	7,239	246	133	867	730		***	270		57	313	630
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh ) and Kathua tehsils only)	2,677	181	93	907	<b></b>		652	348	•••	•••	298	702
Mirpur District (Mirpur and ) Bhimber tehsils only)	2,405	447	53	947			552	448	25	176	473	326
II.—The Outer Hills	2,045	378	30	970			264	736	•••	53	509	438
Jasrota District (Basohli teh-	1,954	463	30	970	<u>.                                  </u>		•••	1,000	•••	ļ	609	391
Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, )	1,584	422		984			•••	1,000		63	564	373
Udhampur District Riasi	1,505 1,484	313 308		958 971	<b>····</b> ∣	•••	***	1,000 1,000		33	458 435	542 532
Bhadarwah Jagir	2,563	119	_	932	•••   •••		***	1,000	•••	33	14	986
Punch Ilaga	7,564	672	23	977			1,000			112		283
III.—The Jhelum Valley	8,979			854	670		171	159				518
Kashmir North South	2,953 $16.053$	318 343	$\begin{array}{c} 51 \\ 251 \end{array}$	949 749	787	***	640 107	360 106	•••	38 25		1509 1479
Muzaffarabad District	1,468	236		977	•••	:::	***	1,000			352	637
IV.—The Indus Valley	1,683	322	76	924	***		***	1,000		51	450	499
Laddakh District	2,136	388		966	•••	•••	***	1,000	···		507	424
Gilgit ,, Frontier Ilagas	$\frac{2,078}{1,375}$	248 207		827 823	•••	•••	•••	1,000 1,000			298 288	702 712
Frontier Hagas	1,010	201		223	•••	<b></b>	<u></u>	1,000		•••	200	

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV

Number per mille of the total population and of each main religion who live in towns

	Nu	mber <i>per 1</i>	nille who	live in tov	rns
District, Jagir or Ilaga and Natural Division	Population	Hindu	Sikh	Budhist	Musalman
1	2	3	4	5	6
ENTIRE STATE  I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountanous }  Tract	95 99 133 93 53 30 30 16 42 29 68 23 146 51	128 124 141 88 106 47 26 164 44 45 34 91 555 235 657	95 272 250 136 305 36 400 47 320 99  28 64 13 200	45   4  1,000 1,000 323	86 70 115 99 34 21 49 3 39 18 123 17 109 48 218
Muzaffarabad District	23 76 34 173 177	190 483 616 574 44	48 492 610 351 625	1,000 46 46 	17 78 29 159 177

# SUBSIDIAY TABLE V Towns classified by population

Class of To	, ,		Number of towns of each class in 1911	total urban po-	females per 1,000	in the pop	classed at		population lass from 1911
			Number of tow in 1911	Proportion to total urban pulation	Number of fe of males,	1901 to 1911	1891 to 1901	(a) in towns as classed in 1891	(b) in the total of each class in 1911 as compared with the corresponding total in 1891
1			2	3	4	5	6	7	. 8
Entire 8	state	4**	61	100	801	- 1	+3.4	+ 2.25	+56.6
I100,000 and over	, •••	•••	1	42	848	+3	+ 3	+ 6.5	+ 6.5
III.—20,000—50,000 —	•••	•••	1	*11	639	- 11'1	+4.6	- 6.9	- 6.9
IV.—10,000—20,000	•••	***	***	•••	•••		•••	- 11.8	•••
V.—5,000—10,000	•••	***	7	-17	815		***	+176	+51.9
VI.—Under 5,000	***		52	.30	793	•••	***	•••	•••

Note 1.—Class II having no entry has been omitted.

- ,, 2.—The first regular census of this State being that of 1891 the columns relating to censuses previous to that have been left out.
- ,, 3.—No comparative figures for columns 5 and 6 can be worked out in respect of the last three grades because of the fact that at the last census Srinagar and Jammu alone were treated as towns.
- ,, 4.—Columns 7 and 8 are blank for the last grade because places with a population below 5,000 have been treated as towns for the first time at the present census.
- ,, 5.—In column 8 no comparison can be made in regard to grade IV as Islamabad which had a population of over 10,000 having fallen below it has been classed under the grade next below.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI

#### Cities

		Number	Number of	Proportion	Percer	ntage of va	riation
	Population in 1911	of persons per equare mile	females to 1,000 males	of foreign born per mille	1901 to 1911	1891 to 1901	Total 1891 to 1911
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
***	31,726	18,129	639	340	- 11'1	+4.6	- 6.9
••-	126,344	15,735	848	19	+ 3	+ 3	+6.5
		in 1911	in 1911 per square mile  2 3 31,726 18,129	Population in 1911 of persons per square mile females to 1,000 males  2 3 4 31,726 18,129 639	Population in 1911   of persons per square mile   females to 1,000 born per mille	Population in 1911	Population in 1911   of persons per equare mile   females to 1,000 males   females to 1,000 per mille   females   females to 1,000 per mille   females   f

SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII
Fersons per house and houses per square mile

<u> </u>		<del> </del>				·
District, <i>Jagir</i> or <i>Flaqa</i> and Natural Division	Average	number of per house	persons		number of l	
	1911	1901	1891	1911	1901	1891
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entire State	6	6	6	6	6	6
I.—The Submontane and } Semi-mountanous Tract }	5	•••	•••	52	•••	•••
Jammu District	4	***	•••	61	•••	•••
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh } and Kathua tehsils only)	5	6	5	43	35	•••
Mirpur District (Mirpur and } Bhimber tehsils only)	4	***	***	45	•••	*,*
II.—The Outer Hills	8	•••	 [	17	***	•••
Jasrota District (Basohli teh- }	5	5	5	25	38	***
Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, )	5	•••	•••	33	•••	***
Udhampur District	5	•••	•••	9	••,•	***
Riasi ,,	6	***		20	•••	***
Bhadarwah Jagir	5	Б	5	12	***	•••
Punch Raga	7	7	7	31	,,,	***
Total I and II (Jammu)	5	. 6	5.	25		701
III.—The Jhelum Valley } (Kashmir Province)	7	8 i	7	23	19	
Kashmir North	7	· •••		19	***	***
,, South	6	•••	•••	36	#**	410
Muzaffarabad District	7	7	7	13 -	9	***
IV.—The Indus Valley }	6	6	4	1 .	75°	445
Laddakh District	6	***		1	444	***
Gilgit ,,	7	***		1	•••	••• ]
Frontier Ilaqas	6	,		.1 *		***

<sup>•</sup> This average was apparently worked out on cultivated area.

APPENDIX I

- Actual figures of total, cultivated, irrigated and cropped areas

		pje	ted	3	<u>*</u>	g g		· · ·		A	REA UNDER				
Teheil, District, Jagir or Ilaga	Total area (in acres)	Total cultivable area	Gross cultivated area	Net cultivated area	Area doubly cropped	Area irrigated	Rice	Maize	Pulses	Trumba	Wheat	Barley	Grim	Other crops	Kharaba
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
ENTIRE STATE	44,462,256	2,314,199	2,283,986	1,943,808	378,465	559,527	405,907	645,886	141,029	26,922	419,569	74,605	38,787	388,987	238,583
Total Jammu Province	7,817,136	1,289,830	1,293,452	1,078,847	252,892	158,370	113,445	373,843	97,395	4,851	323,208	57,036		248,026	164,440
Total Jammu District	760,320	801,881	316,409	266,284	50,125	56,864	18,888	32,163	27,970		97,691	22,690	***	92,214	48,105
Jammu Tehsil	243,840	79,717	80,841	62,398	18,443	19,716	10,689	10,937	6,198	***	22,416	6,923	4**	23,678	14,040
Samba ,, '	192,640	68,780	71,880	64,843	7,037	1,559	683	5,110	4,217	•••	16,932	5,802	411	20,803	18,933
Sri Ranbirsinghpura ,, Akhnur	101,760 222,080	78,100 75,284	86,700 76,988	76,401 62,642	10,299 14,346	29,627 5,962	3,893 3,623	6,456 9,660	9,152 8,403	•••	31,203 27,140	6,181 3,784	***	28,534 24,199	6,281 9,451
Total Jasrota District	632,960	162,114	155,899	123,787	32,112	36,471	38,167	23,124	7,152	***	37,441	9,508	***	32,744	28,959
Kathua Tehsil	144,000	45,554	46,563	35,066	11,497	19,217	16,250	5,750	1,524		9,741	2,487		10,772	6,514
Jasmirgarh ,,	118,400	59,017	43,750	38,930	4,820	11,598	6,090	963	3,387	4	17,106	2,405		13,799	14,719
Basohli ,,	370,560	.57,543	65,586	49,791	15,795	5,656	15,827	16,411	2,241	4 224	10,594	4,614		8,178	7,726
Total Udhampur District	2,755,840	156,263	167,538	137,811	29,727	25,040	17,769	45,540	6,861	4,851	21,650	15,254	***	24,300	31,313
Udhampur Tehsil Kishtwar	253,440	45,964 27,831	48,730 28,808	37,071 26,564	11,659 2,244	5,516 7,943	8,274	12,874 4,620	3,627 717	128 2.800	6,960 2,801	3,741 3,103	***	6,428	11,698
Damhan	1,806,720 374,400	35,249	33,4 <u>3</u> 4	32,167	1,267	6.785	2,078 2,339	12,714	709	1,923	3,020	3,580	***	6,355 4,486	6,834 4,663
Ramnagar	821,280	47.219	56,566	42,009	14,557	4,796	10.078	15.332	1.808	2,020	8,869	4,830	:::	7.031	8,618
Total Riasi District	1,200,000	144,926	155,793	123,824	31,969	16,528	17,082	68,622	6,099		35,033	3,660		14,522	19,308
Riasi Tehsil	645,120	65,051	75,392	61,699	13,693	5,519	4,612	27,455	3,441	***	16,438	2,232		10,441	10,773
Rampur Rajauri ,,	554,880	79,875	80,401	62,125	18,276	11,009	12,470	41,167	2,658	•••	18,595	1,428	***	4,081	8,535
Total Mirpur District	1,109,120	280,626	286,425	196,686	89,739	2,263	1,781	61,117	39,491	***	106,248	4,347	411	72,423	26,455
Kotli Tehsil Mirpur	382,720	72,985	80,436	55,559	24,877	734	873	36,642	5,896	***	28,103	1,016	•••	6,888	9,650
Dhimbon	250,240 476,160	90,776 116,865	86,756	81,341 59,786	5,415 59,447	935 594	48 860	4,302 20,173	18,641 14,954	***	33,277 44,868	732 -2,599	***	29,756	8,819
Bhadarwah Jagir	388,480	40,320	119,233	38,400	07,441	1		1 '	14,504	***	44,000	-2,009		85,779	12,986
Karlup Raqu	3,840	2.881	3.683	2,438	1,126	1,054	838	493	103	***	852	270	:::	767	241
Thakiala Parao	59,776	11,535	13,644	10,973	2,671	4,221	1,262	8,282	504		2,682	223		691	849
Punch Ilaga Total Punch Ilaga	906,800 970,416	191,284 205,700	194,067 211,394	178,644 192,055	15,423 19,220	15,929 21,204	17,658 19,758	134,502 143,277	9,215 9,822	•••	21,611 25,145	1,086 1,579		10,365 11,823	9,710 10,300
Carried over	7,817,136	1,289,830	1,293,452	<u> </u>	252,892	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		97,395	4 851	<del></del>	57,036		248,026	164,440

APPENDIX I.—(concluded)

Actual figures of total, cultivated, irrigated and cropped areas

	98	rable	ated	ited	bly	gg				1	AREA UNDE	R			
Tehsil, District, Jagir or Ilaqa	Total area (in acres)	Total cultivable area	Gross cultivated area	Net cultivated area	Area doubly cropped	Area irrigated	Rice	Maize .	Pulses	Trumba	Wheat	Barley	Grim	Other crops	Khareba
1	2	3	4 1	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Brought forward	7,817,136	1,289,830	1,293,452	1,078,847	252,892	158,370	113,445	373,843	97,395	4,851	323,208	57,036		248,026	164,440
Total Kashmir Province	5,397,120	824,198	779,399	671,209	108,190	400,957	29,629	258,402	19,465	7,732	36,822	8,781	787	96,233	66,045
Total Kashmir North  Uttarmachhipura Tehsil Baramula Sri Paratapsinghpura Total Kashmir South Tehsil Khas Awantipura Tehsil Kulgam ,, Anantnag ,,  Total Kashmir Valley	2,273,920 1,713,280 266,240 294,400 1,795,840 456,960 290,560 375,040 673,280 4,069,760	360,861 138,892 110,339 112,430 353,753 59,399 107,540 95,940 90,874	339,229 130,047 103,751 105,431 340,188 57,065 102,104 92,232 88,797	283,271 110,676 83,945 88,650 297,602 49,661 83,399 83,086 81,456	55,958 19,371 19,806 16,781 42,586 7,394 18,705 9,146 7,341	161,717 59,841 40,776 61,100 217,088 37,573 58,166 66,329 55,020 378,805	116,325 40,614 31,429 44,282 165,248 20,937 43,458 55,042 45,811	109,793 45,319 37,077 27,397 76,858 13,634 22,039 17,293 23,892 186,651	8,751 4,889 2,050 1,812 9,373 2,476 8,253 1,983 1,661 18,124	4,274 8,580 502 192 3,294 989 188 1,217 900 7,568	15,090 3,235 3,295 8,560 16,885 3,049 9,575 1,560 2,671	3,366 773 1,938 655 3,586 1,191 1,923 855 117	708 708  79 79 	45,814 16,640 15,993 13,181 43,258 12,575 12,403 8,211 10,069	36,784 14,252 11,467 11,065 25,457 2,679 12,534 6,603 3,641
Total Muzaffarabad District  Karnah Tehsil  Muzaffarabad .,  Uri ,,  Total Frontier Districts	1,327,360 650,880 350,080 326,400 31,248,000	109,584 14,592 65,592 29,400 198,171	99,982 14,009 60,097 25,876 211,135	90,336 11,549 54,444 24,343	9,646 2,460 5,653 1,533	22,152 7,655 7,217 7,280 200	9,058 1,468 4,500 3,088 1,833	71,751 9,738 42,136 19,877	1,341 140 957 244 24,169	164 23 130 11 14,339	4,877 194 3,919 764 59,539	1,829 629 1,214 86	   38,000	7,161 153 6,003 1,005 44,728	3,804 1,764 1,238 - 802 8,098
Total Laddakh Laddakh Tehsil Skardu Kargil Total Gilgit District Gilgit Tehsil Astore	29,252,480 19,067,520 5,454,080 4,730,880 1,995,520 982,400 1,013,120	83,065 19,626 42,535 20,904 115,106 78,693 36,413	89,301 18,472 48,037 22,792 121,834 87,548 34,286	80,773 18,141 42,435 20,197 112,979 78,693 34,286	8,528 331 5,602 2,595 8,855 8,855	100 100 100 100	1,833 1,833	71 71 13,570 12,702 868	8,373 1,567 8,896 910 17,796 12,108 5,688	74	16,951 3,883 10,387 2,681 42,588 31,070 11,518	8,788 2,354 5,744 690	23,659 6,506 8,622 8,531 14,341 6,255 8,086	24,375 8,787 12,251 8,337 20,353 18,084 2,269	158 33 123 5,942 5,422 520

NOTE. - This table does not include the Frontier Ilaque for which no details of this sort could be obtained.

APPENDIX II .- Actual figures of Rainfall

·	- O		-			ACTUA	. IM				
Tehsil and District	Normal 1901-10	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910
-1	2	3	4	5	6	.7	8	9	10	11	12
ENTIRE STATE Jammu District Jammu Tehsii Samba ,,	35·44 42·34 39·2 44·57	37.40 32.06 46.17	21.79 22.01 16.99	84 58 58 48 75 02	30°87 26°13 39°40	38.46 38.55 46.62	53.79 50.17 51.81	36·44 39·95 35·12	51.41 41.41 45.89	49 02 40 50 49 45	39·59 42·72 39·18
Sri Ranbirsinghpura } Tehsil Akhnur Jasrota District Kathus Tehsil	38 88 46 71 49 4 47 46	36.01 35.37 40.86 43.28	25.09 23.09 23.66 21.56	67°15 57°67 56°57 48°83	26.67 31.29 45.43 40.49	30.41 38.27 45.91 51.54	44.65 68.55 60.53 65.41	36.94 40.94 34.79	69 21 61 29 55 80	22.99 63.16 62.63 57.36	32 95 43 51 52 77 55 53
Jasmirgarh ,, Basohli ,, Udhampur District Udhampur Tehsil Kishtwar ,,	38°31 62°43 54°41 55°84 34°51	27.05 52.25 45.49 45.56 41.33	17'55 31'87 35'50 35'60 31'66	48.67 72.23 58.16 50.39 46.02	32'69 63'12 47'98 54'29 31'99	33 57 52 62 53 75 54 59 37 72	49 56 66 62 51 46 61 64 29 97	40 91 47 14 56 40 63 69 30 50	48 95 79 13 60 14 66 46 32 55	69.12 66.43 33;12	36 03 66 75 60 74 59 78 30 24
Ramban ,, Ramnagar ,, Riasi District Riasi Tehnil Rampur Rajauri	48-91 78:38 61:63 67:18 56:09	38'07 57'01 50'80 40'87 60'73	35.58 39.16 42.40 47.00 37.80	62.67 73.57 60.35 68.25 52.45	47.06 58.59 45.16 54.09 36.24	61.41 61.31 58.47 57.42 59.52	44.43 69.83 83.75 91.22 76.29	55.58 75.84 55.78 54.70 56.86	49'84 91'74 76'41 97'37 55'45	57 70 11,9 23 78 57 85 94 71 20	64.65 74.94 54.37
Mirpur District Kotli Tehsil Mirpur Bhimber Punch Ilaga	38.06 42.46 35.23 36.50 59.62	35.83 40.73 32.03 84.73 58.19	26.90 29.32 22.13 29.25 49.00	35.46 41.76 32.05 32.59 51.67	33.94 40.85 31.76 29.23 53.02	35.77 38.21 32.09 37.02 70.62	44.98 57.98 40.90 36.07 84.79	37·10 40·36 34·44 36·50 61·70	38.93 39.81 37.23 39.76 57.81	48.89 48.17 47.88 50.62 67.66	42.81 47.39 41.78 39.27 61.76
Kashmir North Uttarmachhipura	36·41 46·04	18·71 39·52	18·82 32:05	41·10 50·16	33 26 40:13	35·86 .38·53	29·68 32·86	38 <sup>-</sup> 80 46 <sup>-</sup> 64	42 <sup>-</sup> 89 56 57	39:74 58:95	40.60 64.98
Baramula ,, Sri Paratapsinghpura Kashmir South Toheil Khas	39.97 23.23 32.55 28.31	24:83	6.01 18.42 14.40 22.41	45.29 27.80 35.29 33.78	38.64 21.01 28.82 32.69	26.46	35.55 20.63 30.26 26.28	42.68 27.08 38.02 28.90	42,43 29,68 33,30 34,10	35 16 25 12 41 69 31 48	36.04 20.79 33.45 22.72 47.78
Awantipura Tehsil Kulgam ,, Anantnag ,, Muzaffarahad Karnah Tehsil	28.97 38.10 34.82 49.90 45.29	32.20 46.94 45.51	12'46 1'70 21'05 38'53 38'22	28 23 33 11 46 05 53 81 47 08	21.96 32.29 28.84 53.10 45.22	21.56 41.86 34.42 54.21 50.28	20.79 32.98 41.01 48.93 41.71	28.43 41.19 53.56 53.10 44.73	32'94 34'63 31'53 48'47 45'25	49 78 48 84 36 67 47 88 48 63	39.92 23.38 53.99 46.26
Muzaffarabad ,, Uri Laddakh District Laddakh Tehsil Skardu ,, Kargil ,, Gilzit Tehsil	54.51 6.79 3.35 7.29 9.74 5.36	48°37 4°92 3°11 5°05 6°62 4°66	38.85 6.08 2.94 5.12 10.19 6.02	60°55 7°28 4°09 8°45 9°32 4°74	60.98 5.61 2.07 6.13 8.64	58'14 10'67 3'99 9'71 18'33 7.33	56 15 6 92 1 94 9 6 9 15	61'47 6'20 4'27 5'90 8'44 4'80	51.70 7.86 4.81 8.30 10.47	47 14 4 38 2 85 5 37 4 92 4 03	61.73 7.97 3.40 9.18 11.33 5.53

APPENDIX III - Detail of temperature for the various Observatories existing in the State

STATION	Mean for decade 1901-1910 for highest and lowest temperature	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	Decembor	Annual mean
1	- 2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	. 13	14	15
Srinagar {	Maximum Minimum	42°2 27°0	44.6 29.2	55.4 37.2	65'4 44'9	75·1 51·9	82·1 57·0	84·9 63·3	85°1	79·3 54·3	71 1 42 4	61.9 32.1	48.6	66·3 44·2
Sonamarg {	Maximum Minimum	32 <sup>-9</sup>	35 <sup>1</sup>	40.6 19.5	49.0 28.1	60·9	68·7 40·9	70°3	70.5	65.2	58.7	51.6	39 9	53.6 29.4
Drag }	Maximum Minimum	18.8	21.4	31.9	42.2	59.6	73.4	77.8	48.7 79.0	40.8 69.3	30°2 58°2	22·3 43·7	16 3 27 4	50.2
Leh	Maximum Minimum	28·7 7·9	31.2	3·5 42·3	19·1 53·5	33·7 63·0	41.5 69.7	47 7 74 1	48.5 74.9	39.8 68.3	27.6 58.7	15.6 47.6	0 3 35 4	21.4 54.0
Skardu	Maximum	34.2	9.6 37.9	19.5 49.5	29.6 61.4	36.6 71.3	42 <sup>.</sup> 9	49.1 85.0	49 <sup>-</sup> 2 87 <sup>-</sup> 0	41°2 76°8	31.0 66.7	20.6 54.7	12·9 41·5	29°2 62°1
Gulmarg	Minimum Maximum	16.7	.18.6	32.5	42.1	49 <sup>-</sup> 1	54·9 66·2	68.2 68.2	60°3	53·1 62·9	41'7	29.6	22.3	40.1
Minimarg	Minimum Maximum	31 <sup>.</sup> 7	35 <sup>.</sup> 5	44.4	***	***	43.2	49.0	49.9	41'7		***	36.2	***
Astons	Minimum Maximum	36.6 9.0	8.7 39.0	16 <sup>-</sup> 1 45 <sup>-</sup> 9			•••	•••	•••	•••	***		12·9 42·1	•••
,	Minimum Maximum	17 <sup>-9</sup>	18.7 51.7	27.7	•••	01:E	00:0					•••,	19.9	***
Gilgit {	Minimum	32 3	36.4	44.5	70·7 52·2	81.5 59.1	90°9	95.0 70.7	95°8 71°3	86°5	75.9 52.8	64·1 42·4	49·7 33·4	72·4 52·0

į

## CHAPTER II

#### MOVEMENT OF POPULATION

Scope of the beading of this chapter is likely to mislead, as to the uninitiated it is apt to signify locomotion of the people and be confounded with a matter that forms the subject of the next chapter, viz. migration. A word of elucidation is therefore necessary. In Census phraseology, by movement of population is meant the variation that takes place from time to time in the strength of the population of a given tract as a result of births and deaths on the one hand and of immigration and emigration on the other. In the last chapter the population of the State was discussed with reference to its stationery condition, that is to say, as it was found on a particular date, (10th March); in the present it will be considered in its dynamic aspect, i.e., with reference to its growth or decrease from decade to decade.

85. The figures illustrating the movement of population are contained Reference to statistics in the following tables. They should be consulted in the light of the remarks made in the course of this chapter:

Proportional figures-Subsidiary Tables I, II and IV.

The compilation of Table III has been rendered impossible by the fact that the details of such vital statistics as are available for the decade are incomplete and do not cover all parts of the State.

Ancient literature is not without its references to the population of Kashmir of the olden times, but these are of a kind which Previous commend them only to those who find entertainment in enumerations legendary chronicle. One such allusion speaks of King Sankara Varman of Kashmir (883-902 A.D.) as having led forth, on an occasion, an army of 900,000 foot, 100,000 horse and 300 elephants\* from which it would appear that the good king made a levy of every man, woman and child in his dominions; otherwise it would not be possible to reconcile the fact that although more than a thousand years have passed since then, the total population of Kashmir proper to-day is only slightly in excess of what was King Sankara's army. Of Jammu the only mention is in respect to the population of the city which is stated to have comprised 150,000 souls in Ranjit Deo's time. The first attempt at an enumeration of the State as a whole † was made in 1873, the year following that in which the first Census of India was taken, but the only record of it which has been preserved is contained in Imperial Table II of the single volume Report of 1891. The results of that enumeration are known to have been very unsatisfactory, as the same report in its opening paragraph alludes to them as being "far from reliable." Although, therefore, the present is the fifth decennial Census of India, the Kashmir State cannot be said to have had a regular enumeration of its population till the year 1891. In that year it came for the first time within the scope of the general Census of India and its operations were brought into conformity with the procedure obtaining in British India. It follows that the reliable data available for purposes of comparison cover a period of only two decades. There has been at each succeeding Census a stricter adherence to regulated procedure, and it may be claimed that a stage has now been reached in the conduct of operations at which the accuracy of results attained would not easily be surpassed.

<sup>\*</sup> Vide Imperial Gazetter of India Vol. XV, page 91.

<sup>†</sup> The Frontier ilagas' were, however, not enumerated until 1901.

87. The divisions of the State treated as units at successive censuses have varied so greatly in point of geographical extent as to render a comparison in any detail of the decennial figures impracticable. Even the figures for the main divisions exhibited in the margin could not be adjusted with any

accuracy. All that it has been possible to do in respect of these, in the

•			Popul	ation		Percentage of variation				
, Provinc	•	1878	1691	1901	1911	1878 to 1691	1891 to 1901	1901 to 1911		
State		1,585,174	2,594,164	2,905,768	3,158,126	+63	+11-0	+ 86		
Jaminu		935,784	1,434,686	1,516,450	1,597,865	+64	+ 5.7	+ 5.3		
Xast,mir		491,846	940,041	1,157,894	1,295,201	+93	+31.9	+31-9		
Prontler		159,544	210,427	381,924	265,060	4 83	+10-3	+14.3		

absence of a detail of population by villages and other smaller units, has been to give effect to the broad changes that have taken place from time to time. The village of Mansar having been included in

the Census operations for the first time, its population as estimated now has been added to all the previous totals. The Frontier ilaque having been enumerated for the first time at the last Census, the figures for the years 1891 and 1873 have been increased by adding the present population of those ilaques to the totals of those years, the reason for adoption of the present figures being that the report of 1891 does not give the population of those ilaques separately. Punial, however, formed part of the Gilgit Wizarat till the Kashmir year 1962 (corresponding to 1905 A. D.) when it passed over to the charge of the Political Agent; its present population has been taken away before the totals of the ilaqas were added to the figures of 1873 and 1891. The transfer of Chitral appears to have taken place some time in the decade 1891-1901. Its population having thus never been included in the totals of this State, no readjustment of the figures of the last Census on that account is called for. Of the alterations in the internal divisions, the transfer of the Zanskar ilaga alone need here be mentioned. It comprised 38 \* villages and used till 1901 to form part of the Padar nayabat in Kishtwar tehsil. In April of that year, i.e., subsequently to the date of the last Census, it was transferred to tehsil Kargil of Laddakh district.† No previous record exists of the population of this ilaqa. Its present population has therefore been adopted as a basis for adjusting the provincial totals of the former enumerations.

The figures for the year 1873 are worthless even after all these adjustments as, in addition to their admitted unreliability, the period that intervened between that year and the first regular Census in 1891 was eighteen years instead of the usual ten. The only conclusion possible from the detail of that enumeration as given above in the margin is that the counting performed in that year was done worst of all in Kashmir Province. An increase of nearly cent per cent was registered there in the subsequent operation! Thus it is only the population of the State taken as a whole for the last two decades that can really be compared, at this stage, with any confidence. The resulting percentages for the entire State fully represent the oscillation of prosperity during the two decades. An increase of about 12 per cent in the decennium 1891-1901 represents a normal fluctuation and indicates the general economic well-being that prevailed during that period. A fall of thresper cent within the last decade is due to the set-back caused by plague, in Jammu, and floods and epidemics of cholera in Kashmir. The larger part of the increase in the Frontier districts is due to the greater efficiency in the enumeration of the population that has been attained on the present occasion in those remote and difficult tracts. Before, however, passing on to a detailed discussion of the conditions of the decade affecting the growth or otherwise of the population, it will be appro-

° Reduced to 25 at the settlement subsequently made.

<sup>†</sup> This was a very ill-conceived change as the main reasons for the transfer, viz., distance and inaccessibility from the headquarters, still exist. The tract is completely cut off from Kargil town for the seven months of the winter; so that the papers containing the provisional totals on the occasion of the present Census had to be carried with great difficulty to Leh whence the information was transmitted by

priate to set out at length the extensive changes that have gone on in the boundaries of the various tehsils, districts, and provinces of the State.

88. The variations in the administrative divisions of the State which have taken place between census and census have been Administramany and considerable. The Frontier Province consisted of three districts in 1891, Laddakh, Skardu and Gilgit, which tive changes were subsequently combined into a single unit. At the time of the Census of 1901 there were two districts, Laddakh and Gilgit, in the Frontier. Within the decade covered by the present Census, changes have been going on in these districts both internally as well as externally. The ilaga of Haramosh comprising five villages passed from Skardu tehsil in April 1901 to Gilgit, as also the village of Balache in 1909. What used to be only a nayabat of Skardu tehsil till 1901 was converted in that year into an independent tehsil. The Kharmang ilaqa from Skardu, and Zanskar from Kishtwar, were inculuded in the newly formed tehsil. The abolition, subsequently to the date of the present Census, of Bunji nayabat and the conversion of Astore into a nayabat have already been referred to in the last chapter. In Kashmir Province the Muzaffarabad district has continued unchanged, but the valley proper consisted of three districts, (Khas, Kamraj and Anantnag) when the Census of 1891 took place, and it comprised sixteen tehsils. In 1901 the whole valley was treated as one unit and included eleven tehsils. The number of these tehsils was some time afterwards reduced to seven, but the valley continued to be a single district until, towards the end of 1910, it was split up into two, (North and South). In the Province of Jammu the changes have been still greater. It consisted of five districts with nineteen tehsils in 1891. The districts were Ranbirsingpura,\* Jasrota, Udhampur, Riasi and Bhimber. Chaneni, now a jagir, was one of the tehsils, while two other tehsils that no longer exist were Parat, in Riasi, and Naushahra, in Bhimber. In the course of the decade 1891-1901, alterations of boundaries went on until, at the time of the last Census, there were only four districts, Riasi having been abolished and its tehsils distributed among Jammu, Udhampur and Bhimber. During the decade under report Udhampur was, in 1958 K. E.=1901 A. D., divided into two districts, viz., Udhampur and Kishtwar, t but the status quo ante was restored two years later. At the same time the former Wizarat at Riasi was revived and a reallocation was made of tehsils; and villages among the three districts affected. The seat of the Wizarat was transferred from Bhimber to Mirpur and the district was named after the latter place.

Wholesale alterations have also been going on in the tehsils and nayabats of the Province of Jammu. In 1960 (=1903 A. D.) Naushahra tehsil was abolished and its villages were distributed among Bhimber, Kotli and Rampur (Rajauri) tehsils.§ Doda Nayabat was abolished at the time when the Kishtwar Wizarat was reduced, a nayabat at Gol (Gulabgarh) having at the same time been created in Riasi. In 1966 (A. D. 1909) Padar nayabat was merged into the Kishtwar tehsil. The nayabat of Minawar was abolished in the same year, two of its villages being left with Akhnur tehsil and the rest (37) attached to Bhimber. During the progress of the present Census there was another change which affected four tehsils (Bhimber, Kotli, Rampur and Akhnur), and three districts, (Jammu, Riasi and Mirpur). Villages were taken from these tehsils and districts and constituted into a nayabat at Naushahra. Recent Settlement operations have brought about other alterations. Thirteen villages of tehsil Basohli and one of Udhampur have been transferred to Ramnagar tehsil and three villages of the latter to Basohli tehsil.

o This district came later on to be called Jammu.

<sup>†</sup> As a Wizarat, Kishtwar comprised tehsils Ramban, Kishtwar, Nayabat Doda and Padar and part of village Salal.

<sup>‡</sup> Tehsil Rampur-Rajauri was taken from Bhimber district and Riasi tehsil and Gulabgarh sub-division from Udhampur.

<sup>§ 89</sup> to Bhimber, 29 to Kotli and 73 to Rampur.

|| At this change 18 villages of Ramban tohsil and 3 of Udhampur were made into Gulabgarh nayabat; and 35 villages of Udhampur tehsil were transferred to Riasi tehsil.

Changes have also been taking place among the jagirs. On the demise of Raja Sir Ram Singh, the villages of his jagirs in Kashmir were amalgamated with the tehsils in which they lay, and Ramnagar was formed into a tehsil with the addition of certain villages from neighbouring tehsils. Bhadarwah, which once comprised two tehsils, is now a single charge. Chaneni, as has already been pointed out, was shown at the Census of 1891, as one of the tehsils in the Udhampur district but appears subsequently to have been constituted into a jagir.

89. The two factors chiefly contributory to a rise and fall in the population of any given tract within a given period of Forces time are, as has been pointed out in the opening paragraph of this Chapter: (a) births and deaths, and (b) immigration and emigration. The one is a natural cause, the other artificial; and it is the net result of the operation of these causes that governing constitutes the variation in the population from decade to decade. These are in their turn affected by physical and political forces. The occurrence of famine, flood or any other physical calamity, or the prevalence of cholera, plague or other epidemic takes away large numbers from the population; while good rainfall and a succession of plentiful harvests bring about prosperity and a concomitant increase of marriages and births. The conditions resulting from peaceful and settled government create a sense of security among the people and induce them to cleave to their homes and holdings. They also attract people from outside and so a two-fold gain accrues viz. diminution of emigration and increase of immigration. By the latter process are brought in not only new people from tracts less hospitable and secure, but also such persons as may have left their country in a previous era of bad and oppressive government. The people who are driven away by maladministration and a reign of terror hurry back to the land of their birth as soon as the misrule ceases, for the instinct of patriotism is as keen, if not keener, in the Asiatics as among the inhabitants of any other continent.

90. Of statistics of births and deaths the State cannot claim to possess with the Statistics of the possess and to have attained to any real degree of efficiency except perhaps in the two cities. The following note from the Minister in charge of the Police Municipal and Medical departments may be of interest in this connexion:

"Under the rules now in force in the State, the whole State may be divided into three separate parts for the purpose of recording vital statistics, viz., (1) the city of Srinagar, (2) the town of Jammu and (3) the Mofassil area. In the city of Srinagar the Deputy Inspectors of Police in charge of the Police Stations situated within the city are the Registrars of vital statistics, and it is the duty of the head of a family and in his absence . of the chaukidar of the ilaga to report all such events within 8 days of their occurrence. Breach of these rules is punishable with a fine of Rs. 50.\* In the town of Jammu the vital statistics are registered by the Municipality and, in the absence of the head of the family, it is the duty of the nurse in attendance to give information of births and of the sweeper of the mohalla to give intimation of deaths to the registering authorities. Otherwise the rules are practically the same as in Srinagar. In the mofassil the reports are made by the chaukidars of their ilagas at the Police Station to which they are subordinate, where information is compiled in the registers kept for the purpose. From the Police Station the information is sent to the Superintendent Police, who communicates it to the Chief Medical Officer of the Province. It is the duty of the lambardar of the village to supply information regarding these occurrences to the chaukidar of the village.

O The efficacy of this regulation may be judged from the fact that no prosecutions have been reported. Moreover, the statistics in villages do not appear ever to be checked on the spot by the touring officers of the Revenue or other department. The Wazir of Punch candidly admits this. The practice of checking the chaukidar's reports' he says, 'by local enquiry by higher Police or Revenue officers on tour has not been in vogue in Punch in the past. Hence it could not be said with certainty how far such reports are correct and reliable.'

It need scarcely be pointed out that as there are no Police in the Frontier districts no record of births and deaths is maintained in those areas. The Agent of Gilgit reports that there is no registration of births and deaths in the political ilaqas within his charge. Among the jagirs, Punch and Bhadarwah also employ the chaukidar agency for this purpose and Chaneni has an arrangement of its own which, though somewhat primitive appears to be the best in the accuracy of results.

From this description of the system of registration it will be evident that the vital statistics of the State are neither complete nor reliable and can therefore afford no help in calculating the growth or decrease of its population. This important means of testing the results of the Census is thus wholly wanting. The figures noted in the margin are interesting only

UNIT		Total nu	unber of	Percentage e lation o	Excess (+) or deficiency		
•		Births.	Deaths.	Births.	Deaths.	(—) of births over deaths	
1		2	8	4	5	6	
Jammu city (10 years)		5,677	11,669	16	32.7	-5,992	
Srinager city (10 years)		6,126	15,314	5	12-4	-9,188	
Jammu Province (7 years)	ا ب	96,689	126,276	6:3	8.3	29,587	
Kashmir Province (7 years)		83,625	100,476	7.2	8.6	-16,851	
Bhadarwah (10 years)		2,586	4,257	10.4	12.5	671	
Punch (3 years)	]	14,454	17,695	47	5·B	-3,241	
Chaneni (6 years)	]	864	247		••	+117	
	- 1			r .	l		

in so far as they substantiate the admitted inaccuracy of the vital statistics. They show an excess of deaths over births in every case except that of Chaneni, and thus betray a fault common to the vital statistics of the majority of places in India,

viz., that deaths are reported with greater care than births. The inaccuracy of these figures is evident from the increases that have been registered by actual counting of heads at the present Census in Srinagar city (3 per cent), Jammu Province (5), Kashmir Province (12), Bhadarwah jagir (9), and Punch ilaqa (10). Their value is further depreciated by the fact that the period they cover is not in all cases uniform. The figures for the two cities and Bhadarwah alone are for ten years; those for the two provinces being only for seven years, (the previous record is alleged to have been burnt), Punch, three years and Chaneni, six.

91. Of migration, the only mention that can be made at this stage is with reference to the influence which it exercises as a Natural factor in working out what is technically called the natural population, and which consists of the difference between **Population** the actual population and the excess or deficiency of the immigration over emigration. The difference is ascertained by deducting, from the total of the population found in a specified area on a given date, the number of foreign-born persons counted in that area, and adding to the balance the number of persons born within the same area but counted elsewhere. The results so obtained, however, represent only the state of the population on a particular date and, as such, do not afford a true index of the variations in population due to migration. It goes without saying that people continue coming in and going out from year to year and at various seasons within the year. Now, unless a complete record is kept of these movements of the people it is impossible to say what proportion of the increase or decrease recorded after a certain period represents the changes that have taken place in that period from migration and to conclude that the rest is due to the natural additions and deductions by means of births and deaths. Besides, in the absence of an accurate record of the latter that of the former even if it had been kept up would have been of no avail. So far as this State, therefore, is concerned these two tests have no application and we must turn to other sources of information for a true perception of the rate of growth or otherwise of the population.

92. This brings us to the subject of the agricultural, economic, sanitary, administrative and other conditions that have prevailed Conditions of from time to time between 1901 and 1911. Reference has the decade already been made in the last chapter to the efficiency in (1901-10)administration that has been secured within the decade under review, the fixity of tenures that has been obtained by means of regular settlement of revenue, and the improvements effected in the means of communication as well as of irrigation. Floods and famines, also visitations of plague and cholera have been mentioned in the same connexion. Mr. W.S. Talbot, Settlement Commissioner of the State, kindly sent in a note on this subject at the close of the final enumeration and the wide range of his experience joined to an intimate knowledge of local conditions constitutes a sufficient excuse for his remarks being quoted in extenso. The note having been communicated by telegraph is necessarily very brief. In reproducing it here the elipses due to telegraphic compression of language are supplied in italics;

> "The condition of crops during the decade may be taken as on the whole normal everywhere. Though there have been periods of bad harvests these were not abnormal except to some extent in the lower tehsils of Jammu Province. There has been a general rise in the prices of food grains but this would be rather favorable to the growth of population than otherwise except perhaps in the towns of Jammu and Mirpur amongst the lower classes. In Srinagar the period of abnormally high prices about seven years ago was not very long and would not appreciably influence the Census results. Irrigation tends to increase slowly but constantly in Kashmir Valley and the Frontier districts, but there was no large new irrigation project.\* In Jammu Province the Partab Canal and the Ranbir Canal are not yet fully developed and would not influence the population. There was also a steady increase in cultivation, the largest being in Kashmir Valley and Gilgit and the smallest in the east of Jammu Province, where there may even have been some decrease. The increase is moderate elsewhere. The most important improvements in communications are the Jhelum Valley road opened in the end of 1890† and the Banihal road of which the latter has little influence but the former should have increased the population by increase of traffic and trade. Elsewhere the moderate improvements in communications have no important effect. Amongst industrial improvements the Kashmir Silk Factory employing nearly 5,000 persons is alone important † and may have had some influence on the population of Srinagar. Operations of timber companies, notably in Bhadarwah, Kishtwar and Karnah, bring in a good many outsiders but there would nearly be a second to the second nearly of the second nearly outsiders. siders, but these would mostly be absent at the date of the Census. These operations are of considerable help to the local people also. Regarding public health there have been in the valley of Kashmir three bad cholera epidemics and one of plague, ‡ mortality in the latter being much greater than reported, as deaths were generally concealed. In Jammu plague caused many deaths and cholera a moderate number. In Laddakh about three years ago § a severe type of fever caused a good many deaths. Typhus is very common amongst the Guillors in page 14 to 15 to 16 amongst the Gujjars in many tracts and to some extent affects other tribes also. Malaria has not been abnormal though Jammu Province, Punch and Karnah contain some notable fever spots. Venereal diseases are extremely common amongst the Hindu agriculturists of the Jammu Province, especially Thakkars (N.-B. not Thakurs). This seriously influences the population and Thakkars are a dwindling tribe. On the whole the state of public health during the decade may be said to have been somewhat unfavourable to a growth of the population. Vital statistics where available nearly everywhere show large excess of deaths over births; but these statistics are obviously quite unreliable. On the whole I should expect very small increase in Jammu Province. Jammu town and the qusbus of Basohli, Ramnagar and village Jaghanun in the tehsil of Udhampur are decaying, while Mirpur, Udhampur and perhaps Punch are going ahead. In Kashmir Valley the great increase

The Karbathung Canal can of course not be called a large project.

This is an event that relates to the decade previous to the one forming the subject of this Report. Plague has in fact been a constant companion of the inhabitants of the submontane and semimountainous tract in the Jammu Province throughout the decade.

<sup>§</sup> Typhoid fever prevailed there to a considerable extent even in 1910.

of prosperity, rise in standard of comfort and prolific nature of the people in spite of adverse influences should produce a large increase which will probably not extend to Muzaffarabad. In Laddakh polyandry prevents large increase, but the town of Leh is flourishing. In Baltistan there is no great prosperity, but the people are prolific and regular settlement has reduced oppression, so a fair increase might be looked for. In Gilgit the increase will probably be fair. It must always be remembered that this Census is more accurate than that of 1901 and especially in distant tracts; this would produce a larger increase than has really occurred."

93. The above is very nearly an exact summary of the general conditions that actually prevailed during the decade and it is adverse largely substantiated by the results obtained at the present circumstances. It is, however, necessary to advance some further facts and figures to enable the reader to see those results in their true perspective. A general reference was made in the last chapter to the forces that operated adversely as well as favourably upon the growth of population in this State; but it is essential that the specific instances with their effects numerically expressed should here be described.

According to the report of the Chief Medical Officer, there have been in the course of seven years 23,840 deaths from *plague* and 729 from cholera in the Province of Jammu. In Kashmir three epidemics of *cholera* and one

CHOLERA 1. From 1st January 1901, to }
28th January 1903, } 11,392 6,374 m 7th November 1906, } to list January 1907. 2,610 1,626 From 4th June 1910, to 2ist-November 1910, 9.218 18,448 TOTAL :32,869 17,118 PLAGUE 1. From 19th November 1908, }
to 17th October 1904. 1,469 1,419 GRAND TOTAL \$3,888

of plague have been reported with losses as per detail given in the margin. The figures of the last ravages of cholera include 173 cases and 74 deaths in Skardu. The plague that prevailed in Kashmir was chiefly of the pneumonic type and the people never believed that the malady that attacked them was really the plague. Whether it is due to the energetic measures adopted by the medical department of the State or to the disease as it occurred in the year 1903 being merely a severe and infective type of common

meumonia, or whether it is that the salubrious climate of Kashmir is uncongenial to the plague bacillus, the fact remains that since that year the disease has not been known in Kashmir. The only other figures available are 1,282 cases of cholera in Bhadarwah. Whatever else these figures may be, they are certainly not exhaustive. In addition to the general insufficiency and inefficiency of the reporting agency there has been the dread of the people in regard to the preventive measures adopted by the State upon each outbreak. It is therefore safe to presume that these two causes combined led to a good deal of concealment of cases and casualties from these epidemics. The figures such as they are, nevertheless, indicate the dire havoc caused during the decade among the population of the State by these fell scourges of humanity. It is to be regretted that there are no figures by which to judge of the extent of the mortality caused in the hilly tracts, especially in the Frontier, by typhus, measles and small-pox but it has without doubt been considerable. Of floods and famines an account has already been given in § 17 (Chapter I) which need The rainfall statistics show that there was a general not be repeated. drought in the province of Jammu in 1902, some bad harvests occurring even in later years in particular localities as, for instance, the scarcity caused by deficient rainfall in 1964-65 K. E. in Mirpur, Jammu and Jasrota districts and the poor kharif harvest in the same tracts in 1967-68. These visitations were not however of such magnitude or duration as to produce any visible effect upon the growth of the population.

Improvements
the last decade is a long one and they have far outweighed the ill effects of the maladies and calamities described above, except in the case of Jammu and perhaps Jasrota districts. The improvements in the means of communication and of

irrigation have already been stated in §§11 and 16. It is the improvements in administration taken all round that will here be described at some length. The safety to life and property that is assured by good and efficient government gives to a people a fuller sense of security, and the peaceful conditions of life which result from it are conducive to a growth of population. The people of Jammu and Kashmir State have without doubt been better circumstanced in this respect during the decade under report than they have ever been before. The administration of police both in the State and the jagirs of Jammu Province has been placed upon a better footing: its strength in the State proper, has risen from 1,507 in 1901 to 1,698 in 1911; the pay and prospects of the service have improved from year to year, with the result that the general standard of efficiency in supervision and control has risen considerably; candidates are trained at the Phillaur Training School at State cost in the form of scholarships; Fire Brigades have been instituted; the secret service department of the Jammu Province has been reorganised; and advantage has begun to be taken of the Criminal Identification Bureau at Phillaur in tracing crime and bringing actual culprits to justice. That there is still much room for improvement in the administration of this department cannot be denied, but such improvement to be effectual and permanent can only be gradual and should proceed in great measure from spontaneous effort.

A reorganisation of the judiciary took place in 1904 under which the courts at Srinagar, Jammu and Mirpur were raised to the status of Sub-Judgeships of the first grade and the court at Udhampur to that of the second grade. The system of extradition of offenders was introduced by the adoption, in 1905, of the British Indian Act, 1903. Owing to the frequent transfers of Revenue officers, judicial powers which used to be personal were in 1908 made local. Among the recent changes are: (a) new rules affecting civil appeals, revisions and reviews, which have considerably reduced the stages of appeal and saved litigants the trouble and expense entailed by protracted litigation; (b) the prescription of legal and departmental examinations by which the efficiency both of the bench and the bar has improved; (c) the grant of enhanced and appellate powers to the Wazirs of Udhampur, Jasrota and Mirpur and the Tehsildar of Kishtwar, by which measure people residing in distant parts have been saved the inconvenience and cost of long journeys to obtain redress; (d) the opening of a Registration. office at Mirpur for the special convenience of the borrowing public of that district; and (e) the establishment of the courts of an additional Munsif and a Sub-Judge and the creation of a Small Cause Court at Srinagar. The reorganisation of the Frontier districts in the early part of the decade led to the establishment there of judicial offices of the higher and lower grades by vesting the wazirs, tehsildars and naib-tehsildars with judicial powers. In this way the means of obtaining justice have been brought to the very doors of the people of those distant parts. There is as yet, however, no Legislative body in the State and the High Court Judge has to perform the dual and conflicting functions of framing as well as administering the laws. The attempt made in 1908 to form a legislative body proved a failure, but the want of success on that occasion should not be allowed to discourage all future endeavours in this direction. The latest instance of the cooperation of the Government of India with the State in the administration of justice has been the introduction, in the latter part of 1910, of a system of direct exchange of processes between the courts of the State and those of British India. This prevents the delays that were formerly caused by the method of serving summonses and other legal processes through the ordinary channels.

The many-sided activities of the Revenue Department in improving the administration have been productive of real good over a wider field: (i) Settlement operations have made rapid progress, resulting in a greater certainty of tenure, equation of burdens, abolition of illegal dues and stoppage

of various other abuses; (ii) the extensive administrative changes described above in § 88 have led to an efficiency in the administration of the various parts of the State affected by those changes; (iii) the advance of sericulture both in Jammu and Kashmir Provinces is improving the resources of the State as well as of the people. The establishment of a silk factory at Jammu has introduced a fresh source of income to the people of that province who are now taking an active interest in planting mulberry trees and rearing cocoons. It may be suggested that there is a very good field for mulberry cultivation in Baltistan and the needs of its growing population call for an energetic extension to that country of the operations of the Department of Sericulture; (iv) a gradual though slow improvement in regard to begar has considerably relieved the hardships of the cultivator from this source. This includes the reorganising of the transport and supply arrangements in Laddakh district, locally called Res, which has been effected side by side with the settlement operations and by which the distribution of the burden of conscription has now been made more equal, to the great relief of the people. The opening of the Banihal road to wheeled traffic spoken of in the last chapter will, it is expected, give the death-blow to this iniquitous institution of compulsory labour; (v) the emoluments of the district and tehsil officers as well as of their establishments have been substantially increased and their prospects greatly improved, with the logical result of attracting a superior personnel, composed of men of better qualifications and status and a higher standard of morality and sense of duty, whereby the general efficiency of the administration has been much advanced; (vi) the acquisition of land for State purposes by irregular and haphazard methods has been superseded by the introduction of a Land Acquisition Regulation which insists upon a methodical procedure and payment of suitable compensation\*; (vii) the levy of a road cess has contributed largely to the improvement of village communications; (viii) the several Irrigation projects undertaken and carried out by the Revenue Department have tended to an improvement and expansion of cultivation and a more judicious and equitable adjustment of the abiana or watertax dues; (ix) the department of grazing fees has been reorganized and the kahcharai demand so fixed as to leave as little opening as possible for harassment of the people affected; (x) forest demarcation work also has been conducted by the joint action and cooperation of the Forest and Settlement officers so as to determine more clearly the respective rights of the people and the State and to assure greater facilities to the former to enjoy the benefits legally due to them; (xi) a regular department of Agriculture has been organised and established in Kashmir under the direction of an expert, trained at the Agricultural College, Cirencester. The opening of the Partab Model Farm at Srinagar in 1906 and the annual holding of agricultural shows and cattle fairs under its auspices have tended to the gradual education of the people of the Valley to improved methods of cultivation. The experiments and demonstrations carried out at that farm in regard to the selection of seed, the preparation and application of manure, the rotation of crops and the use of new implements and machines, have given an impetus to the adoption of superior methods of agriculture. This has led to the introduction of new staples as well as to an improvement of old varieties and has increased the market value of agricultural produce †; (xii) various petty and vexatious contracts have been abolished and the State has come to adopt in greater measure the policy of direct dealing with the people, thus eliminating the exactions of the middleman. Other branches of effort to which the department has given no less attention and in which its operations have been attended with the same degree of success are (xiii) horse, mule and cattle breeding; (xiv) veterinary arrangements, and (xv) cultivation of hops.

<sup>•</sup> All that is needed now in this connexion is a greater dispatch in disposal of cases on the part of all the officers having anything to do with the matter.

<sup>†</sup> It is to be regretted that no data are available for ascertaining the spread of cultivation in the State as a whole and, in default of figures of the cultivated area as it stood in 1901, we have to content eurselves with the Settlement Commissioner's brief notice that the increase in cultivation has been constant in the decado, the largest being in Kashmir and Gilgit.

To its outlying Frontier tracts also the State has been other than niggardly in extending the boons to be derived from a progressive administration. Resthouses, sarais and granaries have been established at various stages to serve not only as a convenience to the travelling public but to mitigate the harrassment of the people in providing supplies and transport. In 1904, octroi was abolished in Gilgit Agency, forest administration in Gilgit district was reduced to a more systematic form. Decent local allowances have latterly been sanctioned in order to attract a superior class of tehsildars and wazirswizarat to these distant and difficult districts.

That the Government of the State has, throughout the period under report, been paying greater heed to the advice of the Persian sage, Saádi, who sums up the duties and responsibilities of the ruler towards the ruled in his immortal simile, 'the subject is like a root and the king like the tree,' is evident from the fact that unfailing help has always been extended to the people whenever in distress whether caused by devastations of famine and flood or occasioned by disease. Wholesale suspensions and remissions of revenue were granted, relief works were opened whenever and wherever necessary, large advances in cash and kind were made to supplement the resources of the people and to assist them in tiding over their troubles, and pecuniary assistance for agricultural improvements was given in the shape of taqavi. The most recent instance of liberality of this kind has been the remission of all the outstanding land revenue previously suspended, which the Maharaja Saheb Bahadur was pleased to grant on the occasion of His Majesty the King Emperor's visit to India.

95. Sanitary arrangements, as has been noticed, are confined to the Sanitary and two cities. The special grant made at the Coronation Medical. Celebrations for improvement of sanitation in the towns of the State is of too recent a date to admit of its being mentioned among the influences affecting population under review. The provision of medical aid by the State has, however, made long strides

		Number of hor dispensar		_					
Teit		1901	1911	REMARKS					
Jammu	•••	16	\$6	(*This includes the Diamond Jubilee Zenana					
Rashmir	••	18 •	18 †	Hospital and a private hospital at Srinagar worked by the Church Mission Society.  †Incindes the above and the Missionary Dispensary at Anantag and a branch Dispensary of the State.					
Laddakh			5 ‡	1 Includes the Moravian Mission Dispensary					
Gilgit	••	Not available	4	of Leh.					
Prontler Nagas	••	Do	6						
Bhadarwah	**	1	1	ĺ					
Punch	••	. 1	7 5	6 One hospital and six dispensation.					
TOTAL	••	34	67						

in the course of the last decade as will appear from the increase in the number of medical institutions shown in the marginal abstract. Greatly as the number has increased it is still insufficient to meet existing demands. In a country of such extent as Kashmir the scope for beneficent effort

in the direction of supplying really effectual medical aid must necessarily be very great. It is still unhappily a common experience of the traveller in Kashmir to have people apply to him for medical relief for one ailment or another, for which, they will tell him, they have not been able with the means at their disposal to effect a cure. Quackery and the practice of antiquated systems of medicine are rampant throughout the land which do more harm than good, and the State can never do too much to remedy this state of affairs and to provide the people with easy means of obtaining efficient medical assistance. It will be necessary to revert to this subject in connexion with infirmities forming the subject of Chapter X.

Thanks to the salubrious climate of the land, disease is not as common here as it is in other less favoured countries. The robust constitution of the people stands them in good stead and keeps them in health in

circumstances in which a less hardy people might be adversely affected. In Laddakh, disease is of such a rare occurrence that when anybody takes ill the first thing to be invoked is spiritual assistance: the Lama is called in and special prayers for the sick are offered. Laddakh is known to be still in possession of some ancient system of medicine, and the people practising it form a class by themselves, and are known locally as *Larje*. That their ministrations are not of much avail is evident from the increasing numbers in which the people are attracted to the State and the Missionary hospitals at Leh.

Economical development industries have tended to decline; but for this the State can scarcely be held accountable. With a gradual change in the style of living and of the tastes of the people, whose wants were once supplied by local industries, there has come a diminution of the demand for the various articles and commodities upon the manufacture of which those industries depended. It is no matter for surprise, therefore, that the calico printing of the Samba tehsil or the industries connected with shawl manufacture in Kashmir, as well as carpet making, wood carving, paper manufacture, papier maché, lacquer work, metal, stone and leather work on the antiquated lines should have continued to decline. But the

		Imp	ort	Bxpc	rt	Total		
Valt		1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	
Jammu	•	Rs. 31,54,797	Hs. 71,04,485	Ra. 18,29,972	Rs. 58,19,905	Ra. 49,84,699	Ra. 1,29,24,390	
Kashmir Including Fre	ontier	69,29,897	1,05,89,447	44,02,591	93,41,555	1,08,32,488	1,99,31,003	
Bhadarwah Jagir	••	1,00,565	1,81,885	Not available	Not available	1,00,585	1,31,385	
Panch	••	Not available	8,88,143	,,	7,31,971	Not available	16,15,114	
TOTAL		94,85,189	1,87,08,460	62,32,563	1,58,93,481	1,57,17,752	3,46,01,891	

triennial trade reports of the State and the figures of the exports and imports

quoted in the margin clearly demonstrate that, with the opening up of the country by improved means of communication, a brisk trade has gone on in the last ten years between the Jammu and Kashmir State and the British Indian Provinces on the south and the Central Asian countries on the north. The net increase in the exchange of trade commodities—the incomings and outgoings combined—has been 66.6 per cent., i.e., fully two-thirds. The percentage of increase has, it will further be observed, been larger in the case of exports than of imports. Again, the output has been immensely greater in Kashmir than in Jammu, the capital invested in the former being more than one-and-a-half times (1.54) as much as in the latter.

As regards the articles of import and export, Jamma does a large trade in livestock (the annual mean value of living animals exported, according to the latest triennial report, 1963-65 K. E., being in round figures Rs. 1,65,000) grains (Rs. 4,01,500), hides, skins and leather (Rs. 2,11,700), opium (Rs. 8,500), timber (Rs. 25,29,000), wool and wollens, (Rs. 1,46,000). The chief articles of import, on the other hand, are: cotton raw and in twist, yarn, piece-goods and apparel, (Rs. 16,48,000), metals (Rs. 2,60,000), salt (Rs. 3,15,000) sugar, (Rs. 6,16,000), tea\* (Rs. 1,53,000), and tobacco (Rs. 1,14,000). Kashmir takes in largely cotton materials (Rs. 20,73,000), turmeric and other dyeing materials, (Rs. 86,000), metals (Rs. 2,85,000), petroleum, (Rs. 41,000), salt, (Rs. 4,61,000), sugar, refined and unrefined (Rs. 4,33,000), tea (Rs. 7,98,000), and tobaccot including snuff (Rs. 3,04,000), and sends out Kût root—Saussurea Lappa

Some little tea is grown in the higher parts of Riasi district which shows that the climate of the Jammu hills is quite suitable for tea-gardening. It is only lack of enterprise, capital and organisation that causes a neglect of this important industry and makes the tea consumer of this country, whose consumption is so large particularly in Kashmir and the Frontier, dependent upon foreign produce. The Laddakhi gets in his tea from Tibet.

<sup>†</sup> There is great scope for the cultivation of the very best quality of tobacco in Kashmir. Its climate is particularly suited to it. It is only the introduction of better seed and the education of the people in improved methods of curing that are wanted, and so long as these are not forthcoming, the country must continue to depend on India for its supply of tobacco.

-(Rs. 55,800)\*, potatoes, (Rs. 49,700), fruits, fresh and dried-apples, pears, apricots, almonds, walnuts, etc., -(Rs. 3,55,000), grains, (Rs. 2,92,000), hides and skins, (Rs. 2,67,000), clarified and unclarified butter, (Rs. 5,52,000), linseed and other oil seeds, (Rs. 3,12,000), silk, (Rs. 16,81,000) and timber (Rs. 11,76,000). A very large quantity of goods passes from Kashmir and the Punjab through the Frontier districts of the State, notably Laddakh, into Central Asia, the principal articles in 1965 being Rs. 56,000 worth of livestock; Rs. 14,68,000 of piece-goods, twist, yarns and apparel; Rs. 2,82,000 of indigo; Rs, 2,40,000 of leather goods, skins and hides; Rs. 1,01,000 of oilman's stores; Rs. 1,10,000 of ghee (clarified butter); and Rs. 2,57,000 of silk and silk materials. Brocades of Surat and Benares (especially the former) appear to find a good market among the Turcomans of the Chinese territories. return, Central Asia supplies borax, (Rs. 30,000), charas, (Rs. 1,58,000), turquoise † and jewellery, (Rs. 16,000), musk‡ (Rs. 1,700), Tibetan salt§ (Rs. 25,000) Yarkandi namda (felt) and carpets, (Rs. 70,000), raw wool, pashm (Rs. 3,24,000) and silk, (Rs. 5,20,000). The Laddakhi and Kashmiri are very fond of the Lhassa brick tea which, judging from the figures of 1965, is imported in an annual quantity worth Rs. 1,17,000. The figures given above do not include Bhadarwah and Punch, for which no data of much reliability could be obtained.

97. Some further light will be thrown upon the economic condition of the people of the State in the last decade by the prices of Prices current, the chief food grains that were current at its beginning and and wages at its end. The figures of these are, like most other local statistics very incomplete and unreliable, but such of them as could be put together by a reference to the rates published in the State Gazette as well as from the reports of the local officers are printed at the end of this chapter as Appendix IV. An abstract of the same is given in the

Grain		JANNU			Kashnir			PRONTIER					
		1901		1911		1901		1911		1901		1911	
Wheas Gram Barley or grim * Rice (common) Maize Millets		15 9 23 16 25 25	3 0 5	13 24 11 21	19 4 14 14 7	23 7 44 20 45	0	14 23 18 33	12 8	15 20 10 15	5 9 0 8	12	9

margin for the three Provinces in respect of the important grains. The weights per rupee are given in standard seers and chhitaks. The provincial means have been worked out from the rates that actually obtained in the tehsils and districts constituting each. Rates of barley are given in respect of Jammu and Kashmir year to year and true averages could be

worked out only if the actuals for each year of the decade were forthcoming. As it is, a comparison is only possible of the rates of 1901 with those of 1911.

The high prices in 1901 of wheat, gram and barley in Jammu were probably due to a bad outturn of these crops in that year. All other figures show a general rise in the present rates as compared with those of 1901. The prices have kept pace with the improvement in the means of communication and the cheapening of transport facilities. The calls of foreign markets upon the

Trade in kût-root is a speciality of this State. The roots are collected by means of hired labour through the agency of a contractor who settles the amount of royalty with the State. So far the management of this branch of revenue has been very much neglected. The article is exported chiefly to China where it has a semi-sacred utility, being used as an incense in the Buddhist temples and monasteries. It is also a disinfectant and is locally used, in the form of powder, as an insecticide. In the Ionian Pharmacopœia it holds great importance as a medicine. Its use in India is confined to medicinal purposes. The middleman has hitherto been profiting a good deal at the cost of the State revenue. The present Revenue Minister has overhauled the whole arrangement and a trial has been given to the direct management of the business by the State. A semi-commercial department has been organised and there is a great future for the development of this paying concern.

<sup>†</sup> Turquoise is much in requisition in Laddakh, the Laddakhi women being so fond of adorning with them their national head-dress, the persk, which is a snake-shaped plaited strip of red cloth covering the crown of the head and the braided hair at the back. This precious stone is found in fair quantity locally and is also largely imported from Central India. The Laddakhi turquoise is, however, not of a good

quality.

1 Musk-dear are found in Kashmir hills also, especially in Gurez Valley, but it is the musk of Khotan. § Crude salt, in some quantity, is produced in Laddakh itself.

agricultural produce of the country have increased and the larger exports have inevitably tended to reduce the stock which remains to meet the local demand. This state of the market must necessarily result in the benefit of the agriculturist at the cost of the consumer. The majority of the people in the State being producers of crops, a material improvement of conditions as affecting them may be assumed. The non-agricultural minority which is mainly confined to urban areas finds, no doubt, its present lot harder as compared with that of former days of greater plenty and ease when in Kashmir

_		Ja	mm <sub>2</sub>	Keal	mir
Q15es		1901	1911	1901	1911
Coolie		PH. A. P.	REAP.	Rs. A. P. 0 3 0	Rs. A. P. 0 5 0
Ourpenter .	••	0 10 0	1 40	0 13 0	4 40
Mason .	••	0 10 0	1 40	0 12 0	1 40
Transport: { Coplie Pony	•	0 40 0 80	0 8 0 0 14 0	0 4 0 0 8 0	0 5 0 0 12 0

ten annas brought in one kharwar\* of paddy. If the report of the Tehsildar of Rajauri is to be believed, even in that tehsil of Jammu Province wheat sold at 27, maize 32, and barley 40 seers to a rupee in 1901. As there has been however, a proportionate rise in wages as per detail given in the margin, the con-

dition of the labouring classes cannot be said to have suffered any material change for the worse.

98. The ground is now clear for a detailed examination of the figures so as to trace the causes that have operated to make up Detailed the strength of the population as it stands at present in the discussion various parts of the State. In the absence of previous figures of any reliability, the report of 1891 did not touch upon this subject, and even in the report of the last census the question of variation was dismissed with the mention merely of an all-round increase of 14.21. It may, however, be pointed out that that percentage was incorrect. As has been noticed in §87 above, the true increase, after making the necessary adjustments in the figures on account of the addition of new areas and other territorial changes in the administrative units, was only 120 per cent; and the 8.6 per cent of the present census gives a mean of 10.3 for each of the decades covered by the three regular censuses that the State has had. This is very nearly the rate of true increase worked out for the whole of India at the last census for the decade 1881-1891.† The figures indicate a normal rate of expansion of the population of the State taken as a whole. But in a country where local conditions are so divergent the circumstances influencing variation in population are bound to differ according to locality. It is therefore necessary to refer now to the details of districts and tehsils. This is done by Provinces.

Frontier upon somewhat primitive lines and too much accuracy cannot therefore be claimed for the results obtained in those localities. No information as to figures of measured area and separate details of the population of these ilaques at the last census is to be had from any of the State records. Hence no true comparison of the figures of the present with those of the preceding census is possible and none has therefore been attempted either in Imperial Table II or in Provincial Table I. The following extract from the Political Agent's report, however, furnishes data from which certain inferences may be drawn. It may be accepted as a brief statement of the forces that have influenced the growth of population and as an account of the changes that have taken place in the Political ilaques during the period intervening between the only two censuses that these ilaques have so far had:

"Speaking generally, the total increase of 34.8 per cent in the population of the six districts since the 1901 Census may be ascribed to an increased sense of security engendered by the liberal administration of the respective chiefs in a country untrammelled by the intricacies of a regular Settlement with the petty officialdom inseparable therefrom. The most

<sup>\*</sup> Kharwar means the load of a donkey which corresponds to 2 maunds and 16 seers. This quantity of paddy yields 66 seers of rice.

<sup>†</sup> Vide the Census Report of India for 1901, Part I, page 80, §161.

densely populated district is the State of Nagar. There the increase of 12 per cent in population since last Census may fairly be assumed to be due to larger families owing to increased prosperity, rather than to immigration. In Chilas, on the other hand, where population has increased by 50.9 per cent in the last ten years the increase is thought to be almost entirely due to immigration from the adjoining independent territory. This point of view is supported by the corresponding increase of some 50 per cent in the number of houses and by the large percentage of infantile mortality known to prevail. Perhaps the most marked increase is that shown by the district of Ishkoman where the population numbering only 995 in 1901 is now 2,020, an increase of 103 per cent. Ten years ago the district was only commencing to settle down after being in some small measure populated by trans-frontier refugees. In the time that has intervened, families have increased, while surplus cultivable areas have been assigned to scions of local noble families. In addition to these causes, improved means of communication have been answerable in no small degree for the growing population. The increases in the other districts may be regarded as calling for no special comment."

Improvements in communication and political conditions in these remote and much too backward tracts may have served to some extent to attract an inflow of people from the more unsettled chiefships in the neighbourhood; but it would probably be more accurate to ascribe the large increase that has been registered to the greater efficiency secured at the present enumeration. It is anticipated that this view will be more than borne out by the results of the next census, presuming that political conditions in the State will then be such as to admit of the application throughout its extent of regular methods of census procedure.

The promiscuous inclusion, at the last census, of the figures for the *ilaqas* in those of the district proper leave no material with which a comparison can be made of the population of Gilgit as recorded at the recent census. The figures of Laddakh by tehsils work out as shown below, after making the adjustments necessitated by the territorial changes described in §88 above. The figures of the last census have been reduced to a common denomination by adding and subtracting the present population of the areas that have been the subject of change:

	Popul	LATION	VARIATION				
Tehsil	1901	1911	Actual	Proportion- al (per cent)			
Skardu (excluding Haramosh and Kharmang)	89,205	106,805	+ 17,600	+ 19.7			
Kargil (including Kharmang and Zanskar)	49,429	47,727	- 1,702	— 3·5.·			
Laddakh (including Mansar)	31,810	32,124	+ 314	+ 9			
TOTAL LADDAKH DISTRICT	170,444	186,656	+ 16,212	+ 9'5			

The large increase in Skardu is not more than might be expected from the known prolificacy of the Balti. In passing through Baltistan one is not a little struck by the unusual number of children that may be seen engaged in play at every village, in marked contrast with the relative absence of child life that is characteristic of Buddhist villages in Kargil and Laddakh. The Wazir of Laddakh speaks of large increases in the population of the tehsil of Kargil, but his calculations are based on incorrect data due apparently to his having overlooked the fact that Kharmang was not included in Kargil at the last enumeration. On adaptation of the figures of the last Census by transferring the present population of that ilaqa from Skardu to Kargil and adding to the same the totals of Zanskar a small drop results in the population of the latter as returned at the present Census. This and the nominal increase of scarcely one per cent in Laddakh reveal only too

clearly the effects of polyandry. Laddakh is essentially a Buddhist country but Kargil, as at present constituted, has also a considerable population of that community. Zanskar is wholly Buddhist, as are also several villages near the conterminal line in the east and north-east of the tehsil. The prevalence of polyandry among them acts as an effectual curb upon the productivity of the people and maintains the population within the restricted resources of the country. People also become monks and nuns in large numbers and live a life of celibacy in the Buddhist monasteries. The tensely severe climate of Kargil and the consequent hard conditions of life in that tract are in themselves very much opposed to any large development of population. In comparing the figures of Laddakh tehsil with those of Kargil it has to be borne in mind that the enumeration in the former has in the present instance been exceptionally searching and accurate. In his final report the Wazir of Laddakh, says inter alia: "through whichever part of the country I passed and enquired from the people as to the last census, they unanimously replied that they had no knowledge of it." Small-pox and typhus have claimed their own death tolls. The effects of all these causes have been more than counterbalanced by the increase due to the accuracy of enumeration.

On the whole, however, the population of the Frontier districts has kept pace with the social, political and economic progress of the State during the last decade, as is evidenced by the approximation of the figures representative of increase in Laddakh (9.5) and the Indus valley (14.2),\* respectively, to the proportion of the entire State (8.6). There is yet another standpoint from which the variations have to be considered, namely, the natural population, which is the truer criterion for purposes of demographic estimate or comparison, taking as it does a full cognizance of the changes due to migration. Such population in the Frontier districts according to Subsidiary Table II of this Chapter amounts to 262,667 as against 223,880 in 1901 and a net increase of 17.3 per cent has taken place. Thus the real increase in this part of the State is found to be even greater than is disclosed by the figures of actual population. It should, however, be borne in mind that this result is obtained by treating the entire population of the Frontier ilaquas as locally born, because the modified form of the schedule there used contained no column for recording the birth-place and the number of immigrants into those ilaquas could not, therefore, be separately ascertained.

100. Comparison can be made with much greater confidence of the Kashmir figures of Kashmir where changes have occurred only internally and the limits of the Province as a whole remain unaltered. The units that should be compared are three: 1. Kashmir Province, 2. Kashmir Valley and 3. Muzaffarabad District, and their comparative figures stand as in the margin. These would seem to show that the rate of

Dnis	Percentag	Percentage of variation since 1891										
	1891—1901	1901—1911	1891—1911									
Kashmir Province	+21-9	+11-9	+36.4									
Kashmir Valley	+21.4	+11-2	+35-1									
Muzaffarabad	+ 247	+160	+448									

progress has been considerably retarded during the last decade as it is about half of the one preceding it. Most of the increase registered at the last census was, however, not real. A very large part of the excess was due to the improved efficiency in enumeration that was obtained there at the last census.† At the same time it cannot be denied

that Kashmir has not prospered so well in this decade as the Frontier districts appear to have done. Cholera, floods‡ and fire carried away large numbers, and it is only the noted fecundity of the Kashmiri race that has not only not

The percentage of increase in the Frontier districts for 1891-1901 after excluding the Frontier ilaque was 10'2 and there has been thus an increase over it of 4 at the present census. This is partly due to better counting and partly to improved communications which has increased migration into these distant parts; vide marginal abstract to § 87, p. 51 supra.

<sup>†</sup> Vide second paragraph of § 87.

I Vide § § 17 and 18 Chapter I and § 93 Chapter II.

allowed the losses to produce any marked effect on the population by causing a deficiency, but has, on the contrary, led to a surplus which in no way falls short of the general rate of increase that has resulted in the State as a whole. Were it not for these calamities the population of Kashmir to-day must have been far greater; but considering that they are natural to the country and must as such continue to recur, the rate of increase now registered must be regarded as normal for this part of the State and this rate, if we eliminate

the influence of migration, works out roughly to 10 per cent.

The decline of old industries has undoubtedly affected the population to some extent by throwing out of work the persons that once depended upon them for their livelihood. But as the people at large are mainly agricultural, the determining cause of an increase or decrease in them must chiefly be the prosperity or adversity resulting from a succession of good or bad har-Throughout the decade Kashmir has been blessed with bumper crops except in 1903, the year of the memorable flood that destroyed the entire paddy crop of the low-lying areas of the valley. Cultivation has continued to extend steadily, so much so that the cultivated area in 1910 was 824,198 acres in this Province alone. Rainfall has generally been timely, of sufficient quantity and well distributed; and the means of irrigation have been improving from year to year. Industrial development has also gone on with agricultural progress. The opening out of the country by improved means of communication has brought about a freer intercourse \* with the Punjab and the outside world in general. New trades and industries have taken the place of older ones

	Ten years ago.	Now.
Coccos-restrers	6,000	\$5,000°
Cocoons reared (in )	13,000	40,000
Outturn of all kinds of silk and waste (in lbs.)	60,000	280,000
Average daily at- tendance at Sri- nagar Factory.	900	8,700

Out of these 18,183 are, according to Imperial Table XV-B (1) to (3) agriculturists who have returned occoon rearing as their substiliary occupation. The actual number is probably greater as ignorant village folk will usually content themselves with stating only their princinal artocation.

and the revival of sericulture and the manufacture of silk by European methods has furnished the people of Kashmir with an additional source of income.† The marvellous expansion of this industry since the last census will transpire from the figures marginally noted which were kindly supplied by the Director of Sericulture in Kashmir. Wine manufacture and the opening up by the State of a variety of other new departments have had their share in providing "fresh fields and pastures new" to the people in their search for employment and have

resulted in much material good. All these circumstances must be reckoned

as causes contributory to the growth of population in Kashmir.

101. The largest area covered by forest is in the Jhelum valley which is justly famed for its verdure and woodland scenery. Forests and principles upon which the conservation of forests is conducted their influence here are similar to those obtaining in the Forest administration on population of British India with which they were brought into confor-

mity in the year 1892 when the first conservator was lent to this State by the Government of India. From that year onwards there has been a steady progress in forest conservation and sylviculture. The total area of forests brought under control has risen from 2,294 square miles in 1901 to 4,214; at the present day; the gross receipts from forest revenue have grown from ten to seventeen lacs within the decade, and the net profit from 6½ lacs to 12. The material benefits accruing to the people from the progress of forest administration in the State may be judged from the following extract from the report of the Conservator:

"Effect of forests on the welfare of villagers. The forests play an important part in the lives of the villagers. It is not known exactly what percentage of the population depends in any way on the produce of forests, but in the Kashmir Province certainly about 80 per cent and in Jammu

It is principally owing to the Jhelum valley road that Muzaffarabad has added to its popula-tion at the rate of 16 per cent during the last decade. The improved communications have secured a ready and profitable market for the agricultural and forest produce of the district and have resulted in bettering the material condition of its people; their prosperity has naturally enough been conducive to a growth in their numbers.

<sup>†</sup> The department of sericulture in Jammu came into existence only recently and is still in its infancy.

† This is the area under the Forest Department of the State. In addition to it there are 409 55 square miles of forest area in Punch ilaga and 416 in Bhadarwah jagir. The Wazir of the former reports that the Forest Department of that ilaga helps its people with Rs. 75,000 annually in the form of wages alone!

50 per cent. The demands are roughly: timber for building, firewood, grass and leaf fodder, wood for agricultural implements, fencing and household utensils, torch wood, bark for tanning, charcoal, and herbs for culinary and medicinal purposes. With the exception of timber, villagers get all the above-mentioned produce by concession free of charge. Among timber trees, deodar (fir), chinar (plane), walnut, and ash are royal trees. Pinus excelsa (locally called Kúerů) is the tree most commonly distributed for house-building in Kashmir Province; it is given free. In Jammu the same tree and Pinus longifolia (Chir) are given for this purpose at a low fraction of their value. Inhabitants of towns have to pay full rates but these are generally low. Besides the advantages accruing to villagers, as noted above, they derive a large income, direct and in-direct, from timber works being undertaken. The amounts paid to villagers must add up to many lacs of rupees during any one year. It is only within recent years that the villagers have begun to use saws, and so most of the labour for such work was imported from outside of the State. Even now it is still necessary to import labour, but the local inhabitants are acquiring a larger share of the profits derived from this work. It is an interesting fact that where villagers are almost pure agriculturists they turn out largely to work in the forests, but where such depend largely on their flocks and herds for sustenance they are not inclined to accept this means of livelihood."

The Kashmir Province having the largest forest area, the economic benefits ensuing from the progress of forest administration during the decade must therefore have affected the growth of population in that Province in a greater degree than in any other part of the State.

102. In past times of oppression and misgovernment there was a considerable exodus of Kashmiris from their homes and country to Effect of mithe safer and more peaceful regions in the plains. With the gration in restoration of order and the establishment of a more equit-Kashmir able administration not only has emigration decreased, but there has also been to a great extent a re-immigration of former exiles. Emigration from the State into the Punjab has shown a steady decline from decade to decade. At the Census of 1881, 111,775 State-born persons were returned in that province; the number fell to 87,545 in 1891 and to 83,240 in 1901. At the present Census the number of emigrants from the State enumerated in the Punjab was only 72,369. The largest proportion of that number, no doubt, comprised the casual and temporary migrants from Jammu Province on account of intermarriage, but it also included a fair sprinkling of the Kashmiri coolies who go out annually to the Punjab in search of employment. This latter community must have had its due share in the general decrease that has taken place in emigration, but that the decrease in emigration has not been as large in Kashmir as in Jammu is evident from the fact that the increase in the natural population of the Valley (11.7) is larger than in its actual population (11.2).

Jammu is not so easy. The only comparable units there, are those exhibited in the margin. The province as a whole, in spite of all the unfavorable circumstances that have specially affected it during

Unit	Percentage in actual	of variation population.	Difference between the	
	1891-1901	1901-1911	two decades	natural population
Jammu Province	+57	+ 5'3	4	+ 4.8
Jasrota district, submontane and semi-mountainous, (i.e. tehsils Kathua and Jasmirgarh)	+ 4-7	+1.2	— 3·2	Not available
, Outer Hills, (toball Basohli alone)	-1.6	5-3	+ 8.7	"
Bhadarwah Jagir	+5-8	+9-3	+ 8-5	+ 10-1
Punch Haqa	+ 13.8	+ 9.8	_a.s	+ 9.7

the decade, has gained fairly in the strength of its population, even though it stands last in order of merit with reference to the percentage of increase registered at this Census. As compared with the decade 1891-1901, the increase falls short only by 4, and,

with the droughts and the plague that have afflicted its submontane and semi-mountainous parts, the wonder is not that it has gained only the small

percentage of 5.3 in its population but that it has not actually shown a decrease. The net increase is due solely to the very considerable growth, during the past decade, of the population in the parts known as the 'Outer Hills.' These tracts have prospered in every respect and are assured of yet greater prosperity when they will have been opened up by the widening of the Banihal road and the abolition of the began system.

Of the smaller divisions of the province the only district in the case of which the territorial changes were not on a scale that would obscure the results of comparison is Jasrota. It appears to have lost three of its villages as the result of territorial redistribution, but this fact should not perceptibly affect the figures. Its tehsils Kathua and Jasmirgarh gained by very nearly 5 per cent in 1891-1901 and 1½ per cent in 1901-11. The smaller increase of the latter decade is rightly ascribed to the prevalence of plague. The effects of plague seem, however, to have been set off by accessions due to the commercial relations subsisting between this tract and the adjoining territory in the British district of Gurdaspur. The proximity of the grain mart at Sujanpur and the approach of the Railway line to a point so near to this part of the State as Pathankot, have provided good markets for its produce, and of these the people have not been slow to take advantage. It is indeed to be regretted that all communication is cut-off when the Ravi is in flood, which it generally is during the rainy season. The district would surely develope much were it possible for the State to establish permanent communication by building a bridge across that river.

The only unit other than the city of Jammu where any decrease has really taken place is the tehsil of Basohli. It has been losing continuously ever since 1891. The loss is now greater, the tract as a whole having lost about 4 per cent more than it did in the decade preceding the one under report. The tribes inhabiting that tehsil are known to be decaying. Their peculiar customs, which make marriage a costly business, have a prohibitive effect on the connubial relationship. The practice of marriage by exchange precludes men from marrying who have no sisters or other female relatives to give away. The laxity of morals which must be the natural consequence of this state of affairs is bound to exercise a prejudicial effect on the physical well-being of the community. To this cause may be traced the prevalence of venereal disease in the Basohli tehsil as also among the people of these tribes that are found in the Ramnagar, Samba, Riasi and Udhampur tehsils as well as in Bhadarwah jagir. Among the races subject to these customs and to the evils which they produce, productivity is naturally at a discount and. without social improvement, must continue to decline.

Bhadarwah is a lovely country. It has all the characteristics of Kishtwar minus its dryness. Its climate is temperate and it produces all the fruits that Kashmir does, only fruit-growing requires to be improved and carried out on proper horticultural lines. Bhadarwah is second only to Kashmir in respect of forest areas which yield a very handsome income to the jagir and are largely conducive to the prosperity of its people. The tract is full of possibilities and should its management be brought to the same level of efficiency as is sought to secure for the administration of the State, its prosperity is sure to advance by leaps and bounds. Among the units which afford material for comparison it heads the list as to real increase in population. In Punch also there has been a constant development, the smaller increment in the population of that ilaqa at the present Census being due to bad harvests and malaria from which certain of its areas suffered. Part of the increase over the percentages of last Census in Bhadarwah and of the decrease in Punch is attributable to the fact that in Bhadarwah the enumeration was this time done with greater and in Punch with less efficiency.

It is regrettable that no comparison can be instituted in respect to tehsils because of the frequent shuffling and rectification of boundaries to which they were subjected. As an incident illustrating the effect of these changes it may be mentioned that when at the recent Census the first totals of Rampur-Rajauri were reported it was found that an increase of about 45 per cent\* had resulted in that tehsil alone. This increase was of course not real, due as it was to the transfer of 72 villages from tehsil Naushahra which was abolished. A few other variations which it has been possible to work out for tehsils, districts, etc., as at present constituted may now be quoted, only they should be taken for what they are worth: Jammu district -5, city -12, tehsil -7, Samba tehsil +6, Ranbirsinghpura -14, Akhnur -3, Jasrota district -2, Kathua tehsil -2, Jasmirgarh +5 and Basohli -5. They show, if anything, the extent to which plague was prevalent in each of those places. It was worst of course in the tehsil of Ranbirsinghpura which has much in common with the damp and water-logged portions of the Punjab that have all along been hot-beds of the plague.

The effect of migration on the movement of population in Jammu may be judged from the slight difference between the percentages of increase in the actual (5·3) and the natural (4·8) populations of the province. The people of Jammu are not as enterprising as the Kashmiris, but a fairly large exchange of population does take place by intermarriage between the villages lying on either side of the boundary line between that Province and the Punjab. The current of immigration on the contrary is usually very strong, as people from neighbouring districts of the Punjab move in considerable numbers into this part of the State on business of trade or in search of employment, but that it has not been so in this decade owing to prevalence of plague and scarcity will appear from the next chapter.

104. The actuals under this head are contained in Subsidiary Table IV and the proportionals in Table V of this chapter. In default of figures of area and population by villages at Variations by tehsils accordprevious enumerations these tables cannot be presented ing to density in any detail. It has not been possible even to adjust the figures in respect to all the natural divisions shown. In the Frontier the increase (14.2 per cent) is wholly confined to tehsils with a density of less than 150 per square mile; in Kashmir 16 per cent of the increase is among tehsils of similar density and 11.2 per cent among tehsils with a density of 150 to 300. In Jammu province tehsils of the same densities have gained by 18 and 6 per cent respectively and those with densities of from 300 to 450 and 450 to 600 have lost by 6.6 and 13.7. In the State as a whole there has been an increase of 16.7 and 6.3 per cent in areas with the lower densities above mentioned and a decrease of 6.6 and 13.7 in areas with the higher densities. It is noticeable that the largest increases have taken place in those tracts which are the most sparsely populated and the largest decreases in the most thickly populated areas; the increases are ascribable to better enumeration in the difficult and remote hilly parts and the reason for decreases is the prevalence of plague in the submontane tehsils of Jammu and occurrence of floods in the low-lying tehsils of Kashmir.

105. A detailed discussion of variations among people of the different religions and ages belongs legitimately to Chapter IV and V **Variations** respectively. But it is necessary to refer to them in this with referplace because of the bearing they have upon the present ence to relisubject. An increase in the percentage of growth at the two gion and age extremes of life is a sure index of general prosperity and health during the decade covered by the enumeration and the fact that the conditions in the State have on the whole been fairly good is corroborated by the increases recorded for the age-periods '0-10' and '60 and over,' viz., 2 and 7.0 respectively. The effects upon the very young and the very old of the hard times that doubtless succeeded the great flood of 1903 in Kashmir are illustrated by the comparatively smaller growth in that province of persons at either end of life, the growth among persons of ages from '0-10' having decreased since 1901by 9.4 and among those of '60 and over' by 6.6 per cent.

If connexion with the distribution of the population by religions all that needs to be noted is that the fecundity of Mohamedans has been greater than

C This reduced at detailed compilation to only 36.

that of the adherents of other religions. Their proportion in the population of the State has been growing steadily. It was 7,051 in ten thousand in 1891, 7,416 in 1901 and 7,594 in 1911, the net increase in the last twenty years being 33.7 per cent. The *Hindus* have lost slightly (·2 per cent) within the same period for which the decay of the hill tribes of Jammu is chiefly responsible. The growth of *Budhists* by 23.3 per cent may be attributed to a noticeable decline in the practice of polyandry as well as to the increased prosperity in general conditions of their country. The large percentage of increase among the *Sikhs* (176.8) is due to the great influx of people of this community from the Punjab in pursuit of trade and service; and the still larger percentage of *Christians* (347.2) is due to the conversions in Jammu and Kathua of the Dums and the Chuhras. The *Jain* community is fast dwindling having already fallen by nearly 42 per cent.

106. The above review of the variations in population that have taken place in the various parts of the State will suffice to show General conthat in the State as a whole there has been an all round clusions improvement in demographic conditions. The strength of the population has grown within the last twenty years by 21.4 per cent, the largest increase having occurred in the more prosperous and resourceful province of Kashmir (36.4). Next come the Frontier districts with 26 per cent and they owe all their development to improved communications and peaceful government. Jammu has not yet been receiving its due share of attention and even though its potentialities are not as great as those of Kashmir they are such as might be turned to good account for the development of the Province. The increase has been smallest in Jammu chiefly owing to the effects of the plague but with the endeavours now being made to throw the country open to the outside world better days are in store for this part of the State and, provided the present efforts to ameliorate its conditions are sustained, the next Census should find it a more populous land.

The submontane parts of Jammu and the flat portion of the valley of Kashmir are already well populated but there is ample room elsewhere for a further expansion of the population. Laddakh does not admit of much extension because of the severity of its physical conditions and Baltistan is already overcrowded. There is room for development, however, in the side-valleys of Kashmir and the Outer Hills of Jammu where much land can be reclaimed and cultivation extended. With the provision of means of irrigation the Kandi tracts of Jammu would maintain a considerable population. The public health of certain tribes in the Jammu hills could be improved by judicious effort in the direction of a modification of their pernicious marriage customs. The overt practice of female infanticide is impossible in these days of police and criminal courts, but evidences are not yet extinct of the hold which this evil practice once had upon people of the higher castes in Jammu. The perceptible neglect of female infants among these castes in the Dugar ilaqa generally is only a vestige of that practice; elsewhere the population being chiefly Mohamedan, female offspring is held in equal estimation with male children.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I-Variation in relation to density since 1891

District, Jagir or Ilaqa and Natural Division	Percen Varis Increas Decrea	tion o (+)	Percent- age of net Vari- ation		Densit uare mi	y per	Remarks
	1901 to 1911	1891 to 1901*	1891 to 1911	1911	1901†	1891†	
1	2	8	4	5	6	7	, 8
Entire state	+8.8	+12.0	+214	37	34	31	our iew the nor nor ine
I.—The Submontane and Semi-	•••	***	<b>,</b> '	235			will not be tree of our ed in view ed on the ed on the edcades ation; nor
Jammu District				280		·	in willigared
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and ) Kathua tohsils only) Mirpur District (Mirpur and Bhim. )	+1.5	+47	+6.2	211	208	198	in this column will no Tables as the figures of quently ro-adjusted in v 891 are also based on res of the previous deca mits of administration;
ber tehsils only)				198			this of the of ared
II.—The Outer Hills Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only)	-5.3	—1·6	6·8	98 118	119	121	
Mirpur , (Kotli tehsil only) Udhampur ,		•••		161 49		٠	iation shows of the India 1901, subsection 1901 and I five area figure to several use that have rant of data.
Riani "		***		110		***	ot both
Bhadarwah Jagir Punch Ilaga	+9.3	+ 5.8	+ 15 8	62	57	_53	variation is of 1901, i. of 1901, i. The are ect to sow ages that ir want of
Jammu Province	+98	+13.3	+24.4	203 128	185 122	168	
III The Jhelum Valley (Kash-)		1 -				115	of vari those of pect of a. nres for now. T respect changes t for we
mir Province)	+11.9	+21.9	+36.4	154	137	113	of varia those of pect of 1 s. ures for now. The respect t changes
Kashmir North		440		130			percentage of various with those wore, in sepect virial changes. I density figures secretained now variable in respectivity a territorial changinto account for for
"South	<u> </u>		<u></u>	228	***	!	a partial s
Kashmir Valley	+ 11:2	+21.4	+85.1	178	156	128	percenta oeing wi rere, in r inl chan density i scertaine ailable i territorie
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier	+ 16.0	+247	+44.8	94	81	65	e percentagy groeing with were, in res orial change density fig ascertained available in e territorial
Districts)	+14.2	+102	+ 26.0	4	4	3	4 25 2 4 9 2 4 8
Laddakh District	]		]	4	<b> </b>	<b></b>	
Gilgit				8			found found Table of terr † † † 7 are no bould be tak
Frontier Ilagas	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	] 4	<u>l</u>	<u> </u>	្_ ភកខ ខាន់ខ័

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II—Variation in natural population

1	Por	ULATIO:	n in 19	1	Po	PULATI	on in I	901	Maga [
District, Jagir or Ilaqa and Natural Division		Immi- grānts		Natural population		Immi- grants	Emi- grants	Natural population	Variation cent (1901-1 in Natural P lation, Incr
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	. 8	10
ENTIRE STATE	3,158,126	76,975	81,948	3,163,099	2,905,768†	85,597	84,138	2,904,309	+8.9
I.—The Submontane and } Semi-mountainous Tract	641,966	66,240	12,944	588,670	•••		***	•••	***
Jammu District	826,691	41,499	14,458	299,650	ه کابل			***	***
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh ) and Kathua telisils only)	86,463	15,852	3,425	74,036	•		444	***	
Mirpur District (Mirpur) and Bhimber tehsils only)	228,812			212,213			•••	•••	
II.—The Outer Hills	955,899	27,757	16,694	944,836	***	.,.	•••	***	***
Jasrota District (Basohli ) tehsil only)	65,339	8,755	1,118	82,702	••• .			•••	•••
Mirpur District (Kotli)	96;121	3,016	5,780	98,885	• • • •				
Udhampur District	215,725		9,714	215,768				•	
Riasi "	206,809		8,390	200,578	-::	***		***	
Bhadarwah Jagir	87,512		2,660	37,195	34,811	1,742	1,227	38,796	+10.1
Punch Ilaga	<b>334,</b> 393		6,493	333,322	804,488	8,537	8,038	303,989	+9.7
Jammu Province	1,597,865	70,685	7,186	1,534,366	1,521,307°	74,068	16,893;	1,464,132	+4.8
III.—The Jhelum Valley \ (Kashmir Province)	1,295,201	19,146	11,534	1,287,589	1,157,394	26,804	85,707	1,216,297	+5.9
Kashmir North	460,786			456,189			í		-,,
South	639,210	8,118	3,461	634,558					
Kashmir Valley	1,089,996		7,501	1,090,744		16,827	3,944	976,813	+11.7
Muzaffarabad District	195,205	4,364	8,237	194,078	168,198	11,506	3,113	159,805	+21.4
IV.—The Indus Valley }	265,060	3,580	1,172	262,652	*227,067+	3,793	606	223,880	+17.3
Laddakh District	186,656	1,362	930	186,224			↓		• • • •
Gilgit "	28,969	3,004	261	21,226	, l		1		
Frontier Ilagae	54,485	‡ 1	767	55,202					•••

This is different from Imperial Table II because Zanskar has not been taken away from Jammu Province and thrown into the Laddakh district as no details of the immigrants and emigrants in 1901 of that dags are available.

† In the figures marked thus population of Mansar has been added; they would consequently not agree with those appearing in the last report.

<sup>‡</sup> Birth-place having not been recorded in the Frontier Raque all the population returned there has been assumed as local born and the natural population worked out accordingly.

