

CENSUS OF INDIA, 1941



VOLUME XXV

TRAVANCORE

PART I—REPORT

BY

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PREFACE

The Synoptic Essay has taken the place of the compartmental Reports of the past decades.

In the words of Mr. M. W. W. M. Yeatts, the Census Commissioner for India, "the essay should be an essay; a kind of theme picture, the theme being the life of the State as an organic whole. It must be the product of a mind which has digested all the outstanding features of the State's decade history and experience and presents the results of such digestion in a single, uniform product. It means that the view is single and individual but at the same time comprehensive."

The omnibus character of the Census Report has often detracted from its readability, particularly for those who are anxious to get a comprehensive view of a State or Province. As years roll on, every topic of human interest is progressively brought under the discerning eye of the specialist, followed by the devastating criticism of the expert. To cater to the exacting demands of this small, though powerful, group is beyond the capacity of the Census Commissioner who, even if he is a specialist, cannot in the course of a couple of years, evolve into an omniscient personage. At any rate, the expectations of the 99 percent. of the educated laymen, who are anxious to steer clear of the mysterious expert and the superficial chronicler, must be given reasonable satisfaction. The Synoptic Essay, it is hoped, would satisfy the intellectual craving of those people who expect to read in this Census barometer the record of the country's progress in the last decade.

Boiling down the several details collected during the Census operations into a connected whole, without resorting to the simpler device of presenting them piecemeal under separate chapters, was no easy task. My office staff, wedded to the compartmental system of 1931, found it difficult to adjust themselves to the change in the form of presentation of the results of the data collected during the Census operations. It was with no small difficulty, therefore, that the marginal tables were extracted and notes prepared on relevant data for use in the elaboration of the different topics in the Essay.

In the present Census attention was focussed on certain fundamental aspects of the day to day life of the people of the State in general. The evolution of the caste system, a peep into the past regarding the nature and origin of the various customs and ceremonies prevalent among the different castes or sects, or an anthropological or ethnological survey of the small tribal element in the population could not therefore find a place in the present scheme. The Census Commissioner for India has also expressed the view that the Census has done all it could really produce in the direction of caste study. Tendencies and developments are more in place in a Synoptic Essay than 'wearisome screeds' on caste question. There is also the chance of one missing the wood for the trees if one tries to cover too much technical ground within the short compass of a Synoptic Essay. The topics which demand a technical treatment like Fertility, Vital Statistics and Sampling have been dealt with separately in the Appendices.

A careful perusal of the enumeration card of 1941 will convince any one that emphasis has been placed, and that rightly, on the occupational trends of the people, to find out how they live. The details about age, sex and civil condition lead on to the means of

livelihood. The important question of density and its incidence forms the preface to the problem of pressure of population and unemployment and here again age-composition and civil condition throw light on the whole problem. The questions of religion, language, and literacy are not viewed in isolation; they are integrated with the cultural evolution of the people as a whole to ascertain how they live the higher life. The questions regarding married women embodied in the enumeration card have given the right lead in focussing public attention on a topic of vital importance to society, for in a highly literate country like Travancore, it would be possible to get correct data from the large number of literate mothers who could easily be convinced of the importance and usefulness of this enquiry.

A word now about the general scheme. The Introduction is intended to give a bird's eye view of the State, setting out the most outstanding facts regarding its historical evolution, geographical compactness and its progress in the economic, social and political spheres down the centuries. It also gives a foretaste of the lines on which the scheme is worked out. While unity and continuity are kept up, the division into General, Occupational and Cultural, gives the view-points in the main theme, the unfolding of it being done through individual topics such as movement of population, age, sex, civil condition, means of livelihood, religion, language, literacy, etc. These three categories should not be looked upon as "bound within uncrossable frontiers". The unity of the whole piece is emphasised by the Census Commissioner when he says that one has to think of the concluding sentence before beginning to write. The maps and diagrams have been reduced to the absolute minimum as there is just the possibility of missing the point by too many illustrations. The main consideration in preparing and including them has been to stress important points or clear genuine difficulties which otherwise would have involved lengthy verbal description. The maps in particular and the diagrams have also been so carefully designed as to prove useful not merely to the general reader but to those specially engaged in the field of education.

There is sufficient scope for repetition in a Census Report, if only one is inclined that way as the marginal tables, diagrams and even maps lend themselves to elaboration in words, to the wearisome annoyance of the impatient reader who, like the intelligent pupil, cannot tolerate repetition. This boredom has been carefully avoided as may be clear from the rather elaborate table of contents rendered necessary in the absence of separate chapters and marginal headings, which may hinder the even flow of a continuous narrative. While the Table of Contents specifies the topic of each paragraph and the relation of each to the main theme through the various sub-topics, reference to individual facts is facilitated by the detailed Index at the end.

The Report is published in four parts, Part I containing the Report proper and the Appendices, Part II the Imperial Tables and Part III the State Tables, Part IV being the Administrative Volume. To effect a saving in expenditure and to facilitate ready reference and verification, Parts I and II are bound together.

Census was considered a 'gigantic undertaking' even by the talented Census Commissioner for Travancore in 1875 and the Census Commissioner for India has characterised the Census of 1941 as the "most difficult of all India's Censuses". The work was therefore one of no small magnitude and particularly for me, it was like changing horses midstream, as I had to take over from my predecessor five months after he was appointed as Census Commissioner or, to be more exact, nine months after, if his part-time work is also taken into

account. I had also to be constantly on the move even after the Population Census was over, for inspecting the field work connected with the Economic Survey at a stage when my predecessors in the past were poring over voluminous literature in the shape of reports, treatises, or other useful publications on population and allied problems. Add to this, the change in the method of Census reporting elaborated above made me doubt the possibility of publishing this work before the date corresponding to that on which the 1931 Report was ready for publication. Circumstances have now compelled me to publish it three months earlier as it is wanted urgently for official purposes.

This was the first occasion on which an educational officer was selected for the responsible post of Census Commissioner. Though to the large Census staff already working in the various centres I was a *novus homo*, I experienced little difficulty in rallying round me the veterans in the subordinate service of the Revenue and Public Health Departments. The silent and devoted service of nearly 6,000 of my colleagues in the Department of Education was of considerable help to me in clearing many an obstacle in the Census track and covering the last lap of the final count with confidence and satisfaction. It has given me no small encouragement that my appeal to the public elaborating the importance of the Census and soliciting their co-operation had its desired effect in their intelligent response in furnishing the requisite details with dependable accuracy. The non-simultaneous enumeration which was a new feature of the 1941 Census made it possible to dispense with the services of a large number of inexperienced enumerators for the final counting and thus avoid the possibility of double-enumeration. The results of the final count were announced on 3rd March 1941. The Sorting and Compilation work took nearly eight months. For the former a staff consisting of 250 Sorters, 10 Compilers, 30 Supervisors (one for each taluq), 3 Divisional Superintendents for the three Revenue Divisions, 3 Record Keepers, (one for each Division) and one Accountant, was appointed and placed under the immediate control of the Chief Superintendent. A bifurcation was effected this time by putting the Manager and Statistical Superintendent entirely in charge of statistical work and entrusting the control and supervision of the large staff to the Chief Superintendent. This had the desired effect of ensuring accuracy and thoroughness in sorting and compilation. For the Compilation work the Chief Superintendent who was also Head Compiler was assisted by the 3 Divisional Superintendents as Divisional Compilers, 3 Record Keepers and 30 Compilers (one for each taluq), the Statistical Superintendent being left free to give directions in the work of compilation and check the figures from time to time.

The several Imperial and Subsidiary Tables were completed according to schedule and submitted to the Census Commissioner for India for approval as soon as they were ready. Imperial Table VIII (Means of Livelihood), the most complicated of them, was completed on 24th January 1942 and received the approval of the Census Commissioner on 24th February.

The inspection of the field work connected with the Economic Survey and of the work regarding Fragmentation of Holdings along with the organisation of the Tabulation Sections of these two and the Population Census kept me fully occupied for over six months from 1st March 1941. The Census Commissioner for India was expected to visit Travancore by about the middle of August and I was looking forward to having a full discussion with him on the Imperial Tables and the scope of the Essay thereby making up for my not getting the advantage of attending the Census Conference at Delhi in February 1940. It was a disappointment to me, as it was to him, that he had to cancel the proposed

tour to the South for unavoidable reasons. I could start the necessary reading for preparing the draft of my Report only by about the second week of September 1941. I first took up the Cultural Section for which the necessary data were then available. After preparing a working draft of the Introductory and Cultural sections, I had the opportunity of meeting the Census Commissioner for India at Delhi in the 2nd week of February last. I am deeply grateful to him for the detailed comments and helpful suggestions he gave me after going through my drafts and for his kind assurance of all possible assistance.

On my return I started working up the General section and took up the Occupational section last. The months of July, August and September 1942 kept me fully occupied with a complete revision of the draft already prepared, to give it proper shape and synthetic unity. From the middle of July onwards, the report was sent to the Press, section by section, the remaining part of the limited time available being utilised in the preparation of the Appendices. As each section reached the machine-proof stage, a copy was sent to the Census Commissioner for India for prior comment and approval.

It has been my earnest endeavour to reduce the Census expenditure to the absolute minimum. A proportionate addition to the expenditure incurred in 1931 warranted by the population increase in 1941 was not budgeted for. The Census of 1931 cost Government Rs. 1,39,800 *i. e.*, Rs. 50,341 more than the 1921 Census excluding, in both cases, the cost of printing. The results of the Economic Enquiry were published as an Appendix in 1931. This time, however, the report on Economic Survey is being published separately, as along with the Tables, it is expected to cover nearly 200 pages. The total cost of the Census of 1941 (excluding printing, but including the Economic Survey and the Fragmentation of Holdings) comes to Rs. 1,36,021 which is Rs. 3,779 less than the corresponding expenditure incurred in 1931. The cost per mille therefore works out to Rs. 22-6 as. in 1941 as against Rs. 27 7 as. in 1931.

I consider it my primary duty to express my deep indebtedness to the Government of His Highness the Maharaja for the confidence placed in me and for the generous support extended to me throughout my work and I am profoundly grateful to Dewan Sachivottama Sir C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar for the kindness and consideration he has shown and for the helpful directions he has given to me during the successive stages of the Census operations.

The Census Commissioners have always had to conduct the field work with the aid of the subordinate staff of other Departments. The active co-operation of the Heads of Departments is an essential pre-requisite for the success of the Census operations and the accuracy of the returns. I am happy to be able to record the fact that my brother officers and their subordinates heartily co-operated with me but for which it would not have been possible for me to work the complicated Census machinery without hitch or hindrance. My sincere thanks are due to Mr. M. Govinda Pillai from whom I took over the Census Commissionership in September 1940, for the preliminary work he had done in connection with the Census before he went on leave preparatory to retirement. Dr. U. Sivaraman Nair of the Mathematics Department of the Travancore University, who was appointed as Statistical Adviser for the Economic Survey, was of considerable help to me in the Population Census also, particularly in analysing the age-composition of the population and literacy figures. I am thankful to him for his valuable help. I am happy to acknowledge the ungrudging services of the Municipal Presidents, Tahsildars and the Divisional Forest Officers who had to shoulder the heavy responsibility imposed upon them as Charge Superintendents in addition to their normally heavy work. I feel very thankful

to the Managers of the various Estates—particularly to the General Manager of the K.D.H.P. Company—and their staffs for their hearty co-operation in Census work during its several stages till the final enumeration.

The strength of my office staff fluctuated with the quantity of work left over after each stage, drastic reduction being effected towards the close. Mr. G. R. Pillai was the Personal Assistant when I took charge. I wish to place on record my appreciation of the hard and willing work done by him, particularly during the first six months, when I had to be constantly on the move. Mr. K. J. Leenose, who was appointed my Personal Assistant in July 1942, ably assisted me during the strenuous three months preceding the publication of this Report. I wish to place on record my high appreciation of his thorough and efficient work. I am sincerely grateful to him for the ungrudging assistance he has rendered. I wish to record my sincere appreciation of the hard and taxing work of calculation continuously carried on throughout the period by Mr. N. Parameswaran Pillai as Manager and Statistical Superintendent. The Chief Superintendent and Head Compiler, Mr. K. S. Rama Aiyer, with his characteristic thoroughness executed the work entrusted to him to my entire satisfaction. It stands to his lasting credit that the elaborate Imperial Tables have been systematically and methodically prepared with meticulous accuracy in regard to the innumerable details. Mr. S. Thandaveswara Aiyer with his experience in the 1931 Census was also helpful in expediting the work. Mr. N. Chandrasekharan who was Divisional Superintendent and Divisional Compiler deserves my sincere appreciation for the work which he did so ably and well. I wish to place on record my high appreciation of the loyal and efficient services of my Stenographer Mr. G. Sivasankara Pillai, whose varied experience in the State Manual Office made it possible for me to put him on to different items of work demanding trust and confidence. I had the advantage of getting as Draftsman Mr. P. Ramakrishna Pillai, whose intelligent understanding of my requirements combined with his artistic taste and technical skill enabled him to bring out the maps and charts to my entire satisfaction. Mr. P. Muthukrishna Pillai who was one of the Typists was also working as a Machinist in my office. I sincerely appreciate his marvellous speed and high technical talent. The other members of the staff working at the Population Census did the work allotted to them satisfactorily. Mr. M. T. Joseph and Mr. S. Varadarajan Nair were put in charge of the special Enquiries and did their work creditably.

During none of the past seven Censuses had so many hundreds of pages of Tables alone to be printed as in the present Census. The Imperial Tables, State Tables, and those connected with the Economic Survey and Fragmentation of Holdings together constituted no less than 1,500 pages. The printing of these along with the Reports proper, in accordance with the rather exacting requirements of the new scheme of presentation, is certainly a stupendous task. If to this is added nearly 8 million enumeration cards and several thousands of forms for the different purposes during the different stages, not to mention the Census Code, the whole work assumes gigantic proportions. The fact that most of all this printing had to be done on short notice speaks highly of the sense of duty and efficiency of the Government Press staff. My warmest thanks and sincere gratitude are due to Mr. P. E. Mathew, the Superintendent of the Government Press, who has met the varied and exacting demands of this Department, particularly during the last three months, with the utmost patience, characteristic courtesy and unflinching promptness. The Maps were lithographed in the Trivandrum Art Printing Works and I am happy to testify to their neat and careful execution.

Trivandrum,
29th September 1942.

A. NARAYANAN TAMPI,
Census Commissioner.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I.

Paragraphs		Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
1—28	INTRODUCTORY.	1—9	63	Urban population by Natural and Administrative Division.
	GENERAL.		64	Factors leading to growth of towns in the State.
I. METHODS TO ENSURE ACCURACY :—		10—13	65	Trivandrum.
29 i.	The two stages of the count.		66	Alwaye.
30	Normal resident population.		67	Colachel.
31 ii.	Securing accuracy in counting.		68	Padmanabhapuram.
32 and 33	Need for securing accuracy of returns.		69	* Alleppey.
34 iii.	Examination of increase under broad age-groups.		70	Nagercoil.
35	Erratic increase recorded in 1931 in the 0—10 age-group.		71	Thiruvella.
36 and 37	Examination of other age-groups to verify the findings.		72	Neyyattinkara.
38 and 39 iv.	Corroboration with reference to Vital Statistics Enquiry.		73	Shenkotta.
40 and 41 v.	Comparison of the Census and graduated figures.		74	Old historical capitals.
			75	Vaikom.
			76	Kottayam.
			77	Changanacherry.
			78	Quilon.
II. RATE OF INCREASE OF POPULATION :—		13—17	79	Towns that grew up in other ways.
42 i.	Lower rate of increase recorded in the present than in the last Census.		80	Sixfold classification of towns in Imperial Table IV.
43 ii.	Examination of causes.		81	Rate of growth of urban population.
44	Economic depression in the beginning of the decade.		82	Urban population by community.
44 (i)	Fall in prices.		83	Similarity of urban and rural population in movement and distribution.
45 (ii)	Dullness in trade.		84 iii.	Rate of increase of rural population.
iii.	Remedial measures.		85	Movement of population in villages.
46	Industrialisation.		86	Basic principle of density of population.
47	Extension of cultivation.		87	Density per square mile—some foreign countries compared.
48	Better marketing.		88	Density by Administrative and Natural Division.
49	Improvements in communication.		89	Variations in divisional density.
50	Relief of agricultural indebtedness.		90	Variations in taluk density.
51	Public Health measures.		IV. MOVEMENT OF POPULATION :—	26—33
52 iv.	Need to study age-constitution of population to determine rate of replacement.		91 i.	Causes for movement of population.
53	Specific birth-rates for various age-groups.		92	Grouping of population to illustrate movement.
54	Varying mortality rates.		93	Decennial variations in density in the different taluks of Natural Divisions.
55 v.	The net reproduction rate. Rate of replacement of population.		94 ii.	Movement of population from Lowland to higher regions.
III. THE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION :—		17—26	95	Economic facilities in higher regions.
56 i.	State population compared to that of other parts of India.		96	Tendency noticed a common decennial feature.
57	Distribution of population by Natural Division.		97	Density in occupied areas.
58	Distribution by Taluks.		98 iii.	House-density.
59	Remarkable increase in Trivandrum and Changanacherry Taluks.		99	Overcrowding in houses.
60	Urban-rural distribution.		100	Structural disadvantages of houses.
61 ii.	Rate of increase of urban population.		101	Multiple households.
62	Ranking of Municipal towns by population strength.		102 iv.	Greater density in urban than in rural areas.

Paragraphs	Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
103		139	Road-communication in the State.
104		140	Average and total mileage of State roads.
105		141	Railway line from Trivandrum to Shencottah.
106	v. Taluk density based on cultivable area.	142	Facilitating better marketing.
107	Small margin of cultivable land yet left in Lowland.	143	Removal of isolation of village.
108	Wider margin of cultivable land yet left in Highland.	144	Trunk Telephone.
108	Per capita acreage of cultivable and cultivated land.		
109	Indices of productivity of land.		
110	Difficulty of applying foreign standards to measure productivity in the State.		
V. AGRICULTURAL OVER-POPULATION :—		VI. EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION :—	41—43
	33-41	1	Internal migration of surplus labour to wanted areas.
111	i. Definition of agricultural over-population.	146	Proportion of immigrants to emigrants by Administrative Division and percentage to population.
112	The man-land ratio.	147	Emigration increase less than that of immigration—an advantage.
113	Factors determining the man-land ratio.	148	Disadvantages of emigration.
114	Evils of a dwindling man-land ratio.	149	Immigrant population in the State,
115	Need for correctness of data collected.	150	Immigrants in Trivandrum.
116	ii. Symptoms of agricultural over-population.	151	Immigrant population mostly estate coolies; greater claims of Travancoreans.
117	Eg. Fragmentation of holdings.		
118	Low unit-yields of area under crops.	VII. ANALYSIS OF POPULATION BY AGE-GROUPS :—	44—57
119	Area under double-crops.	152	i. Importance of age-grouping in gauging intensity of over-population.
120	Limited vogue of the system of crop-rotation.	153	Significance of age-composition in population study.
121	Crops raised under estate system.	154	Difficulty of securing accuracy in age-returns.
122	Low density of cattle.	154	Conservative preference for functional rather than annual calculation of age.
123	Other instances of pressure on land.	155	Justifiability of this.
124	Indices of over-population.	156	Error due to conflict between functional and annual calculations.
125	Greater fertility of rural than urban population.	157	The value of a comparison between the two.
126	Difficulty of getting cheap food from outside.	158	Two kinds of errors in age-returns and methods of their elimination.
127	Depressing effects of over-population.	159	Devices of decennial, quinary, septenary and ternary grouping.
128	Difficulty of finding capital for large scale cultivation.	160	Difficulty of preventing deliberate falsification of age.
129	iii. Remedies against over-population.	161	ii. Proportions in broad age-groups suggestive of a progressive population.
129	Legislation regarding landholding system (for consolidation).	162	Increasing fertility in the 15—40 age-group.
130	Intensive farming.	163	Decennial variations in mean age.
131	Mixed farming.	164	Decrease of mean age in 1941 deplorable.
132	Need for a scientific system of cultivation.	165	The same regrettable finding in study of quartile distribution.
133	Lift-irrigation and extension of punja cultivation, the remedies suggested by the Department of Agriculture.	166	Comparative increase in fertility and general increase in longevity, a good feature.
134	Urgency of the problem.	167	Yet progressive diminution of effective male population to be deplored.
135	Raising the capacity of agriculture to absorb more people, by transition from subsistence to cash agriculture.	168	General decrease in upper and lower quartiles.
136	Rural electrification the spur to industry and transport.	169	iii. Quartile variations by community.
137	Extension of fishing industry.]		
138	Development of the means of communication		

Paragraphs	Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
170		203	Better means of assessment.
171		204	iii. Difficulties involved in the means of Livelihood Table.
172	iv. Age-grouping by sex to study tendencies in detail.	II. THE WORKERS IN THE DIFFERENT MEANS OF LIVELIHOOD :—	
173	How this presages an increase in next decade.	204	i. Decennial comparisons.
174	Fertility of communities.	205	Fall registered in major means of livelihood.
175	v. Sex-ratio of communities in various age-groups.	206	Increase under a few occupations.
176	vi. Analysis of age-groups by Natural Division.	207	Increase under some others.
177	vii. Sex-ratio by taluks and towns.	208	General estimate of the figures.
178	Increase of female-ratio in urban area.	209	ii. Problem of dependants.
VIII. STUDY OF CIVIL CONDITION :—		210	Incidence of dependance.
		211	Sluggishness of workers.
		212	Persons living on their income.
		213	Occupations in which dependants are fewer.
179	i. Importance but difficulty of determining civil condition.	214	Greater number of total than partial dependants.
180	ii. Analysis of civil condition by age-groups.	215	iii. Rough calculation of incidence of unemployment.
181	Increase in number of married males and females.	216	iv. Distribution of workers according to the principal means of livelihood.
182	iii. Sex-ratio of the married by community.	217	Distribution of workers according to subsidiary means of livelihood.
183	Postponement of marriage does not mean disinclination for it.	218	v. Distribution of workers and dependants by Administrative Division.
184	More old bachelors than old spinsters.	219	Percentage of workers in Trivandrum City.
185	Excess of married females over males among main communities—their marital laws.	220	vi. Distribution in Highland.
186	Marital laws of Nambuthiris and Kshatriyas.	221	Distribution in Lowland.
187	iv. Civil condition by Natural Division and community.	222	Distribution in Midland.
188	Maximum number of married males and females in 40 and above group.	223	vii. Incidence of unemployment by Natural Division.
189	Civil condition of urban areas by community.	III. FEMALE WORKERS AND DEPENDANTS:—	
190	Decrease in the number of widowed.	224	i. The problem of female workers.
191	More widowers than widows remarry.	225	Decennial variations in female-ratio of workers.
192	Proportion of divorced by community.	226	ii. Distribution of female workers in the different means of livelihood.
193	Distribution of divorced by age-groups.	227	iii. Comparison of female workers in the Natural Divisions.
194	Sex-ratio of divorced getting equal in higher age-groups.	228	iv. Distribution of workers by community.
195	vi. Civil condition by quartile distribution.	229	The occupation-shyness of female workers of the Scheduled Castes.
196	Quartile distribution of civil condition by community.	230	The Anglo-Indians.
197	Average duration of married life of males and females by community.	231	v. Partial dependants by community.
198	Median age for widows.	232	Excess of female over male partly dependants in all communities.
199	Variations in age of divorce of various communities.	233	vi. Ratio of total dependants to workers in all communities.
OCCUPATIONAL.		233	The special features regarding Muslims and 'Other Hindus' in this respect.
I. SCOPE AND DEFINITION :—		IV. AGRICULTURE:—	
		234	i. Need for a detailed study of agricultural workers.
200	i. Scope of the section.	235	ii. Increase in the percentage of those dependant on agriculture.
201	Change in Nomenclature.	236	Decennial variations in the proportion of agricultural to total workers.
202	ii. Definition of terms used.		

57-63

64-78

72-77

77-87

63-64

CONTENTS

Paragraphs	Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
237		266 v. Percentage of variation in actual numbers of independent industrial workers.	
238		267 Explanation of the same.	
239		268 The increase of workers in the food industry.	
240			
241		B. ORGANISED INDUSTRIES :—	92—100
242		269 i. Two categories of industry—organised and cottage.	
243		270 Definitions of "organised industry" in 1931 and 1941.	
244		271 ii. Proportion of workers in organised industry to total industrial workers.	
245		272 The two special features revealed by the figures.	
246		273 iii. Distribution of workers in organised industries.	
247		274 iv. Proportion of male and female workers and the female-ratio.	
248		275 v. Classification of workers in organised industry.	
249		276 Distribution of operatives.	
250		277 Proportion of operatives by age and sex in estates and factories.	
251		278 Explanation.	
252		279 vi. The factories and estates in the State.	
253		280 vii. Rise of labour organisations.	
254		281 Labour unions in the State.	
255		282 The dispute of labour versus capital in the last decade.	
		283 Labour legislation.	
		284 viii. The Labour Welfare Movement.	
		285 ix. The work of the Department of Industries.	
		286 War and industry.	
		287 x. Industrial research by the Travancore University.	
		C. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES :—	100—105
		288 i. The statistics of cottage industry in the State.	
		289 Preponderance and popularity of cottage industry.	
		290 ii. Hereditary occupations classed as cottage industry.	
		291 iii. Industrial occupations involving work away from the home.	
		292 iv. The main cottage industries in the State.	
		293 v. Industries wherein competition is inevitable between cottage and factory.	
		294 vi. Possibility of securing co-ordination and co-operation between cottage and factory.	
		295 Industries in the State wherein such co-ordination is possible.	
		296 vii. Inhuman exploitation of cottage workers.	
		297 viii. Requisites for the prosperity of cottage industry.	
		298 ix. A new cottage industry with immense possibilities.	
V. INDUSTRY :—			
A. ALL INDUSTRIES :—			
	37—92		
256		i. The problem of industry.	
257		Definition of the term "workers" as used in this section.	
258		ii. Decennial variations in the percentage of industrial workers.	
259		Comparison of proportions of male and female industrial workers.	
260		Explanation of variations in figures regarding females.	
261		Decennial variations in the female ratio of independent industrial workers.	
262		iii. Sex-ratio of partial dependants.	
263		Need for a separate study of partial dependants of both sexes.	
264		Female ratio of partial dependants to independent workers.	
265		iv. Dependence of industrial workers on agriculture.	

Paragraphs	Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
D. OTHER INDUSTRIES:—	105—108	IX. ECONOMIC PLANNING:—	115
i. Fishing Industry:—		384 i. Need for economic planning.	
299 Facilities for fishing in the State,		385 ii. Previous planning of present programme.	
300 Difficulties of fishermen		386 iii. The industrial future of the State envisaged.	
301 Rich yield of fishing.		X. UNEMPLOYMENT:—	116—119
302 Fish-curing and cold-storage.		i. General:—	
303 The Department of Fisheries.		10 387 The problem of employment—economic considerations in education.	
304 Progress made by other fishing countries.		388 Social menace arising from the ranks of the unemployed.	
305 Neglect of this industry.		389 Difficulties felt by the unemployed.	
306 Possibilities for future development.		340 Unemployment problem in the last decade—the Public Service Commissioner.	
ii. The Mineral and Salt Industries:—		341 Problem of female employment in the last decade.	
307 Prospecting in minerals.		342 Scope of the Census study of the unemployed.	
308 The chief minerals in the State.		343 Insufficiency of the 1931 statistics of unemployment.	
309 The salt industry.		344 Three limitations of the present statistical basis.	
iii. Forest resources:—		345 Definition of "unemployed."	
310 Exploitation of Forest reserves in the last decade.		346 Exclusion of cases of seasonal employment and underemployment.	
311 Progress of sylviculture in the decennium.		347 The age-grouping of the unemployed.	
312 Industries based on forest products.		348 Number and percentage of the unemployed—comparison with some foreign countries.	
VI. CREDIT FACILITIES:—	109—111	349 The age-grouping of the unemployed as 'permanent' and 'temporary.'	
313 i. The reconstitution of the Economic Development Board.		350 Explanation.	
314 ii. The problem of indebtedness.		351 Sex-ratio of the unemployed by State and by Natural Division.	
315 The acuteness of the problem in the last decade.		ii. Educated unemployment:—	120—121
316 Statistical indications of the same.		352 The educated unemployed.	
317 iii. State relief afforded against agricultural indebtedness.		353 Their classification by qualification.	
318 iv. The Co-operative Societies now functioning in the State.		354 Age-grouping of the educated unemployed by qualification.	
VII. MARKETING AND TRADE:—	111—118	355 Sex-ratio of educated unemployed.	
319 i. The economic function of markets.		356 Proportion of female to male educated unemployed.	
320 ii. Need for Government aid to marketing in the State.		357 Future of unemployment.	
321 iii. Economic reasons for market regulations.		CULTURAL.	
322 iv. Aid given to marketing in the last decade—Marketing Officers.		I. THE SCOPE OF THE SECTION:—	122—123
323 v. Some special problems tackled by Marketing Officers.		358 i. The problem of cultural progress.	
324 vi. The idea Trade Agencies to secure foreign markets.		359 ii. Communal harmony a favourable background.	
325 vii. The trade of the State in the last decade.		360 iii. The spread of literacy and a uniform system of education, the chief reason.	
326 viii. Customs duties during the period.		361 iv. Fostering of culture in the State by her Sovereigns.	
VIII. TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS:—	118—116	362 v. The problem dealt with in the section.	
327 i. Workers in Transport.		II. THE MAJOR COMMUNITIES:—	123—126
328 ii. Improvements in means of communication by P. W. D.		363 i. The different religious communities in the State and the disappearance of the Tribal Religionists.	
329 iii. The centralisation of motor-transport.			
330 iv. Cheapening of motor fuel.			
331 v. The Air Mail and the Trunk Telephone			
332 vi. The Installation of the new Broadcasting Station.			
333 vii. The Pallivasal Hydro-electric scheme.			

Paragraphs	Pages	Paragraph	Pages
364	i. Numerical strength of the various communities.	399	The Kammalas.
365	Their distribution by Administrative and Natural Division.	400	New names for the Pulaya and Paraya castes.
366	Their urban-rural distribution.	401	Caste-groups assuming the badge of antiquity.
367	Decennial variations in their percentage to total population.	402	Nebulous condition of caste today.
368	Explanation of statistics.	408	Decennial variations recorded in statistics of caste.
III. THE HINDUS :—		404	Caste-study on previous models not made this time.
126—133		IV. THE CHRISTIANS :—	
369	i. Statistics :—	133—141	
370	Explanation of the comparatively lower rate of increase of the Hindu population.	405	i. The different Christian denominations :—
371	Distribution of Hindus by Taluks.	405	The numerous sects of Christians in the Census returns.
ii. The Hindu faith :—		406	The foreign historical background of the Christian denominations.
372	Hinduism a combination of different indigenous cults.	407	Royal tolerance towards the Christians in the State.
373	Vedic religion.	408	Beginnings of Christianity in the State.
374	Impact of Buddhism and Jainism.	409	The early Christians in Travancore.
375	Teachings of Sri Sankaracharya.	410	Thomas of Cana and the Knanites.
376	Sri Ramanuja, Sri Madhwa and Sri Chaitanya—the Pandarpur Movement.	411	The Jacobites in the State.
377	Ram Mohan Roy and Dayananda Saraswathi—The Ramakrishna Mission and the Theosophical Society.	412	The introduction of Latin Christianity.
378	Chattampi Swamikal.	413	The Syro-Romans or Romo-Syrians.
379	Narayanana Guru Swamikal.	414	The 'Palayakoottukar' and 'Puthen-koottukar'.
iii. The Hindu Temple.		415	The Mar Thoma Syrians.
380	The importance of the temple.	416	"The Malankara Syrian Church."
381	Management of temples.	417	The survival of the Jacobite Church.
382	The temple as a centre of village life.	418	Formation of hierarchies for the Latin and Syrian Catholics.
383	The 'Kalari' associated with the temple.	419	The Syrian and Latin bishoprics in the State.
384	Disputes about temple-ownership.	420	The C. M. S. or Anglicans.
385	Assumption of temple-ownership by the State.	421	The L. M. S. and the S. I. U. C.
386	The Temple Entry Proclamation.	422	The Salvation Army.
387	Its effects.	423	Other Christian Sects.
iv. Caste :—		424	ii. Statistics of the Christian population :—
388	The scope of caste study for Census purposes.	424	Increase of Christian population in the last decade.
Factors leading to break-down of caste-barriers :—		425	Distribution of Christians by taluks.
389	Break up of the joint family system.	426	The grouping of Catholics.
390	Temple Entry Proclamation.	427	Proportion of increase of the major Christian denominations.
391	English education.	428	The population of Anglicans.
391	Emigration.	429	The Salvationists and the S. I. U. C.
392	Influence of Reform Movements like the Young Hindu and Self-Respect Movements.	430	Caste-returns of Christians.
393	External symptoms of the disappearance of caste.	431	The Christian sects of lesser strength.
394	Social symptoms :—	V. THE MUSLIMS AND OTHERS :—	
395	Efforts of communities to ignore recording of sub-castes.	141—142	
396	Identity of occupation leading to regrouping of castes, eg.	432	History of the Muslims in the State.
397	The Arayas and the Valans.	433	Their homogeneity as revealed by Census returns.
398	The Varnavas.	434	The strength and distribution of Muslims.
		435	The strength of the minor religious communities.
		VI. THE SYMPTOMS OF A CULTURAL FUSION OF SOCIETY :—	
		142—146	
		436	The uniqueness of the Malayales.

Paragraphs	Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
437		473	Evolution of Malayalam till Ezhuthachan's time.
438		474	Kunohan Nambiyar.
439		475	European missionary contribution.
440		476	Development of prose.
441		477	The first dictionaries, printing presses and newspapers.
442		478	Defects of early prose.
443		479	Emergence of Malayalam into its later simple form.
444		480	Modernisation of Malayalam prose.
445		481	Development of other literary forms.
446		482	Scientific vocabulary.
447			
448			
449			
450			
451			
452			
453			
454			
455			
456			
VII. LANGUAGE :—		VIII. LITERACY :—	
	146—153		153—165
i. Language as promoter of culture :—		i. Basis and incidence of literacy :—	
457	The problem of language.	488	Basis of literacy adopted in 1931.
458	Language a promoter and not a deterrent of cultural fusion in the State.	484	A different basis adopted in the present Census.
ii. The principal languages in vogue :—		485	How the present is a more reasonable basis.
459	The incidence of Malayalam and Tamil as principal languages.	486	Use of Logarithmic method to determine error in 1931 calculations.
460	Their varied development.	487	Findings by the new calculation.
461	English as a promoter of cultural unity.	488	Calculation spread out over literates for longer periods and its findings.
462	Growing popularity of Hindi in the State.	489	Percentage of literacy in the State.
iii. Study of Statistics on language :—		ii. Factors contributing to the spread of literacy in the last decade :—	
463	Classification of the languages spoken in the State by family and group.	490	Royal patronage of education
464	Indo-Aryan branch.	491	Increasing expenditure by Department of Education.
465	European languages.	492	State of literacy at the end of the last decade.
466	Dravidian languages.	493	Education Reforms Committee.
467	Bilingualism in respect of Malayalam and Tamil.	494	Increase, in four successive decades, of the number of elementary schools; the area served by each.
	Adaptability of those speaking the latter language.	495	Improvements effected in elementary education.
468	Incidence of languages other than Malayalam and Tamil.	496	Inspection and training of teaching staff.
469	Proportion speaking these other languages.	497	Revision of curriculum.
	Number speaking each of these as mother-tongue with either Malayalam or Tamil as subsidiary language.	498	Publication of new text books.
470	Other instances of bilingualism.	499	Introduction of Public Examinations at the end of IV Class and III Form.
471	iv. Evolution of Malayalam into its simple form as a promoter of literacy :—	500	Encouraging result of this.
472	The assimilative power of Malayalam.	501	Special provisions for education of Backward Communities.
		502	Improvements in collegiate education.
		503	Reason for separation of colleges in the State from Madras University.
		504	Plan of separate University.
		505	Example of neighbouring provinces.
		506	University Advisory Committee and University Act.
		507	Inauguration of the Travancore University.
		508	Basic principles of a people's education.