Table III not prepared for want of complete vital statistics for the whole decade and in respect of the entire State.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV

## Variation by tehsils according to Density

## (a) Actual Variation

Natural Division	Decade	VARIATION IN TEHSILS WITH A POPULATION PER BQUARE MILE AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE DECADE OF								
,		Under 150	150-300	300-450	450—600					
1	2	3	4	5	6					
ENTIRE STATE	1901-11	+145,484	+116,384	-8,535	10,795					
I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountainous tract	37		-13,045	8,535	<b>—10,79</b> 5					
II.—The Outer Hills	,,	+85,151	+18,629	***	] 					
Jammu Province	,,,	+85.151	+5,584	<b>—8,535</b>	10,795					
III.—The Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Province)	}   ,,	+27,007	+110,800							
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	,,	+33,326	•••							

- Note 1.—Density figures for 1901 in respect of the tehsils of Kashmir Valley and Frontier districts being not available, the variations for each grade of this table could not be worked out for those units of administration. The figures noted against Jhelum Valley are based upon consideration of the figures of Kashmir Valley as a whole and of Muzaffarabad district.
- Note 2.—No comparison could be made for decade 1891-1901 because of the large territorial changes that took place in that period of which no detail is available either of the area or population.
- Note 3.—Even in respect of the tehsils of Jammu Province the density figures for 1901 had to be worked on the new areas, the detail of the areas as adopted in that year being not available.

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV

## Variation by tehsils according to Density

## (b) Proportional Variation

Natural Division	Decade	PROPORTIONAL VARIATION IN TRHSILS WITH A POPULATION PER SQUARE MILE AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE DECADE OF								
		Under 150	150—300	300—450	450—600					
. 1	2	3	4	5	6					
entire state	1901-11	+16.7	+6.3	-6.6	-13.7					
I.—The Submentane and Semi-mountainous tract	1)	***	-2.8	<b>—6.</b> 6	<b>—13·7</b>					
II.—The Outer Hills	11	+18.0	+5.0	•••	•••					
Jammu Province	,,	+18.0	+.6	<b>–8</b> ·8	—13·7					
III.—The Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Province)	"	+16.0	+11.2	***	•••					
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	59	÷14·2	•	•••	•••					

Note.—The remarks given below the last table apply mutatis mutandis to this table as well.

APPEN Frices

												rices 	
Tohsil, District, Jagir or Ilaqa	,	Wheat		parioy	Mustard Seed	(Sarshaf)	1	Orann -		1 2001	Rice II		
,	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	
1	2	3	4	5	В	7	8	9	10	11	12	la	
ENTIRE STATE	18 1	13 7	30 7	20 5	15 14	10 11	8 1	13 4	12 10	9 7	15 8	12 6	
Jammu Province	15 1	15 12	23 9	24 14	13 0	9 11	9 3	13 4	12 6	8 11	16 5	11 14	
"District …	1i 1	16 2	16 8	23 12		9 5	10 11	17 1	9 2	7 14	12 0	10 14	
Jammu Tohsil Samba " Sri Ranbirsinghpura Tohsi Akhnur "	11 8	17 0 15 0	15 0 20 0	26 0 25 0	) 	10 0 10 0 8 0	11 0	15 0 18 0	10 0 10 0	9 0	15 0 11 0	18 0 10 0	
Jasrota District	12 11	18 0	18 5	31 0		9 0	9 11	14 11	9 5	7 13	15 11	13 5	
Kathua Tohsil Jasmirgarh ,, Basohli ,,	12 (	¦18 0	16 0	27 0		10 0 8 0		16 0	10 0	8 0	16 0	14 0	
Udhampur District	16 12	15 12	27 0	30 4		•••	7 12	10 11	12 9	10 10	10 10	10 12	
Udhampur Tehsil Kishtwar ,, Ramban ,, Ramnagar ,,	26 0	14 0 12 0	48 0 28 0	32 0 23 0		*** *** ***	8 0  7 8	7 0	12 12	4 0 8 0	14 0	9 8 9 8	
Riasi District	15 0	15 0	15 8	22 8		8 0	9 0	9 8	10 8	8 8	12 8	8 12	
Riasi Tehsil Rampur Rajauri ,,	10 0					8 0 	9 0 	12 0 7 0					
Mirpur District	13 0	15 5	14 11	20 11	10 0	11 0	9 0	14 5	8 11	6 5	10 5	7 11	
Kotli Toheil Mirpur ,, Bhimber ,, Bhadarwah Jagir Punch Ilaqa	13 t 12 t 21 t	15 0 17 0 22 0	12 0 16 0 45 0	18 0 20 0 32 0	10 0 10 0	10 0 12 0	8 0 		8 0	8 0 7 0	10 0 11 0 28 0	8 0 8 0	
Kashmir Province	23 14	14 0	44 0	22 12	18 12	11 12	7 0	***	17 6	14 2	20 2	18 8	
" North	36 0	15 7	56 0	30 7	21 0	10 11	•••	***	24 .0	15 9	27 0	17 3	
Uttarmachhipura Tehsil Baramula " Sri Pratapsinghpura "	48 C	15 5 15 0 16 0		28 0		10 0 10 0 12 0			28 0 20 0	14 10 15 0 17 0		16 10 16 0 19 0	
Kashmir South	25 5	15 2	45 0	34 (0	16 8	12 13	5 0	•••	19 5	17 0	21 11	19 8	
Tehsil Khas Awantipura Tehsil Kulgam ,, Anantnag ,,	27 ( 25 ( 	14 0 17 0	40 0	50 0 32 0	<b>∤</b> ∣	14 0	***			13 0 16 0 21 0 18 0	24 0	16 0 18 0 23 0 21 0	
Muzaffarabad District	14 5	11 0	34 5	16 11	ļ		9 0		11 0	6 5	14 0		
Karnah Tohsil Muzaffarabad ,, Uri ,,	15 ( 15 ( 13 (	12 0	29 0	20 0		 	9 0 		9 0 10 0 14 0	8 10	13 0 12 0 17 0		
Frontier Districts	15 8	10 9	23 11	13 5		***	100	•••	8 2	5 8	10 0	6 12	
Laddakh District	18 11	11 11	23 11	13 5			100	, <b>***</b>	9 5	6 0	12 0	6 9	
Laddakh Tehsil Skardu ,, Kargil ,,	20 (	12 0 12 0 11 0	30 C	13 C 14 C	)	 			8 0 10 0 10 0	6 0		5 8 7 0 7 4	
Gilgit District	12	9 8		'***	***	·	***		7 0			7 0	
Gilgit Tehsil . Astore " .			) 						5 0 9 0			8 0 6 0	

N.-B.-The rates are given per rupee

DIX IV
Current

Indian millet	ğ			Millet (Bayra)			Kangni		Maire				Cotton		Sessinam			Fulses (Mash)		Unhusked rice (Shati)		Mung			Grim
1901	191	1 1	901	19	11	190	1 191	1 19	01	1911	190	)1	1911	1901	191	1	1901	191	1 190	1 1911	190	1 1	911	1901	1911
14	15		16	1	7	18	19	2	0	21	22		23	24	25		26	27	28	29	30	<u> </u>	31	32	33
25 1	23	32	3 13	18	15	27 3	327	028	15	20 8	12	6	4 14	8 13	7	3 1	5 13	8	0 46 (	 0,36 2	12	4 1	9 11	20 9	12 2
		- 1			- 1		327	1	2				4 14	l	7	0 1	4 0	81	2		12	21	0 1		
24 12	28	021	5 6	23	12	25 E	26 t	22	8	22 8	8	8	5 4	•••		1	3 12	10	8			. 10	0 11	•••	
26 0		22 025		24 25	9	20 ( 32 (		21 24	0	22 0		0	6 0 4 0	***					0		101	197			
17 0	28	026	i 0	22 24	O:	80 C	)   28 (   24 (	121	0	22 0	8	0	6 0	•••	•••	1	8 12	12	0			٠  ,٫	•••		
		8 26		27	- 1		28	1 .	- 1			0	4 5	9 0	***	1			0			0 1			
		024	. 0	26	o	24 (	   24	24	o	16 C		0	5 0		 	1:	8 0		0		12	0 12	2 0		
25 0 	21 	0 21		28 •	0	32 ( 	32	22 22	0	26 C	8	0	4 0	9 0	:::	1			0		10 	. 10	0 0		
	101		•••	9	0	28 (	<b></b>	31	4	26 (	8	0		9 8		1	3 5	9	0		11	0 8	3 4		
		.	•••	ď		 28 (	]	28 36	0		8	0	•••	9 8		1			o		11	010			
<b></b>	•••		•••	•		28 (		32 29	0.	22 (	٠. ا			•••		i	8 0	9	0		•••		3 0	•••	
			•••		ı		<u> </u>	26	0 :		١.	O	•••	•••			•••		В			١,			
	\			ŀ	.			24	0			o							0 ,		•••	١.,			`
		١.	,	ŀ	.	•••	1	28	ol:	22 0		0		•••			***		Ŏ			.   8	3 0	***	
i		0.21		16	0	••,		24	5		-	5	5 0	8 0	7	0 1: 	3 11	9	5	<b></b>	ŀ	8 13		***	•
	20	020	0	15 17	9	•••	:::	24 25	0	8 0	7	0	6 0 4 0	8 0	7"	)    -	<b>5</b> 0	10	D			0 10 0 15	5 0		
		20	***	16 	ا	•••		24 28 28	03	30 O	٠.	9	5 0	•••		1:	4 0	18	D			0 12 0 0 6	0		···
<b></b>	•••	1		`.	<b>!</b> 			45	0	-	17	0	5 0	8 13	7	71	6 0 7 10	-	0  3 46 (	36 9	<i>10</i> 16 1	-	_	"	
				"		***		56	0		16	0	***		ľ	12				33 11	ł	016		ļ .	***
		1		ļ		•		}	- 1	34 10			•••	***	7 10	1			060 (	ł	30				***
	***	- 1	•••	1	::	•••			٠.	34 0 10 0		٠,			7	8 02	[	10	D	30 0		.  16	3 0	١	
i		.	***	٠.		***		53	0	38 4	17	8		8 13		1		11 1		37 9		-		ŀ	
		- 1	•••	•		•••		46	0					7 10	6 (	0 11	8 O	6	8 40 C	33 4	17	014	٠ 0		
	•••		••• •••			•••		64		12 0					6	Ō	D 0	13	0 42 (	<sup>1</sup> 40 0		.  18	3 0		
	***		•••		"	•••	""	50 26	5		16			10 0	7	I.	B 0		1	) 42 0 		J.			
	40.1		111		.	***	1	24		_		Į	***	•••	***	1		7 5 1	3	}	10	0 8	3 <b>0</b> 3 0		***
	•••	· [	•••	٠.		111		23 32	0	8 0		٠١		***		1	0 0	8	ol		7 11 12	012	0 9		
	<b></b> .		•••				""	12	8	8 (				•••			***		0		8				12 2
			***	١.		•••	***					ļ	***	•••	""		•••		0		8	1		1	13 5
	۱.,	1	•••	.	•••	•••		ı						•	<b></b>	1.	,	<b>ا</b> ّ			Ĭ	Ι,		1	13 0
			•••	•		•••	:::			•••				•••			•••		0		8	O ;	7 0	80 (	014 0 013 0
	•••	.	•••	١.		•••		15	8	8 (	1		***	•••	•••		***	<b></b>		•••	8	0	7 0	17 1	   11 0
			***					20 11	0	8 C	j i				 						8				0 12 0
in st	ı Anda:	<u> </u>		<u>_</u>			<u>L</u>	1	<u> </u>	_	1	•					***				8	oj	6 (	15	0 10 0

no doubt, largely vid the Shopian route, but the date of the Census was not the time when they would be found largely intermixed with the population of Kashmir. The next important constituent of the migration into Kashmir is the State servants of all grades and departments and taken all together they form a fairly large community. In the sub-montane Jammu, the attractions are greater and more varied. In addition to labour, trade and service, there is the social force of intermarriage which leads to a considerable absorption of the people from beyond the borderline; Jammu district thus attracts 27,000 and Jasrota and Mirpur 12,000 each.

112. That the people move from one district of the State to another in fairly large numbers may be judged from the fact that the sub-montane and semi-mountainous tract alone had on Internal the night of the Census 10,000 persons born in the contigu-1mmigration ous districts of the State and 3,000 in remoter parts. The greatest attraction is afforded by Jammu of course, because of its being the seat of Government and because of the presence of the Durbar there at the time that the Census was taken. The large number of immigrants found in Udhampur (8,000), and Riasi (12,000), consisted chiefly of the hordes of Gujjars and other pastoral nomads who descend from the higher hills to winter in the warmer regions of the lower altitudes. The 7,000 of Kashmir should not at all surprise considering the communion that exists between the districts of that province and of Jammu (especially the tehsils of Kishtwar, Ramban, Rajauri and Kotli). The small proportions of Stateborn immigrants in Laddakh and Gilgit consist of the few State employes and traders that are always to be found there. The immigrant population from the contiguous districts must also contain some proportion of persons imported by means of intermarriage but this must of course be very small in a country so isolated as the Frontier districts.

113. Subsidiary Table II gives the actuals in round numbers of the persons born in this State but enumerated elsewhere. These figures cannot be discussed with any confidence by districts as the record of birth districts was neither reliable nor complete. Many of the provinces could give no detail beyond the two main di-

visions of Jammu and Kashmir, 35 .. 72,369 Aimer Puniab and some contented themselves N.-W, Frontier Province .. 4,655 26 Ceylon .. with reporting the totals for Kash-Baluchistan ... 899 Andamans •• mir representing the entire State; .. , 1,956 United Provinces Hyderabad and for this the emigrants them-105 Central Provinces Baroda 18 selves are responsible in no small 751 Mysore 42 Bombay degree as they exercise little precision in quoting their birth-districts. Madras 28 Travancore 1 70 Altogether there were registered 81,948 emigrants at the Bihar and Orissa .. 82 Central India ... 274 Rajputana 90 Bengal .. 11 Burma 433 Outside India ... •• Census, the detail being as in the margin. The Punjab heads the 10 Total .. 81,948

list in taking from as it does in giving to the population of the State. There is a large number of Kashmiri families that are permanently settled all over the Punjab and particularly in Lahore and Amritsar. They form powerful centres of attraction. The neighbouring districts of Gurdaspur (12,139), Sialkot (17,353), Gujrat (7,211), Jhelum (6,777), and Rawalpandi (10,367)\* draw away the largest number of persons born in the State; the majority of these come from Jammu Province. A constant exchange of population goes on between these and the conterminous districts of the State by means of marriage. In addition to this the Railway and canal works draw a large number of Kashmiri coolies during the winter; this is the reason why 6,777 emigrants were registered in Jhelum and 2,104 in Lyallpur. The latter district may also have tempted some colonisers from the State into the area

There exist fairly large colonies of the Kashmiris even in these conterminous districts, e. g., those in Sujanpur and Nurpur of Gurdaspur, Jalalpur of Jattan in Gujrat, as also in Jhelum and Rawalpindi towns.

reclaimed by means of improved canal irrigration. Kangra (1,589) and Chamba (1,634) valleys having so much in common with Kishtwar, Bhadarwah, Basohli and Ramnagar, both in respect to physical features and the races inhabiting them, it is but natural that considerable intermingling of the people between these tracts should be taking place. The North-West Frontier Province easily stands second in respect to the number of persons drawn from the State; the connexions that subsist between the villages of Muzaffarabad and of the western and north-western parts of 'the valley tehsils'\* lying close to the boundary are large. The demand for labour also attracts some people into that Province. In the United Provinces Kashmiri families are scattered all During the Mogul reign in the north-west of India and the rule of the Nawab Wazir in Oudh there was a large influx into Delhi and Lucknow of the intelligent and advanced Kashmiris and there exist to the present day regular colonies of these people in either city. Even now the Kashmiri Pundits of the Province represent a very advanced section of the people, having progressed with the times and educated themselves in western culture and civilization. These people maintain matrimonial and other relations with the original stock, especially such of them as have no established residence of their own. Moreover the Musalman Kashmiri traders pass in considerable numbers into that province as itinerant vendors of Kashmir articles of merchandise. Commerce also is a force that attracts a fair number of the people of this State to Bombay, and the enterprising among the Kashmiris go even so far afield as Bengal and Burma. All other emigration is very insignificant and does not merit mention.

114. Of the persons born in the sub-montane and semi-mountainous tracts 8,000 (roughly) were enumerated in other districts of the State conterminous with that area and 4,000 in remoter districts. Jammu district being the more fully developed part of the province and being also the centre of all power,

contains a more enterprizing people who migrate into the interior of the country for purposes of trade and service. Marriage also appears to be a powerful impulse to emigration from Jammu as the proportion of females is found to be larger among the emigrants (6,000 against 5,000 males). The Udhampur and Riasi districts also give away large numbers of females in , marriage to the Rajput and Thakkar families residing outside those districts. The exchange of population between Jammu and Kashmir Provinces is almost equal (7,000 against 8,000) and is quite justified by the political and commercial relations subsisting between the two countries. The country in the Frontier is much too remote and difficult to admit of any large movement among its people and the Laddakhi is noted for his stay-at-home tendencies, but the overcrowding that has come about in tehsil Skardu and the northwestern parts of Kargil has led to some emigration of the people from those parts. The hardy and venturesome Balti moves to long distances in search of employment and supplements his meagre income by dint of labour as a coolie on the roads. These Baltis are found engaged in large numbers in road construction in Simla and other important towns in northern Punjab. Within the State, however, they move about only in connexion with transport and their number as internal emigrants in this capacity cannot have been at all considerable at the slack season of the year when the Census took place. As to intermarriage there must be but very little with these far-off districts. Even the Kashmiris who have gone to Laddakh in pursuit of trade, and settled there, cannot go so far away as to Kashmir for matrimonial purposes, and they take wives from among the local people and have become a race by themselves, viz., the Arghuns or hybrids from Aryan and Mongolian stock.

115. What has been said above as to the nature and extent of immigration and emigration, requires to be supplemented by a display migration of definite proportional figures in order that the reader may be able to form a more accurate idea of the scale on which migration

This is the name given to the seven tehsils of the Kashmir proper.

takes place in the State. The figures noted in the margin are the percentages

Uzir	Immigrants	Emigrant
State	2-5	27
L-Sub-montane and Semi-mountainous tract	10-3	20
II.—Outer Hills	2-9	17
Jammu Province	44	.8
111.—Jheium valley (Kashmir Province)	1.2	.9
IV.—Indus valley (Frontier Districts)	1.8	-3

on actual population given in respect to the provinces and natural divisions of the State. They show that even though there is a slight excess of emigrants over immigrants on the whole, the various provinces and natural divisions of the State, individually, take in more people than they

give; that the easier and flat portions of Jammu exchange the largest number of persons, drawing in more than they send out; that the volume of emigration is larger from Kashmir than Jammu; and that the Frontier districts take in a larger proportion of persons from outside than the Kashmir Province. The first and the last two are rather anomalous results and certainly opposed to actual facts. The difference in the State totals as also the larger percentage of emigrants from Kashmir is due to an absence of classification of the emigration figures by districts of this State. As already pointed out the birth-districts of emigrants reported were only either Jammu or Kashmir, and in a large number of cases even this specification was not made. All such cases had to be included in the totals of the State. For the same reason quite a large number of people who really emigrated from Jammu Province are included in the totals of Kashmir as it is not uncommon to apply the latter name alone to this State as a whole. The large percentage of immigrants into Frontier districts is readily explained on the one hand by the smallness of the actual population on which that percentage is based and on the other by the presence of a large body of civil and military staff located in those outlying parts of the State, particularly in Gilgit. The whole subject would become much clearer by a reference to the district figures as given in Subsidiary Table III. In every thousand of its people Jammu contains 127 foreign-born persons and the proportion is still larger in the sub-montane tehsils of Jasrota district, viz., 183. The similarly situated tehsils of Mirpur receive 75 and the healthy Riasi attracts no less than 71. Bhadarwah draws in 79 and the mountainous Udhampur only 45. In Kashmir the largest inflow is in Muzaffarabad (23) because of the greater extent of its dealings with Hazara and Rawalpindi. Kashmir proper naturally enough contained a very small proportion of outsiders (19 per mille in northern and 12 in southern district) at the end of its severe winter. Immigrants were also the smallest in number in the inhospitable, distant and difficult country of Laddakh (7 per mille); and the 125 per mille of Gilgit consisted mainly of the immigrants from the neighbouring independent chiefships in addition to the military and civil employes mentioned above. As regards emigration the Bhadarwah jagir leads with 71 per mille. Mirpur sends out large numbers in quest of employment both within and without the State, the figure for Kotli alone being 60 per mille. The proportions of 17 for Muzaffarabad, 9 for Kashmir North and 5 for South are quite in keeping with the local conditions of those districts. The 4 per mille in the case of emigrants from Laddakh to contiguous places seem to be quite consistent with the dealings that Zanskar has with the Budhistic parts of Padar, Chamba and Pangi valleys, and it is not surprising that with the improvement of communications 11 per mille of the Gilgit population should have gone out into Kashmir and Laddakh.

116. The proportion of females to 100 males both among immigrants and emigrants will appear from the abstract in the margin on the next page. The preponderance of females among migrants of either kind to and from contiguous places signifies most unequivocally the casual nature of the migration and is obviously due to the change of residence of women on their marriage, matches being generally selected from the adjacent villages across the border.\* On the other hand their smaller percentage

These dealings exist on the largest scale in the submontane and semi-mountainous tract and the percentages of females there are 131 and 104 among immigrants and emigrants respectively.

in all migrations to remoter places shows that the people concerned have

	Laurig	rants	Emigrants			
Cyits	Contiguors	Remote	Contiguous	Remote		
State	118	28	88	26		
L Submottane and Semi-mountainous tract	} 181	84	204	43		
11. Outer Hills	78	49	82	1		
Jammu Province	111	77	69	22		
III. Jhelum Vulley (Kashmir Province)	78	62	52	31		
IV. Indus Valley (Prontier Districts)	34	30	50	34		

moved only temporarily, whether to supply a special demand for labour or in search of service or pursuit of trade. Jammu, Jasrota and Mirpur districts exchange the largest number of women in marriage with the neighbouring districts of the Punjab, and Riasi and Bhadarwah

form the two great centres from where females are exported for purposes The proportion of females to every hundred male emigrants from Bhadarwah to remoter places works out to 407. abnormal proportion has resulted from the fact that in Mirpur district the emigrants from Bhadarwah have been returned as 39 males against 1,084 females, of which no satisfactory explanation is forthcoming. The peculiarity of Kashmir North is that the preponderance of females there is among the immigrants from the remoter parts and this may be due to the fact that the people of the more hilly localities of that district take women for their wives from the level parts of the valley. For purposes of matrimonial alliances Laddakh is but little able to draw upon any other part of the country. Owing to its isolation it has to rely upon its own resources in this as in every other respect, and the percentage of females there is very low both among immigrants as well as emigrants.\* Migration in that part of the country is largely of a semi-permanent nature. Among the military immigrants of Gilgit it is but natural that the percentage of females should be only nominal (8), and the 55 per cent amongst emigrants into remote places are quite consistent with the difficulty of taking females to long distances over hilly country.

117. Details of migration were not supplied by religions, just as they Religion and migration were not by districts, except in case of the contiguous Provinces. Those that are available are set out in the margin. As the largest proportion of migration that takes place in

			PROVI	NCB		
Raligion	NW.	Frontier ince	Put	viab .	United !	Рговіясез
	Immi- grants from	Emi- grants to	Immi- grants from	Emi- grants to	Immi- granta from	Emi- grants gto
Total	12,904	4,655	59,707	72,369	962	1,956
Hindu Sith Jain Budhist Mohamedan, Christian	410 81  12,436 7.	1,895 893 .: 2,838 29	31,653 2,916 112 34 25,444 256	26.221 2,481 80 79 41,346 163	Not available.	706 37  1,210 13

the State takes place with the neighbouring Provinces, these figures should furnish a fairly accurate idea of how the various religions obtaining among the population of the State are represented in the matter of inward and outward movement. It will be observed that the bulk of the population exchanged with the North-West Frontier Province is Mohamedan, as it should naturally

be, since the conterminous tracts that have such communion with each other are essentially Mohamedan countries. In exchanges with the Punjab, the proportion of Hindus is very large among the immigrants because the people of that community are represented so strongly in trade and service of the State; and the position is the reverse in case of the emigrants for the obvious reason that the Kashmiri coolie forms such a big component of their number. Among the emigrants to the United Provinces the Kashmiri cook, who is a sine qua non in the family of the Kashmiri Pundit of that Province, in spite of the advancement and liberalism of that community, is

It is curious to note that among the immigrants to Laddakh, the percentage of females is much larger among the people coming from the remoter than is in the case of those coming from contiguous places. The explanation is, however, very simple. The State servants who are deputed to this outlying district have generally to take their families along with them as they can not expect to return home to visit their people as often as they would like.

largely represented. The Musalman emigrants into this Province are composed chiefly of the ubiquitous Kashmiri trader in woollen articles. The figures relating to Christians need some comment since they show that there exists a large community of native Christians in the State from which people migrate in perceptible numbers to other parts of India. The emigrants to the North-West Frontier and United Provinces are people who were originally Mohamedans or Hindus but entered the pale of Christianity subsequently to their domicile in those Provinces. The explanation for the large number of Christian migrants into the State from the Punjab is, however, not the same. Out of the 256 persons returned, 126 were of Gurdaspur and 67 of Sialkot. The converts in Kathua and Jammu are principally Chuhras and Chamiars having marital and other relations with those adjoining districts of the Punjab, where missionary work among these people appears to have been attended with as much success, and exchanges do take place among these people in considerable numbers by means of marriage and otherwise.

Comparative notice of internal migration are comparison of the State, are given in Subsidiary Table IV of this chapter. It has been possible to make a comparison of present and previous figures in the case of the three provinces only, as separate figures for the last Census relating to the first two natural divi-

sions could not be traced. The marginal abstract exhibits the figures in

detail. Read horizontally, they signify immigration and, vertically, emigration. Those common to the reading in either di-

		·		LOCALY B	OILN AND	MIGRANTS						
PROVINCE		Jammu			Kashmir		Frontier					
	1901	1911	±	1901	1911	±	1901	1911	±			
Jammu Kashmir	1.473,239	1,5 <b>37</b> ,180	+79,941 5,644	4,978 1,130,590	7,789	+2,811	165 283	226 365	-39 +82			
Prontier	1,793	1,016	<b>—177</b>	850	928	+378	223,084	206,855	-16,929			

rection represent the people locally born. It will be observed that in Jammu there has been an increase of 79,941, i.e., 5.5 per cent among persons born locally which means a corresponding decrease in migration, and although, as compared with 1901, there was in the decade an accession of 2,811 persons from Kashmir there was a decrease of 39 in immigrants from the Frontier and a big drop of 5,644 and of 777 among emigrants to Kashmir and the Frontier respectively. That the stream of immigration from the Frontier to Jammu has grown smaller in this decade than the one to Kashmir is accounted for by the fact that with the development of Kashmir the Frontier emigrant has begun to find work nearer his home in that province and is spared the trouble and risk of travelling to the farther Jammu. The larger immigration from Kashmir and smaller emigration to it and the Frontier is due to the loss of population suffered by Jammu from the effects of plague and the resulting shortage in its domestic supply of labour, a situation of which the shrewd Khashmiri has not been slow to take advantage. During the stay in winter of the Durbar at Jammu there is a great influx of the people from Kashmir, and the seasonal colonies of the Kashmiris in the city are found to be growing from year to year. The Khashmiri coolie as also the pony man have begun to feel more secure from the danger of begar since transport arrangements have been leased out on contract system and all conscription has tended to abate. It is, moreover, during the present decade that the larger part of Jammu has come to be properly settled; and it is only natural that with greater security of tenure and fixity of the revenue demand the people of this province should have begun to take more interest in their domestic affairs and be in less need of faring abroad in search of employment with a view to augmenting their small incomes from agricultural sources. The increase among the local born is still greater in Kashmir where their number has gone up by 145,465 or 12.8 per cent. This can scarcely be explained away by the decrease of

immigration from Jammu as in every other respect there has been an increase in migration. The Province has, no doubt, received more persons during this decade from the Frontier, but it has at the same time given a far greater body of people both to Jammu and the Frontier. The real explanation would therefore seem to be that the Kashmir population has itself grown at a much higher rate of increase owing to the greater fecundity of its people. The explanation for the decrease in emigration from Jammu to the Frontier is the same that has been advanced in accounting for the shortage in emigration to Kashmir though a contributory cause may be found in the fact that whereas formerly the entire camp-following of the Frontier garrison were recruited in Jammu they are now largely recruited on the spot. The reason for the greater immigration from Kashmir is twofold: in the first place, the improved communications invite a larger number of Kashmiri traders into the Frontier districts and, secondly, there was a large number of Kashmiri Pundits, employes of the Settlement Department, present at Kargil and Skardu on the date on which the Census was taken. The com-Kargil and Skardu on the date on which the Census was taken. parative figures of the locally born persons in the Frontier districts as contained in the marginal abstract show a large decrease. It is necessary to explain this lest these figures should be supposed to indicate a higher rate of migration in those districts. The decrease is really due to the exclusion of the population of the Frontier ilaqos (where birth-places were not recorded) from the totals of the present and its inclusion in that of the last census. If all the actual population of those ilaque were to be assumed as locally born and added to the total of the Frontier districts, the figures would show an increase of 38,206 or 17.1 per cent. This would be more in accordance with facts, and the increase so resulting would be ascribable partly to actual internal growth and partly to better enumeration on the present occasion.

Of external migration and these as recorded are contained in the abstract statement given in the margin. They reveal a general diminution in all migration affecting places outside the State except a small increase among the immigrants into the Frontier districts which, as already

		Ix	MIGBYZ	TS :	EMJGRANTS						
Unit		1901 1911 Differ-		1901	1911	Differ- eace					
State		85,597	75,975	-8,623	88,157*	81,948	-4,209				
Jammu	••	65,823	62,393	-6,433	8,901	615	-3,266				
Endmir	••	15,331	12,940	-2,381	80,179	2,822	_tr,357				
Prontier	••	1,451	1,642	+191	5.0	19	<b>_3</b> 9				

\*This represents only Indian migration as per India Report 1901 page 102, and the actual emigration including migrants outside India was larger still. pointed out, is due to improved communications and the presence of the Settlement staff in Laddakh. The latter is largely manned by people from the Punjab. As regards the rest it needs to be stated that it is only the immigration figures whose division by the provinces is at all accurate. The Provinces of British India beyond the State, as has been noticed, did

not supply details by districts and provinces of emigrants of the State enumerated therein; nor could this be expected considering the misapprehension generally existing outside the State as to the significance of the terms Kashmir and Jammu. All the emigrants in regard to whom no district or province of birth was specified had consequently to be included in the total of the State. At the last Census little attention seems to have been paid to this point and the large figure of emigrants treated as having migrated from Kashmir contains internal evidence of this fact. For surely the 80,179 shown against Kashmir could not have all been Kashmir born. It is well known that the province most closely associated with the Punjab is Jammu, and it is from here that the stream of migration into the Punjab is greatest, whereas 3,901 alone have been shown against that Province. Inferences drawn, therefore, from a comparison of emigration figures by provinces are likely to be misleading. An accurate deduction is only possible from a consideration of the total migration from the State as a whole. This has decreased considerably and the decrease is ascribable, it need scarcely be repeated, to the general improvement in the material condition of the people. They

live in greater peace and prosperity and stand less in need of moving out in as large numbers as they did before. The details of decreases in the immigration are on the other hand much more intelligible. The number of immigrants into Jammu has fallen by 6,432 or 9.3 per cent. Being nearer and more accessible to highly populated areas in British India, the flood of casual immigration is usually greater into this province, but the fact that the province harboured the plague throughout the decade served effectually to check the streams of immigration. This fact, added to the local effects of bad harvests cannot have failed to cause some decrease in marriages. The defect in immigration to Kashmir, however, presents some difficulty in explanation in view especially of the fact that the province has been shown to have improved considerably during the decade. There is little or no immigration into Kashmir as the result of intermarriage with adjacent tracts. Such immigration as takes place is of a wholly temporary or semi-permanent nature and consists chiefly of the annual invasion by people from the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province for purposes of trade, employment or travel. The defect cannot be attributed to any decline in immigration of this kind, as the season during which the tide of such immigration is in flood does not commence till a date considerably later than that on which the Census took place. The people born elsewhere and counted in Kashmir could, therefore, have been only such as immigrated before the winter set in. The only possible explanation therefore is that the cholera of 1910 affected the immigrants. equally with those locally born and has resulted in a diminution of their number.

120. In the last paragraph it is the total external migration that has been dealt with. Subsidiary Table V of this chapter is confined to. Migration migration to and from India alone and it is this aspect of the between the question that is of greater practical value as the exchange of people that occurs in this State takes place in the largest State & other parts of India number with Indian Provinces and States. A glance at the figures will show that in its relation with the British Indian Provinces the State has been uniformly losing in both the decades, emigration having always exceeded immigration; the small gain of 6 from the Andamans is scarcely worth mentioning. At the present Census an increase of 8,249 has, however, been registered among the migrants between this State and the North-West Frontier Province which is due to the greater influx from the Hazara district, partly as a result of intermarriage and partly owing to the ingress of coolies who come to the State in quest of labour. Among the remoter Native States dealings of any importance, as has been observed before, take place only with those of the Rajputana Agency. With the growing consciousness of the Rajput families here of their genealogical importance and superiority they have begun to connect themselves more closely and largely with the Rajputs of the country which is their recognised stronghold. This is why more marriages are contracted with Rajputana from year to year and the State has been steadily gaining by the exchanges made. The net acquisition of 110 in 1901 has grown to 160 during the present decade, and these relations of Jammu with Rajputana are bound to develop according as peace and contentment increase in either country and communications become easier and cheaper.

121. In order the better to indicate the volume and direction of migration it is necessary to give in greater detail the figures, Migration both actual and proportional, of migrants as well as of tested with persons born locally. These are displayed in the table variations in printed on the next page. It covers the whole range of miglocal born and ration, containing as it does all the immigration and emigraactual popution figures both internal and external, and as such furnishes lation a very fair summary of the whole subject as discussed in the foregoing part The percentages of the locally born are based on the actual of this chapter. population and their variations since the last Census tally with those that have taken place in the number of immigrants. Among local born persons in the Province of Jammu there has been an increase of 4 per cent during the decade and there has been a corresponding decrease among immigrants. Similar variations for Kashmir and the Frontier are 8 and 3 respectively. If, in the same way, proportions be worked out for emigrants and local born with reference to the natural population the result will be found agreeing.

	· <del>·······</del>			A material		tion of to ac-	In	zmignant	te	1	Emigrapt	•	Proportion to a tual population of total	
	Province			Actual population	Local born	Proport local ( tual	Inter- nal.	Exter- nai	Total	Inter- nal	Exter- onl	Total	Immi- grants	Emi- grants
	Year	£ 1901	:	1,521,307	1,447,239	96-1	5,243	68,8 <b>2</b> 5	74,068	12,992	8,901	16,893	4-9	1-1
_	I WALT	1911	••	1,597,865	1,537,180	96-6	8,292	62,398	70,685	6,571	615	7,186	4-5	-4
Jammu (		Actual	••	+ 76,558	+79,941	ĺ –	+3,069	-6,432	-3,385	-6,431	-3,386	9,707	-	
1	Variation	Proporti	onal	+50	+5-5	+4	+58-1	<b>—9-3</b>	44	-49-4	84'6	-67.7	-4	-7
	Year	(1901		1,157,394	1,130,590	97-7	11,483	15,321	26,801	5,528	80,179	85,707	3-3	7:4
	YOUR	1911		1,295,201	1,278,055	96-5	6,306	12,940	19,146	8,712	2,822	11,534	1-5	٠,
Kashmire	, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	Actual	]	+ 127,807	+ 145,485	<b>!</b> –	_5,277	2,361	<b>—7,65</b> 8	+3,184	<b>—77,8</b> 57	-74,173	-	<b> </b>
	Variation	Proporti	on al	+11-9	+ 12-8	+8	-45-9	-155	28-5	+57-8	-964	-86-5	<b>⊸</b> 8	<b>—6</b> ∙š
	ſ	( 1901		227,067	223,274	98-3	2,342	1,451	8,793	548	58	606	3-7	-3
	Your	( 1911	••	265,060	261,480	98-6	1,938	1,642	8,580	1,153	19	1,173	1.4	-4
Prontier	i	Actual		+37,993	+38,906	_	-404	+191	-213	+603	-39	+566	-	-
	Variation	Proporti	onal	+ 16-8	+17:1	+-3	-17-2	+13-3	-5-6	+1104	-67:2	+934	s	+-2

122. The net result of all these movements of the people may now be summed up in the abstract given in the margin which shows how much the State as a whole has gained or lost in

Migration.	1901	1911	Variation per cent.
Immigration	85,597 86,157	76,975 191,948	—10-1 —4-8
Excess or defici- ency of immi- gration over emigration	— <b>56</b> 0	-4,978	+788-0

population at the present Census as compared with the last or, in other words, what the final effect has been of the locomotion of the people on the strength of the population. There has been a considerable fall in the flood of migration both inward and outward; the percentages of the variation expressed in round numbers being 10 and 5 respectively. On the whole, the

State lost 4,413 more in this than in the previous decade. The great decrease among the immigrants which is represented by an increase in the 'net loss of 788 per cent is largely confined to the Province of Jammu and an explanation of this has already been given in §119 above. With the improved conditions in the State emigration has also decreased considerably, but the migration of the Kashmiri coolie to the Punjab in quest of work during the idle time of winter persists in swelling the number of emigrants and it is for this reason that the decrease under this head is not as large as under immigration.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.—Immigration (actual figures)

			Bon	N I	n (	.00	0'a	01	117:	red	)		_	_			٧,
District and Natural Division where enumerated	Distri	et (or Na Division)	-				Other parts of			Oontignous parts of other provinces, etc., (in India)			Non-contiguous parts of other pro- vinces, etc., (in India)			Outside India	
	Total	Males	Femalos	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Maleg	Females
1	2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	111	2 18	14	15	16	17	18	19
ENTIRE STATE	3,026	1,606	1,420	-					[	34 2	935	10	7	3	2	2	_
IThe submontane and Semi-	576	317	259		5	Б	3	2	- 1		4 20	l l	L	9	1	1	
mountainous Tract	285	161	124		1 (	!	1	- 1	2	- 1	8 12	i i	1 !	3	1.	1	•••
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and ) Kathua tehsils only)	70	40	30	١.		2	1	- 1		- 1	4 6	1		1			•••
Mirpur District (Bhimber and ) Mirpur tehsils only)	212	112	100			2	1	1	1		4 6	1		.1	1	1	•••
IIThe Outer Hills	928		445				∤	}		3	2 1	.  B	4	2		•••	
Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only) Mirpur (Kotli)	62 93	32 48	80 45		1	1	-::	•••	·:: ·	••••••	• • • •	•••	'	<b> ···</b>	[…	***	•••
Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, ,,) Udhampur District	206	108		7	4	3	븳	";	4	**	'-1	2	1	ï	ļ	***	•••
Riasi ,,	192	101	91	10	Б	б	2	1	il.			.) a	2	١î			•••
Bhadarwah Jagir	84	17	17	2	1	1		ا	].				ļ				•••
Punch Ilaga	927	169	158	4	2 5	2	2	1	1 .			. 2	1	1	<b> </b>		•••
Jammu Province	1,527	811	716	8	, p	3	اير.				8 23	18	10	9	2	2	***
IIIThe Jhelum Valley (Kashmer Prov.)	1,276 452	680 240	596 212		3	2	2	1	1	9	5 4	l 3		1		•••	•••
Kashmir North   South -	631	338	212 293	2	1 1	1	[	·-:	·:; ·	•••		1 2	2			***	***
,, South Muzaffarabad District	191	101	90	1	l îl		. [			2	1 1		آ[	, 2 		***	•••
IVThe Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	207	104	103	1	ī		1	1				1	1		<u></u>	***	•••
Laddakh District	185	92	, 93	1	1			[	.				<b> </b>		ļ	•••	
Gilgit ,,	21	11	10	1	1	!	1	1	<u>l.</u>	l.	<u></u>	<u>' 1</u>	1	١	اا		•••

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Emigration (actual figures)

		, l	CHUMBU	AT	ЕD	IN	(,0	00	во	) <b>K</b> 1	TT	BD)	)_				_	
District and Natural Division of birth	Distr	et (or Na Division)	tura.	Conflerent	Configuous districts in the State			Other parts of the State			Contiguous parts of other provinces etc., (in India)			Non-contiguous parts of other provinces, etc., (in India)			Ontride India	
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Fornales	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
ENTIRE STATE	3,026	1,606	1,420		::		•••			77	42	35	5	4	1			
IThe submontane and Semi-} mountainous Tract	576	317	259	8	4	4	4	3	1		•••	•	٠	•••	•••	<b> </b>		•••
Jammu District	285	161	124	11	5	6	3	2	1		•••	•••	٠			<b> </b>		•••
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and Kathua } tehsils only)	70	40	80	3	1	2				***	•••			<b></b>	•••		•••	
Mirpur District (Bhimber and Mirpur tohsils only)	212	112	100						•••	•••	•••						•••	•••
IIThe Outer Hills	928	483	445		9	7	•••		•••	•••	•••	***		•••	٠	ļ	••••	•••
Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only)	62	32	80	1 .	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		•••		•••	ļ	•••
Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, ,, )	93	48	45		1	•••	5	3	2	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	····	ļ	•••	•••
Udhampur District	206			9	b	4	•••	••••	•••	***	•••	•••		•••	۰۰۰	<b> ···</b>	••••	•••
Riasi ,,	192	101	91	8	4	4	•••	•••	••••]	***	•••	•••	ļ	····	J	J•••	J••••	•••
Bhadarwah Jagir	34	17			1	•••	ı,	•••	4	•••	•••	•••			•••	····		•••
Punch Ilaga	327	169				2 2	***	***	•••	•••	***	•••	***	•••		i	i '''	•••
Jammu Province	1,527	811	716			2	2	3,		•••	***	***	3	2	1	••••		•
IIIThe Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Prov.)	1,276	680			1 .	~	Ιã	2	1		•••	•••	ľ	~	-		l	
Kashmir North	452	240 338	212 293			'''	۱ ۱	[			•••	•••		<b></b>	l	l		
,, South	63 <b>1</b> 191	101	295 90		1	†	2	ارًا	٦ĺ		•••			<u> </u>	<u>                                     </u>			,
Muzaffarabad District		104	103			ا		1						• • •				
IVThe Indus Valley(Frontier Districts)  Laddakh District	185	92	93	•••								•••		***				
A115 4	21	11	10				<u> </u>								١	اا	<u></u> !	
Gilgit ,,	21	11		••••		200	-		-			_			_	_		

NOTE.—Detail of districts in respect of emigrants from this State having not been in all cases supplied by the Rependiculants of other provinces, the unappealed former have been shown under the head of Entire State.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE III Proportional migration to and from each district

	Nσ	MBER Po	per n			TVAL	721	NUMB MALES LES	TO :	100
i ·	Im	migra	nte	E	nigra	nts		mi- ints		ni- nts
District and Natural Division	Total	From contigu-	From other places	Total	To contiguous districts	To other places	From contigu-	From other	To contiguous districts	~ To other places
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
entire state	25	21	4	27	25	2	118	38	83	28
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun- tainous Tract	103	69	34	20	13	7	131	84	104	43
Jammu District	127	97	30	44	34	10	133	66	130	53
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and Kathua) tehsils only)		156	27	39	31	8	133	1		118
Mirpur District (Bhimber & Mirpur tehsils only)	1	56 <b>~</b> 22	19	2	1	1	166	46 49	72	56
II.—The Outer Hills	29		7	17	17	•••	78		82	1
Jasrota District (Basohli tehsilonly)	57 31	35 12	22 19	17 60	7	10 49	85 31	71 174	136 94	150 70
Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, ,, ) Udhampur ,,	45	33	12	45	43	2	97	42	92	66
Riasi ,,	71 1	49	22	40	37	3	105	57	108	40
Bhadarwah Jagir	79	60	19	71	33	38	64	33		407
Punch Ilaga	22	12	10	19	17	2	70	65	61	48
Jammu Province	44	31	13	5	4	1	111	77	62	22
III.—The Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Province)	15	11	4	9	5	4	78	52	52	31
Kashmir North	19	6	13	9	3	6		118	28	38
,, South	12	3	19	5	3	2	71	65	64	38
Muzaffarabad District	23	17	6	17	9	8	46	39	73	62
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	18	9	9	3	2	1	36	16	50	14
Laddakh District	7	4	3	5	4	1	35	47	56	9
Gilgit	125	61	64	11	6	5	42	8	89	55

Note.—Detail of districts in respect of emigrants from the State having not been in all cases supplied by the Superintendents of other provinces, the unspecified figures have been shown under the head of Entire State.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV Migration between Natural Divisions (actual figures) compared with 1901

			N	UMBER EN IN	UMERAT Natura)	Division	)'s omitte	D)
Natural Division in which b	Natural Division in which born					Jammu Province	III. The Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Province)	Indus Valley
1	:		2	3	4.	5	6	7
ENTIRE STATE	J	1911 1901	3,026 2,819	589	945	1,535 1,452	1,282 1,142	208 225
I.—The Submontane and Semi-mounts tract		1911 1901	588	576	10	586	1	
II.—The Outer Hills	į	1911 1901	944	11	928	940 •	4	•••,
' Jammu Province	••• {	1911 1901	1,533 1,460	587°	- 939	1,527 1,447	5 11	1
III.—The Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Proc		1911 1901	1,284 1,136	1	5	7 4	1,276 1,130	***
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Distr		1911 1901	207 223	•••	•••	<b>1</b>	•••	207 223

SUBSIDIARY TABLE V
- Migration between the State and other parts of India

Province or State		Immig	grants to Kashmir S	State -	Emigrants	from Kashmir	State	Excess (+) or of immigrants ov	
TIONING OF PASSO		1911	1901	Variation	1911	1901	Variation	1911	1901
1		2	3	4	5	, 6	7	8	9
Total India Total Provinces Ajmere Metwara Assam Andamans Behar and Orissa Baluchistan Bengal Bombay Burma Central Province and Berar Madras Punjab NW. Frontier Province Punjab and NW. F. Province U. P. of Agra and Oudh Total States Baroda State Contral India Agency Hyderabad State Mysore , Rajputans Agency Rajputans Agency Goa and French Possessions Unspecified	Districts Districts States Districts	74,397 74,079 27 7 7 20 131 131 166 18 184 18 11 27 8,500 1,207 1,163 1,741 1,163 1,741 1,741 19,663 2,948 318 4 35 11 10 250 8	82,633 82,368 10 2 1 11 16 194 4 198 142 70 3 8 9  80,061 1,097 751  265 6 29 18  199 	-8,236 -8,289 +17 -2 +6 +79 +4 -63 -44 -67 +24 -52 -3 +3 +18 -10,398 -8,547 +231 +53 -2 +6 -7 +10 +51 -2 -3	81,911 81,607 35 19 1 80 } 82 899 274 722 } 751 433 105 28 69,711 } 72,369 4,655 77,024 1,937 } 1,956 19 } 304 18 70 83 42 90 1	86,157 86,032 21 68 4  449 325 666 68 59 32  83,240 1,100 125 16 8 1 11 89 1	-4,246 -4,425 +14 -49 -3 +450 -51 +85 +365 +46 -46,216 +856 +179 +82 +31 +1	-7,514 -7,528 -8 -19 +6 -3 -879 -143 -567 -433 -94 -1 -12,662 +8,249 -4,413 -974 +14 -14 -35 -72 -32 +160 -1 +8	-3,524 -3,664 -3,664 -11 -66 -3 -483 -127 -454 -65 -51 -232,082 -349 +140 -9 +21 +17 -11 +110 -1 +3

Note. The North-West Frontier Province of the British India having come into existense only within the docade the figures for it and the Punjab could only be compared jointly.

### CHAPTER IV.

#### RELIGION.

123. Though the previous census reports of the State have made no material contribution to the subject, it is nevertheless not intended in the present report to attempt a lengthy description of the various religions obtaining among the people of Kashmir. To do so would be to go over ground already covered by a voluminous literature. The chief religions of Kashmir are those of India also and for a comprehensive account of them the reader is referred to the published Census Reports of the British Indian Provinces and to other technical publications containing a detailed survey of Indian religions. The purpose of the present chapter is merely to deal with the figures recorded at the Census as showing the prevalence of the various religions as well as the local distribution of the people professing them and to give a brief account of only such beliefs and religious practices as are peculiar to this part of the country.

#### Part I.—Statistical.

124. Particulars as to the religion professed were recorded at the enumeration in column 4 of the General Schedule. From these Reference to returns the totals of the different religions have been made Tables out by the usual process and arranged, by towns, tehsils, districts and provinces, in Imperial Tables V, VI and XVII and Provincial Table II. Classifications of age, sex and civil condition, education, caste, tribe or race, and occupation in Imperial Tables VII, VIII, XIII and XV-D, have also been made by religion. In order to reduce them to still more intelligible proportions an abstract of the statistics has been made in the six subsidiary tables appended to this chapter, in which the comparative percentages of the previous censuses are also given. No serious effort has so far been made to register sects in this State beyond the distinction observed at the present Census between Shias and Sunnis among the Musalmans, and in regard to Christians the specification required for the purposes of Table XVII. Details of the former are contained in Table VI alone, Musalmans having been treated as a single community for the purposes of all the other tables. In some districts of the Jammu Province an attempt was made to differentiate among the various Hindu sects, but the terms employed to this end, viz., Shivi, Vishnavi, Sanatan, were of so generic a character that the classification of the Hindu population by them was considered valueless and was therefore abandoned at the compilation. And, having in view the general ignorance of the people in regard to the finer religious distinctions, it does not seem reasonable to expect that any accurate classification of this nature will be possible in the State for a long time to come.

125. Taking the State as a whole, the general distribution of the population by religions is as follows:

bution of religions

0	A.	Hindu	(b) Ar	ahmanic ya amho	•••	689,342 1,047 1
I.—Indo-Aryan	{		\[	TOTAL	100	690,390
	B.	Sikh		•••		31,553
	C.	Jain	***	•••	•••	345
	(p.	Budhist	•••	•••		36,512
II.—Irani <b>an</b>	E.	Zoroastrian	•••	•••	•••	31
	ſ		(a) Su	nni	•••	2,194,503
	F.	Musalman	$\int (b)$ Sh	ia		203,817
III.—Semitic			``}			
	)_		C	TOTAL	•••	2.398,320
	(G.	Christian	100	•••	•••	975

From this it will be seen that the number of Aryas, Bramhos, Jains, Parsis and Christians is insignificant, these communities as well as the majority of the Sikhs being practically exotic to the country. The natives themselves of the State are followers of one or other of the three main religions Hindusim, Budhism and Islam. The Sikhs who aggregate rather less than one per cent of the entire population are mostly immigrants from the Punjab employed in trade or service. The population of the Budhists though indigenous is also small, being only 1.16. The Mohamedans form 76 per cent of the population and the Hindus 22. The percentage of Hindus would be yet smaller (16:1) if people of the "untouchable" classes were not reckoned as part of that community. Treated in its entirety the State is thus seen to be peopled by Mohamedans to the extent of more than three-fourths and Hindus of less than a fourth of its population, while the Sikhs and Budhists form very small minorities. But these proportions vary so much with locality in this physiographically heterogenous country that without considering the figures in reference to the natural divisions, provinces, districts and other minor divisions of the State it is impossible to form a correct idea of the extent to which each of these religions prevails in its various parts.

Territorial distribution of religions

Terligions

Territorial distribution of religions

Territorial distribution of religions

Territorial distribution professed by the people in the different localities and it clearly shows that the distribution has a distinctly geographical character. Just as the Dugar Raqa in the south is

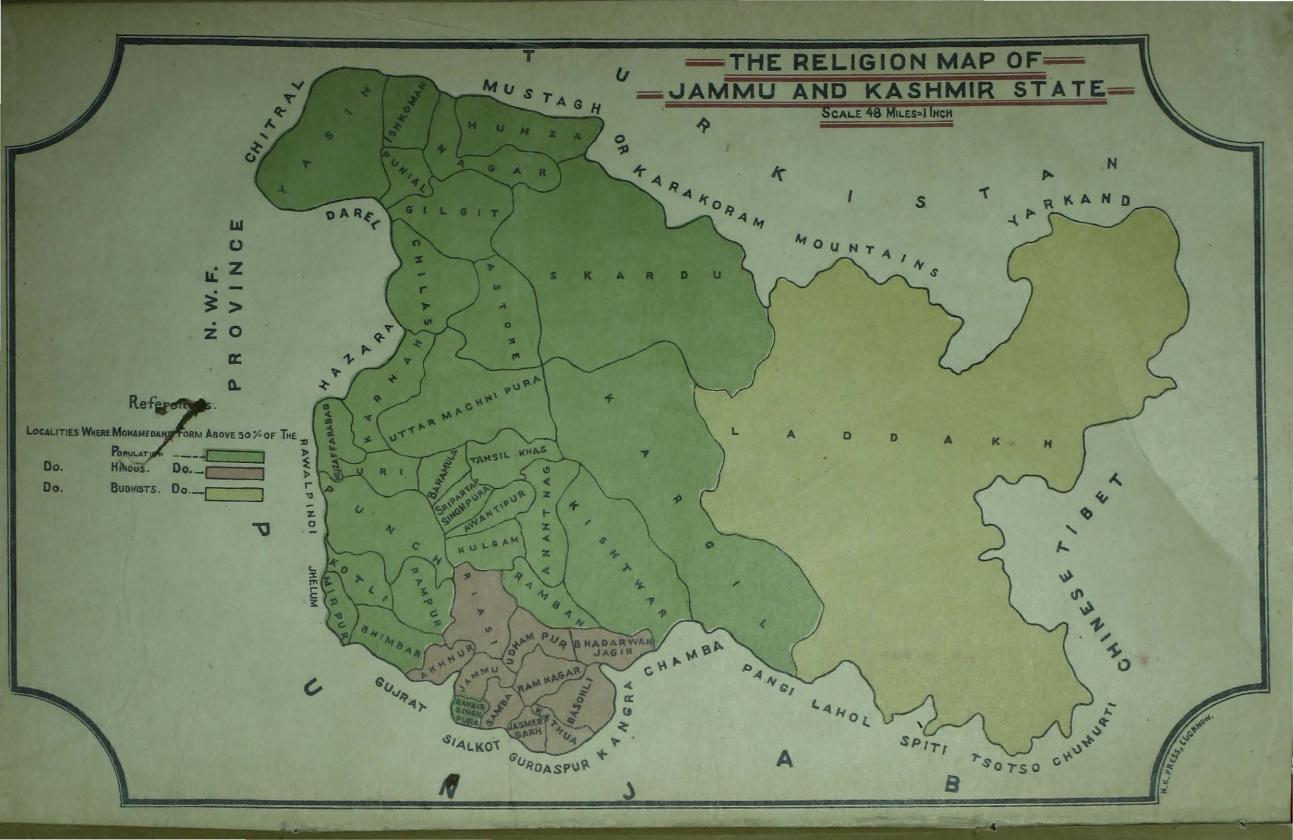
the stronghold of Hinduism (69 per cent), and Laddakh tehsil in the east that of Budhism (89), so the rest of the State is essentially Mohamedan (92). Budhism once prevailed throughout the length and breadth of "the Indus Valley," just as Hinduism did in the remaining portions of the State, but with the advance of Mohamedanism from the north both have receded into very narrow limits until the one is now confined to the tehsil of Laddakh, the ilaqa of Zanskar and a few villages on the eastern border of Kargil, and the other to nine out of the ten tehsils of the Dugar country and to the Bhadarwah jagir. Even in Ranbirsinghpura the teeming numbers of the Gujjar tribe who are settled there to cultivate the land have raised the proportion of the Mohamedan community to a degree that has necessitated its classification as a Mohamedan tract.

The percentages given in the margin are interesting in that they show the

Mobamedans Onit 왏 75-9 21.8 1.1 State Jammu District ... 10 88-7 60 Q ٠. .07 23-1 76'6 .. Jasrota \_ n .\$ 406 Udhampur 🕳 60-6 20-1 13 60.6 ٠, Rinsi .9 81.3 17.7 Mirpur •• Bhadatwah Jagir ... 38·6 61-1 •• 3.9 6.2 Punch Ilaga 90-5 104 Jammu Propince ... 58.7 39.8 .03 -9 Kashmir North ... 96-8 2.3 •• 4 Bouth . . Valley ... .8 94.0 5.8 Muzaffarabad District 2.4 3.9 93.6 Kashmir Province .. 84.0 4.8 1.1 Laddakh ٠2 -02 19.3 80-4 Allgit District ... 3.4 3 96-3 Frontier Ilaqua ... 0.8 994 Fronter Districts

precise extent to which each of the four main religions found in the State prevails in its various districts, jagirs and provinces. A more detailed discussion of the separate figures of each religion is reserved to a later stage. Of the Provinces, Jammu (39 per cent) and, among the districts Jammu (60), Jasrota (77), Udham pur (61), and the *jagir* of Bhadar wah (61), have the largest Hindu population. In all other districts the Musalmans predominate, the percentages ranging from 60.6 of Riasi to 99.4 of the Frontier Ilaqas. The high proportion in Riasi is due to the figures of the Rampur-Rajauri tehsil which contains 73 per cent In Riasi, moreover, Mohamedans. the Gujjar tribe outnumbers all other castes. The extent to which Mohamedanism really prevails in the Laddakh district (80.4) is obscured by: the inclusion of the Budhist country

but if the tehsil of Laddakh is excluded, the percentage of Mohamedans runs



up to very nearly ninety-five (94.8). Beyond Laddakh the only Budhist population is to be found in four villages of the Padar ilaqa\* in Udhampur district. The Budhists found elsewhere are only casual visitors. Sikhism claims no particular tract of the State as its own beyond a few scattered Sikh settlements that exist in the Province of Jammu and fewer still in Kashmir.

127. The term Animism, in its application to India, is admittedly difficult to define, and it has all along been so little understood in the Census operations of this State that it cannot Animists be said with any confidence whether or not there exists here a trace of this form of religious belief, if religious it can be called at all. The difficulty is increased by the absence of an appropriate translation of the term in any of the vernaculars of India. At the present Census the instruction on the subject to the enumerator was: "In case of aboriginal tribes who are not Hindus, Musalmans, Christians, &c., the name of the tribe should be entered in the column of religion," and such people were described as la mazhab. The latter expression caused a great deal of misconception. Even so, 81 persons were found to have been classed as professing none of the well-known religions, the detail being Sansi 2, Megh 1, and Chuhras 78. On their castes being referred to, it was discovered that they were not Animists at all. The Sansis and Meghs were therefore classed with Hindus and the Chuhras of these parts being known to be Musalmans were included in the totals of that community. No Animists have thus been recorded at the present Census, and as to the past the last Census Report says: "Animistic or that form of belief which induces people to recognise that the natural phenomena are due to spirits, and that even inanimate objects have spirits is unknown in this country."

If it be true that Animists are usually most numerous in remote and hilly tracts which were formerly more or less inaccessible, it might seem strange that there should be none in a country so very hilly and so eminently inaccessible as are certain portions of the Kashmir State. But it is doubtless the fact that Budhism, Islam and Brahmanic Hinduism have dispelled all primitive beliefs, fetichism and other crude forms of worship, and that the people have come permanently under the influence of the superior culture of one or other of these organised religions. It is, however, not altogether inconceivable that vestiges of Animistic worship may still be lingering among the hillmen of Jammu, especially among those who are the least, or the latest, removed from the aboriginal state, and it would not be surprising if the closer scrutiny of a future Census should bring this fact to light. Of hero and ancestor worship, of devotional homage to things of nature, such as the peaks of mountains, bad turnings in the hills, dangerous places on hill-paths and in the courses of hill streams, and of similar other superstitions, there does exist a great deal in the remoter parts of the Jammu hills as also in the country of Laddakh. But these practices accord so nearly with certain lower forms of Hindu worship that it is difficult to ascribe to them a purely Animistic significance,

The depressed certain tribes and races of whom it may be said that, from the standpoint of religious belief, they occupy a middle position between Animism and Hinduism. Doubtless of aboriginal derivation, and depressed to the very lowest social stratum, they would, twenty years ago, have been indisputably reckoned outside the pale of Brahmanic Hinduism; but the advance of education and the recent development of democratic and political ideas in the country have brought about a relaxation of prejudice against these classes. So far indeed does a spirit of tolerance now prevail that leaders from among the Hindu community have arisen in many parts of the country to organise movements for the elevation of these depressed people. These movements while being humanitarian in aim and leaning towards social and economic amelioration are, since political

The total population of Budhists in Padar is only 439.

advantages have come to be associated with majorities, directed also to the end of securing communal recognition on the part of Hindus for the sulfmerged classes, in order that the latter may be treated as forming part of the Hindu population. But such movements only to further obscure the question as to what technically constitutes a Hindu. An inquiry was started on this question by the Census Commissioner in his Note, dated the 12th July 1910. A considerable discussion followed in the public press. Opinions were advanced from the varying points of view of religion, race, birth-place and social organisation, and were not a little coloured by political and religious bias, but they were so conflicting that the discussion brought the question no nearer solution. The fact remains that there are certain tribes or castes whose members are regarded by Hindus of the higher castes as so unclean that their touch, and in certain cases mere proximity, is held to be pollution. At the present Census, where the members of these tribes were shown as Hindus they were accepted as such and included in the totals of Hindus; but in view of the great divergence of opinion that there exists on the point, all such tribes have been singled out and shown separately on the title-page of Imperial Table VI, and the reader is left to draw his own inferences in the matter.

The table in the margin gives the numerical strength of each of

. 0	ASTE.		Hinda.	Arya.	Sikh.	Kusalman.	Total.
Barwala (e	nd Batw	n) ••	11,175			180	11,255
Basith '			7,372	••••	220	65	7,647
Bawaria			83	••••	••••	1	84
Bazigar	. ••	••	191	****	****	1,155	1,976
Chamiar	••	••	89,094		6	****	89,099
Chuhra (! snlli, ! Watal)*	Mazbabi	Mu- and	231	16	88	14,831	15,165
Dum	••		86,785		21	15,284	52,099
Gadri	44		<b>354</b> °		****	****	\$54
Ghrit	••		` 181		****	••••	181
Koli	4.		1,784	,	**** }	****	1,784
Megh	4=		74,763	429	84	184	76,409
Ratal	6'0	٠.	970		••••		970
Bansi	••	44	59		<b>3</b> 8		97
Saryara,	74		2,626			••••	2,626
Thiar (or	Dhlar)		9,755 ·				2,765
	TOTA	L	178,959	454	406	21,690	910,803

these tribes as also details of the several religions under which persons belonging to them returned. have been These tribes, though they are all classed as untouchables, do not stand on an equal level of social degradation, either as between themselves or in their relation to the uttim, that is to say, . the higher and purer castes. A Megh would, for example, shun a Chamiar and a Chamiar would not take food or water touched by a Dum or Chuhra; Chuhras and Dums stand lowest in the social scale and Meghs highest. the

 Some of these have been converted to Christianity but since the original castes of Indian Christians were not recorded their exact number can not be quoted.

The latter are, in fact, in a stage of ascent to something like a higher social status in that they have become proselytes of the Aryas who have found in them a ready material for the spread of their propaganda, as may be judged from the fact that out of a total of 1,047 Aryas no less than 429 are Meghs alone. The capacity to pollute by touch on the part of some of these tribes comes from the nature of their occupation: the Chamiar, for instance, cures skins and works in leather, while the Dums and Chuhras are scavengers. The wandering Bawaria, Bazigar and Sansi, on the other hand, owe their degradation to the fact that they eat reptiles and carrion. In connexion with the Chuhras it may be noted that there is a special class of Musalman Chuhras known as Musallis and that the Sikh Chuhras are called Mazhabis,

It is only in the south-eastern part of the Jammu Province, where the Hindu element preponderates, that the distinction between the higher and lower castes is acute and the idea of pollution by touch of the lower castes comes at all into prominence. In Kashmir the only Hindu remnants of the

old races are the Kashmiri Pundits. All other castes having been absorbed into the Musalman community, no lower classes exist to make a comparison possible. There are, however, certain classes of Brahmans there in regard to whom peculiar distinctions exist. The Panyechhe are those that receive alms and other offerings connected with funeral obsequies. Their office is regarded as derogatory by the ordinary Rachhlatt as well as Karkun Brahmans who for this reason look down on them and refuse to take lood or water from their hands. Then there are the Leji Bats about whom the tradition is that during the Mohamedan sway they once pretended to have changed their religion but reverted to Hinduism afterwards. The orthodox Brahmans, however, did not readmit them into their brotherhood. A stigma also attaches to members of the caste known as Warud or Purib who are the offspring of a mixed union in which one of the parents is a Brahman and the other a Khattri. No pure Brahman will take food touched by such people. Among the Budhists in Laddakh no distinctions of this kind are recognised. They not only intermarry and eat freely with all classes among themselves but also with the Musalmans. The blacksmith, however, is despised particularly and is considered very low and unclean. Similarly the Mon (drummers) are treated as socially inferior. Both of these are of aboriginal derivation, the Mon being the same as the Dom!. The fraternity inculcated by Islam precludes all such differentiations among its followers. Even the Watal, after he has cleansed his person by the prescribed ablution, may associate with other Musalmans and may even enter the mosque to pray.

129. Beside the Animists and 'the untouchables' there are the Jains, the Budhists, the Sikhs, the Aryas and the Bramhos, all of whom Other nonthough originating from the common Indo-Aryan stock Brahmanic are subject of dispute as to whether they should be treated as Hindus on account of their denial of the communities supremacy of Brahmans. There is no Bramho among the natives of this State. In addition to the single instance of an American lady, there may be a few more Bramhos among the educated Bengali community existing here, as it is with them that the doctrines of this religion find the greatest favour. Aryas and Jains no doubt claim to be Hindus, but orthodox Hindus are known to have serious scruples in regarding them as belonging to their religion. Among the Sikhs there is a division—one party asserting absolute disruption from the Hindus and the other claiming union with them. The majority of the Sikhs in the State affect to belong to the latter party because of the political supremacy of Hinduism. Whatever affinities with Hinduism may be claimed in regard to Arya Samajism and Bramhoism, Jainism, Budhism and Sikhism, are of some antiquity and they have certainly gained a religious and political importance which precludes their treatment as sects of Hinduism, and much as the votaries of any of these religions may profess to desire their inclusion with the original stock for local and special reasons, their individual interests would continue to require their separate treatment.

130. Before taking up the statistics of the more important religions, it will be convenient to dispose of the minor ones which Aryas claim but a small number of adherents in the State. The propaganda of the Arya Samaj, though received with great disfavour by the orthodox Hindu community, is gradually but steadily gaining ground among the advanced sections in the lower portions of the Jammu Province. The number of Aryas has increased from 79 to 1,047 during this decade. Branches of the Samaj have been opened at Jammu and Mirpur which places possess the largest number of Aryas, the total for Jammu district being 604 and for Mirpur 225. Everywhere else the Arya community is very small and consists solely of Punjabi immigrants engaged in

They correspond to the Dakaunts and Acharjis of Jammu and the Maha Brahmans of the United

<sup>†</sup> Vide the last paragraph of § 140 page 98 as to the distinction between these two classes of Kashmiri Brahmans.

I As distinguished from Dûm, the scavenger.

service or trade. Bhadarwah, Muzasfarabad and Gilgit show a clean bill and the number in the other districts ranges from 1 to 72. The provincial figures disclose a yet larger disproportion, those of Jammu being 983 against 45 of Kashmir and 19 of the Frontier. The number in Laddakh (18) should not be taken to signify that Aryaism has gained a footing in that district: the settlement staff there contains many Punjabis and it is among them that the Aryas have been chiefly returned.\* It is alleged on good authority that so far no Kashmiri Pundit has accepted this faith, but with the progress of the times and the widening of the bounds of intellectual freedom, this liberal school of religious thought is bound to extend into the Valley, and the next Census is sure to record an all round increase in the number of its votaries in the State.

Jains and Parsis furnishes an excuse for discussing the statistics of these two religions together. All the Jains are confined to the Jammu Province, 334 out of a total of 345 being in Jammu district itself; 8 are found in Mirpur and 3 in Udhampur. The Jaini Bhabhra (Khattri) is a townsman by instinct and is disposed to avoid the physical inconvenience and risk attendant upon a penetration into the interior of a hilly country; that is why the entire Jain population is confined to towns. As already noted, this community has been constantly declining in number; it numbered 593 in 1891 and 442 in 1901. The decrease has thus been very nearly 42 per cent in the course of the last 20 years. This is partly due to the barrenness characteristic of the race generally devoted to Jainism and partly to the tendency of the local Jains to return themselves as Hindus.

The Parsis have increased in number from 9 in 1891 and 11 in 1901 to 31 at the present Census. They are, all of them, engaged either in trade or in the service of the State. They keep shops in Srinagar after the European style, in which town their number has been registered as 26. The remaining 5 were found in Jammu. With the opening up of the country and the establishment of peace and order they have begun to be attracted to it in increasing numbers. With the gradual increase in the demand for the commodities in which they deal, the Parsi population is expected to grow still more in the coming decade.

132. Having begun in inverse order, the community we should take up next is that of the Sikhs. As has been pointed out before, Sikhism is not indigenous to this country. Having its centre in the Punjab it has travelled to this part of the country because of the intercourse that this State is known to have had with the Sikh Court at Lahore. These people have been increasing rapidly. Their number was 45 in every ten thousand in 1891, and 89 in 1901, while now it is no less than 100 (vide Subsidiary Table II). They are spread all over the country being principally engaged in trade and service. Being an enterprising and hardy people, they are undeterred by the physical difficulties of travel and find their way to every part of the country in pursuit of their avocations. The extent to which they are scattered

Jammu	.,	44	3,15
Jearota	••	••	10
Udbampur	**	•••	12
Riasi		••	48
Mirpur	••		8,15
Punch	••		9,62
Kashmir North	•		4,57
Bouth	••		2.58
Muzaffarabad	••	•	7,61
Laddakh +	••	•••	4
Gilgit	••	•••	5
Frontier Ilagas	••	••	2

avocations. The extent to which they are scattered over the State will appear from the actual figures noted in the margin. The communion that exists between the Jammu and Mirpur districts of this State and the northern dirtricts of the Punjab sufficiently explains the large number of Sikhs found settled there, but there is a story connected with their settlement in Kashmir which is narrated below in the words of the

President of the Municipality of Srinagar:-

"The Jinsi Sikhs are Punjabi Brahmans. During the year 1751-1762 A.D., in the reign of the Emperor Ahmad Shah Abdali, Raja Sukhjiwan, Subah (Governor) of Kashmir, brought the Jinsi Sikhs from Pothwar and the adjoining hills to assist him in asserting his independence against

This must be due to connubial relationship with some Arya immigrant from the Punjab.

93

his master. As these mercenaries were paid in jins (grain) and had in the time of Maharaja Ranjit Singh embraced Sikhism, they began to be called Jinsi Sikhs or Sikhs in receipt of (military) rations. The Jinsi Sikhs are mostly found in the following portions of Kashmir, viz., Pargan, Tral, Hummal, Kirohan, Birah and Ranbirsinghpur. They live by agriculture and personal service."

It is in Muzaffarabad and Punch, however, that the largest number of Sikh settlements exists. Whatever historical reasons there may be for this, the influx appears to be mainly due to the intimate dealings of these parts with Rawalpindi and other centres of Sikhism in the Punjab.

133. Of the religions thoroughly established and long existing in this State, Budhism claims the smallest number of adhermus. As has been seen above, it is now confined to the easternmost corner of the State, the sphere of its influence extending across the Zanskar Ilaqa only as far as Padar. The total number of Budhists is 36,512 of which 36,057, i.e., very nearly 99 per cent, live in Laddakh district. The transfer of Zanskar Ilaqa to that district has further consolidated the Budhist population and this is the reason why Jammu Province has now only 3 Budhists in every 10,000 of its population, as against 32 at the last Census and 30 at the one previous to it. That the rate of their growth has been slow will appear from the comparative figures

RELIGION	PERCENTAGE OF VARIATION				
	1891-1901	1901-11	1891-1911		
Budhist	+184	+4.3	+53-3		
Musalman	4 20:3	+11.3	+23-7		
Sikk	+ 126-6	+33-3	+176-8		

set out in the margin. This is partly due to the practice of polyandry and partly to conversions to Islam; for although the rate at which the Budhists once passed over to Mohamedanism has diminished considerably ever since their country was first subjugated by the Dogras, conversions still continue to occur by means of intermarriage. It is

in this way that the Arghûn community is growing at the expense of the Bodh.

Hindus

Hindus

Hindus

Hindus

Hindu population is made in the marginal statement. It is evident that the State as a whole has lost 2 per cent of its Hindu population within the last 20 years. The decrease is, however,

		Present	Percentage of variation			
Talk		population	1891-1901	1901-11	1891-1911	
State	••	690,390	-4	4 .2	2	
Jammu		626,439	8	+ 101	-7	
Kashmir	••	62,414	+*	+ 28	+ 3-6	
Prontier	•-	1,537	+ 870-6	26-9	+ 4934	

confined to the Province of Jammu, and has already been accounted for by the fact that certain hill tribes there are decaying because of the low state of their morals and their pernicious marriage customs. In Kashmir, the Kashmiri Pundits have been developing quite steadily even though not as largely

as the Mohamedans. The increase has been particularly large in the course of the decade under review (very nearly 3 per cent). figures relating to the Frontier are still more interesting. The Hindu population there consists entirely of immigrants from Jammu, Kashmir and Punjab. Soon after the Dogra conquest of Laddakh, a considerable influx of the Hindu races into that country appears to have taken place, so that their number ran up by 870 per cent in the last Census. The Hindu traders migrated in such large numbers in the hope of securing a brisk trade in the newly opened country, but experience seems to have taught them that its resources were too meagre to sustain a large commercial body. This, of necessity, resulted in a retrogression and a decrease of 27 per cent has been recorded at the present Census. The establishment of settled and secure Government has, moreover, dispensed with the need of maintaining a strong military force for the protection of the Frontier and this has acted as a contributory cause to the diminution in the Hindu figures.

As to more detailed local distribution, the Hindu population is the strongest in Ramnagar (91 per cent) and Basohli (85) tehsils of Jammu Province. The

Kashmiri Pundits are mostly concentrated in the city of Srinagar (21,635). In the interior of the Valley only a few scattered villages are exclusively occupied by them. The Brahmans of Kashmir consider agriculture a derogatory profession. They are engaged in literary pursuits either religious or secular, and a small minority have taken to trade and commerce of the cleaner kind. That is the reason why they are mostly confined to towns and the proportion of the Hindus in the tehsils of Kashmir Province is so small, being 4 in Anantnag and Kulgam each, 3 in Awantipura, Baramula and Muzaffarabad, 2 in Uttarmachhipura and Uri and only one in Sripartabsinghpura. The two extremes are 14 per cent in Tehsil Khas and only 146 individuals (120 males and 26 females) in Karnah tehsil. The sex proportion of the latter distinctly shows that they are only State servants or foreign traders and not at all local people.

135. Islam appears to have been introduced in the valley of Kashmir for the first time with the invasion by the Tartar Khan Dalcha in 1128 A. D.\* and to have expanded gradually Musalmans according as the Mohamedan hordes continued to pour into India until, when the Musalman empire was firmly established on Indian soil at Delhi, a double influence was exercised from the north as well as from the south, and the whole of Kashmir Province and the major portion of Jammu Province became a Mohamedan country. In Laddakh district, conversion to Mohamedanism began in Baltistan and the religion gradually spread from there towards the south into Kargil and east into Chorbat, Khapalu, Shighar, etc. In the western parts of the Laddakh district and the Jammu Province and throughout Gilgit and Kashmir, the population of entire villages is found to be exclusively Mohamedan; but even in the Hindu Dugar and the Budhistic Laddakh Raqus there is a fair sprinkling of Musalmans comprising local converts as well as immigrants from other parts of the State. The latter is the reason why in Ramban, Kishtwar, Bhadarwah, and the northern portions of Riasi and Rajauri tehsils there is a considerable community of Kashmiri Musalmans. In Chibhal Ilaqa Rajputs and Jats appear to have accepted Islam as a body because of the confidence and the intimate relations that are known to have existed between these people and the Moghul Emperors of Delhi.

The total number of Musalmans now in the State is 2,398,320 as compared with 2,154,695 of 1901 and 1,793,710 of 1891. The provincial figures of

Province	Variation per cent in				
Littimes	1891-1901	1901-1911	1891-1911		
Jimmu	+8-9	+8.7	+19.5		
Kashmir	+22-7	+12.4	+87.9		
Frontier	+71.7	+16-9	+100-8		

variations are noted in the margin. The figure for the first decade relating to the Frontier districts requires a word of explanation. The percentage is based on unadjusted figures, as the last Census overlooked the fact that the Frontier Ilaqus were not enumerated at all in 1891. The approximate figure of variation can be obtained only by adding the present population of those first regular Census whereby an increase of only

Ilaque to the totals of the first regular Census whereby an increase of only 193 per cent is obtained.

The rate of increase among the Musalmans for the State as a whole (11:3) also compares very favourably with that of the Hindu (:2) as well as of the Bodh (4:2). This higher rate of growth is obviously due to certain social conditions that prevail in one case and not in the other. The Musalmans, for instance, practise widow remarriage most freely which the Hindus do not. Child marriage is deprecated by the one while it is considered almost a religious duty by the other. The Musalman population is further favoured in respect to growth by physiographical conditions. The largest part of the community inhabits the temperate Kashmir and Baltistan while the Budhists live in the severe cold of Laddakh and the Hindus on the dry hillocks and malarious terail lands of Jammu.

Mohamedanism did not, however, get a hold on the ruling family until 1341 A.D. when Rainchan or Ratan Shah Bodh embraced Islam and became the first Mohamedan king of Kashmir.

Locally distributed, the Musalman population is cent per cent in the Frontier Ilaqas (except Yasin where it is 99 per cent) and in the tehsils of Astore and Skardu; the percentage of Gilgit tehsil falls to 94 because of the presence of the Dogra forces there, and that of Kargil to 84 because of the inclusion of Zanskar and the existence of several Budhist villages in the east of that tehsil. In the seven tehsils of the Kashmir Valley the percentage ranges from 95 of Anantnag to 97 of Uttarmachhipura, except Tehsil Khas, where it comes down to 85 because of the presence of a large body of Kashmiri Pundits in Srinagar city. In Chibhal and Punch ilaqas as well as the district of Muzaffarabad, the proportion varies from 66 of Bhimber to 99 of Karnah. The smallest percentages are 9 of Ramnagar and 11 of Laddakh. In other Dugar tehsils, too, the percentage of the Musalman population is by no means insignificant ranging as it does from 25 in Jasmirgarh to 45 in Riasi.

136. The Mohamedan population has this time been distinguished by the two main sects shias and sunnis, in consideration of Shias and Resolution No. IV/6070, dated 14th March 1910, of the Sunnis All-India Shia Conference. In the entire State there are 2,194,503 Sunnis and 203,817 Shias, a proportion of very nearly 11 to 1; but the main part of the Shia population is located in the country of Baltistan, and this is the reason why we find that there are over a lac of Shias in the district of Laddakh. The 38,394 of the Frontier Ilagas consist chiefly of Maulais (24,910) the followers of H. H. Sir Agha Khan. In Jammu Province, the Shia community is very small (5,035), and even in Kashmir their number is not at all large. There are a few colonies of Shias in scattered villages and they are more numerous in Northern (30,746) than in Southern (11,673) Kashmir\*. That the Chachot colony of Shias in Laddakh is formed solely by Balti migrants from Skardu, has already been referred to in Chapter I. It is a question how Baltistan became so extensively Shia, when from all historical accounts it appears that it was the Sunni form of Mohamedanism that was first introduced into Laddakh. Islam is stated to have travelled from Kashmir through the influence and ministrations of Shah Hamadan, and is alleged to have been propagated through the preachings of his disciples, notably Shah Qasim Faiz Bakhsh. A possible explanation of the prevalence of Shiaism may be found in the fact that the Rajas of Skardu, Kiris, Tolti, Kharmang, etc., seem to have a Persian strain in them; their mother-tongue is Persian even up to the present day; their features are distinctively Persian and they themselves claim to be of Persian origin; and Persia being the cradle of this sect of Mohamedanism, it was but natural that the country should, in the long run, be dominated by a form of belief favoured by the ruling familyt. Even now Shia Mullahs and religious leaders continue coming to this part of the country and a few of them have only recently settled here!.

Christians deferred to the present stage. Christianity is the latest graft upon the religious life of this country and as such may be dealt with last of all. Out of a total of 975 Christians registered at the present Census, 266 are Europeans and Anglo-Indians. The local Christian population, thus, numbers only 709 and this is principally confined to Jammu and Jasrota and in a very small degree to Laddakh. The missions working in the State are the Church of England and of Scotland, Roman Catholic Church, American Presbyterian Church and Moravian Mission. In Jasrota and Jammu the work as well as the success lies among the lower classes, particularly the Chuhras. The Moravian missionaries at Leh and Khaltsi have succeeded in converting a few Budhists. Elsewhere the results of proselytising are either poor or nil. The Kashmiri is particularly impenetrable and in

Vide § 50 p. 25 supra.

<sup>†</sup> Vide infra the account of Nûrbakhshi sect, for a further elucidation of this point.

Haji Shaikh Abdurrazzaq Najafi one of the Khadims (priests) of the Karbala-i-Moalla has come in here only a few years ago. He is now permanently settled in village Poyn which stands on the opposite bank of the Suru river facing the town of Kargil. He has married locally.

spite of all the medical and educational work done by the missionaries in Kashmir, no progress worthy of the name has been made. Dr. E. Neve explains the position of affairs thus:

"The absence of religious freedom, the timidity of the Kashmiri, the high moral standard set up by Christ and the persecution to which converts are exposed at the hands of relatives and the minor officials, are the chief causes of apparent slow progress in the spread of Christianity in Kashmir."

A truer explanation would, however, seem to lie in the conservatism of the people here which, joined to a sense of the superiority of their own religion, be it Hinduism or Islam, prevents them from adopting anything new. No Kashmiri Pundit has so far changed his religion. The consideration which really lies at the bottom of the change of religion by the Dum and the Chuhra is in the beginning more of a wordly nature: they are raised perceptibly in their social status.

In spite, however, of this apathy on the part of the people, the number of Christians in the State has been growing steadily. Subsidiary

	Actual number in			
Province.	1891	1901	1911	
Jammu	46	145	672	
Kashmir	145	244	918	
Frontier	27	38	85	

Table III will show that the community increased 131 per cent during the last decade and 93.6 in the one preceding it. That the growth has been largest in Jammu will appear from the marginal abstract. This affects the local people themselves; elsewhere the change is generally due to variations among the immigrants. The decrease in Kashmir has been accentuated by the fact that

some Kashmiris who once professed to have become Christian reverted to their former faith.

Subsidiary Tables IV and V give a detail of sects and races of Christians. For further details Imperial tables XVII and XVIII should be referred to. The only fact worthy of note in this connexion is that two persons—an American lady who has become Bramho, and an Anglo-Indian male who has embraced Islam—are included in the racial figures while they are excluded from the sect statistics. The largest flock is possessed by the Presbyterian Church.

Religions of portion of religions in the urban population. Subsidiary Table VI gives a detail of all religions in respect to both rural population tion

Table VI gives a detail of all religions in respect to both rural and urban populations. The absence of the Jains and Parsis from the villages is, as has repeatedly been pointed

Religion		Number per 10,000 in			
		Urban population		Rural populati on	
Sikh Budbist Hindu Mohamedan Christlan	::	,	100 56 9,939 6,876 18	·	100 122 2,107 7,670

out, characteristic of those classes. The proportions of all other religions are presented in the abstract noted in the margin. In a country so essentially Mohamedan and agricultural as this State, the largest proportion in the rural population must necessarily be that of the Musalmans.

#### Part II.—Descriptive

139. In proceeding to describe some of the customs peculiar to local religious practice and belief, it may be stated that the treatment of the subject will be untechnical and without scientific pretence, and will be confined to the three religions which claim the largest number of adherents in the State, viz., Hinduism, Budhism and Mohamedanism. The only other numerically important religions, Sikhism and Arya-Samajism, having their cradle in the Punjab will, it is expected, be dealt with at length in the Census Report of that Province and will, therefore, not be touched upon in the present chapter except in the way of collateral reference wherever necessary.

140. The prevalent form of Hinduism in the State is the Sanatan or orthodox, but the range of polytheistic ideas characteristic of the popular Hinduism of this school is yet larger Hinduism in this country of ignorance and superstition; as even though the Hindus of the more accessible parts of Jammu Province and the literary community of the Brahmans of Kashmir possess more or less definable beliefs, derived from Vedic and Puranic sources, and acknowledge deities common to other parts of India, the residents of the remoter parts of Jammu and especially of the Kandi and hilly tracts have not only specific gods for each village (Granh devata) but every house has its own guardian god (Kula devata). These family gods, which are worshipped in the form of a stone image or iron chain set up in some secluded part of the house, are only deified ancestors. Women who have performed the sati are also installed as domestic goddesses (satiavatis) and worshipped in their families from generation to generation. It is thus impossible to enumerate or describe the local gods of the Hindu pantheon of this part of the country. There are, however, certain other important deities which are commonly believed in by the majority of the people, but even these differ according to locality. The Nág Devata (serpent god) and Káli Mái or Durga (the goddess of vengeance) are most popular in the Outer Hills, Sheoji, Sri Raghunathji, Sri Krishnji, Mahábirji, Bhairon Náth, Sri Rámji, Hanomán, have the largest measure of worship in the submontane and semimountainous tracts of Jammu, Jasrota, Riasi and Mirpur and Shárkadevi, Ganeshji, Gajádhar, Sheoji (Amarnath), Shárdhadevi in Kashmir. Of the local gods and goddesses may be mentioned Sidh Gauría of tehsil Samba, Sakrál devi, Mánsar devata and Mal devi (Bhagwati Mal) of Basohli, Tirkuta or Vishno devi of Riasi, Báwa Jeo Nath, Bawa Ranu, Bhagwati Kálka of Jammu, the devi of Sarthal in Kishtwar and Jwalá Mukhi and Khîr Bhawani of Kashmir. A great many of these local devatas were only great men of the past, a fact which shows the extent to which hero worship prevails in this country. Mandalik, who is so largely worshipped throughout Jammu Province, was a Raja of Kashmir, noted for his justice, meekness and mercy towards his subjects. Kali Bir, the wazir (minister) of this Raja, was on the other hand known for his strength of character and the people were very much afraid of him; but he is as greatly venerated as his virtuous chief. Bher devata was the eighty-fourth son of Raja Basik Nag of Ajodhia. He was allotted the Jammu territory by his father as a reward for his success in a competition at archery with his brothers. He is alleged to have arrived at Jammu in the reign of Raja Jasdeo. Goga was also a Chauhan Raja of great princely virtues. Bawa Jeo Nath was a Brahman who committed suicide because of the oppression and injustice to which he was subjected by his landlords. There is a temple dedicated to him in Kalianpur of tehsil Jammu. Sidh Gauria was a jogi, who was subjected to ridicule by certain village people of whom he asked some milk.

The worship of all these deities is of a propitiatory nature, especially that  $\,$ of the Nag and Kali to whom sacrifices of goats and sheep are made. The worship of Sidh Gauria is associated in particular with the loss of cattle or other property. The owner of the lost property goes to the top of his house and invokes the aid of the god for its restoration. If the strayed animal comes back or the thing missing is recovered, offerings are made to him and Brahmans are fed. The spirits of some of these minor devis and devatas are supposed to enter into certain men called devalas who are regarded, when possessed of such a spirit, to have oracular powers. Their services are requisitioned on occasions of importance when, to the beating of drums by jogis, they go through a performance of dancing, with many bodily contortions, until they fall into what is thought to be a state of ecstasy. When in this condition the people, especially women-folk, put questions to them and the answers are believed to be prophetic. Long-cherished desires are thus referred to these devalas and their fulfilment is sought for by a favourable pronouncement from their lips.

The daily worship consists of libations and offerings of flower, incense, sweets and food, but on aniversaries fairs are held at the temples and offerings in cash and kind are made by worshippers. On occasions of marriage, child-birth and other important domestic occurrences, the parties concerned pay homage (matha teki) to the household devata. The hill-men of Udhampur, Bhadarwah, Basohli, etc., organisedance parties and pass the night in singing and dancing before the devata. Persons of both sexes dance together promis-cuously to the beating of drums. The worship of Kohal devata is connected with the sowing of crops, and festivities are also observed at the time of harvest, when sweet pudding and cakes are offerred to gods and the new grain is distributed as alms among the Brahmans. In some localities a sacrifice of goat or sheep is also made and a feast given when the harvest is reaped. Yags and havans are performed on visitations of plague or famine. In Jammu district a he-buffalo is made to go round the village and then he is given away to Dakaunt—a low class Brahman—this is supposed to avert the evil. No trace is now found of human sacrifice nor, within the memory of living people, is it known to have existed.

The daily routine of prayer, such as the sandhia (evening prayer) and the gayetri pujah, is performed by every worshipper himself, but the priestly offices of the purchit are requisitioned on all the important occasions of life, such as the ceremonies of tonsure, wearing the sacred thread, marriage and funeral. The Brahman, as a priestly functionary, is particularly in request among the Rajputs, though his sacerdotal assistance is sought by other castes as well. In Kashmir the Brahman community is divided into two main divisions: the ecclesiastical, called Rachbats, and the temporal or secular class known as Karkuns. The former are engaged solely in religious work and the latter in the affairs of the world. The distinction is so marked that the two classes do not intermarry. The Karkuns themselves call on the Bachbats to perform the religious offices for them on

ceremonial occasions.

141. Apart from gatherings of minor importance at the various temples, three great Hindu fairs are held annually in the State which Fairs and attract large numbers of devotees and pilgrims not only from the Punjab but from all other parts of India:

(a) The pilgrimage to Amarnath\* in tehsil Anantnag of Kashmir is a protracted and arduous undertaking; nevertheless, so great is the reputation of this holy-place for sanctity, that immense numbers of people are drawn to it every year in the month of Sanwan; (b) the Tirath of Tirkuta or Vishno Devi in tehsil Riasi is resorted to by a large number of persons, and the pilgrimage lasts for over two months (Assuj to Maghar); (c) the asthan of Sheoji at Sudh Mahadeo† in Chaneni is also very largely visited and a big fair takes place there, at the Puranmashi of Sanwan.

Certain peculiarities are also noticeable in regard to the celebration of the principal festivals. The festivals, for instance, of Holi, Diwali and Dassehra that are celebrated with so much pomp and circumstance in other parts of India have not much importance except perhaps in Jammu City. At the latter place and its neighbourhood, however, the Holi is celebrated in right bacchanalian spirit. In Kashmir the festival is observed in a quieter style, as the Kashmiri Pundit despises the practice of throwing coloured water on people that is elsewhere so characteristic of this festival. In this cold country the festivals associated with the approach of spring and the advent of summer are occasions of much greater rejoicing. These are: (i) Lohri, on the last day of Poh, the severest month of the winter; it represents the climax of the cold season; and is observed by making bonfires and singing and dancing round them; (ii) Basant, which is the first

The belief about this place is that it is the original abode of Shiva and that Shiva is to be seen there on Puranmashi of Sanwan in the shape of a column of ice suspended in the air.

†This is also associated with Shiva. It was near this place, it is alleged, that Shiva was married

at Man talai to the daughter of Raja Hemanchal.

† The back of the winter is supposed to be broken on this date and the first ray of hope for the coming warm weather begins to gleam in the hearts of the home-sick people of the land.

dawn of the spring; (iii) Baisákhi, the new year's day of Jammu Province\*; it signifies the complete establishment of the summer.

142. Dr. Grierson suggested that at the present Census an attempt should be made to ascertain if it is true that all Hindus are divided only under two main heads, the Shaivas and Vaish-Shivaism and navas. The enquiry made shows that although such a differ-Vishnavaism entiation does really exist, the majority of the people are so ignorant as to be unaware of the distinction. The original differences between Shivites and Vishnavites, which are known to have caused much sectarian hatred and consequent bloodshed in the past, are well nigh obliterated; while the use of external marks by which an ordinary enumerator might distinguish the one sect from the other has practically ceased so far as the general laity in this State are concerned. Although it is recognised by people educated in matters of religion that the followers of Vishnava are essentially monotheists, the popular religion, whether of Shivites or of Vishnavites, is intensely polytheistic. Moreover, the tests proposed by Dr. Grierson are inapplicable, as the words "Ram Ram Satya Ram" are chanted at funerals by Shivites as well as by Vishnavites. Again, though a Vishnavi is forbidden to eat meat, the prohibition in practice is seldom respected. The doctrine of maya is also alleged not to be peculiar to Vishnavis, and as regards the existence of the soul after death, the common belief is that virtuous actions, or good karma, during lifetime have their reward in happy reincarnation, but when the cycle of regeneration is complete the individual human soul passes through successive states of being, as a separate entity, before it is merged in the Eternal Spirit. The real meaning of mukti is quite clear to the educated who know it to consist in emancipation of the soul from the cycle of rebirths, but the ignorant masses, indeed, believe that it is nothing more or less than a mere advantageous reincarnation.

The prevailing sect in this State, however, seems to be Shivism. The Kashmiri Pundits as a class are all Shivites and the worship generally accorded to Sudh Mahadeo of Chaneni would seem to indicate that the cult of Shivaism is professed also by the Hindus of Jammu. An inference such as this proceeds merely from the veneration in which Shiva is universally held by the people here and the extraordinary worship which is paid to him at his shrines at Chaneni and Amarnath. The reports of the District Officers on this point are, however, conflicting and do not help to solve the question. Some agree with the theory started by Dr. Grierson, while others disagree. Some, again, assert that the Hindus are divided into three main sects, Shaivas, Vaishnavas and Shaktiks; others allege the main divisions to be five, viz., the followers of Shwar, Shiva, Vishnava, Shakti and Ganpati. But this only shows how little the matter is understood here even by the educated amongst the Hindus. And as regards the people themselves, their disregard of these things may be judged from the fact that even some Musalman saints are worshipped by them, e. g., Panjpir and Pir Mittha!

143: Without attempting a detailed discussion of Arya Samajism, it Hinduism contrasted with arya Samajism difference between the two systems. These, according to the popular notion of either of them, are as follows:

### HINDUISM

### ARYA SAMAJISM

Adhesion to the term Hindu as being of great antiquity and meaning a native of Hind—India;

Rejection of the term Hindu as meaning literally a 'blackman,' and substitution of Arya which means a holy, religious and virtuous person;

The Kashmir Pundits give greater prominence to the observance of the Nauros (literally new year's day) festival, which is peculiar to them, and takes place about three weeks earlier. The Baisakhi is not peculiar to Jammu. It is a very important festival of the Hindus of the Punjab as well.