Paragraphs	Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
iii. The Statistics relating to literacy :—		541	Rivival of fine art in the State in the last decade.
509 Male and female literates.		542	Art collections in Museums and Palaces.
510 Literacy by age-group and sex.		543	Art education in the School of Arts.
511 Proportion of literacy by age-group and sex by Administrative and Natural Division.		544	The Sree Chitralaya.
512 Literacy in urban areas.		545	The Sree Swathi Thirunal Academy of Music.
513 Literacy in Municipal towns.		546	The Sree Chitrodaya Narthakalayam.
514 Literacy by Taluks.		547	Art Festival.
515 Percentage of female to male literates by age-group.		548	Royal Patronage of Art.
516 Literacy figures relating to the major communities.		XI. OTHER CULTURAL AGENCIES :—	170—172
517 Literacy by sex of the major communities.		549	The several cultural agencies functioning in the State.
518 Importance of 10—15 and 15—20 age-groups in literacy study.		550	International Conferences held in the State.
519 Literacy in these two age-groups by sex and community.		551	The All-India Women's Conference.
520 Percentage of literacy of 47 different castes and communities:		XII. CONCLUSION :—	172
521 Female literacy.		552	The cultural prospects of the State.
522 Decennial variations in percentage of literacy by sex and in 15—28 age-group in the last five Censuses.		APPENDIX I.	
523 Literacy by sex in 15—20 age-group by Administrative Division in the last five Censuses.		FERTILITY ENQUIRY.	
524 &			173—180
525 Literacy on the same basis for the different communities at the last five Censuses.		Paragraphs	
526 Literacy figures for other parts of India.		1	Enquiries in the past.
527 Literacy in English in the State.		2	Scope of enquiry in 1941.
528 Literacy in English by sex in the five Censuses by Administrative Division.		3	Social units tabulated.
529 Variations in proportion of literates in English.		4	Distribution by age and percentage of fertile married women.
530 Literacy in English by sex and community.		5	General fertility by community.
IX. THE PRESS IN THE LAST DECADE :—	165—168	6	Completed fertility by community.
i. Newspapers and periodicals :—		7	General fertility by age-group.
531 Papers and periodicals as preservers of literacy.		8	Specific birth-rates estimated.
532 Value of journals in raising linguistic standards.		9	Age at birth of first child for communities.
533 Fall registered in the last decade in the number of journals.		10	Average fertility and age at birth of first child.
534 Classification of journals by topics and language.		11	Size of family, correlated with age at birth of first child.
535 Cultural value of journals.		12	Fertility in urban and rural areas.
536 Abuse of journals.		13	General survivorship by community.
537 Future of journals.		14	Survivorship by community for women of age 45 and above.
ii. Books :—		15	Survivorship by age of mother.
538 Cultural value of books.		16	Average survivorship by age at birth of first child.
539 Fall in number of books published—prospects ahead.		17	Number surviving correlated with percentage giving births to first before 20 or 25.
X. THE RENAISSANCE OF ART :—	168—170	18	Survivorship in urban and rural areas.
540 Fine art as a cultural agent.		19	Survivorship and size of family.
		20	Percentage of families who have lost children, for each size of family.
		21	Distribution of families according to number of children born.
		22	Mode of number of children born by age-group.
		23	Distribution of families according to number of children surviving.
		24	Masculinity.
		25	General ratio of female to male children and among the first born.

CONTENTS

xv

Paragraphs	
26.	Sex-ratio of children by community.
27.	Do. of children in urban and rural areas.
28.	Do. of children by size of family.
29.	Sex of the first-born in relation to the sex-constitution of the family
30.	Sex of first-born and proportion of families in which males or females predominate.
31.	Sex of the first-born and size of family.
32.	Survivorship of males and females compared.
33.	Conclusion.

APPENDIX II.

VITAL STATISTICAL ENQUIRY

1.	Defects of existing vital statistics.
2.	Cards adopted for the enquiry.
3.	Scope of tabulation.
4.	Limitations of the enquiry.
5.	Crude birth-rate and death-rate
6.	Regional variation of birth and death-rates.
7.	Effect of age-constitution on birth and death-rates.
8.	Data required for the calculation of net reproduction-rate.
9.	Specific birth-rate by quinary group.
10.	Do. by individual age-group,
11.	Specific death-rates.
12.	Life Tables.
13.	Net reproduction rate calculated.
14.	Distribution by age and average age of married women.
15.	Duration of marriage and size of family.
16.	Birth in relation to means of livelihood.
17.	Birth-rate by community.
18.	Sex-ratio of births compared to that of population.
19.	Do. of births by age of mother, community, means of livelihood of father, rank of children and duration of marriage.
20.	Details of classification of deaths.
21.	Proportion of parents dead according to age of deceased.
22.	Average age at death of parents of the deceased.
23.	Means of livelihood in relation to deaths

Pages	Paragraphs	Pages
	24.	Death-rate by community.
	25.	Proportional distribution of deaths by age-groups and community.
	26.	Distributions of deaths by cause.
	27.	Deaths by cause in broad age-groups.
	28.	Ratio of births to deaths by month.
	29.	Do. by community.
	30.	Infantile mortality
	31.	Infantile mortality by age of mother and by community.
	32.	Still births.
	33.	Conclusion.

APPENDIX III.

RANDOM SAMPLES.

207—213

1.	Parameters of population.
2.	Necessity for estimating parameter.
3.	Defects of the Census method.
4.	Need for Sampling method.
5.	Ordinary uses of Sampling method.
6.	Variation of characteristics.
7.	Random Sampling.
8.	Comparative merits of Random and Stratified Sampling methods.
9.	Sampling methods in relation to population problems.
10.	Methods of sampling adopted.
11.	Number of slips in the Sample.
12.	Distribution by age of sample-population.
13.	Do. by civil condition.
14.	Do. by literacy.
15.	Do. by community.
16.	House-samples.
17.	Conclusion.

APPENDIX IV.

SMOOTHING (Figures for Literacy)

214—217

1.	Need for Smoothing.
2.	Regression Equation and the mathematical solution.
3.	Smoothed Table.
4.	Conclusion.

Glossary

218

Index

219—229

PART II.

IMPERIAL AND SUBSIDIARY TABLES

Pages

1—256

LIST OF MAPS AND DIAGRAMS

MAPS

No.		To face page	No.		To face page
1.	The evolution of Modern Travancore	1	5.	The distribution of main crops by taluks	82
2.	The urban-rural distribution of population	19	6.	The main industries by taluks	101
3.	The movement of population	26	7.	The principal means of communication	113
4.	The extent of cultivable and cultivated land by taluks with variations in altitude and rainfall	34	8.	Literacy by taluks, sex and community	161

DIAGRAMS

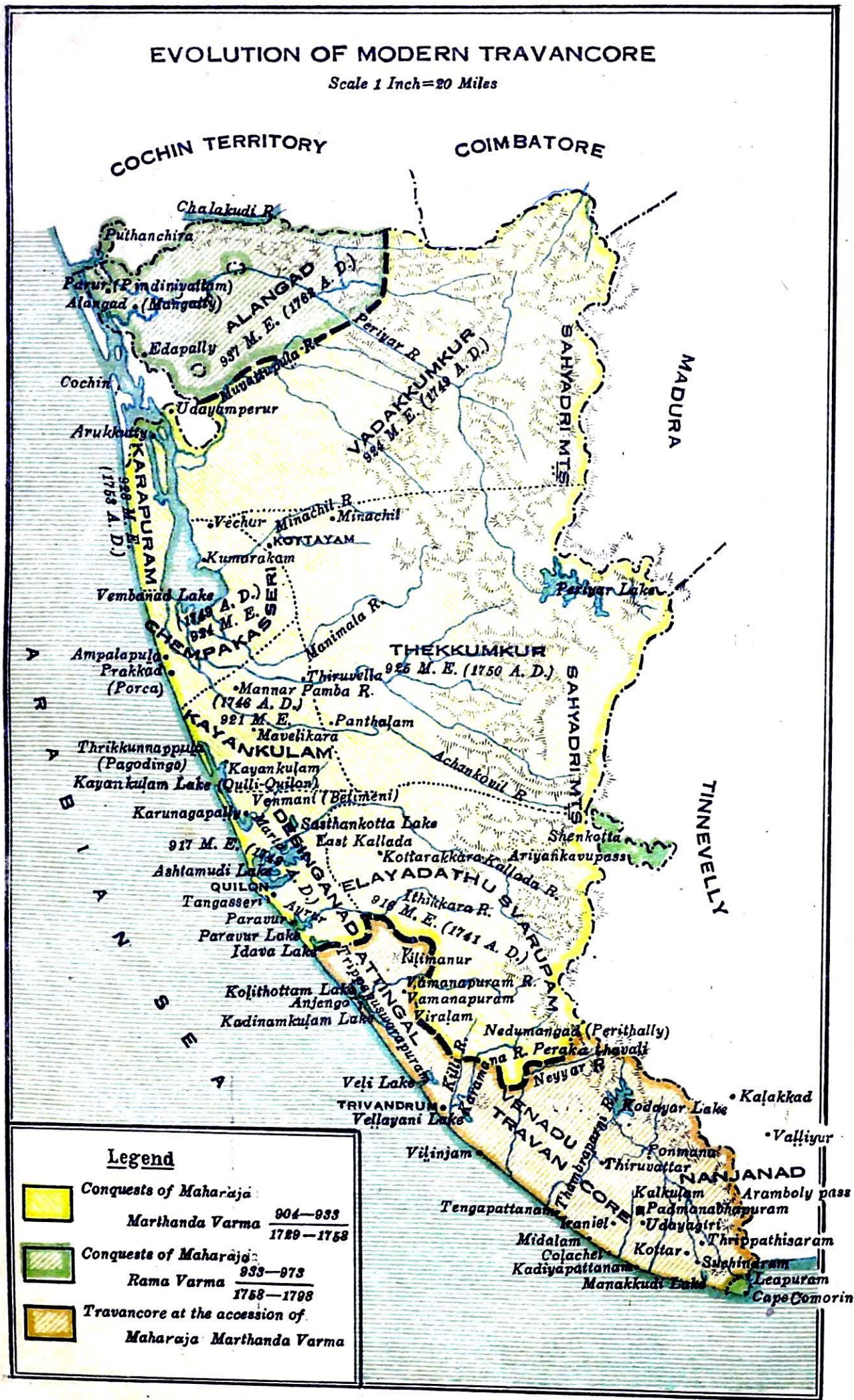
	Page		Page		
1.	Difference between Census and graduated population figures	12	17.	Distribution of workers in each sub-class as principal and subsidiary	69
2.	Annual rainfall and the annual value of agricultural products, exports and imports	14	18.	Distribution of workers in principal means of livelihood by Natural Division	71
3.	Area and population of Natural and Administrative Divisions	18	19.	Percentage of workers in 15—60 age-group by Natural Division	72
4.	Area and population of Travancore by taluks	19	20.	Proportion of male and female workers in each means of livelihood	73
5.	Population of Municipal Towns	20	21.	Proportion of workers by community	75
6.	Rate of growth of Urban population	23	22.	Variations in the proportions of agricultural workers of each class	79
7.	Density of population in Municipal Towns in 1931 and 1941	31	23.	Total cultivable, cultivated and irrigated area by Natural Division	81
8.	Percentage of cultivable and cultivated areas by taluks	32	24.	Area under cultivation of principal crops	83
9.	Histogram illustrating age-returns by sex	47	25.	Variations in proportion of industrial workers by sex	88
10.	Proportion of persons per mile in broad age-groups by sex (1891—1941)	48	26.	Distribution of workers in the principal organised industries	94
11.	Proportion of married females of the 0—15 age-group by community (1901—1941)	50	27.	Distribution of population by main community	124
12.	Sex-proportion by community (1911—1941)	52	28.	Proportion of literacy by community	161
13.	Age-distribution by sex and community	54	29.	Corridor graph to illustrate progress of literacy and education	165
14.	Sex-proportion by taluks	56			
15.	Sex-proportion of civil condition	58			
16.	Distribution of workers in means of livelihood in 1931 and 1941	68			

CORRIGENDA

Page	Paragraph	Line	For	Read
17	57	9	For percentage	Read proportion
26	91	1	„ in the densities of taluks	„ in density in the taluks
42	148	18	„ than the	„ than that of the
44	154	9	„ wible	„ while
46	160	38	„ alternately	„ alternately
54	176	4	„ that the masculinity	„ that masculinity
67	214	11	„ if the government	„ if Government
72	226	10	„ of the	„ for the
79	240	33	„ dependant	„ dependent
84	254	17	„ it	„ its
88	262	20	„ the male workers	„ the proportion of male workers
89	263	26	„ come	„ comes
108	315	19	„ have	„ have
116	341	30	„ ween	„ wean
129	390	7	„ unumber	„ number
142	438	8	„ Buddhist	„ Buddhists
„	442	3	„ indentify	„ identify
163	527	1	„ propoertion	„ proportions
177	14	16	„ Ilava	„ Ilavas
188	23	23	„ number	„ numbers
206	2	5	„ in growth of the	„ in the growth of
207	7	25	„ nivolving	„ involving
„	9	21	„ birds	„ bird's
218 (Part II)	2	1	„ 84'6	„ 84'7
„	„	2	„ 14'6	„ 14'4
„	„	„	„ 0'8	„ 0'9
„	„	5	„ 0'2	„ 0'8

EVOLUTION OF MODERN TRAVANCORE

Scale 1 Inch=20 Miles



CENSUS OF TRAVANCORE

1941

INTRODUCTORY

Political circumstances no less than geographical situation determined the course of the evolution of modern Travancore. Nature helped her much in the work of political consolidation. The Arabian Sea washes her western shores; the Western Ghats protect her eastern boundary. The sea and the mountains meet in the extreme south where the country tapers down almost to a point. Here the forbidding rocks, the outstretched arms of the Western Ghats, and the tumultuous sea proclaim their joint responsibility in guarding this much-prized land. The Western Ghats barred the way against a hostile army from the east except in the extreme south where the low altitude permitted the passage of a foreign army. It was fortunate, therefore, for Travancore that the work of conquest and consolidation proceeded from the south to the north. With Vīlinjam, Coçachel and Leapuram bringing in all the wealth to the country by foreign trade and the loyal marcher lords effectively guarding the south-east frontier against foreign invasions, the Kings of Travancore found the work of conquest of the territories further north comparatively easy. If conquest had proceeded from the north to the south, it is more than doubtful if Travancore would ever have been consolidated into a unified kingdom. The menace from the south which adjoined the powerful kingdoms beyond the Ghats would have stood against any attempt at consolidation. Further, the Portuguese and the Dutch would certainly have been tempted to pursue a policy of territorial aggrandisement if they had not encountered a strong ruler in the south.

2. It was a fortunate circumstance again that Travancore was never under the domination of a

foreign ruler, long enough for him to impose a foreign civilization or a foreign culture on this land. The successes that attended the armies of the conquering Cholas and the Pandyas were only short-lived and the territories which came under their temporary sway slipped back to normal life under their old rulers almost immediately the army of occupation withdrew. The development of a cultural unity thus rendered possible considerably facilitated the political consolidation which came in later. It was another stroke of good fortune that the territories to the north of Travancore were ruled by Kings whose cultural kinship with Travancore made the chances of irreconcilable hostility and a war of extermination very remote. Otherwise what happened to Vijayanagar at Talikota might have been repeated here also if a powerful ruler, alien in civilization and in culture, had ruled over the territories which were under the sway of the Raja of Cochin and the Zamorin of Calicut. Cochin acted as a buffer between Travancore and Malabar. If to the north of Travancore the powerful Zamorin with his vast territories had ruled and Cochin had been flung to the north of Malabar, the history of Travancore would, perhaps, have been different. Except for occasional jealousies, Cochin has always stood with Travancore; and the great and valuable help rendered to Cochin by Maharaja Rama Varma, when the Zamorin from the north had occupied practically the whole State, cemented this friendship.

3. The policy pursued by Travancore in relation to the East India Company, which later on became the Suzerain Power in India, secured for the State a valuable and powerful ally. In the

work of political consolidation, this friendship was of great importance in strengthening the hands of the rulers against their enemies.

4. Early in the 18th century, Travancore, after having secured control over the south, started on a career of expansion. Marthanda Varma, the maker of modern Travancore, aided by his talented nephew, Prince Rama Varma, and his faithful Dalawa, Rama Iyen, took the conquering armies of the State to the borders of Cochin. The victorious king thereafter set his hands to consolidate his kingdom and give it peace and prosperity. The shrewd ruler realised that the claims of conquest could only be temporary and that the State should be established on firmer foundations if it were to survive. The *Thrippadidanam* performed by His Highness was a master-stroke of political sagacity. The ancient lineage of His Highness and his unbroken succession from the great Cheras of South India, the extent of the territory which came under his sway by the might of his armies and the spiritual position which he occupied as a result of the *Thrippadidanam*, gave him a position of unrivalled supremacy in Travancore. Even the people who lived in the territories which he had conquered found in their new Sovereign not a military adventurer or an ambitious Viceroy of a foreign potentate, but one who combined in himself spiritual exaltation, high birth and tradition, martial valour and heroism. The Ruler assumed the role of the Sovereign of the State and ceased to be *primus inter pares*. As the trustee of Sri Padmanabha he succeeded in securing implicit obedience from the feudal hierarchy. His authority was, however, based on the willing support of the people. The victories which Marthanda Varma won over the feudal nobility, who became restive on account of the restrictions placed upon their political independence, were mainly the result of the unstinted support which he had from the large majority of the people in the land. The traditional loyalty of the Travancoreans to the Rulers has

contributed not a little to the uninterrupted monarchical rule in Travancore in contrast to the chequered history of the kingdoms beyond the Ghats. The great Cholas, the Pandyas and the Pallavas, who founded empires in South India have recorded their once-mighty rule only in inscriptions and in monuments. No king today rules over the land which was ruled by Raja Raja the Great, Nedumjelijan or Narasimha Varman, while in Travancore the monarchy is centuries old, tracing its descent from the Great Cheras of South India. Marthanda Varma's role as an administrator is even more brilliant than his achievements as a conqueror. History has recorded his intense personal interest in improving the lot of the cultivator by opening up irrigation works, improving means of communication and introducing reforms in the collection of revenue and the administration of justice. Monarchical absolutism was thus established in law and institutions. His personal example of dedication to the public weal was consistently followed by his illustrious successors.

5. If the conquering hero had died without a competent successor, Travancore would not have risen to the eminence which she attained in the latter half of the 18th century. Maharaja Kartika Thirunal, popularly acclaimed as the '*Dharma Raja*' not only inherited the martial traditions of his illustrious house but proved himself to be as able a statesman as his great predecessor. His conquests of Alangad and Parur, the two taluks adjoining the Cochin State, secured for Travancore a strategic boundary against invasion from the north, (See map on the evolution of modern Travancore) while the acquisition of the taluk of Shenkotta more than made up for the loss of Kalacaud and Valliyur further south. The invasion of Travancore by the redoubtable Sultan of Mysore put the new-founded kingdom to an acid test. The conquering army of Tippu Sultan, after subjugating the Zamorin and reducing to vassalage the chiefs of the various principalities further south, right up to the borders of Travancore,

met with a different fate at the hands of the State militia under the able generalship of Raja Kesava Das. Tippu's ignominious retreat saved the State from a crisis which would have embroiled her in the disastrous consequences attendant upon the revival of feudal anarchy and arrested her progressive development to a considerable extent. The Maharaja was left in peace after this to pursue unhindered his far-reaching schemes of consolidation and reform. Since the repulse of Tippu Sultan, the State has enjoyed comparative peace and security from foreign invasion. During this long period she made steady and rapid progress under a galaxy of illustrious Rulers who identified themselves completely with the interests and aspirations of the people.

6. The State had also the unique advantage of being ably served during this formative period by a succession of warrior-statesmen as Ministers, whose sense of duty and attachment to the throne are chronicled in the heart of every Travancorean and whose sacrifices in their country's cause are commemorated in ballads and folklore.

7. The Sovereigns placed implicit trust in their able and patriotic Ministers and this paved the way for the gradual, yet unconscious, evolution of the constitutional convention 'the King can do no wrong'. This healthy convention has resulted in the development of constitutional monarchy in Travancore. Broad-based on the instinctive loyalty of the people, screened off from public criticism by the spiritual exaltation of the Ruler, combined with the convention of ministerial responsibility, tucked away from the rest of India by the protecting wings of the Western Ghats, monarchy in Travancore retained its prestige and popularity against the dark days of chaos and confusion which came in the wake of the downfall of the Moghul Empire.

8. When the political horizon cleared by the progressive establishment of British supremacy in India, Travancore had in the Suzerain Power an old ally and a trusted friend.

9. The heritage of administrative efficiency gave momentum to the economic development of

the country. The economic problems connected with a growing population came within the purview of Government from very early times. Though systematic census-taking began only in the latter half of the 19th century, the idea of counting heads and correlating the results to the resources of the country is at least two centuries old.

10. It will be clear from the above that political history is intimately connected with the economic prosperity of the State. Travancore, rich in natural resources, was a tempting prize for the ambitious rulers beyond the Ghats who hovered round it. The maritime nations who coveted its wealth were anxious for its possession. The State could thus have been the cockpit of South India, a covetable prize for any successful adventurer who might be able to defeat and subdue his rivals in the field. Economic ruin would have been the fate of this rich country if such a calamity had fallen to her lot. By the close of the 18th century she was out of this danger; and the 19th century left her free to develop her vast resources with the active and consistent support of the Suzerain Power. The 20th century saw her assuming the role of a 'Model State' in India, with her high percentage of literacy and commendable progress made in the nation-building activities of a modern civilized State. It was left to our gracious Maharaja in the last decade, to raise to glorious eminence this magnificent edifice steadily reared by the patient and self-sacrificing efforts of His Highness's illustrious ancestors in the past.

11. Maharaja Marthanda Varma gave Travancore a geographical unity as a result of his conquests. (See map on evolution of modern Travancore). The Sahyadris cover half of its northern and the whole of its eastern frontiers tapering down to Cape Comorin in the South. The Arabian Sea flanks its long western boundary. The 7,662 sq. miles of territory within these frontiers can broadly be divided into three natural regions, the Highland, the Midland and the Lowland. This physical configuration is responsible for the

varieties in climate and vegetation. Lord Curzon, when he visited the State in 1900, described this country in his inimitable language. "Here nature has spent upon the land her richest bounties, the sun fails not by day, the rain falls in due season and an eternal summer gilds the scene. Where the land is capable of cultivation, there is no denser population; where it is occupied by jungle, backwater or lagoon, there is no more fairly land scape." No extremes of climate are experienced and no barren waterless tracts exist. The natural regions are interspersed from the east to the west by a large number of rivers. Those in the north and central regions are longer and broader and are navigable to country boats for more than half their length, while the rivers in the south, though not used very much as means of communication, yet afford some scope for the development of irrigation.

12. The alluvial silt, brought down by these rivers from the rich mountains from which they rise, has, through long centuries, made the Lowland area immensely fertile. The sandy coast in the Lowland region is wonderfully suited for coconuts. The 'smell of the sea' is very helpful to the growth of the coconut palm and the periodic monsoons feed it with water. The fisher-folk live along this narrow belt. The annual yield of more than 90,000 tons of fish is equal to the catch in Sweden and Denmark put together with all their improved facilities for deep-sea fishing. Here is a source of wealth with possibilities for immense development. To the large number of poor people who live along the shores, fish forms an almost indispensable item of food. To the east of the sandy belt lie the rich rice-fields with coconut groves scattered about in areas less clayey but better suited for the coconut palm. To an aerial observer this area will appear as one long green belt with the foliage of the coconut palm decorating the top, the placid lakes and the green fields lending colour and charm to this tumultuous profession of vegetation. The Midland region occupies more than a third of the State with an

area of 2,722 sq. miles. A temperate and bracing climate with plentiful rainfall has made the Midland so densely populated. The Highland region is mostly covered with forests. Out of an area of 3,566 sq. miles, only 496 sq. miles are actually under cultivation. The evergreen forests present an exuberant variety of tropical vegetation. In the north, the mountains rise to a height of over 8,000 ft. Anamudy the highest peak being 8,841 ft. above sea level. The cooler climate of the hills has attracted the Europeans. The major portion in this area is taken up by tea, coffee and cardamom plantations.

13. To one who views Travancore as a whole, there unfolds before the eye a vast amphitheatre, the land rising tier upon tier, the top terrace skirting the Sahyadris at a height of over 8,000 ft. above sea level. In between these several terraces, the fertile valleys form a suitable area for the cultivation of rice, the staple food of the large population, and coconut and pepper, the chief money-crops available to the large majority of the common people of the land. The ubiquitous tapioca has kept famine away from the doors of thousands of people during successive years. Few of the millions who live on tapioca during times of scarcity, when through freaks of nature the crops fail, realise that the introduction of this crop in Travancore was the result of the patient research of a benevolent Ruler who squeezed into the short span of five years the work of a lifetime. The rice produced in the State is sufficient to meet only just over 40 per cent. of the requirements of the State. At no time has the State realised this so keenly as during the present war when the stoppage of the import from Burma is threatened. The anxiety of the State in this respect is seen in the prompt measures taken for the further development of *Kayal* reclamations by the supply of cheap electric power to work the innumerable pumps and in the experiments made to bring more and more acres under double-crop by lift irrigation. Rice requires plenty of water while double-crop lands require it practically throughout the year. The large number of rivers which

irrigate these fields will run dry unless there is plentiful rainfall. In Travancore rainfall is fairly good except in the extreme south, where the rich fields of Nanjanad are irrigated by the Kothayar Project. The rainfall varies from 75" to 100" near the coast, rises to about 150" at the foot of the hills and goes up to 180" in the mountainous regions. In the south, the improvements of the *Pandyan Kal* and the *Puthenar* irrigation works by Marthanda Varma have allayed, to a certain extent, the anxiety of the ryots about the supply of water to the rice-fields in Kalkulam and Vilavancode taluks. Schemes are also under the consideration of Government to augment the supply of water in the *Pechappara* reservoir which feeds the rich fields of Nanjanad and Edanad. By the improvements now effected, and with the completion of the irrigation schemes proposed, it may be possible almost to double the yield of paddy in the course of a few years. If the country has to be safe from starvation during periods of international crisis, the only method is to cultivate every inch of land and increase the yield by the introduction of scientific methods. The disappearance of the small landowner should be the prelude to this agricultural revolution which will usher in the era of scientific agriculture, with its large farms, steam plough, chemical manure and rotation of crops.

14. The rich variety of the money crops produced in the State is, in a large measure, responsible for the favourable economic balance sheet of the agriculturist from year to year. Ginger, pepper and rubber of the Midland, coffee, cardamom and tea of the Highland are sources of wealth which have not been fully developed. The forests produce a variety of good timber, teak, blackwood and other species of hard wood, which is a fruitful source of revenue to the State. In reeds and softwood, we have almost a monopoly in South India. These resources are only just being tapped and a careful and economic plan for their exploitation will bring in large revenue to the State.

15. The country is rich in minerals of a variety found in few other places in India. Monazite, ilmenite, zircon and rutile which are found along the coast, and mica and plumbago in the Midlands are minerals for most of which Travancore can claim a monopoly. The rich deposits of clay at Kundara (Midland) and the variety of uses to which it can be put, prestage a branch of industrial activity which will not only enhance the revenue of the State but will solve the problem of unemployment to a certain extent. Travancore is rich in what has been called in America, 'White Coal.' The courses of her rivers make the development of this form of energy possible. Rushing down through steep gorges they afford convenient facilities for the development of Hydro-Electric power. In the survey conducted by the State to find out the possibilities for this, it was discovered that there are at least seven rivers by the harnessing of which power could be generated. Only one of these has, so far, been tapped and that is the Muthirapula river. The Pallivasal Scheme is able to supply cheap power to several centres in North and Central Travancore and also to the Cochin State. Cheap power is bound to play an important part in the industrialisation of the State and even if every town and hamlet develops into a bee-hive of industry, it will not suffer for want of cheap electric power. When it is realised that the State possesses no coal deposits, her policy of progressive industrialisation could not be said to have made any headway if nature had not given her in her mountain torrents potential sources of an almost unlimited reserve of electric power.

16. Down below in their passage through the Midland, the rivers afford facilities for the cheap transport of agricultural produce and timber which are grown on their banks. The lift irrigation which has been made possible by the supply of power from Pallivasal will help to provide enough water to several acres of high level lands which require only that to make them fit.

for cultivation. When the rivers reach the Lowland, they deposit all their accumulated silt, thus increasing the natural fertility of the plains besides affording cheap and easy means of communication.

17. The lie of the land has considerably influenced the development of communications. In the Lowland, the navigable rivers and lakes have, from very early times, been the chief means of communication. It is possible to travel by boat from Trivandrum right up to the frontier of Cochin. This route was considered important not only for passenger traffic but for purposes of commerce as well. Large sums of money were expended during successive decades for constructing and improving canals which link up the lakes and rivers. Nearly ten out of the thirty taluks of the State are benefited by this route. Even today rice, pepper, rubber, coconuts, vegetables and a host of other commodities are transported by the cheaper native craft inspite of the severe competition of motor transport. This cheap, though slow, means of transport which was available from very early times must have contributed not a little to the development of the Lowland region where the density of population has been the highest in successive decades.

18. Travancore roughly takes the shape of an isosceles triangle with its apex in the south and its base in the north and hence in engineering projects for developing the means of communication one must take into account the length of the State from north to south. The three main roads radiate from the capital to the north. The West Coast Road runs almost parallel to the sea through the taluks of Quilon, Karunagappally, Karthikappally, Mavelikara, Ambalapula and Sherthala and terminates at Aroor in the Sherthala taluk from where there are barely two furlongs of water to cross over to the Cochin territory. The Main Central Road (155 miles) passes through the taluks of Trivandrum, Nedumangad, Chirayinkil, Kottarakkara, Kunnathur, Thiruvella, Changanachery, Kottayam, Minachil,

Muvattupula and Kunnathunad and terminates at the Kaladi ferry (see map on communications) very near the Cochin frontier. The Trivandrum-Shenkotta road passes through the taluks of Trivandrum, Nedumangad, Pathanapuram and Shenkotta where it joins the British territory.

19. Roads form the chief means of communication in South Travancore where there are practically no navigable rivers or lakes. The wisdom of an illustrious Maharaja conceived the plan of connecting Colachel with Trivandrum by water. The *Anantha Victoria Marthandan Canal* formed the beginning of a system of waterways designed for the transport of heavy goods to the markets of South India from the safe harbour of Colachel. The development of this natural harbour and the improvement of this canal would be a boon to South Travancore almost in equal measure as the Kothayar Irrigation Project, which has converted large tracts of uncultivated lands into the rich rice-fields of today. The 54 miles of magnificent dustless road which runs from Trivandrum to Cape Comorin may, in time, with the development of Colachel harbour and the waterways connecting it, help in the re-establishment of commercial supremacy which South Travancore enjoyed in the early centuries.

20. So far the system of main roads and waterways has been described which link up the various parts of Travancore. In addition to the chief means of communication mentioned above there is a net-work of roads which link up the rural areas with the main roads. There is hardly another State or Province in India which has been spending during successive years such large portions of its revenue on Public Works. Public Instruction and Public Works have together taken up practically fifty per cent. of the revenues of the State. It is no wonder, therefore, that the State has 4,689 miles of excellent road providing on the average 9 mile of road for 1 sq. mile of territory (excluding Reserve Forests). There are 679 bridges to facilitate road traffic. It is possible to traverse by car the entire length of the State from

Cape Comorin to Parur, a distance of 200 odd miles in the course of an afternoon without having to suffer the irritating inconveniences of a ferry. If the present scheme of bridges is completed, there will be no necessity for ferries even for those who use the branch roads.

21. The only railway within the State is the Trivandrum—Shencottah railway which covers a distance of 99 miles. The network of canals and backwaters along with an excellent road system throughout the State has rendered it uneconomical, to undertake any extension of the railway scheme within the State.

22. The progressive programme of the State in the development of the means of communication has successfully tackled the problem of bringing Travancore nearer to the rest of India. The Trunk Telephone with its ramifications within the State, connecting the important mofussil centres with the capital city, has brought the rest of India also nearer. The State has, in the last ten years, been getting more and more air-minded to keep pace with the rest of the world and already there are two aerodromes, one at the capital and the other at Quilon. There is a regular weekly service from Trivandrum to Bombay. If the war had not intervened, air services would have been considerably expanded.

23. The maritime activity of the State in overseas trade and commerce has unfortunately not been in proportion to her long coastline. Leapuram, Colachel and Vīlinjam had seen prosperous days; yet circumstances have helped in the development of the harbour in the neighbouring State of Cochin. Though trade follows the flag, if it is left alone, cheaper and easier communications will determine its trend. Travancore in the 16th, 17th and even in the 18th centuries had a virtual monopoly of the sea-borne trade in South India. With the development of Tuticorin and Madras, trade shifted from the west to the east and we ceased to be the common carriers

for South India. It has been the attempt of successive administrations to regain lost ground. Large sums of money have been spent in developing the Alleppey, Quilon and Trivandrum ports and in constructing the Pirmede and Pallivasal roads, to stimulate and enrich trade and commerce.

24. Travancore once had a good share in the coastal trade. Her *Pathamars* (country-made boats) carried on a thriving trade not only between the ports of Travancore but even with far-off Surat and Bombay. The steamship practically eliminated this trade and the serious difficulties encountered in the last few years, chiefly during the last war, have convinced the authorities of the necessity of resuscitating this form of sea-borne trade. With the revival of interest noticeable throughout India towards the development of an Indian Navy and the improvement of her mercantile marine, Travancore, as a maritime State, will have in the near future to play an important role.

25. The rapid development of communications has, to a certain extent, removed the isolation of the village. This also considerably influenced the urbanisation of the more flourishing villages. The present census has disclosed that there are as many as 163 places where the population is over 5,000. Though all these places have not been officially grouped under towns, yet they partake of most of the characteristics of an urbanised area. The number of such places has increased from 17 in 1901 to 163 in 1941. This rapid urbanisation accounts for the comparative absence of the village system, which is such a marked feature in the countries beyond the Ghats. The traveller will be struck by the almost uninterrupted chain of houses on either side of the road from Cape Comorin to the northern boundaries of the State. Ibn Batuta observed that "it is not a place of villages but every man will have his own garden and home

in the midst of it." The individual in Travancore is usually identified, not so much by his personal as by his family name, which will invariably bear the name of the locality in which his family home is situated. A cluster of houses in a few square miles, then vast expanses of uninhabited fields, plains and meadows for miles together and then another cluster of houses form the characteristic feature of the British territory adjoining Travancore. These characteristics appear only in those fringes of territory which adjoin the British tracts, as in Shenkotta in the east and Nagercoil and Thovala in the south. Professor Vinogradoff told me on his return to Oxford after visiting Travancore that he was particularly struck by the 'walled houses' he saw in endless succession from one end of the country to the other.

26. The circumstances that necessitated the evolution of the village in South India did not exist in Travancore. The net-work of rivers and lakes in the Lowlands induced the essentially agricultural population to distribute themselves in the arable area. The comparative peace and security which they enjoyed from very early times worked in favour of scattered holdings. It may be mentioned in passing that, even during the troublous days when chieftain fought chieftain, the cultivator was left in peace and the smiling fields, the main source of his wealth, were not destroyed by the combatant armies. They wisely refrained from killing the goose which laid the golden egg. When population moved out to new fields and pastures due to increasing numbers, the adventurous pathfinders and pioneers took with them the scattered-holding tradition.

27. The system of taxation has worked towards the elimination of the individuality of the village system. The Travancore rulers never adopted a system of farming their revenues and entrusting the collection to unscrupulous adventurers. Land-tax was an important source of revenue and the central government framed

detailed regulations for its just and fair collection without leaving it to the whims and caprices of the village officer. It will be seen from the above that forces were at work even from very early times towards progressive centralisation. There was no dearth of talent in the State and it was possible to recruit capable and honest persons for serving in the different branches of administration. This, combined with the desire of the rulers to root out corruption and incompetence compensated, to a certain extent, for the absence of village life with its possibilities of developing local independence and administrative experience. But for this early centralisation, the *jenmi* with his customary rights and vested interests, owning practically the whole of the village, would have presented a serious problem and a practical menace to the administration. The '*jenmi*' is the heritage of feudal times; and but for the strong arms of the central government, he would have turned out to be an oppressor of the people. His potent weapon of eviction was a sword of Damocles hanging over the heads of a number of tenants under him. The courts of law were powerless; for, custom in Travancore was "transcendental law." The *Jenmi Kudiyan Act* passed in 1896 by the Travancore Legislature took away most of the arbitrary powers from the all-powerful *jenmi* giving to thousands of tenants in Travancore security of possession and freedom from illegal eviction. This piece of legislation is hailed as the *Magna Carta* of the ryots in Travancore. The progress of centralisation has, on the whole, been for the benefit of the people. No rude shock was given during this process to custom and convention, the State interfering only in cases of miscarriage of justice. The development of Kingship in Travancore bears a close parallel to that in England in the 12th and 13th centuries. The King never permitted himself to be considered as a feudal overlord in the position of a *primus inter pares*. He was a Sovereign and the rest of his people were his subjects, including those

who owned vast territories and exercised considerable influence in the locality. The chieftains or the Rulers of the various principalities which were brought under the political control of Travancore were subjects first, and whatever privilege or prestige they enjoyed, was the result of sufferance by the Sovereign, not to be claimed as a right. The Sovereigns on their part used their power and prestige for the benefit of the State and for the welfare of their subjects.

28. This democratic basis of monarchy in Travancore is responsible for the early introduction of popular legislatures whose constitutional position and privileges have developed from decade to decade. The legislature inaugurated by a Royal Proclamation in 1888 was the first of its kind in an Indian State. This epoch-making event was the happy prologue of the glorious reign of a Maharaja who, in the words of an eminent British Resident, "was orthodox but tolerant, retiring but not inaccessible, diffident in manner but decided in his views, simple but dignified" and during whose long and eventful reign the State was placed in the vanguard of

progressive India. The membership and functions of this legislature were enlarged in 1898, 1919 and 1921. During the last decade, important changes were introduced in the constitution and functions of the legislature. For the first time a bicameral legislature was constituted in an Indian State. The Lower House is elected on a very wide franchise. The political disabilities of women have been removed and in the matter of voting no distinction is maintained. The Upper House is elected on a more restricted franchise. In both houses there is a non-official majority. Powers to initiate and pass legislation, discuss the annual budget, interpellate Government and ask supplementary questions on matters of general public interest are vested in both houses. The verdict of the House is respected by Government. The new legislature with enlarged powers has ushered in an era of intense legislative activity. The attention of the legislature has been focussed on all aspects of the life of the people. Its record of legislative achievement in the social, political and economic spheres has, under the inspiring guidance of a scholar-statesman, far outstripped that of the 'Councils' of the previous decades.

GENERAL.

29. The Census taken on 1st March 1941 has recorded a population of 6,070,018. This figure represents the population actually present within the boundaries of the State on the Census date. The counting was done in two stages—the Preliminary and the Final. The simultaneous enumeration of 1931 was not followed in the final counting. The final count was spread over a period of one week, when a further checking of what was recorded at the Preliminary enumeration was made. The non-simultaneous enumeration enabled the staff to visit each house again during the week and scrutinise the cards further and make the necessary corrections on account of births and deaths, arrivals and departures, etc. in the interval between the preliminary and the final enumeration. This system also made it possible to dispense with the enrolment of a large number of (35,981 in 1931) inexperienced enumerators for the final counting and avoided the possibility of double enumeration.

30. Every effort was made to ensure that a correct record was obtained at the final census. Even before the preliminary enumeration, the normal resident population of the State was ascertained by means of a house register, prepared by the subordinates of the Revenue Department. Casual visitors and servants and inmates of special institutions like jails, lock-ups, hospitals and asylums, were not included in this register. The resident population thus recorded numbered 5,846,179.

31. The preliminary enumeration was started on 1st December 1940 after the completion of the house register. It took six weeks to complete the work. According to the preliminary enumeration, a population of 5,920,088 was recorded. This figure included servants and visitors, who were expected to stay on till after 1st March, but not included in the house register. The population of special blocks like hospitals, jails, lock-ups and asylums, and a few estates in which migration of labour was expected before the pre-

liminary enumeration was over, was however excluded from the count. It was possible, therefore, to check the figures with those of the house register by the data obtained at the preliminary enumeration. A third checking was possible during the final census. Thus every attempt was made to secure the maximum degree of accuracy. The figures obtained at the final census have also been tested by the latest statistical methods and the results have provided further amplification of the reliability of the present figures.

32. In framing the family budget, the intelligent householder will have to take into account the number of children and adults, male and female, who are dependent upon the earning members in the family or, to put it in the census language, he will have to distribute his family into convenient age-groups and divide them into fully dependent, partly dependent and independent, if he has to spend his income wisely and well. Though such a conscious systematisation in the allotment of the family income is not generally practised, yet a similar process is being unconsciously worked out in the expenditure of the family income. What obtains in the family should, in much larger measure, exist in the State where the process should be deliberate and definitely systematic as it deals not with private fortunes but with public revenue.

33. No scheme for the improvement of the primary education of a country can possibly be undertaken without knowing the number of children below 10; or if a campaign is to be started for the improvement of adult literacy, we must have some estimate of the adult population that can be brought under this scheme. Similarly, in any economic scheme for the improvement of the wealth and welfare of the people, a correct estimate of the gainful workers in a country is essential before the scheme could be given any definite shape. In any public health programme to bring under control the periodic epidemics which devastate the country, a correct estimate

of the population under broad age-groups is essential. A thorough scrutiny of the figures under broad age-groups is therefore imperative, as otherwise it will considerably dislocate the administrative machinery if schemes are formulated and policies shaped on insufficient data. An attempt is therefore made to show in proper perspective the trends in the growth of population.

34. The population recorded in 1941 shows an increase of 19.1 per cent. over that of 1931. The population of 1941 consists of (i) the survivors of the 1931 population and (ii) the survivors in the 0—10 age-group of 1941. So the increase in population can mostly be accounted for by the number of children surviving in the age-group 0—10, the effect of migration being negligible. The survivors in 0—10 group in 1941 number 1713,291. Normally the proportion of this group to the total population cannot be expected to show violent fluctuations from decade to decade. The subjoined table gives the proportion of the

Proportion of the 0—10 group per mille of the total population.

Year.	Number per mille of total population.
1901	263
1911	270
1921	268
1931	304
1941	282

0—10 group per thousand of the total population during successive decades from 1901.

35. It will be noticed that in 1931 the 0—10 group shows an erratic increase. To locate the erratic increase more definitely the quinary group 0—5 where the infant mortality rate is fairly high and the 0—1 group where the infant mortality rate is at the maximum, were analysed and the subjoined tables give the proportion of these two groups per thousand

Proportion of the 0—5 group per mille of the total population.		Proportion of the 0—1 group per mille of the total population.	
1901	132		
1911	136	1911	26.2
1921	133	1921	27.8
1931	172	1931	41.6
1941	145	1941	28.4

of the total population. A more pronounced increase is noticeable in these age-groups in 1931.

36. Whether this erratic increase is seen in the other age-groups also during successive decades was then examined. It will be clear from the subjoined table that the proportion of the population in the other age-groups during these decades keeps fairly normal.

Age-group.	Proportion per mille of total population.				
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941
0—5	132.0	135.8	132.8	172.1	144.6
5—10	131.2	134.0	135.2	132.1	137.7
10—15	118.4	121.7	127.6	121.8	123.2
15—20	98.4	95.3	98.2	95.7	102.5
20—25	88.0	88.0	91.2	90.5	86.9
25—30	95.4	90.8	87.0	76.4	76.9
30—35	75.4	70.7	68.8	70.8	67.2
35—40	69.8	67.9	65.8	56.6	59.1
40—45	54.8	52.2	51.4	49.4	49.0
45—50	42.5	42.9	42.6	38.2	41.5
50—55	35.9	33.7	34.1	32.6	32.8
55—60	21.4	23.4	22.2	23.3	26.2
60 and above	42.3	43.6	43.6	41.5	47.4

37. This fluctuation is most pronounced in the percentage of increase of the 0—5 group from decade to decade as will be clear from the subjoined table. The Census Commissioner for 1931

The percentage increase of the 0—5 group from 1901.

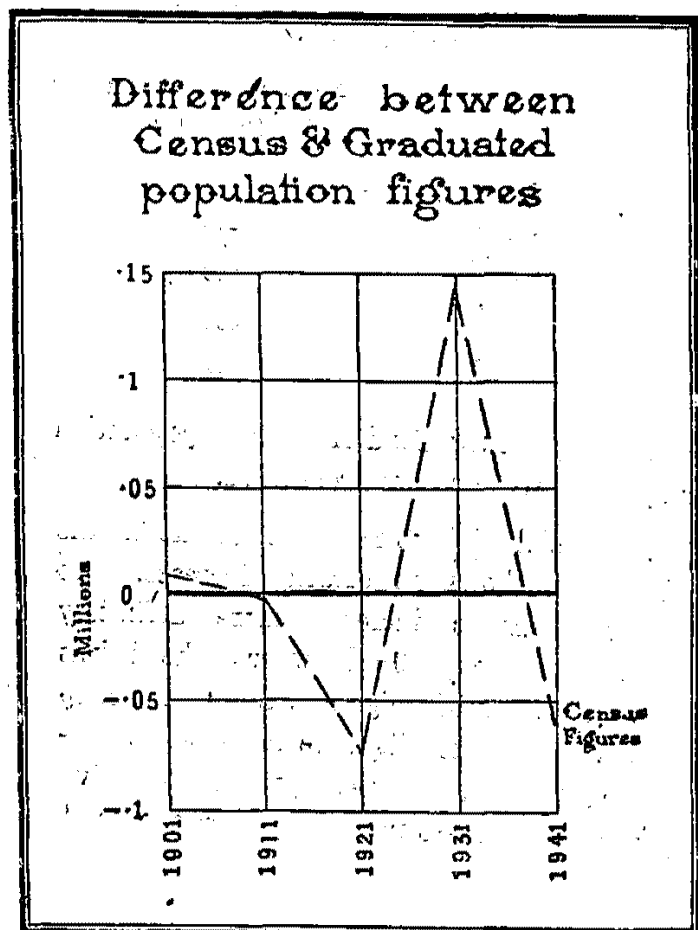
1901—11	19.6
1911—21	14.2
1921—31	64.8
1931—41	0.03

has stated in explanation that there was under-enumeration in 1921. The method of calculation adopted by him in explaining the shooting up of the 1931 figures above the general trend was adopted for testing the corresponding figures for 1941. The 0-5 group of 1931 becomes the 10-15 group of 1941. In calculating the survivorship in this group, I had the advantage of testing the accuracy of the enumeration of 1941 with the help of the data obtained by the survey of vital occurrences conducted along with the present Census.

38. The Vital Statistics Enquiry on the Sampling basis disclosed a crude mortality-rate of 15 per thousand and a birth-rate of 28 per thousand. Calculated on this basis, 877,242 under 0-5 group in 1931 shows a distinct over-estimation. The above points tend towards the confirmation of an eccentricity noticeable in the age-group 0—5 and most pronounced in the age-group 0—1 in 1931. It may be added that in the social or economic conditions prevailing in Travancore, there seems to have happened nothing extraordinary or unusual which tended to a violent fluctuation in the birth-rate. The variations in the percentage of married women between 15 and 40 to the total female population from decade to decade also do not warrant such a marked fluctuation as has been noticed in 1931 (*vide* Subsidiary Table (iii) on Imperial Table VII). The improvement in the public health conditions of the State, as disclosed by the annual administration reports of the Public Health Department in the last decade, has resulted in a definite increase in survivorship. The almost complete absence of early marriages and the better knowledge of health and hygiene as a result of the increasing literacy and intensive propaganda have considerably reduced infantile mortality. The Vital Statistics Enquiry has disclosed a crude death-rate of 15 in a thousand which is a considerable improvement on the conditions prevailing a decade ago. Even granting that the conditions in 1921-1931 were as bright as those of the last decade, it does not warrant a number above 823,000 in 1931 in 0—5 group.

39. The results of the Vital Statistics Enquiry, which was conducted along with the present Census and which extended for nearly one year, were compared with the number of births according to the population census to verify if the figure for 1941 is correct. The actual number of births in the 28 centres selected for the special enquiry for one year was 7,432. The census population of the area between 0-1 was 7,446. The almost absolute agreement between these two figures is a further indication of the accuracy of the enumeration in 1941.

40. The fluctuations indicated above make it necessary to ascertain correctly the trends in the growth of population since 1901 before we can definitely establish the actual percentage of increase in the last decade. The figures from 1901 have been graduated to determine the exact trend in the growth of population. The following diagram represents the difference between the census figures and the graduated figures.



41. From the graduated figures it becomes clear that the trends in the growth of population have been keeping normal. The percentage of error has been found to be almost negligible for 1941 ('98) which further confirms the accuracy of the enumeration (*vide* subjoined table). When according to graduation the percentage of increase from 1921 is reduced from 27.2 to 21.4

YEAR.	Census figures		Graduated figures.		Percent- age of error.
	Popu- lation.	Percent- age increase.	Popu- lation.	Percent- age increase.	
1901	2,952,157	..	2,943,229	..	0.30
1911	3,428,975	16.2	3,430,063	16.5	0.03
1921	4,006,062	16.8	4,080,662	18.9	1.83
1931	5,095,973	27.2	4,952,739	21.4	2.89
1941	6,070,018	19.1	6,130,245	23.8	0.98

the percentage for the last decade will automatically rise from 19.1 to 23.8.

42. The rate of growth of population recorded during the present decade has, however, been lower than that during the previous decade. The changes in the decennium in the operation of the factors contributing to the phenomenon of population increase are examined below.

43. The State had not escaped from the disastrous results of the world-wide economic depression when the decade started. Low prices had already crippled the resources of the agriculturist and the freaks of nature conspired with economic laws to reduce his vitality to the minimum.

44. The State suffered from a steady decrease of rainfall from 1933. That year was one of severe drought throughout the State. More serious than the reduction in the total rainfall was its uneven distribution. The situation slightly improved in 1936. But from 1937 onwards, it worsened by the recurrence of a shortage in the total rainfall and an erratic distribution. Though therefore, the State figures for the decade have shown a slightly higher average rainfall than those for the previous decade, yet its irregular incidence and uneven distribution

made the seasons less favourable to agriculture. For the production of crops, the proper distribution of rainfall throughout the year is even more important than its total quantity; and this is particularly true of Travancore where the soils generally are light and easily drained. The effect, therefore, of the rather unsatisfactory rainfall on the staple crops was to reduce the yield to a low level throughout the period. The prices of agricultural products stood below normal throughout the decade. The general trend marked a fall by more than 50 per cent. of the prices of the previous decade. The price of paddy was invariably low, ranging from Rs. 4-8-0 to Rs. 6 per bag. There was a fall in the price of copra and coconut-oil, interrupted only by transient rise at intervals. There was an appreciable improvement in the price of ginger since 1937. The fall in the price of pepper was almost catastrophic. Freakish increase in prices due to diminished yield or fluctuating demand dislocated rather than steadied the market (See diagram).

45. Trade too was consequently dull throughout the period. The fall in the prices of agricultural products was, to a certain extent, responsible for the comparative shrinkage in the value of both exports and imports in the decade except for a slight upward trend between 1939—1940.

46. The State tackled the problem of economic depression in two ways. The policy of progressive industrialisation went hand in hand with the prompt measures taken for agricultural relief. The opening of the Ceramic Factory at Kundara, the facilities provided for the rapid expansion of the rubber industry by the revival of the Rubber Factory at Trivandrum, the great stimulus given to the textile industry and the encouragement given to the starting of minor industries, are some of the measures which, while augmenting the revenues of the State, brought considerable relief by providing employment to a large number of people who were thrown out of work as a result of the economic depression. Government directed their

attention to the exploitation of the minerals for most of which the State could claim almost a monopoly. The cottage industries were placed on a level of economic stability. Great impetus was given to the fishing industry by a progressive programme of education of fishermen and the active measures taken to spread the idea of co-operation among them. The development of industries has been considerably facilitated by the possibility of obtaining cheap electric power from Pallivasal. This has been responsible for the starting of rice mills, saw mills, oil mills and sugar-making concerns in various parts of north and central Travancore. The immediate effects of these are seen in the rapid increase in the number of persons engaged in organised industries from 103,490 in 1931 to 145,291 in 1941. The scare of unemployment was allayed to a considerable extent by these measures.

47. Improvement and extension of irrigation made up, to a certain extent, for the loss to the agriculturists caused by the uneven distribution of rainfall. Puna cultivation in North Travancore was made less precarious by the introduction of the more powerful electric pumps to pump out water from the fields. Cheap electric power from Pallivasal made this scheme possible. Government also started on a definite policy of restoring the numerous irrigation tanks in South Travancore which were being progressively converted into rice-fields by too optimistic an estimate of the resources of the Kothayar reservoir. The rich rice-fields of Kuttanad and Nanjanad, the two granaries of Travancore, were thus given reasonable security against the uncertainty of the monsoons which often threatened their prosperity. The minor irrigation works inaugurated by Government considerably relieved the distress of the agriculturists in the other parts of the State. The depressing effects of agricultural conditions were thus counterbalanced, to a certain extent, by the progressive industrialisation of the country and the variety of relief granted to the agriculturists from time to time.

48. The improved facilities granted to the agriculturists or the encouragement given to the development of industries could not by themselves have afforded sufficient relief unless they were followed up by an extension and improvement of communications providing easy facilities for marketing the goods. Great progress has been achieved in this direction in the last decade.

49. From very early times, the system of communications in Travancore has been so designed as to transport the rich money crops of the State like pepper, ginger, cardamom, rubber and tea, to the nearest harbour by the cheapest and safest route for exportation. So, the roads and waterways generally radiate from the several ports linking up the important commercial and industrial centres. Travancore also aspired to regain her past glory as common carriers for South India. The scheme of communications planned by the State further intensified these objects. The successful pursuit of the same demanded a centralised control over the various means of communication in the State. A start has been made by bringing under State control the important motor transport system along the main trunk roads. It may have to be followed up with a similar control over the chief waterways in the State. A unified and centralised control could eventually work towards greater efficiency and economy. It would also be possible for the State in time to find sufficient funds from the profits to improve the communications.

50. Government also tackled the problem of agricultural indebtedness. The Travancore ryot, like his brother across the Ghats, never understood or cared to find out the best market for his produce. Rural reconstruction centres functioning with diverse programmes encouraged and developed the marketing of agricultural products. Ignorance and indifference combined to keep the agriculturist perpetually under the thumb of the money-lender. The failure of crops on account of the uneven monsoons made his condition worse.

Government came to his rescue by generous remissions during the decade. The economic dependence of the cultivator was relieved, to a considerable extent, by the Debt Relief Act and the inauguration of the Credit Bank. The commercial and mercantile laws were consolidated and brought up-to-date. Loans on low interest to agriculturists were distributed through the co-operative societies. Government also spent large sums of money for issuing agricultural and industrial loans. While combating thus the negative forces of depression, Government were able to keep even the economic forces and ensure, to a certain extent, a smooth and satisfactory life for the citizen. This is reflected in the general improvement in the balance of trade (*vide* subjoined table.)

YEAR	Index numbers of	
	Exports	Imports
	(1931 is the base year)	
1930—31	100	100
1931—32	78	85
1932—33	80	84
1933—34	81	82
1934—35	87	103
1935—36	85	97
1936—37	96	97
1937—38	98	99
1938—39	99	100
1939—40	116	122

51. The decade as compared with its predecessor presented a more satisfactory public health record. No great epidemic devastated the country as a whole, though periodic visitations of communicable diseases were registered in certain localities. Except for a violent outbreak of the malaria epidemic in 1935 in Neyyattinkara in South Travancore and a fairly serious outbreak of plague in Alleppey at about the same time, the decade proved a comparatively satisfactory period from the health point of view. Both these epidemics were localised and combated efficiently by

prompt measures. The health conditions of the State were always the subject of anxious consideration by Government. Public health administration was organised in 1933. The Sanitary Department which functioned till that year was amalgamated with the new Public Health Department and a Public Health Director was appointed. The State was divided into two Districts with a District Health Officer for each and subordinate officers for the smaller units in each District. A comprehensive public health programme with the advice and active co-operation of the International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation was inaugurated. A Health Unit representing the intensive type of health organisation needed for rural areas was organised at Neyyattinkara as a model for village health work. Rural sanitation, maternity and childwelfare work and health inspection of school-going children were organised on a scientific basis. The chief epidemics were thus brought under effective control by preventive measures. Effective steps were also taken to control and prevent the spread of malaria, filaria and hookworm. General mosquito-control work was introduced in almost all the urban areas. A state-wide programme of vaccination reduced the toll of small-pox to a considerable degree. Between 80 and 90 per cent. of the population has now been protected against this scourge. Preventive measures on a wide scale have been taken against the constant ravages of plague, typhoid and dysentery. Vaccines are being prepared in the Public Health Laboratory, Trivandrum, and supplied free in deserving cases. In the case of leprosy and tuberculosis, the danger to the public is perhaps even greater than from other communicable diseases because in the earlier stages these diseases are not easily detected. It is said that a tubercular patient going about spitting rheum is as dangerous to humanity as a homicidal maniac running amuck with a naked sword. In the case of lepers also, their mixing with the healthy population can work equal havoc. The opening of the Nuranad Leper Colony in a healthy centre where all the

modern conveniences are provided, gave an attractive home to the leper who, before the founding of the colony, tried his best to evade the authorities. The Tuberculosis Hospital opened in South Travancore affords considerable relief to a large number of patients who suffer from this dire disease. Government also provided clinics in important District Hospitals for their detection and cure. The vigorous and prompt action taken by Government in mitigating the harm caused by people who suffered from these diseases by their not being isolated from the healthier population was a real act of humanity and contributed, in a large measure, to the creditable record of public health registered in the last decade. A taluk health organisation scheme is being worked in representative taluks. By these measures the incidence of mortality has been kept down considerably.

52. In order to assess the true incidence of the various factors, social or economic, which affect the growth of population, it is necessary that one should have a knowledge of the specific birth-rates and the specific mortality-rates. Ordinarily the actual increase in population is determined by the balance of births over deaths. In addition to the balance of the actual births over actual deaths, it is important to balance the 'force of birth' against the 'force of death.' It may seem strange that, although births exceed deaths in a country, yet the population of that country may not be replacing itself because the increase depends not merely on fertility and mortality-rates but also upon the age-constitution of the population. With changes in the age constitution, corresponding changes are bound to occur in the crude birth and death-rates even if the fertility and mortality-rates remain the same. So it will be necessary to ascertain correctly the age-constitution to show if the population is replacing itself. To ascertain this it is necessary to have specific fertility rates calculated. In order to calculate the net reproduction rate, we require data regarding not only specific fertility

but specific mortality also. By using the data available from the Census, from the Fertility and Mortality Enquiry and from the Vital Statistics Enquiry, it is possible to determine whether the population is replacing itself and whether the conditions are such that a healthy survivorship can normally be expected. No comparisons are, however, possible with the previous years; for the data available from the Public Health and Land Revenue Departments cannot be relied upon as there is almost cent. per cent. divergence between those and the figures of the population census.

53. The specific birth-rates for various age-groups of mothers, obtained as a result of the Vital Statistics Enquiry are given below. The

Age-group of mother	Number of children born in a year per 1,000 mothers living in the age-group.
15-20	230
20-25	247
25-30	222
30-35	167
35-40	141
40-45	45

results agree with the general law of higher birth-rates for the younger mothers and progressive decrease with the advancing age of the mother. Approximate specific birth-rates have also been calculated from the fertility data collected along with the census. When the above specific birth-rates were applied to the age-constitution of the married women living at the time of the census a crude birth-rate of 28 per mille was obtained. This is the same as the crude birth-rate obtained for the areas in which the Vital Statistics Enquiry was conducted. (*Vide Appendix II*).

54. Just as the specific birth-rate varies with the age of married women, so also the specific mortality-rate varies with the different ages of the deceased. The results of the Vital Statistics Enquiry are indicated below. It will be observed

Age-group.	Number of deaths per 1,000 living in the age-group.
0-1	127.6
1-5	21.6
5-10	4.2
10-15	2.6
15-20	4.1
20-25	5.2
25-30	7.4
30-35	6.8
35-40	7.9
40-45	10.6
45-50	13.7
50-55	15.4
55-60	25.6
60-65	42.0
65-70	59.8
70 and over	128.3

that the mortality-rates are very high for children between 0-1 and for persons above 70. It is lowest for the 10-15 group. This is in keeping with the general law of variation of mortality. The crude mortality-rate of 15 per mille revealed by the Vital Statistics Enquiry has been confirmed by the percentage of survivorship (about 85 per cent.) of the 1931 population.

55. The net reproduction rate which is an index to show the combined result of specific birth-rate, mortality-rate and changing age-constitution will help to arrive at a general surmise as to how the population is replacing itself. It is evident that, if the population is to replace itself, every girl now born must give birth at least to one girl who is to be a future mother. A knowledge of the specific birth-rates and mortality-rates will help us to calculate the ratio of future girls that will be born to every girl now born. This will represent the net reproduction rate. The calculations based on the Vital Statistics Enquiry show that one girl will produce 1.4 girls or, in other words, for every 1,000 girls now born there will be 1,400 girls after a generation (30 years). A slight fall in the proportion of married women is, however, noticeable. There is also a tendency to postpone marriages as is evident from the census figures. These two factors

should ordinarily affect the total birth-rate and generally influence the rate of replacement of population. But the net reproduction rate of 1.4 indicates that the cumulative effect of the specific birth-rate, specific mortality-rate and age-constitution is such that it counteracts the effects due to the fall in the proportion of married women and the postponement of marriage. This favourable balance may be attributed mainly to a better survivorship on account of improved public health conditions and to the increasing literacy leading to an intelligent appreciation of the fundamental principles of health and hygiene. The population, therefore, is progressive in its capacity to maintain its normal trend. It is only after working out this rate for a series of years that a true average index can be obtained; and for this purpose, the maintenance of correct vital statistical records is indispensable.

56. This population is distributed over an area of 7,662 sq. miles.* According to the 1931 census, Travancore occupied the 19th place among the Indian States in size and the 3rd rank in population, Hyderabad and Mysore being the 1st and the 2nd. Though the population has increased by nearly a million during the last decade, she occupies the same rank in point of numerical strength. The percentage of increase has, however, been higher in Travancore than in Hyderabad and Mysore, being 19.1 per cent. against 12.1 in Hyderabad and 11.8 in Mysore. Baroda, which in point of area ranks just above Travancore, has only a population of 2,855,016 and has recorded an increase of 16.6 per cent. The adjoining Province of Madras had in 1931 nine times the population of Travancore while in 1941 the proportion has come down to eight with an increase of 11.6 per cent. in the last decade. Malabar, which has an area of 5,790 sq. miles and which in point of climate and vegetation resembles Travancore, has a population of 3,929,000.

* The area has been altered from 7,625 sq. miles in 1931 to 7,662 sq. miles in 1941. According to the Survey of India, the area of Travancore is 7,662 sq. miles. It has been accepted by the Government of Travancore as the official figure.

57. The distribution of the population in the three Natural and Administrative Divisions is shown in the subjoined table. The Highland

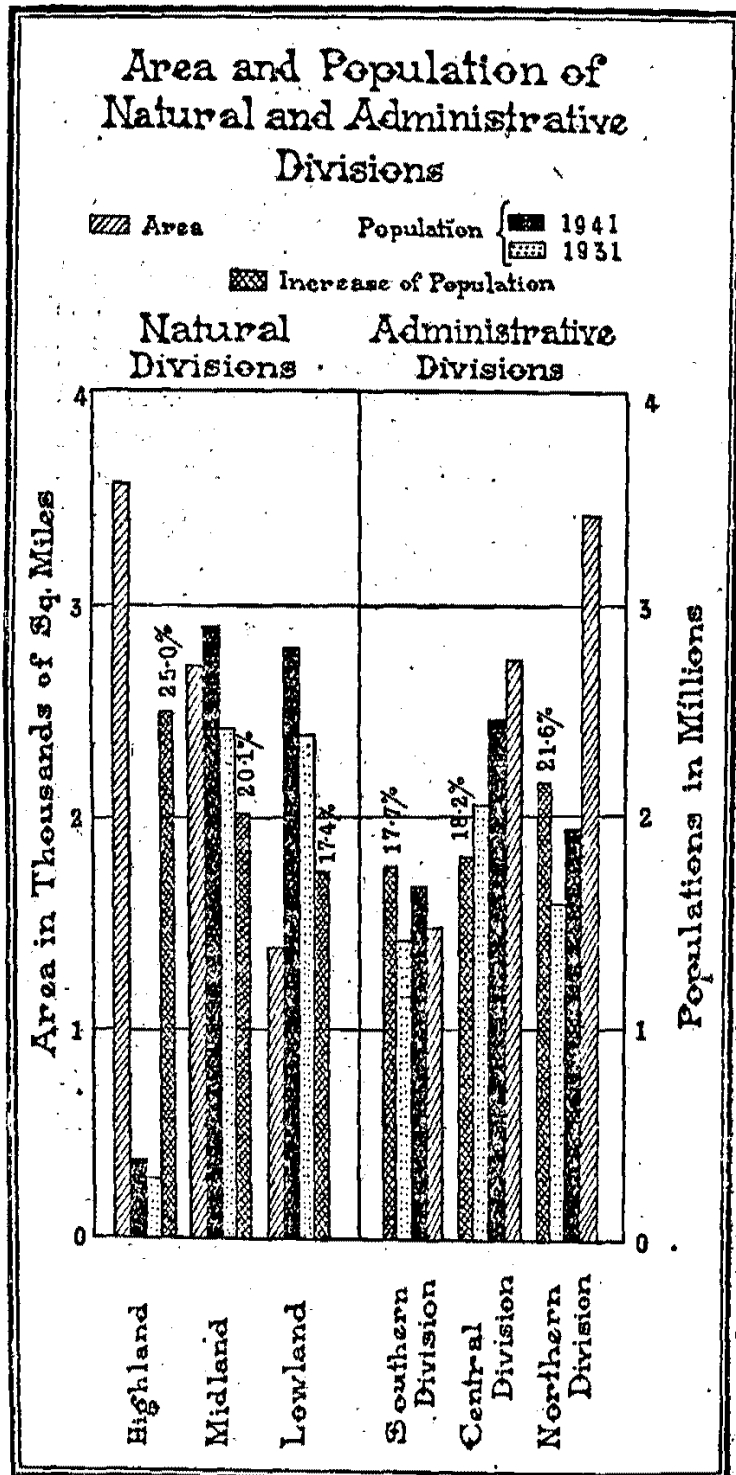
State or Division.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Increase.	Percentage of Increase.
State	7,662	6,070,018	974,045	19.1
Administrative Divisions.				
Southern	1,487	1,687,069	253,113	17.7
Central	2,745	2,442,326	376,380	18.2
Northern	3,430	1,940,623	344,552	21.6
Natural Divisions.				
Lowland	1,374	2,805,626	416,077	17.4
Midland	2,722	2,900,808	485,314	20.1
Highland	3,566	363,584	72,654	25.0

region, which in point of area ranks first, has the lowest population but has recorded the highest percentage of increase. The Midland division comes next both in point of area and in the percentage of increase of population. The Lowland division comes last both in extent and percentage of increase. In the Administrative Divisions, nearly 2/5 of the population resides in the Central Division and the proportions are fairly equal in the Northern and Southern Divisions though in point of increase in the last decade the Northern Division has recorded the highest percentage. (*vide* diagram in next column).

58. For purposes of administration, the State is divided into 30 taluks. The area and population of these taluks are given in Provincial Table I. The diagram on page 19 shows the population of the taluks arranged in descending order. As in 1931 Thiruvella stands first and Thovala comes last. In 1931 only Thiruvella had a population of over three hundred thousand; but in 1941 there are two more taluks—Neyyattinkara and Quilon—which have reached that limit. There were 10 taluks with a population between two and three hundred thousand in 1931; now there are 13 under this category. There are only ten taluks with a population between one hundred and two hundred thousand as against fourteen in 1931. This time three taluks record a population between fifty thousand and one hundred thousand as against two of 1931. Thovala retains her position with a population of less than fifty thousand.