Belief in the Vedas as well as Purans, Upanishads and Manu-Acceptance of the Vedas alone, which are Sumirti, and in the doctrine that believed to be the production of four the Vedas are the revealed word Rishis: Agni, Vayu, Adit and Angra; of Bhagwan—the Almighty God; Ishwar (God) is both defined and undefined, with and without He is infinite and undefinable, incapable of body-sakar and nirakar; He is (3) pirth, indestructible and eternal; born in man, dies and is reincarnated (avatar); Idol-worship is in accordance with? The Vedas prohibit Idol-worship; the Vedas; Mukti (salvation) is obtained by bathing in the Ganges, giving It is gained only by knowledge (gyan) alms to Brahmans and by wor-(5) and contemplation (yog); ship of the images of gods; Merit by good actions can accrue only to the Observance of the shradh—1. e., doer and cannot be applied by the performing after-death ceremonies, whose benefit is supposed living for the benefit of the dead; parent and elders should, however, be to go to the departed soul; respected and served while living; Child-marriage is approved; girls Child-marriage is prohibited by the Vedas should be married before reachand Shastras; ing the age of puberty; Widow-remarriage is in complete accord-Widows are not to be remarried; ance with the Vedas; Sacrifice of goats, sheep and buf-The Vedas do not permit animal sacrifice; (9) faloes is performed; Verna-social status-is a birth-The status of man depends only on his right, and a Hindu is born a actions, and one can be re-admitted Hindu; hence no conversion or and initiated into the fold by means of reclamation is possible; Prakschit\*; Femalest and Sudras (lower classes) Knowledge recognises no distinction of ought not to be educated; sex or caste; Interdining outside the limits of Religion has nothing to do with eating caste and religion excommuniand drinking. cates and spoils the dharma;

Budhism Lhassa in Tibet, where it is alleged to have been first introduced by Guru Sambua. The more enlightened among the Budhists may entertain some knowledge of the philosophy and history of their religion, but the ignorant masses are content to submit to the teachings of the Lamas. In fact, the Budhism of Laddakh, as of Tibet, has rightly been termed Lamaism, for it has degenerated into something little better than a worship of the Lamas. The influence of the Lamas pervades every phase of the Laddakhi's life. He officiates at birth and death, in sickness and health, at sowing and harvesting, at marriage and divorce, performs the tenth and last day pujah of every month and attends all other periodical prayers. These Lamas are congregated in monasteries (Ghonpas) of which there are seven independent ones in Laddakh§. These monasteries are not only

Some sections of Hindus also believe in the efficacy of Prakschit.

§ Ghawan, Rizong, Thiksa Likir, Masho, Pituk and Homis. The last two are very important and are well founded. The present head of Pituk is Kushak Bakula and that of Homis Taghsang Raspa.

<sup>†</sup> The educated among the Sanatans, too, have now begun to appreciate the value of female education.

‡ The major portion of the State is essentially a priest-ridden country, and this is evidently because the people are so uneducated, and cannot think anything out for themselves. The Pirs of Kashmir, the Mullahs of Gilgit and Baltistan and the Lamas of Laddakh all wield equally immense power over their flocks. Their word is the word of God to them, and it is the ignorance of the people, again, which makes them so intensely steadfast and strong in such boliefs as they have. Whatever instruction they receive from their respective religious guides becomes part and parcel of their existence and there is nothing worldly which can shake them. The Purchit of Jammu, no doubt, plays an equally important part in the religious life of the higher castes in Sub-montane and Semi-mountanious Tract, but the hillman of the Outer Hills does not seem to lend himself so much to the trammels of priesthood and acts according to his own religious instinct.

places of abode for the Lamas (monks) and Chhumos (nuns)\* but are the chief repositories of all the wealth of the nation, spiritual as well as temporal. They contain a library of all the religious books, instruments of worship, images of gods (Budha, and his distinguished successors), silk apparels and other paraphernalia connected with the well-known devil dance, which last is but a religious and devotional performance. The sources of income, besides the usual offerings by which these institutions are maintained, are the produce of muafi lands, the grain collected by the Lamas at harvest time, the dairy produce, cattle-breeding, trade and bankingt. The Ghonpas are managed by a well organised hierarchy of priests, the two main executive officers being the Chhaghzot (in charge of the temporal affairs) and the Lobún (in charge of spiritual affairs), the Kushak exercising control over all. The Lamas are devoted to religious pursuits. They lead a life of celibacy and are supposed to spend it in devotion, self abnegation and sacrifice. They study the sacred writings in order to inculcate their teachings among the people whom they are expected to lead to a state of spiritual perfection both by precept and example. Prayers are offered up thrice every day in the Ghonpa, besides which there are periodical pujahs and other celebrations. After each service tea and sattu are distributed by way of refreshments. The educated view of the religion, however, resembles very much the doctrine of Trinity: The Budhist believes in Kanjuk Sum (three Gods) who are separate and yet combined, the elements being (a) Kanjuk (the Almighty God), (b) Sangias i. e. Sakiamuni (Gautam Budha) and (c) Kushak (the existing head Lama); All men, according to Budhism, are equal in the sight of God, and it is only the acts of each individual which determine his ultimate state for good or for evil§. The Budhists believe in the doctrine of transmigration of the soul, and the spirit of Kushak is supposed to pass directly from the outgoing to the incoming chief of the Lamas. There are ten commandments in Budhism which were enunciated by Budha, and they have to be observed by every follower. They consist of rules of morality, e. y., don't steal, don't lie, don't drink, shun adultery, and so forth. The Budhists practice idolatry, the highest deified saint being the Budha. Next comes Guru Padma Sambua, then Goachong. The number of devis and devatas is legion. Apotheosised Lamas, heroes and distinguished ancestors are also worshipped. Reverence is paid to the forces of Nature as well. Fire worship is also recognised to a certain extent. The Bodh is also a believer in the influence of the stars over the affairs of man and as such follows the dictates of Astrology.

There are two main divisions in Budhism that are recognised here: (a) the sect of red-robed Lamas and (b) that of the yellow-robed Lamas. The difference is only in minor details. It is the former class that are the more numerous. Hemis Ghonpa represents the red-robed school and Pituk that of the yellow robe. The yellow-robed school is a later development, and, as has been the case in every other religion, is a schism from the old, antiquated and degenerated form. Unlike the red-robed school, the Kushak of this class of the Lamas is not dependent for his inspiration and instruction upon the Grand Lama of Lhassa.

Among the social practices of the Laddakh Budhists may be mentioned polyandry, divorce, widow-marriage, inheritance by primogeniture, adoption, feasts and fairs at harvest and cremation of the dead. Polo is the national game of the Laddalth and Gilgit people, and the word itself seems to be derived from the Tibetan language; the local word for the ball is puto and that for the stick tucco.

The residential quarters of the two sexes are kept far apart from each other.

<sup>†</sup> The cultivators of Laddakh are heavily indebted to the Ghonpas from which they borrow seed and cash in times of need. The rate of interest charged is very high, being stated to be 25 per cent. Thus the people are entirely in the hands of the priestly class, both as regards their spiritual and secular affairs.

<sup>‡</sup> This to the Tibetans is the Grand Lama of Lhassa.

<sup>§</sup> Hence it is that no caste system exists among the Budhists, nor do they recognise pollution by touch. They interdine with every other religionist. The Laddakhi Budh, for instance, eats freely with the Musal-

145. Like the generality of Mohamedans, those of this State believe in the unity of God, Mohamed being his messenger and last Prophet,\* the four scriptures the final being the Islam Quran, the existence of angels, Predestination; and Re-They also hold as absolutely necessary the performance of the surrection. four cardinal duties, viz., the Salat (daily prayers,) the Saum (fasting in the month of Ramazan), the Haj (pilgrimage to Mecca) and the Zakat (giving a certain proportion of one's income to be spent on religious and charitable purposes). The two main divisions, Sunnism and Shiaism, are practically identical, the latter being a schism based more on political than religious grounds and differing chiefly on Khilafat and Imamat . Any further detail either of Mohamedanism itself, or of its two main divisions, is not contemplated here and only the local peculiarities have to be referred to.

The extent to which all the sections of the population of the State are priest-ridden, has already been pointed out (vide footnote page 100); and the Musalmans are no exception to that rule. The Sunni is as devoted to his Pir as the Shia to his Mullah. Saint worship is more prevalent here among the Sunnis than is the case in the Punjab or elsewhere; and as to Kashmir, there it is carried to extremes. The Grand Pir Sayed Abdul Qadir Jilani appears to be the National Saint of the Kashmiri Musalman; every refrain "ya pir dast gir" (Oh Pir help us)¶ uttered at each stroke of the paddle. There are numerous other saints hald in the visitor to the Valley must be quite familiar with the Kashmiri boatman's There are numerous other saints, held in varying degrees of veneration, whose shrines are visited and offerings made there. In Jammu Pir Mittha and the Punipirs command the greatest adoration. The more important tombs in Kashmir are the Astanas of Makhdum Saheb, Shah Hamadan, Khwaja Naqshband in Srinagar, Khwaja Nurdin in Cherar\$ and Baba Shukurdin in Bandipura. Large fairs are held at all these centres, which are attended with great enthusiasm. The Juma masjids are also scenes of great religious activity and the Kashmiris muster strong every Friday in the Juma mosques of Srinagar\*\* and Hazratbal. The latter is believed to contain a very sacred relic, viz., a hair from the Prophet's beard. This is exhibited once in the year on the 12th of Rabiulanwal, the date of the Prophet's birth as well as death (Bara-wafat), and the largest Mohamedan fair of the Valley takes place on that occasion, the gathering being estimated at over 50,000. Hazratbal is on the shores of the Dal Lake, near the Nasim Bagh. At festival time people from the city and the villages proceed there on foot and by water, the holiday-making being sometimes kept up for two or three days. Shikaras, Khachus, Dungas, Chakwaris, houseboats and vessels of every available description are seen plying on the expansive sheet of water, carrying their joyous burdens of merry-makers in gala attire. Tea and refreshments are served in the boats; those musically inclined play on guitars and drums to the accompaniment of singing, and the night is spent in this fashion, the illuminated boats presenting a spectacle of rare beauty and brilliance++.

<sup>•</sup> The series of Prophets believed in by the Musalmans is a long one, but the four held in greatest

reverence are David, Moses, Jesus Christ and Mohamed.

† The other three are Tauret, Zabûr (The Old Testament) and Injil (The New Testament).

‡ The Motazalas, Qadrias and Shias differ on this point with Sunnis.

§ The Sunnis believe that there were four spiritual successors to the Prophet: Abu Bakr, Omar, Osman and Ali, while the Shias consider Ali to be the legitimate successor and treat the rest as mere

Osman and Ali, while the Shias consider Ali to be the legithmate successor and store.

If The Imams are the religious leaders that came after the Ashabs (the companions of the Prophet) mentioned in the last footnote. The Shias and Sunnis differ in the nature of the conception they have of these personages, as also in the number recognized. The Shias hold that the Imams were musdm and were as such physically incapable of committing sin, the Sunnis believe that they were mahfus, that is to say they were in fact free from all sin, but there was nothing in them as men which made sin impossible on their part. The Shias believe in twelve Imams and the Sunnis in four.

If Pir dastgir is also an epishet of this great saint.

It is because of the existence of this tomb that this town is reverentially called Cherar sharif.

The great Juma mosque in Srinagar, which is supposed to have once formed a Budhist pagoda, is a historic building, and an archeological effort is being made to restore it to its pristine magnificence by effecting repairs on a large scale.

This Mela of Kashmir closely resembles the Burhwa Mangal of Benares, a river fets held on the Gangea by the Hindus of that locality and the neighbourhood.

The bigotry which is the peculiarity of the Kashmiri Shia is tersely chronicled in the Persian saying Sunni-i-Balkh-o-Shia-i-Kashmir\*. Tradition has it that the ill-feeling between the two communities gave rise, in the past, to offencest of all degrees of criminality. The hatred of the Shias is illustrated by the fact that they do not admit Sunnis into their villages and the latter seem to have retaliated by grudging Shias the use of the term Musalman and retaining it themselves. This, however, is not the case in Baltistan, which is essentially a Shia country. The Balti is a great believer in charms, and every inhabitant of Kargil and Skardu tehsils may be seen wearing amulets on head, neck, arms, or round the waist. These charms are obtained from the Mullahs and are supposed to protect their wearers from the evils and risks attendant on life in a naturally dangerous country.

The Mohamedan population in every part of the State consists 146. chiefly of local converts. People of all castes and orders, Constitution Brahmans, Rajputs, Vaishyas and Sudras passed into the of the Mofold of Islam. Imperial Table XIII will show that all hamedan podegrees of Hindu caste are represented in the ranks of pulation in the State the Musalmans here. In Jammu Jats, Rajputs (Chibhs, Bhaus, Jarals, Manihas, etc.) and Brahmans (Chhibbars) form an important Mohamedan community, and in Kashmir the Musalman Brahmans—Bats, Dars, Rainas, etc.—form the bulk of the population. The Wania is merely the Kashmiri form of Bania, and the serving classes (comprising barbers, washermen, carpenters, blacksmiths, boatmen, oil-pressers, scavengers, etc). though now all Mohamedans—are the remnants of the Sudras of the Hindu period. The inhabitants of the Frontier, formerly Budhists, became Musalmans in a wholesale fashion and the largest proportion of the Mohamedan population consists of the local Mongolian race. There is, nevertheless, everywhere a small sprinkling of foreigners, both from the Mohomedan Asiatic countries such as Persia, Afghanistan, Turkistan, as well as from the Indian Provinces, especially the Punjab. The Mughals, the Afghans, and some sections of the Shaikhs and Sayeds represent this foreign elements. In certain parts, also, internal movement of a permanent nature contributes to explain the differentiation between the local people and outsiders. Just as we find in Laddakh traces of domiciles from Yarkand, Kashgharia, and Teheran, there is the Kashmiri community at Leh, the Balti settlement at Chachot, and the Gilgit Dards (Brukpas) in Dras and Kargil. Kashmiris have passed over to Jammu in considerable numbers in the past and are found, settled largely in Kund, Nandimarg, Ramban, Kishtwar, Bhadarwah, Punch and Jammu.

147. Such being the constitution of the Mohamedan population of the State, it is not at all surprising that the customs and prac-Old practices tices of their former religions should survive among the and Customs Musalmans here, though they vary in degrees of intensity according to the length that the people have been under the influence of Islam and the proportion that the Mahomedan community bears to others in the various parts of the State. The absorbing tendency of numbers is fully illustrated when we find that in Dugar the Musalmans, especially of the Rajput class, retain not only the old caste names || but also most of the Hindu customs and practices. Their ears are pierced and they wear gold earrings of exactly the same pattern as their Hindu countrymen; they put on the same dress; observe the endogamous, exogamous and hypergamous rules

t Caste names are retained by the Kashmiri Musalmans as well, though in certain cases they have

varied in form.

The Sumi of Bactria and the Shia of Kashmir are said to be the most bigoted. † It is alleged that murders were committed to gratify religious hate. All this has, however, become impossible in these days of law and order.

In Kashmir, thus, the word Musalman is used synonymously with Sunni. In fact the latter term is never used and the two sects are known as Musalmans and Shias.

<sup>§</sup> A tendency has been observed on the part of some Rajput Musalmans of Mirpur district to assume these foreign class names, and Shaikh and Sayed is the epithet very often adopted elsewhere to signify a foreign origin. This desire for an artificial ancestry is, however, certainly not so pronounced in any part of this State, as it is in British India.

**'**:

in regard to matrimony; favour child marriage and deprecate widow remarriage; pay homage and make offerings to devis and devatas\* and even plaster the floors of their houses with cowdung. Certain sections of Rajputs Musalmans are stated to retain the Hindu rituals of marriage and death; the family purchit is paid his customary dues and the Hindu and the Islamic practices connected with marriage are carried outside by side. In Laddakh country proper the Budhist customs have a strong hold; the local Musalmans there freely drink chhang, the national beverage of the Bodh, which is a crude form of country beer. They take part in the Budhistic fairs and festivals, especially those celebrated at harvest time. Everywhere else, and especially in Kashmir, the Mohamedan influence predominates and scarcely any vestige of the old customs and manners is visible. The Kashmir priestly class exercise strong control over their flock and the Kashmiri Musalman is a good specimen of staunch adherence to Mohamedan faith. Wherever the Mohamedan element preponderates, the tendency on the part of isolated Hindu families is to adapt themselves to the ways of the Musalman majority and the theory of pollution by touch has the smallest recognition. It may, however, be interesting to note that Kashmir Mohamedans retain some belief in Astrology and in the Astore tehsil, in Gilgit, the worship of the Ratho devata of Budhism is still performed. The ceremony is connected with family trouble or affliction, and the mullah conducts the customary service over a sheep or a goat, which is offered to the god. The animal is, however, killed in the Mohamedan style (zabiha.)

To remedy this state of affairs Islamia Anjumans and schools have been formed in Jammu, Mirpur, Punch, Baramula, Srinagar and other important places and something is being done to impart religious as well as secular instruction; but the efforts, so far, are too feeble and restricted to have any marked effect. A still greater influence is wielded by the village mullah and the pirs, and were their activities guided by method and efficiency, their operations would go far to ameliorate matters both from a religious and secular point of view. Pending this improvement, however, the Mohamedan masses of the State, no less than their Hindu brethren, must continue to grope in

the dark for real moral and spiritual progress.

148. The number of Mohamedan sects is a large one, but those peculiar to this country need alone be referred to. They all, however, fall under one or the other of the two main heads (Shias and Sunnis) in proportion to the affinity borne by each of them to the central idea underlying the two divisions:

(a) Wahabis, Mowahhids (Unitarians) Ghair-muqallids (Nonconformists) or Ahl-i-hadis are found in fairly large proportion in the Shyok Valley of district Laddakh and are scattered all over the Jammu province in small numbers. They represent an advanced school of Mohamedan thought and in confining themselves to the text of the Quran and Hadis (Tradition) and relying upon individual judgment for their interpretation resemble very much the Aryas. The Wahabis disown the doctrine of Hayat-i-nabi (the Prophet being still alive and in touch with his followers) and they believe that there can be no communion between the living and the dead, who cannot consequently benefit each other. Here again is a striking resemblance between the tenets of this sect and Aryaism. This school of religious thought owes its name to Abdul Wahab Nedjedi, but the Ahl-i-hadis of Jammu disparage the idea of following any leader in matters of religion to a degree that they take offence at being called Wahabi.

Ahmadis, Mirzais or Qadianis are the followers of Mirza Ghulam Ahmad of Qadian in the Punjab. This religious leader claimed to be the last Imam, vis., the Mehdi whom the Musalmans expect to appear on the approach of the last day of Judgment, as also the Christ, to whose return to this world Christians look forward. He asserted that Christ did not ascend to Heaven as is believed by Christians and Mohamedans, but after three days' crucifixion, was removed by one of His apostles who, taking Him to his house, applied the Marham-i-Isa (Christ's Ointment) that cured all His wounds. According to the Mirza, Christ then fled

<sup>°</sup>C.f. last sentence of § 142, page 99.

away stealthily and finding his way into Tibet\*, there propagated His religion. Thence He travelled to Kashmir where He died a natural death. The Ahmadis do not, thus, believe Christ to be still living. Early in the decade under review a deputation of the Ahmadis went to Kashmir and there identified a grave in mohalla Khanayar of Srinagar as the tomb of Christ. The Kashmiris, however, state that it is the tomb of an Israelite prince named Yuzasf (Joseph). Though Mirza Ghulam Ahmad is now dead, his following subsists. This form of belief does not appear to have made any real headway among the natives of this State, except perhaps in the conversion of a few individuals in Punch. Scattered instances of its followers are, however, reported from Mirpur and Jammu, but they are principally men from the Punjab. The Ahmadis do not say their prayers in the company of any other class of Musalmans. An attempt has this year been made to construct a sectarian mosque for this class at Jammu. (c) Nurbakhshis are peculiar to Laddakh. The sect is named after Syed Nurbakhsh Khorasani, who was only a disciple of Syed Ali Hamdani, the Kashmir saint. He and his son Shah Qasim Faiz Bakhsh have been instrumental in the extensive propagation of Islam in the country beyond the Zojila. In the sense of the followers of Syed Nurbakhsh, the whole of Baltistan once used to be Nurbakshi; but the term has a special significance now. Shams-ud-din Iraqi is known to have done a great deal in promulgating the Shia doctrines in Kashmir, and he appears to have turned his thoughts to Baltistan after having spent his efforts at the former place. He found the Musalmans of Kargil and Skardu as impervious to his doctrines, and contrived a compromise between Sunnism and Shiaism, which is represented in the beliefs and practices of the present day Nurbakhshis. In due course of time and with additional influences, religious as well as political, gained subsequently from Persia, most of these people became positively Shiast, until the Nurbakhshis are now confined

beliefs and practices conform so much to Sunnism, and are so different on material points from Shiaism. The Nurbakhshi, for example, does not believe in the *Muta* form of marriage, says his prayers in congregation (ba jamaat) and says them five times with his hands raised to the breast, bathes and performs ablution in Sunni style, believes in the *Khilafat* of the first three Caliphs of the Prophet, as well as of Ali, and performs obsequial ceremonies like the Sunnis.

to Chorbat, Khapalu, Kiris, and Parkuta ilaqas and to a few villages in Kargil tehsil, and even there are found only sparingly. They represent, thus, the stage of transition between Sunnism and Shiaism. Their number is dwindling daily and those that have failed to pass over to Shiaism are now becoming Ahl-i-hadis, under an influence exercised by the followers of the latter sect from the Punjab and elsewhere. The doctrines of Wahabism are being readily accepted by the Nurbakhshis, because their

(d) Maulais are the followers of H. H. Sir Agha Khan and are confined to the Frontier Ilagas of Gilgit. Their total has been compiled separately at the present Census. Not much reliable detail could be obtained of the tenets of this faith, but they seem to be allied more to Shiaism than to anything else. The sect is alleged to be no other than the Ismailia, which originates from Hazrat Ismail, the son of Hazrat Imam Jaafar Sadiq. The followers have all along been regarding the existing successor of Ismail as their religious leader, irrespective of the personal qualifications of the man in office. The local Maulais consider praying and fasting to be unshirkable religious duties, but the idea being that the devotion in their performance ought to be of so intense a nature that one should lose all consciousness and be, as it were, divested all the five senses, and this state being practically unattainable, the Maulais here neither say their prayers nor keep the fast. They partake freely of liquor, even though this is not permitted by their religion. An all-round laxity as to religious performances is observable among these people, and is explained by the fact that they hold their salvation lies merely in the carrying out of the orders of the ruling Imam, a visit to whose person is considered a substitute for pilgrimage either to Mecca or Karbala. There are local representatives of Sir Agha Khan, whose office is as hereditary as his own. They recover Ushur (tithe) on his behalf. The Maulais are characterised by a keen sense of fellow-feeling.

The resemblance of the god-head of the Tibetan Budhism (kanjuk sum) as also the ten religious duties with the Christian Trinity and Ten Commandments may have lent a support to this view.

† Vide 136 supra, concluding remarks.

They are included in the Sunni totals which for Laddakh district as a whole amount to 43,574. It is 24,910 Vide § 136 ants.

(e) Nagshbandi is the latest development of sectarianism, a tendency that seems so pronounced among the Musalmans of the Punjab. It originates from Syed Jamaat Ali Shah of Alipur, who is still living. He has a large following in the Punjab as also in the submontane plains of this State. His school is chiefly a vindication of the doctrine of Hayat-i-nabi and as such is in direct opposition to Wahabism. These people show a much greater reverence for the Prophet, and deprecate his being treated as a man. Recently the preaching by some of the followers of these doctrines at Jammu caused much heart-burning among the Ahl-i-hadis of that locality. The local authorities were compelled to adopt measures for the preservation of the peace, which was reported to be in danger.

Among the recent schisms, reference may also be made to the split between the followers of the two chief Pîrs at Srinagar: (i) Those called Shah Hamadani hold that Moammar-i-Habashi, having seen the Prophet in a dream, must be treated as one of his companions (sahabis), and that it is permissible to repeat the prayer "Ya Shaikh Abdul Qadir Jilani Shai-un-lillah" (Oh! Shaikh Abdul Qadir Jilani, give me something, for God's sake); while (ii) the followers of Mir Waiz deprecate these beliefs. The difference amounts merely to the propriety or otherwise of saint worship, but it was so acute in 1910 that, but for precautionary

measures, the parties would have come to blows.

Various allegations are made as to the introduction and spread of 149. Mohamedanism in this country. Some say that coercion and Causes of conpolitical influence was the cause, and the instance of the version—past Kashmir King Sikandar, the iconoclast, is cited, but there and present were bigoted rulers as well as liberal and tolerant rulers. A notable example of the latter was Sultan Zain-ul-Abedin, whose name is a byword in the Valley to the present day for tolerance, impartiality, kindness and equal treatment of his subjects, without distinction of caste or creed. Others ascribe it to the spiritual influence of the Mohamedan priests and missionaries; others, again, to worldly temptations of wealth, jagirs or intermarriage. Taken individually, none of these causes could have brought about the wholesale conversion that is characteristic of the Chibhal ilaqa, Kashmir Province, Gilgit district and Skardu and Kargil tehsils. It is all these forces combined, and joined to the historical events of the Mohamedan invasions, political as well as commercial, from the North, that account for the conversion of the major portion of the State into a Mohamedan country. Scarcely any conversions take place at the present day, except by means of the exercise of free judgment and conviction of the truth of Islamic principles and virtues, or as a result of relations between the sexes of the members of the two different religions.

150. At the end of this chapter, it may be interesting to note some external characteristics of the followers of the various religions and sects that are observable here. The Hindus External appearances of wear the chotia (the scalp-lock), the Sikh long hair, coverthe various ing the head, the Bodh the Chinese pig-tail\* and the Balti communities Shia the kullain or zulf (shaving the head in the centre from the forehead across the crown and down to the nape of the neck). The Musalmans generally wear a beard and clip the moustache, so as to keep the lips clean. The style of dress varies with the locality, and is governed more by climatic conditions than religious persuasions. The pheran of the Kashmiri Pundit will, nevertheless, be found to be of a somewhat different cut from that of the Kashmiri Musalman, and the manner of tying the turban is a distinctive feature of the former as well as of the Kashmiri Shia. The head-gear of the Bodh is also peculiar to him. It consists of a woollen, flat-topped kantop with its lower ends folded up and as such looking like a felt hat. The Kashmir Punditani is distinguished by the girdle she ties round the waist, over her cloak. The Sunnis and Moulais say their prayers with their hands folded over the navel, the Nurbakhshis with hands raised to the chest, while the Shias allow their hands to hang beside the body. The priests of the Shias, especially in Kashmir, wear a green or black turban and cloak, while those of the Sunnis, who are not partial to colours, appear in white.

The Lamas are an exception; their head is clean shaven.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE I-General distribution of the population by religion

SUBSIDIARI TABLE 1	CINCI WI UI				L F	- 0	.Danae
		PROF	ORTION	PER		ION PER	PERCENT-
	Actual		0,000 o			crease+	NET VARI-
Religion and Locality	Number		PULATIO		DECRE	A6E)	ATION
	in 1911	<del></del>	ı		1901—	1891—	1891-
	1	1911	1901	1891	1911	1901	1911
1	2	<del>-3</del>	4	5	6	7	8
	<del>{</del>			<u>'                                     </u>	1	1	i i
	MUS.	ALMA	N				
Entire State	2,398,320	7,594	7,416	7,051	+11.3	+20.2	+33.7
I The Submontane and Semi-moun-	328,612	1 '			•••	<b>,,.</b>	
tninous Tract	· -				1		***
II.—The Outer Hills	624,681 958,295	6,535 5,966	5,762	5,540	+8.7	+0.0	+19.2
Jammu Province II.—The Judium Valley (Kashmir Prov.)	1.217 768	9.402		9,305	+12.4	+22.7	+37.9
V.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	227,259			7,283	+16.9	+71.7	+100.8
(1. THOTHGO I GIVE) (2 TOBRICE PROTECTION	•	INDU	, 0,0	' ' '	<u> </u>	ĺ	[ ]
	I						_
Entire State	690,390	2,186	2,372	2,720	+'2	一	· —·2
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun-	306,422	4,773	•••			***	
tainous Tract 5 II.—The Outer Hills	200.015	3,348				'	1
Jammu Province	620,439	3,921	4.118	4,385	+:04	·8	—·7
II.—The Jucium Valley (Kashmir Prov.)		482	524	636	+2.8	+.6	+3,6
V The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)				17	-26.9	+870.6	+493.4
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1	DHIST		]		ء ا	1
<b>.</b>					م. ر	1.40.4	1
Entire State	36,512	116	121	116	+4.2	+18.4	+23.3
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun-	***		•••	•••	•••	•••	•••
II - The Outer Little	452	5		<b></b> .	İ		1
Jammu Province	452	3	32	30	_80.8	+10.8	-89'4
II.—The dhelum Valley (Kashmir Prov.)					+100.0	,	+100.0
V.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)		1,360	1,332	1,629	+19.3	+19.4	+43.2
	8	IKH		1	1		-
Tulina Chala	1			45			
Entire State I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun-	31,553	100	89	45	+22.2	+126.6	+176.8
tainous Tract	5,942	93	`	<b></b>	•••	•••'	
II.—The Outer Hills	10,717	112	'	l			l
Jammu Province	16,059	104	86	41	+27.0	+121.3	+181.1
II.—The Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Prov.)	14,772	114	109	58	+16.8	+130.9	+169.9
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	122	J 5	3	•••	+56.4	+100	+100
	CHR	ISTIA	N	I	1		
Entire State	975			١ .	1 404.0	1.00.0	104840
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun-	1	1	1	1	+131.0	+93.6	+347.2
tainous Tract	643	10	***	,	***		,,,,
II.—The Outer Hills	. 29	,		***			
Jammu Province	672	4	1	•••	+366.2	+215.2	+1,360'8
II.—The Jhohim Valley (Kashmir Prov.	218	2	2	1	<b>—10</b> 6	+68.2	+50.3
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	85	8	. 1	2	+157.5	+22.2	+214.8
	] ,	JAIN					
Entire State	345	;   1		. 2	. 01.0	05.5	44.0
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun-	I '	1	1	2	<b>—21</b> ·9	<b>25</b> ·5	<del>-4</del> 1·8
tainous Tract	342	5	•••	•••	•••	***	***
II.—The Outer Hills	3	]				•••	
Jammu Province	345	2	3	4	-21'4	-26.4	-41'8
II.—The Judum Valley (Kashmir Prov.)	···		•••	,	100	+100	
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)			ا	,	<b>∸</b> 100	+100	\
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	ZOROA	STRL	AN				·
Entire State	31				上191·0	1 00.0	1044.2
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun-		***	*33	***	+181′8	+22.2	+244.5
tainous Tract (	5	***	47.		•••	***	***
II.—The Outer Hills	, ,		ļ <b>,</b> .			<b>*</b>	
		l			+100	-100	+400
Jammu Province	5	ı '''				+37.5	+225
II The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov.	5 26		•••	•••	+136:3	1010	
H.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov.) IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	26			#** #**	+136-3		***
H.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov.) IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)	26		•••	ľ	l * '		
II.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov.) IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)  Entire State	26 , OT	HERS		<b>310</b>	•••	•••	***
II.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov. IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)  Entire State I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun-	26		•••	ľ	l * '		
II.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov.) IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)  Entire State I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun- tainous Tract	26 , OT	HERS		<b>310</b>	•••	•••	***
II.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov. IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)  Entire State I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract II.—The Outer Hills	26 OT	HERS	911	65	-100 	99·6	 —100
II.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov. IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)  Entire State I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountaineus Tract II.—The Outer Hills  Januar Province	26 , OT	HERS	, ,	65	 —100	99 <sup>-</sup> 6	 —100
II.—The Jholum Valley (Kashmir Prov. IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Districts)  Entire State I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract II.—The Outer Hills	26 , OT	HERS	••• ••• •••	65	100 	99·6 	100 

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE II—Distribution by districts of the main religions

			NUMB	ER PER	10,000	OF THE	POPUL	ATION W	EO ARI			
District and Natural Division		Hindu		<u> </u>	lusalma	ın		Budhis	t		Sikt	<u> </u>
1	1911	1901	1891	1911	1901	1891	1911	1901	1891	1911	1901	1891
. 1	2	8	4	6	8	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
ENTIRE STATE	2,186	2,372	2,720	7,594	7,416	7,051	116	121	116	100	89	45
I.—The Submontane and } Semi-mountainous Tract }	4,773		•••	5,119		•••	•••	•••	***	93		
Jammu District	6,002			8,877	}				•••	97	١	
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and ) Kathua tehsils only)	7,032	<b> </b>		2,928					•••	12		
Mirpur District (Bhimber and) Mirpur tehsils only)	2,162		· •••	7,720		***			•••	117		
II.—The Outer Hills	3,348	***	***	6,535	***	•••	5	•••	***	112		
Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil )	8,489			1,509	***	***	2		***	1	<b> </b>	
Mirpur District (Kotli tehsil only)	824	1		9,125					***	49	1	۱
Udhampur,	6,062			8,912	4**		20		***	6		ļ
Riasi ,,			***	6,065				***	***	24	]	,
Bhadarwali Jagir		***	4+4	8,887		***	•••	•••	***			
Punch Raga	658		***	9,051	1 - ::: .	***	***		•••	288		
Total of Jagirs	1,209	1,253		8,526	6,743			1		259	233	1 :::
Jammu Province	3,921	4,116	4,385	5,966	5,762	5,540	3	32	30	104	88	41
III.—The Jhelum Valley } (Kashmir Province)	482	524	636	9,402	9,364	9,305		***	***	114	109	58
Kashmir North	237			9,684			]			99	<b> </b>	١
, South				9,209					•••	40		
Kashmir Valley	525	571		9,408	9,364	•••		***	<b>**</b> *	65	61	]
Muzaffarabad District	041	248	***	9,869	9,858	***		474	•••	390	893	•
IV.—The Indus Valley } (Frontier Districts).	58	98	17	8,574	8,566	7,283	1,360	1,332	1,629	5	3	
Laddakh District	23		***	8,040		***	1,932		***	2		[
Gilgit	046		***	9,628	444	•••	·		***	24		
Frontier Ilagas	54	i	***	9.941	١			. ,,,,,	***	4	]	

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE III-Christians. Number and variations

District A No. of District		AL NUMBE RISTIANS		VAR	ATION PER	CENT
District and Natural Division	1911	1901	1891	1901—1911	1891—1901	1891—1911
1	2	8	4	5	6	7
ENTIRE STATE	975	422	218	+131	+93.6	+347.2
I.—The Submontane and Semi- mountainous Tract	643	***		***	•••	•••
Jammu District	463	•••		110		111
Jasrota , (Jasmirgarh and Kathua) tebsils only)	170	***	31#		417	4+1
Mirpur District (Bhimber and Mirpur tehsils only)	10	***	717		ę++ <b>1</b>	
II.—The Outer Hills	29	***	***	***	•••	444
Jasrota District (Baschli tehsil only)		***	***	•••	. ***	444
Mirpur , (Kotli tehsil only) Udhampur ,,		***	***	111		
Riasi	"I		:::			•••
Bhadarwah Jagir	٠. ا	***		•••	}	***
Punch Raga	28	8		+250	ا بتنويم	1 1 000.0
Jammu Province	672	145-	48	+366.2	+215.5	+ 1,360.8
III.—The Jhelum Valley (Kashmir) Province)	218	244	145	<b>—10.6</b> 5	+68.2	+50.3
Kashmir North	39	,,,,				111
, South	162	***	'		ļ	***
Kashmir Valley	201	235		- 14·4 + 88·8	} ···	411
Muzaffarabad District	17	9	•••	+ 666	""	"
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier Dis-) tricts)	85	. 33	27	+157.5	+ 22.2	+214.8
Laddakh District	63	5:	25	+ 1,160	- 80	+ 152
Gilgit	21	28	2	25	+1,800	+ 950
Frontier Ilagas	1	1+1				***

## SUBSDIARY TABLE IV—Races and sects of Christians (actual numbers)

		RUROPBAN		Anglo- Indian		NATIVE		TOTAB		10+
Bect		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male .	Female	1911	1901	Variation+
1		2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
All Sects	***	134	116	8	7	475	234	975	422	+553
Anglican Communion  Baptist  Congregationalist  Lutheran (Moravian Mission)  Minor Protestant denominations  Presbyterian  Protestant (unsectarian or sect not specifed)  Booman Catholic  Boot not returned  Indefinite boliefs		87 1 3 3  15 2 16 6	84 5 8 9 2 8	4     4	2 2   1  2	10  29 6 401 1 15 13	7  1 22 2 192  8	194 8 9 62 8 617 6 51 24	236  41  33 112	+3 +9 +62 +8 +576 +6 +18 -88 +1

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE V—Distribution of Christians per mille (a) races by sect and (b) sects by race

				BACES	DISTRI	BUTED I	BY SECT	Secre	SECTS DISTRIBUTED BY RACE			
SECT				European	Anglo-Indian	Native	Total	European	Anglo-Indian	Native	Total	
•	1			2	8	4	18	6	7	8	8	
Lutheran (Moravian Mi Minor Protestant denoi Presbyterian Protestant (unsectarian Boman Catholic Sect not returned	ninetions		***	684 4 32 44  96 16 96 24 4	875 125  63 250 187	24  1 72 11 836 2 83 21	199 8 9 64 8 633 6 52 25	881 333 889 177  39 667 471 250 1,000	31 667   166 78 125	88  111 823 1,000 961 167 451 625	1,000 1,000 1,000 1,000 1,000 1,000 1,000 1,000	
	-	Total	***	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	•••		***		

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI-Religions of Urban and Rural population

Natural Division	Number per 10,000 of urban popula- tion who are						NUMBER PER 10,000 OF RUBAL POPULA- TION WHO ARE							
Masural Divinon	Ilinda	Sikh	Jain	Badhist	Zoroag- trian	Muselman	Christian	Hindu .	Вікћ	Jain	Budhist	Zoroas- trian	Muselmen	Christian
1	2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
ENTIRE STATE	2,939	100		55	1	6,876	18	2,107	100		122		7,670	1
I.—The Submontane and Semi- mountainous Tract	)	255	58		1	3,629	55	4,638	75		111		5,282	5
IL—The Outer Hills	5,211	188	1	1		4,647	7	3,291	111		5		6,593	
Jammu Province	5,760	218	36		١	3,946	40	3,808	97		3	ł	6,090	9
III.—The Jhelum Valley (Kash-) mir Province)	1,836	50	,.,		1	8,106	7		125		ant -		9,623	1
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier ) Districts)	368	80		815		8,762	25	82	8		1,405		8,559	1

#### CHAPTER V

#### AGE

Object of the Chapter and factory occupations will be considered in the chapters devoted to those subjects. The discussion, here, will be confined to a consideration of the conclusions to be drawn from the statistics as touching the longevity and fecundity of the people, and the variations in the age distribution, which have been registered from Census to Census. Certain minor points affecting the age figures, such as the extent to which their accuracy can be relied upon, the ways and means adopted by the people for computing age, and the instructions given for recording it at the Census, will also have to be animadverted on as side-issues to the main subject.

Table VII, which also gives statistics of sex, civil condition

Age statistics

and religion at the various age periods, but the element of age also finds its way into Imperial Table VIII, regarding education, Part I Table XII in respect of infirmities and XV-E in regard to factory occupations. All these tables give absolute figures, and at the end of the chapter will be found a set of six \* subsidiary tables containing the proportional figures of age in reference to sex, religion, selected castes, etc., and also of inter-censual variations.

The conditions governing the recollection of age by the people of the State are common to every other part of India, and call Means of refor no lengthy discussion. As regards the Hindus, Sikhs and membering age, and Bodhs, the use of horoscopes, as also the observance of birthmeasures day ceremonies, enables them to give their ages with fair locally used accuracy. Among the Musalmans there are no means of remembering age correctly, except, perhaps, in the case of the more advanced sections, whose elders may happen to have made a note of the date of their birth, or who bear a chronological name. The Shias here, as a class, have a better idea of their age than the Sunnis. Education, residence in rural or urban areas, and social position have also some bearing on this subject: the educated people, the residents of towns and cities, those of higher castes and social status have a better knowledge of their age than the ignorant villagers of the agricultural class. Sex, too, affects the question. The age of males can be ascertained more easily by appearance than that of females. The latter, however, are known to have a better memory of their own age as well as of that The influence of social customs is apparent from the fact that the age of purdah ladies can only be learnt from their male relatives, that the Rajput considers it derogatory that the age of his female relatives should be made public, that the Brahmans, Kshatryas and Vaishyas, who favour childmarriage, are naturally prone to underrate the ages of their unmarried girls, and that Musalman widows of marriageable age are inclined to understate their years. The last is also the tendency of the public women here as everywhere else. The Sadhûs, and elderly people of both sexes, are tempted to exaggerate their age, with the desire of eliciting greater respect from the young and in order to show the possession, in the one case, of a greater amount of religious sanctity and, in the other, of a wealth of worldly experience. Again, superstition plays its own peculiar part in this connexion; in Jammu a fond mother is loth to give the precise age of her child, lest it should fall under an evil eye. The number of months, or years, thus withheld, are considered to be an advantage, as it is thought the gods might also forget them and the child be allowed to live as long again.

The tendency to plump on some favourite numbers is also very pronounced: 2, 5, 10, 12 and 20 are the numbers in vogue in various parts of the State; '10-12', '20-25' '30-40' are very common answers to questions as to age in Jammu and Kashmir Provinces; in Laddakh the measure used is 12,

The other four subsidiary tables could not be prepared here for want of vital statistics.

and it is locally called *luskûr*; the Bodhs, as well as the local Musalmans, give their age in fractions or multiples of 12; and in Gilgit the favourite number is 20. In every part of the country the ignorant masses recall their age by association with some important physical or political event—the occurrence of flood, famine, earthquake, a visitation of cholera, small-pox or any other epidemic, the death or accession of the ruling chief or other important personage or official, or any administrative event such as Settlement, Census, etc. In Gilgit Agency the people are reported to "tell their age fairly accurately by estimating the number of times they have kept the *Ramazan* fast." Everywhere the heads of the family try to remember the ages of their juniors.

154. In the face of so much uncertainty as to age, the general instruction that the enumerator should enter only the Instructions completed number of years as the age of the person confor recording cerned could be of little avail; nor could he be allowed age to accept blindly the mere statements of the people in this relation. It was, therefore, distinctly prescribed that the enumerator should use his own intelligence and test the age given with the appearance and make other necessary inquiries before entering it in the schedule. This measure in itself could have hardly sufficed to ensure accuracy in our age statistics as the majority of the enumerators, being men of the poorest educational qualifications, were often without a clear notion of the age-standard—indeed, many an enumerator had no accurate knowledge of his own age.

155. In view of all these circumstances, a punctilious accuracy cannot be claimed for the age statistics here, but that they are Value of age no worse than those of any other State or Province figures in India will be evident from the following considerations. The preliminary record was mostly (and certainly in all cases of gross, inefficiency on the part of the enumerator) prepared by the supervisor, and this Census official may well be credited with a fairly accurate conception of age-standard. The people, moreover, who actually carried out the enumeration, were, in every case, men fully possessed of local knowledge of their respective beats, and no deliberate concealment or over-statement of age could have escaped their notice and remained unrectified. Again, the causes affecting the age returns having been constant from decade to decade, must be taken to have influenced the figures of all censuses equally and in the same direction, and their utility for purposes of comparison could have scarcely been impaired at any of the three regular enumerations that have taken place in the State. The age-periods adopted in the final tables for the exhibition of the statistics also go a great way towards smoothing away the discrepancies. Above all, the law of large numbers is in itself a great obliterating force in the case of errors made in individual cases. The age statistics should not, therefore, be discarded as altogether useless, particularly so in this State where—owing to the absence of all vital statistics worthy the name—they are the only means of judging of the comparative longevity and fecundity of the people.

156. Whatever else Subsidiary Table I may show, the figures against the various years of age pointedly illustrate the tendency Age distribuof the people in quoting their ages to prefer even numtion by annual bers to odd, also the partiality shown to the figure 5 and age-periods its multiples. In examining the figures of infants, in which term are comprised all children under twelve months, it will further be observed that the proportion of females is greater. This excess is maintained till the age of 15, after which the number of females begins to de-This points to the fact that although the trend of Nature in this part of the country is to produce a large number of females, their proportion is reduced during the child-bearing age because of the destructive conditions of child-birth prevailing in this backward land. Except in urban · areas, no midwives exist, and the arrangements for accouchement are very

defective. In the Frontier, as also in the hilly parts of the other provinces of the State, absolutely no skilled help is available, the female relatives rendering such assistance as is possible. Another point brought out by this table is that males attain to a higher degree of longevity than females; from 90 upwards the disproportion between the sexes becomes very marked, until the female element ceases to exist after 101. The longest life registered, according to the specimen figures dealt with in this table, is 122 years, as against 140 of the last Census. This may be due, partly, to a larger number of deaths among persons of advanced years owing to the prevalence of famine, pestilence and plague and partly to the greater accuracy of the new figures, from which all exaggerations and over-statements have been rigorously excluded.

By quinquennial ageperiods

157. Subsidiary Table II gives details by natural divisions and provinces, as well as for the entire State, of age distribution by quinquennial periods, except in the case of children up to the age of 5 years. The latter are exhibited by annual age periods in respect of the State. The figures show

age periods in respect of the State. The figures show the age structure of the population of the State, as it now stands, to be normal—children, people of reproductive age and old persons are in fairly natural proportions, at least as far as those proportions exist in India. But to reach a true conception of the constitution of the population with reference to age, it is essential that the provincial figures should be scrutinized in detail. The figures of Kashmir relating to age-periods at the two ends of life stand in marked contrast to those of Jammu, on the one side, and Frontier on the other. That Kashmir possesses a much larger number of children and a much smaller number of old people will be evi-

PROVINCE	0—10	60 & over
Jammu ,.	28	6
Kashmir	32	· 6 ·
Frontier	29	8 -

denced by the marginal abstract, in which percentages have been worked out on the basis of the figures of both the sexes. This indicates the close relation that exists between fecundity and longevity, which usually vary inversely. The Kashmiri race is known for its fecundity, and it

is quite in the order of things that its members should not attain to a great old age. The decay of certain barren races in Jammu has already been referred to, and but for the fast-breeding Balti, the inhabitants of the rest of the Frontier tracts, and especially of the polyandrous Laddakh, are anything but prolific. Another remarkable feature of the age distribution is that in the provincial figures, the largest proportion is possessed by '20—40' and the smallest, among reproductive ages, by '15—20.' That this is uniformly the case with the figures of the previous censuses of this State as also with the new age statistics in most other parts of India, only represents a natural state of affairs in this country. Among the causes, however, that explain this abrupt rise and fall at these consecutive age-periods may be mentioned the influence of marriage on age statistics: Unmarried people, especially females, are prone to understate their age, and married persons with children overstate it. The tendency to understate age asserts itself once again when the people begin to be really old. The age grade '15-20', in this way, loses and '20-40' gains doubly.

By religion the four main religions of the State. The proportions worked out there are by 10,000 of each sex. In the abstract on the margin, percentages for males alone are shown. It will be seen from them that the Sikh

Religion	,		AGES OF MALES										
		0-5	6—10	10—15	15—20	20-40	40—60	60 & ovar					
Hindu	••	11:1	11.7	10-9	8.8	89-1	17-9	80					
Sikh	••	14.9	15-5	12.1	940	\$8-4	144	5-7					
Budhdist	••	8-9	11.1	9-0	8.6	31.0	20.8	10.8					
Muselman	••	15-3	15-8	12:0	6-8	78.4	14-1	6.0					

seen from them that the Sikh and Musalman communities have the largest proportion of younger people (0-15), and the Hindus and Budhists the smallest. The contrast is particularly pointed in the case of children up to the age of five, Budhists (8 9), Hindus (11 1), Sikhs

(14.9) and Musalmans (15.3) being in a progressive order of fecundity.

Polyandry is the explanation for the sterility of the Budhists; early marriage, absence of widow marriage, and defective social and moral conditions prevailing among certain hill tribes of Jammu, all combine to restrict procreation and growth of population in the case of the Hindus; and the large number of children among the Sikhs and Musalmans owe their existence to the prevalence of the custom of marriage at a mature age, and the remarriage of widows. It is interesting to note that the percentages at the prime of life (20-40), when productivity is at its height, are just the reverse of what they are in early life, the Sikhs and Mohamedans each having 28:4 persons in every hundred of that age, the Hindus and Budhists 32.1 and 31.0 respectively. The former set, thus, reproduces a larger number of children with a smaller number of persons of child-bearing age. This would show that the Sikhs and Musalmans are assisted in the rate of propagation not only by their social practices, but also by Nature. And as regards longevity, it is of course the highest with the celibate Budhist, the proportion of males of 60 years and over in his case being very nearly 11 per cent.

159. The figures of age distribution, among selected castes, tribes and races, displayed in Subsidiary Table IV, lead us to some By caste very interesting propositions relative, principally, to Hindu races: (a) Fecundity is at its lowest point among the Aroras, the number of their male children being 82 per mille only; next come Rajputs and Thakkars with 105 and 104 respectively; the average fecundity is reached by the Brahmans (109) and the Meghs (112); while the Chamiar (127) is the most prolific of all. Procreation among the upper classes is thus found to take place on a much smaller scale than among the lower. This reveals another\* inverse ratio in regard to fecundity, viz., that which it bears to the social status: (b), The sex distribution among Rajput children—only 88 girls as against 105 boys-seems to be very significant, and should excite the vigilance of the authorities in order to ascertain whether, despite all denials to the contrary, some trace of female infanticide does not still linger among these people, especially such as live in the interior of the countryt. The disproportion in the sexes, at all events, argues a striking neglect of female children, most of whom do not seem to survive the age of five ; (c) The figures in this subsidiary table also illustrate the principle that races with a low fecundity have a larger proportion of persons in the reproductive age (15-40) and a smaller proportion of the aged (40 and over).

Among the Mohamedans, the Yashkuns of Gilgit seem to be the most prolific, with 177 per mille of male children of '0-5' and 215 of '5-12' years of age; the Brukpas and Baltis of Laddakh with 179 and 152 respectively, are an easy second; and the breeding capacity of the Kashmiri is manifested by 160 males and 175 females of the Dars. The large community of the Gujjars of this State maintains its position as a very rapidly growing race with 158 and 202 per mille of males and 176 and 209 females at '0-5' and '5-12'

respectively.

The percentages given in the margin corroborate all these facts, and

Caste, race,		0-	-5	15-	-10	40 and over			
tribe, etc	."	Hindu	Musalman	Hindu	Musalman	Hindu	Musalman		
Brahman		11-0	16-0	40.5	38-0	26-0	19-5		
Kabatrya		10.5	16-0	42.0	31.3	41.3	23.4		
Valshya		8.3	15-5	45.3	39-3	26-5	19-2		
Sudre	]	13-0	15-1	38:0	39-5	23-0	18∙0		

also show the influence of conversion to Islam and consequent change of social practices wrought on the old races of the land in the matter of their numerical development. In the case of Brahmans the figures of the Hindu Brahmans and

Mohamedan Dars have been taken as the bases for working out these percentages; among the Kshatryas, the Hindu Rajputs have been

<sup>\*</sup> C.f. § 157, p. 112.

† It is in the maidani and kandi tracts that prejudice against female children will be found to be the strongest and the evil consequences of such an attitude more pronounced. In the Outer Hills, or elsewhere, where the custom of cross marriages and of receiving cash remuneration for girls given in marriage prevail, absolutely no incentive for female infanticide can exist.

‡ For a further discussion of these matters see the next chapter.

compared with the Mohamedans of the Bains clan; among the Vaishyas the Aroras with Ganais, and among the Sudras the Chamiars with Hanjis. The figures of the Meghs, as they stand in the subsidiary table, would mislead but for explanation. The Hindu Meghs have 112 per mille males and 130 females of '0-5' as against 200 and 67 respectively of the Musalman Meghs. This ought not to be taken to imply any generative deterioration among these people owing to a change of their religion. The fact is that very few Mohamedan Meghs have been returned in the State, viz., 19 males against 6 females, and it is obvious that conversion to any religion is easier and far more common in the case of males than females.

A separate statement is printed as Appendix V at the end of the 160. chapter, exhibiting the detail of age distribution as between Distribution cities and villages. The smaller towns treated as such at the of age in cities present Census have, for the purposes of these statistics, been included in the rural area. The distinctive feature of these statistics is, as might well be expected, that there is a larger proportion of able-bodied males ('15-20' and '20-40') and a smaller of the old and aged (60 and over) in cities than in villages, for the simple reason that the attractions of labour, trade and service are by far the strongest in the former case. At the same time, fecundity is larger in rural areas simply because of the greater healthiness of country life. Another reason for fewer children in cities is the absence of the families of most of those engaged in trade and service, especially in that of the military kind.

These points are brought out in greater prominence by the

, ,	, 0-	-5	20-	-40	60 and over		
Year and sex	City	Country	City	Country	City	Country	
Male	11-0	14.0	84.3	39-0	4.2	6-1	
Pemale	14-5	15-4	83-8	29-9	89	5-7	
Male	10.8	145	84-2	29-0	4.9	6.6	
1911 Female.	13-5	15-8	83.2	80-3	4.7	5-4	

marginal statement, which also gives comparative figures of the preceding Census. An examination of the latter discloses but little variation except perhaps for a further decrease among the children in municipal and an increase in rural areas, which is, however, not reflected by a cor-

responding improvement in the percentages of the grown-ups, nor of the aged. The fact that the poorer people in cities—and these form the largest majority—have felt to a greater extent the pinch of adversity brought about by floods, scarcity and pestilence, may be urged as a possible, though only a partial, explanation of this state of the statistics.

161. Little remains to be said here concerning the fecundity and longevity of the people after all that has been said under Fecundity the various heads dealt with in the foregoing paragraphs. and longevity It is nevertheless necessary to refer to Subsidiary Table V for a detail, from the territorial standpoint, of the statistics relating to this subject. Taking the percentages of the entire State, 77 children in a hundred persons of reproductive age and 183 in a hundred of married females of childbearing age, as a standard for comparison, it will be noticed that fecundity falls to the lowest point in Basohli Tehsil (61 and 152 respectively) the reason for which will bear no further repetition, and with the fast-breeding races inhabiting Punch (86 and 196) Muzaffarabad (88 and 158) and Kashmir North (84 and 191) the highest rate must naturally be reached in those parts. The rate of procreation, however, seems to be the highest, as has been seen in §159, in Gilgit as the proportion based on the number of married childbearing women in that district is 206.

the number of persons who attain long life here is much fewer than in a European country even with the lowest age proportion, like Scotland, their number is considerably larger than that possessed by the best and, perhaps, the healthiest Province in the plains of British India.

162. Subsidiary Table V also gives the proportion of married women of child-bearing age (15—40) over the total number of females Married fein the State. This is highest in the Submontane and Semimales at childmountainous Tract, viz., 37 per cent as against 36 of the bearing age Jhelum Valley and 32 of the Indus Valley, and should no disturbing factor intervene, a larger birth-rate may be looked for in that part in the course of the coming decade. That the situation in this respect has improved for the State as a whole is evident from the fact that the percentage of such women has risen from 33 of the last Census to 34 of the present. This has been more so in Kashmir (36 against 34) where the population may, cæteris paribus, develop further, and certainly on a larger scale, than has been the rate there in the decade that has just closed.

When we come to compare\* the age figures of the three regular 163. Censuses of the State, large discrepancies are discovered in Variations the early age tables. In the entire State there were 1.692 children in every 10,000 of the age '0-5' in 1891; the proportion fell, in 1901, to 1,462, and has revived, in 1911, to 1,500†. The reason for this is not far to seek. The last Census Report, at page 8, says:

> "\*\*\* In the district of Jammu, rain was slight in 1898, and a famine during the ensuing year was the necessary result. Bhimber district suffered from a drought for about three-fourth of the decade. Jasrota was also not free from distress."

In the succeeding paragraph of the Report it is further stated that prices ruled high in consequence, and relief measures had to be instituted on a large scale. All this must have led to a neglect of child-life and the large number of deaths among children at the close of the outgoing decade was necessarily reflected in the Census which followed. A perceptible improvement is observable in the proportions of persons of reproductive age in the figures of 1901, which accounts for a restoration of the balance by the time

Unit		1(	)	30—40				60 and over			
	1891	1901	1911	1891	1901	1911	1691	1901	1911		
State	30	29	30	80	80	80	7	8	6		
Jammu	33	27	28	31	<b>\$</b> 0	30	6	6	7		
Koshmir	35	34	32	30	28	29	5	5	5		
Frontier	33	ж	39	28	35	31	8	8	8		

the present Census came on, though the full strength of the younger population has not yet been completely regained owing to the floods in Kashmir and scarcities in Jammu during the last decade refrence to which has been made so often. The detail given in Subsidiary Table VI might well be supplemented with the percentages worked out in the margin for the three typical age-periods. The

latter disclose more pointedly the effects of the famine of 1899-1900 A. D. on the juvenile population of the Jammu Province.

164. The principles enunciated in the last paragraph are further illustrated by the comparison of the mean-age figures made Mean age in the margint. By 'mean age' is meant the average

Unit	1	691 J	19	01	1911		
	Male Female		Male Pennie		Male	Pemale	
State	94	23				<u> </u>	
			21	84	,85	23	
Jammu	19	22	81	21	24	-31	
Eashmir	31	22	19	19	25	23	
Frontier	24	30	26	27	25	26	

age of the persons who were alive on the date of the Census, and it should not be confounded either with 'the mean duration of life' or 'the expectation of life at birth', in each individual case. In this sense of the term, it is obvious that mean age would vary in an inverse ratio with the

number of children forming part of a population must go to reduce the

Comparative figures are given in Subsidiary Tables II, III, V and VI.

†These figures represent the mean of male and female figures as given in Subsidiary Table II.

‡ Full details of the mean age in respect to the natural divisions and provinces, as also of the main religions of the State, are given in Subsidiary Tables II and III.

mean calculated on the total number of persons of all ages comprising that population. That the averages of the State, taken as a whole, are normal can be ascertained by comparing them with those of other countries. They agree with reasonable approximation with the mean age, worked out at the last Census for the whole of India, viz., 24.7, and are distinctly better than, for instance, 26 of Mysore at the present Census. It is, however, the provincial figures that indicate more truly the trend of events in the State. and the vicissitudes through which different areas have been passing within the last twenty years. Taking the male figures as the more reliable, 19 of Jammu in 1891 designates economically more prosperous times and 31 in 1901 distinctly bears the impress of the famine of 1899-1900 A.D. For the fact that the mean age of the province has not gone back to its original level. (it is now 24) the scarcities, as already pointed out, that have from time to time been felt in various parts of Jammu during the decade covered by the present Census, are mainly responsible. The figures of Kashmir, on the other hand, tell a different tale. The new figures of that province clearly bear the mark of injuries done to it by the floods of the last decade, as the mean there has risen from 19 of 1901 to 25 of the present Census. That the Frontier districts have been progressing continuously is proved by the figures of the marginal table of this, as much as of the last, paragraph.

The influence exercised by fecundity over the mean age is borne out still more clearly by the averages worked out in Subsidiary Table III in respect to the followers of the four main religions prevailing in the State.

Wales	Pemale
Mares .	E CILIA, O
80	20
27	26
24	22
34	23
	80 27 24

The figures noted in the margin have been abstracted from that table, and they only verify what has been said in §158 regarding the relative fecundity of those communities. Taking the mean of the age figures of the two sexes, the order in which these classes stand with reference to a progressive rate of fecundity is Budhists (30), Hindus (26.5), Sikhs and Musalmans

(23 each), and this is exactly what has been stated before. The mean age standards of these people have been undergoing some slight change from decade to decade, but the variations do not disclose any new points and do not, therefore, merit more than a passing reference.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I—Age distribution of 100,000 of each sex by annual periods—Mohamedans only \*

1			]		
Age	Malo	Pemale .	Age	Male	Female -
1	2	8 .	1	2	3
1 0 2 8 4 5 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	4,451 992 2,808 8,431 8,158 8,115 8,103 2,800 3,286 2,417 3,726 1,231 8,894 1,105 1,684 8,165 2,134 888 2,276 712 4,766 606 1,581 588 996 5,288 687 676 947 325 5,614 264 766 390	5,127 1,322 3,541 4,139 3,620 3,357 3,586 3,191 3,283 2,535 3,428 1,360 8,352 1,168 1,809 8,182 2,101 861 2,553 769 5,695 501 1,308 5,664 578 551 926 301 5,831 197 616 251	62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 81 82 83 84 85 87 89 90 91 92 93 94 95	2  144 79 97 400 74 58 56 36 752 24 59 44 32 394 23 22 36 9 325 19 16 11 11 33 9 3 4 0 83 5 1 0 30	3  95 49 72 264 52 30 107 21 414 19 39 70 22 208 19 17 41 6 268 19 10 7 9 19 4 2 10 5 48 2 3 1
34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61	472 8,505 824 417 440 165 4,866 193 393 196 243 2,119 234 181 286 119 3,723 109 245 134 156 974 140 82 116 66 2,694 115	339 8,020 564 283 363 171 5,070 164 819 129 199 1,608 151 115 284 140 8,260 94 184 79 109 541 110 74 94 69 2,159 106	96 97 98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107 118 115 116 117 118 119 120 121	2 0 1 15 2 1 0 2 3 1 1 0 0 3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

<sup>•</sup> Mohamedans forming the chief element of the population of this State, this table has been prepared in respect of them alone.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II—Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex in the State and each Natural Division

		19:	11	190	)1	18	91
AGE		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Fomale
1		2	8	. 4	5	6	7
Entire State	0-1 1-2 2-3 8-4 4-5 Total 0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-25 20-25 30-35 30-35 35-40 40-45 45-50 55-60	432 111 264 318 305 1,430 1,444 1,169 870 8800 785 791 555 596 831 440 135	477 119 293 353 328 1,570 1,511 1,062 876 919 837 783 506 612 284 898 102	353 154 282 301 294 1,384 1,449 1,230 833 708 763 861 600 654 331 450	392 158 321 848 320 1,539 1,505 1,116 816 832 818 830 532 644 300 884	422 148 317 363 844 1,594 1,404 983 784 764 779 826 581 632 866 441 146	480 165 356 416 372 1,789 1,428 819 780 898 855 864 535 638 298 382
	60—65 65—70 70 and over Mean Age	.846 73 235 25	801 50 189 23	605	564 24	700 24	601 23
THE SUBMONTANE AND SEMI-MOUNTAINOUS TRACT TAINOUS TRACT THE OUTER HILLS	0 5 10 15 20 40 60 and over Mean Age 0 5 5 10 15	1,234 1,348 1,194 8,045 1,656 697 24 1,414 1,419 1,163 2,895 1,528	1,380 1,436 1,049 824 8,128 1,582 601 21 1,517 1,477 1,054 884 8,044 1,418		000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 00	000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 00	010 170 040 040 040 040 040 040 040 040 040
Jammy Province	60 and over Mean Age  0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over Mean Age	755 26 1,339 1,390 1,176 826 2,957 1,581 731	811 22 1,463 1,461 1,053 860 8,077 1,479 607 21	1,247 1,339 1,254 855 2,984 1,661 660 31	1,361 1,425 1,150 858 8,047 1,523 636 21	1,440 1,852 1,028 2,045 1,662 1,662 1,664 19	1,647 1,895 870 799 8,221 1,474 594 22 2,099
Kasemir Province	0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over Mean Age	1,537 1,512 1,182 917 2,890 1,421 541 25	1,705 1,598 1,100 907 2,987 1,296 407 23	1,616 1,637 1,252 817 2,730 1,436 513	1,668 1,115 784 2,858 1,329 411	1,524 925 778 2,850 1,498 504 21	1,515 741 762 8,092 1,367 424 22
FRONTIER (DISTRICTS	0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over Mean Age	1,452 1,426 1,025 916 2,996 1,411 774 23	1,561 1,366 910 811 8,150 1,361 841 26	1,115 1,226 940 761 3,636 1,603 719 28	1,284 1,234 889 695 3,546 1,555 853 27	1,022 1,151 909 780 2,668 1,392 2,078 38	1,226 1,209 831 728 2,881 1,414 1,716 30

The comparative figures for Submentane and Semi-mountainous Tract and the Outer Hills not being available in respect of the previous consuses, columns 4 to 7 relating to these units are left blank.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III

Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex in each main religion

		19:	11	19	01	1891		
•	AGE	M sla	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
	1	2 ·	3	4	5	6	7	
	0-5	1,115	1,268	1,066	1,215	1,220	1,412	
į	5—10	1,169	1,333	1,186	1,325	1,182	1,263	
ħ	10-15	1,091	961	1,167	<b>'989</b>	983	820	
1	15-20	826	857	822	814	803	80 <del>6</del>	
HINDU	20-40	3,210	3,216	8,263	3,261	3,226	3,3 <del>6</del> 0	
1	40-60	1,790	1,660	1,803	1,636	1,825	1,658	
J	60 and over	799	705	693	760	761	681	
[	Mean age	27	26	28	28	27	26	
>	0-5	1,491	1,633	1,381	1,628	1,648	1,824	
1	510	1,552	1,648	1,462	1,500	1,470	1,576	
·	10-15	1,209	1,096	1,206	1,058	1,098	1,027	
	15-20	902	884	886	884	799	842	
Sike	20-40	2,837	3,006	2,892	2,967	2,723	2,856	
}	40 60	1,437	1,281	1,553	1,402	1,623	1,307	
1	60 and over	572	452	621	561	639	568	
Į	Mean age	24	22	25	23	16 j	23	
7	0-5	895	1,013	774	810	815	869	
	5—10	1,114	1,108	1,111	1,071	1,031	1,015	
•	10-15	899	881	929	904	849	805	
J	15-20	860	859	871	818	721	746	
Budgist	2040	3,097	3,007	3,183	2,855	3,050	3,080	
	40-60	2,058	2,083	2,015	1,957	2,231	2,211	
	60 and over	1,077	1,049	1,117	1,585	1,303	1,274	
,	Mean age	30	30	30	32	32	31	
,	0-5	1,532	1,665	1,498	1,653	1,770:	1,961	
(	δ—10 l	1,530	1,567	1,541	1,569	1,512	1,508	
1	10-15	1,196	1,094	1,254	1,158	995	824	
	15-20	883	882	835	816	786	777	
Musalman (	20-40	2,845	2,997	2,820	2,936	2,873	3,101	
, 1	40-60	1,409	1,308	1,483	1,381	1,496	1,343	
	60 and over	605	487	569	487	568	486	
(	Mean age	24	22	24	23	23	23	

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV\*

Age distribution of 1,000 of each sex in certain castes

		MAL	R NUMB	Male number per mille aged					Female number per mille aged				
Cı	LSTE	0-5	5—12	12—15		40 and over	0—5	5—12	12—15	15—40	40 and		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
Німов	Arora Brahman Chamiar Kashmiri Pundit Megh Rajput Thakkar	82 109 127 109 112 105 104 154	139 152 181 159 166 159 152 209	61 74 85 66 65 76 76 76	453 405 378 426 394 418 413 355	265 260 229 240 263 242 255 206	115 122 142 132 130 88 125 174	169 183 193 195 171 141 172 209	64 56 60 52 55 48 63 61	423 395 413 396 413 456 395 379	229 244 192 225 231 267 245 177		
Musalman <	Brukpa Balti Bat Bains Chibh Dar Genai Gujjar Gakkhar Hanji	179 152 151 159 136 160 155 158 146 151	203 196 197 209 204 197 197 202 206 209	73 68 70 85 77 68 69 79 76	348 387 382 313 347 380 387 357 376 395	197 197 200 234 236 195 192 204 196 176	181 177 171 147 131 175 174 176 153 165	180 172 196 177 164 199 204 209 192 207	65 59 67 60 59 65 59 69 76	380 385 388 411 414 385 387 371 392 394	194 207 178 205 232 176 176 175 187		
	Jat Malik Megh Mughal Pathan Sayed Shin Yashkun Gulute figures form	145 152 200 149 140 144 151	197 205 147 200 184 200 195 215	73 70 63 75 69 76 56	356 374 379 368 394 377 388 366	229 199 211 208 213 203 210 174	132 206 67 162 171 155 191 201	177 165 202 201 211 204 187 203	67 67 56 67 67 66 73	425 383 506 389 389 398 376 398	173 199 179 169 181 162 177 173 143		

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE V

Proportion of children under 10 and of persons over 50 to those aged 15—40; also of married females aged 15—40 per 100 females

ENTIRE STATE 77 77 81 183 190 32 27 32 28 34 26 34 33  I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountain- ous Tract  Jammu District 66 173 31 29 34  Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and Kathua tehsils only)						HILDR 100		P: OVER	BOPOE 50 p					of n	mber	ed
The Submontane and Semi-mountain- one tract   18		Persons aged 15—40		fem	females aged		1911		1901		18:	91	15— 100	40 g fema	er les	
ENTIRE STATE 77 77 81 183 190 32 27 32 28 34 26 34 33	,	1911	1901	1891	1911	1901	1891	Malo	Female	Male	Female	Male	Fomale	1911	1901	1891
I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountain- ous Tract	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	18	14	15	16
I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountain- ous Tract								<u> </u>								门
And Semi-mountain-	ENTIRE STATE	77	77	81	183	190	•••	32	27	32	28	34	26	34	33	<b>]</b>
Jasrota , ( Jasmirgarh and Kathua tehsils only)	and Semi-mountain-	76	***		174		•••	33	29	<b></b>	***		•••	37		
Jasrota (Jasmirgarh and Kathua tehsils only)	Jammu District	66	•		173		***	31	29		'			34		<b></b>
TI.—The Outer Hills   76       180       30   29	Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh) and Kathua tehsils only)	68	*		181		•••	32	29	•••	***			83		
Jasrota District (Basohli) tehsil only)       61        152         35       32 <td>Mirpur District (Bhimber ) and Mirpur tehsils only)</td> <td>73</td> <td>•••</td> <td>•••</td> <td>172</td> <td></td> <td>•••</td> <td>38</td> <td>30</td> <td>***</td> <td>•••</td> <td>•</td> <td></td> <td>43</td> <td>,,,</td> <td></td>	Mirpur District (Bhimber ) and Mirpur tehsils only)	73	•••	•••	172		•••	38	30	***	•••	•		43	,,,	
Mirpur District (Kotli	II.—The Outer Hills	76	***	. 416	180	<b></b>	•••	30	29	•••	***		***	34		
tchsil only)       \$ 01		61	•••	м.	152		,	35	32	•••	<b></b> .	<i>.</i>		34		
Riasi       ,,        74         183         40       30              40       30              35       31            35           35       31            35       31             32       26            34          32       26            34          32       26             38	Mirpur District (Kotli) tehsil only)	81	•••	•••	178	· •••	•••	34	26		•••	•••		86		<b></b>
Bhadarwah Jagir 69 159 35 31 35  Punch Raqa 86 196 32 26 34  Jammu Province 73 69 71 178 175 36 29 33 30 34 28 34 33  III.—The Jhelum Valley { 82 94 94 189 213 28 22 31 25 29 23 36 34  Kashmir Province) } 82 94 94 189 213 28 22 31 25 29 23 36 34  Kashmir North 84 191 27 20 36  Kashmir South 79 184 22 17 36  Kashmir Valley 81 188 28 22	Udhampur District	68	•••	415	167	,	***	30	34	•••		•••	•••	34	***	
Punch Raga        86        196         32       26          34         34          32       26  .	Riasi " "	74	***	   ••••	183		***	40	80	•••	*4*	***	•••	82		
Jammu Province        73       69       71       178       175        36       29       33       30       34       28       34       33          IIIThe Jhelum Valley (Kashmir Province)       82       94       94       189       213        28       22       31       25       29       23       36       34          Kashmir North        84         191         27       20             36 <td>Bhadarwah Jagir</td> <td>69</td> <td>•••</td> <td>•••</td> <td>159</td> <td></td> <td>***</td> <td>35</td> <td>31</td> <td>•••</td> <td>***</td> <td>***</td> <td>***</td> <td>35</td> <td></td> <td></td>	Bhadarwah Jagir	69	•••	•••	159		***	35	31	•••	***	***	***	35		
III. The Jhelum Valley { (Kashmir Province) }       82       94       94       189       213        28       22       31       25       29       23       36       34          Kashmir North        84         191         27       20  .	Punch Raga	86	•••	•••	196	,	<b>,</b>	32	26	,,,	.,,,	***		34		
(Kashmir Province)       \$\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}	Jammu Province	73	69	71	178	175	***	36	29	33	30	34	28	34	33	
Kashmir South     79       184         22   17		82	94	94	189	213	٠	28	22	31	25	29	23	36	34	4
Kashmir Valley	Kashmir North	84	***		191		<b>,</b>	27	20	•••	•••	,	'	36	***	
Muzaffarabad District 88 98 158 31 24 25 19 35  IV.—The Indus Valley \ 74 56 65 185 169 31 30 25 28 73° 59° 32 29  Laddakh District 73 183 32 16 31	Kashmir South	79	•••	,	184		۰	22	17	***	414	•••	***	86	***	
Muzaffarabad District 88 98 158 31 24 25 19 35	Kashmir Valley	81	 		188		,	28	22		*,*	***	<b>,,</b>	36	•••	
(Frontier Districts) 5 72 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88	Muzasfarabad District	88	<b></b>	98	158	,	711	31	24		***	25	19	35	•••	
Laddakh District 73 183 ,, , 32 16 31	IV.—The Indus Valley } (Frontier Districts)	74	56	[	185	169	***	31	.30	25	28	73°	:59°	32	29	
T Citate   79     1906   7   199   19   .     35	Laddakh District	73			183	,.,	.,,,,	32	16		***	***		31	•••	
	Citate Annual Citate Ci	78	•••		206	-,, <u>.</u>	-9+1	22	19	,	***	•••	• •••	35	•••	

These abnormal percentages are due to the inclusion in 1891 of 10,057 males and 6,580 females whose age was not returned, under age-period '60 and over,' Excluding those items the percentage would be 36 for males and 34 for females.

SUBSIDIARY	TABLE	VI-Variation	in population	ı at certain	age-pcriods
------------	-------	--------------	---------------	--------------	-------------

District and Natural	D. J. J	Variation per cent in population (Increase+ Decrease —)						
Division	Period	All ages°	0—10	1015	15—40	40—60	60 & over	
1	2	3	4	- 5	6	7	8	
Entire State	{ 1891—1901 { 1901—1911	+12·0 + 8·6	+ 8.0 + 8.2	+48·1 + 1·6	+13·2 + 8·6	+14·1 + 2·6	+ 2·5 + 9·5	
Jammu Provinco(Natural } Divisions I & II) †	{ 1891—1901 1901—1911	+ 5.7 + 5.3	$\frac{-2.7}{+10.6}$	+33.4 - 2.5	+ 4.3 + 4.6	+ 7·1 + ·9	+ 8.8 + 6.8	
III.—The Jholum Valley }	{ 1891—1901 1901—1911	+21'9 +11'9	$^{+16.6}_{+5.2}$	+72.8 + 7.7	+17.3 +19.9	+17.7 +10.0	+21 <sup>.</sup> 7 +15 <sup>.</sup> 1	
IV.—The Indus Valley }	{1891—1901 1901—1911	+10°2 +14°2	+52.6 + 12.1	+53.0	+79·1 -15·5	+64'4 18'6	+37·4‡ - 4·4	

The figures in this column agree with these of columns 2 and 3 of Subsidiary Table I to Chapter II, because adjustment has been made in both the tables with reference to the population of the Frontier Raque. The percentages in the other columns of this table, however, take no account of the Frontier Raque, as ages were not recorded there.

- † This table could not be prepared by districts, because the figures of the previous censuses could not be worked out to a common denominator owing to absence of necessary details.
- ‡ This percentage has been worked out after exclusion of 16,637 persons of unspecified ages that formed part of grade 60 and over in 1891.
- N.B.—The last four tables subsidiary to this chapter could not be prepared for want of complete and reliable vital statistics.

APPENDIX V

Age distribution (in every 10,000) in cities compared with that of the rural area

	1	911	1	901
Age	Male	Female	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5
$     \begin{bmatrix}       0-5 & \dots \\       5-10 & \dots \\       10-15 & \dots \\       15-20 & \dots     \end{bmatrix} $	670 850 95 <b>7</b>	991 1,166• 912	711 779 946	1,065 1,086 990
20—40 40—60 60 and over	930 4,111 1,972 510	842 3,606 1,960 523	961 4,356 1,772 475	983 3,671 1,700 505
SRINAGAR CITY SRINAGAR CITY 0-5 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	1,194 1,226 1,179 939 3,221 1,750 491	1,422 1,444 994 816 3,258 1,602 464	1,233 1,363 1,259 868 -3,111 1,730	1,539 1,425 1,006 864 3,250 1,552
TOTAL OF CITIES $ \begin{cases} 0-5 & \dots \\ 5-10 & \dots \\ 10-15 & \dots \\ 15-20 & \dots \\ 20-40 & \dots \\ 40-60 & \dots \\ 60 \text{ and over} \end{cases} $	1,078 1,143 1,130 937 3,418 1,799 495	1,346 1,395 980 820 3,319 1,665 475	1,100 1,215 1,180 892 3,426 1,741	1,446 1,359 1,003 887 3,332 1,581
COUNTRY $\begin{cases} 0-5 & \dots \\ 5-10 & \dots \\ 10-15 & \dots \\ 15-20 & \dots \\ 20-40 & \dots \\ 40-60 & \dots \\ 60 \text{ and over} \end{cases}$	1,449 1,461 1,171 866 2,904 1,486 663	1,582 1,517 1,066 879 3,031 1,381 544	1,402 1,464 1,232 829 2,902 1,556 615	1,544 1,513 1,121 812 2,995 1,441

### CHAPTER VI

### Sex

Sex statistics kind that it could not have been ignored at any stage and in any aspect of an operation which was concerned with taking stock of human beings. This is how there is not a single Census table of the Imperial series, No. III excepted, which does not distribute its figures by sex. It is, however, Table VII which deals with this subject more directly, and it is in the heading of that table alone that the word sex finds a prominent place. The Imperial tables deal with the absolute figures, and proportions referring to territorial and natural divisions, age, religion and caste are worked out in the four subsidiary tables appended to this chapter. Comparative figures relating to the previous enumerations are also exhibited therein. The last two of the series of these tables have not been prepared for want of reliable and exhaustive vital statistics.

166. Of all the columns in the enumeration schedule, the one assigned to sex distinction (No. 5) presented, intrinsically, the smallest Accuracy of difficulty, and with the instruction that eunuchs and hermathe sex return phrodites were to be shown as males, all possibility of bungling on the part of the enumerator was further excluded. Mistakes at tabulation were guarded against by the use of distinctive sex marks on the sorting slips. If mathematical certainty could, therefore, be claimed in respect of any statistics, and more so Census statistics, it could best be arrogated by the record of sex. There are, however, conditions peculiar to India which operate to vitiate the sex statistics to a greater or smaller degree, according as the force and extent of their prevalence varies in different parts of the country. (a) First of all comes the custom of purdah, which is known more as a Mohamedan institution although the form in which it prevails in certain parts, and among certain communities, in India has for its origin reasons more historical and social than religious. In this State, it is observed with far greater rigidity by the Hindu Rajputs. The Musalman agriculturists and labourers, and these form the bulk of the population, cannot afford to restrict the out-put of labour by concealing their women. In Jammu, those branches of the Rajput clan which claim kinship with the ruling family consider it a privilege and a point of honour to be as reticent about their women-folk as possible. This community is, however, not of such magnitude that any wilful reduction in the number of females on their part could have produced any material effect on the results for the State as a whole. Besides, these people were met by the Census Department half-way in their prejudices; the necessity of giving the names and relationship of the women with the head of the family was dispensed with, and in this way the disclosure of their identity was avoided. In Kashmir and Gilgit no purdah, in the real sense of the term as understood in India, is observed; and the lot of the Laddakhi woman is freest of all. (b) The second powerful cause of diminution in the number of females returned is the practice of early-marriage. Hindus of the higher castes, more particularly the Brahmans, are prone to conceal the existence of daughters who have reached puberty and remain unmarried. This may at best have influenced the statistics of the Dugar Ilaga, for the Hindus of the higher hills entertain no such scruples. Besides, the shame accruing from this state of affairs in any family. is generally more easily obviated by under-stating the age, rather than by running the risk attaching to denial of the existence of any member of it. (c) The possibility of any unintentional omissions owing to females being regarded less important than males, has been the remotest here in view of the esteem in which women, because of the real paucity of their number, are generally held\*. (d) Among the local peculiarities in this connexion

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> This may appear to be arguing in a circle, but the facts and figures stated in the course of the chapter will show that the general deficiency in the number of females here is a real one, and not due to intentional or unintentional omissions,

may be mentioned the practice, in Jammu and its neighbourhood, of keeping a number of concubines and other unauthorised female inmates, and the endeavour in all such cases is to conceal them from the public gaze. This, indeed, operates as an incentive for secretiveness regarding the female members of the family, but being confined to the more well-to-do people who can afford to keep large households, could scarcely have affected our figures to any appreciable degree. In short, it can be affirmed with a certain amount of confidence that the sex statistics of the State represent, on the whole, a real state of the distribution of sexes, and except in Jammu, and perhaps in the case of a few highly-placed families elsewhere, there has been no artificial reduction in the female population. Reference to particular castes and tribes who might have under-stated their female members can only be made later on in appropriate places.

167. Before discussing the figures, it seems desirable to premise

a few general propositions appertaining to sex dis-A few prelimi- tribution, as they will aid greatly the interpretation nary observaof the local statistics: (i) In all populations of the world, excepting Europe, which have been the subject tions of enumeration, the male element has so far been found predominant\*; even in Europe males are in excess in the south-eastern parts; (ii) This is so not only according to the Census figures but also the vital statistics; in other words, the birth-rate of male children is far higher than of female. Both these conditions obtain in India as well, except in some of its provinces such as Madras, Bihar and Orissa, and certain parts of Bengal and the Central Provinces; but the Indian statistics have all this while been open to much doubt and criticism owing to the local customs and circumstances referred in the last paragraph]; (iii) The males are more delicate in the early stages of life, and when grown up some of them follow avocations exposing them to risks from which females are immune; (iv) The females, on the other hand, are most exposed to danger at the child-bearing age; (v) At the same time, they are known to stand the hardships of famine bettert; (vi) Contrariwise, again, they are believed to be more susceptible to plague; (vii) In all temporary migration (especially in India), except that on pilgrimage or due to change of residence of women by marriage, the males preponderate. The new sex statistics of the State ought to be read in the light of these principles, and it should be determined how far social and religious practices, physical calamities, economic conditions and migration have affected the sex proportions.

General and 1,483,759 females in the State, a proportion, roughly, of 8 to 7. Among the persons enumerated, there is thus a deficiency of 190,608 females. In terms of thousands this proportion works out to 886, as compared with 788 of Baluchistan, 866 of the North-West Frontier Province and 817 of the Punjab on the one hand, and 945 of Bengal, 915 of the United Provinces, 1,032 of Madras and 1,043 of Bihar and Orissa on the other. The proportion of the State also compares well with 897 of the Caucasus, a country of very similar physical conditions. A comparison is made in the margin between the proportions

Class of popul	ation	1891	1901	1911	
Actual	••	881	884	887	
Katural	••	878	888	881	

in actual and natural populations as they have stood at the present and the previous censuses and should prove still more interesting and instructive. The percentage in natural population fully discounts the effects of migration and constitutes a truer index of the extent to

which each sex prevails in the country. The rise registered at the second

<sup>•</sup> Von Mayr attributes the excess of men in civilized countries, newly settled, such as America and Australia to immigration, and the excess of women in Europe to emigration, of men and lower mortality among women.

<sup>†</sup> In addition to the physiological reasons that they have more fat and less muscle, need less food, have better constitutions and on the whole are less metabolic, there are the chivalrous reasons why women suffer less at famines: they are not allowed to work, and are provided with food as long as their male supporters can by any exertions manage to earn it for them.

regular Census of the State in the proportion both of the actual and natural populations, indeed, reveals the better enumeration of females, but the fall at the present Census in the natural population can only be explained by the higher death-rate caused among females by plague, which raged in the lower parts of the Jammu Province throughout the last decade.

Territorial distribution to the various territorial divisions of the country. These are given in Subsidiary Table I, and an abstract from it is made in the margin in respect of the principal units. Broadly speak-

Natural divisions and	Number of females to 1,000 of males in			
		Actual population	Natural population	
	State	887	881	
L.—The Sabmontane and	Semi-mous-}	846	818	
11.—The Outer Hills	'	916	920	
Jan	mu Province	887	890	
III.—The Ibelum Valley (Ka	shmir Province)	872	870	
, Ka	hmir Valley	878	889	
IVThe Indus Valley (Fron	tier Districts)	978	973	

ing, the number of females rises as we proceed from south-west to north-east. From this standpoint, the country seems to be split up into two main divisions: (a) Jammu with its plains and hills, and (b) Kashmir including Muzaffarabad in the south and the Frontier districts in the north; and the close correspondence of 818 females to 1,000 males in the Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tractand of 920 in the Outer Hills

with 870 in the Jhelum Valley and with 972 in the Indus Valley respectively is, indeed, striking. Referring to the smaller units it will be seen that the largest proportion of women exists in Bhadarwah (1,038) and Laddakh (1,005), where they actually out-number the males, and the smallest in the submontane and semi-mountainous tracts (818)—particularly in Jasmirgarh and Kathua tehsils of Jasrota district (776). The deficiency in the latter part is, no doubt, real, but it has been distinctly aggravated by the plague, which is known to have raged there more severely and longer. At this stage, also, some of the proportions relating to the minor divisions may approriately be compared with those of European countries, viz., 945 of Basohli tehsil with 946 of Servia, 1,005 of Laddakh with 1,004 of Ireland and 1,038 of Bhadarwah with 1,026 of Germany.

170. The effect of migration will be apparent from a careful comparison of the proportions of females in the natural Sex and population with those of the actual. Taking the figures migration for the entire State first, 887 in the actual population, as against 881 in natural, is fully indicative of the large exodus of male coolies to the Punjab and elsewhere. To illustrate this further, the figures of the Sub-montane and Semi-mountainous Tract may be referred to (846 against 818), and this is the part from which the largest egress to the conterminous districts of the Punjab takes place. Another reason for the excess of females in the actual population of this natural division is the ingress through marriage of the women from the Outer Hills, the proportion of female immigrants being 131 to every 100 males as shown in the marginal table of §116 Chapter III. From Mirpur, a considerable number of men go out in search of employment, hence it is that the proportion of females there falls from 913 in actual to 891 in natural population. The explanation for the increase in the proportion in the natural population of the Outer Hills generally, and Jarsota, Udhampur, Riasi and Bhadarwah in particular, is, however, different. These are the parts, it has been seen before, from which a considerable number of women go out for purposes of marriage not only into the plains of Jammu Province itself, but are also exported, under pretences and for purposes lawful and otherwise, to the Punjab and elsewhere. The proportion of women rises in the natural population because it includes all such emigrants. The smaller proportion in actual population in the case of Jammu and Gilgit is, on the contrary, due to the presence of a large body of military forces at either place. Besides, the figures relating to Jammu district and city include a large number of outsiders (Kashmiris and Punjabis) who are engaged in trade and service and who seldom bring their families, with them.

171. The sex statistics by age are contained in Subsidiary Tables II and III, and may briefly be stated as in the margin. It Sex and age has been said in § 156 of the last chapter that a large number of females is found in the early age tables. That proposition should

			NATURAL DIVISIONS						
<b>≜</b> 6#		STATE -	1	11	ın	ΙΨ			
0-1		980	946	1,014	969	1,028			
4-6		974	948	983	968	1,051			
10—15		806	748	680	B12	867			
20 -25		1,018	896	1,126	994	1,118			
0-30	4.	974	875	958	916	. 966			
50-60		789	742	811	748	108			
30 and (		816	798	840	, 776	999			

not be taken to imply an actual excess in the absolute figures. The proportions given in the tables of the present chapter and the actual figures given in Imperial Table VII clearly indicate that the males outnumber females as much in the early age-periods as in any other, but this in no way contradicts what has been stated before regarding the excess of females at earlier ages and their gradual di-

On the contrary, the sex statistics also conminution as the age advances. firm this inasmuch as among the three standard age-periods '0-5', '0-30' and 30 and over' the largest proportion of females is recorded under the first. Another remarkable feature of the sex distribution by age is the large excess of women at the age '20-25.' This constitutes the strongest refutation to the charge of omissions, as this being just the age when sex is of utmost interest, the strongest incentive ought to have been afforded for an intentional concealment of number of the women of that age, while as a matter of fact the largest number of females is shown in this category. Part of this extraordinary excess is, however, ascribable to the general tendency of giving this age (20-25) in round numbers in respect of all married women of an age ranging from 15 to 35. The small proportion at the age '10-15' may, to a certain extent, be due to the under-rating of the age of unmarried girls by those who favour early marriage. Geographically the proportion of females, as has already been noticed, rises from southwest to north-east\*, and the same is the direction in which the figures of sex by age are found to vary. The proportions under all age-periods are smaller in the Sub-montane and Semi-mountainous Tract and the Jhelum Valley than in the Outer Hills and the Indus Valley.

172. If proportions based on actual population be taken as standard for comparison, the Musalmans with a proportion of 896 Sex and relifemales of all ages seem to occupy the middle position gion in regard to the numerical strength of that sex, the Hindus and Sikhs with 853 each form one extreme and Budhists† with 999 the other. Further details may be gathered from the marginal table which displays the

ì		EDA		-
05	10—15	2025	4050	60 and over
974	808	1,018	856	733
970	751	917	819	788
974	819	1,050	863	720
933	778	1,033	-807	673
1,130	979	1,000	1,011	974
	974 970 974 939	974 806 970 751 974 819 932 778	0-5         10-15         20-25           974         806         1,018           970         751         917           974         819         1,030           932         778         1,033	05   1015   2025   4050   974   806   1,018   856   970   751   917   819   974   819   1,050   863   932   778   1,039   807

figures by typical age-periods; and they show that the Bodhs beget the largest number of female children and the Sikhs the smallest; of women in the prime of life (20-25) the largest number is possessed by Musalmans, and the smallest by the Hindus; the order is once more reversed in the case of old women (60 and over), the Budhists occu-

pying the first position and the Sikhs the last. It is remarkable that

Vide § 169 p. 124 ante.

<sup>†</sup> The existence of polyandry in Laddakh proper, which is essentially a Budhistic country, leads one to expect a marked deficit among females, but in the actual count that part of the State has returned the largest proportion of women. This excess being shared by other Mongolian races (whether pure, such as Baltis, or mixed such as Brukpas) suggests some sort of a connection between sex and race.

the Musalmans return the largest number of women at an age when ideas of secretiveness should have led to greatest concealment; another sign of the sex record of the State being least affected by omissions resulting from the purdah system.

Ratigion	ļ	'Na	TURAL I	KOISTAIO	18
NAM (10)			II	ш	ΙV
Ϋ́Ì	,,	845	916	872	978
Hindp	٠,	\$16	911	779	89
Musalman	••	878	919	877	986
Sikh	•,	810	851	877	324
Budhist	••		1,143	·,,	996

Local distribution of sexes by religion may be abstracted from Subsidiary Table III as in the margin. The paucity of females among the Sikhs in the Sub-montane and Semi-mountainous Tract bears the mark of the influence exercised by migration. The proportion of females among Mohamedans is highest in the Frontier, a country chiefly populated by the Mongolian race. Hindus have returned the largest number of females in the Outer Hills. Considering the physical conditions of these natural divisions and the

difference in the nature of races inhabiting them, one feels tempted to hold that religion is a factor which does not wield much influence over the sex proportion, and that race and country may have something to do with the matter. The high-lands of Natural Divisions No. II and IV and the Mongolian race inhabiting the latter appear to be more favourable for the existence and propagation of the femine element. The Hindu and Sikh proportions in the Frontier, however, require some further explanation. A very small percentage of females has been returned there in either case, the reason being that these races are only foreigners to the country. They go there on business or on service only, and the country being difficult and dangerous they leave behind all females that can possibly be left. Wives and such children alone as are attached to their parents are found in the Hindu and Sikh families present in that country. This will become still more apparent by an examination of detailed figures as entered in columns 23 and 25 of Subsidiary Table III.

173. The Hindu Aroras (667) and Rajputs (701) have returned the smallest number of women; the shortage in one case may Sex and caste be real, but in the other is a glaring instance of under-statement due to the delicacy felt in regard to giving particulars of the inmates of the zenanah. The Rajputs, especially of the higher ranks, it has been seen before, strongly resent any prying into their female apartments, and are apt to conceal the number of their women. The Meghs, who generally live in the Outer Hills, have a proportion of women (1,008) that is the largest among the Hindu races, The variations by age in the caste table disclose a few other interesting coincidences of the facts already stated in this and the last chapter. The small proportion of the Rajput females at '0-5' once more illustrates the strong suspicion mentioned before in §159 regarding infanticide. The Brahmanic views, again, in regard to early-marriage are illustrated by the proportions of females at '12-15' and '5-12'; all unmarried girls of the former category seem to have been shown under the latter, with the result that only 656 females to a thousand males are seen under '12-15' while the proportion under 5-12 reaches the abnormal dimensions of 1,042. The Chamiar, the Megh and the Thakkar appear to produce the largest number of female children, the proportions being 1,002, 1,108 and 1,072 respectively,

The figures for Musalmans are no less instructive. The reserve observed by the aristocratic Shin race of Gilgit in regard to their women is exhibited by the small proportion of 678 under the head of all ages and more so by 532 under '15-20'. The Pathan proportion is reduced to 831 because of the presence, at the time of Census, of a considerable number of male coolies of that tribe at the Upper Jhelum Canal in Mirpur District, The shortage of women among the Gujjars (847) and Hanjis (841) may be real, and must be taken as due to the nomadic, toilsome and therefore precarious

life of the women of those classes. The excess, on the other hand, among the Baltis (1.024) and Yashkuns (1,041) is quite characteristic of those auxorious races. The Mohamedan Rajputs of the Bains clan appear to be fond of polygamy and possess large proportions of females—1,013 of all ages and 1,072, and 1,418 at '15-20' and '20-40' respectively.

174. The Indian statistics of sex differ from the European in respect of distribution between municipal and rural areas as in many other respects. In European cities females outnumber males, and quite intelligibly so, as the women find more work in towns than in the country-side. The case in India, as in both the cities here, is just the reverse. The women are seldom seen at work, especially

			OLASS (	OF ARRA	<u>.</u>
AGB		Mo	RICIPAL	R	URAL
		Medit	Mussiman	Hindu	Muselman
0-5		1,000	1,001	968	973
10-15	••	616	728	769	824
20-25	••	717	668	938	1,061
4050		743	741	628	876
60 and c	ver	693	809	750	679

work requiring the exercise of physical labour. It is therefore the men alone who are attracted largely to the towns which are centres of trade, business and service. The deficiency of the female element in the population of the cities is particularly noticeable among the able-bodied. The table in the margin shows, at all ages from 10 to 50, a marked deficit of females in the cities as compared with the rural area. The presence of the Civil and Military services at the headquarters, is one great factor in

this constitution of the population with reference to sex. The influence exercised by this circumstance may well be judged from the details noted in the

Piace	Males	Pemale
Military area in Jammu	1,650	219
m m Brinagar	1,884	720
Satwarl Cantonment	2,847	351
Military area in Gligit	C21	24

margin in respect to some of the military areas in the State. The sex proportion in cities has, at the same time, been undoubtedly affected by the purdah prejudice as it is only there that the families observing purdah muster strongest. This has specially been the case in Jammu town, where only 12,364 females have been re-

gistered against 19,362; a proportion of 12:19. These figures exclude the military population, and the existence of women in ordinary civil population to an extent even less than two-thirds can never be real. Another noteworthy point in the sex statistics of the cities is the larger number of female children, a fact which shows that the amenities of a civilized life are favourable to the female sex. The excess of old women noticeable in the case of Mohamedans may be due partly to the better care taken of them in the cities and partly to their employment in larger numbers for personal service.