59. There is a remarkable increase in population noticeable in Trivandrum and Changanachery taluks. The latter has shot up from the 13th rank which she occupied in 1921 to the 5th in the order of population in 1941. In two

Diagram referred to in paragraph 58.



decades its population has nearly doubled. The increase in the Trivandrum taluk may very probably be due to the rush to the capital city, while the rise noticeable in the Changanachery

COCHIN TERRITORY

COIMBATORE DISTRICT

Changanachery Taluk

- 13. Madappalli
- 14. Thrikkodithanam
- 15. Payippad
- 16. Vakathanam
- 17. Champakkara

Kottayam Taluk

- 18. Mattakkara
- 19. Anikkad
- 20. Anikkad
- 21. Elangulam

MADURA DISTRICT

RAMNAD DISTRICT

TINNEVELLY DISTRICT



TRAVANCORE

Urban-Rural Distribution of Population

Scale 1 Inch = 16 Miles

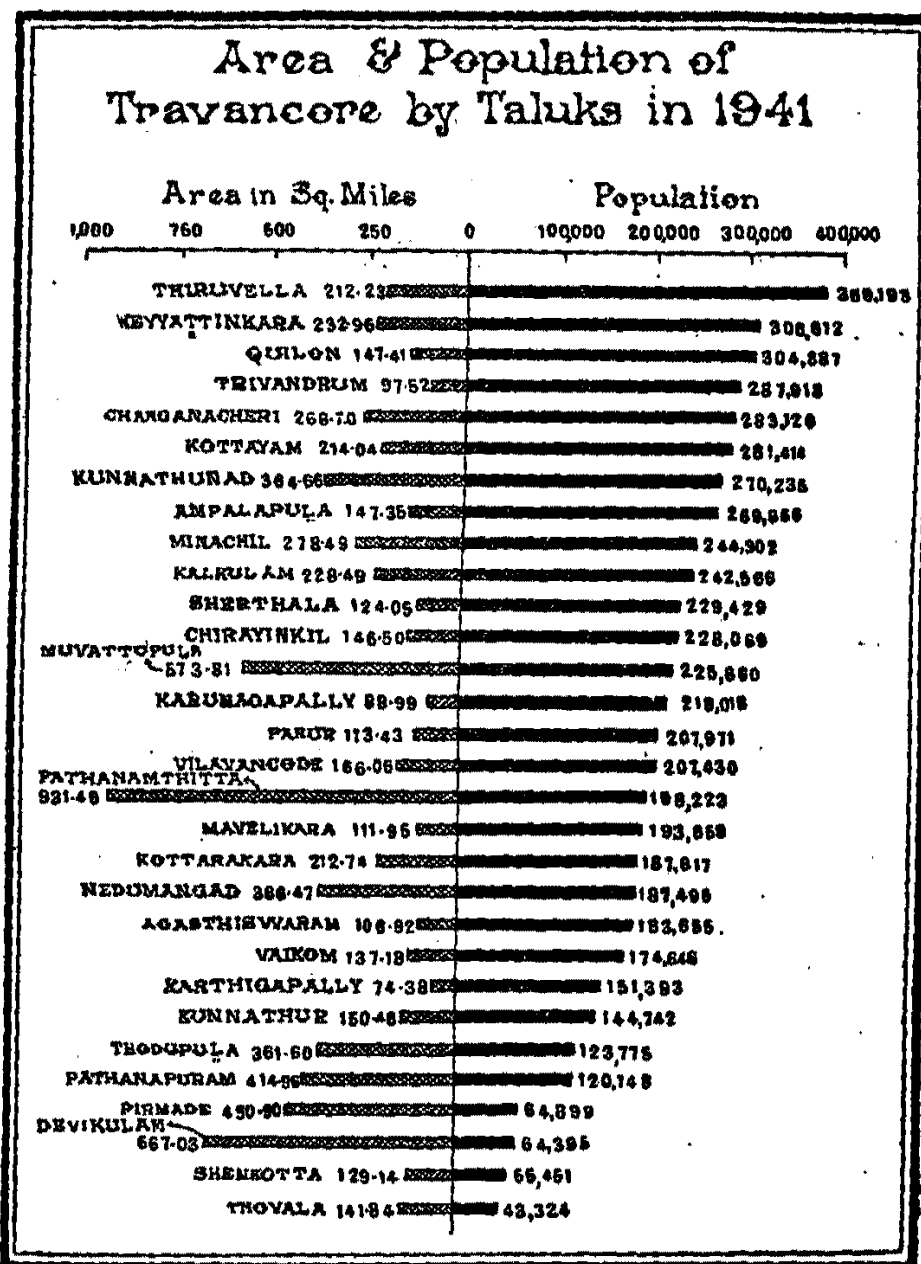
Legend

- Natural Division Boundary
- Administrative Division Boundary
- Taluk Boundary
- Lake and River
- ▲ Above 100,000 Persons (City)
- 50,000 to 100,000 Do.
- 10,000 to 50,000 Do.
- ▼ 5,000 to 10,000 Do.
- Below 5000 Do.
- Lowland
- Midland
- Highland
- Red — Represent Municipal Towns & City
- Black — Do. Census Towns
- Green — Do. Villages over 5000 Persons

taluk may largely be due to the prosperity which came with better price for rubber and to the increased facilities provided for collegiate education by the St. Berchman's College. Changanachery has also been growing in importance as a distributing centre.

and fast line hardly exists between the town and the village in Travancore. The town is at best an outgrown village with additional amenities and facilities for communication and commerce. If places with a population of 5,000 and over are included under the urbanised area, there are as

Diagram referred to in paragraph 59.



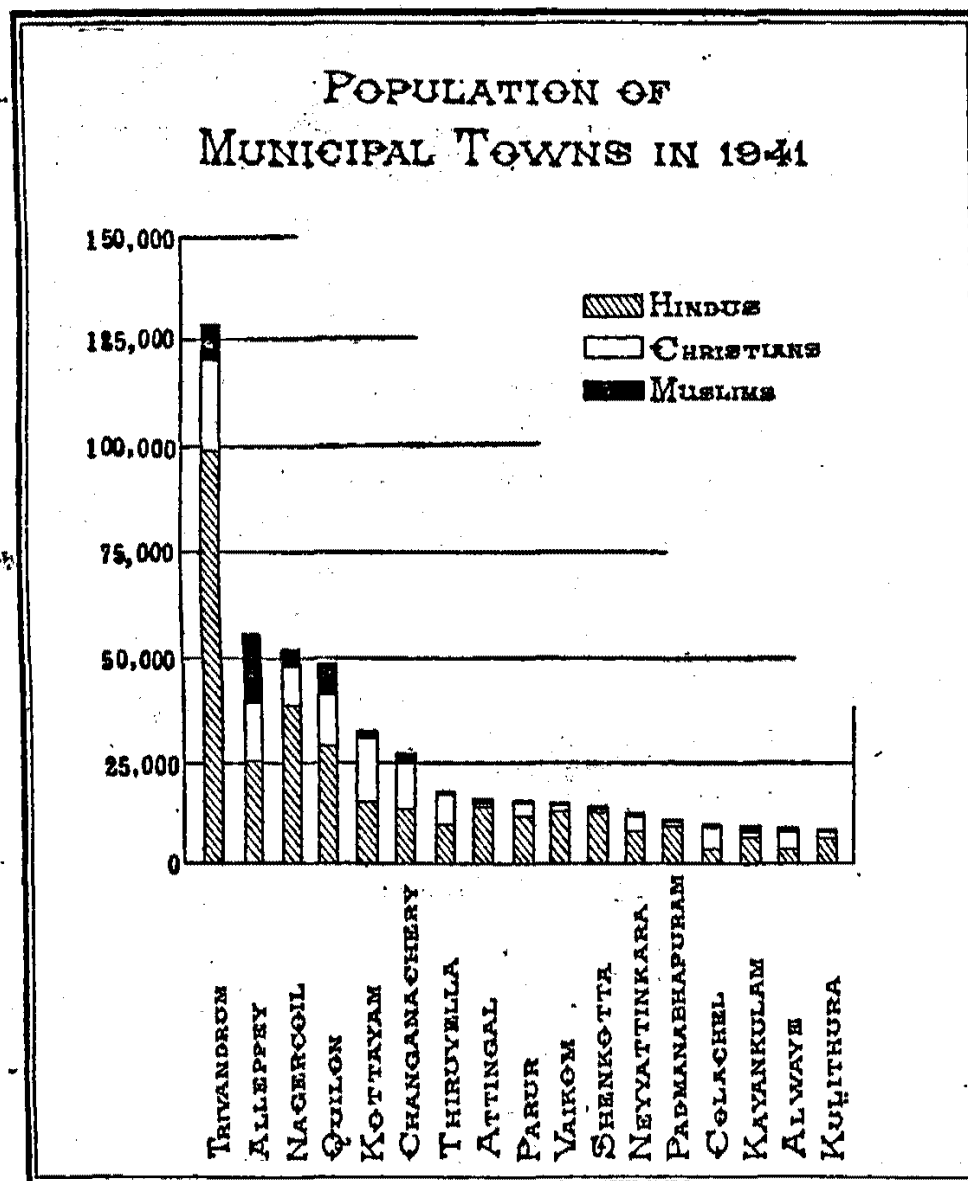
60. The urban-rural distribution in Travancore cannot be clearly demarcated as in the case of the British territory beyond the Ghats. (See map) Mention has been made of the rapid urbanisation in Travancore and the reasons for the same. Since 1891 the proportion of the urban to rural population has increased from 3.6 to 11.4. But a hard

many as 163 places in Travancore (names of which are given in the fly-leaf to Imperial Table III) with an aggregate population of 1,570,802 constituting 25.9 per cent. of the total population. In 1901 there were only 17 places under this category. Of the 163 places, only 36 have, however, been classed by the State as towns. There are, besides, ten more.

places classed thus though their population is below 5,000. An urban-rural ratio is consequently less easy to strike and has less meaning here than elsewhere in India. If the places definitely classed by the State as towns are alone taken into account, only 11.4 per cent. of the total population in the State comes under the category of urban population as

61. The distribution and proportion of the urban population is illustrated in the following diagram. The City of Trivandrum contains 18.6 per cent. of the total urban population. Taking the Trivandrum City and the towns together, it is seen that the average population stands at 15,022 as against 11,995 of 1931. This shows an increase of 25.2 per cent.

Diagram referred to in paragraph 62.



against 10.8 of 1931. The aggregate population of the Trivandrum City and the 45 towns according to the present census is 691,025 as against 551,788 of the last census. There has been no addition to the list of towns since 1931 though the urban area has increased by 10.95 sq. miles.

63. There are 16 Municipal towns excluding the City as against 19 of 1931. Trivandrum has now become a City with a population of 128,365. Haripad and Mavelikara ceased to function as Municipalities during the intercensal period. Among the Municipal towns, Alleppey takes the

first rank with a population of 56,333 closely followed by Nagercoil with 51,657. Eight Municipal towns have recorded an increase of population above the average in the last decade. Of these Kulithura takes the lead with 112.5 per cent. increase followed by Attingal with 53 per cent. In the other six Municipalities (Neyyattinkara, Quilon, Trivandrum, Kottayam, Alleppey and Alwaye) the population increase varied between 23 and 49 per cent. during the last decade. There has been a slight increase in area in eight towns (including the City). In Kulithura, the area has more than doubled (*vide fly-leaf to Imperial Table IV*).

62. The subjoined statement shows the distribution of the urban population in the

Division.	Number of Towns.	Population.	Proportion per cent. to the total urban population.
Administrative Divisions.			
Southern	10	300,049	43.42
Central	16	249,850	36.16
Northern	11	141,126	20.42
Natural Divisions.			
Lowland	24	507,014	73.37
Midland	19	151,617	21.94
Highland	3	32,394	4.69

various divisions (Natural and Administrative). More than one half of the number of towns are situated in the Lowland area and nearly three-fourths of the urban population area found in these towns.

64. It is not possible to group under a common heading all the towns in the State. Some have grown in importance on account of their historic associations; some others as places of pilgrimage; a few as highways of commerce and as industrial and commercial centres. A good many have come into prominence as distributing centres for the agricultural produce of the neighbourhood and a few others as seats of learning and culture. In several cases, more than one factor contributed towards their growth and development.

65. Trivandrum, for example, has grown in importance by a combination of circumstances. It is the seat of Government and the progressive

improvements made in the last decade to provide it practically with all the modern amenities have attracted to this city a large number of the *nouveau riche* from the mofussil. A city residence gives the hall mark of modernity to the plutocrat. It is a University centre and practically all the professional colleges are situated within the city limits, not to mention the premier government Arts and Science Colleges. It is a place of pilgrimage, as *Ananthasayanam* is one of most important temples in India and *Sri Padmanabha* is the tutelary deity of the Royal House. It has a port and an aerodrome and is a terminus of the South Indian Railway.

66. Alwaye grew into importance as a health resort. Latterly it has developed into a commercial centre. The tile factories, the Sri Chithra Mills and the proposed Aluminium Factory are bound to bring Alwaye in a few years to greater prominence. Cheap electric power from Pallivasal and the facilities for transport by water and by rail will accelerate the pace of industrialisation in this town. The first grade college run practically on residential lines and the Carmelite Seminary have contributed to the importance of Alwaye.

67. Colachel had seen prosperous days in the 16th and 17th centuries on account of its safe natural harbour though it has diminished in importance since the 19th century on account of the development of the ports of Quilon and Alleppey and particularly of the Cochin Harbour. Ships still anchor in its safe waters. It was at Colachel that the Dutch army was routed by the Travancore forces and its commander D'Lannoy captured as prisoner of war. Its importance is enhanced by the facilities that exist for transporting large quantities of monazite found all along the coast in that area. The salt produced in the various salt pans in the adjoining taluks is transported through this safe natural harbour. It is the chief outlet today for the fibre of South Travancore.

68. Padmanabhapuram was the old capital of Sri Valumkode when Travancore had not attained its present political boundaries. The old palace has now been converted into an Art Gallery and a historical museum attracting several visitors from abroad. The sugar factory at Thuckalai has given it a commercial importance.

69. Alleppey has grown into prominence as the premier seaport, though in recent years it has come down in importance on account of the development of the harbour at Cochin. It is a convenient and cheap port for the shipment of the chief products of the hinterland—coir, copra, spices and rubber. It may also be called the most prosperous commercial town in the State.

70. Nagercoil is the most important distributing centre for the various goods that come from Tinnevely. Kottar and Vatasery which are within the municipal limits have been from very ancient times centres of trade and industry. The Scott Christian College in the town is a very old institution. Nagercoil is also the headquarters of the Scott Christian Mission and the chief Salvation Army centre. It owes much of its improvement and its position to the efforts of Christian Missionaries.

71. Thiruvella is a prosperous town on the Main Central Road. It possesses several educational institutions and very ancient temple. It is a strong Syrian Christian centre and the headquarters of the Mar Thoma Metropolitan.

72. Neyyattinkara has become important in recent years on account of the Health Unit organised by the Public Health Department under the auspices of the Rockefeller Foundation.

73. Shencotta resembles a typical British Indian town in Tamilnad. It is perhaps the most crowded town in the whole State with a density of over 17,000 per sq. mile. It has gained importance on account of its proximity to the famous Courtallam Waterfalls.

74. Some of the capitals of the old principalities which were annexed to the State have developed into urbanised areas and have been classed as towns. Under this category come Parur, Changanacherry, Kottayam, Kayamkulam, Quilon, Attingal and Vaikom.

75. The important Saivaite temple at Vaikom invites large numbers of pilgrims from various parts of India.

76. Kottayam has grown into prominence partly as a distributing centre, though the open-

ing of the Pallivasal road has diverted its goods traffic to Alwaye. All the tea is transported through Alwaye now. Kottayam is an educational centre. It has got a second grade college with several feeder schools. The famous Saivaite temple at *Thirunakkara* is a place of pilgrimage. It is the headquarters of the Church Missionary Society. There are also several important and ancient churches and seminaries.

77. Changanachery possesses the grandest Syro-Roman Church on the Malabar coast and has a first grade college.

78. Quilon is a commercial and industrial centre of increasing importance with its tile factories, cashew-nut factories, spinning and weaving mills and engineering workshops. It is celebrated in history for its trade in spices. It is the State's second seaport town.

79. Most of the census towns agricultural centres where there are marketing facilities for the agricultural products of the taluk. A few of them like Cape Comorin, Suchindram, Varkala, Thiruvattar and Ettumanur, have become famous as places of pilgrimage. Cape Comorin and Varkala are also important as health resorts. Suchindram has historic associations. Punalur is rising into prominence on account of the Paper Mills and facilities for the development of industries connected with light wood.

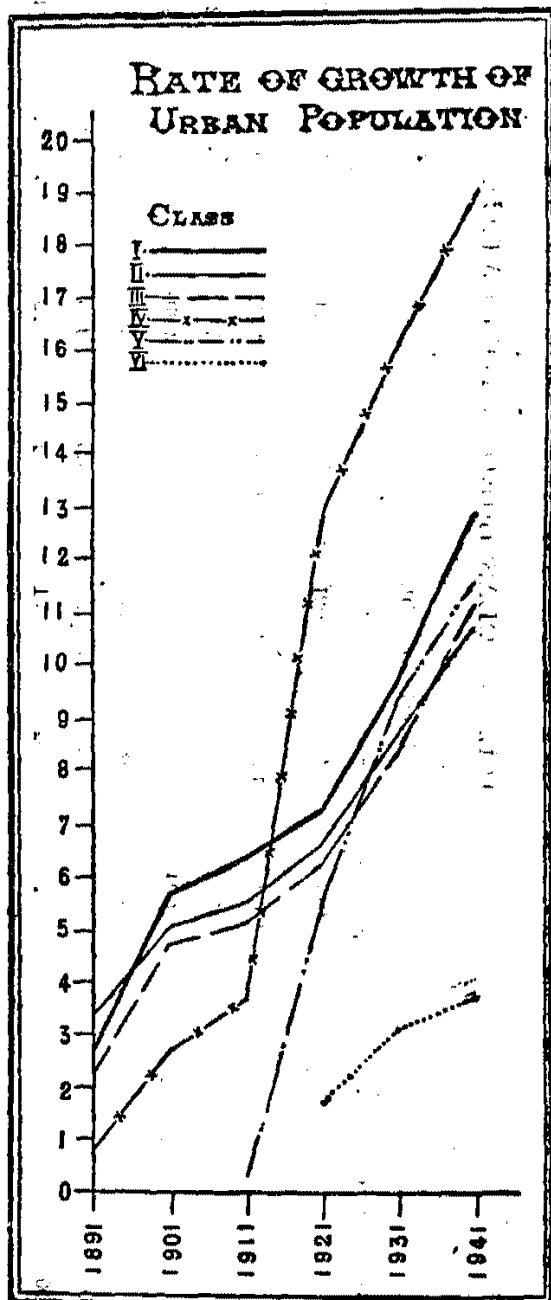
80. Imperial Table IV has divided the towns into six classes according to the limits of population. The subjoined statement which has been prepared from subsidiary Table (i) on

Class of town by population.	Number of towns in each class.		Proportion per cent. of the population of each class to total urban population.		Percentage of increase in the population in each class.	
	1931	1941	1931	1941	1931	1941
I. 100,000 & over	...	1	...	18.6
II. 50,000 to 100,000	1	2	17.4	15.6	31.9	...
III. 20,000 to 50,000	5	3	30.8	16.1	31.6	33.7
IV. 10,000 to 20,000	11	14	24.1	27.6	15.5	15.4
V. 5,000 to 10,000	15	16	18.5	16.7	22.2	19.7
VI. Under 5,000	14	10	9.2	5.4	15.2	16.6

Imperial Table IV shows the proportion of the population of each class of town to the total urban population 1931 and 1941 and the increase in the population of each class during the last two decades.

81. In working out the percentage variations, adjustments for the class totals for the previous censuses have been made. Trivandrum.

with a population of 128,365 comes up to the first class. The population of the city and the population of the towns under class III have both increased by 33·7 per cent. while the towns under classes IV, V and VI have recorded an increase of only 15·4, 19·7 and 16·6 per cent. respectively. Fifty per cent. of the urban population live in towns with a population of 20,000 and over. The decennial increase of the urban population indicates a tendency towards aggregation in the major towns falling in class I, II or III. (Vide diagram). Generally industries and commerce



develop at more rapid strides in these classes of towns and this explains the faster growth of the towns in these categories than the smaller and

less important ones. This is also borne out by the fact that the percentage of increase in the industrial, commercial and market towns has been greater than that in others.

82. The majority of the urban population were born in the taluks in which the towns are situated. The proportion of persons born in other taluks is highest in Trivandrum owing to the fact that it is the capital city and that the headquarters of all departments are situated there. The distribution of the urban population per 10,000 of the total population of each main community is given in Subsidiary Table (ii) on Imperial Table V. Out of 10,000 persons in towns, 6,341 are Hindus, 2,416 Christians and 1,183 Muslims. The proportion of Hindus is highest in the Highland and lowest in the Midland. Of the three main communities, the Muslims favour town life more than the others. The Tribes prefer a country life and hence their proportion is only 53 per 10,000 in urban areas. The Hindu cannot be said to have any particular partiality for any region. He is evenly distributed in urban and rural areas (See Subsidiary Table (ii) on Imperial Table V).

83. The conditions affecting the movement and distribution of the population of the towns do not differ materially from those obtaining in the adjacent rural parts. There is, therefore, no necessity to examine in detail and compare the results of the census of these towns. This statistics relating to some of the major towns are given on the next page.

84. The rural population live in what are called residential villages—the *Karas*—which constituted the census unit in rural area. There are 3,906 inhabited villages in the State and 46 uninhabited villages. The rural population comes to 5,378,993 as against 4,544,185 of 1931. This shows an increase of 18·4 per cent. during the decade. The occupied houses in rural areas have increased from 836,734 to 977,491, *i. e.*, by 16·8 per cent. and the average number of persons per house from 5·43 to 5·50. The average population of a *Kara* has increased from 1,155 in 1931 to 1,377 in 1941 and that of a *Pakuthy* from 10,494 to 12,366. The statement on the next page shows the villages in each group and the percentage of the total of each group to the aggregate rural population from 1901 onwards.

STATISTICS RELATING TO MAJOR TOWNS.

Towns.	Population of 1941.	Percentage of increase of population during 1931-1941	Percentage of increase of occupied houses during 1931-1941	Average number of persons per house in 1941	Average number of females per 1000 males in 1941	Number per mille of each main community living in the towns.			Number of females per 1,000 males in each main community.		
						Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Hindu	Muslim	Christian
Trivandrum	128,865	83.7	49.7	6.0	955	771	62	164	972	851	931
Alleppey	56,333	28.5	24.2	6.1	889	444	293	282	830	319	856
Nagercoil	51,657	20.3	27.5	4.8	1,026	738	82	178	1,005	1,145	1,064
Quilon	49,498	46.7	55.8	6.1	955	574	159	255	955	923	972
Kottayam	33,364	32.2	34.2	6.0	920	454	55	489	913	820	938
Changanacherry	28,381	17.3	12.9	6.5	939	459	108	435	954	930	926

II

VILLAGES CLASSIFIED BY POPULATION.

Population Group	Number of villages.					Proportion per cent. of the population of the group to the total rural population.				
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941
Under 500	2,008	1,867	1,670	1,446	1,271	15.8	12.3	10.1	6.9	5.2
500-1,000	952	951	937	867	788	25.1	21.4	19.2	14.0	10.9
1,000-2,000	694	789	846	977	990	34.9	34.2	32.8	30.7	26.5
2,000-5,000	225	327	415	572	730	22.3	28.2	32.4	37.3	40.4
5,000-10,000	8	20	28	69	116	1.9	3.6	5.1	9.6	14.1
10,000-20,000	..	1	1	4	10	..	0.3	0.4	1.0	2.2
20,000-50,000	1	1	0.5	0.7

TRAVANCORE

Movement of Population from 1875 to 1941

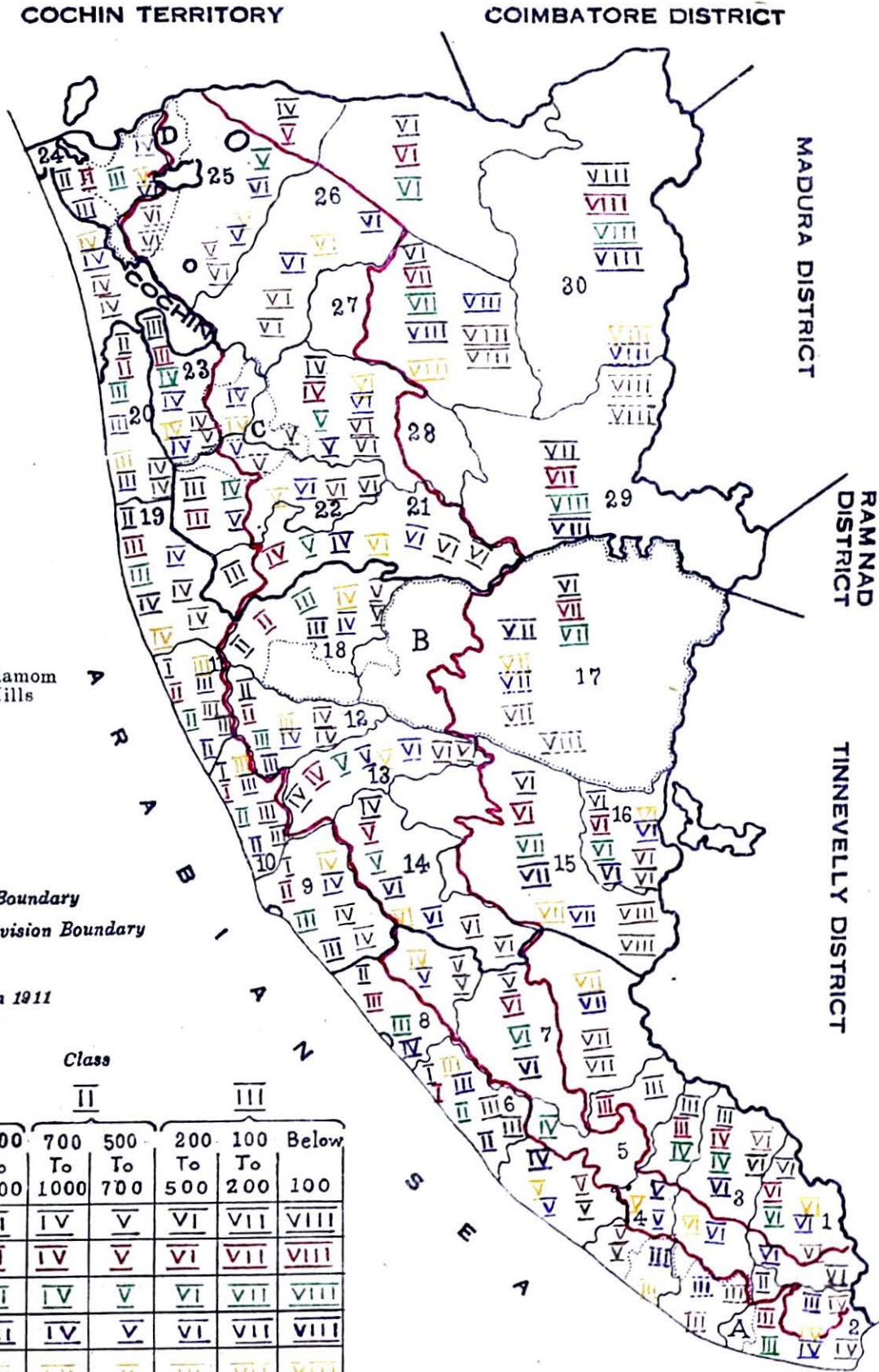
Scale 1 Inch = 20 Miles.

- Southern Division
 - 1. Thovala
 - 2. Agasthiswaram
 - 3. Kalkulam
 - 4. Vilavancode
 - 5. Neyyattinkara
 - 6. Trivandrum
 - 7. Nedumangad
 - 8. Chirayinkil
 - 9. Quilon
- Central Division
 - 10. Karunagapally
 - 11. Karthikapally
 - 12. Mavelikara
 - 13. Kunnathur
 - 14. Kottarakkara
 - 15. Pathanapuram
 - 16. Shenkotta
 - 17. Pathanamthitta
 - 18. Thiruvella
 - 19. Ampalapula
 - 20. Sherthala
 - 21. Changanachery
- Northern Division
 - 22. Kottayam
 - 23. Vaikom
 - 24. Parur
 - 25. Kunnathunad
 - 26. Muvattupula
 - 27. Thodupula
 - 28. Minachil
 - 29. Firmede } Cardamom Hills
 - 30. Devikulam }
- A. Iraniel
- B. Chengannur
- C. Ettumanur
- D. Alangad

Legend

- Natural Division Boundary
- Administrative Division Boundary
- Taluk Boundary
- Taluk Boundary in 1911

Group	Class							
	I	II		III				
	2000 & Above	1500 To 2000	1000 To 1500	700 To 1000	500 To 700	200 To 500	100 To 200	Below 100
1941	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1931	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1921		II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1911		II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1901		III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
1891		III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
1881		III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
1875		III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	



85. The above table discloses valuable information regarding the movement of population in the villages. It will be seen that the number of villages where the population is below 500 has decreased considerably; those between 500 and 1,000 show a decrease but not to the same extent as the preceding group, while a marked increase in the number of villages in the third category between 1,000 and 2,000 is noticed. The maximum recorded is in the group 5,000 to 10,000 and in the 10,000 and above group the number has more than doubled itself in the last decade. It has already been stated that the number of places in Travancore with a population above 5,000 has increased from 17 in 1901 to 163 in 1941. It is seen that this increase in the number of villages of higher population groups is steadily mounting up from decade to decade. This confirms the conclusion arrived at earlier that the facilities for transport and opportunities for commerce and other social services are slowly attracting people to the more populous centres. It also lends support to the view that it is very difficult to draw a hard and fast line between the town and the village in Travancore and that the town is at best an out-grown village with additional amenities and facilities for commerce and communication. The movement of population in the villages is illustrated in the map on next page.

86. In any scientific study of the movement of population, the relationship between a definite area and the people inhabiting it should be analysed from different points of view, economic, social and political. This point has been briefly touched upon in dealing with the development of towns in the State. Population did not spread like a drop of oil. In the beginning it grew in clumps like corals. Reefs of population collected at certain points by a sort of crystallization process. These by their intelligence developed the natural resources and raised the value of such places so that other men, whether voluntarily or under compulsion, came to share in the advantages of this inheritance and successive layers

accumulated on the chosen spot. "The existence of a dense population—a large group of human beings living together in the smallest space consistent with certainty of livelihood for the entire group, means, if one stops to think of it, a victory which can only be won under rare and unusual circumstances." In order to understand the relationship between earth and man, the first question to be answered is how population is distributed over the surface of a particular area, or to be more exact, how dense population is in different regions.

87. It has been stated previously that in Travancore population has a tendency to concentrate in villages or towns of higher population-groups and this tendency has been noticeable for the last half a century and that in each decade the movement gathers momentum. If we take the State as a whole, the mean density is 792 per sq. mile. But this does not at all give a clear idea of the distribution of population. We are on firmer ground when we calculate density on the area available for cultivation or on the actually occupied area. In these cases the density increases to 1,463 in the first case and to 1,513 in the second. If we deduct from the occupied area the area under cultivation, the density rises to 9,712 per sq. mile. The mean density in some foreign countries is set forth below.

No.	Country	Population per sq. mile. as it stood by the end of 1939.
1.	Belgium	725
2.	Netherlands	693
3.	United Kingdom	504
4.	Italy	369
5.	France	197
6.	China	104
7.	Burma	69
8.	Turkey	58
9.	U. S. A.	43
10.	Australia	3
	Travancore (1941)	792

88. Subsidiary Table (i) on Imperial Table II gives the density at the last six censuses and the

percentage variations from census to census for the Natural and the Administrative Divisions of the State. The densities of the Administrative Divisions for the past censuses have been recalculated on the altered areas consequent on the amalgamation of the High Range Division with the Northern Division and the re-allocation of areas in the Central and Northern Divisions. Of the Administrative Divisions, the Southern, the Central and the Northern Divisions come in order in point of density. In the Natural Divisions, the density is highest in the Lowland, lower in the Midland and lowest in the Highland.

89. It should not be understood from the above classification that, either in the Natural or in the Administrative Divisions, the density is uniform throughout the area. In the Lowland Division, the density varies between 1,300 and 3,000, in the Midland between 500 and 1,900 and in the Highland between 50 and 500. In the Administrative Divisions, it varies from 305 to 2,952 in the Southern, from 213 to 2,450 in the Central and from 97 to 1,833 in the Northern. If we narrow the area further down to the taluk, these varying densities in the natural and administrative areas are reflected here also according to their situation in one or the other of these divisions.

90. The variations in the densities of taluks are even more marked than those in the divisions. Density in taluks depends, to a certain extent, also on the presence or absence of a municipal town within the taluk. Those bordering on the sea and included in the Lowland group have generally a higher density than those in the other taluks and the density is lowest in the Highland group.

91. It has been already stated that population might most probably have clustered together in favourable centres in the Lowland area and might have migrated to the Midland or Highland on account of pressure of population or probably due to better opportunities offered for agriculture or commerce. From very early times,

humanity has prospered in certain localities. Generally it is noticed that small centres of dense population are irregularly scattered here and there. But when they increased in numbers it was found difficult to live together within a limited space. These earlier societies yielded to centrifugal forces and got detached from their nuclei. Humanity increases in number by swarming after the manner of the bees. When the hive is too full, a swarm leaves it. They in their course of migration may have to find a place with environments similar to the one which they were obliged to leave. It may be near or it may be far away. This may form an explanation for the distribution of the population in Travancore.

92. To illustrate the movement of population, density has been divided into eight groups and three classes as below from the figures available from 1875 onwards.

Groups.

1. 2,000 and above	5. 500—700
2. 1,500—2,000	6. 200—500
3. 1,000—1,500	7. 100—200
4. 700—1,000	8. Below 100

Class.

I. 1,000 and above
II. 500—1,000
III. Below 500.

93. It will be clear from the map that the taluks with the highest density (class I) are situated invariably in the Lowland region where the population must have centred round favourable localities with rich soil, easy communications and reasonably safe outlets for commerce. The taluks in this region move on from lower to higher density groups during successive decades. Those which come under class II are situated mostly in the Midland Division and those in class III in the Highland Division. Wide variations

in density can be noticed in the portions of the same taluk lying in different natural regions (*vide* subjoined table.)

Taluk	Density							
	Whole Taluk		Lowland Portion		Midland Portion		Highland Portion	
	1931	1941	1931	1941	1931	1941	1931	1941
Thovala	277	305	612	566	147	178
Agasthiswaram	1487	1718	1869	2183	619	659
Kalkulam	900	1062	2098	2323	1433	1600	93	119
Vilavancode	1067	1249	2031	2356	1493	1833	53	53
Neyyattinkara	1177	1316	2051	2407	908	899	124	118
Trivandrum	2336	2952	2336	2952
Nedumangad	430	512	723	873	98	102
Chirayinkil	1317	1557	1933	2259	757	917
Quilon	1680	2065	1680	2065
Karunagapally	2161	2450	2161	2450
Karthigapally	1925	2035	1925	2035
Mavelikara	1562	1730	1562	1730
Kunnathur	778	962	778	962
Kottarakkara	681	883	681	883
Pathanapuram	237	290	628	840	124	145
Shenkotta	371	429	926	1102	231	261
Pathanamthitta	159	213	751	1005	1	1
Thiruvella	1533	1740	1533	1740
Ampalapula	1497	1831	1497	1831
Sherthala	1746	1849	1746	1849
Changanachery	840	1054	1363	1619	736	945
Kottayam	1083	1315	1064	1334	1097	1301
Vaikom	1067	1273	1090	1313	1022	1201
Parur	1625	1833	1625	1833
Kunnathnad	625	741	800	956	1	..
Muvattupula	414	394	697	871	3	..
Thodupula	186	342	721	909	106	221
Minachil	711	877	892	1038	257	449
Pirmede	102	144	102	144
Devikulam	89	97	89	97

94. This grouping also lends support to the principle enunciated above, that population has a tendency to prosper in small centres irregularly scattered here and there and to migrate to places with similar environments through pressure of population or better prospects. This is clearly illustrated by the movement of population in the Lowland area. The higher density taluks are not contiguous but are seen in scattered groups (See map on movement of population.) The population in Travancore may originally have congregated in the Lowland region and the surplus population may have moved from taluk to taluk within the same natural region. With the appearance of the Midland taluks in the higher

density groups, the process noticed above in the Lowland area is extended to the Midland region also. But this movement seems to have been rather slow as the number of taluks in the Midland area coming under the higher density groups is only two, *i. e.* Mavelikara and Thiruvella. It is just possible that the more adventurous people who had sufficient funds to invest in agriculture or commerce might have migrated to the Midland. Further, even in the selection of places, it may be possible that the people have been trying to find out habitations with almost similar environments. The exodus of those who can command capital to the lower density groups presages the occupation of a larger area by the individual which is necessary for the cultivation of money-crops like pepper, ginger and cardamom. Those who showed a distinct agricultural and rural bias have found sufficient scope for its development and free play in the Midland area. In the next stage when population became denser in the Midland region and flowed into the Highland, the estate economy must have come into prominence. Here a very large area and sufficient capital are necessary to grow the money-crops on a large scale. The European planters who possessed distinct advantages, both political and economic, developed the estate system and we find large areas in the Highland and an appreciable portion of the Midland developed into estates by them. The increasing profits that came in to those in the Midland area must have attracted more and more people from the Lowland where the agricultural income dwindled from decade to decade by the decreasing productivity of the arable land. The pressure of population in the Lowland has also necessitated the bringing under cultivation of practically all available land.

95. The estate economy remained for a long time the close preserve of the European since the Indian planter did not possess the necessary funds nor technical skill to attempt large-scale cultivation. In the last quarter of a

century on account of the higher prices of rubber, pepper, cardamom, etc., the estate system became popular with the sons of the soil and a large number of estates developed in the Midland, though it was controlled by a very small number of people. Tea or coffee cultivation is not profitable on a small scale and so these were cultivated on the estate system in the Highland and remains even today mostly under European management. This estate system must naturally have kept down the density, whether it is the small estate of the Midland or the large estate of the Highland. The kind of crop and the nature of cultivation, therefore, largely influenced density in these areas.

96. These trends in the movement of population are indicated in the data available from 1875 onwards. The process must have begun from very early times. It is very likely that the movement of population in the early centuries must have taken the trend which is disclosed by the data available to us.

97. It has already been stated that the average density in the occupied area is 1,513 per sq. mile. The occupied area consists of cultivated land (wet as well as dry) and land where the houses are situated. The cultivated area extends to 3,386 sq. miles, leaving a balance of 625 sq. miles as the area occupied by houses. The six million odd inhabitants of the State live in this area and the average density works out to 9,712 per sq. mile. There are 1,097,357 occupied houses and the average number of persons living in each house is 5.53. If we calculate the density from this, we get the average density as 9711 per sq. mile and the average area occupied by each house as .00057 sq. miles or 36.5 cents. A density of over 9,700 persons per sq. mile is a fairly high figure; but fortunately the scattered homestead system persists in Travancore except in the fringes of territory adjoining the Madras Presidency. "Walled houses" are a unique feature of Kerala. These have considerably reduced the horrors of overcrowding experienced

in the large cities and villages of British India. If this large population had congregated in villages of the British Indian type leaving vast spaces between village and village, it would have presented a problem of the utmost difficulty from the point of view of sanitation, health and hygiene.

98. Though the people generally live in scattered homesteads, yet the conditions of living from the point of view of the convenience and comforts of the houses are by no means encouraging. The percentage of increase in the number of houses is less than the percentage of increase in the total population (*vide* table below.)

Decade	Percentage of increase	
	Houses	Population
1891-1901	12.4	15.4
1901-1911	14.2	16.2
1911-1921	14.9	16.8
1921-1931	22.1	27.2
1931-1941	18.0	19.1

and as decades roll on, the proximity of the houses is getting closer and closer (*vide* table below).

Year	Proximity in yards
1901	217
1911	203
1921	189
1931	171
1941	153

The house density for the State in 1941 is double that of 1901 (*vide* table below). There were 7,582 houses in 100 sq. miles in 1901 and

Year	Houses per 100 sq. miles			
	State	Lowland	Midland	Highland
1941	14,322	36,796	19,476	1,729
1931	12,137	31,137	16,284	1,651
1921	9,943	26,200	13,265	1,143
1911	8,655	23,497	11,402	840
1901	7,582	21,150	9,827	639

today there are 14,322 houses per 100 sq. miles. The congestion is most in the Lowland and least in the Highland. Sixty-five per cent. of the houses have less than three rooms and the percentage of

houses with four rooms is only 8.2 (*vide* table below).

No. of rooms	Number of households	Percentage to total
1	413,716	34.6
2	365,788	30.6
3	214,784	18.0
4	97,810	8.2
5	52,469	4.4
6	22,390	1.9
7	11,575	1.0
8	6,325	0.5
9	3,339	0.3
10	2,575	0.2
11 and above	3,482	0.3

99. The conditions are worse when we take the number of people living in each house. For this purpose a random sample of 1/20 was taken for certain selected taluks and municipal towns. That the sample is representative of the conditions of the State may be inferred from the fact that the proportion of distribution of 39,950 houses classified according to the number of rooms corresponds closely to the distribution obtained by classifying the entire total of the houses of the State (*vide* table below). It is

Number of rooms	Proportional distribution obtained from	
	sample	total
1	33.7 per cent.	34.6 per cent.
2	31.4	30.6
3	18.8	18.0
4	7.8	8.2
5	3.8	4.4
6	2.0	1.9
7	1.0	1.0
8	0.7	0.5
9	0.3	0.3
10 and above	0.5	0.5

observed that about 60 per cent. of the population live in small houses with one or two rooms. There is thus definite overcrowding in houses of small size (*vide* table below).

Number of rooms	Percentage of houses to total	Percentage of population to total
1	33.7	28.63
2	31.4	30.81
3	18.8	20.30
4	7.8	10.01
5	3.8	4.48
6	2.0	2.50
7	1.0	1.27
8	0.7	0.85
9	0.3	0.39
10 and above	0.5	0.76

The average size of the family accommodated in

houses of various sizes and the room-space available per individual are given in the table below.

No. of rooms	Average number of persons per house	Average room per person
1	4.78	0.21
2	5.33	0.37
3	5.86	0.51
4	6.29	0.63
5	6.43	0.78
6	6.94	0.88
7	6.79	1.03
8	7.00	1.14
9	7.04	1.28

It will be clear from this table that the average space available per individual is least in the one-room houses. In the seven-room houses which form 1 per cent. of the total in the State, a person gets one room on the average. Seventy per cent. of the houses have inmates varying from 3 to 7. Nearly 80 per cent. of the population are members of households which have five or more persons as residents (*vide* table below).

No. of Persons	Proportion of houses to total	Proportion of population to total
1	3.4	0.5
2	8.2	3.0
3	12.3	6.8
4	15.5	11.4
5	16.5	15.2
6	14.3	15.7
7	11.4	14.7
8	7.5	11.1
9	4.6	7.7
10 and above	6.3	13.9

The average number of persons per house has been steadily increasing from decade to decade (*vide* table below) but a slight fall is

Year	Persons per house			
	State	Lowland	Midland	Highland
1941	5.53	5.55	5.47	5.90
1931	5.48	5.58	5.45	4.94
1921	5.26	5.34	5.25	4.61
1911	5.17	5.18	5.20	4.75
1901	5.08	5.08	5.11	4.79

noticeable in the Lowland and the Midland in the last decade. This may be on account of the splitting up of the joint family which has been going on at an accelerated pace after the enactment of the partition laws. It does not follow that the density of population has decreased as a result of this. The fall in the number of persons

per house may be compensated for by the increase in the number of houses.

100. The congestion is not the only calamity that has to be faced. The structure of the houses does not warrant reasonable comfort and convenience especially during the monsoons. The cadjan walls do not give sufficient protection during the rainy season. In addition to the discomfort, the expenditure that will have to be incurred for repairing the havoc caused by the monsoons adds to the misery of the householder. More than 88 per cent. of the houses have either cadjan or straw or leaf roofs, while tiled, metal and terraced roofs come to only 11.6, per cent. of the total (*vide* table below). Only 3 per cent. of

Material of roof	Number of buildings	Percentage to total
Cadjan	902,126	77.4
Tile	128,171	11.0
Terrace	734	0.1
Metal	5,868	0.5
Other materials (Straw, leaf etc.)	128,050	11.0

the houses have brick walls. Eighteen per cent. of the houses have walls with laterite stone, while 61 per cent. of the houses have either cadjan, leaf or mud walls, 9 per cent. of the houses being of the old type with wooden walls (*vide* table below). The mud wall seems to be the most

Material of Wall	Number of buildings	Percentage to total
Cadjan	221,972	19.0
Mud	490,110	42.1
Laterite	214,048	18.4
Brick	36,892	3.2
Wood	105,479	9.0
Other materials including unspecified	96,448	8.3

common in the southern taluks, cadjan being the most popular along the coastal taluks where the coconut flourishes. In the Midland and Highland again, mud walls are more common.

101. The practice of more than one family staying under the same roof though with separate kitchens is not very common in Travancore. In the taluks adjoining the British territory, such

as Shenkotta and Thovala, the multiple-household is rather common. Even in the congested areas of the Trivandrum city, only a comparatively small proportion of the people live in such multiple households (*vide* table below). The vast majority of the buildings in the

Number of households accommodated	Number of buildings	Percentage to total
1	16,155	88.8
2	1,451	8.0
3	407	2.2
4 or more	182	1.0
Total	18,195	100.0

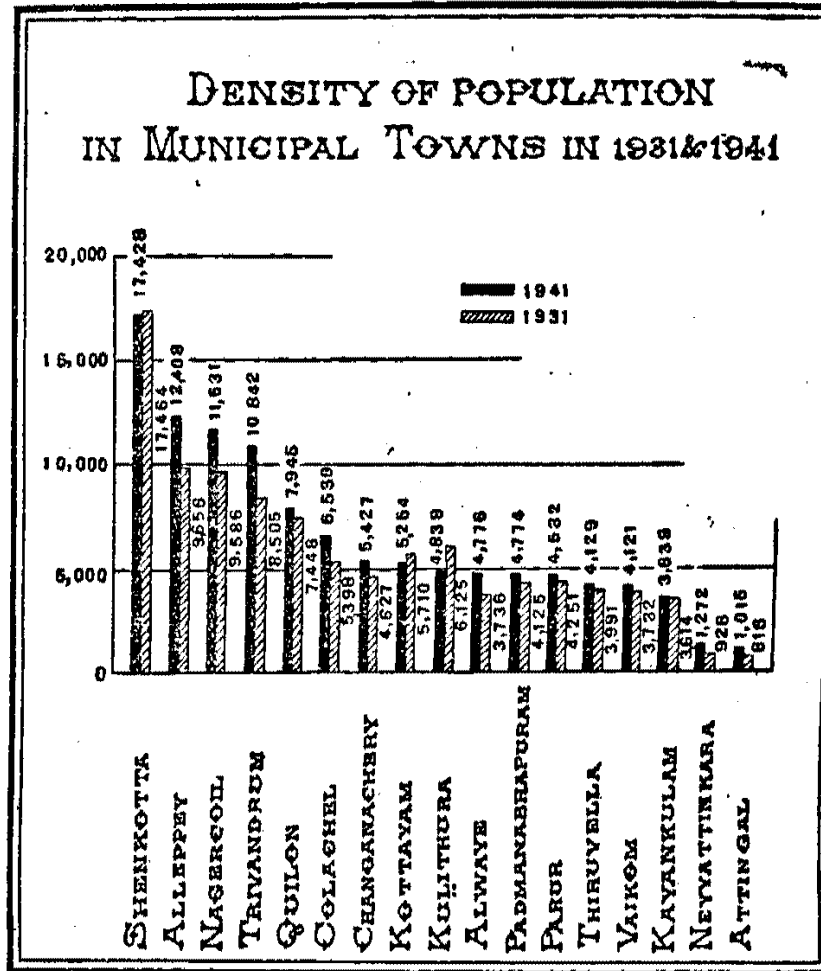
State accommodate only single households or families.

102. Of the total number of occupied houses, 119,866 are situated in the urban area. Out of these 85,057 houses are situated in the municipal towns. Though 11.4 per cent. of the total population live in the urban area, they occupy only 10.9 per cent. of the total number of houses in the State. From this point alone, it can be gathered that urban density must be higher than rural density.

103. As in the case of the Natural and Administrative Divisions, wide variations in density are noticed in the urban area also. In Shenkotta it is as high as 17,428 per sq. mile, while in Attingal it comes down to 1,015 per sq. mile. Both are municipalities. The number of towns in 1941 is 46 while in 1881 it was only six. The year 1921 marked a sudden increase in the number of towns from 11 of the previous decade to 38. This can be accounted for by the growth of police conservancy towns and by the development of taluk headquarters into towns by a progressive trend towards centralisation. In the case of the natural regions, the towns in the higher density groups are situated in the Lowland. Since 1881 the majority of places which were declared as towns have been in the Lowland.

104 The density in the municipal towns in 1941 and 1931 is illustrated in the following diagram. Among these towns, Neyyattinkara has

(700-1,000) with a density of 877. Quilon, Karunagapally and Karthigapally maintain the balance between the cultivable area and density

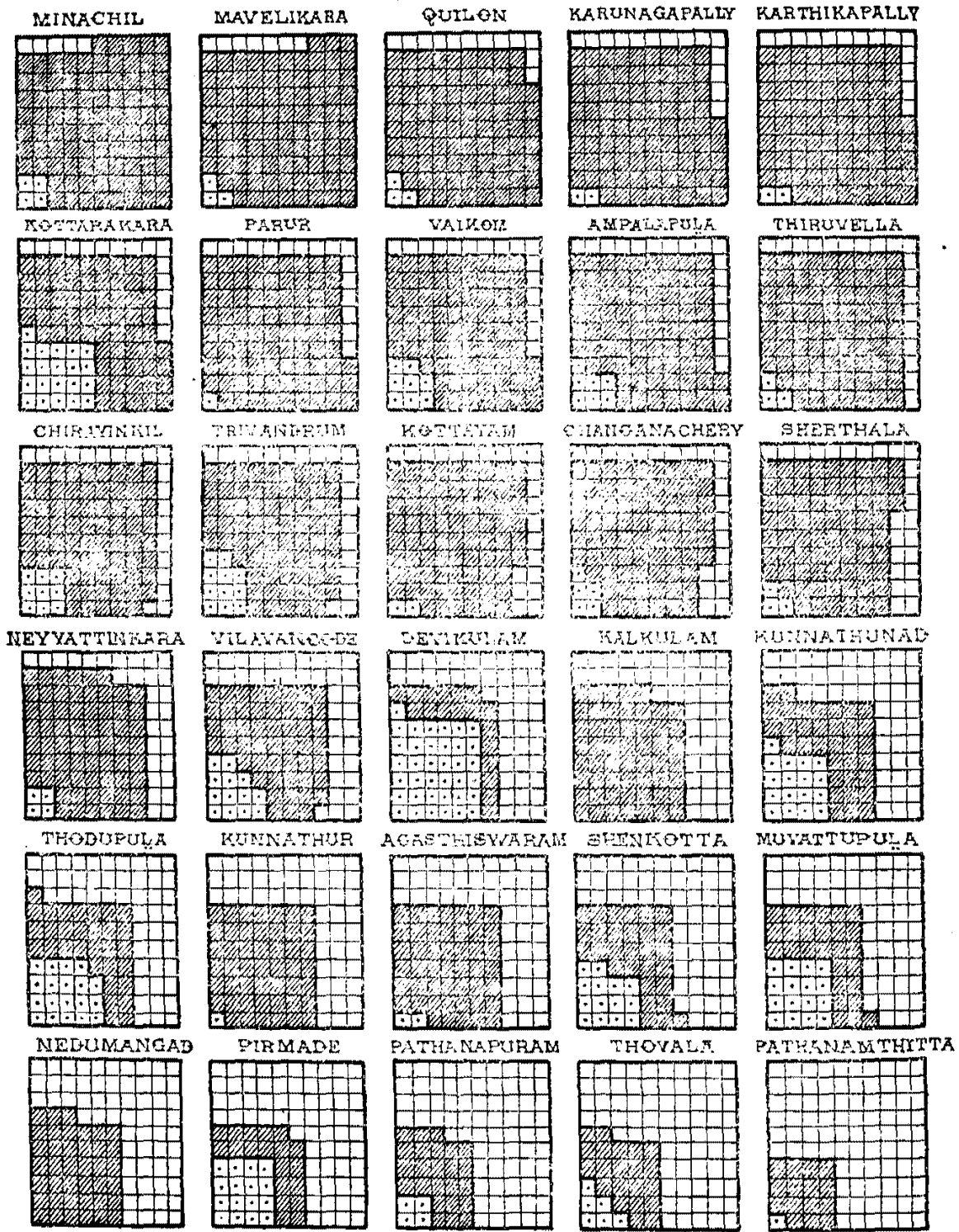




recorded the highest percentage of increase in density during the decade (37'36). Alleppey comes next followed by Alwaye. Trivandrum comes only fourth. Shenkotta which has the highest recorded density has not only not shown any increase but has even registered a decrease of 0'2 thus indicating that it has ostensibly reached the saturation point.

105. The taluks follow a different order when density is calculated on the extent of cultivable area in each taluk. The diagram on the next page gives the order of the taluks according to the extent of cultivable area. Minachil which has got the highest percentage in this respect comes only in group IV

of population. In the matter of the extent of cultivable land, Trivandrum, which has got the highest density comes only 12th. Sherthala, which has a high density, ranks 15th and Devikulam, which occupies the last place from the point of view of density (97 per sq. mile) comes 18th. This perplexing divergence between density and cultivable area can be explained from the kind of crops that are cultivated in the respective taluks. There is a close correlation between density and cultivable area if rice or coconut is the main crop, but with regard to tea and coffee where the estate system has to be adopted, the density may be very low but the cultivable or cultivated area may be very vast. Rubber and cardamom are also cultivated under

Percentage of cultivable and cultivated areas by Taluks



 Cultivated area
 Difference between cultivable and cultivated areas.

the estate system though it is possible to grow these crops economically in a smaller area than tea or coffee.

106. The difference between the cultivable and cultivated area is very small in the Lowland taluks. Here the chief crops are rice and coconut. The Fragmentation Enquiry has disclosed the tendency of progressive reduction of the individual holding. This system, though economically unsound will support a large population. The pressure of population in the Lowland taluks has resulted in bringing under cultivation practically all land that could be cultivated leaving only a very small margin of uncultivated but cultivable land.

107. The same principle generally applies to taluks in the Midland group also where the pressure of population has been increasing from decade to decade (*vide* map on movement of population.) The largest percentage of cultivable land is in the Highland taluks where, as stated previously, the density is lowest on account of the estate system of cultivation and their mountainous nature.

108. It will be seen from Subsidiary Table (i) on Imperial Table I that only 44.2 per cent. of the total area of the State is actually cultivated. Calculated on this basis, each person has an average of 43.7 cents of cultivable land and 35.7 cents of cultivated land. This calculation, like the mean density, gives no accurate idea of the pressure of population on agricultural land. Further, density figures will be significant only if it is possible to ascertain the relation in any given region between the number of persons subsisting directly or indirectly on agriculture and the agricultural potentialities of the land utilised, or, in other words, the man-land ratio. It is necessary, in the first instance, to find a realistic statistical expression of each of the elements before it is possible to determine this relation in a satisfactory manner.

109. In determining the productivity of land, not only natural factors such as soil and climate

but many human factors such as technical knowledge, capital, labour and price relations enter into the calculation. These factors are essentially dynamic in character and form vital elements in determining the indices of productivity. It would also be necessary to ascertain definitely the proportion of land used for different purposes and to determine the actual productivity of each variety, by methods capable of general application. For example, J. Poniatowski has made a calculation for Poland, of the total agro-forestal area using nominal coefficients to convert non-arable land in terms of arable. The coefficients he adopts are as follows:—

Arable land	...	1.0
Orchards and gardens	...	3.0
Meadows	...	0.4
Pasture	...	0.2
Forests	...	0.15

110. To obtain the total productive area for any given country, such coefficients are then multiplied by the area under each of these categories. But conditions vary from country to country and it would not be possible to use the same standards for the measurement of arability, particularly in the case of countries so widely different in soil, climate and vegetation, as Poland and India. In British India, a system of 'Normals' is adopted to determine the index of actual productivity by eliminating the seasonal variations due to meteorological or other factors. Unfortunately no data are available for Travancore from which it will be possible to calculate scientifically the productivity of the cultivable area or the actually cultivated area.

111. For the purpose of this calculation, a distinct demarcation should also be effected between the agricultural population and what is known as the rural population. The latter has bearing more on an administrative unit and refers to people who live in a particular area which is not urban—the differentiation of rural from urban or industrial being more or less arbitrary. The definition of agricultural population

is, in theory, fairly simple. In the most restricted sense, it includes all persons actually occupied in agriculture; but in the larger sense it includes, in addition, the dependant members of their families.

112. As in the case of land where different degrees of productivity exist, necessitating a process by which they can be brought under a homogeneous category, so in the case of the agricultural population it is necessary to determine what may be termed 'adult equivalents' of the total population working or depending on land. Supposing there is a farmer who is assisted by his six sons, it will not be correct to say that the extent of land he cultivates has to support and gets the labour of $6+1=7$ persons. His sons will be of different ages and different physical and mental capacities. So it will be necessary to work out the adult equivalent before we can say how many people are working, or are depending on this definite extent of land. Further, it would be necessary to know the relation between the quantity produced from a definite extent of land and the expenditure incurred by those who are entirely dependent upon that. A further difficulty is encountered when we have to deal with the population that does not depend solely on agriculture. The number of people for whom agriculture is a subsidiary means of livelihood in varying degrees has to be calculated on the basis of the extent to which they are benefited or dependent on this means of living. Before any real progress can be made in purposive research on the man-land ratio, therefore, not only must agricultural population be clearly defined and agricultural area and productivity calculated in a more or less satisfactory way, but some clear idea of optimum population also has to be obtained.

113. What is meant by the optimum? Carr Saunders defines it thus: "For any area under any given conditions this is the point at which the average real income per head is the greatest." Fairchild, on the other hand, approaches the question from the expenditure point of view. He thinks that the standard of living, which is

after all the essential expression of the degree to which the population in a given area is approaching or receding from the optimum, should be measured by expenditure rather than by income since the latter may, in large part, absorb saving and working expenditure. Finally, another factor of great importance—a dynamic element—in the man-land ratio is the movement of population. The net reproduction rates have, therefore, to be calculated on the population subsisting on agriculture. Birth-rates among rural population are, in general, higher than those among industrial and urban population. All the factors in the man-land ratio are therefore dynamic and consequently the optimum itself must be dynamic, *i. e.*, it is always unstable. A study in this direction will, however, give valuable clues with regard to the trends and tendencies indicating roughly whether the population is moving towards or away from the optimum.

114. It is urgently necessary therefore, to have a fairly accurate knowledge of the population that the land can support in a thickly populated country like Travancore and to ascertain whether the conditions are such as to sound a note of warning regarding the dangers of over-population. The man-land ratio, if it is possible to work it out, will give a scientific exposition of the agricultural position. Usually the cultivated or cultivable land is divided among the total population to work out the percentage of land for each individual. As the extent of land remains constant, the *per capita* area will be dwindling from year to year. But such *per capita* figures, except perhaps in the case of wet land, will not give a proper perspective of the land economy of the State. The dwindling ratio may create unnecessary alarm leading to agitation for further disafforestation. The land-grabber gets an opportunity to fish in troubled waters. Disafforestation may bring in its train soil erosion and consequent havoc to cultivated fields through floods. Even when disafforestation is effected without fear of such consequences, most of the auctioned land goes under the octopus hold of

the capitalist by methods beyond the clutches of the law of the land. If, however, such accumulation of land on the part of individuals is accompanied by honest attempts to cultivate every cent of it, the odium that attaches itself to such land-grabbing may, in part, be mitigated by the economic advantages of large-scale cultivation. If, on the other hand, the capitalist allows such land to remain uncultivated, thereby frustrating the prospects of the honest peasant in search of land, he would be committing a positive crime against society. The problem, if there was a problem, remains still unsolved waiting perhaps to raise its ugly head for the next census and seek solution on lines familiar to the expert in the field.

115. The need is, therefore, urgent to collect relevant data through which the question could be tackled on scientific lines. With limited land, a teeming population and further prospects of progressive increase in numbers from decade to decade, the question, as to how many the land could support, calculated on a scientific basis, has assumed serious proportions and it has become imperative to educate public opinion on right lines. The spur to industrialisation cannot be driven home unless this point is cleared beyond all doubt.

116. Where satisfactory statistics are not available, the existence of over-population can be indicated only through certain phenomena generally recognised as symptomatic. Agricultural over-population is often seen when—

- (i) there is progressive diminution in the size of the holdings ;
- (ii) a high proportion of food crops or cereal crops is grown in the total arable area ;
- (iii) there is low unit-yield necessitating the bringing under cultivation of the largest possible area under food crops ;
- (iv) there are low densities of cattle ;
- (v) the general low standard of living brings about under-nutrition ; and

- (vi) the low standard of living, on account of the struggle for the mere subsistence from the soil, results in cultural stagnation.

117. Out of the total area in the State, only 54·2 per cent. is cultivable and 44·2 per cent. has already been brought under cultivation. The Economic Survey has disclosed the progressive reduction in the size of the agricultural holdings from year to year. Another feature is the fragmentation of holdings, *i. e.*, the dispersion of individual holdings into small parcels. If the conditions in the natural regions are analysed, it will be seen that 93 per cent. of the cultivable land of the Lowland and nearly 86 per cent. of the cultivable land of the Midland have been brought under the plough. Even in the Highland where the estate system prevails, 56 per cent. of the land has already been brought under cultivation. In the Lowland area where we find density at its maximum, rice is the most important food crop grown. As much as 29·7 per cent. of the cultivated area in the State is taken up by this crop and it is found that the progressive diminution in the size of the holding is most pronounced in the area under rice-cultivation. In the cultivated area, the largest extent is taken up by rice as will be seen from the following table :—

Rice	...	29·7
Coconut	...	25·4
Tapioca	...	20·5
Pepper	...	4·4
Rubber	...	3·9
Tea	...	3·7
Ginger	...	1·4
Sugarcane	...	0·7
Coffee	...	0·3

118. It will be seen from the above that 75 per cent. of the cultivated area is covered by rice, coconut and tapioca of which the first and the last are essentially food crops and the second partly a food crop* and partly a money crop. The low unit-yield is also a general feature noticeable with regard to these three crops.

* Coconut is an indispensable item in the dietary of the Travancorean.

As for rice, the marginal and sub-marginal lands have already been brought under cultivation and this, perhaps, is generally true also of the other two crops. The low unit-yields may be used as additional argument for bringing under cultivation the largest possible area under food crops. Unit-yields of cereals are generally lower in the more purely agricultural countries than in the more industrialised ones. The greater dependence on the soil and the consequent pressure of agricultural population in certain places result in lowering the unit-yields.

119. Double-cropping is one of those factors of agricultural economy which counteract the serious maladjustment between the increase of population and the extension of cultivation. The following statement shows the extent of double-cropped area in 1931 and 1941.

State or Division.	Extent of double-cropped area.	
	1931 (sq. miles)	1941 (sq. miles)
STATE	378	361
ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION		
Southern	183	180
Central	157	146
Northern	38	35
NATURAL DIVISION		
Lowland	152	143
Midland	196	187
Highland	30	31

120. Except for a nominal increase of 1 sq. mile in the Highland, the area under double-crop has decreased in all the regions. Double-cropping is obviously limited by the capacity of the soil. It is highly probable that intensive subsistence farming has reached its limit and the decrease in the double-cropped area is a symptom of over-population. The rotation of crops is another method which will counteract the diminishing fertility of the soil and improve the unit-yield, but there is not much evidence of this being practised on any large scale in the State.

121. Rubber, tea, coffee and sugarcane, come under the category of crops which, unlike the major food-crops, are incapable of being economically cultivated in small holdings. These

are essentially, so far as the State is concerned, money-crops. In the nature of things, this will be controlled by a few persons and except for the fact of engaging paid labourers for working these estates, it will not be possible for peasant proprietors in any appreciable number to subsist on this form of cultivation. So the areas where these are cultivated will not be affected by the pressure of population. The number of people engaged in cultivation in these areas will bear a definite ratio to the extent of land cultivated. Hence the growing agricultural population falls more and more on such form of cultivation where subdivision could be carried on almost to an indefinite extent.

122. This progressive subdivision of agricultural holdings has its effect on the low density of cattle. In South Travancore, for example, on account of the facilities for irrigation provided by the Kothayar Irrigation works, most of the tanks had been reclaimed and brought under rice cultivation resulting in the progressive diminution of grazing grounds for cattle. Cattle used to feed on the grass grown along the banks of these tanks and when these were converted into rice fields, fodder had to be found elsewhere. Incidentally green manure also became less and less available and had to be purchased at prohibitive rates. What with the low density of cattle, cattle-manure had also to be imported.

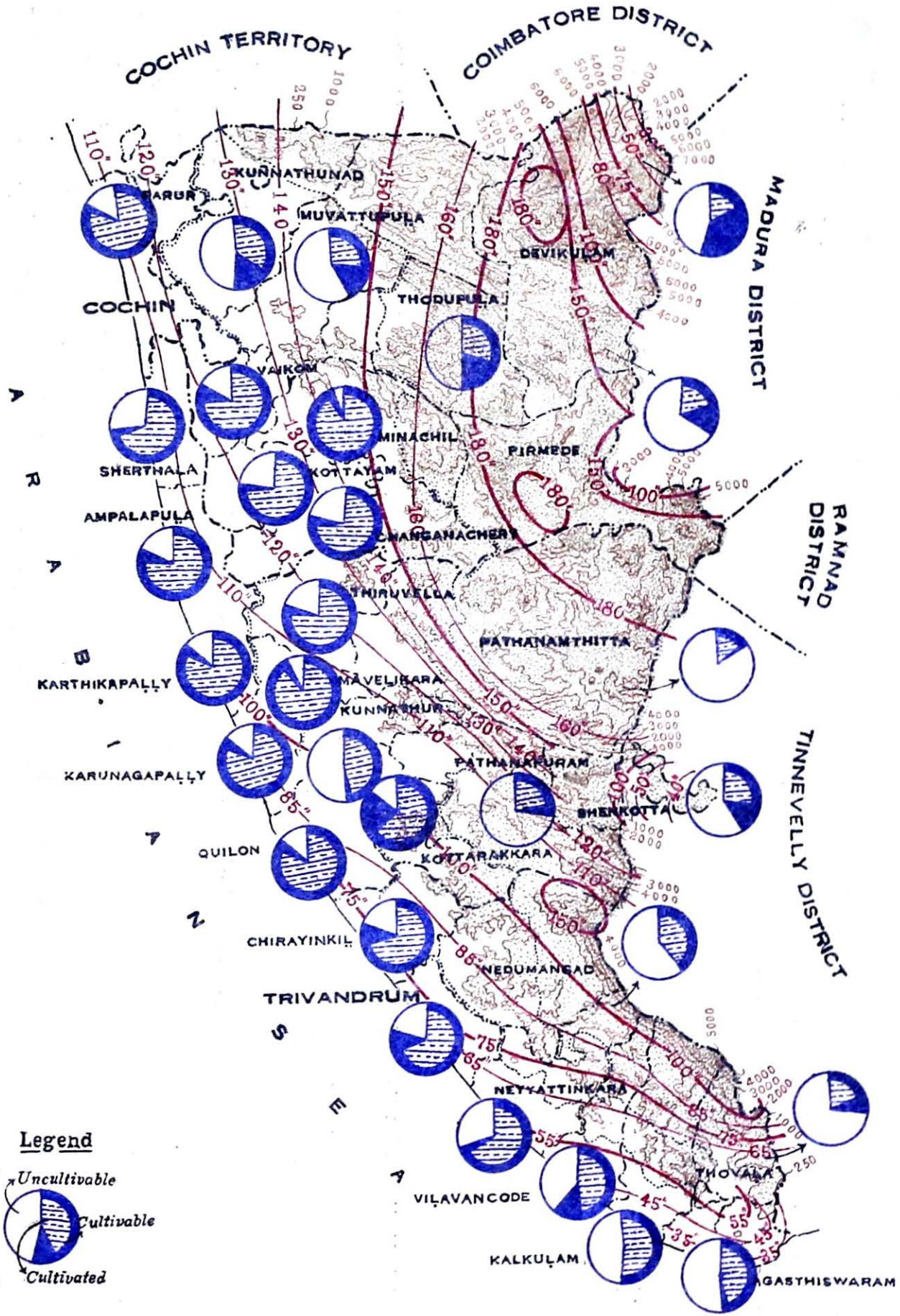
123. In other parts of Travancore also, more and more land has been brought under cultivation on account of the facilities for irrigation and also on account of the plentiful rainfall. More and more people congregate here. The following table helps to strike correlations between rainfall, gross cultivated area and density on the total area.

Natural Division.	Average rainfall in inches		Percentage of gross cultivated area irrigated		Density on total area	
	1931	1941	1931	1941	1931	1941
Lowland	78.0	87.64	23.94	35.35	1,739	2,042
Midland	109.0	97.68	14.65	35.60	887	1,066
Highland	128.0	103.12	6.95	16.01	82	102
STATE	99.19	101.05	16.65	32.65	665	792

TRAVANCORE

Extent of cultivable and cultivated land by Taluks
with Variations in altitude and Rainfall

Scale 1 Inch = 20 Miles



124. The progressive reduction in unit-yields, along with the smaller size of the agricultural holdings, the high proportion of food-crops to total cultivated area, the low unit-yields and the low densities of livestock has resulted in under-nutrition which, when chronic, may itself be taken as one of the most important indices of over-population. In the regions of adverse natural conditions, under-nutrition reflects the severity of the struggle for subsistence, while in those of dense agricultural population, it is the outward sign of the 'hidden unemployment.' Here most of the agricultural holdings are insufficient for family subsistence as is evident from the Economic Survey. In such regions, periodic oscillations are common. In Travancore a cereal mono-culture prevails, any other cereal besides rice being almost non-existent. Here the effects of a bad harvest would be disastrous, particularly when nearly 2/3 of the rice required has to be imported.

125. Generally rural population shows greater fertility than urban population as will be clear from the subjoined table, and the pressure of

Community	Number of children born per family	
	Urban.	Rural.
Brahman	5.7	6.3
Ilava	6.5	6.7
Kammala	6.5	7.3
Nayar	5.7	6.4
Pulaya	6.0	6.4
Vellala	5.4	6.2
Muslim	6.0	7.2
Syrian Christian	7.1	7.1

population in many cases may be due partly to human fertility rather than to the other factors mentioned before in connection with the man-land ratio.

126. The misery caused by years of poor unit-yields in these marginal and sub-marginal areas is accentuated by the general difficulty in obtaining cheap food from outside, mainly through other money-crops not being available to the poor people to enable them to obtain the necessary cash for purchases.

127. The low standard of living among the agricultural classes, especially in the more densely populated areas, is generally associated with lower

skill, the general cultural standard being severely affected by the struggle for mere subsistence from the soil. The absence of substantial help from industrial and urban centres towards improvement in the products of agriculture perpetuates the low unit-yields. The whole thing therefore works in a vicious circle. The low yields of agriculture prevent the accumulation of capital necessary for the introduction of improvements and the general raising of the standard of living. When social degradation and misery go below a certain level, it is not possible to expect a response in the form of a sustained struggle against unfavourable conditions. On the contrary, it often results in an apparent loss of this capacity of reaction and the sinking into a state of sheer despondency. Chronic under-nutrition, which is a common feature in these agriculturally over-populated regions, results in disease and general loss of vitality. Together these conditions undermine what remains of the spirit of enterprise. The University Department of Research has made a beginning in agricultural research and it is hoped that sustained efforts on right lines will produce substantial results in time.

128. The failure generally of co-operative organisations in Travancore, can mostly be traced to the above circumstances. Even the minimum capital that is necessary for the development of co-operation is not available due to the low productivity and the absorption of all available surplus by excessive population which shows only progressive increase on account of a high birth-rate usually found among agricultural communities. It is often accentuated by the difficulty of finding markets and the lack of adequate cultural contacts with the outside world.

129. From the foregoing facts there is reason to believe that there is agricultural over-population, though for want of statistics it cannot be accurately measured. What are the remedies? In the first place a proper distribution of agricultural land will relieve pressure on the agricultural population. But this is impossible under the existing law. The only methods that could be

adopted are :—(i) to penalise people who leave land uncultivated, and (ii) to prevent further subdivision of agricultural holdings by legislation. The latter by itself will not be able to rectify the havoc already wrought. Progressive reduction in the size of holdings is not a satisfactory condition precedent to agricultural improvement. Any measure to ensure better unit-yields or higher intensity of production demands a larger extent of individual holdings. The Census Commissioner for 1931, who was an expert in agriculture, has remarked that the introduction of scientific methods of cultivation, however much the Department of Agriculture may strive, cannot make much headway under existing conditions in Travancore. He considers ten acres as the minimum for a family of five members and has stated further that on this basis more than 95 per cent. of the holdings in Travancore are uneconomic. The Economic Survey conducted along with the present census has disclosed conditions perhaps worse than what existed in 1931. (A detailed discussion on this with relevant data is given in the Report on Economic Survey). Even with regard to unit-yields, Travancore produces less than other countries which grow paddy. The average out-turn of paddy per acre is about 5,000 lbs. in Spain, 3,000 lbs. in Italy, 2,500 lbs. in Japan, but only 1,250 lbs. in Travancore. The countries in Europe and Japan have increased their yield by the adoption of scientific methods of cultivation. But this is impossible unless a complete change is introduced by legislation in the system of land-holding in the State. That a reform of some such kind may be necessary is clear from the increasing proportion of the population that is being supported by agriculture from census to census. (*Vide* table below.)