175. The untrustworthiness of the vital statistics of the State has already been demonstrated in § 90 Chapter II. The record of Sex proporcasualties in the cities must, however, be taken to be pretions at birth pared with a relatively greater amount of care and thoroughness, and an abstract of it is printed as Appendix VI at the end of this chapter. The fact that the births in sterile Jammu should approach so nearly to the totals of Srinagar, a town more than four times as large and populated by the prolific Kashmiri, is internal evidence of the unreliability of these figures, but the excuse for their being printed here is furnished by the ground they give for forming a general, though rough, idea of the proportion of sexes at The male children out-number the female in almost all cases. Part of this state of the statistics is undoubtedly ascribable to the smaller care taken in reporting the birth of daughters, but the omissions that occur on this score do not wholly cover the actual deficiency in female births. This country therefore forms no exception to the general rule that more male children are born than female. And if we were to argue by analogy from

Religion		Loos	LITY
Rendios		Jammu	Srinagar
Hinda	••	61.6	71:7
Musalman	••	71.6	68.8

these incomplete statistics, it would further be noticed that fewer girls are born in Kashmir and among Mohamedans than in Jammu and among the Hindus. This will be apparent from the percentages noted in the margin. To push the process of deduction a step further these figures would imply a higher death-rate among the females of

the Jammu Province and the Hindu community\*.

176. Reference has already been made in § 168 to the general variations from census to census in the sex proparison portions for the State as a whole; the changes that Comparison with previous have occurred in the provinces may now be noted in the censuses The proportions in the actual and natural distinguished. In default of migration margin.

default of migration been populations have

PROVING		18	91	19	01 ,	19	011
PROVIN	UB	Actual	Natural	Actual	Natural	Actual	Natural
Jammu		869		883	862	887	880
Kashmir	••	889.	Not available	876	906	872	870
Frontier	••	927		933	956	978	972

figures relating to 1891, no comparison is possible with the proportion in the natural population of the census held in that year; and the figures for the two succeeding censuses concerning Jammu and Kashmir are vitiated by faulty classification of the emigration totals

furnished by the Provincial Superintendents because of the confusion in the significance of the terms Jammu and Kashmir explained in § 119 chapter III. It has been shown that Jammu has, in fact, lost, during the last decade, in the number of women because of their having succumbed in larger numbers to plague, but the figures in this abstract table signify an increase. This is because so few males (only 615 against 3,901) have been reported to have gone out from the province. The case of Kashmir is still worse; a very large number of emigrants from all other parts of the State were promiscuously shown at the last Census as having migrated from Kashmir, while all unspecified cases had this time to be thrown under the general head of the entire State, with the necessary result that the number has fallen from 80,179 to 2,822, and the circumstance has brought down the female proportion from 906 to 870. This would be clearer by a comparison of the proportion in the natural population of 1901 (906) with that in the actual of the same year (876), the latter implying a very large exodus of males. And as regards the Frontier, the rise from 956 to 972 is perfectly intelligible as being due to a larger egress of males because of improved communication.

As to variations by religion, an accurate comparison is precluded by

Religion	1891	1901	1911
A11	681	884	887
Rindu	848	858	853
Musalman	894	892	896
8ikh	821	801	853
Budhist	981	995	399

the impossibility of working out natural population in the absence of the emigration figures by religion either in respect to the present Census or the past; those worked on the basis of actual population are noted in the margin. The rise in the Hindu proportion at the last Census is easily accounted for by a better enumeration and the fall since is attributable to plague which pre-

which is chiefly populated by that community. The Musalman figure of the last Census is again affected by the erroneous classification of migrants; and as regards the Sikh the increase in their female population registered at the present Census signifies a freer import of the families of the traders and employes of that community; only a natural result of the improved sense of security now existing. The number of females among the Budhists has been growing steadily and constantly and the explanation undoubtedly is the

G.f. § 169 where it has been shown that Kashmir possesses a larger proportion of females than Jammu, and § 172 in the marginal table whereof the females among the Musalmans are found to be more numerous than among the Hindus.

greater efficiency that has been secured at each succeeding census in the enumeration of the remote and difficult country inhabited by those people.

177. The subject of female infanticide has already been touched more than once, but the relation it bears to the question of sex is so important that yet another reference has to be made to it at this stage. The belief of the old type Rajput, with infanticide and neglect false notions of honour, that the fact of his having a daughter of female whom he would ultimately have to give away in marriage children to some one was in itself a source of disgrace, coupled with the impoverishing marriage expenditure he had to incur, acted as a powerful cause to his giving short shrift to the female children born to him. ordinary method was to immerse the newly-born child in a jar of milk and thus to suffocate it to death. All the district officers report that the practice exists no longer in the State, but the sex proportions as discussed above do not wholly justify this optimistic view of the matter. With the general advance made in law and order, a strong curb has, indeed, been placed on such savage tendencies, but the fact that this part of the country is still far removed from the influence of real civilization, should never be lost sight of and if upon a closer scrutiny the suspicions aroused by the Census statistics should materialize, it may be found necessary to strengthen the hands of the executive by placing a special Female Infanticide Act upon the Statute Book of the State. The other practice that has a strong bearing on the sex constitution of the population is the relatively smaller care exercised in bringing up female children. The desire to have male children in preference to female is certainly common to all classes of the people here, but the female issue is not looked down upon with a keenness verging upon hatred which might lead to wilful neglect in its nurture except by those very people who once overtly practised female infanticide. On the contrary, all over the hills and kandi tracts of Jammu, where the custom of cross-marriages obtains, the female offspring has to be brought up with as much care as the male, if the family is at all to flourish and propagate. The scope, therefore, for the prevalence of this practice is very narrow even in the Province of Jammu where alone such ideas can exist. In every other part of the country, female children are as much looked after as the male progeny. These are the very conditions, it may further be noted, that preclude all suspicion as to the occurrence of any abortions in consequence of a prognostication that the sex of the child is to be female. Among the sections of the people averse to widow-marriage, however, instances of this crime may occasionally occur, but they can never come up to much and may safely be treated as a negligible factor. On the other hand, even among the Hindu tribes of the hills of Jammu, the widow, as will be seen in the next chapter, is at full liberty to beget children to her deceased husband, and the children so born posthumously are recognised as legitimate, irrespective of their parentage, provided they are born within the house of the deceased.

178. The majority of the people being so indifferent as to the sex of their children, and the state of their civilization being so -Causation of primitive and crude, little can be looked for in the way of views, scientific or the reverse, regarding the control of sex while the child is in course of gestation; but it may not be without interest to describe such beliefs in regard to this matter as are held here even by the small minority that do care for these things. The first thought of these ignorant people turns to superstition, and recourse is had to charms and amulets; vows are made to gods and goddesses by the Hindus and to the shrines of holy-men by the Musalmans; the Bodh refers his desire for the male child to the ubiquitous Lama. The popular belief in the lower regions of Jammu Province, as probably in the Punjab also, is that a male child is conceived on odd days and a female on even, count being taken from the date on which the period of menstruation comes to an end; but the vagueness that exists in all such ideas may be gauged from the fact that some people hold just the opposite view. Another cognate theory is that conception occurring, after the monthly-course, when the moon is waxing results in the production of a male child and that taking place when the moon is on the wane results in a female child. Then, there is the belief that the stronger sex tends to procreate its like, and strength can of course be adjusted at will to regulate the sex of children. This is essentially a Hindu theory, and seems to be the basis of the provision, in religious books, of an older age for the husband\*.

No information was procurable as to ceremonies directed to obtain male children as they can only exist among the Rajputs and other higher castes who value such offspring and depreciate the female, and their aversion to giving any information of a nature so directly connected with their women-folk has been repeatedly pointed out. The Hindus in the lower Jammu seem to be aware of garbhadhan, but that is too well-known an institution everywhere else in India to admit of any description in the Census Report of Kashmir State.

Female mortality and its etiology the factors determining sex proportions in India one thing is more important than another, it is the rate of mortality and its etiology among females. The point is of special application to this State whose primitive conditions are so favourable to it. Recourse has once more to be had to the defective vital statistics available here. The table given in the margin displays death-rates per mille calculated from the statistics relating to the two

CLASS	JA	ммо	BRIX	AGAR
CMASE .	Maio	Pemale	Male	Female
Rindu	167	254	106	106
Musalman	196	268	202	111
Total	914	294	103	110

cities for the two main classes, the Hindus and the Musalmans. The rate of death, it will be observed, is much higher in the case of females than males, and this is just what the facts and circumstances related above have strongly been pointing to. The slightly higher rate among the Hindus (of Jammu) is indeed due to certain practices peculiar to them such as neglect of female

children, infant marriaget, premature sexual intercourse and child-bearing, but the fact that there is not much difference in the general rate between the Hindus and Musalmans clearly indicates that the principal cause of the higher mortality is one common to both classes, and this is the highly unsatisfactory state of arrangements for accouchement, if such they can be called. Mention has already been made of the matter in § 156 of the last chapter, and all that need be said now is that the provision of a well-organised and extensive service of qualified and trained midwives is a crying need of the country. The philanthropic work carried on in this direction by the Missionary Societies at Srinagar and Islamabad is indeed very creditable but, compared to the actual needs of the people, is but a drop in the ocean.

Social position portion of sex is the relative status of the two sexes in society. Von Mayr and Kirchhoff have, in their review of the statistics of the last Indian Census, pointed out that a general tendency was observable for the proportion of women to rise according to the estimation in which they are held; and it is surprising to note how well this is illustrated by the new figures of this State. The proportion of women, it has been seen above, is the lowest among the Hindus,

The following signs believed to indicate the sex of the child may also be noted: (1) a feeling of lingtness and cheerfulness on the part of the pregnant woman, (2) a desire for good and wholesome food and fruits, (3) late setting in of lactation, darkness of the nipples, heaviness of the right breast and thickness of milk in consistency, (4) late but smart quickening sensation, (5) brightness in the eyes and (6) lifting of the right leg first while walking, indicate a male and the converse symptoms a female child. In the Agency ilaqas on the frontier, the vision in dream, by some relation of the woman, of a gun, a dagger, an apple, or a bequet of roses, foretells the birth to her of a male child, and of a needle, a sword, a small knife, a handkerchief or a single rose indicates the sex of the coming child to be female.

<sup>†</sup> Early-marriage, as will appear from the marriage statistics dealt with in the next chapter, is practised even by some Musalman families of Ja nmu who retain Hindu customs.

especially of the lower regions of Jammu, and the following is a brief historical account of the position of women among the Hindus everywhere as also here:

"The position of woman in India has changed with social conditions. Four periods may be distinguished: (1) Pre-Vedic, (2) Vedic, (3) Brahmanic. (4) Decadent, still going on: At first the woman was esteemed as equal to man, but now she has become his slave. The daughter is the property of her father, the wife the slave of her husband. Parents arrange their children's marriages and there can be no dissolution of them. The first duty of a wife is to bear a son. Boys are valued far more than girls."

It is, however, neither the past history, nor the position allowed to women by the laws of the various nationalities, with which we are so much concerned. The present local conditions alone need be referred to and these undeniably are that while among the Dugars of all classes in Jammu the woman holds a subservient position, the Musalman woman all over the State enjoys a position of absolute equality and as to the Budhist woman in Laddakh, she virtually rules the situation. The proportions rise accordingly. This principle is further corroborated by the relatively greater freedom enjoyed by the Balti woman with all the liberties of the *Muta* system of marriage; of all the Mohamedan tracts in this State the proportion of females is the highest in Baltistan.

Woman as worker but in view of the relation it bears to sex proportion, it may not be out of place to say at this stage that, excluding the few purdah-observing families engaged in service and trade, the women of all other sections of the people and especially of the agricultural and serving classes, take a practical part in the avocations of their husbands and fathers. This is more evident in the case of women in the North and East. The part taken by females in the work of the family does not, as is believed, produce any detrimental effect on their health and life. On the contrary, it is supposed to give more strength and endurance and fits the women for a healthier and more useful life.

182. This chaper may best be concluded by recording, seriatim, in a categorical form the inferences drawn from the foregoing Conclusion remarks: (1) Although there have been some omissions owing to certain social and religious practices, especially in the case of Jammu city, the new statistics show, on the whole, a real state of distribution of the sexes in the country. The possibility of omissions has been minimised by improved efficiency secured at each succeeding enumer ation; (2) The general deficiency of females is quite genuine; (3) This is chiefly due to the high female mortality, particularly at the child-bearing age; (4) The number of women is smaller in the plains of lower Jammu and of Kashmir, and is excessive on the higher altitudes of the hills in the interior (5) The Aryan races inhabiting the lower regions of Jammu Province seem disposed naturally to a shortage of women, while the Mongolians of Lad dakh have a superabundance of them; (6) Lastly, determination of the laws governing the distribution of sexes lies within the scope of purely technical sciences like physiology, anthropology and ethnology, but from a merely sociological point of view it is, indeed, interesting to notice the connexion existing between the social position of woman and the excess in her numbers that the figures of this State certainly disclose; the esteem and the proportion of females rise progressively in the case of Hindus, Musalmans and Bodhs\*.

<sup>\*</sup> This is a theory which holds good more forcibly in the case of European countries with excessive female proportions.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I—General proportions of the sexes by Natural

Divisions and Districts

<b>!</b>		Number	R OF FEMAL	ES TO 1,000	MALES	
DISTRICT AND NATURAL DIVISION	191	1*	19	oi	18	91
District and Statement Division	Actual population	Natural population	Actual population	Natural population	Actual population	Natural populatio
- 1 .	2	8	4	5	6	7
ENTIRE STATE	887	881	884	888	881	878
I.—The Submontane and Semi- mountainous Tract	846	818	*1*	***	•••	•
Jammu District	808	882	.,,			P.,,
Jasrota , (Jasmirgarh and Kathua ) tehsils only)	820.	778		***	<b></b>	•••
Mirpur District (Bhimber and Mirpur tehsils only)	913	891	***	***		•••
II.—The Outer Hills	916	920	4++	***	•••	***
Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only)	911	945	,			
Mirpur , (Kotli , , , ) Udhampur ,	235 894	922 900		•••		
Riasi	897	908		***		***
Bhadarwah Jagir	977	1,038	961	991	933	•••
Punch Ilaqa	926	925	895	908	892	•••
Jammu Province	887	880	883	862	869	***
III.—The Jhelum Valley (Kash-) mir Province)	872	870	876	906	889	,4
Kashmir North	884	877	•••	,		***
" South	864	865		***	*** ,	•••
Kashmir Valley Muzaffarabad District	878 871	889 881	854	883 920	886 850	•••
IV.—The Indus Valley (Frontier ) Districts)	978	972	938	956	927	•••
Laddakh District Gilgit ,,	1,002 859	1,005 935	***	•••	***	***

The proportions of 1911 in this table, as well as in all others of this chapter, are based on the totals as given in Table VII which exclude the population of the Frontier Hagas as also of the Mansar village where the details of age and civil condition were not recorded.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II—Number of females per 1,000 males at different age-periods by religions at each of the last three censuses

	Ārī	RELIG	ions		Ніўпр		M	(DSYT)N	NN ,		Sikn	•	Bupnist		
¥GB	1891	1901	1911	1891	1901	1911	1891	1901	1911	1891	1901	1911	1891	1901	1911
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
0—1 1—2 2—3 3—4 4—5	1,002 983 989 1,008 951	982 904 1,005 1,023 961	980 955 982 986 952	982 976 966 1,001 976	897 880 1,029 1,037 1,023	965 945 984 982 962	1,006 989 995 1,010 944	1,000 909 1,002 1,021 947	985 956 979 985 948	725 984 961	1,063 875 867 933 918	854 804 1,000 1,027 950		1,034 1,242 1,048 1,026 1,023	1,238 1,155 1,074
Total 0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-25 25-30	988 895 733 875 1,033 965	983 918 802 867 1,038 947	974 928 806 892 1,018 945	981 906 707 850 966 902	978 958 728 850 980 860	973 751 885 917	995 891 740 884 1,063 996	984 909 823 872 1,061 986	974 917 819 894 1,050 972	880 768 866 995	944 821 702 800 872 863	932 897 773 836 1,032 980	1,048 966 981 1,017 969 1,012	1.040 960 969 934 1,052 915	1,000
Total 0-30 30-40 40-50 50-60 60 & over	916 875 824 743 745	1,012 825 847 767 824 822	924 849 856 769 733	888 827 786 746 759 789	889 795 798 748 942 813	809 819 749 753	926 894 839 736 764	929 836 866 771 761 822	931 862 868 773 720	867 695 609 730	833 770 754 674 724 741	895 819 807 687 673 769	968 991 976 968 959	974 813 923 1,036 1,412 1,018	1,014 981 1,011 1,011 974 981
Total all ages (actual population)	881	<b>Ş</b> 84	857	848	858	853	294	892	896	821	801	853	981	991	999
Total all ages (natural population)*	878	888	881	,	۸.			<i></i>							•••

Variations by religion in the proportions for natural population could not be worked out for want of detail of religion in migration figures. Even the new figures of emigrants were not supplied by religion by the Provincial Superintendents.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III—Number of females per 1,000 males at different age-periods by religion and natural divisions (Capsus of 1911)

	•		1		Submo. 11-mount Tract	PUONIAT		. 1	I.—Тпе	Оптев	Hills			Jam	MU Pro	VINCE			ll.—T LLEY (I V			-	IV.—T1		s VALLI		NTIER
	Agr		All Religions	Hindu	Musalman	Sikh	Buddist	All Religions	Hindu	Musalman	Síkh	Buddist	All Religions	Hindu	Musalman	Sikh	Budhist	All Religions	Hindu	Musalman	Sikh	Brudhist	All Religions	Hinda	Musolman	Sikh	Badbist
	1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16_	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
	0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5	***	946 917 941 960 942	921 934 929 954 934	964 903 942 962 962	943 939 1,845 1,094 1,000		1,014 958 972 990 951	1,031 963 1,018 1,005 994	1,011 960 958 987 933	883	2,000 2,000 1,500 1,000 1,000	986 943 961 979 950	975 980	995 943 954 979 942	900 783 953 938 1,045	2,000 2,000 1,500 1,000 1,000	968 946 987 987 937	900 894 1,059 1,001 951	973 950 983 985 938	802 826 1,047 1,107 865		1,028 1,065 1,073 1,025 1,086	1,286 667 750 1,250 1,000	1,018 1,045 1,067 1,018 1,076	2,000	1,096 1,234 1,150 1,076 1,160
ŀ	Total 0-5		946	933	954	1,042	<b></b>	982	1,008	974	893	1,250	989	970	968	939	1,250	968	963	969	927	7	1,051	1,043	1,042	800	1,129
	5—10 10—15 15—20 20—25 25—30	•••	901 743 843 896 900	907 687 805 842 866	897 799 885 1,079 941	839 671 781 992 753		953 830 980 1,126 967	1,051 832 1,027 1,055 912	919 829 888 1,119 1,001	870 735 925 1,053 1,134	1,138 1,555 1,385 1,545 1,000	932 794 924 1,024 938	754 911	819 935 1,086	860 744 812 1,030 860	1,555 1,385 1,545	994	965 731 675 769 811	919 816 872 1,007 969	954 807 870 1,051 1,034		936 867 865 1,113 876	765 444 154 77 41	928 1,066 846 1,442 930	4,000 4,000 300 100 250	991 978 996 996 919
l	Total 0-30		875	841	909	839	***	962	979	951	880	1,385	925	907	. 937	866	1,263	918	828	923	931	ı	966	125	969	465	1,001
	30—40 40—50 50—60 60 and over	•••	820 951 742 729	792 816 725 736	850 891 755 724	762 848 641 741	***	889 869 811 741	860 840 785 772	907 888 837 719	684	841 962 1,400 636	860 861 781 736			830 849 666 688	962	825 748	685 750 - 681 694	814 830 754 653			1,019 1,003 804 1,062	38 17	710		980 1,011 1,007 978
	Total 30 & over		798		820	762	1	840	824	854	791	906	823			782	,	i I	704	781		o	899	32	1,019	129	883
	Total all ages (a tual population Total all ages (n tural population	) a- {	846 81ε	816	876 	810 <sub>]</sub>		916 920	911	919	851 	1,142	887 880		904	836	1,142 	872 870	779 	877 	877	7 	978 972	·	986	324	996

<sup>\*</sup>The Budhists being not indigenous to these natural divisions afford no basis for comparison.
† The Provincial Superintendents did not supply the detail by religion of emigrants from this State; hence the proportions could not be worked out for each religion separately.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV

Number of females per 1,000 males for certain selected castes

CASTE		•	Nume	er of ye	MALES PE	R 1,000 m	IALES	<del></del> , .
		All ages	0—5	512	12—15	15—20	20-40	40 and over
. 1		2	8	4	5	6	7	8
			Hir	du			<del></del>	
Arora '	***	667	946	809	696	674	612	575
Brahman	***	866	974	1,042	656	762	870	813
Chamiar	***	896	1,002	952	637	1,008	971	750
Kashmiri Pundit	***	793	964	973	629	667	757	741
Mogh	***	1,008	1,108	983	812	983	1,045	838
Rajput		701	581	621	444	663	797	777
Thakkar	***	894	1,072	1,008	740	800	874	861
				lman		_	1	
Awan	***	855	969	854	691	931	908	735
Brukpa	***	978	990	865	874	1,006	1,083	965
Balti	***	1,024	1,192	899	886	834	1,078	1,077
Bat	•••	856	965	855	816	847	877	762
Bains	***	1,013	939	856	711	1,072	1,418	888
Chibh	***	990	955	797	757	1,073	1,211	974
Dar	***	854	983	862	805	888	875	772
Ganai	•••	866	955	898	772	825	877	797
Gujjar	***	847	944	875	737	936	863	726
Gakkhar	***	962	1,007	901	959	983	1,010	916
Навјі	•••	841	915	831	762	l 820	843	826
Jat	***	958	877	859	872	999	1,183	832
Malik	***	974	1,057	980	925	1,005	998	876
Megh	***	937	316	1,286	833	1,857	1,103	750
Mughal	***	880	953	883	796	907	937	766
Pathan	***	831	1,013	954	801	850	810	633
Sayed	****	895	966	911	775	914	955	781
Shin	***	678	857	652	879	532	693	559
Yashkun		1,041	1,178	984	855	1,054	1,152	855

APPENDIX VI

Birth statistics of the two cities for the last decade

		BIRTHS IN															
YEAR		Jamed City								SRINAGAR CITY							
		Hindn		Musalman		Others		Total		Hinda		Musalman		Others		Total	
		Male	Female	Malo	Female	Malo	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1957*		48	84	72	72	12	24	132	180	24	86	348	72	-:-	<u>-</u>	372	108
1958		55	43	65	84	24	18	144	95	25	14	157	119	1	1	-183	134
1959		223	174	204	141	81	61	508	376	59	69	356	306		2	415	860
1960		202	159	158	189	55	47	410	845	98	55	<b>5</b> 05	405	8		600	460
1961		167	156	146	108	68	47	381	311	78	67	310	195	1	1	389	<b>2</b> 53
1962		191	145	139	82	52	85	382	262	85	5/7	286	212			871	269
1963	***	174	132	119	97	38	47	831	276	81	77	288	198			382	275
1964		144	88	101	75	42	45	287	208	95	60	242	152	1	1	338	213
1965		148	111	, 84	54	87	43	<del>2</del> 69	208	80	51	205	147			285	198
196 <b>G</b>		112	95	83	51	32	35	227	181	67	42	196	163	3		260	205
1967		120	107	107	52	37	27	264	186	75	49	203	150		1	278	200
Total		1,584	1,294	1,273	905	478	429	<b>3</b> ,335	2,628	780	657	8,096	2,118	9	6	3,885	2,681
Mean		158	129	127	91	48	43	334	263	78	56	310	212	1	1	389	285

The figures for this year have been worked out from the actuals of a single month.

#### CHAPTER VII

#### CIVIL CONDITION—(MARRIAGE)

#### Part I.—Descriptive

183. To read the marriage statistics of any country aright, some knowledge of the marriage customs of its people is absolutely necessary; hence this chapter will be prefaced with a Introductory brief account of the religious ideas and social practices remarks connected with marriage that prevail among the various peoples and in different parts of this State. The chapter is accordingly divided into two parts, one dealing with a description of matrimonial customs and the other with a discussion of the marriage statistics in the light of those customs. The ordinary forms and practices of marriage as obtaining among the prominent sections of the population here are similar to those in the Punjab, and scarcely need recapitulation. Some, again, are described in §§ 5 and 6 at page 81 and others at pages 88 to 94 of the last Census Report of the State. It is only the new information collected on the present occasion which is proposed to be given in as much detail as is consistent with the scope of this report. The points will be taken up in the order of their natural evolution.

184. In the earliest stages of human society, there could obviously have existed hardly any restrictions as regards the relations between the sexes. This may well be inferred Promiscuity by a priori reasoning, but even at the present day, instances are to be met with of indiscriminate sexual intercourse among barbarous people living in extremely backward parts of India, as in other parts of the world. In a country physiographically and socially so backward as are most remote parts of this State, one would have looked for numerous instances of this primitive state of society, but since it has been the main route by which the Aryan, Mongolian and Semitic civilizations entered India in the past, and every part of the land has been under Brahmanic, Budhistic and Islamic influences at one time or another, there is little wonder that no trace\* exists now in it of promiscuous cohabitation between the two sexes, in its crudest form. That it must have existed in the period of aboriginal supremacyt will, however, transpire from the existence of certain other forms of sexual relation, which though evolved latterly are yet opposed to all civilized conceptions of matrimony.

185. Promiscuity, all the world over, was succeeded by the system Matriarchate known as 'Mother-kin', under which, owing to the difficulty in affiliating children in the promiscuous state of society, descent came to be traced from women and property transmitted in the female line. The change was, no doubt, more juridical than social, but the constitution of family which emanated from that system was distinctly the reverse of what it is now in most countries and among all civilized people.

Turning to this country, it is noticed that although Sialkot, the land of the Vahikas of Mahabharat, among whom inheritance took place through females, is so near Jammu, the matriarchal form of sexual relation does not exist at present in any section of the Hindu population either of Jammu district or its neighbourhood. On the contrary, the inferior position; assigned to woman by the matrimonial systems of all strictly Hindu communities of the present day is diametrically opposed to the importance of

The recognition in Laddakh of sexual communion out of free love should not be taken as an instance of promiscuity. It occurs when the pair agree to marry each other independently of their parents' wishes, and the supposition is that they perform the marriage ceremonics claudestinely.

<sup>†</sup> Some low castes, which are only remnants of the aborigines, are still seen living by prostituting their women; the Kanjars, the Berias and the Nats are instances of this in the Punjab and United Provinces, and the Watals and the Hanjis in Kashmir.

<sup>‡</sup> C. f. § 180, page 130, last chapter.

the female sex so indissolubly associated with the system of 'Mother-right'. There are, however, certain very backward tracts in the interior of the country where traces of such practices may still be observed. The practice, among the hill-men of Kishtwar, of an unmarried girl sometimes starting procreation of children, while still living in her father's house, may be cited as an instance. The children so born during maidenhood may, when the woman comes to be married, either be claimed by the husband or be left behind in the father's house. In the latter event, they inherit equally with the children of the brother. This sometimes takes the form of fictitiously marrying the girl to a pillar (thambh) of her father's house and leaving her free to carry on sexual connexion with any one she pleases. The Thambhan sub-caste of Thakkars is believed to have originated from this custom. The system of Khanadamadi so prevalent in all parts of the State, under which the son-in-law has to live with the wife in the father-in-law's house, should, however, not be taken as a remnant of mother-kin, as it is rather an expedient to conserve the family property than a vestige of matriarchate as a marital custom. It is confined to the case of persons having no male issue.

186. The next stage in social development in regard to sexual relation is plurality of husbands, and this is still found among the Polyandry Bodhs of Laddakh district and Padar ilaga in both its forms, matriarchal as well as fraternal. The former, which is but a modified form of communism or promiscuity, is represented by the custom of admitting a stranger (locally called Farsúkh) into the family, who shares the wife along with the income of the family property, and assists in all agricultural work and other business of the house. This happens only when the man has no brothers of his own to help him in the cultivation of his landst, and as such its occurrence is very rare. Polyandry of the fraternal type, however, exists in the most undisguised form in all parts of the State where Budhism has still a hold. All the brothers, except such as elect to become Lamas or pass over into other families as khanadamads (mukhpa), live jointly and have but one wife common to them all. The position of the younger brothers is, though, one of inferiority. It is the eldest brother who undergoes the wedding formalities, the younger have only to promise that they This agreement, which is generally in writing, is will remain united. strictly enforced and faithfully carried out. The brothers share the favours of the wife equally, though on sufferance of the eldest. No hard and fast rules seem to exist as to the allotment of the woman's time and attention among her husbands, but one of the local officers has reported that, like the Tottyans of Southern India, the Laddakhi Budhists will not enter their house should its doors be closed and a pair of man's shoes be lying in front. The children produced jointly by all the brothers from the common wife are regarded at law to be of the eldest, and the rule of primogeniture governs inheritance to the family property. Although polyandry is now confined to the Budhists, its former prevalence elsewhere may be judged from the liberties ‡ that younger brothers are allowed to take with the wives of their elder brothers and the preferential claim they have to their widows. The common practice, in the higher hills of Jammu, of the widows being permitted to beget children in their husband's house by his brothers and cousins can be treated as nothing but a survival of fraternal polyandry.

The chief reason assigned for the fact why polyandry, in its crudest shape, still subsists in Laddakh, while it has died out everywhere else in the State, is

<sup>\*</sup>This and other similar practices representing a survival of barbarism are becoming rarer as the people are rising in the scale of civilization.

<sup>†</sup>The Pachhango custom reported to be current even among the Hindus of Padar ilaqa seems to be but a romant of this type of polyandry and represents the existence of Budhistic influence of yore. According to this custom an old man happening to possess a young wife imports an outsider to beget children for him. He lives in the same house and assists in the cultivation of family lands.

<sup>‡</sup> It is a common practice perhaps all over India for the younger brothers to cut jokes at the expense of the wives of the elder brothers. The custom may be only a relic of fraternal polyandry existing in the earlier stages of human society,

the meagreness of the natural resources of that country. A strong check is exercised on expansion of the population by the reduction that polyandry causes in the number of procreating agencies. That the method has not failed to secure its end is evident from the contrast that the teeming numbers of the Baltis and of the local Mohamedans in Laddakh present to the sparse population of the Budhistic tracts. If, however, the custom is based on any design at all and is not merely one of the stages of the natural development of social conditions, the real object of it would seem to be a conservation of ancestral property which is by this means saved from being divided up into small parts as is now the case in the neighbouring country of Baltistan, where the agricultural holdings are split into such fragmentary portions that no one of them can individually support a family. The result is that the Balti is distinctly a much poorer man than his Budhist confrere. He has to supplement his income by working as transport coolie and migrates to Kulu, Simla and other parts of the Punjab in search of employment, while the Laddakhi Bodh is seldom, if ever, seen anywhere outside his native

A necessary result of polyandry, it may well be imagined, is a far greater relaxation in the relations between the sexes, and the freedom with which one sees the woman in Budhistic Laddakh mixing with men is subversive of all ideas concerning the modesty, reserve and seclusion of the women gained in the country this side 'the Middle Ranges.' Free-love connexions are not rare and they, as also the progeny resulting therefrom, are afterwards recognised by society as quite legitimate. The surplus\* female population finds its way into the monasteries or passes over to the Musalman families. With the gradual advance in civilization concomitant with the opening up of the country, a distinct change is visible in public opinion in regard to this custom which has begun to be regarded with disfavour at least by the higher classes of the Budhist community, who following the example of the Kashmiris and Punjabis tend to become monogamous. The progress is, however, very slow and all the stages of transition may well be seen existing in the country—promiscuity, matriarchal polyandry, fraternal polyandry and monogamy.

Sexual laxity either before or after marriage does not exist here anywhere as a custom now, but the latitude enjoyed by Premarital young women in the higher hills of Jammu, among degenerate sections of society like Thakkars, Meghs, Chamiars, etc., is indeed great. There is, likewise, a wide and ultramarital communism option even for the married women to pass on from man to man according as their likes and dislikes may prompt. The incoming husband has, in such cases, only to compensate the outgoing by making a cash payment, Cases are also not unknown, in the same backward part of the country, of married women being allowed full liberty of intercourse with the cousins and caste people of the husband even during his life-time. The children of such connexions are also recognised as perfectly legitimate. These and other instances of this nature, however, ought not to be treated as particular cases of established usage; they are only due to the low level of the general standard of sexual morality that exists among these ignorant, and uncivilized tribes.

188. It is at the stage of monogamy that the natural balance of the two sexes comes to be restored, but the swing of changes in Polygamy the sexual relations does not rest there. It is now the man's turn to assert his liberty and his infringement of the rule of nature finds expression in such forms of matrimony as bigamy, polygamy and so forth. In a country so essentially Mohamedan one would expect a great deal of polygamy, but the poor agricultural people of which the

<sup>\*</sup> The restriction placed on the export of women from this country according to which a permit has to be presented at the Khaltsi Bridge of the Indus indicates the existence, in former days, of a practice of transporting a portion of this surplus to countries beyond Laddakh. Of this there is absolutely none at present.

Musalman population of the State is chiefly composed, can little afford to have more than one wife at a time. Barring a few instances among the well-to-do people, a second wife is not brought in even by other classes and communities except on the occasions and for the objects following:

- (1) Assistance in agricultural work,
- (2) ,, pastoral ,
- (3) Barrenness of the first wife,
- (4) Any bodily defect or infirmity in her,
- (5) Incompatibility of temper,
- (6) The appropriation of brothers' or cousins' widows.

As a lawful institution polygamy is recognised here by the Hindus, the Budhists, the Sikhs and the Musalmans alike, but it is only in the case of the last that there is any statutory limit to the number of wives. The Budhists usually bring in a second wife (called changchung) when the first is either barren or over-prolific, the necessity in the latter case being that she can spare no time from the nurture of her children for household duties. The subsequent wives, it need hardly be mentioned, are also jointly enjoyed by all the brothers. The fact that the keen jealousy and bitterness in domestic life so characteristic of plurality of wives among the more advanced people of the lower Jummu is almost lacking in the case of the agricultural and pastoral tribes of the interior may be mentioned as a local peculiarity. In Gilgit this absence of ill-will is so conspicuous that not only are the co-wives on the best of terms, but even their children live afterwards in perfect amity and harmony. A contrast to the system of polygamy is presented by the set custom among the Meghs here of not marrying a second wife as long as the first one is alive. They are strictly monogamic.

189. Among the higher castes here the rules of endogamy and exogamy are observed with as much strictness as is notice-Endogamy, able in the Hindu world elsewhere, but the general popuexogamy and prohibited lace, especially in the interior of the country, seems to be little affected by such restrictions. The twice-born, particudegrees larly those under orthodox Brahmanic influence, do have endogamous castes and sub-castes and exogamous groups\*, but the lower castes, though having some vague notions of zat and biradri, do not tie themselves down to all the limitations of the gotra system. The Brahmans of Kashmir, with all their knowledge of Shastric rules, are necessarily very particular about the rules of endogamy and exogamy, but they are in no way hampered in securing proper matches, as the Kashmiri Pundits form a self-contained and self-sufficient community. The Sikhs and Budhists are, on the other hand, far more liberal in this respect. Among the latter no caste system in the true sense of the term exists, but there are certain distinctions, based on purely social position, to be confined within which for matrimonial purposes is considered desirable. The Gyalpo clan that once ruled the country would, for instance, not give a daughter to any other clan of the Rigzang class but may accept one from the latter. The Budhists have no exogamous groups, truly speaking, but they do not marry their close. relations (khandan and kunba). As to Musalmans, those of the Jammu Province and more particularly of Rajput affinities, retain some of the Hindu rules governing matrimonial relationship, but all others are guided by the dictates of Islam in this connexion. The general body of the Kashmiri Musalmans contract marriages most promiscuously, even though the families socially high endeavour to marry within their own social level. Tribal limits are also recognised in Gilgit, and a Shin would not ordinarily marry a Yashkun. As regards prohibited degrees, an exhaustive list is given in the Quran of the relationships through consanguinity, marriage and lactation, marital

The sapindas cannot marry within seven degrees on the father's and five on the mother's side. The prohibited degrees among the lower castes are, however, narrower and much less binding,

connections within which are impossible and would be incestuous\*. These rules are strictly observed by all the Mohamedans here. Those of Gilgit, however, seem to retain their old Budhistic notions when they are reported to disfavour marriage amongst relatives.

190. Cousin marriage or cross-cousin marriage in the form in vogue among certain tribes in Southern India does not exist Cousin in any part of the State. The preference that the marriage Musalmans give to marriage between cousins stands on quite a different footing; it is based on the desire to keep the family as immaculate from foreign blood as possible, and that is why, in marriage default of a match from the circle of consanguinity, alliance is sought from families with which there may have been marriage relations before. Two exceptions to the general conditions in regard to cousin marriage have. however, come to notice here: (a) The Gilgit Musalmans have a peculiar crotchet against marrying the daughter of a mother's sister, and (b) the Gorkha immigrants lay a preferential claim to the hand of the daughter of the maternal uncle. The one is obviously a survival of the Budhistic practices and the other may have its origin in the local customs of the Gorkha country (Nepal).

191. Hypergamy, in the sense in which the term is used in Indian Census. is practised in this State only by the Rajputs and a few higher Hypergamy sections of Brahmans who are immigrants from the Punjab The Pahari Brahmans, Thakkars, Gaddis and all other and elsewhere. classes are more 'isogamous' than hypergamous. The natural desire of marrying daughters into a family socially higher is common to all communities; it exists among the Sikhs, Bodhs and Musalmans equally, but that is an outcome more of expediency than custom or tradition. It need hardly be pointed out that such considerations have little weight among the original inhabitants of the State who live in the interior of the country and amongst whom the uncivilized practices already described are largely rife. Whatever ground these ideas may have gained among the people here, has been acquired from and by the example of the higher Hindu classes especially the Rajputs. Among the latter, even as between the sub-castes of undisputed nobility of birth, there are minute distinctions as to which can give and which can take girls in marriage and these limitations are adhered to with great pride. It is this practice that has led to the distinction that exists between the *Ekchra* and *Dohra* clans. The former sections of a caste or sub-caste are those which can contract only a one-sided match, that is to say, they can accept only the daughters of the other party for marriage with their sons, but, because of their superiority in the social scale, cannot give their own daughters in marriage to the sons of that party. The Dohra classes exchange sons and daughters without any restriction. In fact marriages amongst them are settled only on a system of exchange. A, for instance, marries his son to B's daughter only if he has a daughter to give to B's son. One of the evil consequences of this is that the Ekehras have to pay cash t by way of compensation to Dohras when taking girls from the latter for marriage to their sons. This has led to making marriage

Refer Al Quran, Surah Al-nisa, Parah Lan-tana, where the following are given as prohibited degrees :

<sup>1.</sup> Mother, real, step or lactative ;

<sup>2.</sup> Daughters of all the above kinds; 13

<sup>4.</sup> Sisters of parents;

<sup>5.</sup> Nicces, both by brothers and sisters; 10. Free married woman.

<sup>6.</sup> Wife's mother;

<sup>7.</sup> Wife's sisters, during her life-time;

<sup>8.</sup> Mother's parents ;

<sup>9.</sup> Wives of sons;

<sup>†</sup> Cash payments for girls are largely made in all parts of the country except Kashmir proper, a fact which shows how greatly women are valued here. The cash payment is called the Rum in Punch, Muzaffarabad, etc., and Dum Dap in Gilgit. In Laddakh the bride-price is given in kind, mostly cloths, jewellery, etc., and is called Rinto. In Gilgit it is generally paid in gold by Tulus (a weight).

a merely mercenary affair\*. On the other hand the *Ekehra* classes may sometimes have to pay for boys from higher families†. That is, too, why such men of these classes as cannot afford to pay the bride-price remain unmarried.

- Some curious customs connected with marriage are met with in all countries and among all peoples; they only constitute the landmarks of their progress in civilization. Some are found in this country as well and salient points in regard to them may well be enumerated at this stage:
  - (a) Marriage by exchange is very common in Jammu Province, especially in the higher hills, so much so that a man having no daughter to give in exchange finds it very difficult to marry his sons and the difficulty has to be got over by means of cash payment if he can afford it. The necessary consequence is that the practice has degenerated into a sale of girls for purposes of marriage and a regular bargaining usually takes place before a match is settled. The system of exchange has such a strong hold upon the people in the hills of Jammu that in certain cases if a man has no daughter to give in exchange he promises to do it afterwards whenever one may be born to him. In Laddakh, instances of such cross-marriages are occasionally found among the local Musalmans but not the Bodhs.
  - (b) Marriage by service in its true sense is not prevalent here. The Pachhango of Padar and Farsukh of Laddakh described above may, however, be referred to as cases having a bearing on the subject. Again, it is a common practice among the Thakkars, Meghs, Dums, etc., of Udhampur District that a man has to serve gratis at his father-in-law's house for some time; before he is married. Any familiarity occurring between the pair during the period of probation is not reprobated; it only accelerates the marriage. This is also the case among the Jats and Pahari Brahmans in District Udhampur and the Meghs and Gaddis of Bhadarwah. Very rare instances of this may also be met with in Kashmir, but they can take place only among the most backward agricultural people inhabiting remote and isolated portions of the country. A converse case where woman is taken as wife and made to do the household work, is reported from Punch. The better-off Dhund of that ilaga sometimes marries a poor biradri woman and keeps her in his house in the capacity of a maid servant. Children born of her are treated as inferior; they are entitled only to maintenance and are called Gusarakhwars.
    - (c) <u>Betrothal among friends</u> of children yet unborn, is not known here as a custom, but cases do occur when two women friends happening to be both pregnant at the same time promise each other to marry their children should they be of opposite sexes and such promise if made is unflinchingly carried out.
    - (d) Mock marriages.—Enough has already been said of the marriage of a girl to the wooden post (thambh) of her father's house. It has only to be added that sometimes it is performed also in the case of a widow to avoid a scandal. Other instances of mimicing marriage are: (i) If a man loses two wives and wants to marry a third, he is first married to an Akor Madar plant (asclepias gigantea), or to some fruit-bearing tree, or to a doll or an effigy before contracting the actual marriage. This is supposed to avert all future mishaps both to the new wife and the man. The third marriage is considered to be very insuspicious and is by this means converted into a fourth; (ii) Then, there is what is called the Dokaja ceremony which is also the result of a superstition: A married woman is sometimes considered to be under the influence of an evil star, and this is generally when a delay occurs in her bearing a child; she feigns a quarrel with her husband and his people and leaves his house for somebody else's, the latter being treated as the house of her father (maika or peka). The husband fetches her back after performing a mock marriage with her; (iii) Lastly may be mentioned the custom among

<sup>\*</sup> Selling girls into marriage is a recognised custom among the tribes of Jammu hills. C.f. cl.(a) of the next section.

<sup>†</sup> This custom is denied by the higher classes.

In Gilgit the period of khanadamadi is never less than 12 years, after which the man may take his wife away, if he does not care to live in his father-in-law's house any longer.

- Rajputs of marriage by proxy with the husband's sword, generally resorted to when the parties happen to be at long distances from each other. Sporadic instances of this may occur even at the present day.
- (e) Marriage by capture.—Scarcely any trace of taking the woman away by force for the purpose of marriage should have been left in the present age of law, order and civilization, but occasional instances are said to occur on the borders of the State, especially on the side of Bhadarwah. Among the Sudhans of Punch and Muzaffarabad, the father of a girl contracted for marriage into a particular family sometimes changes his mind and thinks of marrying her into another house. The members of the family originally contracted with, on getting the information, take the girl away by force, whereupon the biradri people intervene and decree a retention of the girl by the abductors on payment of a double rate of the Rûm\*. The Census Officer of the same Ilaqa reports that in olden times the Kshattryas also used to capture women for the sake of marriage†.
- (f) Sale of women for purposes of marriage.—In days not far back, a regular trade in women was carried on here, and they used to be largely exported from various parts of the Jammu Province specially the upper portion of Riasi, Ramnagar, Basohli, Kishtwar, Bhadarwah, etc., into the lower plains not only of the Punjab but as far down as Sindh in the west, Rajputana in the south and various places in the east, and sold there for purposes of marriage. A good deal of fraud was practised in this connexion. These women generally hailed from the lower classes—Thakkars Meghs, Dums, Chamiars, etc.—but, being comparatively fair in complexion and attractive in features, were represented as belonging to higher castes and sold at high prices. Ordinarily, the girls were only seduced for this purpose by the wily persons who carried on this nefarious trade, but cases were not rare of the woman herself playing a conspiring part in the transaction. She would get herself sold in this way and enter into marriage with the purchaser or some one else in his family, would live there for some time and then abscond and return to her country bringing such valuables and jewellery as she might be able to lay hands on. All this continues to certain extent even to the present day, but the vigilance awakened now both among the officers of the State and outside tends in a great measure to suppress this evil. The present Governor of Jammu has in contemplation a scheme for further preventive measures in this direction.

193. Whatever the state of sexual relations may have been in the primitive stages of human society it is common experience, Effect of at any rate in India, that the virtue of chastity is civilization on more common in rural than urban areas. This may partly morality be due to the existence of greater temptations and opportunities in the latter, but has also for its cause the fact that the increased material comforts and luxury associated with town-life weaken greatly the restrictions on the moral sense that lead to chastity. Of this we have ample illustration in this State, where the simple village-folk (in every part of it) of both sexes possess a far stronger sense of chastity than can be claimed by their coevals in the bigger towns and cities. It is a well-known fact that the cleverer men from the lower regions and the plains who go into the interior of the hills on trade, service or other business often carry sin and perdition with them into the innocent households of the simple hill-men and have gone a great way in spoiling the morals of the people of Jammu Province at large.

On the other hand, it is impossible to deny that with the advance of civilization a peculiar tone of morality is created in society as a whole and a strong public opinion is formed which sets itself up against immoralities of all description. This is known to act as a great restraint upon the people, and the more advanced sections of the population here have, indeed, begun to display a far higher standard of sexual morality. The barbarous practices of oldendays are, as has been noticed, decreasing and disappearing day by day according as the people amongst whom they ever prevailed come in

Vide foot-note to Section 191 page 139.

<sup>†</sup> The system of the bridegroom going in procession with a large party, attended with drums, cymbals and other paraphernalia, so common all over India as also in all parts of the State—the Barat—may well be taken as a vestige of marriage by capture.

contact with civilization. As has been said in § 185, the primitive practices even among themselves have had a regular course of evolution—promiscuity, premarital communism, matriarchal and fraternal polyandry, monogamy, having succeeded one after another. As regards the males polygamy and bigamy are losing favour even among the people who have a religious permission for them, and there is an all-round improvement in both the sexes in their mutual relations.

194. Divorce is permissible only among Budhists and Musalmans who allow widow remarriage, but it is nowhere a common practice except in Baltistan where the women enjoy great liberty owing to the prevalence of the temporary matrice.

liberty owing to the prevalence of the temporary matri-monial arrangement known as *Muta*. The latter custom has gone far to demoralize the Baltis as a people; the changes in marriage contract are numerous and the necessary result is that the Balti woman compares ill. morally, even with the Laddakhi, notwithstanding the latter's polyandry. The method of divorcing used by the Laddakhi Budhists is curious. The husband and wife hold a sort of tug-of-war with a piece of yarn and matrimonial relations break asunder with the snapping of the thread. The grounds for a Bodh husband to seek divorce are (1) adultery\*, (2) hatred of the man by the woman, (3) any infirmity or incurable disease in the wife and (4) a confirmed habit of stealing. The woman can claim separation for (a) neglect and want of attention on the part of the husbands, (b) insufficient provision of food and dress and (c) abusive language, corporeal chastisement and general ill-treatment. If the fault leading to divorce is the woman's a horse or its value in cash (Rs. 20) has to be given by her to the man as compensation, and in the converse case the man has to give a cow or Rs. 12 to the woman. If one only of the several husbands wishes to divorce the common wife and the others do not, the simple solution for the dissatisfied husband is himself to leave the family with all its belongings.

only by a scrutiny of the statistics of civil condition with Age of reference to age, and this will be done later. Here, it will suffice to note that child-marriage is not as prevalent as one might expect in so antiquated a country. It is not found to any appreciable degree except among the Hindus. The Bodh, the Sikh and the Musalman all equally and as a rule, disfavour child marriage. The lower and agricultural classes of all the religions usually marry at a

The lower and agricultural classes of all the religions usually marry at a mature age, which is 16 to 20 in the case of females and 18 to 22 in that of males. Among the inhabitants of colder climes puberty is reached at a

relatively older age than in the warmer regions on the lower levels.

As regards the comparative age of the married couple, the bridegroom is as a rule older than the bride, the ordinary difference being one of 4 years. In Laddakh, however, the woman is frequently older and the marriage of a girl of sixteen to a boy of twelve is a common occurrence. The case of a very small girl being wedded to a very old man, though quite an extreme and very rare one, at times does occur, but it is scarcely one of ordinary matrimonial relationship and proceeds from monetary and other similar considerations. Another instance of inordinate difference between the ages of wife and husband has been reported from Laddakh: When a Bodh becomes very aged while his sons are still minors and incapable of managing the affairs of the family, he marries them to a well grown up woman, who brings them up and conducts the business of the house as long as they remain unfit to do so. On coming to age they get everything ready, the wife included.

† The Settlement Officer, Riasi, makes a special grievance of it, but it scarcely deserves the prominence he seeks to give it.

Mere suspicion will not suffice; the husband must, in order to set up a sure claim for divorce, catch the wife in the act.

<sup>†</sup> This ought not to be confounded with the custom prevalent among Badagas, Goundans, Vellalas, etc., of Southern India and Buriats of South Siberia, who not only import wives for their sons but also beget children from them on their behalf during their minority. The Laddakhi, on the contrary, treats the woman as one of his children.

The orthodox among the Hindus, Bodhs, Sikhs, etc., who believe in Astrology, attach much importance to the date and time when marriage is to be performed, but the rest of the people Marriage here only look to their convenience and celebrate weddings seasons at a time when they are at leisure and have also a sufficiency of grain, livestock and other wherewithal to give the necessary feasts and entertainments. The Hindus consider the month of Poh (Pus=15th December to 15th January) and Chetra (Chait=13th March to 13th April) highly inauspicious, and the Mohamedans try to avoid Moharrum (the month of mourning) and Ramzan (that of fasting). The interval between the two Ids is also considered inappropriate. As regards dates 3, 13, 23 and 8, 18 and 28 are considered unlucky numbers. Bodhs prefer Pus, the last month of their calendar, for marriage. As to seasons, the general rule is to avoid the rigours of the winter, but in Kishtwar and Gilgit the people reserve all their marriages for that season as that is their time of greatest leisure. There are no long spells of 'close season' for marriage, only the Hindus do not celebrate marriages in the course of Sanghasta (when the Sun passes through some inauspicious Sign of Zodiac) which may sometimes last for a period of 21/2 years. To the ignorant cultivator the only suitable season is when he has completed harvesting of his Kharif crops in October.

197. The ordinary rituals constituting the binding part of marriage are the same as are performed in the Punjab, viz., the Lawan or Phera\* (with Kaniadan or Shanklap of the Marriage bride) among the Hindus, the Anand-riti among the ceremonies Sikhs, and the Nikah and Sigha of Mohamedans, Sunnis and Shias respectively. Among the Budhists the family Lama officiates at the marriage ceremony; he recites texts from the Holy Books of Budhism, and performs a Puja which is locally called Yanguk. It is also customary among the Musalmans and Bodhs to reduce the terms of marriage to writing (Kabin Namah). The former record the amount of Mehr (dower-money) settled, and in the case of the latter the consent of the bridegroom is given in writing to the bride. The Budhist document also contains an undertaking that the brothers of the bridegroom will not separate and that all the property of the joint family shall be inherited by the children of the woman being married. The ceremony performed in marriage with a widow is known as Chadar Andazi (or as in Bhadarwah and in its neighbourhood Balu Dori, Ralu being an ornament for the nose). It is a much simpler affair. Among the Hindus of Jammu the consummation of marriage is preceded by Maklawa ceremony corresponding to Gauna of the United Provincest. The Pundits of Kashmir perform a special ceremony called the Zooj when the bride attains puberty.

- 198. Mention has been made of causation and divination of sex of the child in the last chapter (§§ 177 and 178 pages 129 and 130), and of couvade there does not seem to exist any trace here except that the practice, in Laddakh, of the man not leaving the house during his wife's 'confinement' may be regarded as an instance or the nearest approach to it. He will also not cross a stream, channel or other flowing water for some specified length of time after the child-birth. Of other birth customs the following peculiar ones need alone be mentioned:
  - (1) Nature of name-giving.—The Hindus give a name to the child on the 12th or 17th day of its birth, the Musalmans usually on the 7th at the time of the Aqiqa (tonsure), but the Budhists leave the child unnamed for two or three years, accosting it, the meanwhile, with generic terms like Digpa (male) and Digmo (female). The Musalmans in Laddakh select a

This is no other than the Bhanwar or Bhaunri ceremony of Hindustan. The Pundits in Kashmir call it "Laggan," which comes on after Deogun'.

<sup>†</sup> The performance of these after-marriage ceremonies is considered to constitute a great check on premature sexual intercourse and one of the District officers of Jammu Province deplores the endeavours of the present day reformer to do away with this custom with a view to reduce marriage expenses, and considers that this will lead to a deterioration of race.

name by drawing, which is performed by the Mullah. In Gilgit a feast is given to the brotherhood on this occasion; the assembly suggests various names, and the one unanimously approved is chosen. The Budhists of Laddakh, like the superstitious among the Hindus of Jammu, sometimes assign a name indicating a low descent; this is calculated to put the Fates on a wrong scent and prevent them from taking the child away.

- (2) Ear-piercing is common everywhere, and is performed even in the case of males except in Kashmir and Gilgit. In Dugar ilaqa the Musalman males also have their ears bored\*. The Bodh males of Laddakh have both their ears pierced, and the Balti only the right one. Among the Hindus this is a religious practice and is usually performed with the tonsure ceremony, but superstition also comes into play in this as in every other connexion. The piercing of the nose and the ears is supposed to act as a powerful prophylactic against attacks of infant-diseases like lock-jaw and epilepsy, and is believed to be a general protection from death.
- (3) Uncovering the face of the child for the first time is believed in as an institution by the Hindus alone. Children born under evil stars are not seen by the father except on a date prescribed by the Jotshi and even then not without the performance of some propitiatory rituals.
- (4) Disposal of body of child dying in infancy.—The Hindus bury it if death occurs before dentition, otherwise they cremate it with modified ceremonial; the Musalmans dispense with the obsequial prayer (namas-i-janasah) so essential in the case of grown-ups. Among the Laddakhi Bodhs the death of a child on some holy day is considered auspicious and the bodyis, in that event, buried under a wall of the residential house. This, however, is not associated with any beliefs as to return of the child's soul to the family.
- (5) Treatment of women dying in child-birth.—Hindus alone regard such a death as extremely inauspicious. The soul of the woman dying during pregnancy or in the course of parturition is supposed to haunt the family, and in order to prevent it from so doing rape-seed is strewn on the path over which the corpse is taken for cremation. To set the soul at rest a special Shradh (Narain Bali) has to be performed at Gaya (Behar), Hardwar (United Provinces), Krukshetra (Punjab) or Matan (Kashmir).
- (6) Seclusion of women at child-birth.—The period of confinement varies. With the Hindus it lasts for 12 or 13, with the Bodhs 30 and the Musalmans 40 days. The patient is everywhere kept in a secluded, ill-ventilated and ill-lighted roomt. This is due partly to an excessive precaution against the dangers of draught and partly to certain superstitious ideas. Strangers are allowed no access to the mother or the child for fear of communication of aviil spirits, or contamination by the aviil are communication of evil spirits, or contamination by the evil eye. The nomadic Gujjars, Brakarwals, Gaddis, etc., however, can ill afford to take such precautionary measures, and their women are seen moving about soon after delivery.
- (7) Prohibited foods before and after child-birth.—Heavy and heating food is avoided during pregnancy, and cooling and sour things after child-birth, The patient is made to fast for 3 to 5 days after delivery, and is then given strong yet easily digestible food in liquid form. Tepid water is used in drinking as long as restricted diet lasts, and then boiled water temperately cool. In Laddakh butter and meat is liberally served during confinement.
- (8) Purification ceremonies.—Bathing is commonly believed to remove all impurities attendant upon child-birth. The Hindus consider the woman unholy, and her touch polluting, for 13 dayst. Two baths are given within that period. The Musalmans have no ideas of chhuh, but regard the woman as unfit for the performance of religious duties like the daily prayers as long as the usual discharge after child-birth continues, its utmost limit being forty days. Three to four baths are given in the course of that time. The Hindus of Jammu Province add what they call panjratni or panj-amrit to the bathing water used for purification.

<sup>\*</sup> Vide § 147, p. 130, ch. IV ante.

<sup>†</sup> C.f. § 179, p. 130, where the evil consequences of bad housing and bad nursing of women at child-birth have already been pointed out.

<sup>‡</sup> There is a distinction even in this respect. The Brahman woman is considered to become pure 11 days after child-birth, the Kshattriya 13 days, the Vaishya 16 and the Sudra 21.

It is an admixture of cow's milk, butter and urine, juice of Tulsi leaves and Ganges water. A little of it is also tasted by the woman and the child.

145

All the baths, especially the last, are occasions of feasting and rejoicing and presents are exchanged among close relatives and friends. Among the Bodhs a purificatory pujah is performed by the Lama on the 15th day.

- Bodhs a purificatory pujah is performed by the Lama on the 15th day.

  (9) Rites on feeding children for the first time.—Among the Hindus, especially of Jammu, the breast is washed by a virgin with panj-ratni and green grass before the child is suckled. The Bodhs recite the word 'Om' over a spoonful of milk and then give it to the child to drink. The Baltis put Euphrates water in the mouth as the first thing, and the Musalmans elsewhere touch the tongue with Zamsam water or date-fruit brought from Mecca.
- (10) Ideas about twins.—The birth of twin children is considered unlucky in the lower Jammu, and the belief that the innate sympathy between the two is so strong that if one falls ill or dies the other is sure to follow suit is common everywhere. The Bodhs take the birth of three children as very auspicious for the parents. The Laddakhi Musalmans consider twins good, bad or indifferent according as the two are male, female or of opposite sex.
- (11) Superstitions regarding illness during childhood, sneezing, grinding of teeth, etc.—No particular superstitions seem to attach here to sneezing, but grinding of the teeth while the child is asleep is regarded as ominous, and is supposed to herald disease of some serious nature. Those disposed scientifically treat it as indicative of the presence of tape-worms. The remedy used by the superstitious is the tying of a jay's feather to the child's neck, but the putting of a little sand into its mouth is the more practical and effective cure.

Some miscellaneous points relating to child-birth may also be noted. The Hindu is very particular as to the preparation of a horoscope of his child, especially when male; the Musalmans universally pronounce the Azan (technically called Bang) into the child's ears immediately it is bathed. In Punch the father of the newly born child throws a rice-pounding pestle from the top of his house; this is supposed to avert deafness in the child. In Laddakh it is customary for the father to fix an arrow into a heap of wheat or grim (Tibetan barley) and keep it there for a week. To the arrow-head is applied some butter, and the national piece of cloth (khatak) is flown from it. This process is believed to give long life to the newly-born. Gun-firing immediately on the birth of a male child is as common in every part of this State, even as far as the Agency ilaqas, as it is everywhere in India. So is the practice of keeping fire burning in front of the lying-in room. Various other minor superstitions exist in different parts of this country relating to the birth and nursing of children which it is neither feasible nor useful to narrate.

Musalmans alone, and among them it is universal. The Laddakhi Budhists do not observe it. In no part of the country, nor among any of its peoples, are the females either circumcised or infibulated. Circumcision of boys is observed as a festive occasion, and ceremonial feasts are given to the brotherhood when the patient recovers. Until recently the custom in the Agency ilaques of Gilgit was for the people to await the circumcision of their Raja's son, when all the male children of the district were circumcised together, the Raja giving a general feast in honour of the occasion. The ordinary season in the same part for celebrating the ceremony of circumcision is either the spring or the autumn\*.

The following points, though raised by the Census Commissioner of India in connexion with the circumcision of females, may well be noted in respect to that of males: (i) The age at which boys are generally circumcised is 5 to 7 years in all parts of the State except Laddakh District, where circumcision usually takes place on the 7th day of the birth; (ii) The operator is ordinarily the family barber; only in Kargil tebsil the village Mullah performs the operation. This is because there are no professional barbers in those parts; (iii) The part removed is the prepuce. The common method is to cut off with a sharp razor the whole of the foreskin leaving the glans exposed. In Kargil, however, only the projecting part of the prepuce is cut off so as to disclose the urethral orifice. This is probably due to a want of skill on the part of the operating Mullah; (iv) As to the reason assigned, the practice is traced from the time of the Prophet Abraham and is as such to be followed by all the adherents of Islam, the faith being supposed to have originated in its earliest form from him. The Mohamedan Shariat imposes it only as a Sunnat (tradition from the Prophet), but the importance that is commonly attached to it is nothing short of that of a Farizah (order of God). From a merely utilitarian standpoint, however, the custom is supposed to be more healthful, as it leads to a general cleanliness of the generative organ and reduces irritability by hardening the epidermis.

Appendix VII printed at the end of this chapter contains a list of 200. terms of relationship, with their correlatives, in four typical Terms .of languages of this country. The family circle of the Laddakhi relationship Bodhs is very limited because of their polyandrous habits, and the roll of names of relationship in their case is necessarily short. Minute differentations proceeding from considerations of age, marriage, nursing and other social relations are, however, made in addressing relatives by the people of Jammu and Kashmir. Certain terms, again, are used in a classificatory sense, while distinctions will also be noticed in the use of the terms in the second and third persons. The important ones have been noted in the list itself. Opprobrium attaches to the equivalents of 'wife's brother', 'mother's brother' and 'sister's husband', which assume an abusive meaning when applied to a stranger. The sense of abuse proceeds from the implication of disgrace and shame attaching to the use of woman for sexual purposes. The practice of married women not taking the name of the husband and of his relatives found all over India is common to the Hindus of this country as well. The importance of mother's brother in connexion with marriage indicative of the existence of matriarchate has not been reported from any part of the State except Laddakh where, among the Bodhs, he has to share a considerable part of the marriage expenses of his sister's son, and has also to escort his bride in her first journey to him.

#### Part II.—Statistical

Marriage dition, and from the absolute figures contained in them proportional values have been worked out with reference to age, sex, religion, locality and selected castes in the set of five subsidiary tables printed at the end of this chapter. It is now to be seen how far all these figures correspond with the social customs and practices in regard to marriage narrated above as obtaining in various parts of the country. Their approximation to the existing conditions will be the best measure of their accuracy.

202. Of the three respects in which the Indian marriage system is peculiar the one of greatest importance is the larger proof marriage of marriage persons; this is more so in the case of females than males. The proportions per mille quoted

COUNTRY		UNMA	RRIED .	MAR	RIED	WID	OWED
COUNTRY		Male	Femalo	Malo	Pemale	Malo	Pemale
England (1901)	.,	606	586	861	840	35	74
India (1901)		492	341	454	476	<b>\$4</b>	160
State (1911)	.,	526	289	420	,491	* 54	120

marginally bring out vividly the conditions prevailing in this respect in the State as compared with India (as a whole) and England. In every hundred males here, 53 are single, 42 married and 5 widowed as against 49, 45 and 6 respective-

ly of India and 61, 36 and 3 of England. Among women 39 are single, 49 married and 12 widowed to 34, 48 and 18 of India and 59, 34 and 7 of England. Although, therefore, nuptiality in the State is a little more common than in England, it is considerably below the Indian standard, the slight excess in the case of married women being probably due to the child-bearing widows of the Jammu hills having returned themselves as married. That the women are married more universally everywhere than males is evident from their proportions per mille being 414\* against 392 in England, 656\* against 508 in India and 611\* against 474 in the State. The extent of universality of marriage among females cannot, however, be fully apparent without reference to the proportions based on the number of persons of marriageable age, '15-40'; these are 47 single and 953" married females against 323 and 677" males respectively. Barring the nuns of Laddakh and public women elsewhere, there are, thus, no grown-up women here who remain unmarried except such as may be afflicted with some infirmity or other bodily disability; another proof of the real dearth of women in the country at large.

o These include the married as well as the widewed,

203. The next peculiarity is the early age at which people in India marry. With the Hindu the daughter's attaining puberty while still unmarried brings on not only social obloquy marriage but also spiritual damnation, to the living as well as the dead. Caste restrictions contribute their own quota to an acceleration of marriage which is common to both sexes. Lastly, there

acceleration of marriage which is common to both sexes. Lastly, there is the fond desire of the parents to see their children married as soon as possible, which is accentuated by the belief as to general uncertainty of life. The first two causes apply here to a limited circle only and exercise the greatest influence in the Dugar Ilaqa, but the third is applicable, more or less, to the general public everywhere. Child-marriage is, however, on the whole not as common in this country as elsewhere in India. In its extreme form, i.e., marriage of persons within five years of age, it exists only nomi-

		Persons mari widowed	ried, including , per müle
ĀGE		Mais	<b>F</b> emale
05 610 1015 1530	**	1 11 82 803	2 0 51 265 857

nally. The figures in the margin will further show that the people at large begin to marry here in any considerable numbers only after the age of 15 in the case of females and 20 in that of males. Even this is very early, as the European marriage statistics of the last Census show that these proportions are approximated at a far more advanced age in the countries of the West, (20—40).

in the countries of the West, (20—40). In England the number of married persons at '15-20' is only 3 per mille among the males and 15 among females. A physical explanation of this great divergence is the fact that people mature earlier, especially females, in warmer countries. This is why we have 90 males and 455 females married and widowed at '10-15' in the Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract against 82 and 365 for the State as a whole.

204. The last though by no means the least matter directly connected with the census statistics of civil condition is that of widow remarriage. In almost every advanced country the women have the fullest liberty to marry again once their husband is dead but in India it is a marked feature of domestic economy.

dead, but in India it is a marked feature of domestic economy among all the castes except the very low that the widow cannot remarry. The hardships of widowed life have in the past been the source of the nowalmost extinct practice of sati. Conditions are not very different here in this respect wherever Brahmanism is in force. In the Dugar Ilaqa and among Rajputs elsewhere even the Musalmans regard widow marriage as a shameful act; in Kashmir the Brahman community discountenances the system; but this is practically the whole extent to which the custom holds. Everywhere else in the State and among all other classes of its people widow marriage has the greatest vogue. With the Musalmans it is, indeed, a recognised institution, but Bodhs and Sikhs also admit its validity, although the occasions in the case of the former are so few owing to the practice of polyandry. The Sikhs largely observe the chadar-andazi system. The lower classes of Animistic tendencies marry their widows without any reserve, but even among the Brahmans, the Thakkars and certain other higher castes of undisputed Aryan origin living in the interior of the Jammu hills the widows are allowed great latitude. They not only go about marrying freely by chadar-andazi but may carry on sexual relations without undergoing any formalities of a second marriage at all. The case of the widow having connexion with the brothers and cousins of her deceased husband and begetting children to him has already been mentioned †. The brothers and cousins have, no doubt, a preferential claim; to the widow, but there is no bar to her acquiring intimacy with a stranger, only the outsider has to compensate the man entitled to retain her, the amount of the cash payment varying from Rs. 50 to Rs. 200.

<sup>°</sup> Vide § 195, p. 142, supra.

<sup>†</sup> C. f. § 186, p. 136.

<sup>‡ § 168,</sup> cl. (6), p. 138.

The custom of the widow procreating children to the deceased husband while living in his house resembles closely the Jewish levirate and may be a survival of nayoga, a doctrine so much advocated these days by the Arya Samajists, but the freedom with which the widows pass over from family to family by means of chadar-andazi cannot be regarded as anything else than a form of the ordinary widow marriage. The Aryas are great advocates of widow marriage, but they do not seem to have effected any improvement yet in those quarters here where there is any need for it at all. Similarly the Missionary Societies working in Kashmir preach a denunciation of enforced widowhood, as also of child marriage, but with as little effect upon the Brahman community which favours both these customs.

Owing to the predominance of the communities favouring widow marriage the proportion of widows is not as large here (120) as in India

Ago	State		Natural	Division	•
Ago	2000	1	п	ш	IV
A11	120	161	143	87	105
05		1	••		••
5—10	9	8	8	,.	1
1015	8	11	11	B	5
15	74	105	50	147	51
40 and over:.	470	B43	617	402	881

(180). The number per mille of the widows at various ages is given in the margin. Among the natural divisions the number is the largest in the lower plains of Jammu (161), a tract most under the Hindu influence. Widows of an age below fifteen are few in number everywhere, and the prevalence of widow marriage in the Outer Hills, Kashmir and the Frontier, at the maritable age of '15-40' is fully represented by

the proportions returned in respect of those divisions. Even at the advanced age of '40 and over' the women of Kashmir (402) and Frontier (381) remarry to a large extent, and in Jammu this practice obtains more in the hills (517) than on the plains (542). Widow marriage is in the largest vogue in Gilgit where as soon as the term of *iddat* expires the woman is married to some eligible member of her deceased husband's family. This proceeds from the keen marital jealousy that prevails among the Gilgit people who cannot brook the idea of any female relative of theirs passing over to another family. In Laddakh, too, the actual number of widows is small, and the fairly large proportion shown is probably due to a classification of *chhumos* and divorced Balti women as widows.

Civil condition by locality

The marriage and widow marriage, it is necessary to enter into the details of local distribution. The marginal abstract from Subsidiary Table II, sets out the proportions per mille of the single, the married and the widowed. Disregarding the Frontier

STATE AND NATE	to at.	Unu	RNIED	MAR	RIED	WID	OWED
Divisions		Male	Famale	Malo	Female	Malo	Female
State '		529	889	420	491	84	120
(1)		618	841	405	498	77	101
(11)		533	279	418	485	54	148
Jammu Province (I a	nd II)	527	860	410	190	63	150
Kashmir (III)		529	415	425	498	46	87
Frontier (IV)	•-	503	428	458	467	41	105

districts, the number of married persons will be found highest in the, Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract (482 males and 659 females\*) where the Hindu element is the most powerful; it is at its minimum in the Outer Hills (467 and 628\*); Kashmir (471 and 585\*) occupies the intermediate position. The propor-

tions relating to the Frontier districts are peculiar; they are the largest of all in the case of males (497\*) and smallest in that of females (572\*). This is obviously due to the polyandry of Laddakh.

Widowers marry more largely everywhere, but, as already stated, in this State even the widows remarry in considerable numbers except in the submontane tracts where their proportion is the largest (161). Widow marriage prevails much in Kashmir, where but a small proportion is left unmarried (87).

These figures include the widowed as they also married though they have lost their consorts.

The large percentage of widows in Laddakh has already been explained at

the end of the last paragraph.

Conditions as to child-marriage are as in the margin. The proportion of

		and Ber		State	I	11	ш	ΙΨ
0	{	Male	••	1	1	3		
	t í	Pemale Male	••	# 11	5 21	16		20
<b>8—</b> 10	l	<b>F</b> omalo		51	96	78	16 74	20 119
10-15	{	Maje Female	.:	83 865	90 485	83 400	322	194

married male children is largest in the Frontier a fact due to the existence of polyandry among the Bodhs of Laddakh, the younger brothers of the man actually wedded being also treated as married. Marriage of infant girls (0-5) is perceptible only in Jammu Province and subject to the allegation made in the last sentence, the proportion of both

M. B.—The figures for the married localude those of the widowed. sentence, the proportion of both males and females married at an age below fifteen is the highest in the Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract, a part of the country under greatest Aryan influence.

206. Percentages of all the three phases of civil condition as they stand in cities and in country-side are set out in the margin. It will be observed from them that universality of marriage is greater in villages at all ages among the males and up to an age of fifteen among females, the obvious reason being the re-

latively costlier and freer life in towns, which makes married life both

RURAL MUNICIPAL AGE AND SET Widowed Single Married Married 0 Male a 

difficult and unnecessary. Grown-up women in cities, however, seem to marry more largely, their percentage at '15-40' being 97 for the municipal area against 95 of the rural, and the number under the subsequent ageperiod '40 and over being at par.' Part of this somewhat inexplicable situation may be due to an

erroneous classification of many a free woman as married and the rest to the lesser vogue of widow marriage and consequent larger proportion of widows in the cities. Another peculiarity of the local statistics of civil condition is that they show a smaller prevalence of early marriage in the cities, the percentages of married persons of all ages up to fifteen being larger in rural areas. As regards widow marriage, conditions are more favourable in the country-side than in the cities; the widows remarry more freely in the villages and fewer have consequently been returned as being in widowhood at the time of the Census.

207. The proportions of both the sexes in the three states of civic life

Civil condition by sex

are given in Subsidiary Table III, and Table IV deals with the proportion of females in a thousand of males of all conditions. The figures abstracted from it in the margin, will prove instructive. They fully bear out the proposition already stated in § 202 that the females marry more

Religion	Unmarried	Married	Widowed
All	653	1,059	1,970
Hindu	602	1,023	2,262
Muselman	693	1,048	1,823
eskb	619	1,022	2,142
Budhist	1,050	856	1,907

in § 202 that the females marry more universally than the males, as also the fact that men find it easier to remarry than is the case with women. That is how the proportion of females exceeds that of the males both among the married and the widowed. This is further corroborated by the figures of Table III where the proportions given are 4,194 in

every 10,000 of married males to 4,916 of females of the same condition and 513 widowers against 1,208 widows.

Locally, women marry most in the Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract of Jammu, the proportion of the single there being 557; and the number of unmarried women is the largest in the Frontier (831) owing to polyandry and muta systems of Laddakh. Polyandry is further reflected in the proportions of the single (1,050) and the married (856) women of the Budhists. That the women on the whole are married much earlier as well as more universally is evident from the number of the married females in every 10,000 at the age-periods '0-10' and '10-15' being 78 and 379 respectively against 17 and 93 of males. It is also noteworthy that in spite of the greater nuptiality of the women the proportion of single girls up to an age of ten is larger than that of the boys (3,001 against 2,856). This point has already been explained in § 171 Chapter VI at page 125; females are in actual excess over the males at earlier ages, and it is only after they enter upon married life that they begin to die largely and get into a deficit.

208. The statistics of civil condition with reference to religions are still more interesting. As will appear from the number By religion per mille given in the margin, single males are most numerous among the Sikhs and are fewest among the Budhists. The cause in

		UNMA	BRIED	Ман	RIED	WIDOWED		
RELIGION		Male	Female	Male	Female	Meric	Female	
		<del></del>			<u> </u>		<del>                                     </del>	
All		526	889	420	491	54	120	
Hindu	•••	519	301	409	491	79	208	
Musalman		532	411	491	498	47	96	
Sikh		558	495	396	479	46	116	
Budhist		421	443	522	446	5,8	112	

one case is a general dearth of women\* and in the other, polyandry. Taking the converse case, the number of married femalest is the largest among the Hindus and smallest among the Bodhs. Universality of marriage is the reason for the former and polyandry again for the latter. With the Hindus it is a religious tenet that every male must also marry if he

does not want his soul to wander about aimlessly for want of obsequial and propitiatory ceremonies performed by a son. The Hindus also lead in the custom of enforced widowhood, the number of their widows being 208 in every thousand as against 96 only of the Musalmans, and the extensive practice of widow marriage among the latter scarcely needs any further pointing out.

Early marriage is at greatest discount with the Sikh. The proportion of boys and girls, married and unmarried, relating to the four main religions of

		QNMY	RRIED	MARI	RIED †
RELIGIO	3	Male	Femalo	Male	Female
Hindu	•,	328	290	9	65
Sikh	••	≰18	892	8	46
Budhist	••	264	293	26	6
Musalman	••	414	390	12	42

the State are given in the margin. Up to an age of fifteen, early marriage is most prevalent among the Hindus; the Musalmans, the Sikhs and the Bodhs come next in a descending order of succession. The excessive proportion of married boys among the Bodhs is, however, not due to the existence of childmarriage as a custom; so many married boys are found in their case because of their

polyandry, all the younger brothers of a married man being, as noticed above, treated as married, irrespective of their age. The Mohamedan proportions are swollen by the Jammu Musalmans who imitate their Hindu country-men in the matter of early marriage.

The only point left for consideration in this connexion is the extent to which polygamy prevails in the State as a whole and among the various communities inhabiting it. Judging from the percentage of married women, worked out from proportions of both the sexes, as exhibited in the margin of the next page, and treating the excess of women in the married state as at least a partial index of the existence of polygamy, it is clear that the practice obtains here only nominally; an excess of 17 women is not much.

<sup>\*</sup> C. f. § 172, chapter VI, p. 125.

<sup>†</sup> Including the widows.

<sup>#</sup> To come to this, mean averages should be worked out from the proportions of both the sexes.

The Budhists, naturally enough, return a deficit and the proportion of married women is highest in the case of the Sikhs showing them to be the most polygamous community in the State. This may be ascribed to the large prevalence among them of the chadar-andazi system. The Musalman man proportion falls short of even the Hindu, and the reason has already been cited in § 188 of the last chapter at page 137; the poor agricultural Mohamedans do not generally possess the means for the luxury of plurality of wives, even if such it may prove.

Proportional details of civil condition relating to selected castes are setout in Subsidiary Table V, and the important features By caste in them may now be pointed out. Nuptiality in the males is at its lowest among the higher castes observing rules of endogamy, exogamy and hypergamy, the proportion of the unmarried males being 563 per mille in the case of the Kashmiri Pundits and 558 in that of the Rajputs. The Musalman Rajput's adherence to the Hindu practices in this respect is evidenced by the proportion of the Chibhs (569) which is highest of all. The difficulties of matrimony leading to a decay of the Rajputs as a race\* are, however, best reflected by the excessive proportion among them of the single males at '20-40' (377). The position is wholly reversed in the case of females, and the number of unmarried women among the Rajputs is the smallest. That the marriage of females is most universal with the higher castes of Hindus transpires best from the proportions of unmarried of an age over 40 being 4 per mille in the case of the Rajputs and nil in that of the Kashmiri Pundits. The Thakkars with 26 per mille of unmarried women of that age present a good contrast. It is noteworthy that of all the Hindus the Kashmiri Pundits have returned the largest proportion of the unmarried both among the males (563) and females (356). This comes from their close adherence to the Shastric rules which make marriage such a serious affair. The peculiarity of the Sudra classes seems to be the late age up to which the males continue to marry, the unmarried Chamiars at '40 and over' being 52 and Meghs 67) as against 172 of the Brahmans (Kashmiri).

Of all the Hindu castes dealt with, early marriage is least common among the males of the Arora (6 per mille married at '5-12'), and the lower castes. like Chamiar (34), Megh (37) and Thakkar (44), seem to practise it very largely. This may be only a survival of their aboriginal customs. Females are married earlier than males among all classes, but the Brahmans of Kashmir are least guilty of marrying their daughters before the age of twelve (34). The greatest offender in this respect is the Megh with his proportion of 189 married females at '5-12'. The Punjabi Brahmans are also much given to early marriage; the proportion of infant brides with them is largest of all (7 per mille at '0-5'. Among the Musalmans, the Gujjars display the greatest tendency for early marriage, the proportion in males being 41 and in females 133. This, in view of the belief that the primitive man did not know of marriage before puberty, would look strange, but the recent eminent statisticians of Europet have disproved this hypothesis, and this is only another instance in illustration of the fact that child-marriage is also met with among certain very backward races of Pre-Aryan days.

Enforced widowhood of women of maritable age is of course greatest among the higher Hindu castes, being 225 in the case of the Punjabi Brahmans and 193 in that of the Rajputs. The Musalmans of Rajput origin retain the evil, the proportions of the Bains being 104 and of the Chibhs 97. The number of old widows is largest among the Hindu Rajputs (678 of '40 and over'). That the lower classes freely remarry their widows is evident from the proportion of the widows among Chamiars being the lowest (144). Mohamedan proportions are as a rule much below the Hindu standard, but since one of the good points of continued widowhood is a strong sense of fidelity to the

C. f. § 191, p. 140.

<sup>†</sup> For example, Hartland.

deceased husband the higher classes even among the Musalmans, as probably all other civilized nations, are found avoiding widow marriage to some extent. This explains the excess of widows among the Syeds (444), Maliks (426), Moghals (429) and Pathans (422). The proportions of the Bains (461), the Chibh (544) and the Gakkhar (453) only indicate retention of Hindu customs even after conversion to Islam.

In the caste statistics of civil condition a couple of items must particularly be explained. We find a very undue proportion of old maids (40 and over) among the Hindu Thakkars (26) and the Musalman Maliks (47); the explanation in one case is the existence of primitive customs stated in §185 page 136 and §187, page 137, and in the other a known difficulty in getting suitable matches, as the Maliks of Kashmir are proud of the nobility of their birth and seek to marry their daughters within their own social level. The interpretation of the caste figures will, however, not be complete without reference to the polygamy of the Rajputs (511\* married females against 366 males), and to the fact that although the number of Musalman female Meghs is very much short of the males† the number of the married of both the sexes of this caste is almost the same (562 females against 516 males). This is because the wives are converted along with their husbands.

Variations

State, as the Imperial table dealing with absolute figures on this subject was prepared in respect to the entire population in the last Census for the first time. To expect any great change in the ideas and practices relating to marriage within a single decade in a country so slow

	-			Percent	rage of		
ÀGE AND SEX		Unm	aried	Mar	riod	Wide	wed
•		1901	191t	1901	1911	1901	1911
5-10 Male		99	99	1	1		
( Malo	••	95 73	95 70	5 27	5 29	• • ·	. 1
15—20 { Pemale		18	14	79	83	3	8
40—60 { Male Female	**	6	5	83 65	82 63	11 84	13 86

of progress will be unreasonable. The marginal abstract of Subsidiary Table I treating of typical age-periods only upholds this view. In regard to early marriage there is absolutely no change. Nuptiality has slightly increased; evidently owing to the improvement in the economic conditions of the people as a whole. Matters have gone worse or better according as the remarriage of widows be held

good or bad; some decline has distinctly taken place in the practice, which is ascribable to the increase of the influence of Brahmanism that has gone on side by side with the opening up of the country and the consequent greater contact of the Hindus of the State, more especially of the Jammu Province, with their brethren in the Punjab and other Indian Provinces.

<sup>•</sup> Compare also the proportions of the Musalman Bains and Chibhs and refer to \$173, chapter VI, page 127.

<sup>† 6</sup> against 19; vide \$159, chapter v, page 114.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I

Distribution by civil condition of 1,000 of each sex, religion and main ageperiod at each of the last two\* Censuses

Religion, sex and	_	n-	Mar	BIED	Wid	0WED	Religion, sex and	_	n- Bied	Mar	RIED	Wid	)WED
AGE	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	AGE	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901
1	2	3	4	5.	в	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
All religions					•		Musalman Females		``,				
0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	999 989 918 697 212 52 40	997 989 922 716 231 62 42	1 80 294 739 817 664	3 11 76 273 728 828 712	2 9 49 131	2 11 41 110 246	0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	998 962 672 154 20 7	995 962 682 202 42 7	2 37 323 823 921 684 273	5 37 312 776 898 711 323	1 5 23 59 309 718	
Females  0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over Hindu	998 949 635 143 20 7	952 645 176 85	828 894 629	5 46 346 795 878 646 272	29 86 86 864	29 29 87 347 718	Sikh  . Males  0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	999 992 956 765 212 56	998 993 963 962 236 59 49	1 7 42 228 749 818 684	2 7 36 234 733 839 708	126	 1 4 81 102 243
Males							Females						,
0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	999 988 927 744 301 111 80	987 923 721 316 126	1 11 71 246 636 716 592	2 12 74 269 635 726 586	63 173	10 10 49 148 327	0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	998 958 650 84 11 9	972 715 99 13 4	2 40 344 900 902 585 198	26 277 879 913 662 326	87 406	74 334
Females							Budhist						
0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	996 894 469 72 10 6	491 68 10	815 472	490 879 824 466	19 52 175	19 53	Males  0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	983 924 816 580 211 135 121	821 638 216 135	17 74 180 411 759 788 579	347 669 773	4 9 30 77	2 15 115 92
Males							Females						
0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	999 990 916 684 182 28 22	990 922 715 199 36	10 82 307 774 856	76 273 764 869	2 9 44 116	12 37 95		987 944	889 668 181 163	275 730 726	99 319 766 <b>7</b> 28	2 2 6 56 206	12 13 53 209
	<u> </u>												

<sup>•</sup> In 1891, Imperial Table VIII, which dealt with civil condition, was prepared in respect of Europeans and Eurasians alone in this State; hence no comparison can be made with the figures relating to that Census.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II—Distribution by civil condition of 1,000 of each sex at certain ages in each religion and Natural Division

	<del></del>	-	Males					Females	
	All ages	0-5	5-10 10-1	15—40	40 & over	All ages	0—5	5—10 10—15	15-40 40 & over
NATURAL DIVISION AND RELIGION	Unmarried Married Widowed	Unmarried Married Widowed	Unmarried Widowed Unmarried	Married  Widowed  Unmarried  Married  Widowed	Unmarried Married Widowed	Unmarried Matried Widowed	Unmarried Married Widowed	Unmarried Married Widowed Unmarried Married	Unmarried Married Widowed Unmarried Married
1	2 3 4	6 6 7	8 9 10 11	12 13 14 15 16	17 18 19	20 21 22	23 24 25	26 27 28 29 30 3	32 33 34 35 36 37
ENTIRE STATE All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	526 420 5 512 409 7 532 421 4 558 396 4 421 521 5	9 999 1 7 999 1 6 999 1	989 11 918 988 11 1 927 990 10 916 992 7 1 956 924 74 2 816	80 2 323 637 40 71 2 392 550 52 82 2 301 663 36 42 2 345 623 32 180 4 292 683 25	101 678 22 3 26 807 16 5 51 780 16	31 389 491 120 21 301 491 208 37 411 493 96 36 405 479 116 54 442 446 11	996 4 998 2 998 2	894 102 4 469 512 19 962 87 1 672 323 4 958 40 2 650 344	3 47 879 74 8 622 470 9 23 828 149 6 382 612 5 50 899 51 7 573 420 8 27 901 72 11 484 505 2 326 629 45 71 629 300
I.—THE SUBMONTANE AND SEMI-MOUN- TAINOUS TEACT All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	518 4057 519 8998 518 4117 534 4115	2 <b>1,0</b> 00 1 <b>999 1</b>	980 16 4 938	87 3 362 582 56 64 3 382 561 57 109 3 341 604 55 62 368 594 38	80 680 24 41 789 22	33 341 498 163 40 310 498 19 20 369 502 129 70 367 482 15	7 998 2 9 993 7 1 995 5	904 93 3 545 444 1 901 96 847151111 905 92 3602 393 963 34 3638 355	8 23 833 144 4 899 597 5 56 876 68 8 506 486
All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	593 413 5 495 427 7 551 407 4 570 380 5 422 540 3	8 998 2 2 999 1 0 1,000	984 15 1 917 983 16 1 914 985 15 919 900 10 956 897 69 34 778	81 2 351 610 3 84 2 387 563 50 79 2 329 647 24 40 4 375 589 30 222 296 692 12	0 107 688 20 4 88 817 14 3 88 784 17	72 372 486 143 05 283 495 22: 45 417 480 103 78 390 485 123 95 390 523 83	995 5 996 4 996 4	922 75 3600 389 1 868 126 6 419 559 2 943 55 2 675 318 6 929 69 2 605 390 6 1,000 821 179	1 5C 857 50 10 473 517 2 25 817 158 9 368 623 7 64 878 5811 546 443 5 31 886 83 12 470 518 105 884 11 50 617 333
JAMMU PROVINCE All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	527 410 6 507 413 8 540 408 5 557 301 6 422 540 8	0 999 1 2 999 1 2 998 2	982 17 1 915 987 12 1 925 980 19 1 908 987 12 1 949 897 69 34 778	83 2 355 599,44 73 2 384 562 54 90 2 334 625 4 48 8 372 591 3 222 296 692 13	1 94 685 22 1 86 788 17 7 61 764 17	96 360 490 156 21 296 494 216 76 400 488 113 75 382 484 184 95 390 528 8	996 4 2 995 5 4 996 4		0 24 824152 6 882612
III.—THE JHELUM VAL- LEY (KASHMIE Hindu PROVINCE) Sikh Budhist	527 429	7 1,000 4 1,000 1 1,000	997 3 926 996 4 948 997 3 925 998 2 965 	73 1 288 679 30 50 2 455 509 30 74 1 277 690 33 34 1 313 660 27 667 333	3 171 612 21 3 19 817 16 7 38 800 16	35 115 196 87 17 359 156 185 34 118 500 83 32 129 474 97	1,000 1,000 1,000	984 15 1720273 4 984 16676319 4	5 91 922 47 4 594 102 7 15 861 124 1 379 620 5 32 925 43 4 600 387 7 24 917 5910 512 178
IV.—THE INDUS VALLEY FRONTIER (DISTRICTS)  All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Sikh Budhist	378 608 1	5 1,000	1,000 883 988 12 900 1,000 1,000	109 3 301 668 3 111 56 482 460 58 97 3 283 684 3 368 614 16 180 4 292 683 24	3 168 711 12 3 18 858 12 3 1,000	31 128 167 103 21 122 578 24 113 472 116 158 542 54 143 445 113	1,000 5 999 1 1,000	1,000	149 800 51 26 593 381 1,000 1,000 112 835 53 11 581 403 1,000 1,000 320 625 46,72 629 209

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III—Distribution by main age-periods and civil condition of 10,000\* of each sex and religion .