Year.	Population supported by agriculture.
1901	47.4 per cent.
1911	53.6
1921	51.7
1931	54.3
1941	57.4

130. Though this may seem bright as compared to the population supported by agriculture

in India which had come to the alarming figure of 71 per cent. a decade ago, yet when compared to the population increase in Travancore the prospect is by no means encouraging. There is not much likelihood of increasing the acreage under rice cultivation; and even if the life irrigation scheme is successful the percentage of land that could be brought under rice cultivation will only be very small. So the only solution lies in intensive farming. In this case the limitations of double-cropping under the present system of cultivation have already been discussed.

131. Development of 'mixed farming' is another remedy for agricultural over-population. In this connection the suggestion made in the final report of the Mixed Committee on the relation of nutrition to health, agriculture and economic policy, that the Danish system of arable-animal husbandry in which cereals, partly grown on the farm and used to feed animals, should be more widely adopted, has an especially important application in those over-populated regions in which cereals occupy a very high proportion of the cultivated area. In addition, more leguminous food-crops should be grown. In general they say that a great development of 'mixed farming' is necessary. "The introduction of large proportions of livestock products, vegetables and fruits in the agricultural output might not only mean an improvement in bringing about better nutrition but would at the same time raise the general standards of agriculture, facilitating better crop rotations, assisting in soil conservation and improvement and absorbing more of the superabundant labour that is at present the only resource in which these regions are rich. No region will benefit more than these from a 'marriage of health and agriculture' and this is in fact what was involved in these instances by that rationalisation of agriculture that is a necessary complement of agrarian reform."

132. In the 1931 report, it is stated that out of 3,043,000 acres of cultivable area nearly

342,000 acres including fallows and cultivable waste remained uncultivated. It has been stated there that the land might be poor in quality and on account of the operation of the law of diminishing returns it might not respond to the application of labour and capital as liberally as the land already under the plough. It must be clear from the above statement that the only means by which this land could be brought under cultivation is by the introduction of scientific methods provided the land is not distributed in such a way as to make it impossible to introduce such methods due to the diminution in extent. According to the 1941 census, there are only 488,479 acres of cultivable land not cultivated. Within a decade 50 per cent. of the cultivable land not cultivated has been brought under cultivation or taken up as house-sites for the increasing population. The prospect, by no means, is encouraging. It is for the Department of Agriculture to try these experiments, if experiments are possible, on this land and enlighten the agricultural population with regard to the supreme advantages of introducing scientific methods of cultivation.

133. From the information available from the Agricultural Department, it is found that there is a prospect of substantially increasing the yield by—

(i) the introduction of lift-irrigation which will make it possible to adopt double-crop system in the arable area in the taluks of Muvattupula, Kunnathunad and Parur; and

(ii) making yearly cultivation possible in the large areas of *punja* lands which now lie fallow every alternate year.

134. The fact that nearly 60 per cent. of the rice that we require has to be imported argues the imperative need of bringing these schemes into fruition in the shortest possible time. It would be a boon to Travancore if these schemes would bring in the expected increase in the yearly output of paddy.

135. If urban and industrial centres could help in bringing about marketing facilities for agricultural products by increasing the markets and improving the quality, it will be possible to raise the capacity of agriculture to absorb more people. At the same time, efforts should be made to cheapen the prices of commodities consumed by the agricultural population whether for the purpose of further production or not. One thing that is noticeable in these days of industrialisation is a transition from subsistence to cash-agriculture. The area under industrial crops is also increased. In Travancore the rapid extension of cultivation in recent years of tea, cashewnut, lemon-grass, rubber and cardamom are instances in point. This phenomenon has been observed elsewhere also since the war of 1914—1918.

136. Rural electrification which is made possible by the cheap electric power available from Pallivasal is another method of allaying the distress of over-population. In the short span of five years, several industries have been started on account of the possibilities of getting cheap power. There are already several sugar-making concerns, oil mills and rice mills, and there is also scope for the development of the textile industry if power looms are used even on a small scale in the rural areas. Significant developments are possible in the revival of cottage industries like lace-making, embroidery, wood-work and coir-making by means of rural electrification. Rural electrification will also help in the extension of large-scale industry in the villages. In Travancore, the latter is largely possible on account of the improved facilities for transport. The Sri Chitra Mills and the various tile factories at Alwaye, numerous tea factories in the High Ranges, cotton mills and tile factories at Quilon, the ilmenite factory at Chavara etc., are instances in point. Improved facilities for transport have also made possible the intimate interpenetration of rural and industrial areas so as to allow a large proportion of the population to continue their cheap living in the country and

even to be partly occupied in agriculture and yet to take up employment in the towns and industrial areas.

137. Mention has already been made of the immense possibilities of the extension of the fishing industry in the coastal areas. There is great scope for the export of large quantities of fish if the whole industry is modernised. It is hoped that the measures taken by Government for the improvement of this industry will partly alleviate the pressure of over-population, particularly in the Low lands.

138. Development of communications should go hand in hand with the progressive industrialisation of the State. A rapid extension of communications in a country where the mountain, the river and the lie of the land compel a very large outlay before progress could be recorded will not be justified unless compensated for by the increase in output of agricultural or industrial products. Here is a case in which the active co-operation of the public is called for.

139. Travancore has had the reputation of having the best system of communications in India; and in the last decade considerable progress has been recorded in this direction. The outstanding achievement is the construction of the 42 miles of cement road connecting Nagercoil with the capital city. The motor traffic along this road perhaps beats the record of any single highway of equal length in any other part of India. Even if a bus should run every five minutes, there will still be enough passengers from the city or to the city. The three main roads radiating from the capital have been considerably improved. Several new roads have been constructed linking up the outlying districts with the main roads. Improvements have been effected in the chief waterways also. The canals have been widened and new canals have been cut and linked with the old ones. New bridges have been constructed, the most important of them being the Alwaye bridge, the Thottappally bridge and the Neriamangalam bridge. Substantial improvements have been

made to most of the important bridges along the main roads. These improvements in road communication effected in the last decade have resulted in an almost phenomenal increase of motor traffic throughout the State. The motor enthusiast could wake up with the sunrise at the land's end of India (Cape Comorin), have his breakfast in 'Udayagiri' surrounded by picturesque mountains with the remnants of the old for reminding him of the grim battles fought in the historic past, reach the capital in less than an hour and after the forenoon spent in sight-seeing enjoy a sumptuous lunch at the 'Mascot,' have his tea at Kottayam, feasting his eyes on the placid lakes that gird the slopes of the hillock on which stands the spacious and luxurious Residency House and reach the delightful heights of Munnar for dinner. He will have travelled but then over 250 miles without the irritating inconvenience of a ferry or the rude jolting usually experienced on the country roads elsewhere.

140. Government have in the last decade spent Rs. 176.32 lakhs on communications and this liberal outlay has resulted in the State having one mile of road and canal for every 1.5 sq. miles of land including even hills and forest. The total length of communications maintained by the Travancore Public Works Department in 1939-40 was 5,401 miles. Mention has already been made of the centralisation of the Transport system and the progress made in the last triennium.

141. The railway which runs from the capital city to the border taluk of Shenkotta over a distance of 99 miles links it with the British territory beyond the Ghats. This railway practically runs parallel to the macadamized road providing a double line of communication for the rich and not fully developed taluks of Kottarakara, Pathanapuram and Shenkotta of the Central Division.

142. The facilities for transport have increased the number and popularity of markets. There are nearly 600 markets and over a coup

of lakhs of people regularly congregate in these markets. The poor villager could sell his surplus vegetables, eggs and chicken in the nearest market and get a much better price for them than he would have got in his native village. An anna will take him from his farm to the nearest market. A thriving internal trade is carried on not only in fruits, vegetables, and poultry, but also in cattle in the several cattle-markets which transact business for a few thousands every week. The volume of trade transacted in these centres comes to very encouraging figures. The hard lot of the agriculturist in the over-populated areas is, to a certain extent, mitigated by the marketing facilities thus afforded.

143. The isolation of the village has been almost obliterated by this rapidly increasing system of communications. It has had its effects upon social life as well. Visiting friends and attending marriage functions or religious festivities have now become an almost daily affair. Formerly these meant so much time and expense since the chief mode of conveyance was the bullock-cart or the country boat. A quarter of a century ago, the majority among the village folk never so much as once visited the capital city but today every State festival draws the villagers even from the remotest parts of the State. What before was a long and tedious journey has now become as pleasant as an afternoon picnic.

145. The Trunk Telephone has given a fillip to "big business" in the State. Important intelligence is impatient of delay and loses its exhilaration if not delivered hot from the oven. The writer was not a little amused when he found that the questions set for the selection of candidates for the Economic Survey in a particular taluk were phoned to the neighbouring taluk well ahead of the scheduled time for the written test in the latter place; but alas! the questions set for the next centre were different. The phone bids fair to become as indispensable to the ordinary citizen as the bus.

145. Surplus labour in a particular taluk could now migrate to centres where there is

greater demand. In South Travancore, for instance, in the course of house-numbering it was found that many houses of poor people were empty as they had gone to the next village or the neighbouring taluk where there was dearth of labour for tapping or for harvesting. This migration is particularly noticeable in the Kuttanad areas where there is almost mass movement of labour from the neighbouring taluks during the harvest season. Migration to the rubber estates is also increasing though to a lesser extent. The remarkable increase in the facilities for transport has considerably accelerated this internal migration during the last decade. It will be seen from Imperial Table VI that the total number of persons born in one Administrative Division and enumerated in another is 114,841 (*vide* subjoined table) of whom nearly 87.4 per cent. were born in contiguous divisions. A good proportion of the persons enumerated in the Devikulam and Firmede taluks were born in other taluks and this shows the volume of migration to these taluks from the other parts of the State. The movement of population between the Natural Divisions is more important than between the Administrative Divisions. Naturally, the Highland division attracts the largest number for work in the rubber, tea and cardamom plantations.

146. The proportion of immigrants to emigrants in the different Administrative Divisions and their percentage to the aggregate population are given in the subjoined table.

Administrative Division	Received from other Divisions		Given to other Divisions.		Loss(-) or gain (+) to the Division
	Number	Proportion per cent. of the population of the Division	Number	Proportion per cent. of the population of the Division	
Southern	19,289	1.1	28,880	1.7	-9,591
Central	43,698	1.8	56,658	2.3	-12,960
Northern	51,854	2.7	29,303	1.5	+22,551

So far as internal migration is concerned, more people emigrate from the plains to the hills than *vice versa*. This fact is confirmed by the percentage of increase of population in the three Natural Divisions (*vide* subsidiary Table (i) on Imperial Table II). Since 1901 the percentage

of increase in the Highland is 232·8 as against 112·4 and 89·9 of the Midland and the Lowland respectively. The effect of internal migration will also be reflected in the rate of growth of population in the different taluks. It will be clear from the subjoined table that the increase is

Taluk	Net variation	
	1931-1941	1921-1931
Pirmede	41·0	91·6
Kottarakkara	36·5	26·5
Tbodupuja	36·4	58·4
Changanachery	27·8	41·4
Muvattupuja	24·7	31·7
Quilon	22·9	26·1
Kunnathur	23·6	25·3
Ampalapuja	22·2	28·7
Kottayam	21·4	33·3
Minachil	21·3	25·8
Devikulam	8·8	79·9
Nedumangad	19·2	40·3
Pathanamthitta	39·0	37·1

most pronounced in those taluks which have been recently developed. In the taluks which have been developed before this decade, a pronounced fall is noticeable in the rate of increase. This may probably be due to the fact that there has been no increase in the extent of cultivation. As has been stated above, the estates will only support a certain quota of the coolie population which is necessary for work in them. The increase by births cannot come up to any appreciable figure on account of the short and temporary tenure of the imported labourers. The demand for labour will also depend upon fluctuations of the market.

147. Chronic over-population often forces the younger and the more adventurous section to emigrate. Though emigration has been regarded as the principal symptom of over-population, it is a phenomenon of wider import than the relief of over-population. The more adventurous people may migrate not because they cannot get on in their mother country but they hope for better prospects elsewhere. So emigration may be independent of over-population. It may be either temporary or permanent. Unfortunately the figures for emigration for 1941 are not available as Table VI (Birthplace) has not been sorted in the Provinces and in many of the States. The 1931 Census records an emigration figure of

58,466. The number of emigrants has been on the increase from 1891 but it has always been less than the immigrants (*vide* subjoined table).

Year of Census	Total immigrants	Total emigrants	Excess of immigrants over emigrants
1891	16,978	13,768	3,210
1901	54,903	24,490	30,413
1911	61,165	26,123	35,042
1921	73,591	30,260	43,331
1931	135,103	58,466	76,637

The excess of immigrants rose from 3,210 in 1891 to 76,637 in 1931. From the returns of 1931 it is found that nearly 85·5 per cent. of the emigrants have migrated to different parts of India and only 14·5 went outside India. Among the emigrants to the foreign countries the largest number went to the Straits Settlements and Malaya (4,333). Ceylon attracted the next largest number (3,393). The former show distinct increase over the figures of 1921. Though the figures in Table VI may show that the Travancorean is essentially of a stay-at-home type, the economic depression must have accelerated emigration to a considerable extent. Figures are not available for 1941 with regard to emigration. It may, however, be confidently asserted that the number must be considerably higher than that of 1931. Since the war started, there has been a continuous flow of men from the State for serving in different capacities as soldiers, as War Technicians, in the Labour Corps, and the numerous subordinate posts in the ministerial and administrative sections of the War Department. Travancore is found to be the best recruiting centre in India. It is probable that those who have offered their services may also have been induced to do so on account of the better prospects outside the State. Migration has distinct economic advantages for the State. The emigrants send remittances to relatives at home which allay, to a certain extent, the hardships caused by the economic depression. Besides the accumulated savings of the emigrant which he brings back home when he returns, the technical knowledge he has gained during his stay abroad is a more important dynamic factor. It would be possible to assess this economic advantage more accurately if

the Post Office would supply the data with regard to remittances to relatives in Travancore from their kith and kin abroad.

148. But emigration has its evil effects also. It is a selective agent and tends to remove the best, especially the younger elements. These emigrants will invariably be under 40 and above 20. It has its effects on the age structure of the population from the point of view of reproduction. In the case of females, it has the effect of reducing the number of potential mothers. This may have more far-reaching effects than is immediately noticeable.

149. Emigration is, however, less than immigration by fifty per cent. In 1931 for 1,000 immigrants there were only 433 emigrants. From Imperial Table VI, it will be clear that there are as many as 137,945 persons here born outside Travancore against 135,103 of 1931. From the fact that out of this number as many as 72,274 are females, it must be clear that they have come not for any temporary stay but to settle down. A very small percentage of people enumerated may be children of Travancoreans born outside this State but it will be compensated for by the number of children born to non-Travancoreans in Travancore and who have been enumerated as Travancoreans. Of the 137,945 people who are recorded as having been born outside the State, 134,864 were born in Provinces and States adjacent to Travancore, the largest number being in Tinnevely (52,803); the next in order comes Cochin with 31,407, Madras coming third with 21,466, Madura fourth with 9,370, Malabar a close fifth with 8,081 and Ramnad sixth with 6,359. The increase of those from Madras is phenomenal. It has risen from 2,105 in 1931 to more than ten times its number, 21,466 in 1941. This marked increase noted in Madras may very likely be due to the inaccurate returns by the coolies who might have given their birth place as 'Madras', a generic term for all places in the Presidency. It can also be inferred from the

smaller numbers recorded as born in the Districts of Madura, Ramnad etc.

150. In the Trivandrum city there are 5,172 people born in Provinces and States in India and 381 people born in other Asiatic countries. (*vide* Imperial Table VI, Trivandrum City). Out of the former as many as 4,111 people were born in the Madras Presidency. Here again Tinnevely leads with 2,431 but Cochin drops to 672. There are more Malabar people (714) than Cochinites.

151. Nearly fifty per cent. of the immigrants are labourers working mostly on the tea estates. The large number of coolie labourers imported from outside for work in the estates was partially justifiable so long as inadequacy of communications prevented the migration of labour from the plains to the hills. By the opening of the Neriya-mangalam-Pallivasal road this difficulty has been removed and it would be in the interests of the State if a progressive reduction is made in the number of coolies imported into the estates. With the natural intelligence which the people of Travancore possess it would be possible to get more efficient labour with perhaps less expenditure. The argument that in working in tea gardens, particularly in plucking tea-leaves, the Tamil coolie is considered to be more efficient cannot be justified, as efficiency of unskilled labour depends on experience and the Travancorean could gain this experience in a much shorter time than the Tamil coolie, on account of the adaptability of the former which has been demonstrated elsewhere in sufficient measure. It would be interesting in this connection to remember that in the recruitment of War Technicians the Travancorean was considered the ablest and the most adaptable to conditions quite different from what he has been used to all his life. I have been informed by persons in high authority that the Travancore recruit picks up his work in much shorter time than any enlisted from the rest of India. It is only fair, therefore, that the Travancorean who is weighed down by a long period of economic depression should not be denied redress in his own

country when there is opportunity and scope for it. In the large number of rubber estates that have cropped up in the last two decades, the vast majority of the coolies are Travancoreans. It cannot be said that the work of tapping the rubber trees requires less skilled labour than the plucking of tea-leaves in the tea estate.

152. The existence of over-population has been indicated above by analysing certain phenomena which have been generally recognised as symptomatic. But it is necessary to gauge the intensity of the pressure caused by this over-population. An approach to the problem is possible through an analysis of the age, sex and civil condition of the population. Ordinarily the people between the ages of 15 and 50 may be taken as the 'gainful workers' in a community. Among these the male population are the more important as they constitute the majority of the gainful workers. From the data collected, it is found that out of the total population only a small percentage of women are actually employed and earning a livelihood by their labour. Invariably children below 15 and persons above 50 have to be supported by the 'gainful workers', as the number of people in the latter category with independent means of livelihood is very small. The persons in the 0—15 and in the 50 and above groups together with those unemployed in the 15—50 group represent the 'hidden unemployment' in the State. What proportion the 'hidden unemployment' bears to the total population has to be ascertained. If a progressive increase is noted in this group from year to year then the pressure is seen to be intensified.

153. Modern civilisation demands that the State must progressively make available to all 'groups' reasonable standards of living. Foremost among all the gains of civilisation are health and education. These a citizen has the right to expect from any civilised State. The idea is gaining ground that education should make possible an intellectual development continuing throughout life, while public health should aim at

reducing the number of deaths and in general guaranteeing longevity of life. But if the proportion of the aged persons in the population should go on progressively increasing, it would raise new problems, social, cultural and economic. In the case of children also a progressive increase in numbers will create similar problems. Viewed from any of these aspects, therefore, the age-composition of the population and the tendencies revealed by it are vitally important in any population study.

154. The age returns show that accuracy is more the exception than the rule. The large majority of the people are indifferent to the correct return of their age for they do not seem to bother themselves about accuracy which they think, may conveniently be relegated to the official circle. The Census Commissioner for Madras, in 1931, has pertinently remarked that "from one point of view this illustrates the peculiarly practical and realistic outlook on life of the average Indian, who yet is often thought to be impractical and visionary. After all, years are a mere convenience for reckoning; to exalt them into an absolute standard as is done in western countries, is to give them an undue importance. Capacity is what matters. Thus to the Indian our application of age-limits to govern retirement and general insistence on birth certificates seem probably to show a defective and—to use a popular word in India—bureaucratic attitude towards life". This observation is more or less true with regard to this State also. The Statistician tries to eliminate error in age returns by grouping them; the rustic adopts a cruder but, at the same time, more effective method of calculation to serve his purpose. He divides life into various stages. Till the boy goes to school he is a child; till he marries he is an adolescent; after he marries he is a man. When he gets a grandchild, he takes the status of an old man; and when his hair is all grey and his body bent, he assumes the State in which age does not count or, to put it in the rustic way, he begins his second childhood. Others attend to his wants; he does not attend to the wants of others. One is

reminded in this connection of *Bharthruhari's* famous classification of human life into seven stages, as well as Shakespeare's surprisingly equivalent description of 'the seven ages of man'. The Hindu Sastras divide life into six different 'Asramas', consisting of *Saisavam* (childhood), *Kaumaram* (adolescence), *Yowanam* (youth), *Garhasthyam* (householder), *Vanaprastham* (asceticism) and *Sanyasam* (renunciation). For the females, however, only three stages have been prescribed, viz., *Kaumaram* (girlhood), in which she is under the protection of the father, *Yowanam* (youth) when she is under the protection of the husband and lastly *Vardhakym* (old age) when she is under the protection of her son. This is largely true of Indian society, whether Hindu, Muslim or Christian. This classification is functional rather than annual. The division of life into different 'Asramas' does not, however, eliminate the calculation of the annual age. Astrology has developed age-calculation to a high degree of scientific accuracy, almost to the minute fraction of a second. For the various ceremonies during the life-time of a male or a female, the age has to be taken into account to a large extent. Not only the months and days but even the minutes and seconds are important. The calculation is based on the position of the stars and here meticulous accuracy is a condition precedent to the correct determination of the auspicious time. So, it cannot at all be said that the ancients were indifferent to the calculation of age. But this system was Aryan in origin and did not affect the masses who were not allowed to come within the charmed circle. Dravidian influence continued to dominate South India in spite of the infiltration of Aryan culture and so the highly scientific calculation of the passage of time in the Hindu *sastras* had no meaning to the ordinary rustic who looked at the question from the functional rather than from the annual aspect of it. The '*Nithi Sastra*', however, considers age as one of the nine things which should be kept secret. The practice of not disclosing one's age on the birthday is a vestige of this custom. With the introduction of the

calendar month, a further confusion was added to the calculation of age. The anniversary of a Hindu's birthday varies from year to year according to the position of the star in the particular month in which he was born. It is no wonder, therefore, that the masses became indifferent to the annual calculation of age and conveniently adopted the functional calculation by which life is divided into distinct periods according to the functions to be performed in each period, though it may not correspond to the six *asramas* which were prescribed only for the twice-born. Those Christians and Muslims, who were converts from Hinduism, may very probably, particularly among the lower orders, have continued this custom even after they adopted the new faiths.

155. It is unfair, therefore, to scoff at the rustic and indulge in cheap jokes at his expense. One will never get a proper perspective if he approaches this question with a superiority complex. The knowing rustic has his laugh at the authorities when he nods approval of the age imposed on him by the Supervisor. Further, "tolerance for the vagaries of superiors is so attractive a feature of Indian life".

156. It is no wonder, therefore, that when the age-returns are analysed undue weightage is found at certain ages. The explanation for this weightage is the custom or the tradition which divides life into periods and not into annual age-groups. The conflict between the functional calculation and the yearly one may be the cause of many of the errors in the age-returns.

157. An attempt has been made to smooth the errors in the individual age-returns. If during the enumeration stage it had been possible to instruct the enumerator to record the age according to the traditional functional classification also, there would have been the possibility of striking an interesting and instructive comparison. The experiment would have been worth trying. Perhaps the 1951 census may resort to a more practical method, adapted to

the traditions and practices of the country and thus save a lot of time spent in calculation for the chapter on age.

158. The errors detected in age returns may broadly be classed under two heads:—(i) accidental, where the individual is unable due to ignorance, to give his correct age, and (ii) deliberate or biased where the wrong age is given mostly for selfish advantage. If the individual ages of all persons are correctly recorded in a population increasing under normal conditions, the figures returned under each age should decrease with advancing ages. But the actual returns do not show such a smooth progression. (See diagram on next page). Actually however such a smooth progression is never obtained. (*vide* subsidiary table (v) on Imperial table VII prepared for a sample of the population). It may be noted that the figures shoot up at ages which are multiples of five or ten especially at the adult ages. The figure for 40, for example, is very much higher than the figure for 39 or 41. This may be due to the fact that persons who are actually 39 or 41 may have been returned as 40 years old as a result of mere guessing of age. To a lesser extent people who are 38 or 42 may also have been returned as 40 years old. It is found that in guessing ages, multiples of five and ten are selected more often than any other number. Preference is shown first for ages ending with 0, *e.g.*, 20, 30, 40, etc., and then for those ending with 5, *e.g.*, 25, 35, 45, etc. After 0 and 5 a tendency is noticeable to prefer even numbers, odd numbers being the last preference. The following is found to be the order of preference both in Travancore and in India; 0, 5, 2, 8, 4, 6, 3, 7, 1 and lastly 9. The degree of preference of numbers which are multiples of five and ten can be ascertained by calculating what is called the 'index of concentration'. "It is the per cent. which the numbers reported as multiples of five forms to 1/5 of the total number between 23 and 62 years inclusive". The higher the index the greater will be the inaccuracy. The index of concentration calculated for Travancore shows that

there is a progressive increase in the accuracy of the returns (*vide* subjoined table).

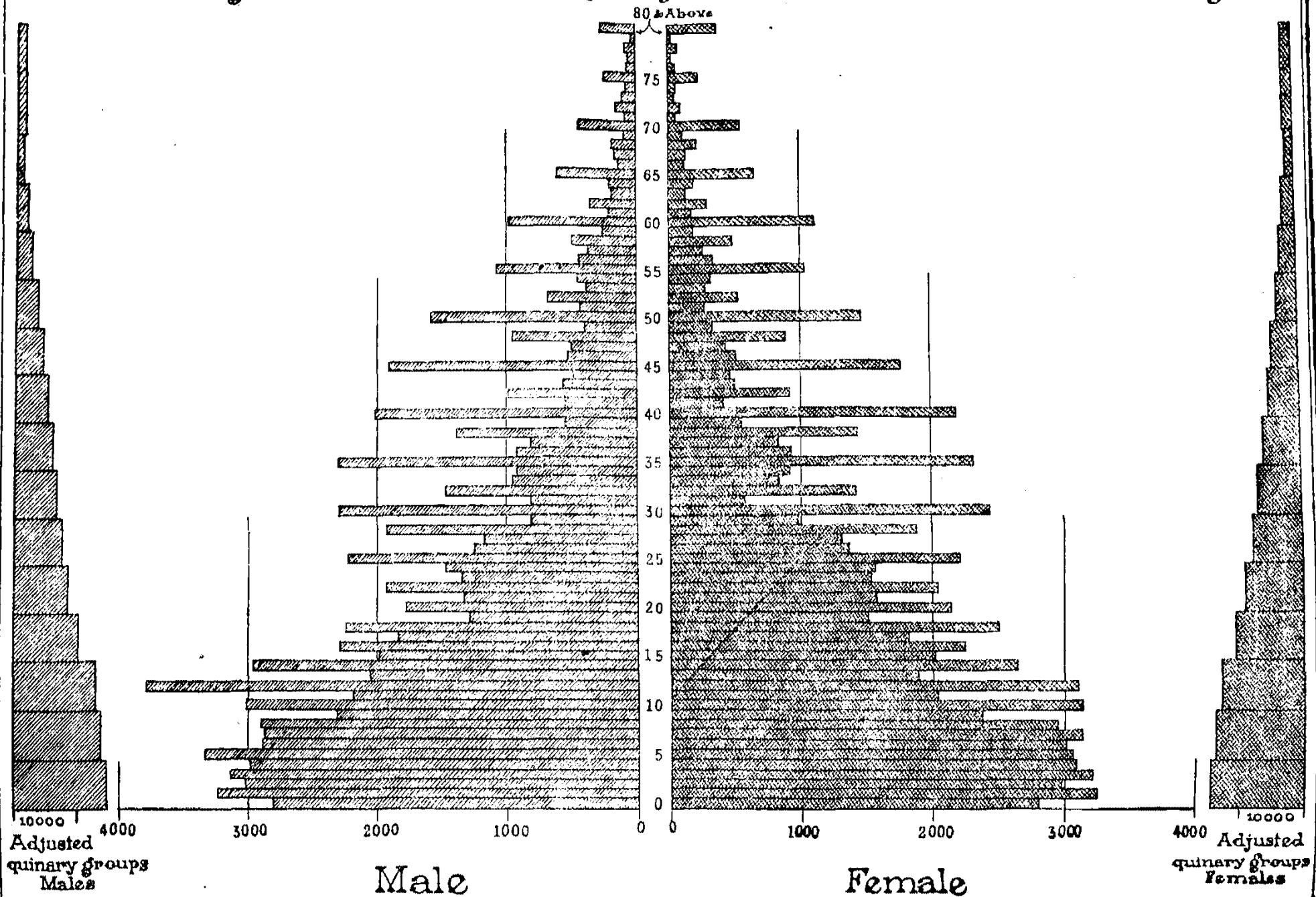
Index of concentration

Year	Male	Female
1901	258	273
1921	223	250
1941	184	191

159. In Travancore till 1921 the age recorded was the completed age and the figures were sorted for individual ages up to 4 and thereafter in quinary groups (5-9, 10-14, etc.). The grouped figures may be more reliable on the whole as the over-stated or the under-stated ages may fall within one group or the other. Here generally a person gives not the completed age but his current age or the age which he will complete at the next birthday. Even this possible merging of the error in the course of grouping does not eliminate marginal errors, *e.g.*, in calculating the number between 5 and 10 many who have not reached five may be included in the 5-10 group and many who have reached ten may go to the next group. Some, therefore, advocate decennial grouping instead of quinary grouping. It is stated in the Actuarial Report of 1921 that the figures obtained by the usual quinary grouping have to be substantially altered by transferring from each group beginning from 5-9, a certain percentage of the population to the preceding group to obtain reasonably accurate results. Mr. Meikle, the Actuary to the Government of India for 1921, suggested the recording of the age at the nearest birthday instead of the number of years completed: *e.g.*, if a person will be 40 only in 4 months his age should be returned as 40, but if he will reach 40 only after 7 months *i.e.*, more than six months, he should be returned as 39. It will be an intriguing problem for the conscientious enumerator how he should enter the age of a person who will complete his 40 in six months' time. Perhaps his birth in the forenoon or in the afternoon may solve the problem. Mr. Meikle further suggested that the sorting should be done in individual ages up to 3 and then alternatively in ternary and septenary groups *i.e.*, 4-6, 7-13, 14-16, etc. The ternary groups

1941

Histogram of Age-Returns of 100000 Males and 100000 Females showing how crude age returns are inaccurately weighted by the preference shown for certain digits

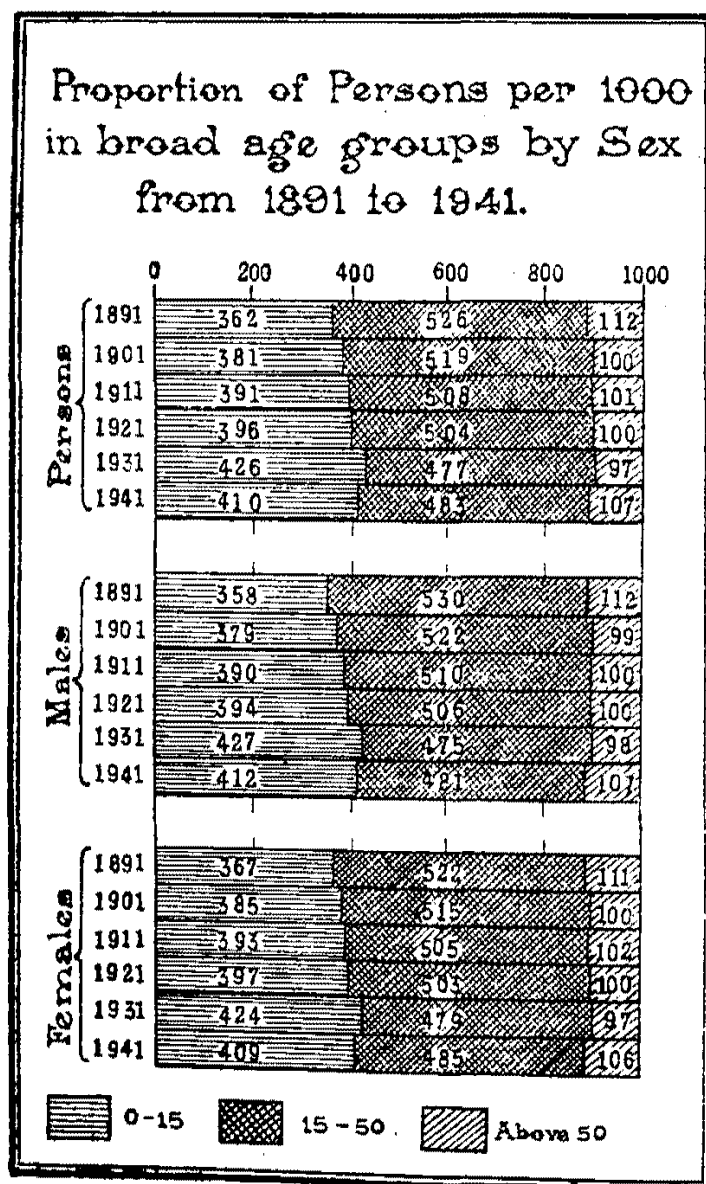


were adopted since figures which are multiples of five fall exactly midway in the groups and the septenary groups were adopted because the figures which are multiples of 10 fall midway in this group. For 1941, the Census Commissioner recommended a different method. The Actuary for 1931 reported that Mr. Meikle's suggestion had not produced satisfactory results. He recommended the recording of the completed age. In 1941 the completed number of years and months were recorded for each individual. In cases where persons were uncertain of their age, their approximate age was recorded. Detailed instructions were also issued to give helpful suggestions to the individual to reckon his age correctly. In 1941 the sorting was done in individual ages up to 6 and then in the small age groups 7-8, 9-11, 12-13, 14-16, *i. e.*, till the period of adolescence was completed and then in the quinary groups from 17 onwards up to 72. The grouping done between the ages of 7 and 16 was intended to eliminate mistakes in the determination of civil condition. The figures obtained by the above process of sorting were later on adjusted into the quinary groups after 0-5. The final adjustment into quinary groups was made by combining the relevant proportions of each sorted group with a proportion of the figures for the next sorted group; for example, if the groups 17-21 and 22-26 mentioned above have to be converted into quinary groups, $\frac{2}{5}$ of the former is added to $\frac{3}{5}$ of the latter and the total obtained put down as the quinary group '20-25' and this process is continued for successive quinary groups.

160. With regard to deliberate mis-statements of age where the individual puts up or lowers his age for official purposes, disciplinary action is the only corrective. Where such deliberate falsification is made to escape from the rigidity of custom or to ward off the evil of superstition, this practice may be condoned. In Travancore, where child marriage is more the exception than the rule, as will be evident from the figures for civil condition, and where literacy has recorded a very high percentage, there is

less justification, however, for such deliberate mis-statements of age. As it is very difficult to isolate such cases, it is not possible to say whether we could record improvement with increasing literacy.

161. Population data will become meaningful only if its age composition is analysed and its trend in the several age-groups ascertained. Imperial Table VII gives age distribution by sex in combination with the details of civil condition. The first thing which strikes any intelligent person is the proportion of the juvenile and the aged to the middle-aged and of the married women of productive years. The subjoined statement and the diagram attached show clearly a progressive population.



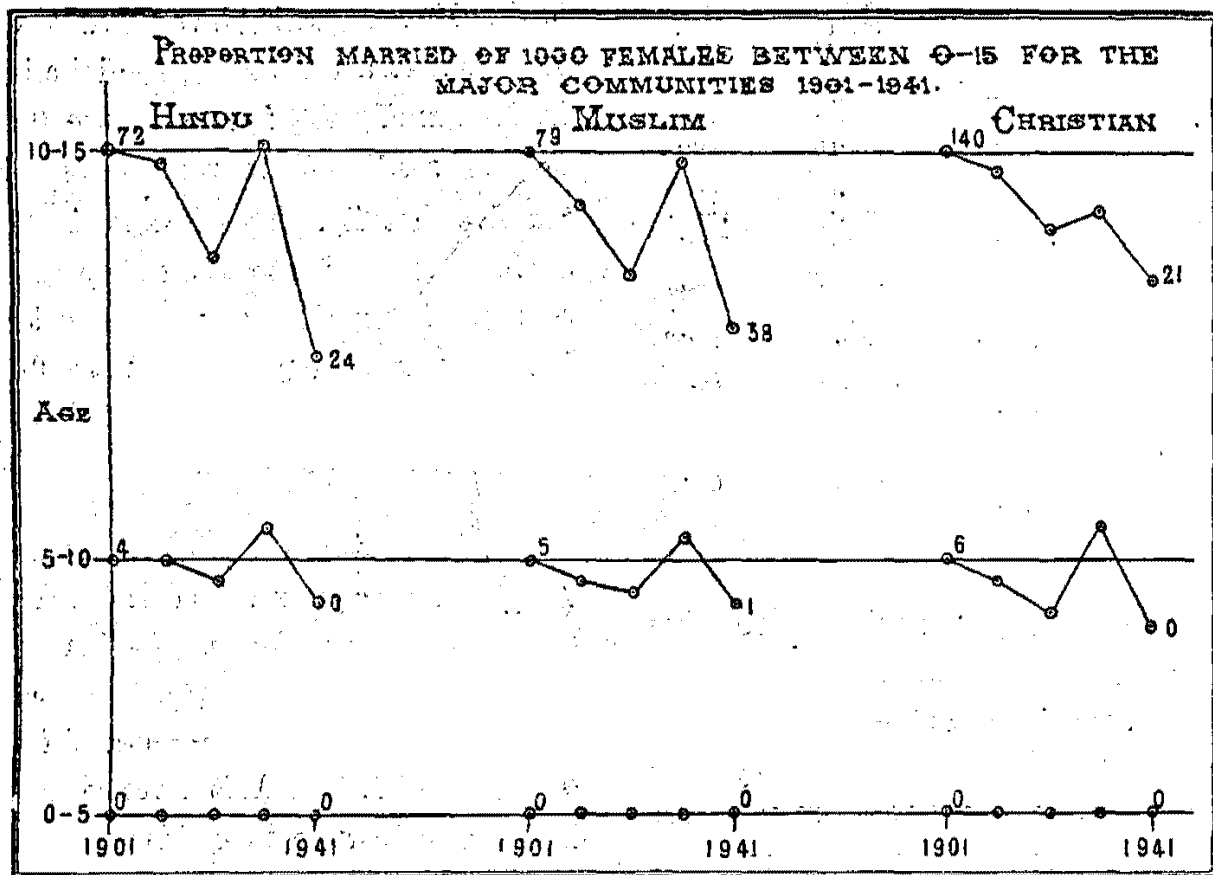
		0-15	15-50	Above 50
1891	Males	358.20	530.22	111.58
	Females	366.65	522.03	111.32
	Total	362.39	526.16	111.45
1901	Males	378.48	522.42	99.10
	Females	384.61	515.21	100.18
	Total	381.51	518.85	99.64
1911	Males	389.80	510.26	99.94
	Females	393.30	505.32	101.38
	Total	391.54	507.81	100.65
1921	Males	394.42	505.64	99.94
	Females	396.95	503.28	99.77
	Total	395.68	504.49	99.83
1931	Males	427.25	475.13	97.62
	Females	423.71	479.10	97.19
	Total	425.48	477.13	97.39
1941	Males	412.18	480.93	106.89
	Females	408.72	485.16	106.12
	Total	410.46	483.03	106.51

According to Sundborg, a normal population has about half of its number between the ages of 15-50 and the proportion of those above that age-group to those below will indicate whether the population is increasing, stationary or progressive. The youngest in the three population groups must be double the eldest if the population is to continue to grow. Just short of that point, it may be stationary. But if the older continues to exceed the younger, the population must be regressive. According to this, the population in this State is certainly progressive. The Sundborg calculation may not be applicable to the rest of India where the marriage age is still low and the mortality rate very high; but in Travancore, with a crude mortality-rate of only 15 per mille and the birth-rate of 28 per mille, where it may be stated that more or less European conditions prevail, the Sundborg ratio may not be inapplicable. Those in the 0-15 group show a progressive increase (see table above)—the abnormality noticeable in 1931 has already been explained. This is in consonance with the conditions prevailing in the rest of India though the percentage of increase may vary. In the 50 and over group a marked decline is noticeable from 1891-1901 with a slight

increase in 1911, coming back almost to the 1901 level in 1921, indicating a very marked downward trend in 1931 and recording a definite increase in 1941. Broadly, the increase in the 0-15 group may be attributed to the increase in comparative fertility. The decrease in the group above 50 may be on account of the greater percentage of mortality among the older people. But if we take the proportion of the 0-15 to the 50 and above group we find that it works out to 4:1 in almost all cases.

162. Subsidiary Table (iii) on Imperial Table VII gives the proportion of children under 10 to married females aged 15-40. The increasing fertility stressed above is confirmed by this table. From 162 children for 100 married females between 15 and 40 in 1901 it has come up to 201 in 1941. The increase in fertility is not, however, accompanied by increase in the number of married people. On the other hand, the number of married females aged 15-40 per 100 females of all ages shows a progressive diminution from decade to decade (the abnormality of 1931 excepted). From 33 in 1901 it has come down to 28 in 1941, the natural conclusion being that there is better survivorship now than in the previous decades. It is well known that one of the main reasons for infant mortality is early marriage. That early marriages have become the exception rather than the rule will be clear from the following diagram. The greater fertility and better survivorship have, therefore, been the result mostly of definite advancement of the age at marriage. This is also confirmed by the Fertility Enquiry conducted along with the Census. A detailed discussion of this question is given in Appendix I. The improved public health conditions and their consequent effect on fertility and mortality have already been discussed.

Diagram referred to in paragraph 163.



163. The mean age shows a progressive decline from 1891 for males except for a slight increase in 1941 (*vide* subjoined table). With

Year.	Mean Age.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.
1891	25.4	24.6	25.0
1901	24.7	24.0	24.4
1911	24.4	23.9	24.2
1921	24.2	23.8	24.0
1931	23.0	22.8	22.9
1941	23.8	23.7	23.8

regard to females also it shows a slight increase in 1941 but otherwise it shows a progressive decline. The reduction in the mean age may be due either to the increase in the 0-15 group or to a decrease in the group above 50 or both. In 1941 the slight increase in the mean age may be attributed to the definite increase in the 50 and

above group and the decrease in the 0-15 group. The improvement in public health conditions in the last decade has contributed to this.

164. Though from the proportion of 0-15 group to 50 and above group it can be inferred that the trend of population is distinctly progressive, yet the progressive diminution in numbers in the 15 to 50 group from 526 per mille in 1891 to 483 in 1941 is a distinct disadvantage from the economic point of view. This tendency is reflected in the decrease in the mean age (*vide* table in para 164).

165. The same problem may be viewed from a different standpoint by taking the quartiles of the population distribution. The inaccuracies in the age returns will considerably affect the mean age. These inaccuracies, however, will not affect the quartiles to the same extent. From the following statement it will be clear that the

Year.	Sex.	Lower quartile.	Median.	Upper quartile.
1891	Males	10.25	22.60	38.00
	Females	9.75	21.75	36.30
	Total	10.10	22.00	37.25
1901	Males	9.75	21.25	36.75
	Females	9.25	20.40	35.20
	Total	9.40	21.00	36.10
1911	Males	9.50	20.80	37.10
	Females	9.10	20.00	35.25
	Total	9.20	20.30	36.00
1921	Males	9.20	20.50	36.25
	Females	9.20	20.20	35.00
	Total	9.20	20.30	35.70
1931	Males	7.75	18.80	34.80
	Females	7.75	18.70	33.75
	Total	7.75	18.75	34.40
1941	Males	8.70	19.30	35.70
	Females	8.90	19.30	35.20
	Total	8.75	19.30	35.50

median which replaces the mean has progressively declined, though an increase is recorded in 1941, for reasons already explained. The lower quartile also shows a distinct downward trend from 10.10 in 1891 to 8.75 in 1941. The upper quartile is still more alarming having come down from 37.25 to 35.50 in 1941. The number of gainful workers is therefore progressively decreasing while that of children in the lower age-groups is progressively increasing thus proving the intensity of the pressure of population.

166. This confirms the conclusion arrived at earlier *viz.*, increase in comparative fertility and general decrease in longevity. The figures for 1941, however, show a change for the better in so far as they record an appreciable increase in the quartiles and the median. Further evidence of the change for the better, is furnished by the higher values of the expectation of life for 1941 over those for 1931 (*vide* table on para 172)

167. The above inferences are based on figures for the total population. When it is found that

nearly 50 per cent. of the total population are females, who form only a small percentage of the gainful workers, the progressive diminution of the effective male population must necessarily cause some concern.

168 It is necessary to ascertain whether the above trends noticed in the total population are the same in the main communities. The subjoined table gives the quartile distribution of the population by main communities. The trends noticed in the total population are reflected in the main

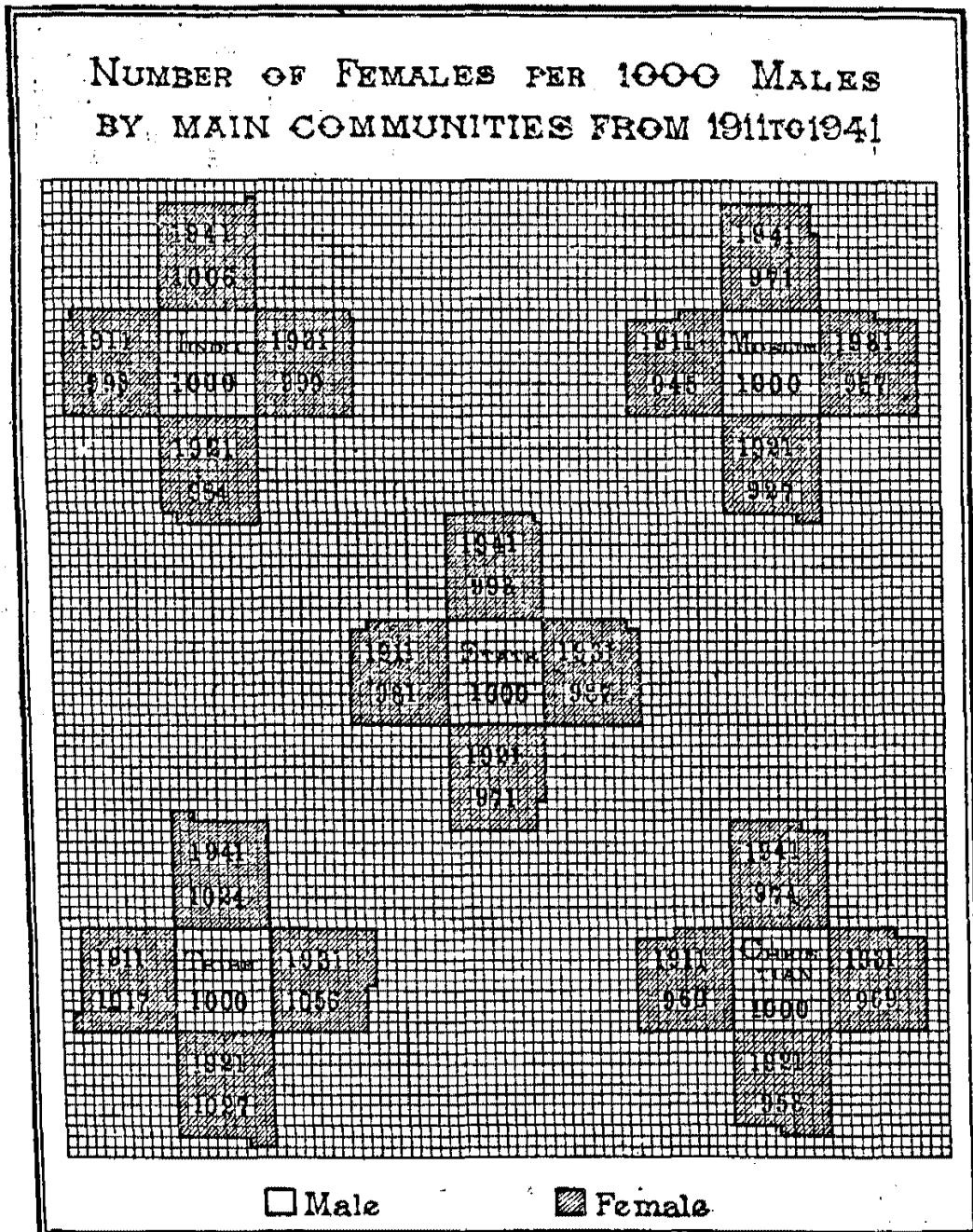
	Lower quartile.			Median.			Upper quartile.			
	Hindu.	Muslim.	Christian.	Hindu.	Muslim.	Christian.	Hindu.	Muslim.	Christian.	
1901										
Males	.10	1	8.7	9.1	21.7	20.25	19.5	37.0	36.5	35.25
Females	.9	6	8.6	8.4	21.8	19.4	18.6	36.6	34.25	34.2
Total	.9	8	8.7	8.6	21.7	20.0	19.0	36.9	35.0	34.7
1911										
Males	.9	6	9.0	8.6	21.3	19.5	19.2	37.3	35.4	34.75
Females	.9	0	8.25	8.25	21.3	19.0	18.3	36.5	34.4	33.6
Total	.9	4	8.7	8.5	21.3	19.25	18.9	36.5	34.7	34.5
1921										
Males	.9	75	9.0	9.0	21.0	19.4	19.3	36.2	35.25	34.75
Females	.9	5	8.5	8.7	20.5	19.0	18.5	35.4	33.8	33.7
Total	.9	6	8.7	8.9	20.7	19.0	19.2	36.1	34.1	34.5
1931										
Males	.8	0	7.7	7.5	19.0	17.8	17.9	35.0	34.0	34.0
Females	.8	1	7.5	7.7	19.3	17.75	17.9	35.25	32.8	33.4
Total	.8	0	7.6	7.6	19.2	17.8	17.9	35.0	32.7	33.6
1941										
Males	.8	9	8.4	8.6	19.7	18.3	18.9	36.3	34.5	35.1
Females	.9	0	8.1	8.5	20.0	18.3	18.6	36.0	33.0	34.5
Total	.8	9	8.2	8.55	19.75	18.3	18.7	36.2	33.4	34.9

communities also. There is generally a progressive decline in the lower quartiles from 1901 to 1931 with a definite increase in the last decade ending with 1941. The upper quartile also shows a decrease till 1931 and records an increase in 1941. The same tendency is seen in the median also.

169. A comparative study of the three main communities from the above table reveals that in the lower quartile the figures for the Hindus are slightly higher than those for the Christians and the Muslims. As between the Christians and the Muslims, the figures for the former are more favourable than those for the latter. In the upper quartile, the ranking is the same, though the differences are more pronounced. The median behaves almost similar to the upper quartile.

170. Thus the trends in the growth of population revealed by a study of the age-group clearly show that there is a definite improvement in comparative fertility, general longevity and expectation of life during the last decade.

171. The population figures of the State studied by sex show a progressive increase in the proportion of females to males unlike the case in India where there is a steady fall in this respect (*vide* subjoined diagram). Though the population of the State sti



shows an excess of males over females, the difference between the two sexes is progressively decreasing (*vide* subsidiary table (vii) on Imperial Table VII). This steady increase of females may be an indication of a progressive population as an increase in masculinity is generally regarded as an indication of a declining population. According to Westermarek, a mixture of race leads to an increase in the proportion of females. Endogamy generally increases masculinity. In the last few years on account of various circumstances, caste barriers have been progressively ignored and intermarriages are becoming more and more common. This may be adduced as one of the reasons for an increase in the female ratio. Further, the female infant by nature is better equipped for survival than the male. The expected duration of life for females at all ages is definitely higher than the corresponding figures for males (*vide* subjoined table). So the better

Age.	1931		1941	
	Male.	Female.	Male	Female.
0	43.80	44.55	44.6	49.4
10	45.97	44.78	50.3	52.6
20	37.51	36.56	41.5	44.2
30	29.49	29.49	33.2	36.3
40	22.32	22.74	25.5	28.5
50	16.05	17.01	18.5	20.9
60	10.72	11.59	12.3	13.7
70	6.50	6.96	7.5	8.0
80	3.54	3.75	3.7	3.9
90	1.30	1.32	1.3	1.4

survivorship for females will automatically increase their proportion to the males. Here a daughter is as welcome an addition to the family as a son—no withering curse greets the appearance of a girl baby. Female infanticide which still lingers in isolated and remote areas in India never existed in Travancore. The proportion of females to males is generally higher in the damp climate and along the coast than in the drier and inland areas. The theory that the ratio of females to males increases inversely with social standing is not applicable to this State.

172. It now remains to analyse the population of 1941 in greater detail to have a glimpse

into the future trends. From the subjoined statement it will be clear that the males predominate

Age-group.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Sex-ratio.
0-5	145	144	145	983
5-15	267	285	266	986
15-25	196	193	189	1,031
25-40	205	204	203	999
40-55	126	120	123	949
55 and above	73	74	74	1,009

in the 0—5 and 5—15 groups while in the group 15—25 females predominate. The female ratio drops in the 40—55 group and shows an upward trend after 55. This classification has been adopted as the female fecundity is at the maximum between 15—25 while the fecundity of man is at its best between 25—40. The 5—15 female group will give indications of the population changes in the decade after 1951.

173. The population growth in the decade between 1941 and 1951 will largely be governed by the proportion of the females of the 5—15 group in 1941 to the 15—25 group of males. The 5—15 female group of 1941 will become the 15—25 of 1951 and the 15—25 male group will come in the 25—40 group of 1951. The children born by the union of these two groups will largely contribute towards the increase which will be recorded in the population of 1951 over that of 1941. The proportion of 5-15 females to 15—25 males works out to 1 : 1.42, *i. e.*, for every adult male there will be 1.42 females. The Vital Statistics Enquiry has disclosed that for every female there will be 1.4 female children in the future. These confirm the conclusions that the population of the State is progressive and that there will be a steady replacement.

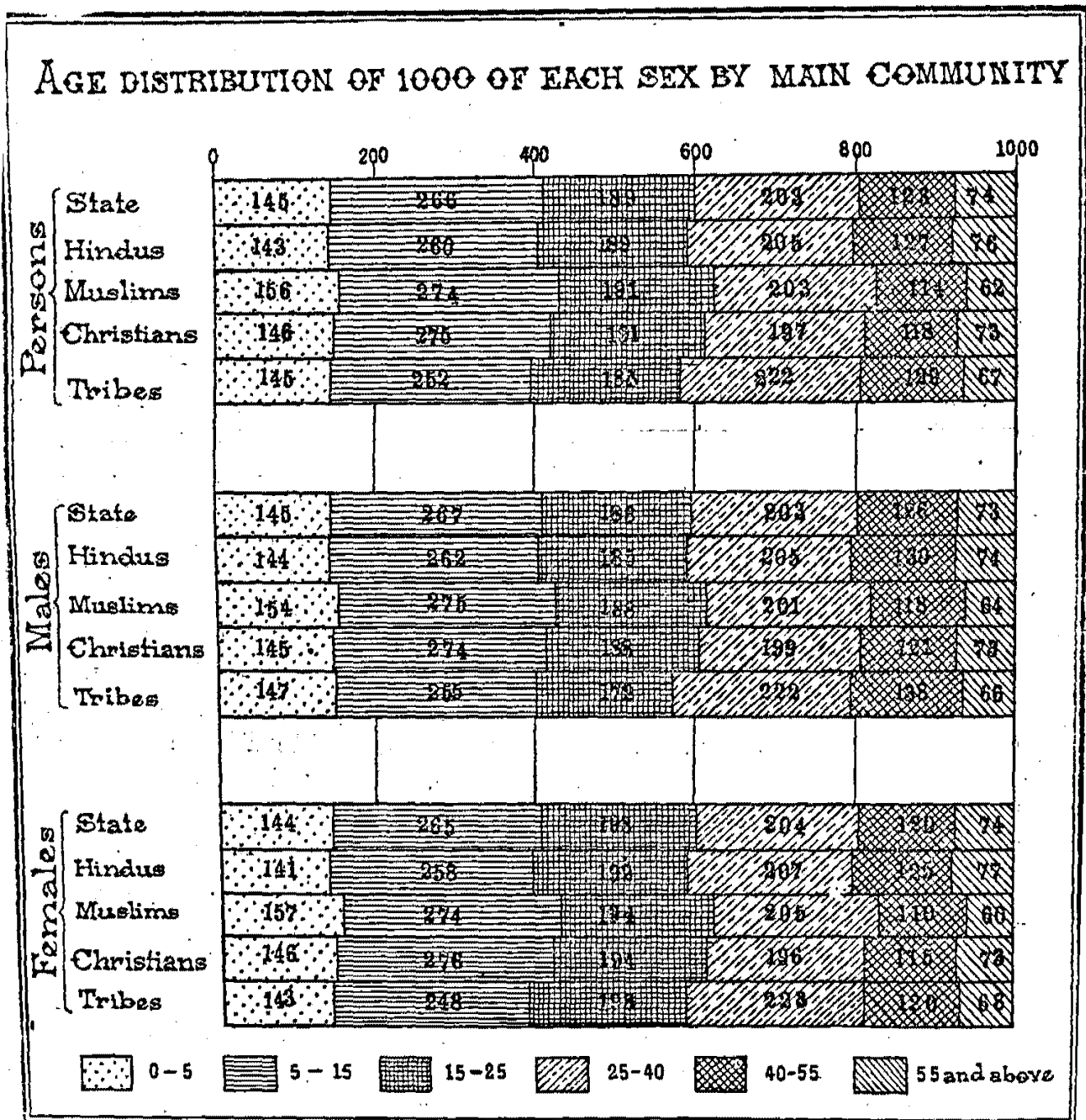
174. A comparison of the age distribution of the major communities indicates that the proportion of children is higher among the Muslims and the Christians than among the Hindus (*vide* subjoined table). The Vital Statistics

Proportion of children of 0—15 to the total population.

Community.	Males.	Females..
STATE	41.2%	40.8%
Hindu	40.6	39.9
Christian	41.9	42.2
Muslim	42.9	43.1

Enquiry also has recorded a higher birth-rate for the Muslim community than for the Christians and the Hindus, the rate of increase of Muslims being the highest in the last decade. Conversion from other religions is less among them than among the Christians. (For a detailed discussion of the topic see Appendix II.)

175. When the general conclusions regarding sex-ratio of the total population are applied to the sex-ratio of the main communities and the Tribes, it is found that the masculinity persists in the first age-groups of 0—5 and 5—15 (*vide* subjoined diagram and table). The female predominance in the 15—25 group is also a common characteristic of the



Age-Group.	Hindu			Sex-ratio.
	Total.	Male.	Female.	
0-5	143	144	141	984
5-15	260	262	258	991
15-25	189	185	192	1,045
25-40	205	205	207	1,019
40-55	127	130	125	965
55 and above	76	74	77	1,044
	Muslim			
0-5	156	154	157	983
5-15	274	275	274	953
15-25	191	188	194	1,003
25-40	203	201	205	989
40-55	114	118	110	909
55 and above	62	64	60	907
	Indian Christian			
0-5	146	145	146	980
5-15	275	274	276	982
15-25	191	188	194	1,002
25-40	197	199	196	962
40-55	118	121	115	930
55 and above	73	73	73	961
	Tribes			
0-5	145	147	143	993
5-15	252	255	248	996
15-25	185	172	198	1,175
25-40	222	222	223	1,030
40-55	129	138	120	891
55 and above	67	66	68	1,057

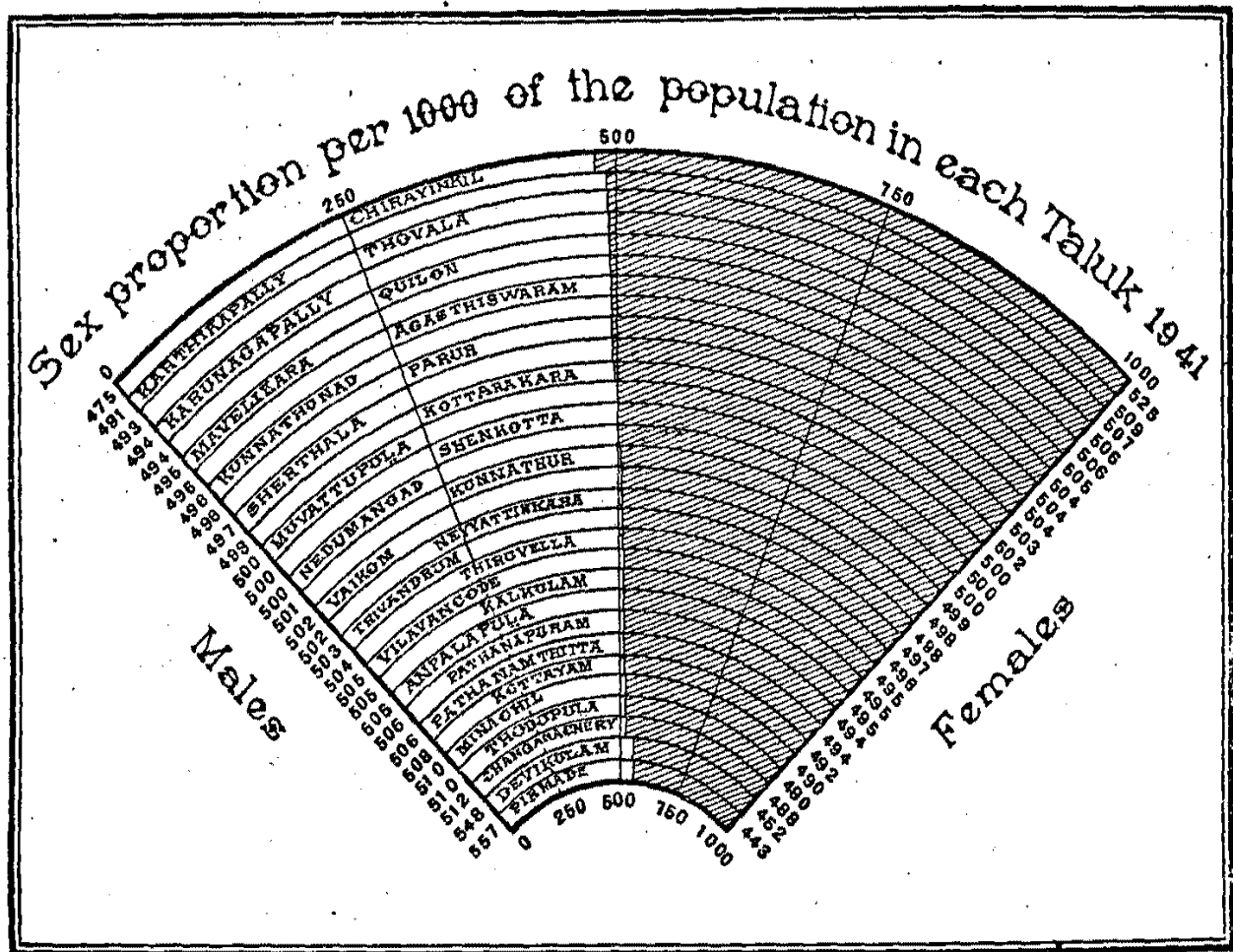
three main communities and the Tribes. But the female predominance in the 25—40 group is seen only among the Hindus and the Tribes, while in the case of Muslims and Christians the males predominate in the 25—40 group. In the 40—55 group the characteristic of the total population—decrease in sex-ratio—is reflected in all the communities and the Tribes, while in the group above 55, only the Hindus and the Tribes share the same characteristics. Among the Hindus and the Tribes, the upward trend is very conspicuous, while the same among the Christians is only nominal. In the case of Muslims, there is a slight downward trend.

176. If the figures in the various age-groups are analysed by Natural Divisions, it will be seen that the Lowland and the Midland have almost identical characteristics, though in the Lowland, females exceed the males in the total population and in the Midland, the males exceed the females. This can be accounted for by the emigration of

males from the Lowland. This is also confirmed by the excess of males in the 30—65 group in the Midland as compared to the excess of males in the 40—60 group in the Lowland (*vide* subsidiary table (i) on Imperial Table VII). In the Highland division males exceed females in the total population. In the age-groups between 10 and 70 the excess of males is most pronounced. In the 0—10 group females exceed males in contrast to the conditions in the Lowland and the Midland. When the age returns for the Natural Divisions are compared, the main feature observed is the higher proportion of persons between 20 and 40 in the Highland division (*vide* subjoined table). The pro-

Rank Sex	Lowland		Midland		Highland	
	Age group	percentage	Age group	Percentage	Age group	percentage
I Males	20-40	23.8	20-40	27.8	20-40	35.2
	Do.	29.7	Do.	28.4	Do.	32.3
II Males	40-60	15.6	40-60	15.0	40-60	14.4
	Do.	15.2	0-5	14.6	0-5	15.0
III Males	0-5	14.4	0-5	14.7	0-5	13.3
	Do.	13.9	40-60	14.8	5-10	13.4
IV Males	5-10	13.4	5-10	14.2	5-10	12.0
	Do.	13.3	Do.	14.2	10-15	12.8
V Males	10-15	12.7	10-15	13.2	10-15	11.8
	Do.	12.4	Do.	12.9	40-60	12.1
VI Males	15-20	10.3	15-20	9.9	15-20	10.2
	Do.	10.4	Do.	10.2	Do.	11.1
VII Males	60 & over	4.6	60 & over	4.9	60 & over	2.8
	Do.	4.8	Do.	5.0	Do.	3.0

portion is higher for the males than for the females. The female proportion of the age-group 15—20 is also higher in the Highland than in the Lowland or the Midland. The explanation is simple. It is the result of immigration where the estate owners require able bodied men, and youthful girls without the encumbrance of a number of children to turn out the maximum amount of work. The sex-ratio by taluks is given in the diagram attached.



177. The sex-ratio for the urban area is distinctly lower than that for the State. Subsidiary Table (vi) on Imperial Table VII shows that for the whole State the *sex-ratio* is 993 while the same for the urban area is only 969. This is in contrast to the conditions in western countries where the ratio of females to males is higher among urban than among rural communities. In the West the cities are generally great industrial centres also, where there are greater opportunities for the gainful employment of women. But the occupations in the chief towns of the State are more suited to men than women so that immigrants to towns consist more of males than females. The sex-ratio of the population of certain important towns of the State is given in the following table and it will be clear therefrom that except in Nagercoil the sex-ratio is distinctly lower than that for the rural area. Even in the municipal towns which are more urban in character than the other towns

Age	Trivandrum	Alleppey	Quilon	Nagercoil	Kottaya
0-5	945	999	944	977	919
5-10	1,000	1,015	983	983	1,064
10-15	974	902	963	951	941
15-20	947	844	1,018	1,039	889
20-25	933	775	978	1,100	856
25-30	917	763	956	1,119	858
30-40	897	745	897	1,052	860
40-50	922	862	877	1,007	885
50-60	1,005	918	943	1,022	916
60 & over	1,195	1,058	1,102	1,138	1,045

the sex-ratio is distinctly lower than that of the rural area (969 against 997). The towns generally reflect the characteristics of the taluk in which they are situated and Nagercoil is an exception to this rule. Mention has already been made of the peculiar conditions in Travancore and the difficulty of striking an urban-rural ratio. Towns here are mostly outgrown villages. There is hardly any large-scale industry in the towns. The large number of cottage industries like weaving, coir-making, etc., are carried on mostly in the coastal taluks which, as has been already

stated, record the highest density. The usual characteristics of the urban area—female predominance—is seen in Travancore in the Lowland only which may be considered as the least rural of the Natural Divisions. Here we find the highest female ratio.

Lowland	...	1,009
Midland	...	991
Highland	...	903

178. If the theory that urbanisation lowers masculinity is at all applicable in Travancore, it is applicable to the Lowland only. It must, however, be stated that the female ratio is progressively on the increase even in the urban areas. From 955 in 1931 it has gone up to 969 in 1941.

179. The progressive increase in the female ratio may give rise to new problems in the years to come. The change in the structure of society will generally be reflected in the social and economic conditions of the people. The structure of society will in turn largely be determined by the constitution of the family, while it is the civil condition that determines the constitution of the family unit. In the instructions issued to the enumerators it was the intention to widen, as far as possible, the definition of marriage. It was not for the enumerator to enquire into the legality of marriage. If a couple lived together "in a manner to beget children", it should be sufficient indication to the enumerator to determine their civil condition; not much scope was therefore given to the inquisitive enumerator. A good few females, however, owned their children but returned themselves as unmarried. In a few cases, the aggrieved party refused to suffer the further indignity of a change in civil condition. In a few other cases, the females with children resented being put automatically under the category of 'married' because they objected to the discrimination between man and woman. It was therefore found rather difficult to determine their civil condition. In Travancore there are unfortunately several cases of desertion particularly among the poorer working classes. The females are very often the victims; but

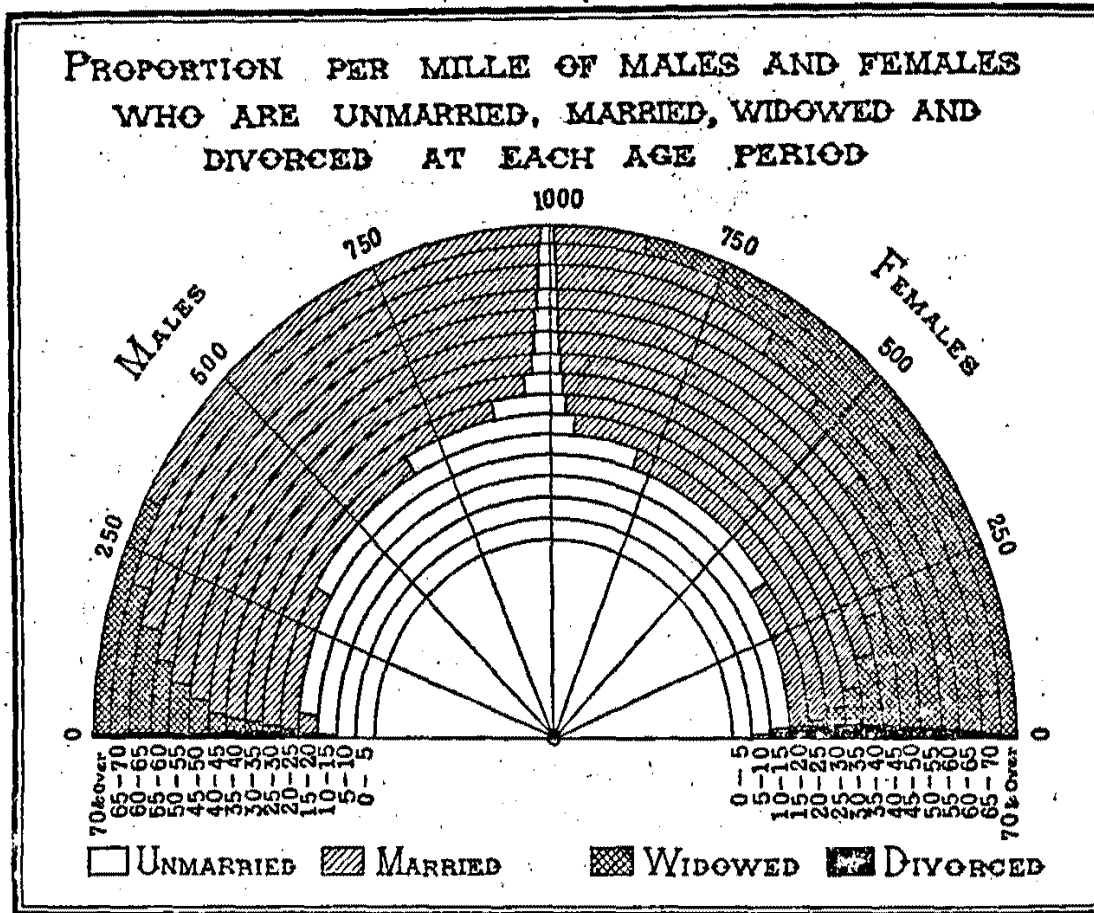
victimisation of the male is not a rare occurrence. In most of the above cases, the parties had not gone through any form of legal divorce. They could not therefore be entered as 'divorced'. In such cases, instructions were given to enter them as 'married' unless it was perfectly clear to the enumerator that they were prostitutes. It was hoped that time rather than law might effect a restitution of conjugal rights. In the case of prostitutes, though they may have children, no family unit is constituted. But fortunately such cases were rare and did not create a social problem or materially affect the statistical measurement of the civil condition in the State.