1 2 8 4 5 6 7  All Religions 5,283 4,194 543 3,876 4,916 1,200 0—10 2,866 17 1 1 3,001 78 15—40 1,073 93 2 674 879 16—40 1,229 2,422 150 155 8,448 28 40 and over 105 1,662 890 16 1,011 90 Hindu 5,122 4,094 784 3,014 4,906 2,099  0—10 2,268 14 1 2,455 -140 10—15 1,010 77 3 451 482 11 15—40 1,682 2,244 209 94 3,880 60 40 and over 262 1,759 671 14 9904 1,44  Sikh 5,575 3,962 463 4,044 4,792 1,16 0—10 3,030 12 1 3,207 69 40 and over 103 1,561 340 19 839 877 16—40 1,153 50 2 712 377 16—40 1,289 2,339 120 106 3,507 27 40 and over 103 1,561 340 19 839 877  Jain 5,446 3,238 1,256 14,806 3,636 1,556 0—10 2,199 52 3,312 65 10—15 1,153 50 2 712 390 2,657 10—15 1,154 65 10—15 10—15 1,153 50 2 712 397 10—15 1,153 50 2 712 390 2,657 97  Budhist 4,207 5,208 565 4,417 4,462 1,101 10—15 733 162 3 831 47 10—16 1,910 98 2 2,210 14 4,462 1,101 10—15 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,910 98 2 2 2,103 14 40 and over 1,910 98 2 2 2,103 14 40 and over 4,207 5,208 565 4,417 4,462 1,101 10—15 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 733 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,165 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17 10—16 734 162 3 831 47 11—40 1,164 65 5 1111  Musalman 5,315 4,214 471 4,112 4,928 96  Christian 4,814 4,326 860 5,769 3,223 1,000  —————————————————————————————————			<del></del>			<del>,</del> -		
Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Widowed   Unmarried   Unmarried			MALES			Females		
All Religions , 5,263	Religion and age		Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowed
All Religions 5,283 4,194 543 3,878 4,916 1,200  0-10 2,856 17 1 3,001 78 379 15-40 1,229 2,422 150 155 8,448 28 40 and over 106 1,662 890 16 1,011 90  Hindu 5,122 4,094 784 3,014 4,906 2,089  0-10 2,268 14 1 2,455 140 10-15 1.0-15 1,010 77 3 451 482 11-15-40 1,592 2,244 209 94 3,380 60 40 and over 262 1,759 571 14 904 1,444	1		2	8	4	5	6	7
All Religions 5,283 4,194 543 3,878 4,916 1,200  0-10 2,856 17 1 3,001 78 379 15-40 1,229 2,422 150 155 8,448 28 40 and over 106 1,662 890 16 1,011 90  Hindu 5,122 4,094 784 3,014 4,906 2,089  0-10 2,268 14 1 2,455 140 10-15 1.0-15 1,010 77 3 451 482 11-15-40 1,592 2,244 209 94 3,380 60 40 and over 262 1,759 571 14 904 1,444								
10-15	All Religions	•••	5,263	4,194	543	3,876		1,208
Hindu 5,122 4,084 784 3,014 4,906 2,086 0-10 1,562 2,244 209 94 3,880 60 40 and over 262 1,759 571 14 904 1,44    Sikh 5,575 3,962 463 4,044 4,792 1,16    0-10 3,030 12 1 3,207 69 10-15 1,153 50 2 712 377 15-40 1,155 50 2 712 377 15-40 1,289 2,339 120 106 3,507 27. 40 and over 103 1,561 340 19 839 87.    Jain 5,446 3,298 1,256 1 4,806 3,636 1,551 15-40 1,257 1,361 785 1,104 65 15-40 1,257 1,361 785 1,104 65 15-40 1,990 1,885 471 390 2,597 1,361 785 909 97.    Budhist 4,207 5,208 585 4,417 4,462 1,10 10-15 1,156 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17. 15-40 1,156 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17. 15-40 1,156 2,703 99 1,220 2,31 1,970 94 40 and over 1,364 909 2,222 4,445 1,104 40 and over 1,364 909 2,222 4,445 1,101 15-40 1,156 2,703 99 1,260 2,431 17. 15-40 1,157 2,268 3 15-40 1,157 2,268 3 15-40 1,157 2,268 3 15-40 1,157 2,288 3 178 11-15-15 15-40 1,157 2,288 3 178 11-15-15	10—15 15—40	•••	1,073 1,229	93 2,422	2 150	674	. 379	3 8 288
0-10 2,268 14 1 2,455 140 15-40 1,010 77 3 451 482 11 15-40 1,682 2,244 209 94 3,380 60 40 and over 262 1,759 571 14 904 1,445	40 and over	*;*	105	1,662	890	16	1,011	909
10-15	Ť	•••		4,094	784	3,014	4,906	2,080
Sikh          5,575         3,962         463         4,044         4,792         1,16           0—10          3,030         12         1         3,207         69         377         15—40          1,153         50         2         712         377         27         377         15—40         30         19         839         870         27         40         360         3,507         27         27         377         27         40         40         40         19         839         870         27         40         40         40         19         839         870         27         40         40         40         19         839         870         27         40         40         19         839         870         27         40         40         19         839         870         27         27         40         40         40         19         839         870         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         20         30 <td>10—15 15—40</td> <td>•••</td> <td>1,010 1,582</td> <td>77 2,244</td> <td>3 209</td> <td>451 94</td> <td>482 3,380</td> <td>6 18 608 1,448</td>	10—15 15—40	•••	1,010 1,582	77 2,244	3 209	451 94	482 3,380	6 18 608 1,448
10-15	Sikh ,	•••	5,575	3,962	463	4,044	4,792	1,164
Jain     5,446   3,298   1,256   4,806   3,636   1,556	10—15 15—40	•••	1,153 1,289	50 2,339	- 120	712 106	377 3,507	3 7 278 876
10—15	. Jain	•••	5,446	3,298	1,256	1 4,806		1,558
0-10	1015 1540	***	1,257 1,990	1,885	 471	1,104 390	65 2,597	584 974
10—15 15—40	Budhist	•••	4,207	5,208	. 585	4,417	4,462	1,101
0-10 3,636 2,222 2,222 4,445 4,0 and over 5,315 4,214 471 4,112 4,928 96  0-10 3,044 17 3,169 61 10-15 1,096 98 2 735 353 15-40 1,122 2,473 134 195 3,486 19 1,028 75  Christian 4,814 4,326 860 5,769 3,223 1,000 0-10 2,091 10-15 940 10-15 940 10-15 940 15-40 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 178 1,008 2,719 30	10—15 15—40	•••	733 1,155	162 2,703	3 99	831 1,260	47 2,431	1 1 175 944
15-40 1,364 909 2,222 4,445 1,111 Musalman 5,315 4,214 471 4,112 4,928 96  0-10 3,044 17 3,169 61 735 353 353 15-40 1,122 2,473 134 195 3,486 19 1,028 75  Christian 4,814 4,326 860 5,769 3,223 1,000 0-10 2,091 10-15 940 65 15-40 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 2,11 1,378 609 1,008 2,719 30	Zoroastrian	•••	5,000	4,545	455	4,444	5,556	•••
Musalman 5,315 4,214 471 4,112 4,928 96  0—10 3,044 17 3,169 61  10—15 1,096 98 2 735 353  15—40 1,122 2,473 134 195 3,486 19  40 and over 53 1,626 335 13 1,028 75  Christian 4,814 4,326 860 5,769 3,223 1,000  0—10 2,091 8,669 3,669  10—15 940 65 860 784  40 and over 1,572 2,883 40 and over 2,11 1,378 600 1,008 2,719 30	15—40	•••	1,364	909	•••	2,222	4,445	•••
10—15 1,096 98 2 735 353 15—40 40 and over 53 1,626 335 13 1,028 75  Christian 4,814 4,326 860 5,769 3,223 1,000    0—10 2,091 8,669 3,000 15—40 940 65 860 1784 1,000 15—40 1,572 2,883 178 1,000 2,719 30	Musalman	•••	5,315	4,214	471	4,112	·	, 960
Christian 4,814 4,326 860 5,769 3,223 1,000 0-10 2,091 3,669 3,669	10—15 15—40	•••	1,096 1,122	98 2,473	2 134	735 195	61 353	2 6 198
0-10 2,091 3,669 3,669 3,5540 3,669 3,669 3,5540 3,572 2,883 178 1,008 2,719 30	1				ł	13	, 1,028	754
10—15 940 65 784	0—10		]	4,020	860	·	3,223	1,008
1 20 and over 911 1 1 279 con 2 27113 50	15-40	•••	940 1,572	2,883	178	784	•••	
	%V and over	* ***	211					700

<sup>•</sup> Contrary to the last two tables, the proportions in this are based on total population (of each sex) and not on the population of each age-period.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV-Proportion of the sexes by civil condition at certain ages for religions and Natural Divisions

	ļ						NUMBE	R OF FE	IALES p	er 1,000 l	MALES			<del></del>	<u> </u>	
NATURAL DIVISION	AND RELIGIONS		ALL AGES	•		0—10			10—15			15-40		4	O AND OVE	iR
		Un- married	Married	Widowed	Un- married	Married	Widowed	Un- married	Married	Widowed	Un- married	Married	Widowed	Un- married	Married	Widowed
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
ENTIRE STATE	All Religions Hindu , Musalman Sikh Budhist	653 502 693 619 1,050	1,039 1,023 1,048 1,032 856	1,970 2,262 1,825 2,142 1,907	932 923 932 903 1,101	4,026 8,361 3,237 5,000 152	3,521 3,700 3,545 2,000 1,000	557 380 601 526 1,134	3,595 5,431 3,221 6,360 292	3,470 5,720 2,634 2,500 500	134 51 155 70 1,090	1,262 1,281 1,263 1,284 899	1,699 2,481 1,327 1,975 1,761	135 46 221 160 546	539 439 567 456 877	2,064 2,163 2,016 2,199 1,950
I.—THE SUBMON- TANE & SEMI- MOUNTAINOUS TRACT	All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	557 487 624 558	1,038 1,007 1,071 950	1,785 1,971 1,581 2,209	874 876 891 925	4,234 9,300 2,938 1,667	2,431 3,000 2,243 500	445 346 542 457	3,812 5,497 2,884 3,846	2,754 4,446 1,288 2,000	95 50 149 63	1,269 1,220 1,320 1,210	1,612 2,071 1,118 1,729	780 35 163 107	501 448 550 467	1,847 1,915 1,770 2,394
II.—THE OUTER HILLS	All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	582	1,055 1,085 1,087	2,605 2,252 2,146	926 851	6,556	4,714 3,968 6,235 2,000	542 381 610 497 1,643	4,025 5,572 3,314 7,655 1,250	4,750 8,686 3,041 1,000	1,384 60 192 74 417	1,356 1,367 1,351 1,363 1,500	2,321 3,003 1,736 2,105 1,000	125 64 929 2,273 500	502 429 547 4,475 725	2,387 2,442 2,440 2,168 3,333
JAMMU PROVINCE	All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	504 671 574	1,032 1,080 1,035	2,280 1,931 5 2,171	920 915 874	8,484 8,169 4,111	3,600 3,500	502 362 587 483 1,643	3,932 5,536 3,135 5,855 1,250	3,709 6,077 2,214 1,667	120 55 176 70 417	1,321 1,293 1,469 1,306 1,500	1,958 2,499 1,436 1,960 1,000	1,060 53 219 151 500	502 439 548 455 725	2,149 2,176 2,122 2,256 3,333
THE JHELUM VALLEY (KASHMIR PROVINCE)	All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	. 49: 69: 67:	5 964 6 1,023	1 2,148 3 1,628	957 939	4,133 4,415	5,000 3,222	594 555 596 576	3,543 3,968 8,509 7,226	3,852 2,375 4,000 5,000	96 23 103 72	1,211 1,230 1,210 1,280	1,265 2,495 1,174 2,025	112 5 170 179	560 443 566 460	1,813 2,040 1,789 2,118
IV.—THE INDUS VALLEY FRONTIER DISTRICTS)	All Religions Hindu Musalman Sikh Budhist	80	1 110 4 1,055 3 285	3,068 3	925 982 1,333	1,563	5,333	788 400 735 3,000 1,128	1,503 1,000 1,902 1,000 3,593	1,184 1,855	490 430 1,099	1,184 126 1,269 286 1,121	1,658 1,728 1,765	559 634 547	710 28 669 200 1.138	2,874 3,275 1,940

SUBSIDIARY TABLE

SUBSIDIARY TABLE V—Distribution by civil condition of 1,000 of each sex at certain ages for selected castes

·				Distri	BUTI	N OF	1,000 1	MALE	5 OF 1	EACH	AGE I	a CL	71L C	DKDIT	ION						]	DISTRIB	UTIO	N OF	1,000 FE	MALI	.s of	BACE	AGE	BT C	HAIF	COND	ITION			
CASTS	A	ll ag	c#	٠ (	5		5-	—12		1	2—2	0	2	20-4	0	40	and	over	A	ll ag	96	0	<b>5</b>		5-	-12	_	1:	2—20	0		0-4	0	40 a	nd o	ver
	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmerried	Married	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowod	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmarriod	Marriod	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowod	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmerriod	Married	Widowed
1	2	8	4	5	<b>В</b>	7	8	9	10	11	12	18	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	83	84	85	36	87
	400																		טעז							į	·									
Arora Brahman Chamiar Kashmiri Pundit Megh Rajput Thakkar	522 482 503 469 558	407 386 450 368 435 366 404	100 92 68 69 96 76 84	1,000 999 997 1,000 996 999 998	1 3  4		994 983 966 993 963 960 956	16 83 7 83 10	1 1	723 841	199 801 145 259	80 23 4 18	333 187 362 229	591 742 591 693 559	76 71 47 78 64	52 172	644 761 608 672 661	1; 187 8 220 2 261 1 222	328 328 856 295	458 528 449 522 511	144 195 183 257	993 997 999 997 996	7 8 1 8 4		905 821 826 966 811 845 817	174 171 92 186 149		171 154 264	771 808 711 818 807	58 38 25 85 83	19 9 8 11 6	750 874 841 854 801	225 117 156 135 193	11 5  7	471 369 412 318	654
1							' i					-					M	USA	LM.	AN															•	
Ganai Gujjar Gukkiar Hanji Jat  Malik Megh Mughal Pathan Sayed Shin	511 491 519 548 569 517 522 529 558 546 541 541 541 541 541 541 541	413 406 419	59 64 44 46 47 42 41	999 1,000 998 999 1,000 1,000 990 1,000 992 998 999 1,000 998 998 998 999 1,000	2 1 7 3 2 1 1 2 1 4		986 971 981 987 987 987 986 991 989 984 986 985 985 985 972 989	29	1 2 2 2 2 2 3	695 718 746 825 870 733 766 743 803 701 830 775 769 809 805 813 778	168 122 255 222 236 189 284 166	3 2 5 7 8 12 12 21 8 15 4 7 16 5 6	113 160 207 302 148 148 181 228 131 258 169 202 273 194 231	857 852 791 748	87 35 49 45 47 40 44 54 43 59 38	9 23 21 61 16 20 31 40 15 51 50 26 53 31	877 871 796 809 809 810 802 830 741	7 116 1 120 3 181 4 135 4 135 6 176 0 170 0 167 0 130 0 244 5 204 6 162 0 157 141 6 157	428 403 409 369 410 416 417 372 432 359 419 440 423 448	469 490 502 499 475 506 500 603 479 489 517 472 562 478 468 475 484	103 107 89 132 162 84	999 1,000 1,000 999 998 999 1,000 996 997 998 1,000 1,000 1,000	 11 2 1 1  4 1 3 2  1		937 984 991 959 959 945 952 963 867 927 955 1,000 950 949 955 966 950	40 65 54	1 2 1 2 2 1 1	428 275 271 265 419 314 452 857 889 842 866 894 468	619 589 580 702 633 549 706 716 717 535 625 625 611 635 607 589 526 582	19 25 24 15 23 19 13 18 10 7 13 18  23 27	88 11 14 25 87 9 10 22 31 21 25 17 31 39 23	942 933 871 866 944 918 901 800 911 926 937 888 914 904	43 47 53 104 97 46 60 68 80 64 57 82 78 63 69 82	7 8 10 14 14 5 21 15 6 12 11 47  4 10 10	543 571 601 525 442 612 587 597 541 504 565 527 600 567 568 546	889 461 644 883 892 888 453 894 434 426 400 429

# APPENDIX VII—Terms of relationship

			LOCAL TERMS					LOCAL TERMS					
No.	Name of relation	Pahari (Jammu)	Kashmiri (Srinagar)	Tibetan (Laddakh)	Shina (Gilgit)	Shina (Gilgit)	Tibetan (Laddakh)	Kashmiri (Srinagar)	Pahari (Jammu)	Name of relation	No.		
1	2	8	4	5	6	. 6	5	4	3	3	1		
1	- Father	Lala, Bhaya, Pio, Chachu, Bapu, Bab	Mol, Baba, Bab, Babu, Dadu; (Boi-lala, Kaka)	Papa (Aba)	Babu	Puch	Butsa	Nichu, (Lukat (by namo)	Puttar, Bachcha, Lauhra, Jatak. (by name)	Son	1		
2	- Mother_	Man, Bebe, Bhabo, Bebo, Mori	Moj, Ma, Apa, Dedi, Ajji, Kaki	Man (Aman)	Aje l	Di	Bomon	Kur, Sabi, Molai •(by name)	Dhi, Larki, Kuri, Kanya, Boi (by name)	Daughter	2		
3	Elder brother (M.S.)	Bhaya	Zuth-baba, Kak, Boi- jugar, † (Boi Sahib)	Cholak, Acho	Вгоуа	Chanoya	No	Konsbaba, Lukat-boi† (by name)	Bhara (by name)	Younger brother (M. S.)	3		
4	Elder sister (W. S.)	Bhain, Bebi, Boa	Zuth-bain † Bain-didi, ((Bain Jigir)	Acha, Acha	Barisa	Chainsah	Nomon	Konsbaini, Lukat Baini† (by name)	Bhain (by namo)	Younger sister (W. S.)	4		
5	Elder sister (M. S.)	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	27	, ,,	27	Chanisah	No	Kons baba, Lukut boi † (by uame)	Bhara (by name)	Younger brother (W. S.)	1		
6	Younger sister (M. S.)	(by name)	Kons bain, chani kaki† (by name)	Nomon	"	"	Acho	Zuth baba, Bud boi,†	Bhara, Bhaya	Elder brother (W. S.)	6		
7	Father's brother	Chacha, Chachu, Taya, Tatu (as father)	Pittar, Čhacha, Bab, Bud bab, (as father)	Aba chin- mon, aba chun †	Chaun babu	Puch	Butsa, Isao, Bonmon, Tsamon	Babathar, Bhatija, Bawaz (as son and daughter)	Bhatija, Bhatriya, Bhatri (as son and daughter)	Brother's child (M. S.)	7		
. 8	Father's brother's wife		Pichau, diad, Ajji (as mother)		Chan man, Bari man	Jutha.	,,	Droi, sund, nichu, Droi sunz kur (as son and daughter)	Jathia, Dria, Jathi, Dri, (as son and (daughter)	Husband's brother's child	8		
9	Father's brother's child	Bhara, Bhain (as brother and sister)	Pittarboi, Pittar bain <sup>o</sup> (as brother and sister)	Achu, No	Ya	Ya	Achu, No	Pittar boi, Pittar bain (as brother and aistor)	Bhara, Bhain (as brother and sister)	Father's brother's child	9		
10	Father's sister	Phuphi, Bhoa, Boa	Puph, Phuphi (Bain Jigri)	oaA	Phiphi	Puch	Butsa,Tsao, Bonmon, Tsamon	Babathar, Bawaz, (as son and daughter)	Bhatriya, Bhatri, (as son and daughter)	Brother's child (W. S.)	10		
11	Father's sister's husband	Phuphar, Phuphia	Paphu, Popha, (by name or as father or as pophu jugar)	Ajang	Mamon	Sharie puch	Tsa, Tsamon	Sharidi	Sale da put, Sale di dhi (as son and daughter)	Wife's brother's child	11		
12	Pather's sister's child	Phuphi da put Bhara Bhoa di dhi Bhain <sup>a</sup> (as brother and sister.	Puphtur boi, Puphtur Bini * (as brother	Acho, No	Ya	Ya	Acho, No	Mamtur boi, Mamtur Bini * (as brother	Mame da put, Bhara, Mame di dhi Bhain	Mother's brother's child	12		
15	Mother's brother	Maman	Mam, Mamon	Ajang	Mamon, Momon	Suwu	Tsao, Tsamon	and sister) Baina thar Sazi, binzi (as son and daughter)	(as brother and sister) Bhanewan, Bhanewi (as son and daughter)	Sistor's child (M. S.)	13		

114	Mother's brother's wife	Mamin	Maman (Mamni or as elder sister)	Ano -	Phapi, Phipbi	•••	Tsamon	Zam hund nichu, Zrm huns kur	Nanan da puttar Bhanewa, Nanan de	Husband's sistor's child	14
1	1							(as son and daughter)	dhi Bhanewi * (as son and daughter)		
15	Mother's sister	Masi	Mas, Masi (as mother)	Machung	Chani man† Bari man	Juithu	Tsao, Tsamon	Baini thar, Sazi, Binzi (as son and daughter)	Bhanewan, Bhanewi, (as son and daughter)	Sister's child (W.S.)	15
16	Mother's sister's husband	Masar	Masu, Masa (by namo)	Ajang	Mamon	,,	"	Saj hund nichu, Saj hunz kur	Sali da puttar,, Sali di dhi	Wife's sister's child	16
17	Mother's sister's child	Masi da put Bhara. Masi di dhi Bhain	Mastur bol, Mastur bini.	Acho, No	Ya	Ya	Acho, No	(as son and daughter) Mastur boi, Mastur bini, ,	(as son and daughter Masi da put Bhara, Masi di dhi Bhain	Mother's sister's ohild	17
1		(as brother and sister)	(as brother and sister)					(as brother and sister)			1
18	Father's father	Baba, Bapu	Bud bab, Dadu (Kak lal)	Meme	Dado	Pacho	Tsno	Puttar, Potu (as son)	Potra (as son)	Son's son (M.S.)	18
19	Father's mother	Dadi, Aman	Nan, Ded, Bud ded, Dadi, Ajji (as mother)	Abi, Api	Dadi	"	23	,,	21	Son's son (W. S.)	19
20	Mother's father	Nana	Nana, Bud bab (Kak lala)	Meme, Apo	Dado	**	33	Zur, Kuri hund nichu* (as son)	Dhotra (as son)	Daughter's son	20
21	Mother's mother	Nani	Nani, Nan Dadi, Ajji,	Abi, Api	Dadi	"	,,	, n	**	Daughter's son (W. S.)	21
22	Husband	Gharwala, Khasam, Khaund, Gabhru, (as father of her	Run, Khawand, Gharwol, (as father of her child)	Aggu, Dakhpu,	Baru, Moshar	Jat, Gui	Ane, jidmat (Ache)	Zanani, Kulai, Ashan, Zauja, Dulhin, Khana-	Lari, Gharwali, Zawani, Tarimat (as mother of his child)	Wife	22
1	<b>∤</b> .	child)	Can resuct or det ound)	(wonn' Ma)			(Acno)	darin, Gharwajan (as mother of his child)	(we morner or mis come)	'l .	1
23	Wife's father	Sauhra (as father)	Hibur (as father)	Aba	Musher	Jamcho	Mokhpa	Zamatur, Jamatra (by namb)	Jawai (as son)	Daughter's husband (M. S.)	23
24	Wife's mother	Sas (as mother)	Hash (as mother)	Aman	Shash	"	,,	"	11	Daughter's husband (W. S.)	24
25	Husband's father	Sauhra (as father)	Hihur (as father)	Aba	Shopru	Tosh	· Nama	Nosh (as daughter)	Noh, Lari (as daughter)	Son's wife (M.S.)	25
26 27	Hueband's mother Wife's brother	Sas (as mother) Sala (as brother)	Hash (as mother)	Aman	Shash Shari		37-1-1	Bar ("harden)	l ,,	Son's wife (W.S.)	
1		,	Hahar (as brother)	Makskat		Shari	Makhpa	Bemo (as brother)	Bhanoja (as brother)	Sister's husband (M. S.)	27
28	Wife's sister	Sali (as sister)	Sal (by name)	Ache, Nomon.	Jathi	Ya	11	,,	,,,	Sistor's husband (W. S.)	28
29	Husband's brother	Jeth, Dewar (as brother)	Droi (as brother)	Aku	Chani, jathi	Kaki	Achoi jid- mat, Noi-	Bai kakan,* (Kakan)	Bharjai, Bhabi	Brother's wife (M. S.)	29
30	Husband's sister	Nanan (as sister)	Zam (as sister)	Aclie, Nomon	71	27	jidmat "	,,	1,5	Brother's wife	30
31	Wifo's sistor's busband	Sandu (as brother)	Saju, Zami (by name)	Acho, No	Kaku	Kaku	Acho, No	Saju, Zami (by name)	Sandu (as brother)	Wife's sister's	81
32	Husband's	Jethani, Bobe, Drani,	Dir kakan,*	Ache,	Kaki	Kaki	Acho,	Dir kakan" (as sistor)	Jethani, Bobo Drani	Husband's	32
33	brotker's wife .Son's wife's	(as sister)	(as sister)	Nomon			Nomon	<u>.</u>	(as sistor)	brother's wife	1 1
1 ""	parents	Kuram (as brother) Kurmani (as sister)		Name, Aba,			Name, Aba,		Kuram, (as brother)	Daughter's hus-	88
,			Sunin (as sister)	Aman	Bulin	Bulin	Aman	Sunin (as sistor)	Kurmani (as sister)	band's parents	لــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ

NOTE-1. The terms marked (\*) are mere literal translations in the vernacular concerned-2. In eace of terms marked (†) the distinction of age is made by adding the translation of 'younger' and 'chier' to the generic name of relationship.

3. The forms of address where different from the term of relationship as used in the third person have been added in brackets-4. By 'M.S.' is meant 'man speaking' and by 'W.S.' 'woman speaking'.

#### CHAPTER VIII

#### EDUCATION

211. Imperial Tables VIII and IX contain absolute and the tables subsidiary to this chapter proportional figures of literacy as it obtains in the State. In pursuance of the practice of the last Census, literacy was recorded in all the languages known by each individual, but for purposes of the Imperial

Tables the one known best was alone taken into account. Table VIII has, therefore, been supplemented by Appendix VIII, printed at the end of the present chapter, which shows the full extent to which the different vernaculars prevail in this country. Table VIII will be found to be somewhat different in design from most other States and Provinces in that ours distinguishes literacy in the various vernaculars as well as in English, while the others only show general literacy under one head and literacy in English under the other.

212. There is not much to be said on Education here except what would show the great lack of it that exists and point to the pressing necessity that there is for the adoption of remedial measures to ameliorate the intellectual condition of the people inhabiting this extensive State. In a total population of 3,103,501\* there

			NUMBER per mille								
DES	CRIPTION		Persons	Males	Females						
Illiterate			979	962	999						
Literate	••	••	21	38	1						
Litrate in Bu	glish	••	2	4							

are only 64,936 literate persons of whom 1,685 alone are females. In the State as a whole there are thus only two persons in every hundred who can "read and write." The whole position is summed up in the abstract from Subsidiary Table I given in the margin which shows that very few in every

thousand are literate and fewer still know English.

Compared with other States and Provinces this State stands last in point of literacy. The Christianized and Westernized Travancore (15 per cent) and Baroda with its compulsory and free education (10) are indeed much above the common level, but Kashmir State presents no edifying results when compared with Mysore (6) or even Hyderabad (3). Education is, no doubt, very deficient all over Northern India; as compared with the Southern Provinces, but it is nowhere so small as in this State, and the remark made in the last India Report; that Kashmir was, in educational matters, the most backward tract in the whole of India, holds good even to the present day, although ten more years of general progress have elapsed. Even of the two per cent literate that we have the majority is composed of outsiders, men from the Punjab and elsewhere engaged in State service, trades and professions. Barring ecclesiastical people of all the nationalities here, the only literate community is that of the Kashmiri Pundit. Persian knowledge that prevailed so much in the length and breadth of Kashmir Valley during the Mohamedan period, more especially the Moghul rule, has fallen in desuetude, and the worst of it is that nothing has come in even as a substitute for it. In the Frontier the Budhists of Laddakh have a smattering of the Tibetan language and one or two menmay be found in every big village who can read and write the Bodhi character. All the rest of the State is simply steeped in ignorance and matters are at their worst in Baltistan and the interior of the Jammu Of this state of general ignorance none has had a more bitter Province.

Table VIII, as also a few other Imperial Tables, does not deal with the population of the Frontier Ragas where a special schedule was used which provided no column for literacy. The proportions for the State as a whole are, however, not affected at all appreciably, as literacy in that remote and extremely backward part can at best be only nominal.

<sup>† 3</sup> per cent in the United Provinces and N.-W. F. Province each and 4 in the Punjah, as against 7 of Madras and Bombay each and 8 of Bengal.

I Census Report 1901 Vol. I., P. I. page 176, para 302.

experience than the Census Department. The putting together of the requisite number of literate men to act as enumerators, copyists, sorters and compilers has been a work of no small difficulty in this State, and the troubles that the inefficiency of these ill-equipped workers created in the subsequent stages of the work have, indeed, been formidable.

213. To make the position clearer it is necessary to enter into local details of literacy. The marginal abstract from Subsidiary Table II will show what bearing the nature of the country has upon the subject. Literacy is fairly general in the plains of Jammu (32), as also of Kashmir (21), and is as low in the hills of

			Litte	ERATE per mille				
Ūai <b>?</b>			Persons	Majes	Pemales			
State			21	28	1			
L.—The Submontane and Semi-	mountainou	Tract	247	84	8			
IL—The Outer Hills	••		15	28	1			
Jamms Province (I and II)	••	••	#	29				
III.—The Jhelum Valley	••		n	29	<b></b>			
IV.—The Indus Valley	••		18	<b>5</b> 0	1			
		- "	· ·	••	1 -			

Jammu (15) as in the Frontier districts (15). Among the districts, Jammu possesses the largest number of literate persons (39) for the obvious reason that, being the seat of Government, all the offices of the numerous departments and services of the State, civil as well as military, were congregated at Jammu when the

Census was taken. The tehsil of Basohli in Jasrota district is a remote, hilly and backward part of the country and the proportion of the literate (26) returned in respect to it would, but for an explanation, mislead. A large Settlement staff was present there at the time of the Census, and it is this circumstance that swelled the literacy figures of that tehsil so much; otherwise, peopled as it is by the Thakkars, Rajputs and hill Brahmans, it is one of the most ignorant tracts of the country, and could never have contained so many literate inhabitants. The same factor has operated to raise the proportions of the districts of Udhampur (21) and Laddakh (44 males of 20 and over'). Bhadarwah is very much in the interior, and its proportion (21) is due to the collocation of the large number of offices and establishments of the Jagir Management at the chief fown of the Ilaqa. Kashmir South owes its literacy to the State servants and the great community of the Kashmiri Pundits. Thirty-three per mille of literate persons is rathera surprising proportion for Gilgit, but the explanation in that case is also the presence of a large number of State officials among a population of no considerable magnitude; that the district is being worked at a deficit is a standing complaint of the Revenue Department. The most illiterate tracts, according to the Census statistics, are the Punch Ilaga (10) and the Kotli tehsil (11) of Mirpur district\*.

214. The next consideration in the matter of education is age. The first two subsidiary tables as also the fourth and the fifth display their figures by age. The proportions are based on the population of each age-period and not of the whole State. The detail given in the margin indicates the distribution of literacy at different typical age-periods for the State as a whole.

Lite	LITERATE per mille							
Persons	Males	Females						
31	85	1						
11	,	.,						
321	23	1						
221	43	i 3						
331	62	3						
	Persons 21' 1† 12† 22†	Persons Males 21' 88 11' 2 12' 23 227 42						

† These are the means calculated from

Six-and-a-half per mille of literate in a total number of 805,013 persons of school-going age is undoubtedly a disreputable proportion. The proportion increases, it will be observed, with age, the highest being that of '20 and over'. The majority of the literate people under that category are the State servants, traders, etc., men mostly from outside. That it is chiefly the foreign element that constitutes the relatively higher proportion at the advanced age will further be illustrated by the age distribution given in Subsidiary Table II:

<sup>•</sup> Even Kashmir North and Laddakh have an average of 13 each.

Jammu (51.5), Udhampur (36.5), Bhadarwah (34.5), Kashmir South (42.5), Laddakh (22.5) and Gilgit (52) returning some of the highest proportions under that age \*.

Education by religion Tables I and III should be consulted. From the proportions noted in the margin, it will be seen that the Zoroastrians, the Christians and the Jains are the most literate people, but the members of all these communities, enumerated here, are mostly persons of extraneous origin. The Parsis and Jains are,

-			Litei	RATE pe	r mak
Rei	Kolon		Persons	Males	Females
Hindu		•••	61	110	3
Sikh	••	••	94	159	16
Jain	••		220	398	
Budbist	••	••	86	71	,
Zoroastrian	••	• -	710	737	667
Musalman	••		8	15	<b> </b>
Christian	••	••-	295	264	847

traneous origin. The Parsis and Jains are, moreover, essentially commercial people, and, to be able to carry on their business with efficiency and success, they must possess the capacity of keeping their accounts and correspondence themselves. In the case of Christians, however, the real extent of literacy comes to light only when the foreign element is eliminated; the proportion then comes down merely to 89 (97 males and 73 females). Even so, it remains sufficiently indicative of the improved conditions that follow the conversion. Next

comes the Sikh community with its 94 per mille of literate persons. It also contains a very large proportion of foreigners. All the services of the State are largely manned by the members of that community, and they are also represented very strongly in the ranks of merchants and traders†. The general advancement noticeable among the Sikhs is indeed a relic of their past political power, and it is no matter for surprise that in competition with the backward local races they get the upper hand. It is the Hindus, the Budhists and the Musalmans who constitute the indigenous population of the State, and as among them the Hindus (61) head the list with regard to prevalence of literacy. The Bodh of Laddakh (36) owes his literacy to the old civilization of Budhism, which carried knowledge and wisdom to the doors of every house that came under its influence. The most depressed class, educationally, is that of the Mohamedans, the percentage of literates among whom does not come up to even a whole number; it is only '8.

Literacy by religion will be found distributed locally in Subsidiary Table III, but some of the details given there require elucidation. The proportion of literates for Hindus in Mirpur is raised chiefly by the members of the patwari and other subordinate services of that district. The excessive proportion of the Hindu literates in Kashmir South (471) is obviously due to the existence there of the largest part of the population of the Kashmiri Pundits, a community most literate of all the local races; but the figures relating to the remaining two districts of Kashmir Province, as also to both the Frontier districts, owe their magnitude to the fact that there are scarcely any original inhabitants of that religion in those distant and difficult parts; the Hindus that go there being mostly the educated people engaged in service and trade. The same is the reason why the Sikh proportions are large in the Frontier. Of the Musalman averages the largest are those relating to Jammu and Gilgit. The literate Musalmans found in Jammu mostly hail from Punjab, and the Political as well as the State services of Gilgit contain a large proportion of Musalmans, who alone venture so far afield.

216. Subsidiary Table VI exhibits literacy by caste. That the Kashmiri Pundit is the most literate community in the Education by State will be realised from the presence within it of caste 325 literate persons per mille (580 males and 4 females). The Brahmans of Kashmir beat even the trading Arora (274)‡, and service-hunting Khattri (247)‡, and Mahajans (201)‡ of the Jammu

<sup>\*</sup> Compare what has been said in respect to all these districts in the last paragraph.

<sup>†</sup> Vide § 59, chapter I, page 29.

‡ The position occupied by these castes in public service here is very much akin to that of the Kayasthas in Hindustan;

Province. This finishes the list of highly literate sections of the State population. Even the ruling Rajput caste has a proportion of only 71, and the most illiterate of the Hindu tribes is the Jat (8). Among the Musalmans, the Brukpas and the Baltis of Laddakh are the most ignorant people, possessing as they do a proportion of 999 and 998, respectively, of the illiterate. The Babazadas (52), to which class most of the Pirs and Mullahe of Kashmir belong, have returned a proportion of the literate that looms largest in the literacy list of Mohamedan races and tribes found in the State. The Moghul (14) and Pathan (18) figures only remind us of the days when these races ruled in Kashmir one after the other, prior to the accession of the Sikh power\*.

217. City figures have been distinguished only in Subsidiary Tables II and III and may well be arranged as in the margin. Literacy in ' There are 140 per mille more of literate males and 7 females of all ages in the cities than in the State cities as a whole, and this is only as it should be. In fact the proportion of

			SEX					
	<b>A</b> q#		Males	Female				
All	4.	•	178	8				
010	••		18	2 '				
10-15		••	158	12				
15—20	••		213	13				
30 and ov	<b>e</b> r		238	10				

literate persons in the Municipal area, here, will be found in excess of most other Provinces and States, especially in the Northern India, a fact which has for its main cause the over-filling of the highlyorganised departments and offices of the State. Besides, it is the cities alone where all the trade and commerce of this country is mostly concentrated; they form the centres of all sorts of activities in industry and enterprise. At the time of the Census all the offices of the State were wintering at

Jammu, and Srinagar contains, it should be remembered, a large colony of Kashmiri Pundits—the Rainawari.

Ration Malos Pomples 446 Hinds 102 Sikb **134** 

As to the indigenous religious communities, the Hindu and Sikh possess the largest proportion of educated citizens and Musalman the smallest. When compared with rural population, the people of all persuasions living in the cities are, naturally enough, found literate in larger There is not much of education in the country-side even on the plains of India and much can scarcely be expected in such a hilly and out-ofthe-way country as this State.

Seeing that the advanced Provinces and States of India cut such a sorry figure in the education of females, it is but natural Female eduthat this still very much undeveloped State should have cation to present almost a blank sheet in that respect. In every thousand of its female population only one individual is literate. After the Parsis (667) and the Christians (347) which latter, by the way, include a large proportion of Europeans, the Sikhs return the largest proportion of literate women: 18 for all ages, 26 at '10-15', 28 at '15-20' and 24 at '20 and over'; the corresponding figures for the Hindus are 3, 5, 6, and 4†. The Budhist proportion of literate females is the insignificant 2, and the Jains and the Musalmans show a clean bill. Literacy is at its highest among the European females, who returned a proportion of 870 per mille. Locally, women are most literate in the Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract (3), particularly in Jammu district (5), and in the tehsils of Bhimber and Mirpur (3); and with reference to caste, the majority of literate women are to be found among the Aroras (56) and the Khattris (36). Of the Musalman women, the only literacy reported is in

<sup>\*</sup> Vide § 6, ch. 1, p. 5.

<sup>†</sup> The high percentages of literate Sikh and Hindu females in the Frontier districts represent the educated families of the State officials and tradesmen enumerated in those distant parts. These are mostly people from the Punjab; the extent of literacy among the women of local Sikhs is indicated by the proportion relating to Kashmir South (8), and of the Hindus by that of Jasrota, Udhampur (one each) and Riasi (nil).

the case of the *Pirzadah* class (Babazadas) and Pathans, but it probably consists merely in a capacity to recite the Quran.

219. Whatever may have been the character and language in general use in the early Hindu days here, Persian was used in all Scripts in public and private correspondence during the Mohamedan vogue rule and ever since; it was the court language down to the reign of the late Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh\*. This is why everywhere in this State, more especially in Kashmir, what is really only a knowledge of Urdu is usually called Persian; a circumstance which has gone far to vitiate our figures of literacy in either of the two languages. Beyond the narrow. circle of a few erudite Maulvis, there is scarcely any real and living knowledge of Arabic in the country; the majority of the persons shown as literate in that language is composed of the Musalmans who can only read the text of the Quran without understanding the sense. In the Dugar Raga, however, the foreign languages have had but the smallest influence. Gurmukhi is the character in which Punjabi is written and people in Jammu use what seems to be only a corruption of it. The Bodhi is written in Tibetan character. Kashmiri used to be written in a character called the Shardha, but now it is usually written in Persian character. The political agitation on the Urdu and Hindi question so acute all over the plains of India, has had but a feeble echo in this State, and has undoubtedly operated to vitiate the accuracy of Census returns relating to literacy in Urdu and Hindi to a

		PR	Pribons literate per mille											
DAUDKAŲ.	ES.	Hindu	Mussiman	Bikh	Budhist									
Urdu		26	4	26										
Persian		9	3	3	1									
Arablo		7.	1	••	,.									
Dogri	.	,11	1	1 .	,.									
Hindl		16	ļ ,.	9	12									
Bodhl		••	! "	••	\$6									
Gurmakhi		2		63	••									

certain, though very small, extent. The figures noted in the margin have been abstracted from Appendix VIII, and they indicate the full extent of literacy in various written languages in vogue in this State, so far as it could be ascertained from the Census records. Bodhi is, of course, confined to the Budhists of Laddakh, Gurmukhi is mostly used by the Punjabi Sikh and Dogri is characteristic of the Dogra Hindus. It is, however, the Urdu that is written most, and being the

second language in the public schools, and the court language in the State offices, it is used equally by the members of all the communities who can lay any claim to literacy.

English education looked for in the way of English education in this State. Subsidiary Table IV is devoted to this branch of education, and Tables I and V also make necessary references to it. In the margin are quoted the proportions of literacy in English as prevalent in

Relioion	•	NUMBER per mille							
ItELIGIOA		Persons	Males	Females					
A11	••	2	4	•					
Hindu	••	7	. 18						
tikh	••	6	11	.:					
Jain	••	20	37	••					
Budhist	••,		••	••					
Zorosstrian	••	710	727	687					
Musalman	••	·		•••					
Christian	•• .	258	224	817					
(a) \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	and ians	842	824	862					
(b) Natice		39	11	30					

the various communities enumerated here. Excluding the foreign element comprised of the Parsis, Europeans and Anglo-Indians, the prevalence of English education will be found infinitesimally small. The Jain Bhabhras (Khattris) have the largest proportion of English-knowing persons and the Hindus and Sikhs, though following in succession, compare very ill with the Jains. The caste table also shows that it is the Kashmiri Pundits (569 in every 10,000), the Aroras (378) and the ordinary Khattris (419) who have returned the largest proportion of literates in English. As between the Provinces, literacy in English is a little more common in Kashmir (52 males in

every 10,000 of the population of the Province) than in Jammu (51),

<sup>\*</sup> C. f. § 19, ch. 1, p. 14.

The districts of Jammu (80) and Kashmir South (90) owe the size of their proportions to the presence of State offices in Jammu and Srinagar and the existence of a college at either town. In Gilgit (76) there are so many English-knowing person because of the existence of a fairly large Political Office in that border land.

Progress of education between the present Census and the last, are given in Subsidiary Table V, and those of literacy in English in Table IV. No comparison is possible with earlier periods as the education table of 1891 was prepared here in respect to Europeans alone. The marginal pro-

•		O.	HERAL	Litera	er e	LITERACY IN ENGLISH							
STATE AT		M	Males '		alts	N.	lts	Females					
		1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911				
State		38	38		4 1	1	4	-:	11				
James		35	\$2	1	2	1	3	'	-1				
Keshmir	••	29	39	1		٠4	5	-1	2				
Frontier	••	#1	30		1	. 3	. 2	1	1 1				

portions, per mille, are disappointing on the surface, showing as they do that in the State as a whole there has been absolutely no progress so far as general literacy is concerned; and even in the Provinces, improvement has been slight in Jammu, none in Kashmir, and the large increase

of the literates in the Frontier districts is due only to a strengthening of the administrative machinery and an increased rate of immigration that have come about in the course of the decade\*. Actually, however, Education has not been as stationery as the Census figures would have us believe. This will transpire best from the statistics of the Education Department of the State dealt with in the next section; what has to be pointed out here is that the test applied at the present Census for literacy was stricter than that ever used before. Mere capacity to sign one's name or mumble out a word or two from some printed book was not taken, on the present occasion, for a real knowledge in any language. To be classed as literate the person had to be able "to write a letter to a friend and read the answer to it." This has undoubtedly operated to reduce, to a certain extent, the number of the literate persons registered this time. The effect of the change of criterion is particularly noticeable in the decreased proportions of the literate males under '15-20' in the State and at all age-periods in Kashmir.

Female Education has made a distinct improvement in the lower regions of Jammu Province (3), especially in the suddar district (5), but it is sad to find a general fall therein in Kashmir where the number of literate females was already very insignificant. English Education, even though it cannot be said to have made any real headway in the State, has certainly increased considerably during the decade; it is now four times as much as it was in 1901. Since that year, a college has been opened at each of the two cities for education in English Arts and Sciences, and there has been an expansion of educational efforts in other directions as well. The Frontier owes all its English knowledge, such as it is, to the endeavours of the Moravian Missionaries in Laddakh and to the presence of the Political Offices there and in Gilgit.

Statistics of Education Department Department Department Subsidiary Tables VII and VIII, and a distribution of the figures by religion and locality is presented separately in Appendix IX (annexed to this chapter). General increase in the number of educational

In addition to a general increase of men and officers in all the departments, there was the Settlement staff working in Kargil and Skardu at the time the Census was taken.

institutions and scholars may be judged from the figures exhibited in the mar-

YEAR		Institutions	Scholars
1891		45	2,776
1901		. 87	7,214
1911		379	31,194

gin. In the course of the decade under review, two colleges have come into existence, and they have certainly given an impetus to the Higher Education in English. The number of schools for Secondary Education has also increased; it has more than doubled itself, but it is still not sufficient to meet the full demand of the two colleges, with the result

that the total number of college students is only 125. Middle schools have increased no less; they are now 27 against 14 of 1901, but the rise is largest in the case of Primary schools which are at present thrice as many as in 1901. A Normal school for training teachers has also been opened at Srinagar. The number of indigenous schools (village maktabs) reported is 135, with a roll of 2,370, but the reliability of these figures cannot be vouched for. The attention paid to Female Education is evinced by the increase in the number of Girls' schools which are now nine instead of one at the last Census.

The marginal statement shows how many persons of the main religions

		:	EDUCATION	OP MALE	8	FRMALE
Religion		Higher	Secondary	Primary	Normal	Boucation
Hinda		110	6,415	4,985	18	819
Musalman 💌		11·	2,498	8,858	1	221
Sikh		4	34	80	•• •	84
· nahist	••;	••	T ]	23	••	
Others			11	125		
Total		125	8,888	9,018	19	774

found in the State are receiving education of different kinds. Taking the totals of the three grades of ordinary education, it will be observed that in every hundred boys of the school-going age of the community only 14 Hindus and two Musalmans attend school. Owing to the paucity of schools in the remote and hilly country of Laddakh and the general backwardness of the people inhabiting it,

the proportion in the case of Budhists is, rightly enough, only fractional ('6 per cent), but it might look strange that so few boys of the Sikhs (1'4) find their way to schools. Being composed chiefly of immigrants from the Punjab, the Sikh is, as has been seen before, by far the most educated community here\* and ought to send the largest number of children to school, but the Punjabi Sikhs employed in business and State service seldom bring their children of school-going age along with their families. Another factor which reduces the Sikh proportion is the tendency of its rising generation to get itself classified as Hindu. Of the persons being trained to act as teachers in Primary schools there are only 19 altogether, 18 Hindus and one Musalman. In the matter of Female Education the Sikhs rank highest with 8 per mille of their girls at school; the Hindus have 7 and the Musalmans '7. The departmental statistics, thus, support in the main, the conclusions drawn from the Census figures of literacy. Subsidiary Table VIII is specially devoted to English education: till 1901, the State imparted education only up to the secondary stage, and the number of matriculates was 29 against 6 of 1891; during this decade not only have the passes at Matriculation been 105, but also 20 at the Intermediate Examination and 5 at the B. A.

Books and newspapers, there is not much, if any, to speak of.

Altogether there are eight Presses here, but the only one of any magnitude is the State Press at Jammu. It is wholly occupied in printing official papers of the various departments of the State, and can scarcely find time for anything else. The State Gazette is the only periodical publication existing here, and its circulation has risen from 250 of 1891 and 275 of 1901 to 375 in 1911. In all, ten books in Vernacular and one in English are reported to have been published in the

The highly educated communities of Jains, Parsis, Europeans and Anglo-Indians, all foreigners, can obviously not be compared at all with the local people.

State during the last decade. In view, however, of the fact that the Presses do not maintain any authentic record of their publications, and also that no Press laws and regulations are in force, it is difficult to say how far the statistics forming the basis of Subsidiary Tables IX and X are either complete or accurate\*.

224. Notwithstanding the exertions of the Education Department of the State for diffusion of knowledge, even the fringe of the Ways and actual educational needs of the people, it must be admitted, means has not yet been touched. To begin from the top is always an erroneous course, and it is of no great avail to provide facilities for Secondary and Higher Education so long as the people have not had the preliminary grounding. The one real need of the country is wholesale Primary Education and the recent Coronation grant for that kind of education has indeed been a step in the right direction. In a country so intensely hilly, where each village is separated from the other by high spurs, mountain ranges, brooks and rivers, it is, however, not enough to establish State schools at selected centres, and the charges of providing a school to each isolated village must obviously be prohibitive. If, therefore, the agency of the village mullahs, pirs and pundits could be employed for this purpose, Primary Education of a truly popular type could be dispensed, with the maximum profit to the public and at minimum cost to the State.

The Primary Education at present given by the State is more or less free, but what seems necessary for an effective weaning of the people from their colossal ignorance, especially of the agricultural classes (who would fain retain their children for cattle-grazing, crop-watching and other agricultural and domestic pursuits than send them to school) is Compulsory Education, and it is high time for the State to follow the lead given by Baroda in this respect. Another direction to which the educational efforts of the State may advantageously be turned is the provision of Technical Education; it will particularly appeal to the Kashmiri with his special aptitude for mechanical arts. In Jammu, also, the artisan class forms an important section of the population and furnishes good material for that kind of education.

Mention may, lastly, be made of the lack of interest that the local officers have, ere this, been betraying towards educational matters. This has recently been discovered by the higher authorities, and the instructions that the present Revenue Minister has issued to his subordinates are calculated to rouse them to a true sense of their responsibility in the matter. To be constantly and closely watching the progress of education, and be endeavouring to popularize it within the tract in his charges, forms an integral part of the duty of an executive officer like the Tehsildar or the Wazir-i-Wizarat, and it is by keeping an eye over the doings of the village teachers that these officers can render most valuable assistance to the educational authorities. The personnel of the Inspecting Staff of the Education Department can nowhere be of a strength that could dispense with the help of the local executive, and it is much less strong here. At the same time, the educational authorities ought to give their best consideration to the recommendations and suggestions made by the local officers if an active and genuine co-operation is to be elicited from them. A distinct and speedy improvement in the educational condition of the country is sure to be wrought by these means and the next Census will, it is sanguinely hoped, find the people much more extensively educated.

```
Following is a complete list of the Presses existing in the State:

Sri Ranbir Prakash Press, Jammu, (Urdu and English);
Baldeo Prakash Press, Punch, (Urdu);
Private
Sri Partab Press, Jammu, (Urdu);
Sri Partab Press, Jammu, (Urdu);
Sri Ranbir Avishdhala Press, Jammu, (Urdu);
Sri Ranbir Avishdhala Press, Jammu, (Urdu);
Sri Ranbir Avishdhala Press, Jammu, (Urdu);
Sri Ranbir Avishdhala Press, Jammu, (Urdu);
Sri Ranbir Avishdhala Press, Srinagar, (Urdu and English);
Saligram Press, Srinagar, (Urdu);
Saligram Press, Srinagar, (Urdu);
Frontier...

Private
... Missionary Press, Leh, (English).
```

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I—Education by age, sex and religion

	Number per mille who are literate											1	ER PO		NUMBER per mille who ar LITERATE 18 ENGLISH			
Religion	. A	11 ag	06	0—1	10-15				15-20 20 & over									
	Total	Male	Female	Male	Fornale	Male	Femals	Male	Female	Mate	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Malo	Female	
1	2	3	4	5	в	7	8	9	10	11	12	18	14	15	16	17	18	
All Religions	21	38	. 1	2		23	1	42	. 2	62	2	979	962	999	2	4	•••	
Hindu Sikh Jain Budhist Zoroastrian Musalman Christian (a) Europeans and	61 94 220 36 710 8 295	71 727 15 264	18 2 667 847	93 93 37 <i>5</i> 23	46	883 17  7 81	26  1  186	186 500 60 1,000 16 171	1,000 667	264 518  917 25 384	833 565	906 780 964 290 992	841 602 929 273 985 736	982 1,000 998 338 1,000 653	6 20  710  258	11 87  727  224	667 317	
Anglo-In- dians  (b) Native { Christian }	89	97	78		***		-	***	***	•••	***	911		927			30	

The proportion of the literate at each age-period is calculated on the total number of persons at the same age-period and not on the total population.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE II-Education by age, sex and locality

		N	UMBE	B pe	n mil	la WH	O AR	E LIT	BRAT	'E	
<b>.</b>	A	l ago	В	0-	-10	10-	-15	15-	-20	20 &	0701
DISTRICT AND NATURAL DIVISION	n n	9 1	Female	9	Female	g e	Female	<u>e</u>	Female	<u>e</u>	Female
	Total	Male	Fer	Male	Fer	Male	Fer	Male	Fe	Male	Fer
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	. 8	10	11	12
ENTIRE STATE	21	38	1	2	***	23	1	42	2	62	2
I.—The Submontane and Semi-moun- tainous Tract	32	84	3	3	1	36	5	68	8	83	4
Jammu District	39	67	5	4	1	44	7	81	10	98	5
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and Kathua tohsils only)	25	45	1	2	•••	27	***	43	***	70	.1
Mirpur District (Bhimber and Mirpur ) tehsils only)	23	42	8	2	1	30	4	57	4	64	8
II.—The Outer Hills		28	1 1	1 8	•••	13 29	1	26 48	1 2	47	1 2
Jaerota District (Basohli tehsil only) Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, ,, )	1	48 21	1		••.*	7	i	26	2	87	1
Udhampur District	6.	89	1	1		18	1	28	1	62	1
Riasi		26	944	1	•••	8	***	22 87	1 2	67	1 2
Bhadarwah Jagir	1 40	41 19	1	1 1	***	16 13	1	24	1	) 31	1
Punch Ilaga	1 40	12	. 🔭	* :	•••	10		[ **	1 1	~	Į -
Jammu Province	22	39	2	2	***	23	2	44 •	3	62	.2
III.—The Jhelum Valley	21	39	***	2	,   •••	24		42	1	65	1
Kashmir North		25	***	1	***	11		24	1	84	•••
South	40	53	1 1	3	•••	87 14	1 1	60   <b>26</b>	1	47	1 2
Muzaffarabad District	15	26	*	<b>.</b> .	•••	19	•	-	*	ļ <u>.</u> .	-
IV.—The Indus Valley		30	1			ß	1	24 20	<b></b>	51 44	*1
Laddakh District	1 00	25	1 1	1	•••	5   11 <sub>a</sub>	4	52	***	102	2
Gilgit , ,, '	1	59	[ -	1 -		r		]		238	10
Cities	102	178	8	18	2	158	12	213	<b>13</b> .	200	10

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III—Education by religion, sex and locality

		Nu	MBER P	er mille	MHO VI	BE LITE	RATE	
DISTRICT AND NATURAL DIVISION	Hi	ad <b>a</b>	Muss	lman	Si	ikh	Bud	hist
	Male	Female	Malo	Female	Male .	Female	Malo	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
ENTIRE State	110	3	15	•••	159	18	71	2
I.—The Submontane and Semi-	85	5	22	1	285	57		***
Jammu District	91	6	27	1	186	37		
Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and Kathua ) tehsils only)	67	1	15	•••	185	20	•	***
Mirpur District (Bhimber and Mirpur ) tehsils only)	100	6	19	٠١	402	82	•••	•••
IIThe Outer Hills	60	1	10	•••	102	17	24	•••
Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only) Mirpur , (Kotli ,, ,, )	54 118	1 2	15 10	•••	750 293	1,000 45	•••	
Mirpur ,, (Kotli ,, ,, ) Udliampur District	55	1	14	•••	410	164	24	
Riasi ,,	54	·	7		332	31	***	•••
Bhadarwah Jagir	56	2	17		·· <u>·</u>		•••	•••
Punch Ilaga Jammu Province	105 73	5 3	10 14	•••	76 168		28	•••
III.—The Jhelum Valley	453	4	15	***	144	26	l '	•••
Kashmir North	413	5	13		206	8	•••	***
, South	471	2	17		118	8		•••
Muzaffarabad District	373	20	12	•••	117	7		***
IV.—The Indus Valley	542	78	13		689	292	71	2
Laddakh District Gilgit ,	602 514	71 87	11 28	i	697	250 312	71	2
Gilgit ,,	] "**	6,	~~		1 000	314		•••
Cities	446	19	48	1	334	. 102	<b></b>	•

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV—English education by age, sex and locality

,							olise					
•					19	911 -					19	01
DISTRICT AND NATURAL DIVISION	0-	-10	10-	-15	15-	-20		and ver	All	ages	Ali	ages
	Male	Female	Male	Femalo	Malo	Female	Male	Female	Malo	Femule	Malo	Femalo
1 .	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
ENTIRE STATE	2		38	1	84	1	47	2	36	1	10	•••
I.—The Submontane and Semi- } mountainous Tract	1	•••	37	3	112	3	68	2	51	2	•••	•••
Jammu District	2	1	60	7	167	5	106	3	80	3	•••	***
Kathua tehsils only)		***	18	•••	21		18	•••	13		***	•••
Mirpur District (Bhimber and Mirpur tehsils only)		•••	11	•••	63	1	30	. 1	22		•••	•••
II.—The Outer Hills  Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only)		***	3	•••	11	•••	12 19	•••	8 11		411	•••
Mirpur , (Kotli )		***	2		4 11	***	19	•••	11		•••	•••
Udhampur ,, Riasi	••• :	•••	7	•••	5	•••	19		12	[	•••	•••
Bhadarwah Jagir	···		***	***	1	***	5		3		•••	
Punch Ilaya	. 1	•••	- 5	1	22	***	13	1	9	1		***
Jammu Province III.—The Jhelum Valley	1 4	•••	17 67	1	52 131	2	36 64	1 3	25 52	1 2	15 4	•
Kashmir North	i	•••	18	***	26		23	1	16		4	1
,, South Muzasfarabad Dietrict	7	•••	121	1	244	2	104	5	90	3	•••	***
IV.—The Indus Valley	ï	•••	2 4	•••	11 5		26 34	1 1	13 18	1	2	   1
Laddakh District		•••	3	***	3	•••	19	1	11			
Gilgit ,,	3	***	8	•••	19	***	139	8	76	4	•••	

II.—The Outer Hills

Riasi ,, Jagir Punch Ilaga ...

III.—The Jhelum Valley ...

" South ...

Muzaffarabad Dietrict IV.—The Indus Valley ..,

Laddakh District

Kashmir North ...

Riasi

Gilgit

Jasrota District (Basohli tehsil only)
Mirpur , (Kotli ,, ,, )
Udhampur , ... ...

Jammu Province

SUBSIDIARY TABLE V—Progress of Education since 1901\*

I				į	Īσ	M BE	B 0	ľ	ITE	RA'	re ,	pe	r mill	e		1
١		A		ge			<u>—</u> 1				-20	1	20 at		)VOI	
	DISTRICT AND NATURAL DIVISION	Male		Female		Male		Female	Mala	at and	Female		Mak		Femalo	- [
į		1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1801
۱	1	2	3	4	Б	6	7 8	9	10	11	12	<u> </u>	14	16	161	17
١	ENTIRE STATE	38	38	1	1	23 2	22	i ī	42	<u>-</u>	2	1	62	60	2	1
	I—The Submontane and Semi-mountainous } Tract	84		3	•••	36.	1	Ď	68	<b></b>	в	•••	83		4.	
	Jammu District Jasrota ,, (Jasmirgarh and Kathua tehsils only) Mirpur ,, (Mirpur and Bhimber ,, ,,)	45		1	•••	44 27 30		7	43	ļ	<b> </b>		70	•••	1.	

... \*\*\*

.,.

\*\*\*

\*\*\*

\*\*\*

\*\*\*

\*\*\*

\* Comparison with 1891 not possible. Imperial Table IX, corresponding to Table VIII was prepared in that Census in respect to Europeaus alone.

...39,39

...3939....12428....14252 ...25......11......24... ...53....1...37...1...60... ...26....1...14...1...26... ...3023 1....6 4 1...2415... ...25....1....5......20...

1 24 28 ... 1 42 52

...|...|20|...|...

4 ... 52

71 37...

62 ... 43 ... 67 ...

62,60

5136 1

102

1 1

1 ...

1

	ŞŲ	BSID	IARY	TAB	LE V	<u> 71†—</u>	Eduo(	tion	<i>by 00</i>	ıste				
	,				N	NUMBER per 10,000								
	_			1	Literate		Ì	literate	1	LITERATE IN ENGLISH				
	CASTE			Total	Made	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female		
	1			2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
			<del></del> -		<del></del>	——√ Hindu		,_						
Arora Brahman Jat Kashmiri Khattri Mahajan Rajput Thakkar	•••	***	* *** *** *** *** *** *** *** *** ***	274 58 8 825 247 201 71 17	420 104 15 580 401 357 118	56 5 1 4 36 10 3	726 942 992 675 753 799 929 988	580 896 985 420 599 643 882 968	944 995 999 996 964 990 997 1,000	378 28 3 569 419 54 28	630 50 6 1,016 713 97 47 5	6 16 16		
Awan			•••	7	13	•••   •••	993	987	1,000	2	4	•••		
Brukpa Balti	•••	•••	***	1 2 4	2 4 7		999 998 996	998 996 993	1,000 1,000 1,000	2 2	5 <sub>3</sub>	,,,		
Bat Babazada Dar	***	•••	***	52 3	100 5	4	948 997	900 995	996 1,000	10	20 1 3			
Malik Mughal	•••	•••	***	) 7   14   18	18 26 28	1 6	993 986 982	987 974 972	1,000 999 994	8	15 29			
Pathan Rishi Shin	•••	•••	•••	6	12 15	`	994	988 985	1,000	1 ,  ₁	 <sub>1</sub>			
Sufi Sheikh Yashkun	***	•••	•	11 4	. 19 9	1	996 989 996	993 981 991	1,000 999 1,000	11	21 3			

<sup>†</sup> No such table was prepared in 1901,

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII—Number of Institutions and pupils according to the returns of the Education Department

		191	11	190	)1	189	91
CLASS OF INSTITUTIO	M	Numbe	B OF	Numbe	B OF	Numbe	R OF
		Institutions	Scholars	Institutions	Scholars	Institutions	Scholars
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
College	•••	2	125	ļ <u></u>	•••		****
High School	***	8	4,519	3	1,450	15	527
Normal School	***	1 1	19	. •••	***	ا ر ا	***
Middle School	***	27	4,369	14	1,846	4!	725
Primary School		197	9,018	69	3,668	26 [	1,449
Indigenous School		135	2,370	***	***	14	1,075
Girle School	***	9	774	1 1	250	•••	****
· Total	***	379	21,194	87	7,214	45	3,778

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII—Main results of University Examinations

Examin		19:	11	196	01	189	1
CLARIN	ATION	Candidates	Passed	Candidates	Passed	Candidates	Passed
1	<u> </u>	2	3	4	5	6	7
	***	179 51 25	105 20 5	47	29	7	6
I	otal	255	130	47	29	7	6

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE IX—Number and circulation of newspapers, etc.

Language	Class of newspaper (daily, weekly,	,	1911		1901		1891
	eto.)	No.	Circulation	No.	Circulation	No.	Circulation
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Urdu	State Gazette • (weekly)	1	375	1	275	1	250

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE X-Number of books published in each language

						Nu	MBER	OF B	00KS	PUBL	ished in		
LANGUAGE	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	T	otal of decad	ie
									1303			1891–1900	1891–1901
1	2	3	4	5	6	. 7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Urdu English			 		•••		200	2	<b></b>	8	10	***	***
	***	***		***	***	***	***	<u> </u>	•••	1	1	•••	***

N.-B.—No information is available as to Education in the Frontier Ilaque and these tables relate only to the rest of the State.

APPENDIX VIII—Statement showing full extent of literacy in the various vernaculars (by religion and locality)

	1													Lite	RATE I	N									
		Ŀ	ITERATE			Urdu		P	ersian		4	Irabic		1	Dogri			Hindi			Bodki		Gu	rmukh	
Religion		Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Мазев	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Регвопв	Males	Females	Регвопя	Malcs	Fomales	Persons	Males	Fomalos
1	- 	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	_11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
	-									ENT:	IRE ST	CATE:	——]												
Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Jain Budhist Zoroastrian Musalman		44,051 315 3,153 75 1,327	2 1 <b>9,</b> 049	1,689 1,019 40 264 39 1 302 24	17,473 177 811 15 10	801 15 10  9,601	152 13 10   152	28 54  2 1 7,015	13,131 6,076 25 50  2 1 6,976	77 31 3 4	2,196 5   2,191	2,091	105	8,133 7,826 11 42  254	7,785 11 38		11,673 11,207 75 281 34 5 1 70	10,751 56 272 34 5	487 456 19 9  1 2	1,371   1,310  44 17	1,326   1,271  44 11	39	1,433 24 1,965 26	1,144 19 1,728 26	289 5 237
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Jain Budhiet Zoroastrian Musalman Christian			1,686 75 5 2 7,901	911 29 203 	8,440 162 5 528 18  3 5,678	153 5 516 6 18 	123 9 9 	1,291 28 47  1	1,274	17	4	4	65   65	7,972 7,681 11 32  248	7,592 11	93 89	8,693 70 260 34 5	8,681 8,271 56 251 34 5	448 422 14 9 				2,337 1,249 22 1,027 26  1	,1,891 989 19 845 26  1	260 3
		•	1			İ	1		KAS	SHM	IR PR	OVIN	CE												1
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Musalmen Christian	•••		1,152	10	2 8,66 9 25	5 254 5 254	29		4,784	14	 	 	40	116 103  9		 3 	-,-	2,300	35 30 5		***	***	1,099 175 1 912 11	1,023 148 864 11	76 27 1 48

										<b>~</b> `~												
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Musalman Christian	***	24,441 14,944 11 703 8,779 4	677	64 9 26 52	8,162 5	2 109	22 3 1	9,531 4,687  6 4,838	4,673 14 6	1,154 1  1,153	1,125 29 1 1,124 29	108 97  8 3	103 95  5 	5 1,940 2 1,923 5 11 1 1	1,904	24 19 5	*** *** *** ***	*** *** *** ***		650 74 1 568 7	620 67 546 7	30 7 1 22 
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Budhist Musalman Christian	**************************************	3,214 621 11 58 1,522 1,173	615 9 51	65 6 2 7 39 	368 10 81	9 31	<sub>1</sub>	541 18  2 521	541	31	31 31 31	45 42  1  2	45 42 1 2	184 184	180	4	1,371 5 1,310 44 17	1,271 44	***	38 9 1 26	27 7  19  1	11 2 1 7
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) (Arya) Sikh Jain Zoroastrian Musalman Christian	***	14,234 11,426 128 416 74 3 2,169 18	10,880 113 359 74 2	734 546 15 57  1 110 5	6,053 4,196 79 167 14  1,579	4,115 75 160 14 	177 81 4 7  80 5	1,136, 780 13 23  1 819	1,111 25 766 14 12 1 22 1  810 9 JASROTA	194 4  190	175 19 171 19 19	2,277  18	2,308 3 2,241 3 17 1 	6 3,813 30 34 84 1 1 28	3,538 20 30 84	275 10 4	***		616 617 618 618 619 619 619 619	565 356 6 174 26 1	381 216 6 130 26 1	140
Hindu (Brahmanic) ,; (Arya) Sikh Musalman		4,005 3,618 24 17 339 7		78 65 2 3 6	996 758 1 5 226	988 755 1 5 223 4	8 3  3 2	84 49 1 1 32 1	83 1 49 1	57  57	55 2 	1,124 1,101 9  14	1,109 1,087 1 9	1,621 11 1 8	1,599 1,582 9  8			 g 	***	104 89 2 11 2	93 80 2 9 2	
Hindu (Brahmanio) ,, (Arya) Sikh Jain Budhist		5,034 4,252 7 40 1 5 729	4,954 4,198 6 29 1 5 715	80 54 1 11 	1,236 884 5 11 1	1,225 879 5 11 1	11 5   6	416 163 5 248	32	65	58 7   58 7	2,419 2,339 1 3  76	2,402 1 2,322 1 3 76	7 805 7 797  5	791 783  5	14 	**** *** *** ***		*** *** *** ***	93 69 1 21 	65 51  12  2	18 1 9

APPENDIX VIII—Statement showing full extent of literacy in the various vernaculars (by religion and locality)

	1	r	ITEBATE											Lu	TERATE	או									
			IIEBAI B	<u> </u>		Urdu		P	ersian			Arabic			Dogri		1	Iin <b>di</b>		+ 1	Bodhi		Gu	rmukh	
RELIGION.		Persons	Males	Fomales	Persons	Males	Females	Рогвопв	Males	Females	Регвопв	Malos	Females	Persons	Males .	Fernales	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Femalos	Persons	Malos	Females
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
						`			R	IASI	DIST	RICT								-		-			
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,,(Arya) Sikh Musalman	•••	3,026 2,428 11 109 478	2,988 2,406 11 102 469	38 22  7 9	705 377 5 28 295	698 373 5 28 292	7 4  8	124 59 1 2 62	122 59 1 2 60	  2		***	4	1,388 1,342 1 8 37	1,382 1,336 1 8 37	66	667 622 4 38 3	659 614 4 38	8	114 114 114 114	444 444 444	***	61 28  33	50 24  26	
AN Delimina		<b>200</b>	e enn	920	0.405		-	500			•														
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Musalman Christian		7,007 3,577 89 889 2,445	6,677 3,425 81 781 2,384	330 152 8 108 61	3,485 1,391 48 217 1,822	3,427 1,371 46 215 1,789	20 2 2	503 137 6 9 351	497 136 4 9 348	1 2	***	208	•••	195 179  2 14	193 178  2 13	1		1,454 1,260 20 153 21	58 2 5		***		1,074 552 13 503 6	898 480 11 402 5	72 2 101
				-					BH	ADAI	RWAE	JAG	IR	,						-	;				
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) Musalman	•••	918 774 144	892 749 143	26 25 1		234 191 43	4 3 1	41 32 9	41 32 9		36 36	***		430 375 55	416 361 55	14	168 168	160 160		***	•••		5 5	5 5 •••	***
			`	•					]	PUN	CH IL	AQA						-							
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) , (Arya) Sikh Musalman Christian	***	3,573 1,283 34 420 1,830	1,236 31 401 1,798	47 3 19	640 24 97	635 21 97	3	360 71 7 7 275	354 69 7 7 271	 	177  177	167	•••	 1	69 67  1		390 354 3 80 3	369 334 • 3 30 2	21 20 	***		***	435 150 285	399 133 266	36 17 19

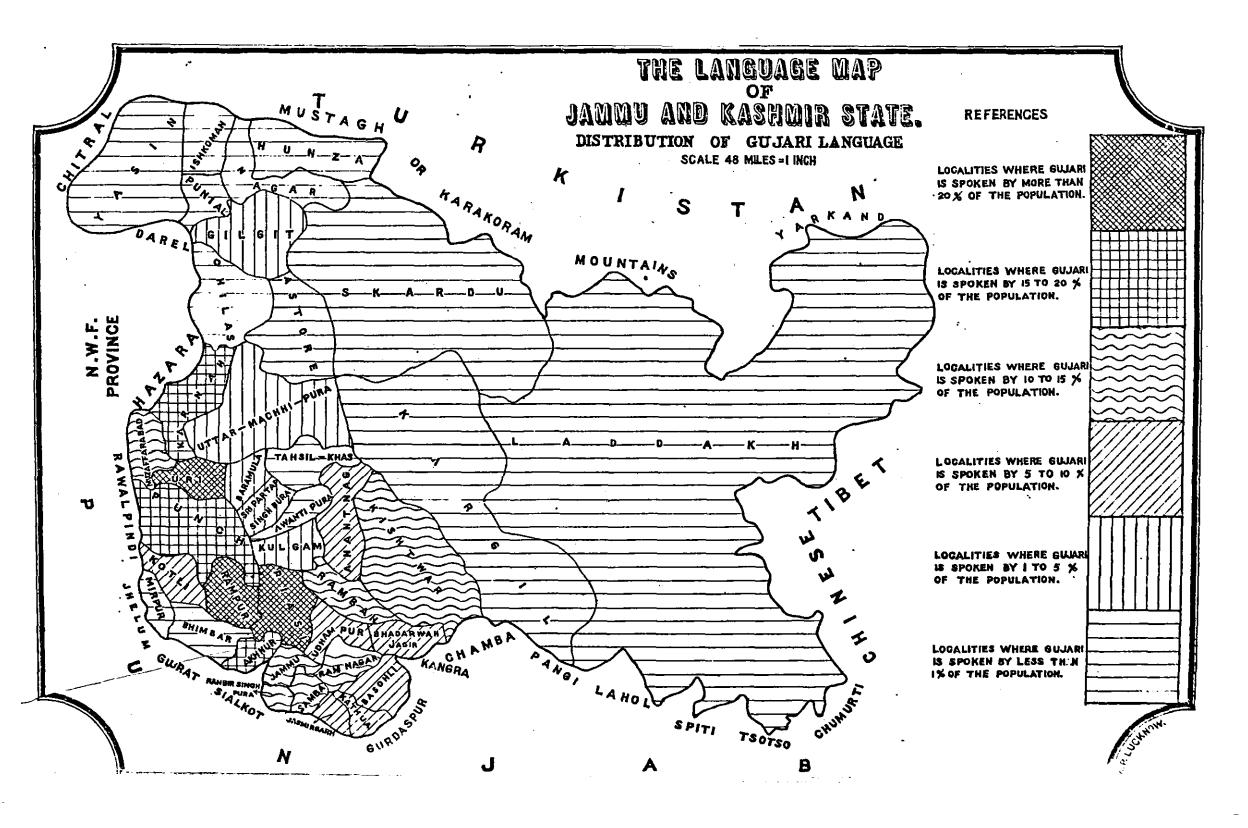
1		1	1	<u>l</u> .			f I	<u> </u>	KASHMIR I	NORTH		1 1	1 1		- 1	•	1	- 1	1	ì	1.
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Musalman	*** *** ***	6,240 2,496 3 523 3,218	2,477 1 506	19 2 17	1,687 1 44	1,683 1 44	4 4 	1,680 537  2 1,141	534 3 1	1	15 2	17 15 2	191 2 10		7 5 2	***	*** *** *** ***	***	537, 65 465 7	513 58  448 7	24 7
*									KASHMIR :	BOUTH					.		-		ļ	-	l i
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) ,, (Arya) Sikh Musalman Christian	***			94 45 7 9 33	7,709 6,475 4 66 1,160 4	6,457 1 65	3 1		4,139 11		82 6	80	1			***		***	113 9 1 103 	107 9  98	6  5 
			]	ĺ		İ		31	(UZAFFARABAI	DISTRIC	T								•		
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) Sikh Musalman		2,894 1,128 501 1,265	2,813 1,090 475 1,248	81 38 26 17	1,375 503 145 727	1,365 496 145 724	10 7 	472 111 1 360	111		6	8 6 1	. 407 10	409 396 10 3	11 11 	 	***	100	449 101 344 4	403 81 818 4	46 20 26
		<u> </u>	1	1		ĺ	,		LADDAKH D	ISTRICT					Ì						
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) , (Arya) Sikh Budhist Musalman Christian	•••	2,429 215 11 25 1,322 828 · 28	2,373 213 9 23 1,283 828 17	56 2 2 2 2 39	536 178 10 14 10 814 10	531 178 9 14 10 314 6	5  1  4	465 11  2 452	465 12 11 2 452 17	 	99	9	. 15	13 13 	2	1,371  1,310 44 17	44	39	16 2 1 11  1	12 2 9	
	1	-					ļ		GILGIT DIS	STRICT			•			l					
All Religions Hindu (Brahmanic) Sikh Musalman Christian,	•••	785 406 33 345	776 402 28 345	9 4 5	468 190 17 260	17		76 7  69	76 14 7 69 14	14	36 33 1 2	36 33 1 2	.   169 	167 167 	2  	*** *** ***			22 7 15 	15 5 10	2

APPENDIX IX

Comparative statement of schools and scholars in the State\* by religions and provinces

1		•		_	190	1				_		19	911	_	_	
			ools	-	Stu	EN:	rs			sols		Sı	UDEN	T8		
,	Institution		No. of Schools	Hindu .	Musalman	Sikh	Budbist	Others	Total	No. of Schools	Hindu	Musalman	Sikh	Budhist	Others	Total
.	1	<del></del>	2	3	4	-	6	7		9	10	11	-	13	14	15
		<del></del>					-		<del>`</del>	_					_	
	College	÷••	•••	•••	***		•••		•••	2	110	11	4	•	•••	125
	High School	***	3	1,286	. 110	17	•••	37	1,450	8	3,666	810	34	•••	9	4,519
E	Normal ,,	***		•••	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	1	18	1	***	•••	***	19
ENTIRE STATE	Middle ,,	. •••	14	1,386	460		•••		1,846	27	2,749	1,618		<b></b>	2	4,369
MTIB	Primary ,,	***	69	2,536	1,132	•••	•••		3,668	197	4,985	3,858	30	22	123	9,018
.   A	Private ,,	***		••••	***	***	***		•••	135	535	1,823	***	•••	12	2,370
1	Girls,	***	1	235			•••	15	250	9	519	221	34		•	774
	Total	***	87	5,443	1,702	17	•••	52	7,214	379	12,582	.8,342	102	22	146	21,194
	College	•••		•••	***	•••	•••		. •••	1	62	7	4		•••	73
	High School	•••	1	624	. 40		•••		664	3	1,784	397			2	2,183
K CE	Normal ,,	•••		•••	•••	•••	***	•••	•••		•••	***	•••	•••	•••	***
JAMUD PROVINCE	Middle -,,	•••	11	1,186	278		•••		1,464	19	2,208	936				8,144
M P	Primary ,,		36	1,295	568	•••	•••		1,863	121	2,875	2,253	20		56	5,204
ЗАЖ	Private ,,	•••		•••	- <b></b>				•••	19	218	198	] <b></b>	•••	•••	416
	Girls' ,,	***	1	. 235	•••		•••	15	250	2	205	***	15	•••	***	220
	'A Total	•••	49	3,340	886	•••	•••	15	4,141	175	7,352	3,791	39		58	11,240
1	College	, ,,,		***	•••		•••		•••	1	48	4			***	52
1	High School	•••	2	662	70	17	•••	37	786	5	1,882	413	34		7	2,336
PROVINCE,	Normal ,,	547		•••	***		•••	•••	***	1	18	1			***	19
PROV	Middle ,,	. ***	3	200	182		•••		382	7	527	, 552	•••		2	1,081
E E	Primary ,,	•••	33	1,241	564	 	•••		1,805	. 68	2,102	1,330	10		67	8,509
Kashmir	Private ,,	•••		***	***	<u> </u>	•••		•••	96	317	1,192			12	
	Girls' ,,			•••	•••	<u> </u>	• 4.		•••	7	314	221	<b>,1</b> 9		₽	554
	Total	•••	38	2,103	816	17	•••	37 <sub>1</sub>	2,973	<b>18</b> 5	5,208	3,713	63		88	9,072
<u>,</u>	Middle School	***		·	•••		***			1	14	130				144
FRONTIER DIS- TRICT	Primary "	***			***		••••			8	8	275	]	22	•••	805
TRICT	Private ,,				•••	 		•••		20		433	••• 1		•••	433
FBC	Total	***			•••			,		29	22	838	•	22	•••	882
			[.]											۱.	· [	
`				* Exc	lading t	hę l	Fro	nti	er Ilaqa	6.					-	





#### CHAPTER IX

#### LANGUAGE

By ascertaining the mother-tongue of the people enumerated, the Census materially helps the Linguistic Survey and philo-Opening logical research in general, to which circumstance this remarks chapter owes its importance. It is a pity that, owing to the great ignorance of the people, not much useful information could be gathered as to the nature and affiliation of the various languages, dialects, and patois in use in the country, and the ill-educated enumerator has also not always been infallible in regard to this, as to other, census detail, but it can be said with some degree of confidence that the language figures as finally framed possess all possible statistical accuracy. These are arranged, both territorially and philologically in Imperial Table X, from which the three subsidiary tables appended to this chapter have been abstracted\*. In addition to the tables, two maps are provided to show the different language. regions of the State as also the prevalence of the tribal language of the nomadic Gujjar. The coloured map indicates the zones of the five main languages that are more or less indigenous to the country. Each language has its specified colour over the tract where more than half the people speak it. The extent to which Gujari is spoken in various parts of the State is designated by means of graded hatching in the other map.

226. The territories of Jammu and Kashmir State, being as versatile linguistically as in every other respect, possess a long range Classification of dialectic distinctions, each isolated valley, big or small, of languhaving its peculiar dialect as much as its peculiar tribe, . ages caste, customs, manners, dress and so forth. Besides those appearing in the Imperial Table, a large number of other names were returned which upon inquiry were found to be more geographical than linguistic. The figures returned under them were thrown into the totals of the parent dialect or language to which they really belonged. The scheme of classification followed is that of the Linguistic Survey of India as modified recently by Dr. Grierson in the light of information latterly obtained. The arranging of the language names, here, was nevertheless a task of some difficulty, because of the variety of the names used in the schedules; and a great deal of local knowledge had to be brought to bear on the work before a satisfactory list of recognised terms could be framed. Want of precision in the popular nomenclature also contributed its share to our difficulties but it was counteracted, it is hoped, a great deal by the detailed instructions given to the counting as well as the compiling agency. Neither the Urdu-Hindi controversy, nor the confusion made in regard to the knowledge of Urdu and Persian, produced any palpable effect on the language statistics of the State, as they did in the case of literacyt, but the fact cannot be disguised that the Urdu-Punjabi dispute has affected the results of the language inquiry in the lower tracts of Jammu in some small measure.

General distribution of language varies with distance even on the well-connected plains of India, and it is only natural that in this highly inaccessible and broken country dialectic variations should be quite numerous. Over and above the ethnic influences, the physical conditions materially affect the intonation, the phonetic character and the accent of speech, and the variety of physical features in this country is one of the greatest. All the same, the various forms of speech in vogue do originate from one or the other of the well-known

Some mistakes of classification crept into the Imperial Table; they have all been set right in Part (b) of Subsidiary Table I of this chapter, and all other tables of the chapter conform to it.

<sup>†</sup> Vide § 219, chapter VIII, page 164.

families of language and as such admit of a genealogical classification. Such common stocks, it will be seen from the language map, are only five. It is interesting to find that the language zones correspond so closely to the divisions into which the State has been divided from a physical point of view. With slight modifications, the language commonly used in the lower plains skirting the hills of Jammu Province is the ordinary Punjabi; the Pahari regions come next and may roughly be said to be co-extensive with the Outer Hills'; then comes the Kashmiri region, almost coincident with the Jhelum Valley; Tibetan is spoken all over Laddakh and Shina in Gilgit and beyond. The Gujjars speak their own tongue wherever they go and it is impossible to distribute it locally with anything like permanence. They move with seasons and carry their language, as everything else, along with them. At the time of the Census they were found in largest numbers in the lower levels of Uri, Rampur and Riasi tehsils, where they were wintering.

The maps at best give only a rough idea, and the details in the margin

LANGUAGE (	DB.	Persons speaking (000's omitted)	Proportion per mille on entire population
Kashmiri Pahari Dogri Gujari Punjabi Balti Pothwari Chibbali		1,165 544 517 203 213 132 94	375 178 168 82 69 43 80
Laddakhi Shina Othera		54 26 '98 P	17 8 1 7

should be referred to if statistical accuracy is sought for. The languages and important dialects are arranged here in the order of their prevalence, and for the localities where they are chiefly spoken Subsidiary Table I, Part (a) and Subsidiary Table II should closely be consulted. According to the figures marginally exhibited, the language spoken by the largest number of persons in the State is the Kashmiri; Pahari and Dogri follow it in immediate succession.

228. The figures and the names quoted in the last paragraph only represent the popular view of the matter; the languages are classed scientifically in Part (b) of Subsidiary Table I. Foreign languages, whether of Europe, Asia, or even must necessarily be very limited.

Of Europeans it is the English whose number is at all considerable in the State and English has been returned as the mother-tongue of no less than 257 individuals\*. The next important race is German, and 14 German-speaking persons have been recorded. As to the rest only one spoke French and two Dutch.

Among the Asian tribes, the only community deserving of mention are the Afghan coolies working within the State borders, and it is they who swell the number of Pashto speakers to 2,745. The religious connections of the Laddakhi Bodhs with Tibet have been already referred to, and there are always some Lhassa monks and others present in that part of the country; hence it is that 115 individuals were registered at the Census as speaking Lhassi. Trade relations between Laddakh and Yarkand are also well-known and it is to them that 29 Yarkandi-speaking persons are due. The figure represents the belated tradesmen of Turkistan who were overtaken by the winter and had to stop at Leh until a re-opening of the passes leading to their homes. Persian-speaking mullahs continue to migrate to the present day from their native lands to the Shia Baltistan (58) and Arab mendicants to Kashmir (7).

It has been shown in the chapter on migration that the current is strongest as between the conterminous Provinces and States. A very large number of migrants from the hilly tracts of the Punjab situate on the eastern borders of the State find their way into Bhadarwah and its neighbourhood, in consequence of intermarriage and other social relations, and that is why we find 923 persons speaking the

<sup>\*</sup> British subjects of European origin, according to Imperial Table XVIII, number only 226 persons; the excess in the English-speaking persons must be due to some Anglo-Indians and others having returned English as their mother-tongue.

dialect of Chamba, 276 of Kangra and 97 of Mandi. On the north, the greatest intruder is of course the Dardi (4,711) a generic term used for the inhabitants of the petty countries in and beyond the Gilgit Agency collectively called Dardistan. Of the people of India, the venturesome Marwari trader extends his exploits even to this remote country and we find no less than 127 Marwari-speaking persons. Goanese is spoken by the domestic servants hailing from Goa who are found in some European families, as also probably in the Reception Department of the State, and Guirati by the small Parsi community existing here. The only point deserving of notice that remains to be mentioned is that what is termed as Sindhi dialect in the tables is not the language of Sinch at all. It is only a form of Lahnda and has as such been shown under Western Punjabi.

229. The languages indigenous to the State belong only to two families:

(a) Tibeto-Chinese Family and (b) Indo-European Family. Languages of The language spoken throughout the district of Laddakh the State is essentially Tibdan, but there is a great variety of dialects in different parts of it which proceeds from the mutual isolation of those parts, on the one hand, and communication with other parts of the State, especially those lying in close proximity, on the other. The Bodhi of Zanskar is, for instance, very different from that of the Nubra, and the Changpi of Rukshu, from both. The Balti has great admixture of Persian and Shina, and the Brukpi of the tribes who originally immigrated from Gilgit, but form now a permanent element of Laddakh population, is combined of the two elements, local and foreign, of which the tribe using it is composed. This has a further sub-division; the Brukpi of the Bodh Brukpas inhabiting the villages Dah and Hanu\* has its own peculiarities. It is an instance of the influence that religion and special civilization of the peoples exercise over the forms of the speech used by them. The language in use in Drass Valley by verging, as it does, on the Kashmiri zone has got a large proportion of Kashmiri words mixed with it. Similarly, the Hodhi of Zanskar tends to merge into Pahari, the Pahari of Padar into Bodhi, and the Kashmiri of Gurez into Shina. It is a great pity that the local officers did not take sufficient care to record these distinctions and all such minor but distinct sub-divisions had to be merged into the broader ones. That is how the Tibetan language in vogue in Laddakh district has been shown in the final table only under two main heads, the Balti (43 per mille on the population of entire State) and the Laddakhi (17 per mille) -a distinction that is more religious than linguistic.

Sub-Family and Branch	Sub-Branch	Group	Language	Spoakers per mille
Bub-Pamily, Ludian Branch	Non- } Hamskritic }	Shine Khowar	Shina Kashmiri Kohistani	7 372 2
Aryen Bub.Pa	Banekritio	Western group	Western Pun- jabi† Punjabi‡	87 235 259

Includes Dogri.

The Indo-European family has a large range of sub-divisions. Those relating to this State are noted in the margin. The grouping has been effected in conformity with the latest suggestions of the great linguist, Dr. Grierson, but it may not be futile to note the following points as they may prove of interest to philologists and elicit further investigation: (1) Kashmiri used to be hitherto treated as of Sanskritic origin. It has this time been grouped with Shina Khowar according to the revised list of classification, but the claim locally urged that it is

essentially a Sanskritic language persists, and in view of the historical fact that the Valley of Kashmir, before its conversion to Islam, was wholly populated by Brahmans with their Shastric lore, that claim might merit a reconsideration. (2) Rambani, Kishtwari and Dodi have no doubt a strong element of Kashmiri in them, but it is merely fortuitous, due only to an extensive colonization of the tracts where they are spoken by Kashmiris who, in order to avoid congestion in the Valley and helped by the course of political events, crossed the high Panjal Range and settled in .

In the language index of the last Census forming part of the Administrative Volume of India Report, this dialect is shown as 'Dah-Hann'

a country most favourable to them, agriculturally as well as climatically, The preponderence of that race could not have failed to influence the local language of the country which was originally only a form of Pahari-a language undeniably in vogue in the rest of the district.\* Genealogically, these dialects would, therefore, seem to fall under the head of Pahari rather than Kashmiri, even though they have been grouped with the former in deference to expert opinion. (3) From the colours shown in the Language Map it will appear that the tracts where Pothwari, Chibhali and Dogri are chiefly spoken have been classed as regions of the Pahari. This is due to the immense influence that Pahari wiells over these dialects, and the extent to which it has tended to absorb them. Even though they have been classed under Western Punjabi (Lainda) and Punjabi in Subsidiary Table I (b) on the authority of the linguists, the question requires to be scrutinized more closely before it can be finally decided whether these dialects legitimately belong to Pahari or Punjabi language. The inconsequential and unscientific reports of the local officers on languages lead nowhere, and afford no help for a determination of this point. (4) Gujari has now been classed under Pahari, but it is coubtful if this is more correct than its previous classification under Rajastheni. Those families of this nomadic race, which have permanently settled in various parts of Jammu and some of Kashmir and taken to agriculture, may have adopted local languages, but the wandering classes, who form the largest majority, have absolutely no dealings with the natives of the country and, leading the isolated life they do, far removed from the villages and in the pastures and woods of the land, they have manuged to retain their original tongue; and if they have really migrated from Rajputana, as is the latest ethnological view in respect to them, the language of the Gujjar should continue to be treated as a branch of Rajasthani rataer than Pahari. Internally, too, there is good evidence in favour of such a sourse, as the words used by the Gujjar are more akin to Hindustani than either to Punjabi or Pahari.

230. In the course of complation, some idiosyncrasies of the enumerator were detected in the shape of very minute linguis-Odds and tic distinctions which, though now submerged in the ends large mass of language figures, deserve a mention here. Six persons were reported to be speaking Gilgiti, one Yasin, 22 Chilasi, 23 Punyali and 188 Hunza languages. These have all been amalgamated with Shina. Bodhi (16), Bhoti (643), Tibetan (15,033), etc., were the different names used for what has been specifically termed as Laddakhi. Class names were in certain cases employed to signify language; such were Watali (81) the language of the Watals (sweepers), Khari (1) that of the Khars (black-smiths) and Vani (4) that of the Vanias, of Kashmir. They were all included with the Kashmiri totals. In Jammu also, some small differentiations were made, such as Punchhi (40), Jamwali (727), Gilwali (4), Midrali (1), Mangwali (1). The only one of importance was Udhari (1,420). This term was returned in Chaneni as signifying the language of the tribes inhabiting the northern hills of that *Ilaqa*. Since the local officers certified that the language spoken in that *Jagir* was Dogri throughout, these figures were thrown into the totals of that language; but because it is not intelligible to ordinary Dogras and is found in a region conterminous with the zone of the Pahari, it is questionable if it has been rightly shown as Dogri. A variety of terms was employed in the case of foreign languages as well: Afghani (1,723), Kabuli (4), Shinwari (2), Pashti (3), were used for Pashto; Turki (16) for Yarkandi (Turkistani), Purbi (152) for Hindi or Hindustani and Poria † (5) for Chitrali. All these and certain other nondescript terms were traced to their sources and the units shown under them were classified under the proper heads, with the result that while 93,415 units were shown in the last Census as not belonging to any of the recognised languages not one has been allowed to remain unclassified on the present occasion.

<sup>\*</sup> The Musalman Kashmiris found there speak their own tongue and are classed under Kashmiri proper. It is only the Hindu races in respect to whom these dialects are usually returned, † Misread as Purma.

The language statistics do not, of course, include any figures of the Ilaque bordering the Gilgit district, as the special Languages of schedule used there provided no column for mother-tongue. the Frontier The knowledge about the dialects of that part of the State Ilaqas is meagre also otherwise, and the only thing possible is to quote in extenso the Political Agent's reply to our Language Circular (No. 113):

\* \* The following languages are spoken in this Agency:

Shina is spoken in political districts of Punial, Kuh, Chilas and the greater portion of Ishkuman, with a very small difference in dialect in each district, but the people can all understand each other. It contains many Sanskrit as well as Persian words.

Burishiski or Khajuna which is spoken in Hunza, Nagar and Yasin with very slight variations in dialect in each place; also contains.

several Sankrit words.

(c) Poria Khowar or Chitrali is spoken in Ghizar as well as in Yasin and Kuh. It contains many Persian words.

Wakhi is spoken with small difference in dialect in Ishkuman and

Guihal in Hunza.

There is no literature in any of these languages, neither is there any difference in the dialect as spoken by rich and poor, or men and women. The well-to-do people can read and write Persian and correspondence is generally carried on in this language. Urdu is also understood in the larger villages to some extent."

232. It has not been found possible to classify the languages spoken by some of the wandering tribes all trace of whose ethno-Gypsy Langualogical and geographical origin has been lost. Those of the category belonging to this State are shown separately at the end of Imperial Table X. By a collation of the figures there and those contained in Imperial Table XIII, Subsidiary Table III has been prepared. The Bazigars, Nats and Kanjars who have been recorded here are the same as are found in the Punjab, United Provinces and elsewhere in India. They speak their own special tongue generally known as Bazigari and Karnathi (or Karnatki). Kaghani Bakkarwals are nomadic shepherds from Kaghan Ilaqa in the north-west of the State. They come down to lower levels in search of grazing ground and also to avoid the rigours of winter. Labanas, Gaddis, and Gujjars are now permanently attached to this country. Enough has been said of the Gujari language above. Gaddis would seem to be only the Hindu counterparts of Gujjars and they use their own language as much as the Gujjars do. The Labanas are the same as are found in the Punjab and Gujari .. 252,692 they also have a tribal language of their own. The Gaddi .. 6,854 full extent of these languages is shown in the margin Bakkarwali (Kagkani) .. 5.890 so far as it has been registered in the Census records, Bazigari, eto .. 40 That the figures are neither accurate nor exhaustive .. is evident from the grave omission of the Changpas of .. 9,061 Laddakh from the list. They are as much a nomadic race as Kaghanis or any other wandering goat-herds and have their characteristic language; but their tribal and linguistic figures could not be separately traced. Even though the whole of Rukshu valley is populated by Changpas only 24 were returned as speaking 'Champai'!

233. All the important dialects will be found linguistically classified in Part (b) of Subsidiary Table II, and, as has been point-Dialects ed out above, there are very many others of minor importance which have not been distinguished. It has also been seen that it is the nature of the country that helps to create so many dialectic distinctions. All the same, those originating from a common stock are easily understood by the people of the various parts over which the parent language pervades, and the very fact that the dialects spoken by two sets of people are not intelligible to each other determines them as parts of different languages. The various zones of languages of the country overlap each other near their borders and the preponderance of one of the two neighbouring elements has so far been the chief basis of classification of the dialects spoken on the border line. That is how

Kishtwari and Rambani have come to be classed as branches of Kashmiri instead of Pahari. The Udhari of Chaneni is an instance of a cross between the Pahari and the Punjabi (Dogri), Gurezi, between Kashmiri and Shina and Drasi, between Tibetan and Kashmiri. Even though such hybrid tongues may be intelligible to the users of either of the two parent languages of which they are composed, it is necessary to distinguish them in order to show how languages, like races and tribes, tend to merge into one another.

As to how far dialect is a question of sex or caste, it may be noted that the language used by women is, because of the lesser frequency of their mixing with people outside their family circles, necessarily purer and chaster than is the case with males, but the difference is, in the main, one of accent, and can scarcely be regarded as constituting a dialect. Similarly, social distinctions exercise some influence over the form of speech, but the variations so caused proceed more from the economic and educational than racial conditions of the people. The more well-to-do, having profited more by the civilization they live in, use a more refined and decent language. Although the influence of caste over dialect has sometimes been recognised by Linguistic survey, no trace of it is observable here, and to draw a line of social cleavage in that sense is not practicable.

234. For a country so disintegrate, physically, it is difficult to determine a lingua franca, and all that can safely be categorized in Lingua franca this connexion is that Punjabi is the language commonly understood in all parts of 'the Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract', Pahari in 'the Outer Hills', Kashmiri in 'the Thelum Valley', and Tibetan in 'the Indus Valley' (Shina on the Gilgit side and Bodhi in Laddakh) †. But owing to the fact that Persian was the Court language in the past regimes and Urdu holds that distinction now, and in view of the intimate connexion that exists between the two, the latter tends to become the lingua franca of this part of the country as it is claimed to be of the rest of India. Persian influence survives in the north to a greater degree, and that is why one can, up to the present day, make himself intelligible everywhere in Kashmir, Gilgit and Baltistan by using that language, at least in conversation with the more advanced and highly-placed people there. In Jammu Province, the place of Persian is easily taken by Urdu, and owing to the fact that it has all this while been the second language in the educational circle and the school books used in the State are written in it, it is extending its propagation still further. The result is that with a speaking knowledge of Urdu one can manage to get through every part of the country without difficulty, and the host of visitors that come to the State every year, European as well as Indian, can well testify to this. That next to Urdu, Punjabi is largely understood here, is but a survival of the connexion that this country has in the past had with the Sikh Court of Lahore.

235. The only comparison possible with the figures of 1891 is that relating to European languages, because the Imperial Table dealing with 'parent-tongue', like those of civil condition and education, was here prepared only in regard to the Eu-

LANGUAGE		1891	1901	1911
Dutch	:	1	1	2
English	••	194	177	257
" and Italian		9	••	••
" and French	,••	1	••	••
French		•	••	1
Gorman	••		**	14
Portuguese	••	7 <b>4.0</b>	7	
Russian	••		1	••

ropean community; and the comparative figures of those languages stand as per margin. These figures show only the change that has been taking place from decade to decade in the number and nationality of the European migrants to this country, and serve no linguistic purpose. Kashmir has been the pleasure-ground of all the Indian and Asiatic races who have ever had any civilization and, ever since modern Europe and America came in commercial and political

contact with India, it has become a coveted haunt of the inhabitants

<sup>•</sup> C.f. §§ 229 and 230 ante.

of those countries. The influx of Europeans tends to increase from year to year, according as the fame of the beauties of this fascinating land is reaching all corners of Europe and America, and the number of the seasonal visitors is continuously on the increase. The language figures only represent those Europeans who were found within the State boundaries at the date of enumeration living in semi-permanent migration.

The statistics of all other languages are compared below, as between this Census and the last:

[A0gong	10	1901	1911	Language	1901	1911	Language	!_	1901	1911
	Asia	tio		Sanzkrit Nagri	9	::	Bhadarwahi Bangrali	::	21,298 4	24,499
Arabio Bagdadi	::	19	} 7	Mathori Purbi Hindustani	49 1,150	) ::	Bangri Bambagi Budad		** <b>\$2</b> 0	125 • † 849
Afgheni	**	30 i 273	)	Crda	369 1,519	2,911	Chibbali Dogri Andri	=	86 436,211 1	83,206 516,441
Balochi Cheghatti (Ta	gaŭ)	116	2,745.	Kaneri Kulwadi (Kulwari) Kathiawari	10 28	276 24 5	Dodi Gujari Gaddi (Gadi)	::	156,849 4,620	170 253,693 6,354
Kabuli Pashto	••	1,253		Meltani Markatti Marwari	1	4 5 127	Kashmiri Vani Kishtwari		\$61,618 33 12,078	1,133,229 7,464
Chinese Kaghani	••	297	\$890* 115	Mewarl Mandiall Naipali	33	97	Palari Padari (Padri) Pogli		103.685 4,540 6,351	488,403 4,813 8,156
Lhussi Persian Yarkandi (Tu	rklah)	552 33	58 29	Gorkhall	794 855	1,344	Punjabi Gurmukhi Pothwari		863,539 854 107	913,337
	Indi	1	_	Pangwali		6	Pawadhi Rambani Shina	::	5 359 46,813	2,174 21,565
Bengali Bikaneri Chambiai	••	62 13 5	- 79 4 923	Balti (Bhotia)	130,678	132,161	Siraji Sasori	::	14,743	14,565
Chilad Ohitrall Daghini	••	228 10	" 7 13	Brukpa Bhutti Bodhi	6,104 29,718	h "	Nagasi Unspecified	::1	93.415	::
Darda ( Dardis Dravid		8,807 392	4,711	Tibetan (Laddakhi) Malhesti		54,237	1	Gy,	D# <b>y</b>	
Goaness Guirati	••	56	6	Kanashi	1		Bazigari Karnathi	::1	••	3
Hindi	•••	33	556		\$7,588	IJ	Labani		2,529	2,08

<sup>&</sup>quot; Includes 1,140 wrongly shown as BambagL

† Shown this time with Kaghani.

The variations disclosed by these figures ought not to be misconstrued as signifying either a decay or increase in the use of any dialect or language or a gradual displacement of non-Aryan languages, as one great source of the discrepancies is a difference in the method of classification adopted at each of the two censuses or, to be more accurate, the excessive misclassification that has taken place on either occasion. The figures of foreign languages, whether of India or Asia, may be partially affected by change in the currents and extent of migration, but that circumstance does not explain away the whole difference. The increase in Pashto and its sub-divisions, for instance, or the decrease in Turkistani is certainly ascribable to a larger influx of the Pathan coolies on the canal works and to fewer Yarkandis lagging behind at Leh, but the large number of persons shown last time as speaking Persian must be held to be as nothing but the result of an inclusion of many of the Urdu-knowing persons with Persian-speakers, a confusion so generally made here and which has been so assiduously guarded against on the present occasion. Most of the speakers of Chambiali were evidently mixed up either with Dogri or Pahari totals. The Gujrati figures of the present as well as of the previous enumeration contain some units of the dialect of Sindh or Marhatti, as the Parsis numbered only 31 in one case. and 11 in the other. Quite a jumble seems to have been made of Hindi, Hindustani and Urdu figures. Sanskrit being no spoken language has this time been amalgamated with Hindi, and other minor divisions of the chief language of Hindustan have also been shown as Hindi. Hindustani though synonymous with Urdu was allotted a separate heading in 1901; but taking the two together a general increase will be found to have taken place in the number of Urdu-speaking persons. Unless many of the Gorkhas were formerly shown as speaking one of the local tongues, the language figures relating to them disclose an enormous increase in their community.

Misclassification has been still worse in the case of local languages; those most offended against being Punjabi and Pahari. Chibhali and Pothwari appear to have been ignored almost entirely in the last Census, all their figures

having been mixed up with Punjabi; and quite a large proportion of Gujari and Pahari speakers also was evidently classed under Punjabi to raise its total to the abnormal size it reached in 1901. Again, 654 persons were shown as speaking Gurmukhi, although Gurmukhi, as has been repeatedly pointed out, is no language but merely a character in which Punjabi is usually written. It has also been noticed that the dialects used by 93,415 were not traced at all, and it is impossible to say now which of the heads shown were adversely affected by this want of classification. Nothing reliable could be known as to the nature of Andri and Nagasi of the last Census and Sarori of the present, but in all likelihood they are only instances of the enumerators over-specification. It is necessary to mention, lastly, that in 1901, 392 persons were shown as speaking 'Dravidi' and the language was classed as Dravidian. The connexion between this State and the Southern parts of India—they being the two extremes—is so little that so many Dravidian people could not have been found here. Drava is an ilaqa in Karnah and it is probable the language of some of the inhabitants of that valley was recorded 'Dravi', and being misread as Dravidi was classified as Dravidian.

236. This chapter may well close with a note as to what, if any, literary activity is shown by each of the local languages. Even Literary though, as has been seen above, five different languages are activity spoken here, the peculiarity of the State is its Kashmiri language, and it ought to be considered foremost. In ancient times when it is used to be written in Shardha character, it may have possessed some religious and secular literature, but in its present state of degeneration Kashmiri can scarcely be called a written language at all. Attempts are now being made to build up some literature in it, the character used being Urdu (Persian). Dogri character is largely used in the south-east of Jammu Province, but it is at best only a corruption of Gurmukhi, and there are no books in Dogri beyond a few official publications that were issued in the time of the late Maharaja, Sir, Ranbir Singh. The Bodhi of Laddakh, however, having had its own civilization, possesses a large literature, essentially religious in character, but it is confined to the Lamas and Lamasaries, and as such is not progressive. The only literary activity observable here is among the persons educated on modern lines and there is some circulation among them of Urdu newspapers and books imported from the Punjab and elsewhere which, if allowed to proceed, may lead to an eventual development of literary taste among the people at large.

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE I

#### Distribution of total population by language

(a) according to Census

Language *	Total number of speakers (000's omitted)		Number per mills of popula- tion of State	Where chiefly spoken		
	1911	1901	(1911)			
1	2	3	4	5		
Kashmiri	1,165 †	994 ‡	875 •	The whole of Kashmir Valley; Ramban and Kishtwar tehsils of Udhampur district, Kund and Nundimarg <i>Raqas</i> in Rissi, and by Kashmiri colonizers in Bhadarwah, Punch, Muzaffarabad and elsewhere		
Pahari	544	145 §	176	Throughout the Outer Hills, chiefly in Bhadarwah Jagir, Udhampur and Ramnagar tehshils of Udhampur, Basohli tehsil of Jasrota, and Riasi district		
Dogri	517	436	166	In Dugar Raga: Jammu and Jasrota districts and submontane tracts of Udhampur and Riasi		
Gujari	253	127	82	Everywhere that the nomadic Gujjars go. At the Census they were found chiefly on the lower hills of Jammu, Riasi, Punch and Muzaffarabad		
Punjabi	213 T	864 \$	69	On the plains of Fammu and Mirpur		
Balti	132	137 ••	43	Baltistan in Laddakh		
Pothwari	94	#	30	Mirpur district		
Chibhali	82	#	27	Mirpur and in western parts of Riasr		
Laddakhi	54	81 (	17	Laddakh		
Shina	26 §§	58 <b>TT</b>	8	Gilgit district and beyond		
Others	23 .	112 \$\$	7	***		

The languages are ranged in this table and Subsidiary Table II according to the extent of their use and not in a philological order.

- † Includes Rambani, Dodi and Kashmiri.
- ,, Vani, Dodi, Kishtwari and Rambani.
  ,, Bhadarwahi, Pawadhi, Padri, Pogli, Siraji and Sarori.
  ,, Bambagi, Pawadhi, Bhadarwahi, Padri, Pogli, Siraji, Malhesti, Kanashi, Bangrahi, Andri and Nagasi.
- Includes Multani.
- Garmakhi,
- Bhutti.

- median problem in 1901 as speaking this tongue.

  Only 107 persons were shown in 1901 as speaking this tongue.

  Only 86 persons were shown under this head.

  Includes Tibetan and Bodhi.

  Chitrali and Dardistani.

  Chitrari, Chilasi, Brukpa and Darda.

  This is so high because it includes 93,415 shown in 1901 as "unspecified".

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE I-Distribution of total population by language (b) according to Linguistic Survey

1		Having to 120	9			
Family, Sub-Family, Branch, Sub-Branch	Group and Sub-group	Language	Dialect ,	Total number of speakers	Number per wille of population of the State	Where chiefly spoken
1	2 .	3	4	5	6	7
<b> </b>		LANGUAGES OF	THE STATE		<u> </u>	
Tibeto-Chinese Family TIBETO-BUBMAN SUB-FAMILY Tibeto-Himalayan Branch	Tibetan group	Tibetan	{ Balti { Laddakhi	132,161 54,237		Baltistan Laddakh
Indo-European Family						
ARYAN SUB-FAMILY Indian Branch Non-Sanskritio	Shina Khowar	Shina Kashmiri	Kashmiri Rambani Kishtwari	21,562 1,155,229 2,171 7,464	372 1	Gilgit Kashmir Ramban Kishtwar
Sub-Branch	group	Kohistani	CDodi Kaghani Bambagi	170 4,750 1,140	1	Doda Wherever Ka- ghani Bakkar- wals are found
	North- Western group	Western Punjabi	Chibhali† Pothwari† Punjabi	82,206 94,125 213,339	27 80 69	Mirpur
Sanskritio Sub- Branch	Western group	Punjabi	Dogri Rathi † Bangri ‡ Pabari Bhadarwahi Bhujwali Budali Pawadhi Padri	516,441 4 125 488,403 24,499 432 849 14 4,813	157	Bhadarwah ,,    Riasi ¶ Udhampur Padar ilaqa in Udhampur
		Western Pahari	Pogli Siraji Sarori Gujari Gaddi (Gadi)	8,158 14,562 1,599 252,692 6,854	 82	Pogal ilaqa in Udhampur Udhampur  Wherever Gujjars are found C Seeken by the
<b>_</b>	-	LANGUAGES	•			
Tibeto-Chinese Family Tibeto-Himalayan Branch	Tibetan group	Lahuli Lahuli	Pangwali \$	6	` <b></b>	Pangi ilaqu
Indo-European Family ARYAN SUB-FAMILY Indian Branch Non-Sanskritic Sub-Branch	Shina Khowar group	{ Chitrari Dardi	Chitrali ** Dardistani **	4,711	2	Chitral Frontier ilaqas & Gilgit

<sup>\*</sup> The language of Kaghani Bakkarwals found at the time of Consus on the lower hills of Riasi has wrongly been shown in the Imperial Table as Bambagi. Linguistically it falls under Kehistani and is shown

here.

† Wrongly shown in Imperial Table under "Languages of India".

† Not trueable in classified lists. The persons speaking it having been found chiefly in Mirpur, it is shown as a dialect of Punjabi.

§ Most of the people speaking Westeren Punjabi residing in Punch and Muzasfarabad having wrongly been shown under this head.

|| Bhujwal is an ilaqu in Bhadarwah.

¶ Dialect spoken in Budil ilaqu near Budil Pass.

§ In the Imperial Table this is wrongly shown as a language of the State under Indo-European Family, Aryan Sub-Family, Indian Branch, Sanskritic Sub-Branch, Westeren Group, but here it is shown as Tibetan in conformity with the revised classification scheme of Dr. Grierson circulated under Census Commissioner's No. 1624, dated 12th December, 1910.

\*\*Wrongly shown in Imperial Table as a language of the State,

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I—Distribution of total population by language (b) according to Linguistic Survey

Family, Sub-Family, Branch, Sub-Branch	Group end Eub-Group	Language	Dialect	Total number of speakers	Number per mille of population of the State	Where chiefly spoken
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Indo-European Family Abyan Sus-Family Indian Branch Sanskritic Sub- Branch	group Southern group Eastern group Western group	Bengali  Western Hudi  Rajasthani  Gujratī  Punjabi  Western Pahari	Marhatti  Goanese  Hindi Urdu Dakhini Marwari Bikaneri Gujrati Kathiawari Kangri § Chambiali Kuluwari Mandiali	66 222 6 579 556 1,911 13 127 4 4 44 5 276 923 24 97	000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 00	Multan Shikarpur By Marhatta Brahmans Goa Bengal United Provinces ,, and Punjab Hyderabad Marwar Mewar Bikaner Bombay Presidency Kathiawar Kangra Chamba Kulu Mandi
	Northern group	Èastern Pahari	Naipali	1,844	1	Nepal
•	;	LANGUAGES	OF ASIA			
Indo-European Family Abyan Sub-Family Iranian Branch	Eastern group	Pashto		2,745	1	By the Afghan occides found working at Upper Jhelum Canalin Mirpur
Indo-European Family	Iranian group	Persian .	808 80B	58	***	)
Semitic Family	{ Northern } Branch }	Arabic	*****	7	***	
Tibeto-Chinese Family Tibeto-Himalayan Branch	Tibetan group	Lhassi	052 Of	115		In Laddakh by Lhassa immi- grants
Mongolian Family	Ural Altaic group	Turkistani (Turkish)	Yarkandi	29	100	By Yarkand im- migrants in Laddakh
		LANGUAGES	OF EUROPE		ļ.	
Indo-European Family	Romance    Teutonic	French English Dutch German	910 000 910 000 910 000	1 257 2 14	***	Spoken by the immigrants of these nationalities
	  -	Unclassified	LANGUAGES			
	[ ]   Сурву	Bazigari Karnathi	011 to 0	38 2	***	By Nats & Bazi- gars (Acrobats)
,	Languages	Labani		2,061	1	By Labanas of Jammu Province
• In the Imposi		<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<u> </u>

<sup>•</sup> In the Imperial Table X it has been misclassified under Tibeto-Chinese Family, Tibeto-Burman Sub-Family, Tibeto Himalayan Branch, Pronominalized Himalayan group, Western Sub-group.

† This is not the language of Sindh in Bombay. The persons speaking it were from Shikarpur and its neighbourhood and, being as such only a form of Lahnda, the dialect is classified under Western Punjabi.

<sup>‡</sup> Wrongly shown in Imperial Table as a language of the State.

<sup>§</sup> In his note on classification of languages, Dr. Grierson says that Kangri of Kangra is only a form of Dogri, hence it is shown under Punjabi instead of Pahari.

This is shown in Imperial Table as "Romanic."

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II

Distribution by language of the population of each district

· ·				-							<u> </u>
		,	Num	BEB per	10,000	OF PO	PULATIO	N SPEA	KING		_ ' [
DISTRICT AND NATURAL DIVISION	Kashmiri	Pahari	Dogri	Gujeri	Punjabi	Balti	Pothwari	Chibhali	Laddakhi	Shina	Others
1	2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
ENTIRE STATE	3,754	1,750	1,664	814	687	426	303	265	175	85	77
Jammu Province	776	2,357	3,219	1,204	1,200	e dia	589	514	4		128
Jammu District	278	88	6 <sub>6</sub> 570	1,306	1,671	•••	1	15	400	1	130
Jasroth ,,	130	679	8,076	778	263		1	•••	. 1	***	72
Udhampur,,	<b>3,094</b>	1,604	4,058	814	72	41 100	***	89	25	qe's	299
Riasi ,,	994	3,217	2,730	2,258	85	(0.0%)	***	443	•40	<b></b>	273
Mirpur ,,	4	307	861	305	3,378	èsia	2,892	2,202	•••	t-apiá f	51
Bhadarwah Jagir	2,811	5,624	635	589	85	(***	Aus .	***	1	1	304
Punch Ilaqà	458	6,967	85	1,841	638	. +	. 1	***	1	. ***	9
The Jhelum Valley	8,030	1,286	10	464	152	1	***	1	1	35	20
Kashmir North	8,978	388	6	`280	234	1	•••	•••	•••	97	16
" South …	9,524	101	14	215	115	1	1	2	2	1	24
" Valley	9,295	221	10	243	165	1	•••	1	1 1	41	-22
Mozaffarabad Dist.	908	7,282	5 5	1,714	979	444	•••	•••	•••		12
The Indus Valley	38	5	43	9	27	6,273	•••	-2	2,542	1,032	29
Laddakh District	32	2	7		11	7,067	, VIA	2	2,870	•••	. 9
, Gilgit , ,	88	32	319	80	152	.97	]	•••	-040 'g	9,059	±78

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III
Comparison of oaste and language tables

4	• ·	Tribe	•		Strength of tribe .(Table XIII)	Number speaking tribal language (Table X)
K		1	*****	:	2	· 8
Gujjar		***	***	400	328,003	252,692
Gaddi	***	· •••	•••	•••	10,568	6,354
Bakkarwal (1	Kaghani)	***	***	•••	583 <sup>♠</sup>	5,890†
Bazigar (Kar	rnatak)	•4•		an '	1,276	40
Labana	•••	<b>943</b>	-gde	44.	5,321	2,061

<sup>•</sup> The rest seem to have been misclassified under Gujjar and any other wandering tribe.

<sup>†</sup> Includes 1,140 wrongly shown as Bambagi in Imperial Table X, against the district of Rissi.

#### CHAPTER X

#### Infirmities

cerned will be found in Imperial Table XII. Part I of that Table gives the age distribution and Part II the local distribution of those infirmities. To distinguish the infirmities by caste another Table has been added as XII-A, which will also be found in the Table Volume. As usual, a set of subsidiary tables, four in number, is appended to this chapter showing, in proportional figures, distribution of the afflicted persons by locality, age, sex and caste. The figures relating to each infirmity have been separately shown both in the Imperial and subsidiary tables.

238. Accuracy of the infirmity statistics depends largely on the manner in which they may have been collected and compiled; Their accuracy it rests upon the instructions issued to the enumerating agency as to the nature of the diseases that were to be recorded and to tabulating agency as to the great care with which they were to be abstracted and classified, and upon the extent to which those instructions may have been Census deals with only four kinds of diseases: Insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness and leprosy. An expert diagnosis, either on the part of the semi-literate enumerator or the hopelessly ignorant public, can neither be expected nor claimed in this backward State, but all gross errors were sought to be obviated by giving detailed but simple instructions both as to what cases were to be registered in column 16 of the enumeration schedule and what, not. There was not much chance of a confusion of leucoderma with laprosy, nor of cases of blindness of a single eye with those of the affliction extending to both the eyes, as there are separate words to signify each of those diseases (phulbahri being used for the white patches and korh, juzam, etc., for common leprosy of the corrosive type, kana for the person having lost the sight of one eye, and andha or nabina for the one totally blind), but the condition that, to fall within the purview of Census, deaf-mutism should date from birth was, in all parts of the State, except perhaps in the districts of Jammu, Mirpur, Gilgit and Laddakh and the ilaga of Punch, held by some enumerators to apply to blindness as well, and this may have somewhat vitiated the blindness figures. Deafness and dumbness were in some quarters held to be required severally, but it was very easy to correct this mistake at the stage of copying, all such separate entries being altogether ignored and no slips prepared for them. One more point has to be brought out as affecting the value of our infirmity statistics. Persons suffering from more than one of the Census infirmities simultaneously have been shown as many times as was the number of their afflictions, but such instances were extremely rare, and since the same appears to have been the method of compilation in the previous Census the value of the new figures is not at all vitiated for purposes of comparison.

As regards unintentional mistakes, it should be borne in mind that the insanity figures must include some, if not all, the cases of idiocy; the enumerator could never have been able to distinguish the violent from the milder form of the mental disease and no instructions were given for an exclusion of idiots, as that would have only led only to an omission of a large number of really insane persons. And as to persons who have lost hearing or speech by some accident or persons hard of hearing having been shown as deaf-mutes, persons whose sight has become dim in old age having been shown blind, or persons suffering from acute syphilis shown as lepers, the district officers certify, with one voice, that such misclassifications were not allowed to occur anywhere. The extent, however, to which the figures are really accurate or

The Census Commissioner of India rightly remarks: "In some countries attempt is made at the Census to distinguish between the violent form of mental derangement, or insanity properly so called, and idiocy. Even in Europe, however, it has been found almost impossible to separate the two classes of mental disease and in India the difficulty would be far greater." It would, therefore, not be safe to attempt a differentiation of this nature even on a future occasion.

faulty can be determined with certainty only when the statistics of each infirmity come to be examined and discussed individually.

239. The scope for comparison is as limited in regard to infirmities as it has been in many other respects. In 1891, infirmities, like civil condition, education, language, etc., were recorded only in respect of Europeans and Anglo-Indians, and none having been returned by that community, the table

was printed blank! The figures noted in the margin therefore relate only

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				_			
		PROPORTION, per las, OF THE APPLICAD					
IMPIRALTY		Ma	rios	Females			
		1901	1911	1901 -	1911		
Instalty	•	60	48	37	30		
Deaf-muti«m	••	136	107	92	87		
Blindnes	••	115	154	97	154		
Leprory	••	72	59	36	26		

to this Census and the last. Considerable decreases are noticeable in the number of all kinds of the infirm except the blind. This is to be ascribed chiefly to the greater degree of accuracy in diagnosis attained on the present occasion and to a certain, though small, extent to the improved material and economic condition of the people. The rise in the case of blindness is excessive and, but for the fact that the

major portion of it relates to the Frontier districts, might have been difficult to explain. The Laddakhis and others living in those extremely cold regions have usually bad eyes. The physical conditions and the life led there tend to make the people blind. Owing to the rigours of winter they have, it has been seen in an earlier part of this Report, to be pent up almost continuously for seven months in tiny, low-roofed, unventilated, dark and dingy rooms, and the smoke of the oil-lamps and of the fire burnt for cooking the food as well as for keeping the house warm affect the eyes adversely. Again, the poorer individuals, sometimes, seek to avoid the bitterness of cold by keeping themselves immersed for hours in hot water coming from thermal springs found in various parts of that country; and this process is supposed to do a lot of damage to the delicate organs of sight. The increase there must, therefore, be taken to be entirely due to better enumeration, as the previous operation in the Frontier district is known to have been a most ill-organised and extremely inaccurate business.

Sex differences are large in every case, the number of female sufferers being very much smaller than male. In the higher families, especially of the Dugar Ilaqa and those living elsewhere in towns and cities, there is undoubtedly a tendency to conceal these diseases in women, particularly the unmarried ones, but in the first place such families are so few and, secondly, the cases of affliction among them are so rare that the intentional concealment on their part could have produced no appreciable effect on the general results. The proportion of females to males is a little more than half in the case of the insane, more than two-thirds in that of the deaf-mute and less than half among lepers. It is only among the blind that the proportion of women is the largest; according to the present Census it is almost equal. These sex proportions, it may be noted, are not at all abnormal.

The order in which the infirmities stand among themselves in a progressive succession is: insanity, (39 being the mean of both the sexes), leprosy (42.5), deaf-mutism (97) and blindness (153). The blind will be found to be the most numerous in most other parts of India, but their proportion in this State is, no doubt, alarming. It is principally due to the bad care people generally take of their eyes, the insufficient and inefficient medical aid available and the physical and climatic conditions that prevail in the country. Cataract is a common complaint in the lower regions and snow-blindness in snowy tracts.

#### I. Insanity

240. It is time now to take up a detailed discussion of the statistics of each infirmity separately, and this will be done in the various aspects of locality, age, sex and caste. Insanity is locally distributed in the first marginal table of the next page. The only remarkable feature of the figures there is the slight increase

	Ma	ion .	Frances		
STATE AND PROT	rmcea	1901	1911	1901	19/1
State	••	<b>66</b>	48	87	30
Jamme		45	**	34	29
Eashmir		67	*	*67	34
Prontier		25	24	80	25

of female lunatics in Jammu which in all probability is a result of the present Census having been more searching in its inquiries, a circumstance which brought down wilful concealments to the lowest point. The Rajputs do not seem to have succeeded so well in evading questions affecting their females as they did at the last Census. The comparative figures of females have, moreover,

been materially affected by the large increase registered in Punch (25 against 7), where the record of the previous Census in this respect appears to have been most erroneous. The efficiency of enumeration is also reflected by the increase of female lunatics in Bhadarwah Jagir from 24 to 27. Among the males this disease appears to prevail in a larger degree in Kashmir, especially in the plains thereof, the proportion of Kashmir South being 80; and the fact that among the Jammu districts it is worst in the submontane, terai and highly malarious tracts of Jasrota might open up expert inquiry as to whether the nature of the country has anything to do with the matter. All that a layman can say is that it is no wonder the effervescent mind of the Kashmiri should lose its balance so often, or that the extremely unhealthy climate of Jasrota should conduce to so much mental derangement.

The figures have this time been compiled with great care by keeping special infirmity clerks in all stages of the compilation and the improvement resulting from it is not noticeable only because of its having been lost in the effects of more accurate diagnosis. It is a great pity that no external means exist to test the resultant accuracy of these statistics. No regular Lunatic Asylums seem to exist in the State and the violent cases of lunacy, when privately unmanageable, are dealt with by Jail authorities.

241. Age-distribution of insanity is set out at length in Subsidiary Table II, and Table III gives the proportions of the sufferers Insanity by at each age-period by 100,000. Here, it is enough to quote age and sex the figures relating to typical age-periods from the former table. The disease is shown in deficit at the two ends of life; the reason for the

		1	NUMBER INSARS per 10,000 -					
AOE .			Ma	Je .	Pemale			
			1901	1911	1901	1911		
0-10	<del></del>		1,687	1,208	1,980	1,063		
10-20	••		2,451	2,328	2,400	2,308		
20-40	••	••	3,710	1.84	3,220	3,869		
10-60	••		1,374	1,965	1,500	2,039		
60 and 0	Yer		8388	636	900	701		

large decrease under '0-10' is the greater accuracy of diagnosis secured this time and the consequent smaller inclusion in the return of the congenitally weakminded children, while the deficiency in the case of persons under '60 and over' is only natural, as lunatics do not live long. Considerable increases have, howlong. Considerable increases have, how-ever, been registered at the present Census among the grown-ups (20 to 60) in both the sexes, and this only points to better enumeration and more

careful compilation. These results are supported fairly closely by the proportions given in Subsidiary Table III except for a decrease in the case of the males of an age '20-40' (63 against 75, which is easily accounted for by the errors of age committed last time.

The proportions of female lunatics to male are also given for all age-periods in Subsidiary Table III. The proportion is highest at '10-15' (678 per mille of males); and the suggestion that this may be a result of throwing the burden of cares and responsibilities of married life on the immature minds of young, undeveloped girls concomitant with the practice of early marriage is quite plausible. The family squabbles between a woman and the mother and sisters of her husband, so common in every part of India,

probably prove too much for the sobriety of mind in the case of raw inexperienced girls.

242. Subsidiary Table IV deals with caste figures of infirmity, which being based on Imperial Table XII-A contains only those By caste castes among whom any infirmity was returned. The castes which had only a few sufferers of all kinds of infirmity have been grouped together under the head 'others', a detail of them having been given on the title-page of the Imperial Table. That the castes and tribes with a very low percentage of the insane are the lowest, is evidenced by a scrutiny of that list as also Subsidiary Table IV, Lohar, Teli (each 20 per lac, males), Chuhra, Megh (28 each) and Dum 30 being only a few instances by way of illustration. It is quite in the nature of things that the males of the classes having to apply their brains intensely and constantly to mental work, like the trading Arora (148), the literary Brahman (51), the service-hunting Khattri (93) and Mahajan (60) and the sacerdotal Syed (112) should turn mad in a larger number, but the proportion of lunatics among the highly illiterate Darwesh (759) cannot be accounted for except by the speculative and transcendental life they feign to live, or may-be, an excessive use of intoxicants and narcotics. The high percentages of Mochi (65), Kumhiar (79), Bafinda (108), and Zargar (178) may also be due to the excessive mental activity called for by their respective industries. Lastly, attention is arrested by the very low proportion of the insane among the Rajputs. That they seldom take to literary pursuits has already been seen and it may afford a partial explanation, but the greater reason would seem to be the freedom from cares and worries of life enjoyed by the usually well-to-do families of that dominant race.

#### II. Deaf-mutism

243. All the comparable units are marginally exhibited, and it will appear from the figures noted against each that as the better diagnosis of the present Census has led to a general decrease in the lunacy statistics by greater exclusion of weak-mindedness and

					BAF-MUTES per lac				
UNIT	Ma	Je	Female						
•		1901 .	1911	1901	1911				
State	<b>/</b>	188	107	92	87				
Bhadarwah	٠	<b>911</b>	932	184	140				
Punch		81	48	99	43				
Jammu Province		143	115	94	- 91				
Kashmir "		198	-80	78	68				
, Valley	••	191	84	7 <b>4</b>	65				
Muzaffarabad	••	136	61	108	54				
Pronti er Districts		158	924	140	205				

lesser forms of idiocy, the number of deaf-mutes has also fallen considerably by rejection of persons not born deaf-mutes. The only instances of an increased roll of deaf-and-dumb persons are the two internal Jagirs of the State and its remote districts on the Frontier, and the highly unsatisfactory state of the last Census operation in all those places has already been adverted to more than once. For some of the decrease the unwillingness of the parents to recognise the disease among their children and treat it as a mere case of retarded

development may be responsible, but this could scarcely be appreciable here. As among the districts, disregarding those where previous enumeration was carried out merely in name (and they include the snowy parts of Udhampur', deaf-mutism seems to prevail most in the submontane tehsils of Mirpur (171 against 107 of the whole State) and least in Riasi (46). Taking all the districts together, it would appear that the hilly ones favour the disease more, the proportion in Udhampur and Bhadarwah being 245 and 232 respectively as against 115 of Jammu. The largest proportion has, however, been recorded in Gilgit (496), and for aught that is known of the local peculiarities of that district in this respect it may only be a result of the superior quality of the count. Female deaf-mutes are uniformly few; the only exception, again, is presented by Gilgit. In actual number they are not in excess of the males (59 against 66), but their proportion works out to an increase because of the general paucity in the number of females in that district.

244. Sex may, however, be well considered with age, and from the proportions given in the second part of Subsidiary Table III it will appear that the number of females to every thousand Age and sex of males suffering from this bodily defect is uniformly more than half under all quinquennial age-periods except '30-35' (430) and '55-60' (467) which may only with reference to deafmutism

be a freak of figures. On the whole, the delicate organism of the weaker sex appears to be very susceptible to this as to the other infirmities. Reference to age statistics is very important in the case of deaf-mutes, showing as it does the degree of accuracy the figures of the infirmity possess. 'Errors of diagnosis' says the Census Commissioner in his Notes for Report, often leave their mark in the age statistics. Deaf-mutism, for example, is a congenital defect, and persons suffering from it are relatively shortlived. The proportion of such persons to the total number living at each age-period should, therefore, show a steady decline; and if there is a rise at

,	1	DEAP-MOTE per 10,000			
. Adm		Mules	Pemales		
0—5 3—10 10—15 15—20 - 20—35 25—30 30—35 35—40 40—45 45—50		42 113 143 179 179 173 114 127 106 111	35 310 144 175 217 95 62 75		
5065 4560 60 and over		61 81 67 89	41 39 47 85		

the higher ages, this can only be due to the erroneous inclusion of persons who have lost their hearing late in life'. The detail given in the margin stands this test most admirably. The figures relating to infants below five disclose in their smallness the tendency of fond parents, already referred to, to treat this disease originally as a mere retarded growth of the powers of hearing and speech. The proportions rise up to '15-20' after which limit they begin to decline gradually and steadily with a uniformity that is really striking, until a very small number is left in the extreme end of life. The fall becomes abrupt at the age of 45, most of the sufferers dying out by then. These pro-

positions find full support in the age-distribution made in Subsidiary Table II; and no manner of doubt is left as to the accuracy of the figures of deaf-mutism.

245. Distributed caste-wise, deaf-mutes are 'more numerous among Dhobis (268 males per lac), Khatiks (278) and Mochis Deaf-mutes It is interesting to note that the Frontier races by caste of Baltis (Laddakh) and Yashkuns (Gilgit) return a large percentage of deaf-mutes, 414 and 278 males respectively, and as regards the abnormal excess of Darwesh both in deafmutism and blindness it is merely accidental to the absolute figures of the sufferers being large and the total population of the tribe enumerated in the State being very small. Out of 527 male and 641 female Darweshes 4 males and 3 females were recorded deaf-mute and 9 males and 12 females

blind. Mahajans (35 males per lac), Gujjars (42), Hajjams (48), Mirasis (49), and Mughals (50) return some of the lowest proportions. It is difficult to associate any caste peculiarities with the extent of the prevalence of this disease, which is more a shortcoming of Nature than anything else.

#### Blindness

Blindness is locally distributed as in the marginal abstract drawn 246. for the State and its Provinces from Subsidiary Table I. Blindness dis-As already stated, unlike all other infirmities a general tributed increase has been recorded in blindness at the present Census locally which, though varying in degree, is found in every province. Surely, there has been nothing, physically or hygienically, in this decade

		SCFFERE	RRS per lac			
STATE AND PROVINCES	Ma	iles	ales			
	1901	1911	190t	1911		
State Jammu Kashinle Frontier	115 87 157 78	154 151 160 811	97 71 128 114	152 129 138 399		

peculiarly conducive to this disease, and the readiest explanation for the rise is, without doubt, the all-round greater efficiency secured this time in Census operations. This becomes clearer when the figures for the Frontier districts and Bhadarwah Jagir are compared, and

it is in fact they that contribute so much in raising the proportions for the

State as a whole. The summary enumeration made last time in those outlying and unsupervised parts has been referred to so often that another mention of it will only be tiresome. The solitary instance of a decrease is that among the males in Kashmir, and the reason for it is not far to seek. The Missionary and State hospitals in that compact country are proving more effective in relieving the people from their sufferings and this is one of the directions in which the efforts of the medical people there seem to have been most successful. It is to be regretted that the statistics of cataract operations and successful treatment of other eye-diseases which would otherwise have ended in the loss of sight, called for by the Census department, have not been separately furnished, and in default of those statistics it is not possible to say definitely to what extent this decrease is ascribable to medical relief. All that is certain is that the males have availed themselves, to a larger degree, of the medical aid provided than the females.

The special circumstances leading to excessive blindness in Laddakh (226 males, per lac, and 427 females) and other frigidly cold parts of the country have been already pointed out, but the part that seems to suffer most from this disease is the damp and moist submontane Jasrota, again (316 males). Riasi (73) Punch (78) and Muzaffarabad (66), on the other hand, present very satisfactory health-bills in this respect.

247. Contrary to deaf-mutism, blindness rises with age, as eyesight is lost mostly in old age. Distributed by typical ageperiods, the number per 10,000 of the blind of each sex are as in the margin, and the decreases at earlier ages and increases among persons of more advanced age disclosed by these

	NUMBER, PER 10,000, OF THE BLIND											
. AGB	Мя	Jo	Pemale									
	1901	1911	1901	1911								
0-10	1,068	687	814	628								
10-20	1,475	1,285	1,528	1,044								
20-40	2,573	2,411	2,568	2,341								
40 and over	4,884	5,687	5,095	5,087								

proportions constitute another evidence of the accuracy of our statistics. The condition of deaf-mutism being 'from birth' does not, therefore, seem to have been applied to blindness as largely as was apprehended. As compared with 1901, there is a steady fall in the number of blind persons of both the sexes registered at the present Census at all ages up to forty, and it is only under '40 and over' that all the excess has been recorded. Under that age-period the proportion 'per lac on its

entire population reaches the highest limit, being 811 males and 1,027 females. This further shows how much more the women are liable to loss of the power of vision, a fact which is also substantiated by the proportions per mille worked out in the latter half of Subsidiary Table III; the blind females exceed the female sufferers of all other infirmities at almost all ages.

248. Blindness does not seem to be a question of caste at all. The literate classes among whom one should expect a large number of the victims of this infirmity return no large proportions, the blind males among the Aroras being only 148 per lac, Brahmans 162, Khattris 150, Mahajans 112, Mughals 114 and Shaikhs 166. Zargars (208), Mochis (170) and Chamiars (175) whose avocations call for a closer application of the eye-sight may rightly have among them a fairly large number of blind-men, but that the Dhobi (535) should, of all menial classes, return the largest proportion is not quite intelligible. After all that has been said about life during winter in Laddakh district, 470 males and 1,156 females of the Balti stand in little need of explanation and, in view of the close association of fire and smoke with the life led by Sadhus (638) and Hanjis (351), the cause of excessive blindness among them may be similar. The abnormal proportion of 1,667 in the case of Khatiks is, like that of Darweshes, due to a smallness of the population dealt with, six being blind in a total of 360 counted.

#### IV. Leprosy

219. Like insanity, leprosy appears to prevail in the State to a smaller extent, as compared with the other two infirmities, there being according to the present Census only 59 male and 26 female lepers in every lac of each sex. The corresponding figures for 1901 are 72 and 36. The provincial proportions are exhibited in the margin. The greater care taken this time to

PROVINCE	Ma	ia	Females					
FROTINGE	1001	1911	1901	1911				
Jamms	60	80	31	27				
Kachmir	Ħ	41	47	*				
Prostler	28	16	33	10				

record corrosive leprosy alone has led to large decreases in Kashmir and Laddahk where, on the previous occasion, a large number of cases of leucoderma seem to have been included in the Census figures. In Jammu, however, a considerable increase has been registered in the male lepers and the female figures of the two censuses for the Province are almost identical.

The only reason that can be assigned for it is that the Census was performed there relatively badly even on the present occasion. Just as the last time a large number of genuine cases of leprosy were omitted, at the present Census the diagnosis has not been as accurate in that Province as in the others, many leucoderma and syphilitic cases having been treated as those of leprosy. The fact that Bhadarwah (158 males) and Udhampur (119) are shown as having the largest number of lepers confirms this view, as those are the parts of Jammu Province where the morals of the people are in an extremely unsatisfactory state and venereal diseases, especially syphilis, have the largest prevalence. This will be further substantiated by the excessive proportion of female lepers in Bhadarwah. viz., 146, the largest on record for the females. The divergence is nowhere so great as in Punch where 152 males and 40 females per lac of its population have been returned at this Census as against 37 and 17 respectively of the previous, and it can be confidently stated that the very bad execution there of the operations of 1901 is chiefly responsible for this state of the figures. Leprosy is not so common anywhere as in the Outer Hills of Jammu Province, and the cause for it is no other than the immorality of the hill-tribes inhabiting those parts.

250. That syphilitic affection often develops into a condition which is very similar to ordinary leprosy of the corrosive type and has been not seldom treated as such is clear from the larger number that there is of the female lepers under all ages up to 40. The women, however, do not stand the disease so well as the men and that is why, dying sooner, they get into deficit

Aos	NUMBER, per 10,000, OP THE LEPKES							
	Males	Persales						
0-10 10-30 30-40 40-60 60 and over	163 830 3.378 3,716 1.853	614 1,387 4,213 2,720 1,066						

under the older age-periods. All this will be borne out by the figures quoted in the margin. This disease, naturally enough, rises with age and is found to be at its worst after an age when the sexual powers have been most in play. This fully explains the large and continuous increases noticeable in Subsidiary Tables II and III in the

proportion of lepers of both sexes, from '35-40' upwards, the exceptionally small figures at '55-60' being due only to the tendency of exaggerating the age on the part of old persons spoken of in the Age Chapter.

251. The mark of bad morals on leprosy is also impressed on the caste figures of the persons shown as suffering from that disease; Leprosy and according to Subsidiary Table IV, the Meghs (110 males per caste lac) and Thakkars (117) of Udhampur and Riasi districts and the Sudhans (206) of Punch have returned some of the biggest proportions. The relative position of the high and low castes, in High castes Low castes this respect, will appear from the comparison made .. ... in the margin of the male proportions of a few Chuhra .. 29 Rajput .. 119 typical castes. The higher classes suffer less Bhatti .. 41 Geddi .. 184 because of their being better able to lead a cleaner Mabajan .. If Megh .. 110 and more hygienic life, and the tendency on the

part of the respectable classes to conceal, wilfully, cases of leprosy among their female members may well be judged from the very low proportions of leper women returned by the Brahmans and Rajputs, 15 and 18 respectively.

#### General

252. In the last Census infirmity figures were distinguished here by religions, and this was only a subterfuge for caste distribution. In the Government of India scheme for com-Infirmities pilation of the statistics of the present Census, no provision was made for separation of the figures of each and religion religion in the case of infirmity and the 'Register of Infirmities' had consequently no column in it where religion of the victims could be entered. Nor does religion seem to have any great bearing on infirmity statistics, except in so far as the peculiarities of customs and practices of the followers of the different religions may exercise some paltry influence over the state of their health. The caste distribution of infirmities made in Subsidiary Table IV, includes the figures of all religions, but some of the classes being wholly Mohamedan may well be considered with reference to religion. They do not, however, exhibit any peculiarities which may be ascribed to religious influences. The figures of the Baltis have already been explained; those of Kashmiri Musalmans show nothing uncommon; the Mughals, Pathans, Shaikhs and Sayeds also show an average state of health; and the large variations noticeable in the case of the Shin and the Yashkun are due more to a narrowness of the field for comparison than to any religious peculiarities. There being no record of infirmities for the Political ilaque, the Shins and Yashkuns whose infirmities were registered were only the small number found in Gilgit district.

253. It would be simply presumptuous to offer any scientific views as to the causes regulating prevalence of infirmities, Local views as but it may not be without interest to describe a to causation few popular ideas held here in regard to causation of some and cure of these diseases. Even though the large masses of the Musalmans practice cousin-marriage and among the Hindus child-marriage prevails, neither is believed to cause a mental weakness or derangement in the progeny resulting from such unions. Nor is goitre, which has been stated to be very common in some parts of the State, held to be in any way associated either with idiocy or deaf-mutism. In Punch, a large prevalence of leprosy has been returned among the Sudhans (206 per lac males and 63 females), and the imaginative and enterprising Census Officer of that Ilaqa has sought to account for it by the general use there of a coarse diet called karhi. It is a sort of porridge prepared of Indian-corn, rice, pulses, curd, vegetables and soft, green leaves of some edible trees, all boiled together and salt and spices added. The District Officer of Muzaffarabad ascribes the disease to the eating of 'unlawful meat' which has, however, not been defined. The people, indeed, strongly believe in the contagion theory in regard to leprosy but the latest European view on the subject seems to run in a contrary direction. Lastly may be mentioned the Kashmiri superstition that leprosy gets cured by a resort to the shrine of Khwaja Nurdin in Cherar, and some of the sufferers from this abominable disease may always be seen lolling in front of that Ziarat.

254. As to the provision for curing and mitigating the afflication caused by disease, the efforts of the State have already been Medical relief mentioned in § 95 Chapter II. There is a Leper Asylum in Srinagar which appears to be doing a lot of good in alleviating the sufferings of the lepers there and in the neighbourhood; the average annual mean of the inmates during the decade being 153.4. Nowhere else is there any provision for isolation and treatment of leprosy patients. The Wazir of Punch reports that some of the victims of the disease inhabiting that Ilaqa find their way into the Punjab Asylums, the cost of their maintenance being paid by the Ilaqa. The establishment of a Leper Asylum there is in contemplation. No Leper Law is in force in any part of the State.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE I—Number afflicted per 100,000 of the population at each of the last two\* censuses

	Γ	Ins	ANE			Deap	MUT	•		Bı	1HD		Lupurs			
DISTRICT AND NATURAL	Male		Female		M	le	Female		Male		Female		Male		Fen	nale
Division	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901
1	2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
ENTIRE STATE†	48	60	30	37	107	136	87	92	154	115	152	97	59	72	26	<b>3</b> 6
I.—The Submontane and Semi-mountainous Tract	41	•••	39	•••	121	•••	89	•••	216	•	198	•••	24	402	7	•••
Jammu Distrist	87		88		80		48	·	198		186	٠	19		6	
Jasrota , (Jasmirgarh) and Kathua tehsils only ) Mirpor District (Bhimbor)	57	•	51		156		108		816	-	<b>2</b> 85	"	13	1	3	ı
and Mirpur tehalls only)	41	***	38	•••	171	***	136	•••	205	•••	182	•••	38		11	•••
II.—The Outer Hills	32	<b></b>	23	•••	110	•••	92		105	•••	84	•••	119	***	41	•••
Jasrota District (Basohli ) tehsil only) Mirpur District (Kotli tehsil )	[	   	25 28	, <b>.</b>	136 95	""	111 82		151 103		162 80	} '''	174 101		41 45	'''
only) ) Udhampur District Riasi Bhadarwah Jagir Punch Haga		 51	29 7 27 25	24		 211	220 80 140 43			103	111 50 248 56	89		137	41 18 146 40	125
Jammu Province	36	45	<b>2</b> 9	24	115	142	91	94	151	87	129	71	80	60	27	27
III.—The Jhelum Valley	65	87	34	57	కేం	123	63	78	150	157	138	128	41	94	26	47
Kashmir North	55 80		29 89		64 98		49 77	***	168 162		155 146		57 23		30 25	
,, Valley	70	.95	85	60	84	12 i	65	74	164	169	150	135	37	90	27	48
Mazasiara had-District	87	89	29	40	61	136	54	103	66	89	66	89	58	121	24	43
IV.—The Indus Valley	34	35	18	20	224	153	205	140	211	78	399	114	16	38	10	39
Laddakh District Gilgit ,, ,	33 38		18 19		185 496		165 553		226 105	,	427 150	,	16 15			 

<sup>•</sup> Infirmities were also not recorded in respect of the general population of the State in 1891, and the Infirmity Table of that year, even though purporting to relate to 'Europeans and Eurasians', was printed all blank.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE II—Distribution of the infirm by age per 10,000 of each sex

	l	INSANE				:	DEAT-	MUTE	. ]		BLI	ND		LEPERS				
Act		Me	Je ]	Fem	ale	Ме	le	Fer	nale	Ma	le	Fem	ola	Male Fe		le Femi		
-	ļ	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	1901	1911	190	
, 1		2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	18	14	15	16	17	
۸_۴		200	400			<b>.</b>											_	
05 510	***	292	403		420				729	245			289	61	127	107	2:	
10—15	***	916				1,517	1,399	1,897	1,626	442		461	525	102	461			
520	•••	1,107 1,221	1,327	1,000	1.460	1,556	1,504	1,740	1,348	619		434		317	506	720	6	
20—25	•••	1.209		973 1,267	940	1,418		1,691							578	667	7	
25-30		802			_,	1,290		1,230					669	614	587	1,360	H 6	
30—35	•••	1.18	, -,	1,063			1,014						715		777	826	8	
35 -40		64	687							663			715	911	994	1,360	1,0	
10—15	***	903							409	485		456		1,024	903	667		
5—50		407										764	806	1,443	1,372	1,200	8	
5065	•••	<b>■</b> 535										592	319	809	687	61:	4	
55-60	•••	140	109				433					750	852	1,269	1,048	80X	1 7	
BU and over		636						55					327					
		300	300	101	900	238	919	220	737	8,445	2,702	3,660	2,791	1,853	1.680	1,066		

<sup>†</sup> Excluding the Frontier Ilaqa where infirmities have not been recorded even at the present Census,

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III—Number afflicted per 100,000 persons of each age-period and number of females afflicted per 1,000 males

		N	MBER	NUMBER OF PENALES AF- PLICTED per 1,000 MALES								
Age	Insans		Deaf-mute		Blind		Loper		<u>-</u>		1,000	
	Males	Females	Malos	Females	Malos	Females	Males	Females	Івево	Deaf.mute	Llind	Lepers
1	2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
0-5	10 80 45 67 72 49 72 56 72 59	5 11 38 34. 42 31 41 46 48	42 113 143 179 178 114 127 106 111	35 110 144 175 117 95 62 75 62 41	28 47 82 109 130 115 129 135 180 219	16 46 62 106 181 99 106 137 189 317	3 4 16 46 46 63 68 110 144 145	2 9 17 20 38 25 45 45 34 50	522 486 678 448 569 603 505 588 577 625	818 903 807 798 689 780 430 567 505	697 911 611 865 1,023 612 720 821 960 1,101	667 1,900 871 446 850 383 573 250 319 291
50—55	58 40	41 40	51 67	38 47	290 260	286 331	171 85	52 27	571 545	505 467	700	242 211
60 and over	46	39	39	85	811	1,027	168	51	620	667	928	221

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV—Number afflicted per 100,000 persons of each caste\* and number of females afflicted per 1,000 males

		N	MBRA	APPLIC	ED per	100,00	× ,					ES AT-
	Insane	.	Doaf	muta	BU	nd .	Le	per	PLICT	ED per	1,000	MALES
CASTE	Malon	Females	Males	Pemales	Maleg	Females	Malea	Fomales	Тъвъто	Deaf-mute	Blind	Leper
1	2	3.	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	. 11	12	13
Total State †  Arain Arora Bafinda Balti Barwala Basith Bhatti Brahman Chamiar Chamiar Chuhra Darwesh Dhobi Dhund Domal Gaddi Gujjar Hajjam Hanji Jat Jhiwar Jogi Kumhiar Kashmiri Musalman Khattri Labada Lohar Mahajan Maugriks Megh	41 51  55 28 759  51 80 77 89 27 27 32 79 66  20 60 10	32 55 50 35 134 25 49 35 30 156 38  24 27 19 19  36 123 111 39 123 111 39 48 123 144 48 123 144 48 123 144 48 144 48 144 48 144 144 144 144 14	113 217 278 203 414 130 80 166 88 132 165  759 268 51 102 110 42 48 58 158 110 128 157 127 27 27 28 103 103 103 103 103 103 103 103 103 103	92 109 66 471 96 102 40 60 56 104 182 488 129 54 74 89 125 104 89 125 104 89 125 104 89 125 104 89 125 104 45 89 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 121 12	163 208 148 176 470 809 161 83 162 132 175 198 1,708 64 180 128 193 351 180 233 224 217 1,667 1,667 146 112 45	160 156 69 174 1,156 153 25 97 123 28 187 122 1,872 191 75 170 54 130 88 95 249 156 225 114 193 161 	63 17  88. 32 33  41 42 298 50 113 190  76 139 127 57 59 47 41 64 59 66  66 17 66 116	27 11 	562 714  375 458 3,500  1,000 561  545 1,000 250  750 333 500 571 333  926 1,500 3,000 125 567  500 200 429 200 818 500	722 400  267 893 625 1,333 250 557 600 575  750 729 500 667 617 625 750 211 748 3,000 667 900 250 667 1,594 2,000	873 708 333 808 1,927 421 167 1,000 621 250 871 1,333 278 1,200 847 417 556 817 824 429 773 887  875 1,000 609 1,671 1,038 1,143	384 500  815 615  3,000 291  100 1,000 333 108 400 875 227 864 1,000 353  233 542  1,833  500 1,000 395
Mirasi Mochi Mughal Pathan	49 65 25 108	28 14 14 98	49 235 50 188	57 59 207	171: 170: 114: 868:	222 156 59 279	73 39 32 81	43 28 72	200 429 750	222: 929 952	846 406 675 909	1,000 556 700 165
Rajput Sadbu Shaikh	28 66	80 41	108 120 84	65 169 130 117	142 688 166 17	152 422 137	93 . 53 49	18 675 34	917	826 1,200	417 632	8,000 536
Sudhan Suyed Tarkhan	28 112 40	21 28 86	53 82 138	85 79 149	78 162 166 78	66 153 141 77	206 52 38	63 25 117 11	750 222 1,833 1,000	667 848 950 857	864 831 720 875	810 429 333
Teli Thakkar Yashkan Zargar	20   51   22   178   .	22 22 6	69 125 278 119	66 98 246 106	212 72 208	144 53 232	117 30	54. 	893 250	7.50 840 1,250 558	621 692 1,000 857	422  326
Othe. 4	54	31	97	45	101	87 l	44.1	Were re	566.		in Im	

• It is to be noted that the cartos shown here are all in respect to whom any infirmities were returned, as shown in Imperial Table XII-A, and not only the selected few choisen for IX, XIV and XVI. The casts totals shown here are irrespective of religion.

† The proportions shown against this entry are based on the total of the casts of the afflicted and not on the population of the Entre State.

#### CHAPTER XI

#### CASTE

With the large variety of castes, tribes and races inhabiting in its different parts of so versatile physical characteristics, this State presents an extensive field for ethnolo-Preliminary gical research, but the efforts of the scientist have so far been hampered greatly by the massive ignorance of the people with whom all attempts, to make the nature and object of caste and race inquiries intelligible, have all along failed. Although Chapter VI of the State Census Report of 1891 contained a fairly well arranged material on the subject which could easily have been made the basis for further investigation, the last Census operations failed to utilize it properly; and instead of forming a well classified list of castes, tribes, etc. Table XIII of 1901 consists of 1,221 names purporting to be caste-designations with figures under each which are neither complete nor accurate. The Census Department of the Government of India was naturally much puzzled as to the classification and incorporation of that long and erroneous detail into its own Caste Table. It was for this reason that the Commissioner of the present Census, in his very first note on the Census of Kashmir, pointed out the necessity of giving special attention to the question of caste in the State. The matter was, from the very outset, kept in the forefront of the present operations and a long series of circulars and instructions were issued from time to time to the executive staff explaining the nature and scope of caste-inquiry, but it has to be recorded with much regret that the requisite quantity of co-operation was not forthcoming, and it was discovered in the course of tabulation that all the trouble and care taken over the matter only made 'confusion worse confounded'. An account will be found in the Administrative Volume of the difficulties that presented themselves, which it is unnecessary to reproduce here. It is sufficient to note that 5,934 names were returned as principal castes. tribes, races, etc., and 28,478 as sub-castes and minor divisions! It is needless to point out that the labour involved in the classification of this mass of 'raw material' into real caste names and other ethnic divisions was enormous. All attempts to prepare a caste-index well before the preliminary enumeration failed, and no list of genuine ethnological names was ready until after the details for Imperial Table XIII had been sorted out and compiled. The glossary of caste-names printed as Appendix X at the end of this chapter contains those names, but the list can be claimed to be neither comprehensive nor exhaustive without a further check which will, it is trusted, be exercised at the next Census on the lines laid down in Section (xiii) Chapter I of the Administrative Volume.

256. Absolute caste and race figures are exhibited by locality, sex, religion and age in Imperial Tables XIII and XVIII printed in the Table Volume, but the element of caste was Statistical introduced, though to a limited extent, into certain other reference · matters, viz., education, infirmity, civil condition and occupation, and Tables IX, XII-A, XIV and XVI treat of those subjects in respect to selected cates. Two subsidiary tables were provided for this chapter to show the proportional and comparative figures of castes, tribes, races, etc., but here the actual detail of traditional occupations of each caste was sorted out only in respect of a selected few, and consequently our Subsidiary Table I deals with only part of the population. It has, therefore, been supplemented by another table (I-A.) which is not based on Imperial XVI alone, but treats of all the castes, tribes, etc., as contained in Table XIII. A word of explanation is also necessary for Subsidiary Table II. It was, in view of what has been stated in the last paragraph, obviously impossible to work out a common basis of comparison for the present caste statistics and those of any of the previous censuses, and all that has been found practicable is to range together

the figures of only such caste-names as are common to all the three enumerations held in the State. The table, however, is at best only misleading and but for the desire to approximate as far as possible to the Imperial form of the Report, would scarcely have merited printing.

257. In the face of what has been stated above, it would be simply ridiculous to claim absolute accuracy for the caste Accuracy of statistics even as at present framed, but the pains taken and caste return care exercised in classifying the large mass of the facts and figures, that came to hand were great and unremitting, and they have been amply recompensed by the following remarks of the Census Commissioner:

"The Index appears to have been carefully compiled; and if you," wrote the Commissioner to the Superintendent, "are able to class all your entries in the caste column under these heads, your Table XIII will be an immense improvement on that of 1901, which was a most undigested production."

Taking their cue from the Hindu inhabitants of the neighbouring Punjab, the people in Jammu—the part where, as will be seen later on, caste prejudice is at all acute—are, however, very keen on ousting foreign element from their respective caste folds; and the Irshad which H. H. the Maharaja Saheb Bahadur issued in regard to an exclusion of all false and fabricated claims, whether of individuals or communities, from the Census statistics of the Rajputs, which was circulated among the subordinate agency, must have had a salutary effect on the caste statistics in general, and a fair amount of error based on deliberate misstatement may well be held to have been prevented in this way. Misclassifications of minor divisions of the more important and higher castes were, as far as possible, eliminated at a subsequent stage by consulting the representatives of the Sabhas and Associations of the various castes and communities existing at the head quarter in Jammu, and even though the information so obtained was not always either complete or reliable, the caste figures as ultimately classified in the tables of the present Census are as accurate as the local circumstances could possibly admit.

258. The change of front that has gone on in this connexion from census to census will best be described in the words of the Census Commissioner himself:

"In 1891 the classification of castes was based on considerations 'partly ethnological, partly historical and partly, again, functional.' Certain disadvantages of this system were pointed out by Sir Herbert Risley in his note on the classification of caste, tribe and race, and in its place a classification by social precedence was prescribed. The inquiries which were made to this end yielded a great deal of interesting information. 

It is doubtful whether, after so short an interval as ten years, much fresh information on this subject would be forthcoming. Moreover the discussion which took place in 1901 aroused a great deal of ill-feeling between rival castes which has hardly yet been assuaged, and it would be inadvisable to stir up the embers of the various controversies which then took place. It has, therefore, 

been decided that on the present occasion, the question of social precedence will not be re-opened. The alternative," the Commissioner continues, " is to group the castes according to their traditional occupations, which was the main basis of the classification adopted in 1891."

Even with these modest pretensions the vista of ethnological inquiries has not been altogether free from contentions and controversies. In addition to the heated discussion and adverse criticism over the question of 'the untouchables' with which the Indian Press was flooded and the echo whereof resounded in every corner of the country, various local disputes arose in regard to classification of castes and sub-castes. Representations were received from Kalals desiring to be classed as Vaishyas and Kshattryas, from Aroras protesting against their classification as Vaishyas and not as Kshattryas and from Khattris

trying to prove their Kshattrya origin; and lastly the Musalmans objected to any invidious distinction being made between original Mohamedans and local converts. All these complaints were, of course, based on sheer misunderstanding. but they are mentioned here only to show that they will continue to occur under any scheme, howsoever unassuming and uncontroversial, and should not be allowed to curb or stifle future research in this direction; as the knowledge regarding the origin of the various people living in this State is still very meagre and unscientific. For the present, however, the figures are arranged racially in the Imperial and occupationally in the subsidiary tables, and the necessity of a deeper delving into the field of ethnological research of this country is once more reiterated.

259. Affecting as indeed religion, race, occupation, social customs and practices, do the distinctions of caste and subcaste, it is the physiographical conditions which seem to regulate, in the Caste system main, the ethnological as every other distinction in this country and, in order to realize this influence fully, the caste question has to be studied with reference to the Natural Divisions of the State. Even within the four main Natural and three Administrative Divisions of the State, there is a large variety of tracts—each having its own physical peculiarities—to deal with all of whom, individually, would only prolong this Report unduly. Caste-and-race question can, therefore, be discussed only in respect to the more. important of those subdivisions and this will be done in the succeeding paragraphs on the basis of the following scheme:

Natural Division (I) { (1) Eastern Plains (Dugar); (2) Western , (Chibhal); (II) { (1) Eastern Hall-(II) { (1) Eastern Hills; (2) Western ,, •;

2. KASHMIR (III) ... The Valley of Kashmir;
3. FRONTIER (IV) ... { (a) Laddakh; (b) Gilgit and its Ilaqas.

The caste system in its truest sense exists only in the <u>Dugar Raga</u> where the influence of Brahmanism is, and has always been, the strongest, and there the complete hierarchy of distinctions of castes and subcastes is met with in its perfection. The Jammu restrictions as to interdining and intermarriage have the fullest play and have all the stringency of the caste rules of the plains of India, subject of course to the well known fact that the ideas regarding pollution are far more wide-spread and stringent in the south and east of India than in its north and west. This only reflects the influence of environments; the Hindus in the north and west being in closer and overwhelming association with Mohamedan civilization imbibe some of its equalizing spirit. Here, in the submontane Jammu, are to be seen all the four Vernas of the Shastric period—the priestly Brahman, the ruling and military Kshattrya, the trading Vaishya and the serving Sudra; and within each of these classes there is a long range of divisions and subdivisions, which is made still more extensive by the tendency of people. of these, as also of other parts, of the State to multiply the distinctions by means of geographical, linguistic, occupational and family names. How fond they are of such distinctions may be judged from the large number of names noted in the margin that have been returned .. 820 as subcastes under some of the more important castes and Dum .. 590 tribes. Such of them as relate to Hindus will be found Rajput .. 1,118 classified under the main castes in Part I of Table XIII, Gujjar .. 1,338 and in the Caste Glossary is given an ethnological account Jet .. 1,555 of those castes. Being common with the Punjab and Thakkar .. 2,051 other parts of India the Hindu castes do not call . 2,199 for any further description here. All that requires

to be noted is that leaving out of consideration the menial and serving classes, which are found in requisite numbers in each of the submontane and semi-mountainous districts, the military section

This for purposes of caste-distribution includes Muzaffarabad.

of the Brahman community (Mohyals—4,960) is found in largest numbers in Jammu and Mirpur, and the ordinary agricultural Brahmans in Jammu (50,217,) Jasrota (31,656) and the lower parts of Udhampur (29,660) and Riasi (25,082), Rajputs in Jammu (16,220) and Jasrota (8,074), Aroras in Jammu (1,084), Khattris in Jammu (4,355) and Mirpur (3,357) and Mahajans in Jammu (9,002), Sub-montane Jasrota (3,186) and Riasi (3,341).

The western part of the lower Jammu constitutes what is known as the Chibhal Ilaqa, taking its name from the Chibh clan of the Hindu Rajputs whose country originally it was. The Chibhs, as also most other Rajput subcastes, having passed over to Islam, that part has now become an out-and-out Mohamedan country. It is peopled chiefly by a promiscuous agricultural class called the Jats. The Chibhalis retain some of the old caste notions still, especially in regard to matrimonial affairs. Caste-rules, however, retain the greatest hold on the Musalman minority in Dugar Ilaga—all converts from Hinduism, of no long standing who, contrary to the sanction of their present religion, consider marriage among cousins \* incestuous and always try to marry outside their gotras. Very little life, however, survives in these ancient customs, and the breaches of such faint and flimsy prejudices are seldom, if ever, attended with the rigorous consequences that the original state of their society entailed; the culprits are in the course of time reclaimed—if they were ever weaned from the body politic of the community—and their guilt forgotten. In addition to the Rajputs and other higher castes, each and every other community inhabiting this part of the country passed over to Mohamedanism, until one finds now every section of the village community represented in the ranks of the Musalmans in these regions.

It is the ethnological condition of the Outer Hills that deserves special attention. Either Brahmanic influence never penetrated (c) Eastern Hills the fastnesses of those hills, or it has lost all its force in the length of time that has elapsed since the inception of the original Indo-Aryan civilization, and the savage people residing there have shorn themselves free from all the inconvenient restrictions Brahmanism sought to lay on their daily life and common activities. They seem to act chiefly according to the natural exigencies of life and are guided by the promptings of their individual conciousness. The report of the Tehsildar of Kishtwar owes its plaintive tone to this circumstance when he says: 'The customs and practices of the peoples of this mountainous country are quite unique and they are peculiar to themselves. Barring the town (of Kishtwar), the dictates of the Dharam Shastra are little cared for in the interior of this country, nor are the people at all aware of the existence of those dictates.' This is the reason, too, why the inhabitants of these parts—Brahmans, Rajputs, Khattris Mahajans and members of all other Hindu castes and classes—are looked down upon as inferior by the members of the same castes living in the plains either of Jammu or of Kashmir. Neither the Kashmiri Pundit nor the Punjabi Brahman of Jammu will, for instance, dine or intermarry with the Pahari Brahman; and as to the Rajput class it has completely disowned a very large section of its community, viz., the Thakkars (104,613) because of the liberty of their lives—so inconsistent with the present day Hindu doctrines regulating interdining, intermarriage and other social intercourse. As a matter of fact, however, the Thakkars are no other than 'Thakurs' of the hills; a fact that is proved by the existence among them of the same subcastes as are possessed by the Rajputs, e. g., Mandial, Katouch, Gauria, Saumbaria, etc. + The Thakkars owe all their degradation to practices

<sup>\*</sup> The Sohal and Katouch Musalmans of the Pogal ilaga are also reported to disfavour cousin-marriage.

† What is claimed by Thakkars and Khattris as the traditional and historical proof of their Akshattry a origin is that these communities fied to various parts under the persecution of Parasramji (a Brahman) who upon becoming displeased with these people wanted to make their race extinct. A portion of the Rajput people sought shelter in these hills and assumed the name of Thakkars so that their identity with the Rajputs might not be disclosed. Another District officer ascribes the migration to Mohamedan persecution, and represents the Thakkars to have originally come in here from Ajadhia and Hastinapur. As a matter of fact, however, the variation in the word Thakkar is only phonetic.

revolting against the sense of propriety in social matters cherished by higher castes of the Hindus such as widow-marriage, intermarriage with other castes, freedom of the widow to beget children by informal connection with relatives and castemen of the deceased husband, adoption of agriculture as their occupation, contraction of incestuous marriages, as for example marriage within the gotra circle and with the daughter of a maternal uncle (mamunzad bahen) and lastly divorce -all matters which have already been mentioned in the Marriage Chapter of this Report. It is however not the ill-reputed Thakkar alone who offends against the caste system and its rules, since the Brahmans—even the Kashmiri Pundits—and persons of other higher castes who have migrated and settled permanently in those hills are also known to have bidden farewell to the restrictions placed by Brahmanism on commensality, marriage, occupation, etc., and instances are reported from Ilaque Padar, Dachhin, Bhadarwah (Bhalesa), and the neighbourhood, of Rajputs, Thakkars, Brahmans, Kashmiri Pundits not only dining but also marrying among themselves most promiscuously and yet not being in any way looked down upon by each other +. Such being the state of the higher classes in this part of the country it is easy to conceive the laxity that must exist in the lower strata of society in matters that go to form caste distinctions. Among the latter the Megh (98,508) is worthy of a special reference. Even though the physical features of Meghs denote an Aryan origin, they are assigned a very low position in the hierarchy of castes by the higher classes and it would be interesting to find out the real reason of their relegation to their present place of inferiority. The inquiries instituted on the present occasion in this respect elicited no satisfactory answer. Their occupation either as weavers or agriculturists is certainly not so degrading as to make their touch polluting, nor do their un-Hindu practices, which are common with the Thakkars and other hill-tribes, justify the treatment, or rather ill-treatment, which is accorded to them. The endeavours of the Punjab reformers to Aryanize them have already been referred to in the chapter on Religion; and this community seems to be retaliating upon the Brahmanic exclusiveness by passing over rapidly to the ranks of the Arya Samajists. The Barwala or Batwal, however, appears to be only a hillcounterpart of the Chamiar or Chamar of the plains and as such must be an aboriginal race.

Mohamedan influence has been greater in the western portion of these hills and the constitution of the population of that part of the country is still more interesting. Every grade of Hindu society is represented in the Musalman population of (d) Western Hills the western and south-western parts of the Outer Hills, as much as in the kandi and plain tracts lying in the south. The Musalman Caste-Table (Part II, Imperial Table XIII) is very much longer because, in addition to the main tribal and racial divisions of the Mohamedans, it contains almost every Hindu caste, which, though it has lost its real meaning, is still retained in name. Some of these living in the hills have to be noticed here. The Bhattis (4,451) muster strongest in Riasi (1,900) and Muzaffarabad (1,111). They claim affinity with Rajputs and it would be an ethnological discovery if it could

Draker Thakkars of Kandi, Bhela and Jangalwar ilaqua.

† The greatest commingling of castes is reported to exist in the interior of Bhadarwah, where Thakkars, Brahmans, Gaddis, Megha, Lohars are stated to be mixed up with each other most inextricably. Gaddi is said to be only a Thakkar who has for some generations taken to pastoral life. Legend has it that the whole race inhabiting those parts was originally started by a Rajput ancestor, but when it grew in proportion the necessity for division of labour arose and the various members of the clan were allotted different works. Each occupationist having thus formed the nucleus developed into a

ecparate caste.

<sup>•</sup> Vide \$\$ 185, 187, 192 (a), (b), (f) and 204. The condition of the Thakkars in certain remote parts of Bhadarwah is reported by the Census Officer of that Jagir to be still worse. "They are a mixed race;" he says, "have very little Dharam Karam; they eat carrion of sheep or goat; are very unclean; seldom practice puja path; celebrate marriage without the rituals laid down by the Vedas and merely by means of a ceremony called Balu-andari or Balu-dori; marry outside caste; their girls start procreation in maidenheod; rarely perform shradh; worship Siwa and Nagdevata alone to whom they often sacrifice goat and sheep; partake of food, consisting of makai, seul, etc., even before crematically and sacrifice goat and sheep; partake of food, consisting of makai, seul, etc., even before crematically and sacrifice goat and sheep; partake of food consisting of makai, seul, etc., even before crematically sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar sellowed the sacrifical seculiar ing their dead; and they freely perform all sorts of works, weaving, cultivation of fields, common labour of coolies, load lifting and carrying, sawing of timber, and menial personal service of all description (khidmotogari included)." This is especially the condition of the Bhalkar Thakkars of Bhalesa and the

be traced that they are identical with the Musalman Rajput converts of the same name found in certain districts of Ondh in the United Provinces such as Barabanki, Sultanpur, Rai Bareli, etc. Budhan (8,586) is shown separately and is stated to be an agricultural tribe, also of Rajput affinities, but since the largest number is returned under this head from Punch (4,607) it would not be surprising should this be only a compiler's mistake for 'Sudhan.' The Sudhans form an important community in Punch (55,076) and one of the tehsils of that Ilaqa is called after their name (Sudhnauti). They are the same people as are found in Rawalpindi district of the Punjab and are supposed to be of Rajput origin.\* Dhund (15,858) is another tribe peculiar to Punch which, though believed to be only a Mohamedan offshoot of some Hindu caste, is claimed by its members to be of Arabian extraction. The Dhunds represent themselves to be Qureshi Sheikhs of Arabia, and this fact has gone far to vitiate the figures both of the Qureshis and the Dhunds. The Domals (6,953) of Rissi and Kotli ought not to be confounded as a branch either of the Doms or the Dums. They are only agricultural Rajputs of Mohamedan faith. The Khojas are met with in largest numbers in Udhambur and Punch. They are supposed to be Musalman Banias and retain their traditional occupation to the present day. The Mochi (14,694) is the Musalman Chamiar, but under this head are included some Watal and Chuhra figures as socially they are all treated alike. Certain very important Rajput subcastes are found in the caste table of Jammu Province, of which the Bambas (1,462) and Khakhas (1,391) are peculiar to Muzaffarabad. The latter have been apt to be confused with the Khokhars (7,736) on the one hand and Gakkhars (13,825) on the other. The Chibbar Musalmans represent the Brahmans, but they seem to have returned themselves as Shaikh and are included in the totals of that head.

261. "Because of its physical similarity with Punch and other hilly districts of Jammu, Muzaffarabad having been considered Of Kashmir ethnologically under that Province, the remarks in this paragraph are confined to Kashmir proper. The Vale of Kashmir, being a self-contained country, has its racial, as well as other, peculiarities for even though its side-valleys verging upon other tracts may contain some admixture of races and tribes inhabiting the conterminous tracts beyond the passes to which those valleys converge, all the flat portion of Kashmir is peopled by what appears to be a single race possessing its own anthropological characteristics. The ethnologist may read traces of Israelite blood in the anthropometric features of the Kashmiri and · the historian may argue an essentially Aryan and Hindu origin, but the ultimate wholesale conversion of the people to Islam has obliterated all race and caste distinctions of old, and Kashmiri forms now a distinct race all by itself and is known and understood as such not only locally but everywhere abroad. The historical review given in § 6 will serve as a key to the present constitution of the population of Kashmir, and every race and tribe that has once held sway over the country is found in it even to the present day, as not only is to be met with here a small sprinkling of Tartar, Tibetan, Mughal and Afghan families of unalloyed genealogy which migrated into this tempting land during the political ascendancy of their respective races and tribes, but a trained eye would readily observe unmistakable signs of a promiscuous intermingling of these and other foreign elements in the local breeds. This has gone on for centuries in the past until, assisted by political, social and religious forces on the one hand and physical and climatic conditions on the other, it has transformed the Kashmiri into a distinctive race. Vestiges of the Sikh rule are to be seen in the colonies of the Jinsi Brahmans found in tehsil Awantipura, Anantnag and Kulgam, and the Dogra influence being of recent growth, may be noticed in the gradual settlement of families from Jammu that is at present taking place. Before concluding this general description of the population of Kashmir, it seems desirable to draw the attention of the

<sup>\*</sup> Sudhan is, however, also a subcaste of the hill Brahmans, and it may as well be argued that the perigin of this tribe is Brahmanic.

anthropologist to the fact that the Hanji forms a very important community which is peculiar to the Valley and it would be really interesting to determine definitely and finally if it is not an unmixed residue of the White Huns who are supposed to have been one of the earliest immigrants into this country.

It was in view of these facts that the indigenous population of Kashmir has been classed under two main heads 'Kashmiri Musalmans' (765,442) and . 'Kashmiri Pundits' (55,276). The subdivisions under either class are so numerous that it is neither possible nor desirable to classify them. The Kashmiri is notoriously fond of nicknames, and some ancedotes as to how families and at times individuals remain changing their designations constantly and on the paltriest of excuses are current which are very amusing. Were it, however, possible to sort out the people by their former Hindu castes some ethnographic discoveries might have resulted but, owing to the great blending that has gone on for centuries of Islamic influence over the country. this does not seem practicable. All that has therefore been found feasible on the present occasion is to classify the Musalman population of Kashmir into a few better known subdivisions and to separate from the main body the figures of the boating and fishing Hanji (18,275) and the scavenging Watal (6,467). An examination of the list of subdivisions of the major head Kashmiri Musalman will show that a majority of them are identical with or are mere variations of the subcastes existing even at the present day among the Brahmans of Kashmir; and the fact lends great support to the claim that prior to the advent of Islam the whole of Kashmir Valley was peopled by a single race the Brahmans—but the fact that various occupational and functional classes exist even now among the Musalmans of Kashmir which still try to stick to their traditional callings clearly points to the existence of all the four Vernas and their subdivisions during the Hindu periods; and just as Bats, Dars, Pundits, Rainas, Razdans, Rishis, Zitshûs are Mohamedanized Brahmans, so Wanias are no other than Banias of the Vaishya class, and the Sudra classes are to be seen in the Khars (blacksmiths) Chhans (carpenters) Kraals (potters), Naeds (barbers) Tel-wanis (oil-pressers) and Watals (sweepers).\*

262. Budhism, like Islam, recognises no caste or other racial distinction—human beings being all equal in the eyes of Kanjuk (God).

Of Laddakh Among the Laddakhis, however, some differentiation is made among the various sections of the people which proceeds from social and occupational rather than racial considerations.

Most of the so-called Kashmiri castes are nothing more than family titles or personal epithets lacking in essential characteristics of a caste. Among Musalmans, Sarap (serpent), Haput (bear), Rukru (cock), Handu (sheep), Dastar (turban), Paizar (shoes), Chor (thief), Drand (beast) are instances of caste-names drawn from personal qualities, appearances, disposition or certain acts of the progenitors; Sopre (Sheopuri, i.e., of Sheopur or Sopor), Tirsal, Kaûsa and Mazarû of names derived from the places of residence; Harkara (runner), Jotshi (astrologer), Kandru (cook) Parados (patcher) of those from profession or occupation. Kashmiri Pundits claim their descent from the Rishis of old, e.g., Kaul from Datatre Rishi, Rev from Rupamenu Bishi, Raina and Razdan from Dhum Rishi, Munshi and Tikû from Bharaddwaj Rishi and Dar from Drabara Rikhi; and among these subdivisions social precedence is governed by the spiritual greatness or inferiority of the respective Rishis, Kaul being considered the highest of all the subdivisions of Kashmiri Brahmans.

In the Valley the tracing of the origin of castes is specially perplexing because of the fact that in the course of time many castes have lost their identity and assumed new names. Some Mohamedans still retain their Hindu caste names e.g., Tuntre, Nyaik, Magre, Kathar, Lon, But, Dar, Parai, Mantú, Aito, Raina, Kunbi, Pundit, Dom. Besides these indigenous castes it may be interesting to note some castes of outsiders. These are (1) Sayeds who came into Kashmir during the Mohamedan rule; they can trace their lineage very accurately; (2) Mughals, the immigrants from Khurasan and Turkistan. Of the latter a few subdivisions may well be noted: (a) the Mirs, Mir being only an abbreviation of Mirza. They are agriculturists and should be distinguished from the Sayed Mirs who are a priestly class; the distinguishing mark being that in the case of the former the word Mir is affixed while in that of the latter it is prefixed to the name of the person; (b) Beg, the community held high position is the reign of the Chaghtai rulers of Kashmir; (c) Eshai, the immigrants from village Eshawar in Khurasan, Eshai being only a corruption of Eshawari; (d) Bande, literally a prisoner, being a section of the Mughals who, on becoming refractory, were put in prison; (e) Bachh the survivors of a Mughal family to whom village Bachhpura was given in jagir; (f) Gane, the word being a corruption of Gurgani meaning immigrants from Gurgan in Turkistan; (g) Kant, the progeny of one Khwaja Husain who was in charge of the construction of a fort built by Akbar, and when the King became pleased with the work he conferred upon him a largess one of whose items was a pecklace (kantha).

The following precis of the Governor's note on Kashmir castes may well be inserted here:

In the time of the Bodh Rajas, distinguished men held different positions in State service and their progeny came to be treated as a distinct class. The following is a division of the Budhist population in Laddakh in a descending order of precedence:

I.—Rigzang*  = Upper classes	II.—Mangriks  = Middle classes	III.—Rignun †  Lower classes
<ol> <li>Gyalpo (Rajas)</li> <li>Kushak (Chief Lamas)</li> <li>Klon (Wazirs)</li> <li>Lonpo (Managers of the Raja's private affairs)</li> </ol>	<ol> <li>Lama(priests)</li> <li>Unpo (astrologers)</li> <li>Nangsu(officers in charge of Raja's palaces)</li> <li>Larje (physicians)</li> <li>Thakshos (common gentry)</li> </ol>	<ol> <li>Bedu (pipers)</li> <li>Mon (drummers)</li> <li>Garra (blacksmiths)</li> <li>Shinkhan (carpenters)</li> <li>Lamkhun (cobblers)</li> <li>Malakhwan (the class of dancing girls and prostitutes)</li> </ol>

Generally, there are no restrictions as to interdining among these grades of society and those regulating intermarriage arise more from the natural desire of the parents to marry their children, especially the girls, in more prosperous families rather than from racial exclusiveness so characteristic of the Hindu caste-system. Reluctance of the highest to dine with the lowest also proceeds more from hygienic and sanitary than racial considerations. The Bodh Brukpas of Dah and Hanu who are migrants from Dardistan. though forming only a small minority, preserve their identity, and ought to be treated as a distinct class.

The constitution of the Musalman population of Laddakh is on the same lines as of the Budhists, only the social distinctions have been further obliterated by Islam as, barring the families of the Rajas (now jagirdars) of Baltistan who claim to be of Iranian origin and of Sayed blood, and certain other foreign immigrants of recent date, all the rest of Laddakh Musalmans are local converts from Budhism. They are stated to be divided into three main divisions Tarakchhos ‡ (aristocracy), Mughmi (agricultural middle classes) and Kamin (lower serving classes). The Laddakh Musalmans having lost all clue their former social divisions have taken to the use of family names and geographical and occupational terms, e. g., Ahmadpa, Kirispa, Akhunpa and so forth, with the result that the list of their subdivisions has become bewilderingly long and no less than 1,200 such names were counted in tehsil Skardu alone. The inhabitants of Baltistan, however, are well known everywhere as a distinct people both by race and religion, and all of them that did not fall under any of the specified categories, have been shown under a general head as 'Baltis'.

Attempt has been made for the first time on the present occasion to classify the population of Laddakh on some broad lines of demarcation, and in Table XIII the Musalmans will be seen arranged in Part II under Arghun (1,517), Balti (72,439) Brukpa, (8,890), Mangriks (62,892), Rigzang and Tarakchos (4,026), and the Budhists under Lama (28), Mangriks (35,616) and Rigzang (862). Of Bedas only 5 Bodhs and 219 Mohamedans could be distinguished. Mughmi being only a Balti word for cultivators, all persons returned by that name have been mixed up with Mangriks. Rignun is the Laddakhi word for Kamin or Kammin, i.e., the serving and lower classes

<sup>\*</sup> There is yet another method of classifying these castes: I. Rigzang subdivided into (1) Kurumshingpa or Gyalpo, (2) Timzipa with (a) Kushak, (b) Lams, (c) Klon, (d) Lonpo, (e) Nangsu, (f) Larje, (g) Unpo, (h) Thakshos as its subdivisions; II. Mangriks with innumerable local names.

<sup>†</sup> The degradation of these classes is due to their foreign and low birth; they are only aboriginal immigrants from the lower hills and plains, Bedas corresponding to Mirasis, Mon to Doms, Lamkhun to Chamiars and Malakhwan being no other than the Kanjur class of Jamma and Punjab.

<sup>‡</sup> Also called Pachhanges and the term includes all the upper classes of former Budhistic days. It seems to be only a variation of the word Thakshos. Pachange literally means twelve classes, and they varied with locality. During the Budhist rule in Baltista. Le Raja of each ilaque divided his people into twelve classes with reference to the duties asigned to them. On the occasion of the marriage of the Raja's daughter the representatives of those sections escorted her to her husband's place. This latter practice survives in Baltistan even to the present day.

of which Bedas alone have been separately shown. The figures returned under heads Mon, Garra, Shinkhan, Lamkhun, etc., were amalgamated with the functional groups concerned. In order to make the division more logical and less overlapping it would be best to adhere to the three main divisions (a) Rigzang or Tarakchos, (b) Mangriks or Mughmi (c) Rignun or Kamin. Within these, important subdivisions which may still be extant and possess the characteristics of a distinct class might be distinguished. It will, however, be always necessary to separate the figures of the priestly Lamas, the functional groups like carpenters, blacksmith, Mons (Doms), Bedas (Mirasis), Lamkhun (Chamiars), etc., the Dard race of the Brukpas, and figures might also be separately ascertained at the next Census of the nomadic Changpas of Rukshu who have their own characteristics. The mixed breed of the Arghuns has formed itself into a distinct unit and should continue to be shown separately unless it should merge its identity into the general Musalman population of Laddakh.

263. Not much information could be obtained as to racial distribution of the population of Gilgit and its neighbouring Ilaqas, but Of Gilgit the conditions prevailing there can not differ very much from those of the Baltistan. The Political Agent reports that distinction is usually made there also with reference to locality or descent from some distinguished person of the past. The indigenous population of that part of the State has been shown only under two heads, Shins (11,080) and Yashkuns (35,011). The former class represents the aristocracy and the latter the tenantry of the country. All being Mohamedan converts from Budhism these people observe no restrictions as to commensality or intermarriage, only the Shins regard themselves a socially superior peoplet.

264. Among the reforms that Guru Nanak and Guru Gobind sought to enforce among the people of India the most Caste in other important was the effacement of all distinctions based on caste, but with the ideas of pollution by touch, and restrictions as to interdining and intermarriage still religions lingering, howsoever feebly, among their followers of the present times, the liberal views of those religious leaders do not seem to have made much headway. In this State, 34 Megh, (1) Sikh 354 Rajput, 38 Sansi, 154 Tarkhan and 292 Zargar Sikhs have been returned at the present Census; and 12,494 Sikh units remained unclassified. Jainism finds the greatest favour with the Khattri Bhabbras and they represent singly the whole Jain com-(2) Jain & munity here. The Parsis recognise no caste system and (3) Parsi they have been shown separately as a race by themselves. They are the survivors of the old fire-worshipping race of ancient Persia. No caste-differentiation was required to be made in respect of the local converts to Christianity and such of them as were returned (4) Indian by the persons enumerated were altogether ignored at Christian compilation. The total number of Indian Christians (709) has been shown under a single head.

European races

European in the margin of the next page. It should, however, be remembered that the European statistics include an American lady who returned herself as a Bramho and an Englishman who has

Shin is derived from the Tibetan word shing, meaning jungle. This explains the term Brukpa, the representatives of the Dard race in Laddakh, Brukpa literally signifying a man of the jungles and hills. It has been reported that the Shins claim their descent from Abu Jehl Qureshi.

<sup>. †</sup> The pride and sense of superiority of the Shims appears to proceed from the fact that they are descendants of the rajas and ruling families of Laddakh in Budhistic period. This may be inferred from 'Kurumshinpa' the Laddakhi synonym of Gylpo, (Vide the first note of the last page).

adopted Islam as his religion. The European population here has already been

		ROPEA LLIED	Angro-			
STATE AND PROVINCES	Bri subj		Oth	ere	INDIANA	
	Malce	Females	Males	Pemake	Males	Permales
State	124	102	10	15	10	7
Jammu	27	18	1	4	9	3
Kashmir	87	82	.7	6	6	4
Frontier	15	7	3	5	2	1

shown to be comprised mainly of the employes of the State and of the Government of India and the time of the Census not being the proper season for an influx of visitors and travellers their proportion in the total European population registered must necessarily be very insignificant. That this class of population is confined chiefly to the cities is evident from the fact that 8 British-born subjects were counted in Jammu and 85 of that class, 5 other

Europeans and 4 Anglo-Indians were found in Srinagar. Sub-divided nation-

		Po	PULATIO	Ke
RACE OR NATIONALIT	Persons	Males	Pemales	
American (unspecified) Anglo-Indian	<u>:</u>	78	1	2 7
Candiso	••	i	••	i
Dutch	••	2	2	
Maglish	••	199	103	96
French	**	10	3	"e
Irish	••	12		
Bootch	**	21	14	ž

ally and racially the European community enumerated in the State stood as per marginal table. As compared with language figures these race statistics of Europeans differ but slightly. The residents of America and the British Isles, indeed, all spoke English, but the total number of English-speaking persons being 257, two Frenchmen, four Germans and 15 Anglo-

Indians seem to have returned English as their mother-tongue.

266. The wandering tribes of varying degrees of criminality such as

Bawarias (34), Bazigars (1,276), Sansis (97), Harnis

Nomadic
tribes (654), etc., being common to other parts of India call
for no special reference, nor are the more civic Banjaras

(136), Kanjars (312) and Qalandars (100) numerically

of sufficient importance to deserve more than a passing mention. The Labanas (5,321) found here have also settled down to agricultural life. It is the pastoral tribes like the Kaghani and other Bakkarwals † that constitute one of the special features of this wild country of jungles, forests, swards and pastures; and as among them none is more important and interesting than the Gujjar. Barring the promisouous class of the Kashmiri Musalmans, there is no individual community numerically as large in this State as that of the Gujjars (328,003). Although they are seen, in fairly large numbers, pursuing agriculture on several spots of the submontane Jammu as also in the lower hills of that Province, and of northern and western parts of Kashmir, and sparingly in the south of Kashmir, the Gujjars continue to be an eminently pastoral people; and in summer may be met with in all parts of the two provinces moving from place to place with their herds of cows, buffaloes and other live-stock taking along with them their families and chattels. Snowfall forms the greatest force impelling their movements. Near the advent of snow they begin to climb down from the higher levels and gradually descend to the lowlying plains of the various valleys and mountain ranges of the country. With the dawn of spring a retrograde movement begins and they continue penetrating the interior, rising higher and higher according as the ice covering the grazing-ground thaws away and lays the mountain surface bare and free for vegetation. This backward and forward movement Punch ... 61,510 Shanpur ... 18,762 goes on from year to year and forms the sum Rasil ... 58,843 Jarota ... 15,762 goes on from year to year and forms the sum Prootier Hagas ... 2,719 total of the nomadic Gujjar's life. At the Rashmir North ... 28,265 Bhadarwah ... 24,865 time of the Census they were locally distribility ... 26,189 Laddakh ... 25,189 Laddakh ... 25,189 buted as in the margin. A reference to the

language map of Gujari attached to Chapter IX of this Report will, however,

<sup>\*</sup> C.f. § 228 (a), p. 178 Ch. IX and see detail of European languages given in Subsidiary Table I (b) of the same chapter at page 187.

<sup>+</sup> The figure shown under the head Bakkarwal (583) is neither correct nor complete. The Budhist Bakkarwals (Changpas) have not been shown separately at all and most other goat-herds and shepherds seem to have been indiscriminately mixed up with the figures of one class or another.

show that the tehsils of Riasi, Rampur, and Uri, and in relatively smaller degree tehsil Karlah and Ilaqa Punch constitute the main block of land which forms the chief habitat of the Gujjar tribe. In the plains of Jammu Gujjars are found in Ranbirsinghpura tehsil in the largest proportion.

The Gujjar community is also of great ethnographic interest. Gujjars found in the State and in the Punjab are no other than the Gujars that are spread all over the United Provinces and other parts of India, only the community here, especially in the higher altitudes retains its identity and traditions in a greater degree than that found anywhere else. Mr. D. R. Bhandarkar of Poona (Bombay) in a paper read recently before the Bombay University, while showing the intermixture of the four main classes of Hindus—the Brahmans, Kshattryas, Vaishyas and Sudras-among themselves and proving an admixture into each and all of tribes from foreign countries, traces the origin and course of progress of the Gujjars, according to which account this tribe appears to be of great antiquity, and is proved to have once occupied not only the southern parts of Central Asia, but also inhabited the borderland between Asia and Europe. The Juzr or Khazar of the Arab + historians and the Ghyssr of the Jews are shown to be identical with the Gujjars. The Gurjistan; in the west of Hazarah and Gujaristan § near Ghazni form habitats of the Gujjar to the present day. Racially, the Gujjars are supposed to be allied to the White Huns and came to India almost synchronously with them. Their inroads into Southern India are stated to have been two in number, one in the last quarter of the sixth century and the other in the middle of the tenth. Early in the seventh century they are said to have become Hinduized and their elements are traced among Brahmans, Rajputs and the castes of other Vernas; Bad Gujjar, Paratihar or Padihar i. e., Palihar, Chaulakhia, Solankhi, Chawan or Chauhan. Pamwar or Panwar Thakurs being some of the instances of Gujjar origin among the Rajputs and Gujar Gaurs and Nagars | among Brahmans, Gujar Vanias among Vaishyas and Gujar Sutars (carpenters), Sonars (goldsmiths) Kumhars (potters), etc., among the Sudras. The Sivalik Mountains and the Sapadalaksha country whence the Gujjar tribe originally poured into the plains are only parts of the North-Western Himalayas. They are shown to have been spread over all parts of India—Punjab, United Provinces, Rajputana§§, Central India, Bengal, Madras and Bombay. The original Gujjars of Gujerat in Bombay have, however, lost their identity absolutely by having been incorporated into the Hindu races of the country. If this account of the Gujjar tribe be true—and having been deduced epigraphically and numismatically there is no reason to doubt its veracity—the Gujjars of the State, especially the pastoral and nomadic sections of the community, must be held to be only the remnants of the original stock. How they have passed from primitive barbarism to Hinduism and from Hinduism to Islam are matters of great historical interest.

The Gujjars as shown by the above account have not only themselves mixed up with other tribes, races and castes but seem to have also received large accretions and contributions here from outside. The Kshattrya element finds expression in Awan, Bhatti, Bhau, Thakkar, (with their variations Thakral (Thakri), Janjua (also Janjual), Jaral, Chibhial, Charak, Chauhan, Manihas, Domal, Dhund, Rawat, Salahria, Khokhar, Gakkhar, Langeh, Mangral

Published in the January number (1911) of Indian Antiquary Part D-III, Vol. XL, under the heading 'Foreign elements in Hindu Population.' The discourse forms part of the series of Bhagwanlal Indraji Lectures and is a valuable contribution to the ethnological science.

<sup>†</sup> The Gujjar women were much in demand also in Byzantium and Baghdad.

<sup>‡</sup> Gurjistan, in Asia Minor, so much known for its feminine beauty may, thus, also be taken as peopled by the Gujar race.

<sup>§</sup> Compare also Gujrat, Gujranwala, Gujjarkhan in Punjab, all of whom derive their name from their Gujjar inhabitants. They are great strongholds of the tribe, though the Gujjars there generally lead an agricultural life.

Nagar is said to be one of the sub-divisions of Kashmiri Brahmans and shows the connection of the Guijar tribe with the White Hune, through Mihirakula (the Mehr Gul of Persians) the founder of the Brahman Kingdom of Kashmir. Vide, § 6, ch. 1, p. 5 ante.

<sup>\$\$</sup> Formerly called Gujardes (the country of Gujars).

and Maldial, all of which have been returned as subcastes of the Gujjars; Bat, Bamhan, Dar, Kaul, Ganai, Lon represent the Brahman element; Bania, Wani, Bhatra, Jat, Arain, Chopra, Soni, Khalal (Kalal), Kalotra, Gangotra Mehra indicate affinity with Vaishyas, and Batal (Watal), Barwal, Beldar, Basith, Chuhra, Hajjam, Darzi, Dhobi, Soniar, Koli, Mochi, Mirasi, Malihar, Najjar signify an admixture of the lower Sudra classes and functional groups. Traces of foreign blood in the Gujjar tribe may be noticed in Pathan, Khan, Sayed, Shaikh, Fakir, Qureshi, Chaghtai, Kakezai, Lodi and Mir. The instance of the Chauhdris of Punch, cited by the Census Officer of that Ilaqa, who claim to have once been Rathor Rajputs but have now been transformed into and are known as Gujjars may also be quoted in this connexion.

267. In the face of the fact that the largest part of the total area of this State is peopled by the unexclusive and cosmopolitan Musalmans and Bodhs, there is not much to be said in the way of caste rules and restrictions and those in force in the Hindu country of Dugar, being common with Punjab, can constitute no fresh contribution to the existing knowledge

on the subject. The complete system of endogamous subcastes and exogamous gotras and also the Ekehra and Dohra organisations regarding the giving and taking of girls in marriage existing among the Rajputs and some higher sections of Brahmans and Khattris have already been referred to in the Marriage Chapter\*, but they have no real force except among the people in close and constant touch with the Hindus of Punjab, as we have seen above in the great laxity that exists in matters relating both to marriage and food in the interior of the country, especially among the hill-tribes of Bhadarwah and Kishtwar. Even though there exist a few khûs (wells) in Jammu city reserved for the exclusive use of the Hindus and from which no member of the untouchable classes, nor a Musalman, may draw water, the hillmen of northern Jammu are not at all particular as to the hand from which they get water to drink. In Kashmir prejudices of this sort have had a much weaker hold, for although the Brahman may refrain from dining with a Purbi or Bohra, he used to have no scruples in taking water fetched from the Jhelum even by a Mohamedan. The distinction as to pakki and kachchi rasoin (food cooked with and without ghee) is also made rigorously only in the higher quarters in and about Jammu. As regards occupation, the degradation of Chamiars, Dums, Meghs, etc., is ascribed solely to the unclean occupations they follow, a Mian (now Thakur) Rajput will be immensely degraded by cultivating land or taking to menial service and the Mohyal Brahman is making military and civil service his special occupation. The Acharji, Dukaunt and Gujrati Brahmans are held very low in estimation, socially, by all other sections of the Brahman community because they receive obsequial offerings. Among the Kashmiri Pundits no Bachhbat should take up a secular work, nor is a Karkun allowed to enter the sacerdotal order, and the two classes exclude each other in the matter of marriage simply because of the great divergence in their occupation. Prevalence of early marriage and deprecation of widow-marriage also obtain as shown previously, only among the higher divisions of Hindu society and it is just they that respect the rules as to taking of thread (janeo) or initiation by a Guru. Among the same class of people, again, the scale of expenditure at marriage not seldom determines social position. The tendency of the Rajputs to spend most lavishly on occasions like these is best illustrated by Drew's account of a royal marriage at Jammu.† The cost of the trousseau alone, given away to the princess who was married, was estimated to be £70,000 (=  $10\frac{1}{2}$  lacs of rupees)! It is no wonder that persons with slender means should, in an attempt to follow examples of this sort, be vying with each other as to the amount they spend at marriages of their children, and be incurring · ruinous expenditure.

<sup>\*</sup> Vide § 191, p. 139 ante.

<sup>† &#</sup>x27;Jammu and Kashmir Territories' by Drew, pp. 76-62.

No great influence appears to have been exercised in this country by the spread of new ideas of the present day tending to obliterate caste-differences. A Rajput or a Brahman boy still objects to sitting beside a Chamiar or Megh student of the same educational institution, and if any individual member of a community takes any liberties as to his food and drink in imitation of the more advanced peoples of the Punjab, he does it at the risk of excommunication in case of exposure. Even on a mere suspicion he is treated with contempt by all orthodox people. The Brahmanic influence is, on the contrary, seen growing both in extent and efficacy, and a general endeavour for reconstituting the disintegrated and degenerated sections of the society is visible among all the higher castes. The Brahmans of Kashmir have begun to adhere to the caste rules as to food and drink with a greater rigidity than ever evinced before, and a scheme for reclamation of the Thakkars by inducing them to conform to Rajput practices is already in contemplation. Exceptional cases may occur of startling extra-communal marriages, one of which has recently been contracted between a Punjabi Khattri male and a Bengali Brahman female, but they are regarded only as abnormities that do not touch the main body of the caste-observing people, whose views as regards endogamy and exogamy become only stricter in retaliation. The Arya Samajists are trying to raise the limit of age for marriage and also to secure a propagation of widow-marriage, but so far their reforming endeavours in those directions have failed to produce any tangible results among the local people.

268. Owing to the length of distances and the difficulties of communication, judicial relief is not so readily available in this hilly country as it may be elsewhere. One would, under the Caste governcircumstances, look for numerous local bodies governing ment themselves on matters social and religious, as also judicial, in all parts remote or any way cut off from the centres of political authority, but the great ignorance of the people prevents the formation of any organised constitution of that sort. It has been shown in a previous chapter of this Report that the country is essentially priest-ridden, and the Pundits, Pirs, Mullah and Lamas not only exercise jurisdiction over religious matters but often guide the counsels of their devotees even in matters social and judicial. Most of the disputes arising from contact between man and man, here, are seldom taken to courts and are locally settled and disposed by a reference to the religious leaders. Sometimes the elders and more respectable and reponsible members of the village community sit together to square up petty differences of the inhabitants of their village. In Jammu Province, however, where caste-system in its truest sense exists, the existence of tribal punchayots is reported among the lower classes and functional groups. In Jasrota, for instance, the barbers and carpenters have such punchayats. Among the barbers there is a representative member for each ilaga and a Kotwal above all. The aggrieved party applies to the ilaga member of the community who communicates the complaint to the Kotwal; the latter convenes an assembly of all the ilaqadars and charges 4 annas from the parties for his own services. The committee so assembled adjudicates upon the matter in dispate, and if the person found in fault does not act up to the findings of the junchayat he is excommunicated. The Jhivars of Jammu district appoint sheadman called mehtar,\* who presides over the biradri meetings, and his word is final in all social disputes. In Mirpur, conjugal disputes are settled among the lower classes by the brotherhood. The Sikh Brahmans of Punch and Muzaffarabad refer their differences to their Granth gurûs and those of Kashmir to the Srinagar "Singh Sabha." The latter imposes fines, and in certain cases the offender is sent round the streets with blackened face; the indignity of carrying about a pair of old shoes is also occasionally added. The Shia Musalmans of Kashmir obey the dictates of their Qazis in matters social and religious. In Laddakh the Lamas continue to wield authority in all religious and social matters, although the old punishments of ostracism, throwing an iron chain

<sup>•</sup> C. f. the Mahra of the Kahars in Outh-

round the neck, whipping and the like, once inflicted by the local Rajas, have, with the decline of their political power cased to exist; nor has excommunication much force among the casteless Bodhs, but the fear of the Kushak's curse, a boycott by the Lamas and non-admission into Ghunpas have great deterrent effect and make the decision passed by the priestly class on religious and social matters inviolable. The Baltis and other Musalmans of Laddakh are guided by the advice of the village mullah. Some tribal customs have been reported from Gilgit vesting authority in the brotherhood in social matters; girls are irrevocably betrothed in presence of the elders of the community; a sheep or goat is levied as fine from persons evading help by labour at construction or repair of the village canal; poultry, sheep or goats damaging crops of fruits or cereals are forfeited to the aggrieved party, and so forth.

With the dawn of the present civilization and the growth of modern ideas, however, the higher and more advanced classes have, as pointed above, begun to reconstitute themselves; and in pursuance of the ways and practices of the Punjab people, again, sectarian committees and associations are rapidly springing up in the more accessible parts of Jammu and Kashmir. Jammu city has quite a shoal of them: in addition to the great Rajput Sabha, there are the central associations of the Brahmans, Khattris, Mahajans, Aroras and several committees of the Musalmans, all with ramifications in the interior of the country in the shape of branches and sub-committees. 'The Amar Sabha' of the Rajputs at Jammu is a well-organised body, and it is empowered to regulate the social and religious conduct of the community whose members are, owing to the innate pride of their race, not readily amenable to the ordinary local authority and among whom occasions for strife and lawlessness arise with greater frequency. The final authority of the Sabha being H. H. the Maharaja Saheb Bahadur himself the association affords great facility for expeditious disposal of all caste disputes and the community is spared the worry and cost of common litigation. The Maharaja's word is, however, final in caste matters of the Rajputs alone and the old Hindu system of the chief regulating the caste organisation as a whole found in certain parts of India does not seem to exist here. In Kashmir, the following societies are found:

- (a) The Anjuman-i-Nusratul-Islam, which directs its efforts chiefly to providing better facilities for education of the Mohamedan community;
- (b) The Singh Sabha, already mentioned;
- (c) The Dharam Sabha, which is only an echo of the dispute among the Kashmiri Pundits which arose at Lucknow, nearly two decades ago, over the reclamation of a member of that community who had committed the innovation of travelling beyond the seas and going to England for education. Though as such originally only a counterpart of 'the Bishan Sabha', it has now become 'a socio-religious society', in the words of the Governor of Kashmir, 'of Sanatan Dharmas, who in the Valley are, generally (the) Kashmiri Pundits'.

The Arya Sanaj of Lahore has also extended its branches to Jammu, Mirpur, Srinagar and other important centres which here are as yet only preaching and missionary bodies. Of trade guilds, none seem to exist here so far, although with the growing prosperity of the artisan classes following in the wake of increased wages, a tendency to form into such organised bodies is being evidenced on the part of some functional classes and found expression recently at Jammu in a combined organisation of the local tailors.

Subcastes and functional groups
in this country. Divisions have been and are being formed both by fission and fusion. That the intermingling has been most promiseuous is evident from the presence of certain caste and tribal names in all grades of

society. Awan, Arain, Bhatti, Bains, Budhan, Bhau, Chibh, Chauhan, Charak, Chandel, Dhund, Jat, Janjua, Jaral, Khokhar, Gakkhar, Manihas, Sudan, Sau, Salahria or Salathia are some of the names that have been returned in one form or another, as subcastes by most of the Jammu castes and tribes, more especially by Arora, Brahman, Gaddi, Khattri, Rajput and Thakkar, and are as common among the functional groups like Dhobi, Darzi, Ghumar, Hajjam, Jhiwar, Julaha, Lohar, Tarkhan and Teli as among the untouchable classes such as Chamiar, Dum, Megh, Mochi, Mirasi, etc. The Chechi and Gursi of the Gujjars or their variations find their way in almost all tribal and caste divisions. Some further illustrations of the blending of races and tribes are found in the presence of Issar, Baid, Bat, Ballanloch Bharaddwaj, Acharji, Raina, Bazdan, Pundit, Chibbar, Dár, Lon, Kák, Ráthar, Bashist, Dat, Mehta, Pande and Mohyal†—all Brahman subcastes,—as subdivisions among Arains, Telis, Julahas, Jhiwars, Ghumars, Shaikhs, Mirasis, Lohars, Thakkars, Mahajans, Gaddis and Meghs; the Kshattrya subcastes like Chibh, Chauhan, Manihas, Charak, Jaral, Jandial, Chandel, Bains, Narma, Sau, Mian, Rajput, Chandrabansi, Langeh and others are likewise mixed up with the above and many other classes. up with the above and many other classes; and as instances of similar commingling from Vaishyas may be cited the names of Chopra, Seni, Kohli, Agarwal, Bania (or Wain and Wani), Bhabhra, Kalalia, Anand, Ghae, Mehra, Kamotra, etc. The converse case Malhotra, Samnotra, Mangotra, is of the names of Sudra and untouchable classes being found among some of the higher castes-Batals (Watals), Hajjams, Basith are met with among the Thakkars: Chechial, Gaddi, Dumalia among Brahmans; Meghs, Kumhar, Gadri, etc., among Aroras; Barwal, Dumiar among Jats; Lal Begt and Mochi among Thakkars; and Hajjam, Dhobi, Dom, Kumhiar, Lohar, Teli, Chuhra among Shaikhs.

Instead of multiplying examples of this sort or entering into a discussion of the divisions and subdivisions of the various custes individually, we should now turn to the causes that must be taken as having worked out this great medley of the human race in this part of the country, The majority of hill people in their ignorance appear to have had no regard in the past to the restrictions that the caste system sought to enforce and have been mingling with each other most promiscuously. Some sections branched off on racial grounds, others through occupational and functional reasons, others, again, by variations in social practices. All the degradation of the Thakkars is, as has been noticed, a result of the prevalence among them of widow remarriage and some barbarous marriage customs. Pahari Brahmans are looked down upon by those of the plains for similar reasons. Royal Rajputs, on the other hand, owe all their racial eminence to their economic and political superiority. As to the causation of subdivision by change of residence and locality, instances of it are most numerous in this State. Jaswal, Jamwal, Jasrotia, Mandial, Sambrial, are no others than Raiputs claiming their descent from some distinguished member or family of that community, who established itself at one or other of the places like Jammu, Jasrota, Mandi, Samba, etc. Each individual family of whatever easte or tribe living in an isolated spot on the hills and among the valleys of the country in this way forms a nucleus and comes in course of time to form a new subdivision of the caste until the list of such divisions has now become quite unmanageably large. Among the cases of the offspring of crosses between two different peoples forming into a class of their own, reference may be made to the Arghuns of Laddakh and Purbis of Kashmir. The latter is a hybrid race which has resulted from unions between Brahmans, Khattris, and Kshattryas. In Jammu, the Chhatroras are Rajput children born in concubinage.

I C. f. the Lal Begi sept of the Bhangis of the United Provinces.

Manihas is the agricultural section of Rajputs and, like Jats, has come to signify a cultivator. † Mohyals disown as occupation the cultivation of land performed by the agricultural Brahmans of the Jammu hills on the one hand and receipt of alms and obsequial offerings practised by Dakaunts, Actisriis, etc., on the other. They are trying to confine themselves to service, more especially of a military nature, and are forming themselves into a distinct caste with a position nearer the Rajputs than the Brahmans.

270. A few instances of castes in the course of formation, or indeed transformation, owing to change in occupation having been dis-Transition of covered by the Superintendent of Census Operations United castes Provinces, the Census Commissioner drew the attention of all other Provincial and State Superintendents to the matter and asked them to be on the look-out for similar instances within their respective charges. After all that has been stated above, little need be said to prove that in spite of the fact that each individual caste, viewed at any given moment, looks quite immutable, indiscriminate intermixture has in the past gone on between caste and caste; and each offshoot from one caste, before merging into the other or forming into a new caste by itself, must have passed through a stage when it was treated as belonging to neither. The presence of the names of the functional groups among certain castes founded on racial distinctions and, vice versa, of the names of subdivisions of the main racial castes among the trading and industrial classes presents good illustration of this process. As to the present some Thakkars in Bhadarwah are reported to have become Dum and some Meghs, Lohar and Jogi; in Bhimber and Mirpur tehsils some Kashmiris are working as washermen, goldsmiths, dyers, tailors, weavers, etc., and Jhiwars and Mirasis, as tailors, but they do not illustrate the stage of transition as they seem to have completely merged into the castes of their adoption. A case in point has, however, been reported from Kotli, where some Chamiars are said to have taken to weaving, and it might be similar to the one discovered in the United

271. In the map facing this page, all the prominent tribes, races and Local distributions castes are shown by locality. Throughout the Province of Kashmir, as also in Ramban tehsil and Bhadarwah Jagir tion of caste, of Jammu Province, it is the Kashmiri race that prepon-. derates. In the north, the Mongolian Budhists are confined to Laddakh; the Baltis inhabit not only the whole of Skardu tehsil, but also the greater portion of Kargil, and Yashkun is the preponderating tribe in Gilgit and its Frontier ilaque. On the south, in the Province of Jammu, the Gujjars "numerically predominate over other classes and castes in Punch, Rampur, Riasi, Jammu and Samba; Kotli, Rampur and Bhimber form the country of the Jats; Brahmans are in excess of all others in Akhnur, Kathua, Ramnagar and Udhampur; and Kishtwar and Basohli are the land of the Thakkar. On the spot, however, no such hard and fast lines as appear on the map will be found drawn; the various racial zones merge into one another according as they draw nearer, and within each there exists a sprinkling of all other castes, classes and people. Real Hindu castes are, it should be remembered, to be found only in the Dugar ilaga in their truest colour and fullest variety, the rest of the country being either Mohamedan or Budhistic possesses no genuine caste-system.

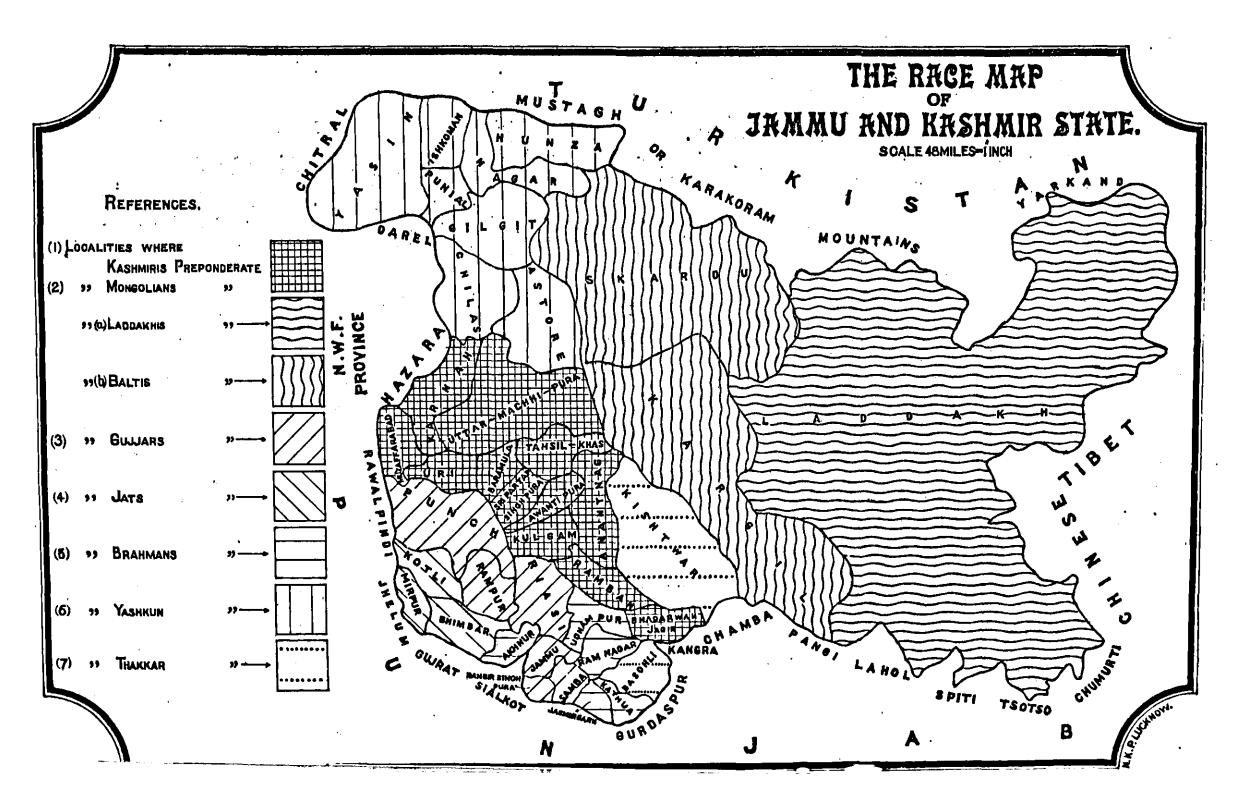
272. There is no aspect of the Census in which the scope for comparison in this State is so narrow and defective as in the case of castes, tribes, etc. The system of classification has varied so much from census to census that it has been utterly impossible to work

			PERCENTAGE OF VARIATIONS					
•	OR RACE		1891—19	DI	1901-	1911	1891—1911	
_	Damist	٠.	+ 9		+	8-7	+ 16·1	
(	)huhr <b>a</b>	••	+ 3	-8	+	1-6	4 5 5	
J	hiwar.		_ 1	4	+	B-8	+ 44	
1	llegh .		20	9	+	26.4	- 12	

out a common basis for comparison, and in Subsidiary Table II are displayed the figures of only such caste names as could be traced in the caste tables of all the three censuses we have had here. The figures exhibited possess absolutely no comparative value except perhaps those of *Chamiars*, and *Chuhras*, whom it was impossible to mix up with the

cleaner castes under any system of classification and these prolific tribes have

The Laddakhi Bodhs also extend to the ilaga of Zenskar and a large number of other villages of tehsil Kargil lying on its border-line towards the north-east; but small variations of this nature could not be made out cartographically in a small map like this.



gone on increasing in their numbers from decade to decade. The slight fall registered at the last Census among the Jhiwars appears to have been more than made good at the present, and the small decrease in the ranks of the Meghs may only be a result of the modern efforts for amelioration of their social position and consequent amalgamation of their units with some higher classes. Part of the deficit would be explained by the larger exportation of Megh women outside the State for purposes of marriage that must be taken to have followed the improved communication. The Gujjar tribe has been increasing by long strides partly owing to its natural fecundity and partly at the expense of other castes and classes from whom the process of acquisition and accretion has been shown to be still in progress. The increase amongst them between 1391 and 1901 was 16:4 per cent, and since the last Census 14.6; the community has thus gained by one-third of its original proportion twenty years ago. Great variations are noticeable among Rajputs and Thakkars. In 1891 the Thakkar figures were included with those of the Rajputs, and the great decrease in the figures of the Hindu Rajputs recorded at the present Census is due to the exclusion of a large number of subcastes and minor divisions from the Rajput totals at the instance of the local Rajput Sabha.

273. On matters of so technical and scientific a nature as determina-Melanoglossia tion of race by means of blue-patches and melanoglossia and Mendanot much useful information can be expected from this backward part of the country. The ordinary executive lian Law agency was neither fit nor inclined to dabble with anthropological questions of this sort and the medical agency was not of a strength and efficiency sufficient to cope with the vast but difficult field for these inquiries here existing, and the requisite amount of genuine co-operation was also not forthcoming. The inquiry was, even where intelligible, considered to be only a fad of the Census department deserving of no serious notice. The Wazir of Laddakh, with his usual energy and keen sense of duty, exhibited real interest in the matter and co-operated earnestly with the Rev. F. E. Peter, the

			NS EX-	PERSONS FOUND WITH PIGNENT- RD TOXUUE		
CLASS OF PERSONS		Rev. Mr. Peter	Waxir	Bev. Mr. Peter	Wazir	
Nen		1,734	1,090	174	107	
Women	••,	1,453	786	171	101	
Children	••	1,105	631	6	•	
Total	••	4,393	2,497	853	214	

Moravian Missionary of Laddakh, who was good enough to take a long and troublesome journey in that difficult country for the special purpose of making this investigation. The results of the inquiry carried out jointly and severally by them are set out in the margin. It will be observed that the proportion\* of coloured tongues is larger in the case of males than females, and the fact of its being very

small among children shows that the pigment on the tongue, characteristic of the Mongolian race, develops only at a later stage in lifet. These experiments were chiefly carried out among the Bodhs of Laddakh who belong to the Mongolian race, and the results obtained clearly lend support to Baelz's theory of the relation that exists between these marks and the racial origin of

The percentages of cases with melanoglossia on the total number of persons examined is worked out as below:

	Men	$\mathbf{Women}$	Children
In Rev. Mr. Peter's observation	0.00	11.08	.7
In Wazir's observation		12.80	.9

<sup>†</sup> The following remarks of Rev. Mr. Peter are well worth quoting:

<sup>&</sup>quot;(1) Only 44 out of the number of coloured tongues were what I would call black tongues; (2) The number of coloured tongues is perhaps somewhat too high, as I have not always been able to distinguish clearly between the specis that are the result of syphilis and real coloured specks; (3) It is very remarkable that the black tongues and the much dotted ones in most cases belonged to persons showing a distinctly black skin, somewhat like the skin of very low caste people in India; (4) In children the dotted tongue was very rare. Only in one case I was able to see the black tongue in three consecutive generations; several times I was able to see it in two generations. As far as I could ascertain the specks become visible only in riper age. One man whom I know well told me that he was sure they had become visible only when he was more than 50 years old."

It may, however, be noted that syphilis is an uncommon disease in Laddakh country, especially among the Bodhs.

the people in whom they may be found. This is further corroborated by the fact that out of 81 men, 83 women and 43 children of the mixed race of the Arghuns examined by the Wazir, the number with pigment on the tongue was 4, 2, 2, respectively; and of the 61 migrants from Jammu and Punjab not one had a coloured tongue. Six hundred cases were examined at the Civil Hospital, Jammu, out of which only two persons had true melanoglossial marks; any specks noticed in other cases were certified by the Chief Medical Officer to be results merely of chronic malaria.

Of yet greater complexity has been the inquiry as to the operation of the Mendalian Law in cross-breeding between persons of different race. In the absence of instructions as to the definite characteristics which might be looked for no useful information could be collected, even though the field for this investigation is one of the most extensive here. In addition to the great inter-breeding between different castes that has been shown to have taken place in the hills of Jammu much blending of different races has occurred in every other part of the State, and there is a wide range for selection of subjects for the purpose of this inquiry. Numerous cases, of inter-breeding have been reported from various parts of the State-of crosses between Laddakhi and Balti females and Lhassi, Yarkandi, Dardi, Kashmiri, Punjabi, Goanese, Madrasi and European males in the District of Laddakh, of crosses between European on the one hand and Kashmiri and Gujjar on the other in Kashmir, and of crosses between Pahari Thakkars, Kashmiri Brahmans, Dums, Meghs, Afghanis, Nepalis, Jats and Burmese in Jammu Province—and peculiarities of either parents could be noticed in a variable degree of prominence among the hybrid offspring, but no inferences of any scientific utility can be drawn: All that it is possible to say is that segregation of characters does take place in proportion to the dominance of one element over the other and that the foreign strain is always noticeable for a few generations, but if it remains unrenovated is lost eventually through the force of climate and other physical environments. It is, indeed, difficult to obtain accurate knowledge on the subject in this ill-educated country even with a greater amount of leisure than is available to the Census agency and the investigation if pursued further ought, in future, to be carried out only through medical and other agency specially trained in the nature, scope and object of the inquiry and, in order to prove fructuous, should extend over a sufficient length of time.

274. Occupation is discussed at length in the next chapter; here, reference has to be made only to the traditional occupation Castes classiof certain castes as exhibited in Subsidiary Table I. As fied occupasuch this paragraph forms a connecting link between tionally this chapter and the next. The majority of the people in the State, it will be observed, are either agricultural and pastoral in their pursuits or are employed in common labour. The tribes and races inhabiting the interior of the country only till the land or nurture live-stock. To the former class belong the Arain, Baltis, Jats, Thakkars, Shins, Sudhans and the majority of the Kashmiri Musalmans and to the latter the Gujjars, Gaddis and Bakkarwals. Barwala, Beldar, Ghrit, Koli, Saryara, Thiar and other lower castes work as field labourers. Hanjis, Jhiwars, etc., ply boats and do some fishing. The writer-class of the country is chiefly formed by Kashmiri Pundits, Khattris and Mahajans, and of the menial and functional groups all the ordinary ones are met with in the lower and easier parts of Jammu and Kashmir but not elsewhere. Trade is carried on mainly by the Arghuns, Aroras and Khejas. Bawarias, Sansis and other wandering tribes carry on their ordinary calling of hunting, fowling, etc. Certain sections of Brahmans, Jogis and Sazeds and all Sadhûs and Lamas form the priestly class. Singing, dancing, etc., are performed by Bedas, Bhirais, Kanjars and Mirasis. The Dosalis of Jammu are the makers of leaf-platters and Gadri, Ratal and some proportion of Dums make the Chaukidar class of the land.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I—Castes classified according to their traditional occupation (as per Imperial Table XVI)

occupation	(as per 1	mperial Table XVI)	<del></del>
OCCUPATION AND CASTS	STRENGTE	Occupation and Caste	STRENGTH
	2	1	2
Land-holders and cultivators	267,306 85•	Potters	$-\frac{15,403}{5}$
Jat	ໄ ດາຂວຊ	Kumhiat	15,403
Thakkar	9,164 2,718	Oil pressers '	- 18,333 6
Tantre (Kashmiri Musalman) Yashkun	12 914	Teli	18,333
Graziers and dairymen	306,917	Leather workers	55,129 17
Gaddi and Gojjar	1 1	Chamiar Mochi	37,860 17,269
Fishermen, boatmen and Palki- bearers	28,793	Carpenter ·· ··	9,125
Hanji	11002	Tarkhan	9,125
Musicians, singers, dancers, mimės and juglers	7,554	Blacksmiths	25,689
Birasi and Bhand		Lohar	25,689
Traders and pedlers	72,956	Sweeper	<u>. 19,104</u>
Khattri	17,855 57,101	Dum, Chuhra and Watal	19,104
Weavers	27,623	Writers	<u>55,097</u>
Julaha	27,623	Kashmiri Pundit	55,097

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.A - Castes classified according to their traditional occupation (general)—contd.

OCCUPATION AND CASTE	STRENGTH	PRENGTH OCCUPATION AND CASTE		
1	2	1 /	2	
Military service and dominant race Gorkha Bajpat  Land-holders and cultivators  Arain Balti (labour)† Bhatti (service) Brukpa Budhan Dhund Domal Jat Kashmiri Musalman (service and trade) Labana Mangriks Mughal (service) and trade) Rigzang Shin Sudhan (service) Thakkar Yashkun	206,072 65° 1,330 204,742 1,408,775 446 20,621 72,439 4,451 8,890 6,586 15,638 6,954 141,439 765,441 5,321 98,508 49,875 4,880 10,613 35,011 80,979	Koli Pathan (service and agriculture) Saryara Thiar  Graziers and dairymen  Bakkarwal Gaddi Gaijiar Fishermen, boatmen and Palki- bearers Hanji (especially boatmen and menial) sorvants) Jhiwar (menial service) Machhi (Bakars)  Hunters and fowlers  Bawaria Harni Sansi Sapiada (stiake-charming)  Priests and devotees  Brahmans (agriculture and service)	2 1,784 52,263 2,626 2,755 339,149 107 10,563 329,003 31,971 10 18,275 13,500 196 930 34 654 97 145 294,968 94 186,083	
Barwala Basith	11,355 7,647 2,418 131	Sadhus	3,653 28 3,068 102,195	

The figures noted in Italics below the total of each occupation group indicate the proportions of the persons under that group to the entire population of the State.

† The occupations next in importance from numerical standpoint are noted in brackets...

† The caste names as classified in the Caste-Index prepared for this State in the present Gensus being very feweren those castes whose total under the occupation group was 2 per mills or less have also been shown separately in this table.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I-A

Castes classified according to their traditional occupation (general)—Concld.

OCCUPATION AND CASTE	STRENGTH	OCCUPATION AND CASTS	Strrngtu
1 ,,	2	. 1	2
Writers	94,208	Potters	18,958 6
Kashmiri Pundit (Priests, vis., Bachbats)		Kumhiar	18,958
Kaynath Khattri (trade) Mahajan (trade)	18,517 20,462	Glass and Lac workers	446
Musicians, singers, dancers, )	10,162	Churigar	446
mimes and juglers	8	Blacksmiths	28,884
Bazigar Beda Bhirai	1,278 224 542	Lohar	28,884
Kanjar Khuara	812 9	Gold and silver smiths	6,379
Mirasi Qalandar	7,699 100		8 6.379
musdame and modicas	165,250	Zargar 21	63
Traders and pedlers	52	Brass and copper smiths	-02
Arghun Arora \	1,517 3,527	Thathiar	68
Banjara Khoja Malik	136 5,816 46,162	Oil pressers	<u>19,309</u>
Shaikh (service and agriculture)	105,285 2,407	Tell	19,309
Carriers by pack animals	455	Butchers	1,230
•	1		<i>¹</i> ₄ 1,230
Changar (cart-drivers)	455	Khatik	,
Barbers ;; ;; ;;	34,456	Leather workers	<u>53,793</u>
Hajjam	84,456	Chamiar Mochi	89,099 14,694
Washermen	5,991	Basket and mat makers	181
Dhobi	5,991		1
Weavers, carders and dyers	104,118	Dosali	181 1,324
	33	Village watchmen and menials	*4 *
Bafinda	26,830 864 75,409	Gadri Ratal	854 970
Naddaf	184	Ratal	
	3,958	Sweepers	<u>67,265</u> 21
Tailors	1	Chuhra Dum (watchmen)	8,699 52,099
Darzi 145 per	8,958	Dum (watchmen)	0,467
Carpenters	28,362	Others	139,108
Kamangar	491	Christians Darugar (pyrotechnists)	709 41
Tarkhan		Parsis (trade) Patoi (silk thread articles)	31 26
Masons	325	Unclassified Hindu Arya	6,420 144
Memar	325	Bikh Numlman	12,494 119,243
		<u> </u>	

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II—Variation in caste, tribe, etc., since 1891\*

			Pag-ons		Percentage increase (+)	of variation decrease(—)	Percentage of net variation
CASTE, TRIBE OR B.	ACE	1911	. 1901	1891	1901-1911	1891-1901	1891-1911
	<u> </u>	2	3	4	5	6	7
Arain	ļ ,	20,621		22,243			<b>—7</b> ·3
Bafinda		26,830	9,313	29,001	+ 189.1	-67:9	<b>—</b> 7·5
Balti		72,439	22,733	1,064	+ 2187	+ 2,036.6	+6,708 2
Barwala		11,355	2,403	5,310	+372.5	-547	+113.8
Basith		7,647	1	5,929	+764,600	99-9	+ 28.9
Brahman	***	241,362	207,125	240,765	+ 16.5	13.9	+ 23-2
Brukpa	•••	8,890	•••	274		`	+3,144.5
Budhau	444	6,586	19	•••	+ 34,563.2	***	•••
Chamiar		39,099	36,977	23,679	+5.7	+9.8	+ 16.1
Chuhra	***	8,699	8,572	8,257	+1.2	+ 3.8	+5.3
Darwosh	. 41,	9,175	19,697	708	53· <b>4</b>	+ 2,682·1	+ 1,195.9
Dhand	•••	15,858	, <b>.</b>	***	•••	<b>,</b>	4
Domai	•••	6,953					
Dom	eft.	52,099	54,486	34,457	4.8	+57.9	+51.2
Gaddi	***	10,563	5,927	•••	+78-2		·
Gajjar	•••	<b>328,003</b>	286,109	245,796	+14.6	+ 16.4	+ 33.4
Hajjam	•••	34,456	17,334	29,192	+98.8	40.6	<del></del> 18 <sup>-</sup> 03
Hanji	- 484	18,275	2,512	33,870	+ 627.5	92.6	46:04
Jat	400	141,439	148,554	142,595	-48	+4.2	8
Jhiwar	•••	13,500	12,748	12,929	+5'8	-1.4	+4'4
Kashmiri Musalman	•1•	765,441	329,978	264,271	+ 131.9	+ 24·8	+ 189 6
Khattri	***	18,517	47,887	.16,106	61:3	+ 197 3	+ 14.9
Kumhiar	•	18,958	11,213	22,507	+69·1	-50.2	<b>—15</b> ·8
Lohar	•••	28,884	29,190	27,827	-164	+4'8	+3.7
Mahajan	•••	20,462	27,459	•••	25·5		
Malik	***	43,162	26,280	21,887	+75.7	+ 20.1	+110.8
Mangrika	•••	94,508		23			+ 428,195 6
Mogh	•••	75409	59,646	75,500	+ 26.4	20-9	<b>-</b> ∵12
Mirasi	***	7,390	6,235	9,629	+ 23 5	35-2	-20 04
Mochi	411	14,(94	36,496	13,626	59 7	+ 167-7	+78
Mughal	•••	49,675	101,075	16,588	50-7	+ 509.3	+ 200 7
Pathan	•••	52,263	45,131	38,016	+ 15-8	+ 18-7	+ 37:4
Rajput	•••	204,742	166,547	402,918	+ 22-9	-58 6	<b>49</b> ∙2
Sayed	•	102,195	53,991	54,187	+89:3	4	+88.6
Shaikh	•••	105,285	66,879	373,633	+57.4	-82-1	<b>—71</b> 8
Shin	***	11,060	7,733	•••	+ 43:3		<b></b>
Sudhan		<b>5</b> 6,800	114	***	+ 49,724-3		
Tarkhan	•••	27,871	32,709	28,710	-14.8	+ 13.9	-29
Teli	•••	19,309	21,560	20,124	-10-1	+71	-4:04
Thakkar	•••	104,613	93,364	***	+ 12:04		
* The figures are	•••	85,011	26,583	144	+31-7		

The figures are partial, being only those that could be traced under caste-heads common to all the three censuses.

## APPENDIX X-Ethnological Glossary

1				22 mootogrout Grossury
,	Name of caste, tribe or race	Population according to present Census	Religion under which returned	Remares
ł	Amin	20,621	м.•	A large agricultural tribe corresponding to Hindu Káchhis and Mohamedan Kunjrás of United Provinces. They
	Arghun	1,517	M.	grow vegetables and do market-gardening in general.  A mixed breed of Mongolian race, especially the result of a cross between the Budhist female; of Luddakh and the
١	,			males of Yarkand and other Central Asian places on the one hand and of the Kashmir and Iunjab Musalmans on the other. General trade is their usual occupation.
۱'	Arora	3,527	H. S. A. M.	A trading and money-lending class of Vaishya affinities.  Though only an offshoot of Khattis, the people of this subcaste now claim an independent origin, but like the
١				Khatiris they arrogate to themselves a Kaliattrya descent;
	Bafinda	26,830	M.	the Kahattryas, however, do not recognise the claim.  The same as the Julaha of the Punjab and United Provinces, the traditional weaver, but in Jammu City they once
İ	Bakkar	583 \	м.	formed a wealthy trading-community.  Literally goat-herd. The Bakkarwals found in the State are mostly the sheep and goat graziers of wandering habit
	Balti	72,439	М.	hailing from Kaghan in north-west.  A geographical name but specially significant of the peculiar race of Shia Mohamedans of Skardu tehsil in Laddakh district. The Baltis are Mongolian and were originally
	Banjara	136	M.	Budhists. The same as the Banjara of United Provinces and Punjab.
,	Barwala	11,355	н. м.	Professionally the Banjaras are travelling pedlars, The same as in Punjah; those living on the higher hills
ı		,	, ,	being called Batwal. A low caste similar to Chamiar.  They work as coolies and fetch grass for sale.
4	Basith	7,017	H. M. S.	Another untouchable caste, which judging from its occupation and social position appears to be the same or akin to the Pasis of the United Provinces.
ᅦ	Bawaria	84	м. н.	A wandering and criminal tribe like Nats, living mainly by hunting. Common to Punjab and United Provinces.
4	Bazigar	1,276	н. м.	A wandering tribe, but criminal in this country. Being similar to Nate, they are scrobate by profession.
4	Beda	224	М. В.	This is a low class and is probably the same as the Doms † of Jammu Province and the plains. Beda and Rignun are
1	TO 11	0.470	TY 36 .	their Tibetan names in Laddakh and Mon in Kargil, Skardu and Gilgit.
1	Beldar	2,418	н. м.	Earth-diggers; the same as found in Hindustan and else- where.
1	Bhatti Bhirai	4,451. 542 <sub>.</sub>	M. M.	Mohamedan converts of Kshattrya origin.  A tribe by themselves distinct from Doms and Mirasi. They are professional drumsers.
	Brahman	241,862	H. A. S. /	Priestly caste of Hindus; includes Kashmiri Pundits, Hill Brahmans, and also the Punjabi Brahmans. The first and the last sections generally shun agriculture and are
	ĺ			given to literary pursits, secular as well as religious, but the local Brahmans of Jammu Hills are essentially an
	Brukpa	8,890	M.	agricultural people.  A mixture of Laddakh and Dardi races. Those of Kargil
	TD 11		м.	and Skardu are Molamedans and those of the villages Dah and Hanu in Luddakh tehsil are Bodhs. Akin to Rajputs. Agriculturists.
-	Chamiar	6,586 <b>8</b> 9,099	H. S.	Tanners and leather workers. They also work as ordinary coolies and field labourers. They are same as the Chamars
	Changar	455	M.	of United Provinces  Common to Punjab. A tribe of doubtful origin, probably aboriginal, employed as cart-drivers and carriers by pack
	Chhimba	364	H,S.	animals. Calico-printers. A cast, cognato with Dhobi. In Jammu Province they are employed in washing clothes. It is only in Samba tehsil that some of them still do the calico-print
	Chuhra	8,699	H. A. M, S,	ing. That industry is dying out gradually.  Identical with Bhangi. The sweeping and scavenging class.  The Mazhabis are Sikh and Musallica Musalnian
	Churigar	- 446	M,	Bhangis. Makers of glass and lac bangles: The same as the Manihars
	Darugar	41	M.	of United Provinces.  Pyrotechnist. The same as 'Atashbaz' or 'Barutsaz' of Punjab and United Provinces.
,	Darwesh Darzi	9.175 3,958	M. H. M.	Includes Fakirs—Mohamedan mendicants.  Tailors—Includes the Hindu Suchis.
٠ (	Dhobi	5.991	М.	The washerman of the Punjab and United Provinces.  An important agricultural tribe with Rajput affinities found
	Dhund	15,858	M.	in Dunck and Minestiarabild. In Irvilla to concess with
		, ,		proselytism they claim an Arabian descent and process of Quraishi race.
•	# Mary Manadana			eve. R. Budhist: C. Christian; J. Jain and Z. Zoroastrian,

<sup>\*</sup> M=Musalman; H=Hindu; F=Sikh; A=Arya; B=Budhist; C=Christian; J=Jain and Z=Zoroastrian, † Not the scavenging tribe of that name. They are drummers and pipers. See remarks against Bhirai.

### APPENDIX X-Ethnological Glossary-Contd.

	Name of carte, tribe or race	Population according to present Census	Religion under which returned	REWARKS
•	Domal	6,953	м.	Should not be confounded with either the Dums or the Dums.  It is an important agricultural tribe with Rajput affi-
	Domli	181	H.	A menial class, having no polluting properties. They are professional makers of leaf-platters and other eating utensils
<b>*</b>	Dum Gaddi	52.009 10,563	H. A. M. S. H. M.	so largely used at Hindu weddings and other occasions.  The Hindu Bhangis.  Hindu counterpart of the Gujjar. They have at places settled down to agriculture.
	Gadri	354	н.	A low class people. A caste peculiar to Jammu. They are wandering minstrels.
	Ghrit	131	H.	Also a low class; same as the Chang of Punjab. Here, they are engaged in agriculture and labour.
	Gujjar	329,003	M.	An essentially pastoral tribe. In Ranbirsinghpura Rampur- Rajauri, Punch and on a few spots in Kashmir the Gujjars have adopted agricultural life. They are no other
4	Garkha	1,330	H. M. B.	than the Gujars of Punjab, Hindustan and elsewhere.  A geographical term but denoting a race by itself. They
	Hajjam	31,456	H. M. S.	are confined to the service in the State Army.  The barber; the Nacd of Kashmir, Thakar of Laddakh and Nai or Nau of India. They are composed of various castes which have not been distinguished.
	Hanji	18,275	М	A tribe peculiar to Kashmir. They, like Watals, are probably the remnants of an aboriginal race. In their habits and life they are very much akin to Mallaks of Hindustan, being traditional boatmen and fishermen. They are now largely taking to menial service as cooks and waiters. Occasionally they prostitute their women also.
	Harni Indian Christian	654 709	M. C.	A criminal tribe; the same as found in Punjab. Under this heading are classed all native Christians, as in
1	Jat	Ī	H. A. M. S.	their case the original castes have been ignored.  An agricultural tribe of indifferent social position. The term Jat is indiscriminately used in the plains of Mirpur
1	Jhiwar	13,500	H. M. S.	district for the Musalman cultivator of every class.  Common to Punjab. The same as Kahar of United Provinces. The Mashkis and Machhis represent the Musalman element of this caste, here. They work as cooks, khilmat-
1	Jogi	5,553	н. м.	gars and water-carriers.  Different from Kanphata Jogis that have been returned under Sadhus. These represent the agricultural section of
	Kamangar	491	M.	that community.  The same as the Kamangars of Punjab and United Provinces;
	Kanjar	312	M.	makers of bows and other similar articles of bamboo.  The prostitute class. Includes Pernis a term is identical
	Kashmiri Musalman	765,442	Ж.	with the Berias of Hindustan.  Musalman inhabitants of the Kashmir Valley. The term though geographical is sufficiently indicative of the dis- tinctive race of the Kashmiris, all social and caste differences among whom have been levelled by Islam. Whatever relies of the old state of society may still linger on the spot, everywhere outside Kaslmir the inhabitants of the
	.			Valley are collectively called Kashmiris, and all the Mohamedan inhabitants of Sashmir not falling under any of the specified heads have been promiscuously shown
	Kayasth	6	н.	under this general heading.  The writer class of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.  In this country they are represented by Mahajans, at any
	Khattri	18,517	H. A. S. J.	rate in profession if not in origin.  A well-known caste of India, generally held to belong to the Vaishya class, although they themselves claim, especially those of the Northern-India, a Khattrya descent. Here they are chiefly employed in State service of the civil kind.
ı	Khatik	1,230	м.	Some of them also do money-lending and trade.  The same as found in Punjab and Hindustan; the butcher
Ì	Khoja	5,816	м.	class. They include the Qassabs.  A trading sect of Mohamedans: they are believed to be
	Khusra	1,781	M. H.	Mohamedan converts from the Bania class.  Eunucle; the Hijras of Hindustan.  Probably identical with the Kolis of Punjab and Koris of Eastern-Hindustan. There is an agricultural tribe, too, that goes by the same name although its proper spelling
1	Kumhiar	18,958	н. м. s.	would be 'Kohli;' the latter are supposed to have originally been Khattris.  Iduntical with Kumbar of United Provinces and Ghumar of the
4	Labana	5,321	н. м. в.	Punjab; the potter and brick-maker—the Kraal of Kashmir. An important agricultural tribe supposed to be of gypsy erigin.
Ļ	<u></u>			

# APPENDIX X—Ethnological Glossary—Contd.

: 0		<del></del>		<del></del>
	Name of caste, tribe or ruce	Population according to present Census	Religion under which returned	Remarks
٠ ا		<del></del>		
	Lama	28	<b>B.</b>	Budhist priests of Laddakh. There are two schools of them the red-roked <i>Lamas</i> and the yellow-roked <i>Lamas</i> . They live in the Ghunpas, but, in practice, look after the spiritual as well as temporal needs of their flocks.
۱,	Lohar	28,884	H. M. S.	'The blacksmith; an artisan class. The Kashmiri word for them is Khar. The social position of the class is very low in Laddakh, probably because the tribe practising this pro- fession is aboriginal.
	Machhi Mahajan	196 <b>20,4</b> 62	M. H. A. S.	Musalman Jhiwars. They work mostly as bakers.  They correspond in origin and profession to the Kayasthas, and in view of the fact that no local Kayasthas have been
		`	•	returned, the likelihood is that the class is no other than the writing caste of the Hindustan. The Mahajans found are certainly not identical with either the Khattri or Kal- war Mahajans of Hindustan and should not be confused with them. Themselves they claim to belong to the Vaishya
	Malik	46,162	м.	Verna but the higher castes relegate them to Sudra class.  Different from Malaks shown as subcaste under Kashmiri  Musalman. These Maliks are common to other parts of India.
	Mangrika Megh	98,508 75,409	M. B. H. A. M. S.	A promiscuous class of agriculturists in Laddakh District. One of the untouchable classes, mostly engaged here, in weaving and agriculture. Of all the untouchables, they
	Memar	4 325	М.	possess the smallest degree of polluting property; hence they are more readily being reclaimed by the Aryas.
	Mirasi	7,6v9	<b>M.</b>	The mason class.  The same as found in Punjab and United Provinces. A class which originated for pandering to the merry-making tendencies of the rich, but later on degenerated into other evil practices. As at present constituted, the community forms the singer class, and the members sometime also act
	Mochi	14,694	М.	as genealogists and match-makers.  Musalman Chamiars. In the upper hills of Jammu they correspond in function and social position to the Watals of Kashmir.
	Moghal	49,875	М.	The relics of the Moghal rule in Kashmir and India; they form one of the land-marks in the history of the rule of foreign nations in the country. The total of the community seems to have risen by many a local family of Musalmans who assumed foreign origin having been included under this head, a thing that is done still more largely in the case of some other of the main divisions of
ŀ	Naddaf	104	w	foreign Musalmans—the Sayed and Shaikhs. Cotton-seutchers. Common to all parts of India.
	Parsi Pathan	184 31 52,263	M. Z. M.	The Zoroastrian race of Persian extraction.  Primarily the families which migrated from their native land during the Afghan rule in Kashmir. They include the Pathan coolies of Hazara and other Pashto-speaking
	•		; 	districts verging on Kabul, who continue to come to this State in quest of labour, and a large number of them was at the time of Census working at the Canal Works of the Upper Jhelum within the boundaries of Mirpur District. In the same district has been observed a growing tendency on the part of local Musalmans of Rajput extraction to
j	Patoi	26	M.	assume this tribal appellation.  The same as Patwas of United Provinces. They work in silk-thread, mostly knitting waste-bands so largely used
	Qalandar	. 100	M.	in Jammu and Punjab.  Mohamedan converts of a gypsy race, engaged in making shows with bears and monkeys.
'	Rajput	. 201,742	H. A. M. S.	The real Kshattryas of old. A large number of them having changed their religion during the Mohamedan and Sikh rules, the total includes a large number of Musalmans and Sikhs.
	· 	•		The word 'Mian' was originally an honorine bestowed upon some distinguished families of Hindu Rajputs by the Mohamadan rulers in recognition of their loyalty and good
	1	,		services. Hitherto it was employed to designate the dis- tinctive sept of the ruling race; all the clans consanguin- pus with the royal family used to be called Mian Rajputs, but the title has recently been officially discarded and, in imitation of the practice of Rajputana and Hindustan, has
	Rangrez Ratal	1,331 970	М. Н.	been replaced with 'Thakur'.  Dyers. Common to other parts of India.  A low class, engaged in agriculture and labour; may be only a sub-division of one of the untouchable classes.
<b>y</b>	Rigzang Sadhu	4,898 3,068	м. В. Н.	Aristoracy of Laddakh and Skardu tehsils. A religious wandering sect, generally treated as a class by itself.

APPENDIX X-Ethnological Glossary-Concld.

_					
		of caste, or race	Population according to present Census	Religion under which returned	Remades .
	Sana	•••	97	н. в.	A wandering criminal tribe of gypsy origin,
1	Sapiada	•••	145	М.	Snake-charmer. Same as found in Punjab. This community is also probably of aberiginal and gypsy extraction.
1	Saryara	***	2,626	H.	Another low class similar to Chamiar in social position.
6	iayed	111	102,195	. М,	Chiefly the priestly class of the Mohamedans. It includes a few foreign families who originally migrated from Arabia in batches during the Mohamedan supremacy in the country. Some local Musalmans must also have arrogated that title to themselves.
8	Shaikh	4	105,285	И.	Properly descendants of the old Qabilas or septs of Arabia; latterly the term came to be used to denote the progeny of the companions of the Prophet. This head includes a large proportion of local converts, even though the tendency to assume this title is neither as great nor as common in this State as in some other parts of India.
S	Shi <b>n</b>	* ***	11,090	M.	The aristocratic race of the north inhabiting Gilgit district and the dependencies on the Frontier. They consider themselves of nobler blood than the more numerous class of Yashkuns.
S	Sudhan	4	<b>56,</b> 900	И.	An important Mohamedan tribe in Punch Ilaga, either of Rajput or of Brahman descent. The same as found in the Rawalpindi district of the Punjab.
12	arkhan	•••	27,871	H. M. S.	Common to Punjab; identical with Barhais of Hindustan. The carpenter class.
1	'eli	•. .a••	19,309	Н, Ж,	A common caste of India principally engaged in oil-pressing. Some members work as carriers by pack animals and as bullock-drivers. The Teli is called <i>Teli-wania</i> in Kashmir.
1	'hakkar '	•••	104,613	H. A. M.	The word is only a corruption of Thakur, but the Rajputs do not recognise these hill-men as Rajputs. Their low social position comes from some of the practices abhorrent to the more Brahmanic Rajputs of the plains e.g., widow remarriage, general laxity of morals and lesser observance of caste restrictions as to inter-marriage and inter-dining. They are, moreover, essentially agricultural, a profession which the holy Brahman, as also the proud Rajput, considers low and degrading.
12	Thathiar	•••	63	Н. м.	A functional group, identical with Thathers of the United Provinces. They make and deal in vessels of copper brass, bronze, etc. Those who merely sell are called Asserss in Punjab.
7	<u>Chiar</u>	•••	. <b>2,</b> 755	H.	Another low class of aboriginal descent. The members work as coolies and field labourers. It is probably the same as the <i>Thars</i> tribe of the Kumaun Division of the United Provinces,
12	l'ark	41.	2,407	¥,	Immigrants from Chinese and Russian Turkistan in the north of our Frontier districts.
	Watal	•••	6,467	М.	The scavenging class of Kashmir. The more advanced sections have taken to living by prostituting their women who are usually good-looking. In Kashmir 'Watalani' is becoming a synonym for prostitute.
1	Fashkun	<b>*</b> ***	35,011	ń,	An agricultural tribe of Dardi o igin in Gilgit and Frontier
<b>`</b>	Zargar	<b>9</b> 14	6,379	H. M. S.	The gold and silver smith, the Sonyara of Kashmir and Sonar of the Punjab and United Provinces.
ŀ	Uuclassifi	od Hindu.	6,420	H.	
	10	Arys	140	<b>∆</b> ,	
ļ	*	Sikh	12,494	S.	•
	-	Musalman	119,243	¥,	
_		<del></del>	<u> </u>		

#### CHAPTER XII

#### OCCUPATION

275. All detail as to occupation will be found in Imperial Tables XV and XVI, and the set of eleven subsidiary tables printed at the end of this chapter. Table XV is divided into five Occupation parts, but the division of labour in the State being still in statistics a very imperfect stage, industrial conditions being very much undeveloped and the majority of the people being essentially agricultural, Part C of the Table has not been prepared here, as its utility would not have been commensurate with its cost. The general statistics of occupation are contained in Part A of Table XV; Part B shows the extent to which the agricultural classes augment their meagre resources and income by taking up other work in their spare time; it is subdivided into three parts according to the three main heads under which the entire agricultural population has been divided: (a) rent-receivers, (b) rent-payers and (c) agricultural labourers; Part D deals with religious distribution of occupations and in Part E are exhibited the results of the Industrial Census specially taken this time under the orders of the Government of India. Subsidiary tables contain the proportional figures with reference to the nature of occupation, locality, sex, religion and caste, and nationality has been distinguished in the case of Europeans. Census operations were, on the present occasion, also directed to the taking of a special count of the workers in certain departments of the Public Service: (i) Irrigation, (ii) Railways, (iii) Post Office and (iv) Telegraph. The results of the latter inquiry are contained in Subsidiary Table XI. InSubsidiary Table VII a comparison is made between the figures of the present Census and the last, those of the latter having been adapted to the new scheme of classification used this time; and since that table has been prepared in respect of all the heads under which any figures were returned, no separate statement is being printed with this chapter showing how the old scheme has been fitted into the new.

276. If one class of Census statistics is possessed of greater accuracy than another it is that of occupation. The preparation of Their the occupation record was undoubtedly a work of no small accuracy difficulty, especially for the ill-educated enumerator of this country. In view of the poor quality of the enumerating agency and the somewhat confusing detail that had to be made in regard to principal and subsidiary occupations, as also of the distinction between workers and dependents, the instructions that were given for filling up columns 9, 10 and 11 of the enumeration schedule were as full as they were simple and carefully worded. In addition to the general instructions given on the cover of the enumeration book, a large number of the minuter points were set out in the body of the Local Census Code \* and the Supervisors' Manual \* which were further explained by means of circular letters. The errors of commission as well as of omission that were made in spite of all these precautions will be found fully discussed in the Administrative Volume and need not be recapitulated here. The one of greatest importance was that in some districts—principally Mirpur—'worker' was confounded with 'head of the family'. For part of this mistake the mistranslation of the word as 'karkun' was responsible. It was, however, detected at a very early stage of its commitment and the measures adopted to rectify it were very prompt and effective. With very little of purdak in the country, and the largest portion of its population being comprised of agricultural and pastoral classes on the one hand and, on the other, of the people employed in common labour, menial service and ordinary work of functional groups like barbers, washermen, potters, carpenters, blacksmiths, weavers and the like-all of whom usually employ their women and grown-up children in the daily work of their

<sup>\*</sup> Vide § 5 (9), pp. 32 and 33 of 'The Local Code of Census Rules, Jammu and Kashmir State 1911.'

<sup>† § 5 (9),</sup> pp. 28 to 32, Hidayat-i-Halqadaran.

avocations—the indiscriminate treatment of their women and children as dependents would have been distinctly erroneous. In all such cases, all the ablehodied were shown as workers and it is only those incapable of work either through youth or age, or owing to disease or any other physical disability who were allowed to be shown as dependents. The labour output is, however, very much restricted among the higher classes engaged in trade, service or skilled labour of a higher order. In their case persons actually engaged in the occupation concerned were alone shown as workers and the rest of their family as dependents. All possible care was taken to avoid mistakes of tabulation and compilation arising from perfunctory copying and sorting, misposting of entries in sorters' tickets and compilation registers, and wrong classification. A biglot occupation index was prepared on the lines pointed out by the Census Commissioner of India and placed in the sorters' and compilers' hands well before the final tables of occupation came on for tabulation, and the latter when ready were subjected to searching scrutiny and check at the Head Office. All compilation being, moreover, carried out at Jammu under close and constant supervision of the Superintendent, the possibility of mistakes occurring was reduced to a minimum. Beyond a few changes effected on account of local needs the rules enforced for the sorting and compilation of the occupation table, as also of all others, were framed precisely on the Imperial lines\*; they are contained in local Circular No. 94 and nced not be reproduced here. The usual hierarchy of supervisors and other Inspecting staff was supplied in its fullest strength and every possible precaution taken for prevention, detection and correction of mistakes. With all these measures adopted and carried through it can be said with some degree of confidence that occupation tables of this State do not lack in statistical accuracy any more than those of any other unit in India.

Apart, however, from any intentional or unintentional mistakes in the preparation of the occupation record at any of its stages, the fact that the occupation statistics, as all others, collected through the Census agency, represent only the state of affairs on a particular day, should always be remembered. Occupations which relate to a special time of the year might for this reason loom larger, while the true extent of others be lost sight of. The Census statistics of occupation, therefore, represent at best only a partial truth.

277. The errors and confusion known to have taken place last time because of the elaborate nature and complexity of the Classification system of classification then followed were saved and withofoccupations out doubt minimized to the utmost by the greater simplicity of the new scheme adopted on the present occasion. In order to make a comparison of international statistics of occupation possible Monsieur Bertillon drew up a new scheme of classification which was approved and recommended for general adoption by 'the International Statistical Institute.' The Census Commissioner adjusted the existing Indian scheme to it so as to make it suitable to local conditions.. A classified list of the old heads was circulated according to which the number of groups in which it has so far been customary to exhibit occupational statistics were reduced from 520 to 169. The main features of the new scheme are its logical divisions and its elasticity. The latter makes possible its adaptation to all degrees of industrial development, present and future, which must vary with the varying progress of each country. Under this scheme as finally adopted there are 4 classes, 12 sub-classes, 55 orders and 169 groups in which the figures of all the occupations have been classified. In order to preserve the distinction between trade and industry, it is those persons alone who only sell that have been classed as traders, while all those who make even though they may also sell their manufactures themselves are included in the various groups under Industry. Of the industries peculiar to this State, saffron plantation and

<sup>• §§ 15</sup> to 18, Chapter III, pp. 93 to 36 and §§ 16 and 17, Chapter IV, pp. 51 to 53 Imperial Code of Coneus Procedure, 1911 Part II.

Kuth gathering require to be specially mentioned in regard to their classification. The figures of the one, where returned separately, are included in the totals of group 6 and of the other in those of 8.

To make the principles and method of classification clear it is necessary to bring out a few other points and since the classification of all the occupations has been carried on exactly on the lines determined by the Census Commissioner for India, this can best be done by quoting the following extract from his notes:

"A person is classified in Table XV-A according to his principal occupation; the number of persons in each group who are partly dependent on agriculture is given, but otherwise subsidiary occupations are not dealt with in this part of the table, but in parts B and C. Only those Government servants are shown in sub-class VII who are engaged in the general administration, including the administration of justice. Members of the medical, irrigation, opium, post office and other similar services are classed under the special heads provided for these occupations. What we look to is the actual occupation and not the source from which the salary comes, or the ultimate object which it serves. This leads us to a point of difference between Table XV-E based on the special industrial schedule and the general occupation table. In the former the industry is looked to and not the actual occupation of individual employeescarpenter in a brewery for instance is merged in the general head of brewery employes. In the latter on the other hand only persons. directly concerned with the industry or trade, including clerks and menials, are classed under it, and not those with distinctive occupations of their own. Persons temporarily out of employ are shown under the occupation previously followed by them.'

In this connexion reference has to be made to the fact that in the case of military and civil services, the persons under direct employment of the British Government have alone been shown under groups 139 and 144 and the rest under 140 and 145 as servants of this State. In group 146 are shown the servants of Municipalities and of the internal Jagir Managements. It has also to be noted that the dependents, though separately shown, have usually been classified according to the occupation of the persons A slight mistake of principle which occurred on whom they depend. in Mirpur is worthy of note. Married girls coming to stay temporarily with their parents in case they are mere dependents were shown in that district as depending on the occupation of their father, although in fact they depend on the income of their husbands who, except in the case of functional groups, might be following an occupation far different from that of their father-in-law. The mistake being, however, confined to a very limited area and the cases where such differences may have really existed being very rare in this country, it could not have vitiated the statistics to any appreciable degree.

278. Subsidiary Table I gives a general distribution of the occupation statistics exhibiting the proportions by classes, subclasses and orders. It will be observed that in this State out of General every ten thousand 7,979 persons are engaged directly or indirectly in the production of raw materials, 1,372 distribution in the preparation of material substances, 331 in public administration and

No.	80 to Q an 38	Per 20,000
	Exploitation of the surface of the cart	b 7,979
11	Extraction of minerals,	22.
111	Industries	. 988
ΙĀ	Transport.	
7	Trade	
VI.	Public Force	. 65
JIT.	Public Administration	. 91
TIIV	Profession and liberal arts	. 167
ïχ	Persons living on their income	
X	Domestic service	780
îx	Insufficiently described occupations.	
XII	Unproductive	125

liberal arts and 318 in miscellaneous occupations. These figures only substantiate, what has been pointed out so often, that the population of the State is pre-eminently agricultural and pastoral. Distributed by subclasses, the proportions are as in the margin. Four-fifths of the people earn their livelihood by exploitation of the surface of the earth in one form or another. In trade and industry this ill-connected, hilly and in every other respect difficult and undeveloped country must naturally compare unfavourably

The industrial figures only represent the old and with other parts of India.

<sup>\*</sup> Not prepared here.

primitive local manufactures left surviving, and the trade is of the pettiest and poorest, consisting chiefly of text les (303) and other articles connected with clothing (212) and food (66). In the hills and interior of the country the bartering system is still in vogue. The Laddakhi, for instance, takes the crude salt prepared there, butter, cereals and other local produce to the neighbouring market and fetches in exchange his petty requirements in the way of cloth, spices, sugar, tea, kerosine oil and the like. The next item of importance is public administration. Within it, the public force is comprised of the State Army (34), regulars as well as units of the Imperial Corps, and the Police (31). The policing, in spite of all its improvements narrated in an earlier part of this Report.\* still appears to be defective in outlying parts of the State like the Frontier districts, where police functions, when necessary, are performed by the military people located at tehsil headquarters. All other branches of public administration return a proportion of 91 which, if not excessive, will not compare ill in strength with any other Indian States and Provinces. The figure under liberal arts is, however, somewhat delusive showing as it might do that there is a good deal of progress in Law, medicine, letters, arts and sciences. As a matter of fact, however, the figure is inflated only by the proportion recorded under the head of religion, and with the large array of Pundits, Purohits, Bachbats, Pirs, Mullahs and Lamas it is no wonder that reaches the high proportion of 122. Domestic service is a subject of no general interest locally as the dimensions of the upper and middle classes which create a demand for labour of this kind are very stinted; one class is mostly extraneous and the other, except perhaps in certain parts of Jammu plains, almost nil. The item of transport is also worthy of consideration in this outline of industrial and economic conditions of the State. With the network of rivulets, canals and water-courses existing in Kashmir it is but natural that the Kashmiri Hanji and people of his ilk should find in transport by water (50) a good means of livelihood, and the opening and widening of the Jhelum Valley road has furnished the ekka-wallah and tongadriver with a 'roaring trade'. The proportion of 49 returned for transport by road would have risen much higher had the Census been not taken 'out of the season'.

Among the local peculiarities in regard to occupation, saffron plantation and Kuth extraction are worthy of special mention. Reference has already been made to them in § 15 and 96, Chapter It and their present extent as also future potentiality has been sufficiently made out. All that need be said here is that an improvement in the Kuth-trade by means of conservation of the operating grounds and adoption of measures for preservation of the Kath root, which under the contract system was being dug out to extinction, is, thanks to the prescience and economic acumen of the present Revenue Minister, being secured; a tentative scheme has been launched and a special Kath Preservation Department started which is doing most useful and profitable work. It is regrettable that even though the enumerating agency was asked to distinguish both these occupations for local purposes, the figures collected were neither complete nor reliable, and the number of persons employed on these industries could not be shown under a separate head. The fact that, in default of proper division of labour in the country, there is no class of workers specialized either to Kûth gathering or saffron growing, no doubt hampered the enumerators' efforts at distinction a great deal, but the collection of complete statistics by showing them as subsidiary occupation was by no means impossible and with the growing interest in both! ought to be attempted at the next Census once again. At present the work is being done by ordinary agriculturists in their spare time and their figures are, as pointed out above, included in groups 6 and 8.

§ 94, Chapter II, p. 57.

<sup>†</sup> Pp. 12 and 61 respectively. See the footnotes.

<sup>2</sup> An expansion of saffron cultivation is strongly recommended. With organised efforts tracts other than Pampur Karewas must be found suitable for growing this costly commodity and Kishtwar plateaus also afford very favourable conditions.

279. Subsidiary Table II-locally distributes occupations by sub-classes and a few important orders and groups, and proportions are given there per mille in respect to the entire State and its Local distrithree Provinces. In Subsidiary Table III, district actuals are bution exhibited for the four broad divisions, agriculture, industry, commerce and professions. The outstanding feature of these occupation statistics is the preponderance here of the agricultural and pastoral element. It is greatest in the Frontier districts where the people have no pursuit other than cultivation of the soil. Goat-and-sheep-keeping and cattle-breeding is, except perhaps in the case of the changpa, carried on along with agriculture, and even the artisan class does not exist. Ordinary cultivators number there 916 per mille. The seven rent-receivers in every thousand of the population represent the Jagirdars, secular (Rajas and others) and spiritual (Ghunpa Committees). Beyond the Jagirs there is no Zamindari system either in the Frontier districts or in Kashmir. In Jammu, however, there is a small body of landowning people, and that is why the proportion of rent-receivers is higher there (12) than elsewhere. The production of fruit is largest in Kashmir with its numerous orchards of apples, pears, and almonds. Walnut trees also thrive best in the shady side-valleys of that green land. From some verdant tracts of Baltistan such as Kiris, Shigar, Khapalu, Braldu there is a large export of dried apricots and Kharmang, Tolti, etc., produce some of the very best grapes and melons. Some fine fruit, especially apples, is also produced in Kishtwar and Bhadarwah. Cattle-breeding (13) is naturally largest in willow growing Kashmir. The people there chop off the willow stalks and rick them up on the stumps against the winter and it is upon them that the cattle are fed during that season when every other kind of fodder is scarce because of snowfall. The woods and forests of the Jammu hills (10) also make good breeding grounds, but the dearth of fodder in Laddakh country with its bare rocks; reduces the proportion of the Frontier districts under this head to only 3. Industry is nominal in Laddakh and the only textile industry in that district consists of the spinning of wollen thread and weaving coarse pattu for private use performed by the Laddakhi during his period of hiber nation in winter. The famcus shawl industry of Kashmir has decayed enormously but traces of its slight survival may be seen in the proportion of textiles for the Valley (49). Some very fine pattus, lois and raffle are still manufactured. The outturn of coarser fabrics is large, but with proper guidance the Kashmiri weaver can work to any pattern and imitations of Scotch tweed and other home-spuns are becoming very popular with the Europeans and Indians living there in sojourn. The one great need, however, is a proper training in fast dyeing. As at present made, the Kashmir stuff loses in colour and tone very soon and stands almost no washing. They should also be taught to weave tighter and denser if they want to turn out fabrics of anything like the endurance of the foreign stuff. Silk embroidery is also at its best in Kashmir to which a fillip has been given in modern times by the patronage accorded to it by Europeans. The table cloths, mantle-pieces, centre pieces, tea cosies, tray covers and other similar articles of daily use in English households, made in Srinagar are among the finest. The wood industry is largest in Kashmir (14) with its fine walnut-wood carving and Jammu also reaches the fair proportion of 8 because of the extensive wood felling carried on in Bhadarwah and other forests. Kashmir heads the list again in metal work; the silver ware of Srinagar is well-known abroad and every traveller makes a point of carrying back a memento of his visit in the shape of one article or another of silver. The Kashmiri is a clever imitator and turns out some of the best brass and copper work in the style of Yarkand and Kashgaria. Papier mache and lacquer work have been referred to alreadyt. Paper making has also been a speciality of Kashmir. With the inroads

The Kashmir carver distinguished himself recently in Dehi when at the historic event of His Majesty the King Emperor's Coronation Durbar he made the gate and the frontage of the Kashmir Camp.

† Vide § 96, p. 60.

of cheaper machine made stuffs, it has undoubtedly gone down considerably, but the strong and durable Kashnir paper made out of rice pulp still finds some market among the money-leading public who continue to make their bahis or sahis (account ledgers) of this paper. Some of it is also used in the vernacular correspondence of outlying State offices where the cost of transporting foreign paper makes the local article cheaper. With the large number of Kandrus and bakers' shops to be met with in all towns and bigger villages and also roadside stages, Kashmir returns a considerable percentage (8) under food industries, and the kulchas and shirmals of Pampur are known to every Indian visitor for their elegance. Industries of dress and toilet return so large percentages for Jammu (20) and Kashmir (27) because of the existence in large number of the Sochis and Darzis there. In the towns and bigger villages of Jammu hills a shop of jojis (a kind of cap worn by women in Udhampur, Bhadarwah, Kishtwar, etc.,) is a common sight. Kashmiri caps worn below the turban also require to be specially made, and furnish the local tailors with a profitable industry. It is the industrial superiority of Kashmir over Jammu that gives it a smaller proportion under ordinary cultivators (709 against 776). Transport is heaviest in Kashmir (16) both by road and water and thousands of pack ponies loaded with fresh fruit cross the Banihal and other passes in the Panjal Range every year in the proper season. The Central Asian trade and import of charas makes the Laddakh proportion of 5 and with the opening up of Banihal road for wheeled traffic, the Jammu figure (7) is expected to rise yet higher. Trude in food stuffs gives so large proportions simply because of the village Bania and ordinary parchun-walah (26 in Jammu and 31 in Kashmir); in the Frontier districts (4), however, no grain or other food stuff can be had except from the State granaries maintained for the special benefit of the transfrontier trade with Central Asia. The Public force percentage is raised. in Jammu (8) by the greater strength of the Police and Army in that Province and that of the Frontier is solely composed of the Military detackments located there. The proportion of public administration is slightly larger in Kashmir because of the variety of departments existing there, some of whom never shift to Jammu. The silk-weaving factory, the wine factory and the larger personnel of the Forest and Engineering Department for that division also contribute to this excess. It is to the swarm of the Pirs and Mullahs on the one hand and Bachbat Brahmans on the other that the large proportion of Kashmir under profession and liberal arts (20) is mainly responsible, and Laddakh owes its rather high percentage of 10 entirely to the Lamas of its Budhistic tracts and the Mullahs of Baltistan.

All this will be brought out in greater relief by the district figures quoted

Districts, Jagirs, etc.		PROPORTION, PER 10,000, OF PERSONS SUPPORTED BY									
		Agriculture	Industry	Commerce	Professions	Others					
Jammu Jasota Udhampur Risai Mirpur Bhadarwah Punch Kashmir North	**	623 678 865 865 813 876 935 828 607 920 143 881	149 115 89 94 87 40 19 73 195 9 125	67 105 46 56 36 25 16 40 81 11 12	29 30 11 8 14 8 4 13 29 5 10 8	132 74 40 45 48 51 27 46 88 35 26 83 57					

in the margin. Kashmir South with the great mass of non-agricultural population of Srinagar returns the smallest proportion under agriculture and allied occupations and the highest proportion is furnished, equally intelligibly, is by the agricultural Laddakh. Jammu and Jasrota fall under the former category and

Punch, Muzasfarabad and Frontier Ilaque are some other units of high agricultural percentages. Industry is at its lowest in Laddakh and other districts of the Frontier and is most extensively pursued in Southern Kashmir and in a smaller measure in Jammu and Jasrota. The figures of commerce and professions are correspondingly very small in the Frontier districts, Kashmir North, Muzasfarabad, Punch, Riasi, Udhampur and Bhadarwah, but the most striking feature in these statistics is the excessive proportions both under commerce and professions noted against Jasrota. It would appear indeed very strange that commercial and professional life in that district

should be greater than either in Kashmir South or in Jammu with the main trade centres they have in the two cities of the State. It should, however, be remembered that the total population of Jasrota upon which the calculations are based is relatively much smaller and part of the excess is, moreover, in the case of commerce ascribable to the large number of camel and bullock-drivers, muleteers, etc., engaged in working reed-fields in the Khadar lands of that district also ply their trade in transport of grain, and other articles going on between that part of the State and the neighbouring districts of the Punjab. A brisk trade is also carried on there in ghee, sheep, goats, etc., all largely exported to the Punjab districts. The priestly class of Brahmans, persons from among whom also practise the Egyptian system of medicine as known to ancient India, serves to swell the proportion under professions.

Agriculture supplies the life-blood to the people of this as of every 280. other country. The masses here are essentially cultivating Agriculture people and no less than 752,509 males and 381,837 females and pasture have been returned at the Census as actually working in the fields. The field labourers are also numerous and with the Arains and Baghbans of Jammu and Kashmir it is just right that the total of growers of special products and gardening should reach a fairly large proportion, a result to which the horticulture of Kashmir tends to contribute. The floating gardens\* to be seen in the lakes of Kashmir produce large quantities of vegetables of all torts. This State with its extensive jungles of pines, firs, birch, juniper, etc. affords a very productive field for all branches of forestry and even in the close season at which the Census was taken no less than 1,500 persons were working in the forests in one capacity or another. For a fuller conception of the work that forests give to the people in this country the discussion of the subject in paragraph 101 page 65 may be looked back to. Enough will have by this time been known of the pastoral Gujjars, Gaddis, Bakkarwals, Kaghanis and Changpas, to obviate afurther reference to them in connexion with cattle-breeding and raising of farm stock in general. The occupational figures returned under this head, however, need a bit of explanation. pastoral pursuits very often accompany agriculture and this is why the figures shows, separately under this head (18,551) do not run as high as one would expect them to do. How much pasture is associated with agriculture may be judged from the proportions returned in Subsidiary Table IV against cattlebreeders (50), sheep and goat keepers (63) herdsmen, etc., (84) as also from the proportions of 58 and 46 given in columns 3 and 5 of Subsidiary Table V.

281. For the extent, however, to which agriculture is combined with other pursuits Subsidiary Tables IV and V should be examined in greater detail. Twenty-five per mille of land agents, managers, etc., 22 fruit and vegetable growers, 59 pastoral people, 42 workers in textiles and 113 in wood, 171 metal and 111

		.,				
	NUMBER PER 10,000, FOLLOWING IT FROM AMONG					
Occupation	Landlords	Cultivators	Piejd labourers			
All Subsidiary Occupations	2,022	1,184	729			
Government service	991	110	••			
Money lending and grain dealing	83	59				
Trade of all kinds	151	50	7			
Weaving	••	97	45			
Blacksmiths work and carpentry		68	28			
Coccon-rearing	45	144	48			
All other non-agricultural occupations	401	83#	270			
		'				

dress industries have returned agriculture as their subsidiary occupation. The other important proportions are 68 of trade in foodstuffs, 114 of persons in the public force, 98 under professions and 170 of persons living on their own income. The converse case is of agriculturists taking partially to other occupations; and the important proportion relating to this matter are exhibited in the marginal abstract

from Subsidiary Table V. Government (State) servants are recruited in greater

These are among the peculiarities of Kashmir. A thick layer is formed on the surface of the dull and stagnant lake-water by means of stubble and other accumulations, which is then covered with fertile earth fit to grow vegetables of very rich quality. It is these floating gardens that make theft of immoveable property possible in Kashmir! The wily Kashmiri gardener, at times, cuts away a slice from another's field of this sort, floats it to long distances and attaches it to his own field, altering its outward appearance to an extent that makes subsequent identification most difficult, if not altogether possible

proportion from the more respectable landowning community and it is this class of people which can better afford to deal in money and grain, also trade in other commodities. In the occupations of inferior order like weaving, carpentry and iron work the position is naturally reversed. Taken as a whole it is the more advanced rent-receiving class that knows better the ways and means of augmenting its ordinary income from land. Cocoon-rearing is another peculiarity of this State. Sericulture, as has been mentioned at a very early stage, is one of the departments of the State and is doing much valuable work. Silk industry is fraught with great possibilities and even in its present condition constitutes a sure and certain source of subsidiary income to the agricultural classes of the State. That is why we find the labourers, cultivators and landlords all taking part in cocoon-rearing in proportions which, though varying, are uniformly considerable. The influence of Dharmarth, shanklap and religious endowments of all other kinds is reflected in the high percentage of priests (181) among the rent-receivers. The common cultivator of Kashmir and Jammu also has some other small sources of income, viz., collection and sale of banafsha and several other medicinal herbs, as also of anardana. The latter is the dried fruit of wild pomegranate and is largely used in Jammu and Punjab for acidizing food in the course of cooking. One very important subsidiary occupation has, it is regretted, been altogether ignored by the enumerating agency. Both in Kashmir and on the hills of Jammu apiculture is largely practised by the cultivating classes and the honey produced is of remarkable fineness. This is a profitable source of income and admits of great expansion and attempt may usefully be made to collect its statistics at the next Census. The Jammu branch of the sericulture department is, most approprintely, already turning its attention to this promising line of economic development.

282. The ordinary industrial statistics, like those of any other class of occupation, are contained in Imperial Table XV-A but, in addition to the general Census, a special count was Industry taken, under orders of the Government of India,\* of the factories, mines, mills and other works in which at least 20 persons were found working, and the results of that enumeration will be found exhibited in Table XV-E which also forms part of the Table Volume and consists of four parts. At first a register was prepared of all such factories, mines, mills and other similar works and then the Industrial Schedule in the prescribed form was issued to the owners and managers who were requested to fill in the necessary particulars according to the facts existing on the 10th of March 1911, forenoon. The schedules were all collected by the Head Office directly and the Industrial tables were compiled from them. The statistics so obtained, however, are neither complete nor representative of the true state of factory labour, as the Census was held at a time when most of the works requiring concerted labour were closed, especially those relating to forest industries, and even for those of a more permanent nature the season was one of the slackest. There is, indeed, not much of factory life in this hilly and broken country with all its difficulties of transport and communication, but were an Industrial Census to be taken in a warmer season, it would be found to be far greater than its backwardness in other respects would lead one to expect and the present statistics indicate. Altogether 57 factories, mills, etc., of the standard size have this time been reported to be working on the Census date, in which 12,128 males and 266 females were employed. Most of the wood felling and floating works were at a standstill because of the forests being under snow and the Phulli (crude soda) and salt mines of Laddakh tehsil as also the gold Rahús of that district were quite closed. Of the working concerns a brief detail is ' given in the margin of the next page. Under the first head falls work of extraction of Rasaunt (juice of berberis lycium) which was at the time of

Vide Government of India's Home Department Resolution No. 233-249, dated 28th July 1910, and Census Commissioner's circular letter No. 999, dated 12th August 1910.

Census being carried on in one of the villages of Ramnagar tehsil. Rusaunt

	•	Sumber		PERSO	18 EM(P)	LOTED	
	INDUSTRY	of fac- tories, works,	TOTAL	Super And Cl. Sta	KRICAL	Won	CM (SC)
		etc.	TOTAL	Burope- ans	Indlans	BkDled	Un- akilled
1. 11.	Growing of special products Textile industries	1 16	26 4,920	·	2R9	4,252	26 380
IV.	Wood	9	1,445 126	41	65 11	397 76	979 20
VI.	Furniture Industries Industries connected with building		224 26 588	**	2 15	146 20 175	76 4 376
VIII.	Construction of means of transport Production and transmission of a physical forces	5	4,528 214	5	184 91	487 69*	8,854 199
X.	Industries of luxury	4	287	**	52	109	126

· Includes one European unit.

is a well-known item of the Indian and Ionian pharmacopia and is largely used for medicinal purposes in the plains. The two classes employing the largest quantity of industrial labour are textiles and transport. Among the factories included under the former are a large carpet factory, belonging to a

European (employing 2,203 persons), and the State Silk Factory (2,476)—both situated at Srinagar. The level to which the shawl industry of Kashmir has fallen may be judged from the fact that only 148 persons were found working at it when the Industrial Enumeration was held. The allied industries of Hashiabafi (weaving of shawl fringes), Yarmadozi and Jalakdozi (embroidery) and rafugari (darning) have decreased correspondingly with shawl manufacture, the workers returned under each being 23,134 and 90 respectively. Timber cutting and floating forms the chief item of the wood industry as represented in the Industrial Schedule, and this has been shown to have been very slack at the Census time. 'Iron and wood work' consisted of the workshop of the State Public Works Department and a work connected with the construction of the Upper Jhelum Canal which was being carried on by the Government of Punjab on the State boundaries. The house building factories refer only to a few brick kilns and a Surkhi grinding mill working at Jammu. For the dimensions of the figure under 'construction of means of transport,' the dredging works near Baramulla (425) and the construction works of the Upper Jhelum Canal, again, (3,103) are responsible; and the totals under production and transmission of physical forces are comprised of the electric and hydro-lectrical\* works maintained by the State both at Srinagar and Jammu. Electric plant at the former place can supply power sufficient not only for lighting of the city but of the whole Valley, but that of Jammu is yet only in its infancy. The industries relating to luxury consist chiefly of the printing presses, State and others, and a firm of photography and rubber-stamp at Srinagar.

Considered with reference to sex and age, factory labour stands here as

		-	Won	KERS	
	Industry	Aged 14	and over	Under :	l4 years
		Malo	Female	Male	Female
II. 1V. V. VIL VIII. IX.	Browing of special products Textile Industries Wood Mctai Industries of dress Furniture Industries Industries connected with building Construction of means of transport Production and transmission of physical forces Industries of fuxury		8 16 45 	75 16 32 80 94	
	TOTAL	5,518	930	246	10

quite amusing. 11 factories of which the Directors are Europeans and 18 with Indian

in the margin. These figures relate only to the unskilled labour, and it will appear from them that very few women and children take part in factory industries. The only factory where a considerable number of children of an age below fourteen can be seen working is the State Silk Factory of Srinagar, and the interest and pleasure with which the Kashmiri boy is scen plying his trade of drawing silk tissues from the cocoon is

Distributed by religion, caste and nationality, there are

It would be interesting to note that water-power is utilized here in more ways than one; it is used (1) for working the prayer-wheels of the Budhist monastries in Laddakh, (2) for driving the stone mills (ghrats) used for grinding flour, (3) for production of electrical power and (4) for floating timber. It is remarkable that in this State hydraulic force is being employed side by side by both primitive civilized people.

managers. Of those privately owned 8 belong to the Hindus, 4 to Sikhs and 16 to the Musalmans. The latter figure, however, consists mainly of the petty industries connected with shawl manufacture. The castes represented are Arora, Brahman, Kayasth, Kashmiri Pundit and Khattri.

These statistics, it may be noted in conclusion, clearly show that there is very little of real industrial progress in the country; most of the so-called industrial works are only commercial departments of the State and signify no industrial life among the people themselves. General industry, it has been seen, exists in a larger degree in Kashmir (125 per mille) than Jammu (73) and that is because of the great industrial activity of Srinagar city; in the Frontier (9) it is but nominal.

283. Some idea of the commercial activities of the country will have been formed from the detail of import and export given in § 96 Chapter II at pages 60 and 61. Beyond the general trade in grain, ghee, condiments, spices, salt, sugar, tea.

Commerce in § 96 Chapter II at pages 60 and 61. Beyond the general trade in grain, ghee, condiments, spices, salt, sugar, tea, tobacco, textiles and piece-goods, silk, wool, petroleum, metals, fruit, live-stock, hides, skins, leather and timber

carried on in the two cities and the smaller towns of the State, and the special exports of saffron, Kath, medicinal herbs, and other articles peculiar to the country there is not much of commerce to be seen. In the lower and more accessible rural areas of Jammu the prototype of the village Bania of the plains may be met with, and the village baker's shop is one of the institutions peculiar to Kashmir, but elsewhere it is difficult to find any supplies except from the official Kothwalas who in the absence of spontaneous trading tendency among the people themselves, are deputed by the State to keep provisions for the benefit of the travelling public. Trade is at greatest discount in the remote and difficult tracts constituting our Frontier districts (only one per mille in the Frontier Ilagas, 12 in Laddakh and 13 in Gilgit); there is very little of commercial life also in the rugged districts of Muzaffarabad, Punch and Bhadarwah, but elsewhere in Jammu and in the whole of the compact country of Kashmir a fair amount of trade goes on which becomes brisk or slack with the season, Jammu (67), Jasrota (105) and Kashmir South (81) enjoying the best part of it. The trade of the upper hills of Jammu is concentrating at Udhampur which is gradually rising in importance as a trade centre. Of professions, too, there is very little up in the hills where every man is his own tailor, washerman, carpenter, blacksmith his sweeper, but in the plains of Kashmir and Jammu all the functional groups found in the Punjab and other British Indian Provinces are to be seen in some considerable proportion—29 per mille in Jammu and Kashmir each and 30 in Jasrota; elsewhere the proportion ranges from 4 of Bhadarwah to 14 of Mirpur.

284. Dependents will be found distinguished from workers in Subsidiary Tables I and III; Table VIII deals with workers Workers and alone, while every other subsidiary table treats of combined figures. The total number of dependents according to the present enumeration is 1,671,837 as against 2,002,741 of the last census; a decrease having thus been registered of 331,109, as

	, <b>S</b> : p.,	CLARS	Percentus sub-ci	Percentage of dependents			
			·		Workers	Depend- ents	to actual Workers
111. 112. 18. V. V. V.L	Exploitation of the Extraction of main Industry Transport Trade	eerals  it on  retail art their ip	** ** ** ** ** ** **	F	47 30 47 51 40 52 40 38 38	53 70 53 49 50 48 60 62 62	111 230 107 100 144 99 106 156
xî. xii.	Insufficently desc Unproduction		cupations	•••	53 46 51	47/ 64 49	67 112 101

result due partially to the increased occupational activity among the people and in a larger measure to a better enumeration and more accurate differentiation made on the present occasion between the persons who actually work and those who merely depend. In order to find out the real decrease among

the dependents and the corresponding increase in workers the net increase in

total population (252,548) should also be taken into account, and with it the dependents' figure has fallen nearly 30 per cent. In the margin of the last page is set out the detail of workers and dependents in respect to each sub-class of the occupation. The proportion of dependents among the agricultural people is not shown to be as low as it should be and really is. Men, women and children are all seen working in the fields and it is the old and the decrepit of either sex who alone abstain from work in this walk of life. Some of the apparent excess is, no doubt, ascribable to the inclusion under the head of landowning gentry but the recorded proportion also bears, in some small degree, the impress of the mistake, mentioned above, made in filling column 11 of the enumeration schedule. The high percentage under mining is only fortuitous as mining operations, even though there is ample field for them. are very restricted.\* The total number returned under mining is only 33, of whom 23 were shown as dependents and only 10 as workers, giving the excessive proportion of 230! The high percentage of dependents among the trading classes is quite intelligible as their women and children seldom take any active part in their daily business. The proportion of the dependents under the head of public administration is rather low because the majority of the persons employed here in the public services are men from the Punjab who seldom bring their entire families up here. The principal entry under professions and liberal arts being the pirs and pundits who have usually a large family of adolescent members to support, the dimensions of the proportion of dependents under that head are easily understood. The persons living on their own income can also well afford to keep a large number of dependents and retainers. The smallest number of dependents is found among the domestic servants and the members of the public force. The women and children never sit idle in the

•		PERCENTAGE ON POPULATION OF									
		Agriculture		Industry		Commerce		Profession			
'I STATE AND PROVINCES		Workers	Dependents	Workers	Dependenta	Workera	Dependents	Workers	Dependents		
State	••	47	53	47	58	48	57	88	62		
Jammu	••	43	87	46	54	42	58	41	- 60		
Kashmir	••	61	49	48	62	43	57	31	69		
Frontier	••	55	45	69	31	65	55	74	26		

one case and the soldier seldom goes in for the luxury of a wedded life. An idea of the local distribution of workers and dependents may be formed from the marginal statement abstracted from Subsidiary Table III. The largest proportion of workers is returned under each head by the higher hills of the Frontier districts which are peopled by strong and stalwart races; Kashmir forms the

happy mean in this as in every other respect and the people of Jammu are the least active of all. The single exception, in the case of Jammu, is the proportion recorded under profession, which is due to the presence there of the functional groups in largest numbers.

Occupation in State that form the principal centres of all trade and industry and it is here, again, that occupational life of every other description, except that of agriculture and pasture, finds the greatest expression. In regard to cities the subject of occupation, like most others, has been anticipated in the first chapter of the Report, and a brief account of it will be found given in § 71. Detailed figures are contained in Subsidiary Table I and III of the present chapter from which the marginal tables of this paragraph have been abstracted. Dependents, it will be observed from these figures, are uniformly more numerous in cities than villages except in the case of transport, public force and

<sup>\*</sup>The sapphire mines of the State are closed and guarded, and an organised excavation of gold, copper or iron never seems to have been attempted. Laddakh is believed to furnish good ground for mining in these lines but the distance and difficulty of the country seem to have so far precluded all quest after these valuable commodities. Of coal mines there are several and the working of some was once in contemplation. The only mining done is the working of a few quarries in Kashmir for purposes of read-building and some gold is extracted from the Kargil Bahûs. Some gold is washed from the sand of certain nullahs in and around Gilgit.

self-supported persons; the explanation for the first time is that the large

•	1	Percen	tage of		
SUB-CLASS	Workers	employed in	Dependents to norters in		
	Oltion	Rurej grea	Oitles	Rural ares	
L Exploitation of the surface of the sarth II. Extraction of minerals III. Industry IV. Transport V. Trade VI. Public force VII. Public force VII. Profession and liberal arts IX. Persons living on their moone	28 10 16 91 35 19	100 100 77 74 84 69 65 81 62	121 122 90 167 82 228 204 156 150	711 230 107 100 144 99 106 156 169 67	
X. Domestic service XI. Insufficiently described occupations XII. Unproductive	34 19 8	76 81 92	158	, 113 101	

body of markabans (ponymen) muleteers, bullock-drivers and other people engaged in transport work are rural people who, coming to the towns and cities as they do only on business, come unaccompanied and it is only the ablebodied who so come; the deficit among the army and police people seems to be due to the greater amount of work and discipline that it is

possible to maintain among them in cities, leaving them little spare time to attend to their families whom they therefore seldom keep with them; lastly, persons living on their own income avoid the costly life in the cities and seem to prefer living in smaller towns or even villages. Of mining and exploitation of the earth there is so little in the cities that it has not been found possible to express it arithmetically here, but the percentages under other heads also are not as large for the cities as one would expect them to be. Part of this is due to the fact that all the towns are for purposes of these statistics included in the rural totals and they equally contain a considerable amount of industrial, commercial and professional life. It has also to be remarked that the proportions given here ought not to be compared with the detail exhibited in the margin of page 35 as the two sets of figures are differently worked out; it is the workers alone that are dealt with here, while that marginal table treats of the persons supported by each

		PROPO per m	RTION He in	PERCENTAGE OP					
OCCUPATION		Oition	State	Work	era (A	Dependents in			
		Ozpon	DOEND	Citios	State	Cities	State		
Agriculture		52	765	45	47	62	53		
Industry	••	432	89	45	47	55	52		
Commerce		184	48	47	48	58	67		
Others		258	61	40	50	60	50		

occupation. The industrial and commercial life in urban and rural areas will be compared with greater vividness by the marginal figures displayed in juxtaposition in respect of either unit. These statistics only corroborate what has been stated in this paragraph and previously as to the smallness of agricultural occupation and the relatively larger prevalence of every other kind of

occupation in cities as compared with urban area, as also in record to the preponderance of the city proportion of dependents over that of the villages.

The question of sex with reference to occupation as already been touched upon in this chapter as elsewhere in the Report; for detailed statistics Subsidiary Table VI should be con-Occupation and sex sulted. The object in view is the ascertainment of the extent to which women asist their male relatives in the work the latter undertake to and lihood for the family. Where, ever the work active سے ــ ــ help in this direction inned to domestic affairs. In this States a. \_\_\_\_ 3 are female, 1,024,661 males a proportion very " tural people observing no purdah. To make the position clearer it is necessary to quote a few figures. The propertion of female workers is largest among the cultivating (507 per mike), labouring (459) and pastoral (263) classes. The large percentages of industry arise from the women of the functional classes usually sharing the work of the male members of the family; the large amount of spinning, sizing, weaving performed by the women generally and the plying of boats practised extensively by the Hanji women in Kashmir swell the proprotions under textiles (1119) and transport by water (1,017). As regards trade, milk

No.	Occupation	,	7		Females per mille
	Exploitation of the surface of t	the	carth		499
ΙĪ	***	•	•	••	111
111	1 - 1			••	442
		••			217
Ť	Trade	•		·	181
VI	Public force	4.		••	2
VII	Public administration		ŧ		33
VIII	Profession and tiberal arts		- 1		82
1X	Persons living on their income	••	i		226
Ī	Dome-tio service		ı		203
XI	Insufficiently described occupat	tiot	226		252
XII	Unproductive	••	i	••	861

under textiles (1119) and transport by water (1,017). As regards trade, milk (550), grass (343), tailoring products (612), cowdung and wood fuel (420) and bangles, toys, fans, etc. (330) are largely sold (by women; and they are also strongly represented in midwifery (851) and domestic service (209) in matters of profession. The proportion returned under unproductive occupations (375) is chiefly due to the large number of the prosti-

tutes included in that head,

287. Part D of the Imperial Table deals with absolute figures of occupation arranged by religion and Subsidiary Table IX

Occupation contains proportions for the four main religions of the by religion State. The subsidiary table treats of the occupation versus religion statistics in a double aspect; it displays occupation figures by religion and, vice versa, religion figures by occupation. In every 1,000 persons following the various occupa-

	NAME OF OCCUPATION	·	DISTRIBUTION BY RELIGION OF 10,000 PERSONS FOLLOWING RACH OCCUPATION							
Serie	NAME OF OCCUPATION .	Hind	u Milsalman	Budhist	Silgh	Others	salman hist an			
XII XII XII XII XII XII XII XII XII XII	Exploitation of the surface of the eart Extraction of minerals Industry Transport Trade Public forces Public administration Profession and liberal arts Persons living on their income Domestic service Insufficiently described occupation Unproductive	h 1,906 6,970 2,250 1,300 4,007 6,327 . 6,367 . 6,44 4,722 4,403	7,424 7,691 8,533 7,6718 2,473 7,473 7,473 7,475 3,475 3,022 5,022 5,363	120 606 9 50 40 66 68 268 4 101 117 16†	99 	12 28 28 24 29 21 185	the res to othe The pro difference classes ed in the			

tions here 2,186 are Hindus, 7,594 Musalman, 116 Budhist and 100 Sikh, the rest belong to other religions. The proportions for different subclasses are exhibited in the marginal statement. Among

the agriculturists and pastorals the majority are of course Mohamedans and so are the common industrial classes—'the tinkers and tailors,' so to speak. Transport also claims a large proportion of Musalmans, because the Hanjis are all Mohamedans. Trade proportions are the largest for Hindus and Musalmans, the former being the Jammu people and the latter those of Kashmir. In public force, public administration, profession and liberal arts the Hindus preponderate. Domestic servants come chiefly from among the Brahmans, Jhiwars, etc., in the case of Hindus, and the fact that Hanjis and other Kashmiri Musalmans largely act as personal servants accounts for the excessive Musalman proportion under this head. A very large proportion of common coolies are also Musalman but the Musalman proportion is nowhere so high as under 'beggars, vagrants, procurers, prostitutes, etc.' In the case of Hindus the highest proportion is that of persons living on their income, that under mining being merely accidental. The Bodh and Rikh averages are small in proportion to their total population; the one community is represented least in industry and independent living and the other justers strongest in trade and public service (chiefly civil).

The distribution, conversely, of religion by occupation, as made in the marginal statement at the next page, will show what proportion of each religious community is engaged here in the various walks of life. The Hindu proportion under the first head is mainly comprised of the hill and kandi cultivators of the Dugar Ilaqa; industry, trade and service, are occupations which claim the next best portioes of the Hindu population. The proportion of Musalmans is brought to a fairly high level under industry by the workmen of Kashmir, and it is smallest under persons living on their income because of there being so few 'proprietors (other than of agricultural lands), funds and scholarship-holders and pensioners.' The agricultural proportion is not so high in any community as that of the Budhists; and those of industry and trade under 'others' are so enormous because of the presence under that head of the Parsis and the Jains.

The large proportion of 'others' shown under independent income is due to some European pen-

	D	Distribution BT OCCUPATION OF 10,000 PERSONS OF EACH RELIGION											
ilation.	1. п пі		mi	IA	₹	AI	AII	νш	IX	I	II	XII	
Hiada	6,966	<del> </del>	914	43	692	186	265	396	24	258	147	84	
Noteimen	8,259		899	190	254	30	30	98	- 8	79	¥2	137	
Budhist	8,964	1	69	44.	131	.38	7	- 886 ·		104	74	178	
Bikb	7,844	••	<b>341</b>	97	784	75	279	122	10	177	79	92	
Others	1,760	••	2,458	687	3,450	886	614	836	\$\$8	170	148	89	

sioners\* sojourning at the census time in Kashmir; and the fact that Europeans are mostly engaged here in service accounts for the excessive proportions of

sub-classes VII and

These are serial numbers of sub-classes of occupation.

VIII. The agricultural proportion of the Sikhs is due to the Sikh colonies of Kashmir and Punch and a few settlements in Jammu; the rest of them are busy with industry, trade and service. Those of Mirpur and the neighbourhood carry on money-lending on a large scale and constitute a powerful incentive to the cultivator's indebtedness and impecuniosity.

288. Caste figures with reference to occupations are contained by Subsidiary Table VIII, which is founded upon Imperial By caste Table XVI. The more important occupations followed by the selected castes have been distinguished and the rest shown together as 'others'. The extent to which the various castes and functional groups follow their traditional occupations is shown by the proportions, per mille, noted against the caste names. The percentages of female workers have uniformly been given in order to show how far the women of each community assist in the usual avocations of its male members. agricultural country, it will be observed, even the functional classes like the Chamiars (563), Jhiwars (113) Hajjams (358), Tarkhans (436), Lohars (602), Sochis among the Hindus (453) and Julahas (604), Darzis (510), Chuhras (623), Mochis (451), Kumhidrs (529), Ahangars (683) and Telis (415) among the Musalmans, largely cultivate the land. The proportions of cultivating Khattris (163), Kashmiri Pundits (288), Soniars (100) are indeed surprising. The Jhiwar does a lot of domestic service (40) and it is the cook class that raises the proportion of the Kashmiri Pundits (89) under that head.

No.	Name of Department	TOTA	7						
Serial			Hindu	Muse		Para	E E	TOTA	
1 2 3 4 6 4 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	Military and Transport Departments under Chief Minister † Settlement Department Accounts Forest Clustoms and Recise All other departments under Bevenue Mini P. W. Department Blucation Modical Police Tylegraph Other departments under Home Minister § Judicial Department	••	133 22 5 3 20 11 13 9 1	1 7 1 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	94194 : 11 4 : : 8 :	():::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	1 9 1 1 2 1 1 1	163 98 8 15 3 89 10 19 15 4 14	
	Total	<i>-</i> -	258	68	41	8	19	879	l

be apparent from the table on the margin which has been prepared from the State civil list.

That 22 per mille of the Mirasis were found working as field labourers, 23 as artisans, 17 as domestic servants and 15 as common labourers indicates that the traditional minstrel of India has fallen upon evil days and finding his original vocation not quite so paying now is taking to more mundane

The latter community (300) as also the Khattris (158) are, however, chiefly engaged in the State service. Thirty-one per mille of the barbers are employed in the military and civil services of the State; 64 of the Sochis, 27 of Dums, Chuhras, etc., 15 of Mochis, 19 of Mirasis are some other interesting figures under that head. No detail could be obtained of State Gazetted officers but the extent to which each religious community is represented in the higher services will

Hindu figures include some Bikhs and all Jain community.
Includes Porciga, Toshakhana, Reception, Dharamarth, Baghikhana, Malmaveshi, Stable, Geme Preservation and Rakh departments.
Includes Stamps, Stationery, Pristing, Horticulture, Wine Manufactory, Revenue and Civil Veterinary, Agriculture and Muberry Culture departments. Kuth Preservation department being still in its infancy and Census department being temporary have both been kept out of account.
Includes Meteorological Museum, Archwological, Municipal, Jail, Bioctrical, Dredging and Home departments.

Altogether 35 Christians pensioners were returned out of which 19 were, at the time of the Census, living in Srinagar, and the rest elsewhere.

pursuits. The proportion of beggars, etc., among the high-bred Chibh (6) in the south and Shin (17) in the north will show the adversity into which these proud races have fallen or are drifting.

Among the Christians, the majority are engaged in public administration (255), arts and professions (150) or act as artisans, etc., (160); the Christian cultivators represent the Laddakhi convert or the Chuhras and Dums of Jammu and Jasrota; the figure returned under domestic service (115) relates chiefly to the Goanese waiters and cooks employed in several European households and elsewhere. This brings us on to Subsidiary Table X which distributes the Europeans and the Anglo-Indians occupation-

		1	1.	EUBOP MARS		ANGLO-INDIAN		ally. The marginal abstra				
No.	OCCUPATION			Malos	Females		Females					
X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X	Trade Public force , admanistration Arts and profession	1	***	6 16 8 91 40 19 10	3 6 21 11	** ** ** **		against 103 dependents. The five persons under 'exploitation of the surface of the earth' are the forest officers of various grades, 49 have been				

returned as commissioned and gazetted officers in the military and civil services of the State and of the Government of India and 10 males and 11 females were living on their own income as pensioners and otherwise.

289. Comparison is made of the present figures of occupation with those of the last Census in subsidiary Table VII. Some Comparison variations, being due to a difference in treatment of certain heads for purposes of classification made on either occasion, are not at all real, while others are genuine and represent actual rise and fall in the industrial, commercial and general economic conditions of this country.

No.	OCCUPATION		VARIATION
XI XII XII XII XII XII XII XII XII XII	Exploitation of the surface of the earth Extraction of minerals Industry Transport Trade Public force , administration Profession and liberal arts Dementie survice Insufficiently described openpations Unproductive	***	+18·232·20.7 +29·41·0 -+4·69·619·878·8 +-5·259·736·8
ıχ	Domestic service Insufficiently described opcupations	••	+b 53

and its people. The more important ones may be displayed in the margin. The increase under agricultural occupations is due to a larger number of persons taking to cultivation (+40) because, with the advent of the regular Settlement of Revenue, the rights and priviliges of the tenants and landholders have been assured and a

better sense of security of interests and fixity of tenure now prevails. The landowning classes (-93) have on the other hand are dwindling away because of the conflict of the old with the new. Their properties seem to have largely passed out of their hands under the burden of debts that their reckless manner of living entailed; Such of them, however, as remain appear to be taken more care of as a much larger number of agents, managers, and other rent-collecting staff (+1,038) are now employed. Horticultural improvement (+50) also contributes to the increased percentage of agricultural occupations. The other items under agriculture as also pasture and other heads under exploitation of the surface of the earth are forest establishment (+40), cattle breeding (+83), sericulture (+82), tishing (+160) and hunting (+492). The last two items, however, are dueto a better enumeration of the promiscuous Hanji class and of the elusive wandering tribes. With the greater efficiency in the control and supervision of forests a genuine decrease has taken place among the wood-cutters, fire-wood, lac, rubber etc., collectors and charcoal burners (-67), but the large decreases under sheep, goat and pig breeders (+80) and breeders of horses, mules, camels, asses, etc., are a result only of a difference in classification. Industrial life would appear to have somewhat declined (-7) but to read the statistics aright we must go into detail. The textiles have uniformly diminish except rope, twine and string (+373), wool carding spinning, weaving etc., (+5) and silk spinning and weaving (+129). Leather works (-86) have also declined all round and for good cause, too. The bad leather

produced in Kashmir cannot compete with that made in India and elsewhere and there is a larger increase, in consequence, of raw material under this head. With the rising demand for furniture following in the wake of new methods of living record industry in general (+89) and carpentry, joinery etc., in particular have increased, and the great rise under basket making, leaf-platter making, etc., (338) owes itself to a better enumeration and classification of the Shakhsazes of Kashmir and Dosalis of Jammu on the one hand and to the fact, on the other, that with the improved communications the export of fruits has gone up considerably and there is a much greater demand now for the wicker-work baskets in which they are carried. Foreign made articles of metal are finer and have, with the greater facility of transport, become cheaper and it is but natural that with greater import of them the local industry under this head should decrease (-37). The absence of all figures from under the head plough and agricultural implement makers is, however due to the fact that these people being no other than the ordinary village blacksmiths have all been shown under group 41 (workers in iron and makers of implements and tools principally or exclusively of iron). This has led to an apparent decrease under the one head (-100) and increase (+60) under the other. Ceramics like most other local industries have decayed (-6). The increase in chemical products though slight +2) in general is noteworthy under some of its sub-heads; that under manufacture of matches and explosive materials being 48, and soap, candles, perfumes etc., 147. There is indeed a much greater demand now of aerated and mineral waters\* (+180) and the increase under manufacture of dyes, paints, etc., (+209) is ascribable to larger preparation of Indian ink used in vernacular correspondence of the State offices. The paper industry has been spoken of above as having considerably declined, and the increase registered under that head (+88) is due solely to a larger manufacture of the imitation papier mache work to which an impetus has undoubtedly been given by the greater influx of visitors—Indian as well as European—who patronize the industry as one of Kashmirs pecularities and always carry some specimens of it along with them: The small decrease in food industries (-2) has resulted from a disappearance of fish curing, tobacco, opium, etc., manufacturing. The wine manufacture of Kashmir has also diminished. The head butter, cheese and ghee making is blank because all units of this class have been wrongly shown under group 118 where an increase of 68 per cent has resulted. This error has taken place in some other items where the making and selling of the article have been confounded. Fairly large increases have, however, accrued among bakers, biscuit makers (+19, butchers (+388), makers of sugar, molasses and jaggery (+36) and makers of sweetmeat, jam, condiments, etc., (+10). Industry and trade have largely been confused also in the case of articles of dress, toilet, wood, stone, etc. Industries connected with housebuilding have risen with the advancement of the people and a growing sense of comfort and sanitation in daily life. Indigenous saddlery (-56) is being rightly displaced by the neater articles of foreign make and it is the great expansion during the decade of electric works which yields the excessive percentage of 10,300 under gas, electric light, etc. The noticeable features of the statistics of arts, sciences and luxury industries (+39) are the great development in match-making, photography (+242), jewellery making (+42) and making and mending of musical instruments (+12). The abnormal increase of 1,489 under 'makers of bangles, rosaries, necklaces, spangles, etc., however, cannot but be a consequence of misclassification made this time or the last. The increase in the statistics of transport (+29) is quite in keeping with the improvement, that has decidedly taken place in the means of communication; transport by water having risen by 29 per cent and by road 43. Railway figures have fallen as,

<sup>•</sup> The mineral water industry has a great scope here, and all that is required to expand it is enterprise which the local people lack so much, but which might well be imported from outside, at least so long as the indigenous people are not educated in the art of filtering, tefining and bottling the mineral waters existing in various parts of the country.

although the strength of the staff (+56) has increased, all the construction work having finished since last Census the number of labourers employed on railway construction (-94) is only nominal now. Telegraphic and Postal communications +37) have also improved to a large extent. A rumour got abroad in the course of the enumeration that when the number of moneylenders will have been ascertained by means of the Census all the banking business will be assessed to income-tax. This led to a large number of the money-lending persons of Mirpur and Jasrota districts having got themselves shown under occupations other than banking. This is fully reflected in the ten per cent decrease in the number of money-lenders. Among the increases under trade may be mentioned those of the textiles (58), skins (218) milk, ghee, etc., (68), sheep and goats, etc., (162). The parchunwalds as also all other Banias having this time been included in grain and pulse dealers' it is small wonder that the figures under that head should have increased by more than eleven times of the previous total. The increase under public force '5) is readily explained by the improvements in the strength of the police (892) and that of public administration by the all round strengthening of the civil services British Government, +79 and State services, +14). The totals of religious mendicants, inmates of monastries, etc., (955) have gone up so high largely because the Lamas of Laddakh have all been thrown under this head on the present occasion. There is a great increase among petition-writers (123) and it may be worthy of the attention of the judicial authorities to see that this not very desirable class is not unduly gaining in strength by an indiscriminate accord of permission to act as such. The increase of 12 under medical professions arises from the efforts of the State to supply medical relief for its people and that of instruction (+29) from an expansion of educational arrangements. With the development of Public Works Departments of the State the number of 'engineers, surveyors, etc.,' has grown seven times larger and for the smaller totals under 'insufficiently described occupations' it is the greater efficiency of enumeration and classification secured this time that is mainly responsible. The increase among inmates of jails indicates a better detection of crime and the general improvement in the economic, material and moral condition of the people is reflected by the large decrease (-36) registered under 'beggars, vagrants, procurers, prostitutes, etc.'

Departmental Special industrial statistics on the other, totals were this time also worked out of the employes of Railway, Irrigation, Postal and Telegraph departments. The object of this, as enunciated in the Census Commissioner's circular letter No. 1409, dated 21st October 1910, is: "In order to obtain full information regarding the extent to which modern industrial developments have influenced the functional distribution of the people, it is necessary to know the number of persons employed in the above undertakings as well as in cotton and jute mills, coal mines, tea gardens, etc." The statistics collected by means of the special departmental returns are exhibited in Subsidiary Table XI and may be

, ,		Kurop Anglo	Indiana	. In	dlans
Department .	Total	Officers	Subordi- nates	Officers	Subordinates
Raiwry Irrigation eg Fostal Telegraph	191 4,517 997 596	3 3 3 1	:: 1	.:: - :: <sub>17</sub> ,	190 4,514 996 278

· Employed on signalling work.

summarized as in the margin. These figures scarcely call for any comment. It may, however, be noted that the irrigation totals include 153 contractors, 94 permanent employes of theirs and 3,576 coolies. The latter were mostly the Afghan coolies working

on Jhelum Canal construction work, referred to so often. Railway contractors numbered only 6 and coolies 21. This count was also taken on the 10th of March, 1911.

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE I-General distribution by occupation

			in each	ntajs , class, las and r of	of a	niage ctual kers oyed	of depe	ntage ndants ctual kers
CLASS, BUB-CLASS AND ORDER	Persons support- ed	Actual	Actual workers	Depend.	cities	n rumi areas	cities	In rural areas
		<del></del>	<u> </u>		- I	7	- R	II 9
1	2	3	4	5	- 8		<u> </u>	
ENTIRE STATE	10,000 7,979	4,706	47	53 53	. 2	95 100	136 121	111 110
A.—Production of raw materials 1—Exploitation of the surface of the earth	7,979	3,782	47	58.	***	100	121	111
1. Pasture and agriculture	7,966	8,776	47	68 83	•••	100 100	121 106	111 112
(a) Ordinary cultivation (b) Growers of special products of market gardening	1,001	8,704 7	50	50	"io	90	179	91
(c) Forest y	10 102	5 59	49 57	51 43	14	86 100	279 1,060	79 73
(d) Raising of farm stock	8	I	55	45	3	97	108	82
2. Fishing and hunting	13	6	43	57 70	8	92	11	133 230
II.—Extraction of minerals	•••	***	80 30	70	• • • •	100	:::	230
	1,372	627	48	54	22	78	127	127
substances )	888	421	47	58	28	77	122	107
III.—Industries	803	177	58	42	24	76	100	63
7. Hides, skins and hard materials from the	. 2	1	42	58	5	* 95	142	138
animal kingdom  8 Wood	98	40	40	60	15	85	159	145
9. Metals	<b>4</b> 2	15	87	63	24	76	158 113	175
10. Ceramics 11. Chemical products, properly so called and )	45 41	21 15	45	55 63	7	98	141	171
analogous	- 1	15	87		12	88	129	1
12. Food industries	66 212	31 89	47 42	53 58	27 24	78 76	125	108
15. Building industries	25	10	39	61	54	46	171	189
16. Construction of means of transport	1	***	50	50	84	16	77	225
(heat, light, electricity, motive power, etc. )	1	•••	28	72	76	24	325	50
18. Industries of luxury and those pertaining to	89	15	40	60	80	70	162	2 147
literature and the arts and sciences  19. Industries concerned with refuse matter	13	7	50,	50	26	74	30	94
IV.—Transport	106	54	51	49	26	74	90	100
20. Transport by water	50 49	80 21	59 43	41 57	36 12	64 88	69	131
22. Transport by rail	1	1	50	50	2	98	180	94
23. Post office, telegraph and telephone services	6 878	2 152	45	55 60	20 16	80 84	268 167	144
24. Banks, establishments of credit, exchange and	32	10	32	68	9	91	199	216
insurance 3	19	7	85	65	.41	59	216	161
27. Trade in skins, leather and furs	. 4	2	36	64	11	89	255	164
28. `Trade in wood	8	1	48 45	52 55	26	74 66	118 147	102
32. Hotels, cafes, restaurants, etc	260	110	42	58	34 15	85	137	110 136
84. Trade in clothing and toilet articles	4	1	23	77	31	69	135	422
85. Trade in furniture 86. Trade in building materials	1	***	42 56	58 44	6 24	94 76	925	88
37. Trade in means of transport	2	1	44	56	2	98	86	127
38. Trade in fuel 39. Trade in articles of luxury and those pertain.	12		53	47	15	85	132	79
ing to letters and the arts and sciences	10		31	69	53	*47	270	169
40, Trade in refuse matter 41. Trade of other sorts	1 29	10	31 35	69 65	95 10	5 90	238 36	33   167
C.—Public administration and liberal arts	331	136	41	59	27	73	180	131
VI.—Public force 42. Army	65 34		52 65	48 35	31 32	69 68	82 88	99
44. Police	31	11	87	63	28	72	181	60 169
VII.—Public administration	91 91	86 36	40 40	60 60	35	65	238	106
VIII.—Profession and liberal arts	167	63	38	62	35 19	· 65	288 204	106 156
46. Religion	122	45	37	68	13	87	209	166
48. Medicine	5 9	1 8	26 40	74 60	37 24	63 76	416 213	199 169
49. Instruction	9	4	39	61	36	64	206	128
IX.—Persons living on their income	22 8	10 8	43 38	57 62	85 88	65 62	163 156	106 169
51. Persons living principally on their income	8	3	38	62	38	62 .	156	169
X - Lomestic service	318 120		51 58	49 47	16 24	84 76	132	91
52. Domestic service	120	64	58	47	24	76	150 150	. 67 67
XI.—Insufficiently described compations 53. General terms which do not indicate a definite?	, 73		46	54	19	81	153	112
Occupation	73		46	54	19	81	158	112
XII.—Unproductive 54 Inmates of jails, asylums and hospitals	125 2		51 97	49	8	92	49	101
55. Beggars, vagrants, prostitutes	_123		50	8 50	7 <u>4</u>	28 94	71	11 102

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II

Distribution by occupation in Natural Division

		ural Di		OF #4=:-	202-
• •		MONBER	per mille TION SUPI	OF TOTAL ORTED IN	POPULA-
OCCUPATION •		Entire State	Jammu Province (Natural Division I and II)	Jhelum Valley (Natural Division III)	Indus Valley (Natural Division - IV)
1		2	3	. 4	5
entire state	. ,	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
I.—Exploitation of the surface of the earth		798	812	751	938
1. (a) Agriculture	.,	785	802	734	932
(1) Income from rent of agricultural land (2) Ordinary cultivators		10 760	12 776	9 709	7 916
(3) Agents, manager of landed estates (not	planters)	1.	· 1	***	
clerks, rent collectors, etc.  (4) Farm servants and field labourers	. <u>.</u>	13	13	13	9
(6) Fruit, flower, vegetable, betel, vine s	recs-nut,	1		8	
(b) Pasture		10	10	13	3
(9) Cattle and buffalo breeders and keepers	***	8	7	10	3
(10) Sheep, goat and pig breeders (12) Herdsmen, shepherds, goatherds, etc			<sub>3</sub>	<sub>8</sub>	***
(13) Birds, bees, silkworms, etc				<b>5</b> ,	p+1
2. Fishing and Hunting		1	٠,,	3	1
(Others) Group 7, 8		. 1	1	1	,
II.—Extraction of minerals			4++	· •••	
III.—Industry	•	89	73	125	9
6. Textile industries		30	20	49	5
8. Wood industries,	• •••	,10	.8	14	,,,
9. Motal industries	• /	7	7	8	1
13. Industries of dress and toilet	• ••• • •••	21	20	27	""1
Other industries	• •••	17	14	23	2
IV.—Transport	<b>,,</b>	11	7	16	, 5
V.—Trade	**	- 38	41	41	ئ
26. Trade in textiles		2		3	1
32. Hotels, cafes restaurants, etc.	•		*	,	
33. Trade in food stuffs	• ••	26	26	31	4
Other trades ,,	• •••	10	14	7	•••
VI —Public force		.6	8	4	6
	,, ,,,	9	9	10	. 5
VIII Professions and liberal arts	,. <del></del>	. 17	15	20	10
IX —Persons living on their income	10 400	1	. 1	1	, 1
Z.—Domestic service	1 1	12	11	15	В
XI.—Insufficiently described eccupations	<b>10</b> (11)	7	9	5	7
XIIUnpreductive	. •	12	14	12	8

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III-Distribution of the agricultural, industrial, commercial and professional population in Natural Divisions or Districts

		A	ORICULTUR	E		INDUSTRY	(INCLUD	ING MIN	ES)		Соммевс	B			PROPESSIO	)N		Оти	RB OCCUPA	TIONS	
,	DISTRICT AND NATUBAL DIVISION	Population support- ed by agriculture	Proportion of agri- cultural population per 1.000 of dis- trict population	Percent on agricultural plation	icul- opu- i of	Population support- ed by industry	Proportion of industrial population per 1,000 of district population	Aothan Ao	ustri- pula- of	Population support- ed by commerce		Percent on com cial population	mer- pula- of		Proportion of pro- fessional popula- tion per 1,000 of district population	Percent on pro- sional pulatio	fes- po-	Population support- ed by other occu- pations	Proportion of other occupation follow- ere per 1,000 of district population	Percent on oth occupies follower	er ion
		Pop	Pro Cul Per tri	Actual workers	D-per	Pop	Pro dur per tri	Actùal workers	Deper ents	Pop ed	Proj me per	Actual workers	Depe	Pop ed	Pro fig.	Actual workers	Dep	Pop ed ps	Pro occ era	Actual	2 E
i	. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
·	ENTIRE STATE	2,479,398	785	47	53	280,430	89	47	53	153,024	48	43	57	52,889	17	38	62	192,385	61	50	50
1	Jammu Province (Na- tural Division I & II)	1,281,585	802	43	57	115,964	73	46	54	76,994	. 48	42	58	24,292	<b>1</b> 5	41	59	99,030	62	55	45
	Jammu District Jasrota Udhampur Riasi Mirpur Bhadarwah Jagir Punch Haga	102,008 186,490 178,921 264,725 32,869	623 676 865 815 876 935	43 52 49 42 42 42 59	57 48 51 58 58 41 63	48,646 17,519 8,342 5,451 28,275 1,501 6,230	149 115 89 26 87 40	46 45 54 47 43 58	54 55 46 53 57 42 50	21,814 15,954 9,800 11,673 11,792 943 5,018	07 105 45 56 36 25	41 46 39 46 50 85	59 59 54 61 54 50 65	9,558 4,617 2,392 1,698 4,424 310 1,293	29 80 11 8 14 8 4	39 41 45 44 41 42 49	61 59 55 56 59 58 51	43,267 11,154 8,695 9,066 15,717 1,889 9,242	132 74 40 45 48 51	50 48 59 61 59 75 65	50 52 41 89 41 es 85
ľ	Kashmir Province (Na- tural Division III)	950,649	734	51	49	161,971	- 125	<b>48</b> .	52	73,312	57	43	57	25,945	20	31	69	83,325	64	42	58
	Kashmir North , South Muzastarabad District	381,526 388,295 180,828	828 607 926	53 50 49	47 50 51	33,588 124,550 3,833	73 195 20	47 49 89	53 51 61	18,562 51,971 2,779	40 81 14	44 42 45	56 58 55	6,199 18,788 958	13 29 5	32 30 40	68 70 60	20,911 55,606 6,807	. 46 88 85	47 38 59	53 62 41
1	Frontier Districts (Na- ) tural Division IV)	247,164	932	55	45	2,495	8_	69	31	2,718	10	65	85	2,652	10	74	26	10,031	39	68	32
İ	Dudakh District Gilgit Frontier Ilaqu	175,042 21,130 50,092	943 881 920	56 52 53	44 48 47	1,656 285 554	9 12 10	73 65 59	27 35 41	2,317 317 84	12 15 1	63 71 80	37 29 20	1,845 200 607	10 8 11	81 54 57	19 46 43	4,896 2,037 3,098	26 85 57	67 80 62	33 20 38
	CITIES	8,245	52	48	52	68,228	432	45	55	29,076	184	42	58	11,639	74	33	67	40,882	258	40	60

SUBSIDIARY TABLES

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV-RY TABLE IV—Occupations combined with agriculture (where agriculture is the subsidiary occupation)

						Number 1	er mille <sup>r</sup>	Wiio are i Lturist	ABTIALL'
į	~ ; ·	Occupation	7			Entire State	Jammu Province	Jhelum Valley (Natural	Indus Valley (Natural Division VI)
-		1				2	3	4	5
		TIRE ST			•••	15	19	12	5
I —Exploitat	ion of the s	urface of t	he earth	* ***	144	1	1	2	١.,.
(a) Agric	ulture	***	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	
(2) Or	linary culti	vatora	•••	***		•••		,	•••
(3) Ag	ents, manag	ors of lande	d estates (	not plante	rs)clerks,	25	25	86	13
, ,	ent collecto	rs, etc.		***					. ~
	rm servanti		abourers	***	•••	•••			·
	it, flower,	vegetable, I	petel vine,	areca-nut	growers	• 22	32	16	268
(b) Pasti	, , ,	•••	***	•••	` `	59	44	83	\ii
	tle and lu	falo breed	ers ''	***	***	50	30	81	1 11
	ep, goat an			•••		63	61	118	1
	rdsmen, the				•••	84	87	81	·
	ds, bees, si			•••	***	126	250	125	:::
· 2. Fishin				***	•••	58		66	"i8
	Groups ?		. ***	41)	***	46	82	15	53
II.—Extraction			•••	842	•	***			
IIIIndustry	a di mittora	445	444	•	***	76	123	45	44
6. Textile	industries			***	•	42	102	18	1 2
	industries	1 .	***	441	•••	113	150	86	47
	ndustries	***	***	•••	***	171	244	104	6
	ndustries idustries	***	•••	ped j		36	454	25	109
		oool sha sa	*** :Tax	***	411	111		63	
	ies of dress			***	•••		158		4
	industries	i	***	•••	***	93	104	84	8
IV —Transper		•••	***	***	***	47	88	27	2
V.—Trade,	*** /	••• , \	• • • •	***	***	74	95	48	5
	in textiles	***	***	***	•••	48	70	31	5
	cafes resta			***	***	102	69	12	***
	in food stuf	Es :	***	•••	•••	68	86	51	5
	r trades	***	***	***	****	87	115	30	4
VI.—Public fo		•••	***	***	***	114	52	160	34
VII.—Public a			***	***	•••	64	72	58	20
VIII - Professio			***	***	***	98	117	93	2:
IXPersons	livi <del>n</del> ; on th	eir income	/49 ·	•••	•••	170	216	92	6
XDomesti	service	***	•••	•••	***	25	30	20	10
XI.—Insuffici	ently desori	bed ecoups.	tions		***	49	60	<b>∑</b> 25	20
XIIUnprodu	Ativa		110	***	***	53	60	1 50	1:

\* The proportions of the partially agriculturist are worked out on the total number of actual workers alone. SUBSIDIARY TABLE V-Occupations combined with agriculture (where agriculture is the principal occupation)\*

LANDLORDS (RENT-RECEIVE		CULTIVATORS (RENT-PAY		FARM SERVANTS AND FIELD- LABOURERS			
Subsidiary occupation	No. per 10,000 who follow it	Subsidiary occupation	No. per 10,000 who follow it	Subsidiary occupation	No. per 10,000 who follow it		
1	2		4	5 .	6		
All subsidiary occu- pations Rent-payers Agricultural labourers Govt. survants of all kinds Money-haders & grain-dealers Other triders of all kinds Priests	151 184	Rent-receivers Agricultural labourers General labourers Govt. servants of all kinds Money-lenders & grain-dealers Other traders of all kinds	100 20 110 59 8	All subsidiary occu- pations Bent-receivers Rent-payers General labourers Village watchmen Cattle breeders and milkmen Mill hands Fishermen and boatmen	729 18 142 82 8 46		
Clerks of all kinds School maners Lawyers Estate manajers Medical practioners Artisans Others Cocoon-rearers	19 8  1 11 37 401 65		58 12 97 32 19	Rice pounders Traders of all kinds Oil-pressors Weavers Leather workers Washermen	1 7 5 45 6 11 2		
		Blacksmiths and tarpenters Others Cocoon rearers	882		279 48		

<sup>\*</sup> This is based on the three parts of Imperial Table XV-B. •

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI—Occupations of females by sub-classes and selected orders and groups

No.	setected orders and groups	1	OF ACTUAL	Number of
Z d	OCCUPATION	· · · · ·	1	females per 1,000
Group		Males	Females	males
1	2	3	4	5
	ENTIRE STATE	1,024,661	461,628	451
	A.—Production of raw materials	798,769	397,631	499
]	I.—Exploitation of the surface of the earth  1. Pasture and agriculture	796,760	397,630 397,307	499 500
	(a) Ordinary cultivation	777,010	392,917	506
1 1	Income from rent of land	8,385	3,983	475
2	Ordinary cultivators	752,509	381,837	507
8	Agents, managers of landed estates (not planters) clerks, rent collectors, etc.	648		*
4	Parm servants and field labourers	15,468	7,097	459
	(b) Growers of special products and market gardening	1,600	606	379
6	Fruit, flower, vegetable, betel, vine, areca-nut, etc., growers	1,600 1,328	606 172	879
7	(c) Forestry	918		130
l á l	Wood cutters, firewood, Inc, catechu, rabber, etc., collectors and )	415	172	***
	charcoal burners	1		414.
_	(d) Raising of farm stock	14,944	3,607 2,900	241
9 10	Sheep, goat and pig breeders	363	2,900	263 88
12	Herdsmen, shepherds, goatherds, etc	3,567	675	189
	(e) Raising of small animals	407	5	12
18	Birds, bees, silkworms, etc	1,471	5 823	12
14	Fishing and numing	1,071	323	220 302
15	Hunting	400	,	
i i	II.—Extraction of minerals	) 9	1 1	. 111
17	3. Mines Mines and metallic minerals (gold, iron, manganese, etc.)	9 9	1	1111
l *'	B.—Preparation and supply of material substances	147,018	51.173	348
	III.—Industry	92,262	40,771	442
	6. Textiles	26,306	29,444	1,119
21 22	Cotton ginning, cleaning and pressing	71	8	113
22 24	Rope, twine and string	11,347	28,309	2,495 94
25	Other fibres (cocoanut, aloes, flax, hemp, straw, etc.)	3	1	34
26	Wool carders and spinners, weavers of woollen blankets, carpets, etc.	10,795	237	22
27 30	Silk spinners and weavers  Dyeing, bleaching, printing, preparation and sponging of textiles	2,248 821	631	29
81	Other (lace, crape, embroideries, fringe, etc., and insufficiently)		41\	50
1	described textile industries	936	210	224
	7. Hides, skins and hard materials from the animal kingdom	238	22	92
32	Tanners, curriers, leather dressers and dyers, etc	238 10,154	22	92
36	Sawyers, carpenters, turners and joiners, etc.	6,964	2,400 213	236 31
87	Basket makers and industries of woody materials including leaves	3,190	2,187	686
40	9. Motals	4,675	163	35
41	Others workers in iron and makers of implements and lools prin.	11	•••	***
1	cipally or exclusively of iron	4,262	116	27
42	Workers in brass, copper and bell metal	103	7	68
43	Workers in other metals (tin, zinc, lead, quick-silver, etc.) Workers in mints, die-sinkers, etc.	80	2	25
'	10. Ceramics	219 4,825	38 1,620	174
47	Potters and earthen pipe and bowl makers	4,446	1,624	386 361
48	Brick and tile makers	379	16	42
60	Manufacture of matches and explosive materials	4,303 91	572	133
51	Manufacture of mrated and mineral waters	19	2	22
52 89	Manufacture of dyes, paint and ink	65	***	
58 54	Manufacture and refining of vegetable and mineral oil	8,651	567	155
55	Others (soap, candles, lac, cutch perfumes and miscellaseous drugs)	92		
1	12. Food industries	385 7,412	2,352	917
56 57	Rice pounders and huskers and flour grinders Bakers and biscuit makers	3,238	1,475	317 456
58	Grain parchers	1,977	808	409
59	Butchers	1 320	26	667
62	Makers of sugar, molasses and gor	1,322	24	18
63 64	Sweetmeat makers, preparers of jam and condiments, etc.  Brewers and distillers	826	19	23
,	13. Industries of dress and the toilet	8		~
67	Hat, cap and turban makers	25,138	3,116	124
68 69	Tailors, milliners, dress-makers and darners, embroiderers on tines	8,663	626	125
70	Shoe, boot and sandal makers Other industries pertaining to dress, gloves, socks, gaiters, belts, }	9,875	1,540	72 146
1	antotrand control control for	78	6	
71	Washing, cleaning and dveing	1,816		77
72	Barbers, hair-drossers and wig-makers	4,698	735 208	405
		, ,	. 200	44

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI—Occupations of females by sub-classes and selected orders and groups

o Z	•	Number o		Number of
Group	OCCUPATION	Males	Females	females per 1,000 males
1	2	3	4	5
,,,	15. Bailding industries	2,878	227	79
76 77	Lime burners, cemeut workers Excavators, plinth builders and well sinkers	26 1,969	2 210	107
79	Others (thatchers, building contractors, louse-painters, tilers, )	883	15	17
1:	plumbers, lock smiths, etc.	119	9	76
81	Saddlers, harness makers, whip and lash makers 17. Production and transmision of physical forces (heat, light, )	119	9	78
	electricity, motive powers, etc.)	58	'	
88-	Gas works, electric light and ice factories	, 58	***	
88	the arts and sciences  Book-binders and stichers, envelope makers, etc.	4,804 44	72 1	15 23
87	Makers of musical instruments	4	*	20
88	Makers of watches and clocks and optical, photographic and surgical instruments	69		
89	Workers in precious stones and metals, enamellers, imitation jewel-	4,230	65	15
90	lery makers, gilders, etc.   Makers of bangles, rosaries, bead and other necklaces, spangles, }		ļ <u>,                                   </u>	ļ
91	lingams and sacred thread	896 42	4 2	10 48
92	Toy, kite, cage, fishing tackle, etc., makers, taxidermists, etc.  Others (including managers persons other than performers employed)	] .	<b>, </b>	**
ţ	in theatres and other places of public entertainment, employee of public societies, race-course service, huntsmen, etc.)	19	- "	•••
1	19. Industries concerned with refuse matter	1,352	774	572
93	Sweepers, scavengers, dust and sweeping contractors	1,352 14,022	774 3,037	572 217
0,5	20. Transport by water	6,402	2,985	466
95	Ship owners and their employes, ship brokers, ships' officers, engineders, mariners and firemen	13	18	1,384
96	Persons employed on the maintenance of streams, rivers and canals )	1,910	52	27
97	(including construction)     Beat owners, beatmen and towner	4,479	2,915	650
98	Prosons employed on the construction and maintenance of road and }	6,610	52	, 8
,	l ridges )	682	17	25
. 99	Cart owners and drivers, chachmen, stable boys, tramway, mail { carriage, etc., managers and employes (excluding private servants) }	408	8	. 7
100 101	Patki, etc., bearers and owners	8 4,768	<b>!</b> :::	•••
102	Porters and messengers	748	82	43
103	22. Transport by rail  Railway employes of all kinds other than construction coolies	217 201	:::	•••
104	Labourers employed on Railway construction	16		***
105	Post office, telegraph and telephone services Post office, telegraph and telephone services	793 793	:::	***
	V.—Trade	40,734 2,986	7,365 266	181 89
106	Rank managers, money-lenders, exchange and insurance agents, )	2,986	266	89
-	money changers and brokers and thur employes  26. Trade in textiles	2,105	23	11
108	Trade in piece goods, wool, cotton, sill, hair and other textiles	2,105	23	11 43
109	27. Trade in skins, leather and fus Trade in skins, leather, fur, feather, hera, etc	398 398	17 17	. 43
110	28. Trade in wood	370 870	64 64	. 173 173
110	Trade in wood (not firewood) cork, bark, etc in 32. Hotels, cares, restaurants, etc in	84	4	48
114 115	Venders of wine, I quors, grated waters, etc Owners and managers of hotels, cookshops, serais, etc., and their?	43		00
1 ***	employes	41	5 090	98 208
118	33. Other trade in food stuffs Sellers of milk, butter, ghee, poultry, eggs, etc.	28,743 6,880	5,980 3,784	550
120	Cardamum, betel leaf, vegetables, fruit and areca-nut sellers	1,876	878 612	468 40
121 122	Tobacco, opium, ganja, etc., sellers	15,379 358	16	45
123	Dealers in sheep, goats and pigs	3,005 1,245	269 427	90 i 343
124	34.—Trade in clothing and toilet articles	1,240	115	612
125	Trade in ready-made clothing and other articles of dress and the toilet (hats, umbrellas, socks, ready-made shoes, perfumes, etc.)	188	115	612
1	35. Trade in furniture \	55	7	127
128 127		50	7	140
-	articles for gardening, the cellar, etc.	24	1	42
128		24	1	42
	tiles, thatch, etc.  37. Trade in means of transport	286	25	87
129	Dealers and hirers of elephants, camels, horses, cattle, asses, mules	286	25	87
-	etc., sellers (not makers) of carriages, saddlery, etc.	J. 200	1 20	<u> </u>

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI—Occupations of females by sub-classes and selected orders and groups

g X	selected orders and groups		OF ACTUAL	Number of
Group N	Occupation	Males	Females	females per 1,000 males
1	2	3	4 ·	6
	38. Trade in fuel	1,458	613	420
130	Dealers in firewood, charcoal, coal, cowdung, etc 39. Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to letters?	1,458	613	420
	and the arts and sciences	841	126	150
181	Dealers in precious stones, jewellery (real and imitation) clocks, optical instruments, etc.	410	3	. 7
182	Dealers in common bangles, bead, necklaces, fans, small articles, toys hunting and fishing tackle, flowers, etc.	378	123	330
138	Publishers, book sellers, stationers, dealers in music, pictures, }	58		
	musical instruments and curiosities 40. Trade in refuse matter	55	•••	
184	Dealers in rags, stable refuse, etc	55 3,141		88
185	8hopkeepers otherwise unspecified	2,441	54	22
186	Itingrant traders, pedlers, hawkers, etc	412	19	* 46
187	Conjurers, aerobats, fortune-tellers, reciters, exhibiters of curiosities and wild animals	287	45	157
188	Other trades (including farmers of pounds, tolls and markets)	10.017		
	C.—Public administration and liberal arts	40,917 10,573	1,957	48
1	VI.—Public force	6,970	18     18	2 3
139	Army (Imperial)	9	•••	•••
140	Army (Native States)	6,961 8,603	18	3
142	Police	1,866		<u>                                   </u>
148	Village watchmen	1,787 11,157	241	00
	VII.—Public administration	11,157	241	22 22
144 145	Service of the State	84		··· an
146	Service of Native and Foreign States	8,755 946	192 49	22 52
147	Village officials and servants other than watchmen	1,422		
		18,434 13.026	1,528 1,173	82 90
148	Priets, ministers, etc	2,842	281	99
149 151	Religious mendicants, inmates of monasteries, etc Temple burial or burning ground service, pigrim conductors,	10,109	.890	88
	circumcisers	75	2	27
152	47. Law Lawyors of all kinds including Kazis, law agents and mukhtiars	402		<b> </b>
158	Lawyers' clerks, petition-writers, etc	98 304	•••	
154	48, Medicine	928	168	181
	Medical practitioners of all kinds including dentits, occulists and vetorinery surgeons	707	31	40
155	Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs, etc	161	187	851
156	Professors and teachers of all kinds and clerks and servants con-	1,174	18	15
	nected with education	1,174	18	. 15
158	50. Letters and arts and sciences	2,904	1 169	58
159	Others (authors, photographers, artists, sculptors, astronomers)	1,517	.61	40
160	meterologists, botanists, astrologers, etc.) Music composers and masters, players on all kinds of musical	679	.25	43
	instruments (not military), singers, actors and dancers	808	83	103
	IX.—Persons living on their income/	751	170	226
161	51. Persons living principally on their income Proprietors (other than of agricultural land), fund and scholarship.	751	170	226
ļ	Bolders and pensioners	751	170	228
<b>)</b>	D.—Miscellaneous	39,959	10,867	272
100	52. Domestic service	16,788 16,788	3,415. 3,415	208 203
162	Cooks, water carriers, door keepers, watchmen and other indoor }	16,298	3,413	209
168	Private grooms, coachmen, dog hove, etc.	492	2	4
′	XI - Insufficiently described occupations	8,364	2,111	252
164	53. General terms which do not indicate a lefinite occupation Manufucturers, businessmen and contractors otherwise unspecified	8,364 2,038	2,111	252 94
165	Committee, accountants, book keepers, clerks and other amplements in )	2,038	71	34
166	Mechanics otherwise unspecified		. برد	٠.,
167	Labourers and workmen otherwise unspecified	71 6,219	2,034	85 327
f	SII.—Unproductive  54. Inmates of jails, asylums and hospitals	14,607	5,341	261
106	Immates of latis, asylums and hospitals	621 621	18 18	29 29
169	00. Beggars, vagrants, prostitutes	14,186	5,323	29 376
	Beggars, vagrants, procurers, prostitutes, receivers of stolen goods, cattle poisoners	14,186	5,323	375
	)	` }	.,	
• N.	B.—Although this table was to be jonly in respect of selected orders and			

N. B.—Although this table was to be [only in respect of selected orders and groups, it was in the paucity of
industrial development of the country, considered desireable to work it out for all the heads under
which any figures had been returned.

#### SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII-Occupations in 1911 and 1901

1			,	
Group No.	Occupation	Population supported in 1911	Population supported in 1901	Percentage of variation
1	2		<u>'</u>	<del></del>
	<u> </u>		4	6
	ENTIRE STATE	3,158,126	2,905,578	+87
	A.—Production of raw materials	2,519,742	2,225,095	+13-2
	· I.—Exploitation of the surface of the earth	2,519,709	2,225,052	+ 13-2
ł	1. Pasture and agriculture (a).—Ordinary cultivation	2,515,519	2,223,627	+ 13.1
1	(a).—Ordinary cultivation Income from rent of agricultural land	2,474,991 82,470	2,180,338 440,309	+13.5
2	Ordinary cultivators	2,400,806	1,722,002	-92·6 +39·6
8	Agents, managers of landed estates (not planters), clerks, rent- )	1,484		
1 .	collectors, etc.			+1,038-1
4	Farm servants and field labourers (b).—Growers of special products and market gardening	40,281	17,901	+ 125
5	Tea. coffee, cinchona, indigo plantation	4,407	2,934	+60.2
8	Fruit, flowers, vegetable, betel, vine, arcca-nut, etc., growers	4,407	2,933	100 +50°2
	(c).—Forestry	3,085	4,400	<del>29.8</del>
7	Forest officers, rangers, guards, etc	2,140	1,527	+40.1
8	Wood cutters, firewood, lac, catechu, rubber, etc., collecters and	945	2,878	
ļ	charcoal burners.	32,284		
9	Cattle and buffalo breeders and keepers	23,785	35,548 12,953	9-2 +83-4
10	Skeep, goat and pig breeders	736	8,162	<del>-79.8</del>
11	Breeders of other animals (horses, mules, camels, asset, etc.)	•••	583	-100
12	Herdsmen, shepherds, goatherds, etc	7,763	18,855	—68·8
13	(e).—Rassing of small animals Birds, bees, silkworms, etc	752 752	412 412	+82.5
1	2. Fishing and hunting	4,190	1,425	+ 82 <sup>,</sup> 5 + 194 <sup>,</sup> 0
14	Fishing	8,326	1,279	+ 160
15	Hunting	864	146*	+491.8
	II.—Extraction of minerals	33	. 48	-23.2
i	8. Mines	33	, 42	<b>—21·4</b>
16 17	Coal mines and petroleum wells		19*	100
1"	Mines, metallic minerals (gold, iron, manganese, .tc.)  5. Rock, see and marsh salt	33	23° 1	+ 30-8
20	Extraction of saltpetre, alum and other substances soluble in water	***	îl	100 100
Li	-	1	- I	,
	B.—Preparation and supply of material substances	433,421	427,846	+1:3
	III.—Industry	280,397	282,372	<b>-</b> ·7
1	6. Taxtiles	95,619	103,490	<b>—7</b> ·6
21	Cotton ginning, clearing and pressing	180	3,229	-94.4
22	Cotton spinning, sizing and weaving	61,184	70,394	-13·1
24	Rope, twine and string	194	41	+ 373-1
25	Other fibres, (cocoanut, aloes, flax, hemp, striw, etc	25	285	<b>—91·2</b>
26 27	Wool carders and spinners, weavers of woollen blankets, carpets, etc.   Silk spinners and weavers	23,677	22,584	+4/8
28	Hairs, camel and horse hairs, bristles work, brush makers, etc	5,724	2,500	+ 128.9
29	Persons occupied with feathers		100*	-100
30	Dyeing, bleaching, printing, preparation and sponging of textiles,		268*	-100
18	Other (lace, crape, embroideries, fringes, etc.) and insufficiently described textile industries.	2,375 2,263	3,065 1,029*	-22·5
i	7. Hides, skins and hard materials from the animal kingdom,	620	4,508	+ 100·5 86·2
32	Tanners, curriers, leather dressers and dyers, etc	620	4,152*	-85·1
38	Makers of leather articles such as tranks, water bag, etc	•••	15*	100
34	Furriers	•••	263	-100
35	8. Wood	31,045	78* 16,468	100 +88·6
36	Sawyers, carpenters, turners, joiners, etc	19,999	14,178	+41.1
37	Basket makers and other industries of woody materals including ?	11,046	2,290	+ 838 2
	leaves			Į.
88	9. Metals	13,104	20,655 8	86·5 100
39	Plough and agricultural implement makers,		10,735	-100
40	Makers of arms, guns, etc	20	740	<b>-97</b> 3
41	Other workers in iron and makers of implements and tools)	12,041	7,506*	+60.4
ایرا	prificipally or exclusively of iron	- 1	-	
42 48	Workers in brass, copper and bell metal  Workers in other metals (tin, zinc, lead, quicksilver, etc.)	812 188	1,206   228°	-74·1 -17·5
44	Workers in mints, die-sinkers, etc.	548	232	+ 134
	10. Ceramics	14,201	15,168	-0.8
45	Makers of glass and crystalware		338*	100
			1	I
				}

<sup>\*</sup> These figures are only approximate, the total under heads of last Census having been split up and distributed among the new heads proportionately.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII—Occupations in 1911 and 1901

<u>a</u>	0	Population supported	Population supported	Percentage
Group No.	Occupation	in 1911	in 1901	of variation
		3		
1	<u> </u>	· -		
47	Potters and earthen pipes and bowl makers	13,377	13,246	+1
48	Brick and tile makers Others (mosaic, talc, mics, alabaster, etc., workers	824	1,490 94	—11°7
40	11 Chamical products properly so called and analogous	13,044	11,911 187*	+ 1°5 + 47°5
50 51	Manufacture of matches and expicaive materials Manufacture of grated and mineral waters	274 64	5	+180
52 53	Manufacture of dyes, paint and ink  Manufacture and refining of vegeta de and mineral oil	136 11,309	44° 11,129	+ 209 + 1.6
54	Manufactore of paper card-board and papier mache  Others (soap, candies, lac, cutch, perfumes and miscellaneous drugs	279 962	148* 398*	+ 88·5 + 146·7
55	12. Pood industries	20,858	21,190	—1·9 —5·6
56 57	Rice pounders and huskers and flour grinders Bakers and biscuit makers	8,736 5,638	9,255 4,730	+19.2
58 59	Grain parchers, etc	123 4,081	165 899	25·4   +388·5
60	Fish curors		1,279*	—100 —100
61 62	Butter, cheese and ghee makers	19	2,715* 14*	+ 35 <b>·7</b>
64	Sweetmeat makers, preparers of jams and condiments, etc  Brewers and distillers	2,246 15	2,033 52	+10·4 71·1
65 66	Toddy drawets	•••	48	+100
	Manufacturers of tobacco, opfum and ganja 13. Industries of dress and the toilet,	66,985	73,962	5.6
67 68	Bat, cap and turban makers	11 21,580	349* 23,946	—96·8 —9·9
69 70	Shoe, boot and sandal makers  Other industries pertaining to dress, gloves, socks, gaiters, belts)	27,318	26,594	+ 2 7
	buttons, ambrellas, canes, etc.	- 151	333*	<b>57</b> ·6
71 72	Washing, cleaning and dyeing	5,198 12,72 <b>7</b>	5,388 14,342	-3.5 -11.2
73	Other industries connected with the toilet tattooers, shampooers, etc.  14. Cabinet makers, etc	•••	10 <b>*</b> 389	—100 —100
74 75	Cabinet makers, carriage painters, etc	•••	371*	-100
1	Upholstorers, tent makers, etc.  15. Building industries	7,953	18 ' 3,881	.—100 +104·9
76   77	Lime burners, coment workers  Excavators, plinth builders and well sinkers	114 5,079	217 309	-47·4 +1,548·7
78 79	Stone and marble workers, masons and brick layers Others (thatchers, building contractors, house painters, tilers)	•••	1,613*	<b>←</b> 100
"]	plumbers, locksmiths, etc.)	2,760	1,748*	+ 57:9
80	16. Construction of means of transport Cart, carriage, palki, etc., makers and wheel wrights	256	588 1*	90·6 100
81   82	Saddlers, harness makers, whip and lash makers Ship and boat builders	256	586*	-56
	17. Production and transmission of physical forces (heat.)	208	1 2	—100 +10,300
83	light, electricity, motive power, etc.) Gas workers, electric light and ice factories	208	2	+10,300
ĺ	18. Industries of luxury and those pertaining to literature ) and the arts and sciences	12,254	8,804	39.2
84 H5	Printers, lithographers, engineers, etc Newspapers and magazine managers and editors, journalists, etc.		236	100
86 87	Book binders and stitchers, envelope makers, etc.		5* 317*	-100 -53·6
88	Makers of musical instruments  Makers of watches and clocks, photographic and surgical)	18	16	+12.5
89	instruments  Workers in precious stones and metals, and enamellers, imitation	178	52.	+ 242 3
90	lowoucry makers gliders etc.	10,947	7,710*	+41.9
91	Makers of bangles, rosaries, lead and other necklaces, spangles, lingums and sacred threads	765	45*	+1,438.8
92	Toy, kite, cage, fishing tackle, etc., makers taxidermists, etc.  Others (including managers, persons other than performers em.)	137	127*	+78
	ployed in theatres and other places of public entertainment, employes of public societies, race course service, huntsmen, etc.	62	296	; <b>-</b> −79
93	18 INCOMPLETE CONCERNED WITH PATHER PROFILE	4,250	4,356	<b>—2·</b> 5
	Sweepers, scavengers, dust and sweeping contractors  IV.—Transport	4,250	4,356*	-2.5
	20. Transport by water	33,667	26,005	. + 29.4
94 95	Harbour works, dockwards and pilote	15,968	18,134	+21.5
	Ship owners and their employes, ship brokers, ships' officers, engineers, mariners and firemen.	 67	23 52	. <del>100</del> + 28 <sup>-</sup> 6
96	Persons employed on the maintenance of streams, rivers and	2,524	530*	
97	Boat owners, boatmen and towners	13,377	12,529	+ 376·2. + 6·7
98	Persons employed on the construction and maintenance	15,504	10,847	+429
1	and bridges	1,549	. 479	+ 223.4

#### SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII—Occupations in 1911 and 1901.

Group Nu.	OCCUPATION	Population supported in 1901	Population supported in 1911	Percentage of variation
1	2	8	4	5
99	Cart owners and drivers, coachmen, stable boys, tramway mail) carriage, etc., managers and employes (excluding private) servants)	698	210	+ 232-3
100	Palki, etc., bearers and owners	29	31	6'4
101	Pack elephant, camel, mule, ass and bullock owners and drivers  Porters and messengers	10,902 2,826	9,890 437	+ 12·5 + 432·2
102	22. Transport by rail	426	785	<b>—42</b>
108	Railway employes of all kinds other than construction coolies	399	256*	+ 55 8
104	Labourers employed on railway construction 23. Post office, telegraph and telephone services	27 1,769	479* 1,289	-94·3 +37·2
105	Post office, telegraph and telephone services	1,769	1,289	+ 87-2
	V.—Trade	119,357	119,469	-1
1	24. Banks, establishments of credit, exchange and insurance	10,239	11,383	-10
106	Bank managers, money-lenders, exchange and insurance agents, money changers and brokers and their employes  25. Brokers, commission agents, commercial travellers, ware-	10,239	11,383	-10
	house owners and employes.	'	752	-100
107	Brokers, commission agents, commercial travellers, ware-house owners and employes.	,	752	-100
1	26. Trade in textiles	6,032	3,824	+57.7
108	Trade in piece goods, wool, cotton, silk, hair and other textiles	6,032	8,824	
109	27. Trade in skins, leather and furs Trade in skins, leather, furs, feathers, horns, etc	1,140 1,140	358 358	+ 218·4 + 218·4
1.00	28. Trade in wood	895	1,563	—42·6 h
110	Trade in wood (not fire-wood) cork, bark, etc	895	1,563 34	
111	29. Trade in metals, machinery, knife, tool, etc Trade in metals, machinery, knife, tool, etc	***	84	1
ļ	30. Trade in pottery		2	-100
112	Trade in pottery		550	1
118	Trade in chemical products (drugs, dyes, paints, petroleum, ex-		550	-100
	7 32. Hotels, cafes, restaurants, etc	196	187	+4.8
114	Vendors of wine, liquors, serated waters, etc.	109	104	• +4.8
115	Owners and managers of hotels, cook-shops, scrais, etc., and their employes	87	83	+48
1	33. Other trade in food stuffs	82,174	40,140	
116	Fish dealers		173 8,834	
117	Grocers and sellers of vogetables, oils, salt and other condiments Sellers of milk, butter, ghee, poultry, eggs, etc	23,348		
1119	Sellers of sweetmeats, sugar, gur and molasses		516	·   —100
120 121	Cardamum, betel leaf, vegetables, fruit and areca-nut sellers Grain and pulse dealers	5,384 41,657		
122	Tobacco, opium, ganja, etc., sellers	976	1.330	+41.6
128	Dealers in sheep, goats and pigs ,	8,248	3,152	<b>?•</b> } + 161·6
124		2,666 1,315		
125		s I		1
	toilet (hats, umbrellas, socks, ready-made shoes, perfames, etc.	) 1,010	1	
126	35. Trade in furniture	147		
127			1	.t
1	articles for gardening, the cellar, etc.	5	- l	
128		.   41 } 41	. ا	`\
1	tiles, thatch, etc.	700	3 4,89	85-6
129	Dealers and hirers of elephants, camels, horses, cattle, asses, mules, etc., sellers, (not makers) of carriages, anddlery, etc.	∼' اذ		ı
130	38. Trade in fuel	3,889 3,889	1,68	9° +129'8
	89. Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to letters and the arts and sciences	ر ا		·
131	optical instruments, etc.	} : 152	1,80	<b>,</b>
13	2 Dealers in common bangles, bead necklaces, fans, small articles, toys, hunting and fishing tackle, flowers, etc.	1,43	2 2,01	6* —28.9
13:	3 Publishers, book sellers, stationers, dealers in music, pictures musical instruments and curiosities.	**	• 1	5° -18'4 +100
L	40. Trade in refuse matter	. 18 18		+ 100
13	41 The 2 of other ments	9,29	3   47,43	5 -80.4
13	5 Shopkeepers, otherwise unspecified	. 7,40	0   38,61	
13 13	6 Itinerant traders, pedlars, hawkers, etc.,	. 1,11	I	٠
ľ	costics and wild animals	3	y 71	1

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII—Occupations in 1911 and 1901.

4 1		Population	Population	
ž	Occupation	supported	supported	Percentage of variation
Group		in 1911	in 1901	,
<u>ت</u>				5
1	2	48	4	
138	Other trades (including farmers of pounds, tolls and markets)	2.	3,853*	-99.9
. 1	C.—Public administration and liberal arts	. 104,541	106,702	<b>2</b>
		20,513	19,608	+46
٠ :	VI-Fublic force	•	11,270	5
189	42. Army	10,706	984	99·1
140	Army (Native States)	9,807	10,286 8,338	+4 . +176
	Police	4,672	471*	+891.9
142 148	Police	5,135	7,867*	= 84.7
	VII.—Public administration	28,707	31,729	<b>—9</b> ·5
.		28,707	31,729	-9.5
144	45. Public administration	34	199	+79
145	Sarrice of Native and Foreign States	. 23,617	20,743	+ 13·8 23·1
146	Municipal and other local (not village) services Village officials and servants other than watchmen	1,765 3,291	2,297 8,670°	-62
147	Village officials and servants other than watchmen			
	VIII.—Profession and liberal arts	52,889	44,152	+198
	46. Religion	38,592	38,855	+ 13.6
148	Priests, ministers, etc	6,737 31,614	21,997 2,997	69·3 + 954·8
140 150	Catochista readers church and mission service		. B,110	-100
151	Temple, burial or burning ground service, pilgrim conductors, }	241	2,751*	<u></u> 91·2
	circumeisers.	1,528	1,011	+ 50.6
152	Lawvers of all kinds including Kazis, Law agents and Mokhtiars	481	526*	-8.5
158	Lawyors, clerks, potition-writers, etc	1,042 2,769	485 2,604	+ 122·7 + 6·3
154	Medical practitioners of all kinds including dentists, occulists?	2,093	1,867	+ 12-1
	and veterinary surgeons.	676	737	+83
155	Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs, etc 49. Instruction	8,063	2,368	+289
156	Professors and teachers of all kinds and clerks and servants (	3,053	2,368	,+ <b>2</b> 8'9
1	connected with education  50. Letters and arts and sciences	6,952	4,314	+61.1
157	Public scribes, stonographers, etc.		1,806	
158 159	Architects, surveyors, engineers and their employes Others (authors, photographers, artists, sculptors, astronomers, )	3,797	211	+1,699.5
, I	meteorologists, botanists, astrologers, etc.)	1,352	1,199*	+119
160	Music composers and masters, players on all kinds of musical instruments (not military), singers, actors and dancers	1,803	1,598	+128
	IX.—Persens living on their income	2,432	11,218	<del>78</del> ·3
	51. Persons living principally on their income	2,432	11,218	78.3
161	Proprietors (other than of agricultural land) fund and scholar-	2,432	11,213	<del>78</del> 3
	D.—Miscellaneous	100,422	145,935	-31.2
	X.—Domestic service	. 37,766	35,896	+52
	52. Domestic service	· 37,766	85,896	* + 5.2
162	Cooks, water-carriers, door-keepers watchmen and other indoor }	36,911	35,464	+4.1
163	Private grooms, coachmen, degboys, etc	855	432	+97.9
1	XIInspfficiently described cocupations	23,004	48,720	-52.7
	53. General terms which do not indicate a definite occupation	23,004	48,720	-527
164 168	Manufacturers, businessmen and contractors otherwise managified	6,543	1,154	+ 467
165	Gashiers, accountants, book-keepers, clerks and other employes in unspecified offices, warehouses and shops	66	1,976*	.+ 96 6
166	Modanics, otherwise unspecified	167	63	+ 165.1
167	Labourers and workmen, otherwise unspecified	16,228	45,527	-64.3
	XII.—Unproductive	39,652	61,319.	, <del>-35</del> ·3
168	54. Inmates of jails, asylums and hospitals  Tumates of jails, asylums and hospitals	658	540	+21,8
	55. Beggars, vagranta, prostitutes	658 38,994	540 60,779	,+ 21.8 35.8
169	Beggars, vagrants, procurers, prostitutes, receivers of stolen goods, cattle poisoners	38,994	60,779	-358
		UK3.27294b		

N.A.—The occupation statistics of the last consus have in this table been adjusted to Monsieur Bertilion's new scheme of classification in accordance with Appendix II., circulated with Consus Commissioner's No. 240, dated 17th Pebruary 1911 and this is why instead of containing only selected occupations this subsidiary table has been prepared in respect of all the heads returned a side § 3, title page remarks to imperial Table XV.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII Occupations of selected castes\*

CASTE AND OCCUPATION	Number per 1,000 Workers engaged on	Number of female workers per 100 males	CASTE AND OCCUPATION	Namer per 1,000 Workers engaged on	Number of female workers per 100 males
1 .	2	8.	1	2	3
Hindu	<u> </u>		Tarkhan—carpenter:	428	5
Chamlar-Cobbler and coolie	845†	82	Income from rent of land Cultivation of all kinds	19 436	15 17
Cultivation of all kinds  Field labourers, wood cutters, etc	563 84	89 74	Field labourers, wood cutters, etc Others	88 29	12 52
Labourers unspecified Others	12 47	61 48	Lohar—blacksmith	312	9
Jat-agriculture	915	46	Cultivation of all kinds Field labourers, wood cutters, etc	602 23	86
Field labourers, wood cutters, etc Raisers of livestock, milkmen and	8	8	Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdamen	17	19 8
herdsmen .	12	9.	Others	46	42
Domestic service Others	17 48	27	Soniar (Zargar)—gold and silver smith	840	5
Jhiwar-water-bearing	438	82	Cultivation of all kinds Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers	100 6	83 10
Cultivation of all kinds Artisans and other workmen	118	28	Trade	12	] ]
Public administration	146 -58	14	Domestic service	8	16
Persons living on their income Domestic service	66 40	6 63	Labourers unspecified	8 20	367
Labourers unspecified	58	28	•••	1	42
Others	86	26	Sochi (Darzi)—tailoring	403	24
Kashmiri Pundit—State service	800	1	Iucome from rent of land Cultivation of all kinds	10 453	200 50
Cultivation of all kinds Income from rent of land	288 53	6 12	Artisans and other workmen	21 10	
Artisans and other workmen	81	86	Public force	25	
/ Trade	139	1	Public administration	29	
Domestic service Others	. 89 60	1 4	Domestic service	85 14	25 6
Khattri-money-lending and trade	. 510	.8	Musalman	•	
Cultivation of all kinds	163	19	Bafinda (Julaha)—weaver	293	37
Artisans and other workmen Public force	27	46	Income from rent of land	14	68
Public administration	158	***	Cultivation of all kinds	604	26
Arts and professions Domestic service	16 35	2 12	Field labours, wood cutters, etc  Domestic service	14 12	23 25
Contractors, clerks, cashiers, etc.,	7	. 2	Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails	16	97
Persons living on their income	8 56	80 15	Others	47	42
Nai (Hajjam)—barber	529	18	Ohibh—agriculture	818	16
			Income from rent of land	37	20
Income from rent of land Cultivation of all kinds	13 858	27 87	Field labourers, wood cutters, etc Raisers of livestock	16	"в
Field labourers, wood cutters, )	18	22	Artisans and other workmen	10	438
etc. Artisan and other workmen	8	550	Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers Public force	10 56	 35
Public force	16		Public administration	13	
Public administration	15		Persons living on their income	5 12	14
Domestic service Labourers unspecified	10	138 217	Domestic service	12	24 63
Beggars, criminals and inmates of )	14	81	Beggars, criminals and inmatesof jails	6	27
jails Others	8	100		4	24
Thakkar—agriculture	934	48	Darri-tailoring	438	47
Raisers of livestock, milkmen and	۱	] _	Cultivation of all kinds Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers	510 6	24 14
herdsmen	13	9	Domestic service	12	42
Public force Public administration	10		Labourers unspecified Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails	8	33 88
Others	33	37	Others	20	35
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	1	<u> </u>		

This is based on Imperial Table XVI.

† The proportions noted, in this column, against the caste names represent the persons who follow their fraditional occupation all alone or along with some other occupation as a subsidiary to it. They are based on the totals of columns 6, 7, 10 and 11 of Imperial Table XVI.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII Occupation of selected castes

CASTE AND OCCUPATION    Continuous of all kinds   Continuous of all ki				_		
Dum, Chuhra and Watal—scavenging   78	Number of female	Number per 1,000 Workers engaged on	CASTE AND OCCUPATION	Number of female workers per 100 males	Number per 1,000 Workers engaged or each occupation	CASTE AND OCCUPATION
Colivation of all kinds	. 3	2	, 1	8	2	1
Field labourers, wood cutters, etc.   28   33   36   37   38   38   38   38   38   38   38	32	399	Mirad and Bhand—singing	69	78	Dum, Chuhra and Watal—scavenging
Relieve of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen   Section	11		Cultimation of all life de			
Artisans and other workmen	30		Field labourers, wood cutters, etc		l i	Raisers of livestock, milkmen and)
Artisans and other workmen	17		Artisans and other workmen			herdsmen 5
Trade	11				_	
Public administration	29	_	D			
Domestic service   34	29		Labourers unspecified			1
Mochi—cobbler class	8	22	Others			■ • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Mochi—cobbler class	85	919	Shin—aprionitures			
Colitivation of all kinds	00	310	_			
Cultivation of all kinds	,			17	431	Moohi—cobbler class
Field labourers, wood cutters, etc	4		Dablie administrative	90	451	Cultivation of all kinds
Raisers of livestock, milkmen, herds   men, etc.   37   16			Domestic service			
Beggars, criminals and immates of jails   17		6	Labourers unsecified	16	37	
Public administration	9					M-1.
Domestic service   9   19   50	6	20	Others	_		F1 131 A 1 1 1 1
Beggars, criminals and immates of jail   19   50   Others   23   27   Cultivation of all kinds   810   48   Field labourers, wood cutters, etc   16   26   Trade   27   Tublic administration   29   Others   30   Others   35   Others   35   Others   35   Others   35   Others   35   Others   35   Others   35   Others   36   Others   36   Others   37   Others   37   Others   37   Others   37   Others   30   Others   30   Others   30   Others   30   Others   30   Others   31   Others   32   Others   34   Others   35   Others   35   Others   36   Others   36   Others   37   Others   37   Others   37   Others   37   Others   38   Others   38   Others   38   Others   38   Others   38   Others   39   Others   30   Others   31   Others   31   Others   31   Others   31   Others   3	59	872	Tantre-agriculture	20		Domestic service
Cultivation of all kinds	1		,			0.11
Caltivation of all kinds	- 00		Out	21	23	Others
Cultivation of all kinds	20	.=6	,	19	112	Gaddi and Gujjar-cattle-breeding
Field labourers, wood cutters, etc	102	934	Yashkun—agriculture			
Trade	l	-	Field lehowers —			
Domestic service   13	124		Poblic odministration			Trade
Hanji-boatmen		_	Othana	11		Domestic service ,
Caltivation of all kinds   389			West des beens	70	82	Others
Coltivation of all kinds 389 Artisans and other workmen 150 Trade 69 9 Others 68 85 Others 917 Field labourers, wood cutters, etc 8 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 12 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 8 12 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 111 Others 6 29 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 111 Others 8 22 Kumhiar—potter 395  Cultivation of all kinds 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Cultivation of all kinds 7 20 Cultivation of all kinds 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Cultivation of all kinds 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Cultivation of all kinds 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Cultivation of all kinds 6 29 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 6 29 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 23 5 Trade 6 19 Domestic service 65 Artisans and other workmen 164 Public administration 255 Arts and professions 158 Domestic service 115 Beggars, griminals and inmates of isile 7 42 Beggars, griminals and inmates of isile 7 42 Beggars, griminals and other workmen 165 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 164 Public administration 255 Arts and professions 158 Domestic service 115	7	56	want_suob-reebell	84	348	Hanji—boatmen
Artisans and other workmen   150 8   Field labourers, wood cutters, etc   35   Owners, managers, clerks, etc   35   Owners, managers, clerks, etc   35   Owners, managers, clerks, etc   35   Others   43   Others   43   Others   43   Others   43   Others   44   Others   45   Others   45   Others   45   Others   45   Others   46   Others   47   Others   48   Others   48   Others   48   Others   49   Others   40   Others   40   Others   40   Others   40   Others   40   Others   40   Others   40   Others   415   Others	73	749	Cultivation of all kinds		·	0-14-4 11 1 1 1
Trade Others	,		Artisans and other workmen			Artisans and other weeks
Jat—agriculture 917 37  Field labourers, wood cutters, etc 8 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 7 Labourers boatmen, palki-bearers 8 Domestic service 11 7 Labourers unspecified 6 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 0thers 16 Cultivation of all kinds 629 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen labourers unspecified 7 Rumhiar—potter 395  Kumhiar—potter 395 Cultivation of all kinds 629 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen labourers, wood cutters, etc 65 Cultivation of all kinds 629 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen labourers, wood cutters, etc 65 Trade 6 19 Labourers unspecified 629 Trade 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers locatmen, palki-bearers 23 Trade 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 114 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers unspecified 6 19 Labourers un	33		Owners, managers clorks ato			Trade
Field labourers, wood cutters, etc 8 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and hordsmen Artisans and other workmen 7 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 8 Domestic service 6 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 Others 6 Cultivation of all kinds 7 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 Others 395  Kumhiar—potter 395 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and hordsmen 11 In the cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and hordsmen 11 In the cultivation of all kinds 529 Trade 6 Domestic service 6 Domestic service 6 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 23 Trade 6 Domestic service 6 Labourers unspecified 7 Beggars, criminals and other workmen 134 Field labourers, wood cutters, etc 65 Artisans and other workmen 160 Public force 158 Domestic service 158 Domestic service 158 Beggars, criminals, and inmates of isils 11 Domestic service 115 Beggars, criminals, and inmates of isils 11 Beggars, criminals and inmates of isils 11 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 2 Artisans and other workmen 160 Public force 158 Domestic service 158 Beggars, criminals, and inmates of isils 11 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 2 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 3 Beggars, criminals and inmates of isils 11 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 3 Beggars, criminals and inmates of isils 11 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 3 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 4 Cultivation of all kinds 7 Beggars, criminals and inmates of isils 11 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 4 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 4 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 5 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 6 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 7 Beggars of livestock, milkmen and 6 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 6 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 6 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 6 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 6 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 6 Battonics of livestock, milkmen and 6 Battonics of livestock	50,400 26		Beggars, criminals and inmates of infini			Othora
Field labourers, wood cutters, etc 8 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen Artisans and other workmen 7 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 8 Domestic service 6 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 Others 6  Rumhiar—potter 395  Kumhiar—potter 395  Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen Labourers unspecified 7 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 Strade 629 Trade 65 Domestic service 65 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 23 Trade 65 Domestic service 65 Labourers unspecified 7  Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen Labourers unspecified 629 Cultivation of all kinds 629 Krield labourers, wood cutters, etc. 65 Artisans and other workmen 134 Krield labourers, wood cutters, etc. 65 Public force 14 Public force 155 Domestic service 158 Domestic service 158 Domestic service 158 Beggars, criminals, and immates of iails 158 Domestic service 115 Persons living on their income 36		43	Others		0	Jat-agricultura
Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen Artisans and other workmen 7 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 8 Domestic service 11 7 Labourers unspecified 6 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 0thers 16 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 17 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 18 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 11 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 11 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 11 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 11 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 134 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Cult	1 -	400	Teli-oil-pressing	37	917	
herdsmen Artisans and other workmen Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers Domestic service Labourdrs unspecified Others Cultivation of all kinds Culti	28	<b>420</b>	. 7 . 7	4	8	Field labourers, wood cutters, etc
Artisans and other workmen 7 20 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 8 1 Domestic service 11 7 Labourers unspecified 6 29 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 55 Others 16 22  Kumhiar—potter 395 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 11	45	415	Cultivation of all kinds	- 1	14	herdsmen or livestock, milkmen and }
Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 8 1 Labourers boatmen, palki-bearers 106 Labourers unspecified 6 29 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 11 0thers 16 22 Christian  Cultivation of all kinds 529 39 Kumhiar potter 395 44 Cultivation of all kinds 529 Arisans and other workmen 16 25 Trade 5 11 16 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 23 5 Public force 16 17 Public force 16 18 18 18 19 Domestic service 5 19 Domestic service 5 19 Domestic service 5 19 Domestic service 7 28 Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails 124 Public force 158 158 158 158 158 158 158 158 158 158	10	8	herdsmen of livestock, milkmen and	-		Artisans and other workmen
Labourers unspecified	1	_	Labourers bostmen, palki-hearers	ì	8	
Beggars, criminals and inmates of jails   11   55   Others   31   Others   32   Christian   Cultivation of all kinds   395   44   Cultivation of all kinds   529   39   Kield labourers, wood cutters, etc   65   Artisans and other workmen   160   Public force   14   Public force   155   Trade     66   19   Arts and professions   158   255   Arts and professions   158   Domestic service	87	7	Labourers unspecified '			Labourdra unapecified
Kumhiar—potter 395 44  Cultivation of all kinds 529 39 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdamen 11 16 Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers 28 5 Trade 66 19 Domestic service 6 19 Labourers unspecified 55 31 Beggars, criminals, and investes of isile 11 15					11.	Beggars, criminals and inmates of iails
Cultivation of all kinds 529 39 Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen 529 18	42	31				1 LYNAPS
Raisers of livestock, milkmen and herdsmen   11   16   Artisans and other workmen   160   Public force   14   Public administration   255   Public administration   255   Arts and professions   158   Domestic service   158				44	395	
Haisers of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, milkmen and her distance of livestock, mode cutters, etc 65  Artisans and other workmen 160  Public force 14  Public force 255  Artisans and other workmen 160  Public force 15  Artisans and other workmen 160  Public force 15  Domestic service 158  Domestic service 158  Persons living on their income 36			Unitivation of all kinds	20	529	Cultivation of all kinds
Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers   28   5   Public force   14	124		Affigure and other weakers	•		Manager of livestock, milkmen and )
Domestic service 6 19 Arts and professions 158 Labourers unspecified 7 42 Persons living on their income 36			Public force			Labourers, boatmen, palki-bearers
Labourers unspecified 5 31 Domestic service 158  Labourers unspecified 7 42 Persons living on their income 36	8	255	Public administration			Trade
Beggara, criminals, and impates of isile 1 42 Persons living on their income 36	74		Domestic service	31	5	Labourers numerical
I Out to be bound to i Ax i Other	97		Persons living on their income		,7	Beggara, criminals, and inmates of inite
Others 1. 13 23 36			Others			Others
Lohar-blacksmith 256 8	1			8	256	Louar Discremith
Cultivation of all kinds 688 35	1		. 1		200	Cultivation of all kinds
Field inbourers, wood cutters etc 14 99	1					Field labourers, wood cutters atc
Others 47 18	i		````			

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE IX

### Proportional distribution of selected occupations by religion

									•	
	[ 10,00	ntion O perso ach occ	ns fo	llowin	of .	Dietr	ibution t person c	y occupa of each re	tion of 10 ligion	0,000
ORDERS AND SELECTED GROUPS	<del> </del> -	-	<u> </u>		_		•			<del></del> -
		ag i			•	••	lman		•	
	Hindt	Mussiman	Budhin	Eirh	Others	Hinde	al su	Bachist	-g	Others
	H	N.	Bu	13	10	Ä	7	n B	Sikh	_ <del>6</del>
r	2	8	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
All occupations	2,186	7,594	116	100	<b>∶4</b>	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000
A.—Production of raw materials	1,909	7,861	130	. 86	1	6,966	8,259	8,965	7,944	1,739
E-Exploitation of the surface of the	1,909	7,861	130	99	1	.f 6,966	- 8,259	8,964	7,944	1,739
1,-Pasture and agriculture	1,912	7,858	130	90	1	6,968	8,242	8,984		1,739
(a) Ordinary cultivation (1) Income from rent of agricultural land	1,900 5,221	7,869 4,451		101 319	1	0,812 218		8,748 8	7,930 328	1,665
(2) Ordinary cultivators	1,826	7,944	130	99	-1	6,851	7,952	8,526		807
(4) Farm servants and field labourers (d) Raising of farm stock	3,400 2,744			28 6	18	198 128		213 104	35 6	526
(9) Cattle and buffalo breeders and keepers	1,317	8,380	298	5		45	. 83		4	110
2. Fishing and hunting II.—Extraction of minerals	6,970			29	•••	***	17	1	4	
3. Mines	8,970				•••	""	•10	, 1		
B.—Preparation and supply of a material substances	2,660	7,213	21	89	17	1,670	1,303	246	1,222	5,515
III.—Industry 6 Textiles	2,250		. 8	38	12				341	2,428
(22) Cotton spinning, sizing and weaving	1,818 2,575	8,152 7,884		23 29	1	251 228	.825 .188		69 55	111 15
(26) Wool carders and spinners, weavers of woollen blankets, carpets, etc.	85	9,898	14	7	1	3	98	I	5	7
7. Hides, skins and hard materials from )	'		••	•_		١.	, '	1		•
the animal kingdom	1,758	8,242		***	•••	. 2	l '			***
(36) Sawyors, carpenters, turners and )	2,844 2,804	7,311 7,627		. 32 50	, ,	119 67	ł ·		32 .32	74
joiners, etc. )   (37) Basket makers and other industries }	1 '			_			Ì ·	l ·	<u>د</u> ر.	67
of woody material including leaves	3,280	6,738		1		52	i	i I	,	7
(41) Other workers in iron and makers) of implements and tools princi-	2,481	7,877 7,174	46	.92 104		- 47 47	. 40 86	[ • ]	!	15 , 7
pally or exclusively of iron .)	967	8,984		.8	46	20	53		1	.481
(47) Potters and earthen pipe and bowl )	982			,	14		l	<u> </u>	, ,	37
makers 11. Chemical products properly so called \( \)	-		'·,			1 :	l :			
and analogous (63) Manufacture and refinning of vege-	559		١. ا	4	•••	. 11	51		`2'	. 7
table and mineral oil	81	9,919		•••	•••	1	47	•	,	·
12. Food industries	8,575 2,589	6,865 7,402		59 5		l 108 259			39 11	***
(68) Tailors, milliners, dress makers	610	9,373		7		19	84	[	5	
and darners, embroiders on linen ) (80) Bloc, boot and sandal makers	4.910	5,087	!	3		194	58		8	
(72) Barbers, hair dressers and wig makers 15. Building industries				, 1		. 35			1	
16. Construction of means of transport	1,520	8,443 8,945		.37	•••	. 18	1			
(77) Production and transmission of physical forces (heat, light, electri-	7,789			192	470	. 2			1	104
city, motive powers, etc.)	1,100	1,010	•••	102	0,0	~	٠,	'''	1	
18. Industries of luxury and those per- taining to literature and the arts	3,830	5,807	11	346	6	68	30	4	134	. 59
and sciences.	,,,,,	, 0,00,		, 010		} ~~	"	1		, 00
(§9) Workers in precious stones and metals enamellers imitation	8,810	5,790	9	385	В	. 60	26	9	133	52
jewellery makers, gilders, etc.		,,,,,,	1		ľ	۱.	ہ۔ ا	, "		
19. Industries concerned with refuse	2,607	. 6,640	28	24	501	17	l	1 1	. 3	1,577
IV.—Transport 20. Transport by water	1,800			91					97	637
(97) Boat owners, boatmen and townen	410 31	9,511 9,968	. 1	- 77	1	9	68 56			7
21. Transport by road (101) Pack elephant, comel, mule, ass )	1,799	8,017	87	93		40	` 52	37	46	45
and bullock owners and drivers	1,500	.8,274	124	98	4	. 24	38	37	34	<b>3</b> 0
22. Transport by rail	2,746	6,925	<b></b> .]	329	•••	. 2	, 1		4	

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE IX Proportional distribution of selected occupations by religion

,		ibution 00 perm each oc	ma f	ollowi		Distribution by occupation of 10,000 persons of each religion				0,000
ORDERS AND SELECTED GROUPS	Hinda	Musalman	Badhist	Sikh	Others	Hindu	Musalman	Badhist	Sikh .	Others
1	2	3	- 4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<u> </u>	<u> </u>				-		<u>'</u>			
23. Post Office, telegraph and tele-	4,607	4,607	86	153	447	12	4	8	8	585
V.—Trade 24. Banks, establishments of credit, ?	4,007	5,718	11 J	207	28	693	284	131	784	2,450
exchange and insurance (106) Bank managers, money-lenders	8,686	589		707	18	120	. 3	4**	229	133
exchange and insurance agents money-changers and brokers and their employes	8,686	<b>58</b> 9	<b>.</b>	707	18	129	3	•••	229	<b>13</b> 3
26. Trade in textiles 27. Trade in skins, leather and furs	<b>4,647</b> 640	4,851 9,070	118	848 9	36 281	41 2	12 4	19	<b>6</b> 6	163 237
28. Trade in wood 32. Hotels, onfes, restaurants, etc.	983 4,082	8,905 4,030	2:	90 1,582		1	3	1	3 10	•
33. Other trade in food staffs	8,126	6,686	45	142	300	372	229	102	<b>36</b> 9	<b>8</b> 9
(118) Sellers of milk, butter, ghee, poultry, eggs, etc.	454	9,528	11	16	1	15	93	1	12	15
(121) Grain and pulse dealers 34. Trade in clothing and toilet articles	5,837 7,027	4,310 2,935	84	267 38		322 13	75 2	96	353 2	***
35, Trade in furniture 36, Trade in building materials	6,895 1,333	3,605 8,667	,	***		1	•••	***	***	***
37. Trade in means of transport 38. Trade in fuel	2,077 5,764	7,795 4,203	85 31	43 2	•••	2 83	2	2	1	•••
39. Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to letters and the arts and accordes	5,146	4,690		68	96	23	6		 7	 222
40. Trade in refuse matter	56 5,584	9,944 3,846	 15	328	297	 1	15	4	97	 1,562
C.—Public administration and pliberal arts	5,781	, j	151			875	170	433	486	<b>2,33</b> 9
VI.—Public force	6,321	8,473	66	116	24	188	30	38	<b>7</b> 5	356
(140) Army (Native States)	7,470 7,475	2,392 2.893		95 95	43 37	116 116	11 11	•••	32 32	341 289
VII.—Public administration	5,066 6,367	4,654 3,279	140 9	188 307	2 38	72 265	19 39	38 7	43 27ն	15 <b>81</b> 4
45. Public administration (145) Service of Native and Foreign States	6.367	8,279	9	307	38	· 265 219	39 33	7	279	814
VIII.—Professions and liberal arts	5,203	4,435	268		36 21	398	98	388	182 122	629 836
(140) Religious mendicants, inmates of )		4,100 4,637	348		-	308 243	66 61	368 9	47 45	259 222
monastries, etc.	l * !	2,705			39		2		10	44
48. Medicine	3,824		51 3	130	105 88	15	7	4	11 8	215 200
50. Letters and arts and sciences IX.—Persone living on their income	3,797	5,889	82	209	23	38	17		46	119
51. Persons living principally on their		2,837 2,837	4		185 185		3		10 10	333 333
D.—Miscellaneous		6,398					268			407
X.—Domestic service	4,723			148			79	104	177	170
(162) Cooks, water-carliers, door keep- ers, watchmen and other indoor	4,723 4,815	1			Ţ	} `	79 67	104 101	177 177	170 148
XI.—Insufficiently described occupations 53. General terms which do not indicate?	4,403	5,863	117	108	9	147	52	74	79	148
i a dentite occupation	4,403	5,363	117	108	9	147	52	74	79	148
(167) Labourers and vorkmen other-	4,517	5,426	6	42	9	106	87	2	22	111
XII.—Unproductive 54. Inmates of jails, and hose ?	1,453	-,		1	3	84	137	178	92	89
55. Bergars, vacrants receitates	137	9,787	15				3	•••	. 1	141
prostitutes receivers of stolen	1,475 1,475	8,283 8,283			J -	<b>!</b> !				89 89
goods, cattle poisoners					•			210	01	60

#### SUBSIDIARY TABLE X-Europeans and Anglo-Indians by occupation

	OCCUPATION	· ·		1	Europ	BANS	Anglo.	INDIANG
	OCCUPATION	A.D			Male	Female .	Malo	Female
	1				2	3	4	5
Рорц	lation des	lt with			25	0 1	1	16
Actual workers	***	***	***		117	34	8	1 4
Dependents	***	***	•4	· ]		96	4	, io
Principal occi			workers		-	ī l		1
I.—Exploitation of	bha en rfana	of the ear	d h	·	5			1
Agents and manage	ore of lands	ul estatos	forest off	ionra.	•	***	, ***	
and their clerks,	strail to trav	re eta	10100 011		5		` •••	
TTT			••	۱ د	16			1
III —Industry		•••	**	""		•••	***	
Owners, managers, cl			••	••• ]	14	· · · I	*	
Artisons and other w	orkmen	***	***	•••	2	L1	***	***
VTrade	***	4-7	••	•••	3	[ 2	***	***
VI.—Public force	***	***	••	•••	21		***	***
Commissioned and G	azetted office	r's	••		20 -	1	•••	
Others	***	***	44		. 1		***	1
VII.—Public administ	ratio n	***	••	••• 1	40		8	***
Gazetted officers	•••		••	1	29		2	•.•
Others	•••	4.1		•••	11		4	/ ,
VIII.—Ares and profess		***	i		19	21	. 2	4
Religion		***	[	:::	10	9	, 2	1 2
Lawyers, doctors and	l teachers	•••	(::	:::	9	10	l "	2
Others			1		-	ž	l :::	\ <sup>-</sup>
	n thair inco		ŗ.	··· }	10	11		""
IX.—Persons living of X.—Domestic service	et Antert, refiner	шө	<b>[*</b>	•••			I	1
A.—Domestic service	 		₽•	••• }	1	•••	} ···	***
XI.—Contractors, ole	rki, cashici	78, OTO.	<u>-</u>	***	Z	000		<u> </u>

<sup>•</sup> These figures denote both sexes as dependents were not sorted out by sex.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE XI—Number of persons employed on the 10th March on Railways and in the Irrigation, Post Office and Telegraph Departments

Cz	ASS OF PRE	sons Emi	PLOYED			European and Angle Indians		Remark
`		<b>1</b> ,				2	3	4
			I.—R	ailways	· j		`	
Total persons	employed		•••	•••	•	• .	190	ı <del> </del>
	irectly em		***	***			1 163	:
Officers		***	,	***			1	1
Subordinates drawing	more than	Re. 75 P	. M	*4*		114	3	L
n fi	rom Rs. 2	0 to 75	99 bee	•••	1.4	***	16	
΄, τ	nder "2		22	•••		•••	144	
Persons vi	idirectly o	nployed	***	***	,	•••	27	
Contractors	•••	***	4	•••	•••	•••	6	· }
Contractor's regular er	nployes	***	+	411	,	***	144 04	1
Coolies	***	**:		·		101,	21	·
	_	_ II.—	Irrigatio	n Depar	tment			. 1
Total persons	ı employed	į .	•••	***			8 4,514	
Persons d	irectly emp	loyed	***	•••	•••		3 691	
Officers .	***	***	***	411	***		8 (	
Upper subordinates		***	***	***		•••	18	
Lower ,	•••	4+1	•••	441		•••	29	' 1'
Clerks		***	••	•••		•••	4	·
Poons and other serva	nts .	***	***	•	***		- 430	
Coolies	•••	.,,,	***	•••	•••	4+4	201	
Persons i	ndirectly c	mployed	***	•••	***		8,800	
Contractors	• • •	***	***	***	4	***	153	-
Contractor's regular e	mployes	414	•••_		***	***	9/	
Coolies	***					***	3,576	']
	-		I.—Posta	ıl Depart	ment	•	_	. 1
Total	414				***	٠.	1 996	
Supervising officers	•••	•••	*** 1	•••	111			ŧ į
Post Masters	•••	***	•••		***	***	70	
Miscellaneous agents	. •••	, •-•	***		***	***	6	
Clerks	•••		***	444		144	45 21	
Postmen, etc.		*-*	***	***		***	586	·
Road Establishment	***	• • • • •	•••	• • •	4	•••	F	<b>'</b> [
Railway Mail Service	***	***	•••	***.	440	`	414	1
Supervising officers	•••	•••	م	•••	***	•••		1
Clerks and sorters		· • •	444	***	***,	***	···	[
Mail guards, etç.		. ***	.2"	•••	***	.***	114	1
Combined offices	***	***		•••	100			3
Signallers	***	. • • •	,,,	•••	4.4	•••	_ [ i	-
Messengers	4+*	***			4	***	1 *	<b>7</b>
		1V	Telegrap	n Depar	tment		17 27	. l
Total			* ***	4	•••		<b>~</b> , 1	i l
Administrative Establ	ishment		•••		*** •	4+4		- 1
Signalling	•••	***	••• ,	•••	•••		<b>-</b> , 1	4.
Clerks		•••	***	•••		•••	7	- 1
Skilled labour	•••	676	***	•••	4	***	8	
Unskilled labour 🧸	***	•••	***	•••		***		2
Messengers, etc.							1 . /	<b>"</b> !

#### SUBSIDIARY TABLE X-Europeans and Anglo-Indians by occupation

OCCUPATIONS			·	Euro	PHANS		Anol	0.1	MDIANE	
UCCUPATIONS			[	Malo	Fom	alo	Malo	1	Foms	rje
1				2	8		4	_[	6	
Population deal	with		j	25				16	3	
Actual workers	***	***	,,,,,,	117	ı	84		8		- 4
Dependents	•••	••	***	9	9 <b>#</b>			4	,	
Principal occupation of a I—Exploitation of the surface of Agents and managers of landed	ctual the ea estate	WORLEIS rth   forest offic	ors.)	5	"	•	, ""		•••	
and their clerks, rent collectors	. etc.	.,	- '} I	5		•	***	- 1	***	
III -Industry		••		16	!					
Owners, managers, clerks, etc.				14	l "		1	. !	***	
Artisans and other workmen	***	<b>B</b> 01		2		-		- 1	***	
VTrade	***	••		3	•	2		- 1	***	
VI.—Public force		44	!	21	۱.,	-		- 1	• • • •	
Commissioned and Gazetted officers		••		20	1			l	***	
Others	***	•• -		1				i	***	
VII.—Public administration	•••	••		40	1			8		
Gazetted officers	•••	**		29		•		2	•	
Others	4+4	<b>)</b>		11				4	/ ,,,	,
VIII -Arts and professions	***	<b>***</b>		19	l	21	1	2		4
Religion	•••		•••	10		9		2	ļ	2
Lawyers, doctors and teachers	•••	••	•••	9	[	10	1++	- 1		2
Others	***	<b>Ļ.</b>		***	1	2		ŀ	***	
IX.—Persons living on their income		4,	[	10	1	11	***		***	,
X.—Domestic service	•••	4.	<b>,</b> ]	1		••	***	- 1		
XI.—Contractors, clerks, cashiers,	etc.		1	2	Ι.		ł	- 1	٠,,.	

<sup>\*</sup> These figures denote both sexes as dependents were not sorted out by sex.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE XI—Number of persons employed on the 10th March on Railways and in the Irrigation, Post Office and Telegraph Departments

· · · CL	ass of Pre	oks xmi	LOTED			Europeans and Anglo- Indians	Indians	Remark
•		1		· · · · ·		2	3	4
•			I.—R	ailways				
Total persons	employed		•••	•••	}	1		
	rectly emp	oyed	***	***	•••	1		!
Officers			114	***	•••	1	٠ 3	İ
Subordinates drawing 1	nore than I			•••	•••	***	3 16	
	om Rs. 20		3> ***	•••	• • •	•••	144	1
,, Di	adar "20 dirictly em	المريمة	13	•••	٠٠]	***	3 27	1
Contractors	COLLCIT & CAN	holes	***	***	•-7	•••	6	1
Contractor, a telegripa, em	n loves	***		250		•••	_	1
Coolies		•••	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	• •••		414	i " 21	
Anomas	•••	TT.—	Irrigatio	n Depar		•••	1	l
Total persons	Samilane	TT!-		-			4.514	ľ
Sofer balance	embroker	oued	•••	***	***	š		1
Officers				4.4	• • •	9		ì
Upper aubordinates	4+4		4411	441	***	•••	13	!
	***	***	411	E41		4-4	29	ì
Lower <sub>b</sub> Clerks	***	***	••	•••			4	
Prona and other segvan		***	••	4.		***	439	
Conjugation of the software		•••	••	••		3.3	201	1
Parama is	idirectly on	ployed	••			***	3,8:3	1
Centractors			**	•••			153	
Contractor's regular on	nolo rea		•	••		***	944	
Contien	ng nay an	<b>5.0</b>	•	•-		***	3,376	
<del></del>	•-•	77	I.—Posts	1 Depart		_	i	1
Total			4. — 4 UOW			•	906	1
Huparrhing officers	411		•••	••			•	
Post Masters	***	• •	***	••			70	1
prediginous statis	***	• • •	• • •	:		***	61	1
Cicrks	***	• • •	•••	•••			4.0	ŀ
Pustmen, etc.	1.1		•••	···			312	· ·
Head Establishment	1.0				• •		886	1
Mailway Mail Service	***		• • •	• •	344		9 00	ł
Habsteink apeats	***		P .	***	١٠.		`	1
Clorks and surture			***					1
Mail guards, sty.							4:4	
Combined offices	•••			•••	•	ļ	_	1
higuallers	1.4				• • •	1.1	. 3	<b>I</b>
Museottgere	<b>9</b> 11		,			***	1 11	1
-		14	Tolograi	th Depar	tment	ļ		1
Total					4-1	ľ		1
Administrative Katabli	though			4.	•••	214	. 1	1
historilists		111	. ,			1		
Lileska		***	• • •	***			1 .	
hitland labour	***	101		***	, .	٠.	79	
Liushilled tabuter +				,	•••	***	8.5	
M. antigets, the	-					7	7 78	1