180. When Civil condition is analysed by age groups, it is found that in the 0—10 group there are no married males and in the 10—15 group, 998 out of 1,000 are unmarried. (*vide* diagram on next page). In the 15—20 group there is a pronounced increase in the number of unmarried males, from 854 in 1901 to 948 in 1941. Marriage seems to have become popular from the 20th age and there is a definite increase in the number from that age upwards.

181. The civil condition of the females compares favourably with that of any modern civilised country in Europe or America. In the 0—5 group there are no married females, in the 10—15 group there are only 24 married females in a thousand and in the 15—20 group the unmarried females have increased from 421 per mille in 1901 to 624 in 1941. As in the case of males there is increase in the number of married females from 1901 in 20—40 group upwards. The postponement of the marriage age is a healthy sign, no Sarda Act being found necessary in the State to stop infant marriages. The Fertility Enquiry confirms this. (For detailed discussion of this question see Appendix I). The high percentage of literacy recorded for the State and the phenomenal increase in literacy among females have contributed to this.

182. The above inferences hold good with regard to the main communities also. (see subjoined tables). In the case of Christians

Diagram referred to in paragraph 181.



Males			Community	Females		
Widowed	Married	Unmarried		Unmarried	Married	Widowed
27	369	604	All Communities	497	392	111
27	365	608	Hindu	487	388	125
21	353	626	Muslim	494	394	112
27	378	595	Christian	518	396	86

Number married per 1,000 of each sex in the main communities at different age periods.

Age group	Hindu		Christian		Muslim	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
0-5
5-10
10-15	1	24	3	21	1	38
15-20	36	360	80	347	35	448
20-40	634	824	705	849	644	861
40-60	902	616	910	714	933	615
60 & over	773	208	747	326	798	203

however, an increase is noted in the number of married males in the lower age groups of 10-15 and 15-20. The proportion of unmarried among males is highest for Muslims and lowest for Christians. Among females it stands highest for Christians and lowest for Hindus.

183. The tendency to postpone marriages mentioned above, is not, however, accompanied by any positive inclination on the part of any appreciable number of persons to dispense with marriage altogether, though there is a decrease in the percentage of married males and females

Year	Married Males	Married females
1901	42.9 Per cent.	42.3 per cent.
1941	36.9 "	39.2 "

184. Among the few who come under the category of the unmarried, the males predominate there being more old bachelors than old spinster

185. There is an excess of married females over married males in the State, 1,054 per 1,000 (*vide* subjoined table). This is reflected in all

Number of married females per 1000 married males.

Community	1941	1931
All Communities	1,054	1,084
Hindu	1,069	1,047
Muslim	1,085	1,049
Christian	1,022	1,007

the major communities also, the ratio being highest for Muslims and lowest for Christians. Polygamy is prohibited among Christians both by law and by religion. So the excess in this case may very likely be due to emigration of married males. This may be true to a certain extent in the case of Hindus and Muslims also. During the last decade, 6,603 more women than men immigrated to Travancore. Among Muslims polygamy is not prohibited by law or custom, but public opinion has always discouraged the perpetuation of this practice. Among Hindus polygamy is not prohibited by law except for certain communities. The Nayar Act of 1925 has made polygamy illegal. Similar legal prohibition exists in the case of Ilavas and Vellalas. In the case of Brahmans polygamy is tabooed by public opinion, though a few marry a second wife when they get no issue by the first marriage. The writer is aware of a few instances in which the second marriage was insisted upon by the first wife for the salvation of the husband, as according to orthodox opinion "there is no heaven for a sonless man." "*Puthra*" means one who saves the father from the hell known as "*puth*," it being the general belief that the lack of a son to perform the obsequies of the father will give no salvation to the departed soul. The non-Brahmans, however, do not believe in this custom to the same extent. when '*Marumakkathayam*' flourished, the nephew took the place of the son, the son being allowed to share in the ceremonies connected with

the demise of the '*Karanavan*' more as a matter of concession than of legal right. Though '*Makkathayam*' has now asserted itself after the Nayar, Ilava and Vellala Acts, yet it is not possible to state if the lack of a son will induce the wife to force a second marriage on the husband to save his soul after death.

186. Among the Nambuthiris and the Kshatriyas polygamy is prohibited by law. Their attitude to exogamous marriages has been considerably changed by the spread of progressive ideas among them, by the removal of caste exclusiveness by social and religious legislation and by cultural contacts. Conditions have changed so fundamentally in the last few years that non-compliance with the civilized canons of marital responsibility is rather the exception than the rule. Difficulties in the matter have also been created by the law of the land. The '*Sambandham*' with a Nayar girl is now illegal if it is preceded by the existence of a 'caste wife.' The legal responsibility of maintaining the wife and children now imposed by law has made these exogamous marriages less attractive to the Brahman or the Kshatriya. As a result of the agitation among the Nambuthiris and the Kshatriyas the Malayala Brahman Act and the Kshatriya Act were passed permitting marriages within their community. This relaxing of the rigidity of custom by law is an indication of the changes happening in these communities due to the pressure of economic circumstances. When all or many marry within caste, the present economic system cannot continue; and the break-up or the partial break-up of some of the large *tara-wads* is an almost inevitable consequence. The preference for endogamous marriages has also a political aspect. The political influence which they can exercise will depend upon their numerical strength; and so long as custom prohibits the younger members among the Nambuthiris from marrying within their community, they will be denied this political advantage. This applies equally well to the Kshatriyas also.

187. The main features of the civil condition of the population by Natural Division and main community will be clear from the following tables.

Distribution per 1,000 of each sex and community.

Males			Females			
Widowed	Married	Unmarried	Community	Unmarried	Married	Widowed

LOWLAND

24	355	621	All Communities	496	380	124
25	356	619	Hindu	487	380	138
20	347	633	Muslim	484	395	121
25	351	624	Christian	530	373	97

MIDLAND

29	377	594	All Communities	499	398	103
30	369	601	Hindu	490	391	119
22	357	621	Muslim	509	391	100
28	390	582	Christian	512	407	81

HIGHLAND

26	410	584	All Communities	482	430	88
26	414	560	Hindu	467	436	97
24	374	602	Muslim	486	411	103
24	418	583	Christian	508	424	68

Number married per 1,000 of each sex at different age periods by Natural Division.

Natural Division	All ages		0-10		10-15		15-40		40 and over	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Lowland	355	380	1	19	452	685	878	511
Midland	377	398	2	28	540	729	868	579
Highland	410	430	..	1	3	36	566	779	887	571

188. It will be clear from the above that the proportion of married males and females is highest in the Highland and lowest in the Lowland. The maximum number of married males and females is in the group 40 and over. The largest number of unmarried males is found in the Lowland and the largest number of unmarried females in the Midland.

189. The general features of the civil condition of the rural and urban population are evident from the following table. Most

Number per mille of unmarried, married and widowed in the rural and urban population by community.

Community.	Male			Female		
	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Unmarried	Married	Widowed
All Communities	603	370	27	498	392	110
(Rural)	621	356	23	484	387	129
(Urban)	608	365	27	489	387	124
Hindu	614	362	24	467	392	141
(Rural)	627	352	21	499	393	108
(Urban)	619	361	20	458	402	140
Muslim	593	380	27	516	399	85
(Rural)	641	336	23	543	363	94
(Urban)	593	380	27	516	399	85
Christian	641	336	23	543	363	94

of the high schools (English, Malayalam and Tamil) and all the colleges are situated in the towns. Practically all the pupils who attend schools and a very large proportion of the students who attend colleges are unmarried. Proportionately more Christians than Hindus and more Hindus than Muslims attend schools. This proportion is maintained in the colleges also. In the urban areas, therefore, the

proportion of unmarried males and females is highest for the Christians and lower for the Hindus and the Muslims (*vide* table above). Among the Hindus, sex-ratio of the married is rather high. This is due to the fact of earlier marriages among the Brahman girls, and among the girls of the Backward Communities. Preference of the Muslims for the towns where they congregate in large numbers for purposes of trade has already been dwelt upon. It is very likely that most of the Muslims who migrate to the towns have passed the middle age and are presumably married. As they show a definite preference of commerce to education there is less inducement for their young men and girls to remain unmarried.

190. The proportion of the widowed has decreased among both males and females. The decline is seen in all the age-groups. This decrease may be due either to the postponement of marriage or to the widowers or widows getting married again. Among the males the proportion of widowed is lowest for Muslims. Among females it is highest for Hindus and lowest for Christians. In the age-group 60 and over the proportion of widowed females is highest for Muslims.

191. An indication that widowers get remarried at a more rapid rate than widows is seen from the excessively high proportion of widows in certain age-groups to the proportion of widowers in the corresponding or higher age-groups and better still by a comparison of the rates at which these proportions have fallen, from 46 per 1,000 in 1901 to 27 per 1,000 in 1941 (*i. e.*, by 41 per cent.) in the case of widowers and from 141 in 1901 to 111 in 1941 (*i. e.*, by 21 per cent.) in the case of widows. The smaller proportion of widowers can be accounted for by the greater possibility for the widower to get remarried. In the case of widows, however, in spite of enabling legislation, social stigma still makes their remarriage the exception rather than the

rule. Among the Brahmans social ostracism has in many cases nullified the liberty given by law. Even in the case of the non-Brahmans a widow with children is not a welcome wife.

192. Of the 42,715 persons returned as divorced, 11,778 are males and 30,937 are females. The proportion of divorced males per 1,000 married males is 10, while the proportion of the divorced females per 1,000 married females is 26. The proportion of divorced in both sexes to married is lowest for Christians (*vide* subjoined table).

Proportion of divorced per 1,000 married for major communities.

Community.	Male.	Female.
STATE	10	26
Hindu	14	36
Muslim	12	33
Christians	3	6

193. Considering the distribution of divorced among the various age-groups, though the number of divorced among males and females is at its maximum in the 25—30 group, the mode for the males has a tendency to move to the next higher group. This number even exceeds that of the widowed in the age-groups up to 25. Evidently the desire for divorce decreases with the advancing duration of marriage.

194. On the other hand, the very large excess of divorced females over divorced males in the same or in the immediately higher age-group indicates that the divorced males remarry at a more rapid rate than the females. In the later age-groups, the sex-ratio tends to become equal (*vide* subjoined table).

GENERAL

Age-group.	Ratio of females to males divorced	Civil Condition	Sex.	Community.	Lower Quartile.	Median.	Upper Quartile.
15—20	10.0			Hindu	46.6	57.5	67.8
20—25	3.7			Muslim	46.8	58.2	68.0
25—30	2.8		Male	Indian Christian	46.8	57.8	68.4
30—35	2.3			Tribe	41.7	54.9	65.0
35—40	2.5			Total	46.4	57.6	67.7
40—45	2.6			Hindu	44.4	54.5	64.0
45—50	2.3			Muslim	37.3	52.4	62.2
50—55	2.0		Female	Indian Christian	44.6	55.4	65.5
55—60	1.6			Tribe	42.5	52.9	62.7
60—65	1.2			Total	44.3	54.5	64.2
65—70	0.9			Hindu	28.0	35.0	46.0
70 and over	1.0		Male	Muslim	27.1	33.4	41.7
				Indian Christian	30.5	38.3	50.8
				Tribe	26.5	32.1	41.5
All Ages.	2.6			Total	28.0	35.0	46.0

195. The quartile distribution gives a more accurate estimate of the civil condition of the population. From the quartiles it will be clear that 50 per cent. of the married males are found in the 31 to 50 group, while for the females the limits are set by 24 and 41 (*vide* subjoined table). This therefore is a clear index regarding the advancement in the age of marriage.

Distribution of quartiles by sex and civil condition for the State for the year 1941.

Civil Condition.	Sex.	Community.	Lower Quartile.	Median.	Upper Quartile.
		Hindu	31.5	39.5	49.9
		Muslim	31.0	38.9	49.0
	Male	Indian Christian	30.1	37.8	48.9
		Tribe	30.5	38.3	47.8
		Total	31.0	39.0	49.5
Married		Hindu	24.3	31.4	40.8
		Muslim	23.2	30.0	38.9
	Female	Indian Christian	24.5	31.9	42.0
		Tribe	24.0	30.5	39.6
		Total	23.5	31.4	41.0

Divorced

		Hindu	25.1	32.4	41.5
		Muslim	21.9	28.0	37.0
	Female	Indian Christian	26.5	34.1	44.1
		Tribe	23.5	30.0	39.8
		Total	25.0	31.9	41.5

196. Considering the same problem from the point of view of different communities, it will be observed that Muslims have on the average a difference of 8.9 years between the husband and the wife, the corresponding figures for the Hindus being 8.1, Tribes 7.8 and Christians 5.9. From the quartiles for males, Muslims seems to get married earliest, Indian Christians next, Tribes third and Hindus last. The same ranking, however, is not kept up among females. Here again Muslims stand first; but Tribes come next, then Hindus and lastly Christians. In the upper quartile among males, the Tribes, the Muslims, the Christians and the Hindus come in the ascending order of age. Among females the order becomes Muslims first, then Hindus, next the Tribes and lastly the Christians.

197. If the inter-quartile range be taken as an index of the duration of married life it appears that the males enjoy 19 years of married life and the females 16. Among males of the major communities, Christians record the longest period of married life (18'8 years), then Hindus (18'4) next Muslims (18'0) and lastly Tribes (17'3). Among females the same ranking is kept up, the figures, however, being lower, 17'5, 16'4, 15'7 and 15'6 respectively.

198. The median age for the widowed shows considerable fluctuations. Among males, the Tribes are the earliest to get widowed, next Hindus, then Christians and lastly Muslims. As

for females the ranking is Muslims first, then Tribes, next Hindus and lastly Christians.

199. From the quartile distribution of the divorced, it is evident that Muslim males and females get divorced earlier than the other communities. This is also reflected in the upper quartile. The later divorce among Christians is uniformly noticeable in all the quartiles. The divorce among Hindus happens later than among Tribes both for males and females. These variations may very probably be due to the difference in the law regarding marriages in the different communities.

OCCUPATIONAL

200. The measure of the progress of a State is largely determined by the number and variety of the means of livelihood for its increasing population. If it is possible through figures to interpret with dependable accuracy the day-to-day life of the citizen, not merely his physical existence but his mental and spiritual satisfaction: the gigantic operation known as the Census will have more than justified its decennial appearance. The growth and distribution of population by age, sex and civil condition have already been analysed. A study of the occupational trends will give a valuable insight into the question as to how people live. The completeness of the Census scheme has often been marred by the difficulty experienced in the compilation of the Means of Livelihood Table. In a vast country like India with its multiplicity of communities, castes, customs and traditions to evolve a comprehensive scheme of classification of occupations is no easy task. Not merely the citizen but the enumerator also has to be educated to get at the correct answer. Vagueness and ambiguity have been the besetting sins of many a return recorded in the occupational catalogue. Exactly as in the case of the Census net, which was so devised as

to haul in every head, the change in nomenclature from "Occupation" to "Means of Livelihood" closed all the loop-holes which were inevitable in the previous classification schemes.

201. With regard to the classified study of population this time according to occupations, certain alterations had to be made in the Census phraseology. The term "Occupation" implies some gainful activity by which a person makes an individual contribution to the upkeep of a household. There are many, however, whose means of livelihood consists in income derived from sources which do not involve any overt or obvious activity on their part. To the ordinary enumerator they do not seem to be 'occupied' or pursuing any avocation for a living but appear what in colloquial parlance is usually termed "simply sitting at home." Such persons, strictly speaking, have no definite occupation or gainful work on hand but undeniably possess a means of living. It is to bring all those who fall under this category within the ambit of the investigation that the caption 'means of livelihood' was adopted in lieu of the term 'occupation.'

202. Again in the classification of population in imperial Table VIII according to means of

livelihood the three-fold grouping into 'earners,' 'working dependants' and 'non-working dependants' of 1931 was replaced this time by another scheme of classification under five heads, in which the means of living were separately studied as principal as well as subsidiary, especially in view of the ostensible fact that most of the gainful workers have, in the words of the Census Commissioner for India "several strings to their bow." The first group is of those to whom one means of livelihood is the sole source of sustenance. Those in the second are supported principally by that means but supplement their income by the pursuit of some subsidiary occupation or other. The third regard it only as a secondary means of living while they have other sources as the chief means. The fourth subdivision comprises those whose income from occupations or means of living is too insufficient for them to make both ends meet, so that they have to depend also upon the support of either the head of the family or some other individual. These are termed 'partly dependants' in contradistinction to the corresponding term of 'working dependants' given to such persons in 1931. 'Working dependants' was a term applied to those subordinate workers who added to the family income by their work. Their earnings reinforced only the family means of living while in the case of 'partly dependants' the earnings contribute to their personal income which is supplemented by what they derive from their services as dependants of some other person. The fifth group, designated as 'total dependants' consist of all those who depend on this particular means of living either as 'partly dependants' or as 'fully dependants.' The number of fully dependant workers for any geographical or communal group can be found out by deducting the number of partly dependants from that of total dependants. Often the number of total dependants will be less than that of partly dependants under certain occupations, because these occupations may not always be the means of livelihood of large numbers.

203. It could be seen that this five-fold classification is more comprehensive and more

definite in determining the nature of the relation between the individual and his means of livelihood as well as the degree of his reliance on one or the other of it.

204. Despite this fact, the task of collection and classification of accurate data for the preparation of the Means of Livelihood Table bristled with numerous difficulties. While the classes and sub-classes in the Means of Livelihood Table in this census remained the same as in the last, the number of 'orders' has increased by one. The number of 'groups', however, rose from 195 to 235. The enumerators, in spite of the special coaching given to them, were often puzzled by the baffling vagueness of the returns received so that, try as they well might, they could not possibly specify the occupation so as to enable its accurate grouping later on. Those engaged in agriculture, industry or trade of some kind, merely returned themselves as such without specifying the order or group under each. For instance, non-cultivating owners, cultivating proprietors, tenant-cultivators or agricultural labourers often returned themselves simply as 'cultivators'. Similarly lace-makers or metal-workers often returned themselves as 'retail traders.' Even when groups were not ignored, the grouping might have been wrongly made, the returns under the head of industry being entered in the column of 'unspecified' or 'unproductive' or 'trade', etc. Occupational grouping will often overlap because persons, following really the same means of livelihood may be returned under different occupations or wrongly grouped. In consequence of such possible discrepancies of detail, the figures in many cases are correctly available only for the main orders and not for the groups into which they are sub-divided. Again the scope and significance of such terms as 'partly dependant' and 'total dependant' are likely to be misconstrued. Whereas in the case of the partly dependant his supporter may have either the same occupation as he or a different one altogether, the fully dependant has no occupation whatsoever for himself but depends entirely on the means of livelihood of his supporter. Besides there was also the obvious difficulty of

comparing the returns of the 1931 and 1941 censuses, since the classification schemes regarding dependants were different in both cases. A comparison is, however, possible of the total number of workers under the twelve classes for 1921, 1931 and 1941. (*vide* subjoined table).

Number of workers per 10,000 of the aggregate population.

Sub-class	Description	1921	1931	1941
	Workers : All Classes	3,701	4,726	3,699
I	Exploitation of animals and vegetation	1,670	1,848	1,816
II	Do. Minerals	4	6	8
III	Industry	819	689	774
IV	Transport	79	74	64
V	Trade	393	306	297
VI	Public Force	10	8	10
VII	Public Administration	32	33	46
VIII	Professions and Liberal Arts	142	111	112
IX	Persons living on their income	6	6	11
X	Domestic Service	20	1,405	160
XI	Unspecified Occupations	514	232	368
XII	Unproductive	12	8	33

The entries for 1941 register a fall from those of 1931 in the proportion of workers in such major occupations as agriculture, transport, trade and domestic service. The proportions of workers in the major occupations in 1941 have dwindled into those of 1921, indicating thereby that the conditions in the transitional period after the war were abnormal. The following table will further elucidate the salient features of the decennial comparison by giving the actual proportion of workers in the major means of livelihood.

Proportion of workers in the major means of livelihood.

Description	1931	1941
1. Agriculture	18.48	18.16
2. Industry	6.89	7.74
3. Transport	0.74	0.64
4. Trade	3.06	2.97
5. Professions and Liberal Arts	1.11	1.12
6. Domestic Service	14.05	1.60

205. The figures proclaim the intensity of the pressure of population analysed in a previous section. In a decade which has recorded an increase of 19 per cent. in the total population, the number of workers in the major means of livelihood has actually recorded instead of a rise commensurate with this increase, a fall. The conditions disclosed demand a joint co-operative effort on the part of Government and the people. The best brains in the country have to pool together their resourceful aptitudes and find a solution for the problem in the near future. Remedies for agricultural over-population have already been suggested in an earlier section. The further exploitation of the industrial and commercial potentialities of the State alongside the development of transport facilities seems to afford some solution. The census can only interpret the figures and disclose the problems brought to light by such interpretation. Barring the suggestion of remedies as revealed by a study of the means of livelihood through the several decades, any attempt to assess the comparative merits of the different solutions to the problems will be beyond the scope of the Census. It may be noted that, so far as agriculture is concerned, the fall registered is rather in the number of female than in that of male workers. Male workers have actually increased in number. Perhaps one reason for the diminution in the numbers engaged in agriculture may be found in the fresh opportunities afforded by other means of livelihood which must have attracted a good many to try new fields of enterprise or explore other avenues of approach. The general increase in higher education among all communities, especially in collegiate education, must have given an impetus to this tendency. Whether the diversion of workers from agriculture to other avocations is economically beneficial is, however, a controversial point. Even this diversion of occupation without a necessary increase in the total number of workers would mean only a reshuffling rather than any augmentation of the proportion of the working element. When we face the fact that the last two decades

have together recorded a 50 per cent. increase in the population, the actual reduction in the number of workers (though the percentage of reduction is only very small) even from the 1921 figures, should legitimately cause some alarm. That new avenues are being explored as a result of the spread of higher education could not afford sufficient consolation against the distressing stagnation revealed by a comparative study of the number of workers in 1921 and 1941.

206. The fall in the proportion of those engaged in domestic service from 1,405 to 160 in 10,000 is really precipitous. The reason for this is more statistical than economic. In 1931, several married or unmarried women who depended for their living upon the men-folk of their respective households were classified under domestic service. The adoption of a more rational basis would have made the returns more reliable. An economically bright feature of the intercensal period has been the increase under the heads of Industry, Public Administration and Liberal Arts (*vide* table in para 207). The rise in the first is obviously due to the progressive industrialisation of the State and in the other two to the rapid spread of literacy and growth of higher education. But the percentage of increase not being appreciably high enough, that alone does not spell prosperity as against the fall recorded in agriculture and trade.

207. The fact that the remaining occupations such as 'those living on their income' and 'unproductive' also reveal a steady rise in numbers does not make the picture brighter. The increase recorded about unspecified occupations is partly due to the lack of definiteness of the census returns and an indication of the usual tendency of the enumerator to resort to this category as a last device when he is at his wit's end definitely to specify the occupation to enable its accurate grouping later on.

208. . When it is taken into account that the decade under review commenced as the epilogue

of a trying period of world-wide economic depression and concluded as the prologue to the most terrible of all world wars, the occupational trends explained above need not be interpreted so much as registering an economic retrogression, as indicating the future trends of economic development. It is a decade in which the economic forces are setting the pace for a shift from the purely agricultural economy to one of industrialisation. In this transitional stage it is taking shape perhaps only in a reshuffling of the "workers"; but signs are not wanting that new blood with better equipment is flowing into fields which were hitherto monopolised by manual labour and considered unfit for the more refined university product. The advent of more and more young men with collegiate education in the fields of commerce and industry is a healthy sign. The stigma attached to such gainful occupations is no longer in evidence. The popularity of the Travancore University Labour Corps is a symptom of this new life among the educated youth of the land. The recruitment of large numbers as War Technicians undeniably brings out the potentialities which lay dormant and which would, when normal conditions are restored, be in the vanguard of the forces which will accelerate the pace of industrialisation. The spur to industrialisation which is thus administered in this war atmosphere is seen to have its healthy reactions on the younger generation, and may we hope that the return of peace will inaugurate a period of prosperity with the shifting of emphasis from a purely agricultural economy to one of rapid industrialisation in a country where nature has shown very little resistance in yielding her rich treasures!

209. The figures representing the number of dependants, whether partial or total, are very suggestive, especially when studied in relation to the corresponding numbers of the independent workers in the various means of livelihood. The variations in the degree of economic dependence upon the gainful workers of the various occupational groups are best studied if the ratio

between workers and dependants is worked out. The following table sets out the ratio of workers and total dependants per 10,000 of the total population.

Ratio of workers and total dependants per 10,000 of the population.			
Description	Independent workers	Total dependants	Ratio
STATE	2,614	7,366	2.83
1. Public Administration	42	143	3.40
2. Persons living on their income	10	32	3.20
3. Exploitation of animals and vegetation	1,380	4,211	3.05
4. Exploitation of minerals	5	15	3.00
5. Professions and Liberal Arts	96	277	2.89
6. Transport	56	153	2.73
7. Trade	219	596	2.72
8. Insufficiently de- scribed occupations.	226	592	2.62
9. Industry	489	1,263	2.58
10. Public Force	10	24	2.40
11. Unproductive	14	18	1.29
12. Domestic Service	67	62	0.93

210. The State ratio of 2.83 in the above reveals that every independent worker supports nearly three dependants by the income derived from his means of livelihood. The above list of ratios pertaining to the various means of livelihood, given in the descending order, records the largest number of dependants under Public Administration, the next being under persons living on their income, agriculture and pasture and the professions and liberal arts respectively.

211. The notion which seems to be generally current that a safe income, such as, for example, a modest government salary is preferable to brighter prospects elsewhere open to plucky aspirants but attended with risks, is unfortunately filtering down to the younger generation in society in an increasing measure. It discloses a reluctance to effort towards an honest living by the sweat of one's brow. Economic prosperity is almost impossible of attainment against such a psychological background, even if the government should put forth its maximum effort so long as

those under this category continue to be influenced by such notions. The complacent attitude of those with a safe income during their tenure of office and even after is reflected in the increasing ratio of dependants on them. Where the spur to exertion is non-existent in the parent, the progeny could not be expected to fare better. It sounds almost paradoxical that the average Travancorean, though generally addicted to a life of ease with a safe income, should invariably be found to assume a different garb altogether and rise equal to any occasion when put on his mettle in a foreign land, especially in competitive recruitment, wherein he has perforce to make patent the potentialities that are latent in him. Whether this transformation of the sluggard vegetating in the rut at home into an ace rising up to easy heights abroad, is due to changes in climate, soil or atmosphere, none can tell. In this connection, the writer is reminded of a remark made to him in the course of conversation by a former British Resident suggesting the cutting down of all the coconut trees in Travancore to make its people work. It is the same complacent attitude that makes many workers prefer a permanent job with limited work to one in which they can earn more money by working at a harder pace for longer hours. Among the sorting section of the census staff, only a small percentage earned bonuses for sorting additional slips. The large majority fretted and fumed for being detained to complete their small daily quota. The reluctance of estate managers to employ our people may perhaps be attributed to this unfortunate tendency of workers to do just the minimum. The P. W. D. maintenance coolies are proverbial instances of sluggish indifference though a change of attitude would have enabled them to work better and earn more.

212. A word about "persons living on their income" without directly or indirectly helping towards any gainful activity, who may rightly be characterised as "simply sitting". Such of these as have acquired a notoriety for their opulence are usually recognised by the

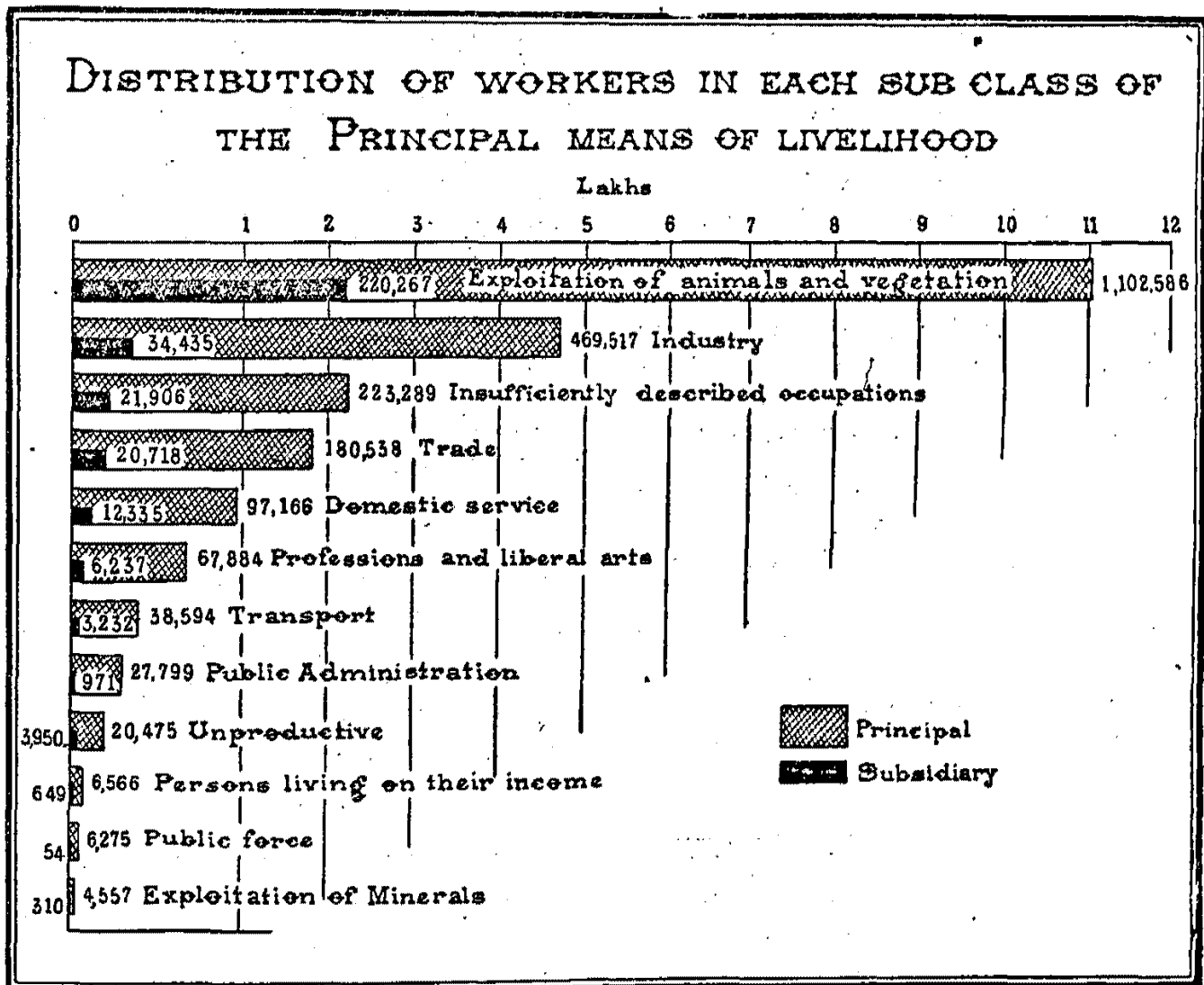
lation in this age-group is 2,932,078 and the total number of workers in the State is 2,245,246 or 76.6 per cent. From this it is evident that 23.4 per cent. of those capable of work are unemployed. Even here, allowance has to be made for the infirm, the sick, etc. But when it is found that 2,245,246 persons have to bear the burden of supporting a number nearly twice as large (the number living on independent means without doing work being very small) the pressure of unemployment is seen to assume serious proportions and create a problem demanding joint co-operative effort by Government and people towards its solution.

216. Considering the proportion of the distribution of working population in the principal means of livelihood by sub-classes and their relative

importance, it will be seen that 49.1 per cent. of the total workers are engaged in agriculture and pasture, (sub class 1) 21.0 in Industry, 8.0 in Trade, 4.3 in Domestic service, 3.0 in the Professions and Liberal Arts and 1.2 in Public Administration. The diagram on the previous page illustrates the comparison of this feature in the means of livelihood of the last two censuses. The two outstanding characteristics that emerge from a comparative study are the great fall in the number of those engaged in domestic service and the excess of the numbers employed in agriculture and pasture over those in all other occupations.

217. A study of the subsidiary means of livelihood by which workers supplement their income from their principal occupations, yields more or less the same results suggesting thereby that the

Diagram referred to in paragraph 220.



occupational trends are almost identical in both cases. The relative importance of the subsidiary means of livelihood pursued by the different classes of workers can be made out from the diagram on the previous page wherein the various occupations figure in the same order of importance noted in the case of the principal ones in the diagram in para 219. The preponderance of agriculture is more pronounced in this case than in the former since agriculture and pasture together absorb more than double the number of workers engaged in all others put together. In a country where agriculture is the mainstay of the majority of the population and where investment in land is considered the safest method of utilising one's surplus income, it is no wonder that this occupation has been resorted to by so high a percentage of the population. The similarity of the trends in the relative importance of the principal and subsidiary means of livelihood also bespeaks the inherent conservatism of the people in following beaten tracks in the wake of their fathers without taking to newer enterprises as in the more advanced countries of the West. Perhaps this phenomenon is also an index of the tardiness of encouragement from society to any change of venue in economic pursuits in general. But the change in outlook coming in the wake of the war has trodden under foot this innate conservatism for society being trodden into shape later on by giving them the necessary realistic experience.

218. A comparison of the three Administrative Divisions shows that the percentage of independent workers, partly dependants and total dependants is highest in the Central and lowest in the Southern division. This is quite in keeping with the general trend of economic activity in the State from decade to decade wherein Central Travancore has invariably figured as occupationally the busiest region.

219. The returns registered regarding Trivandrum, the capital city in the State, reveal two salient features, *viz.*, that the proportion of workers to the total working population is fairly high here and that it has also to its credit a higher

percentage of workers in Trade, Public Administration and the Liberal Arts than any other locality. It is only in the fitness of things that such should be the case in regard to the metropolis of a progressive State wherein all the phases of her cultural life are variously centralised and kaleidoscopically represented, the stream of human life flows thickest and the pulse of human life beats fastest.

220. The diagram on page 71 illustrates the distribution of workers in the three Natural Divisions. The Highland where the estate economy prevails and where the largest extent of cultivable land is left uncultivated, has recorded the highest proportion of independent workers. The proportion of dependants, partial as well as total, is however less than in the other two. The inference is significant. Most of the dependants on the Highland workers live in the Midland and the Lowland wherefrom these workers had migrated to tap the resources of the montane regions. The subjoined table shows the proportion of partial to total dependants in the Highland to be less than that

Proportion of partly dependants to total dependants for the State and the Natural Divisions.

Description	Partly dependants	Total dependants	Percentage
STATE	658,542	4,483,314	14.69
Lowland	340,596	2,053,127	16.59
Midland	283,253	2,201,099	12.87
Highland	34,693	229,088	15.14

in the Lowland. Agriculture and pasture form the chief means of livelihood of the Highland recording, as in 1931, the highest percentage in the three Natural Divisions. This argues both the need for the extension of cultivation in the Highland and the comparatively limited scope and facilities for the pursuit of other avocations. Vast possibilities exist in the Highland which those in the sub-montane and coastal regions, which are more congested, may very well try to exploit and develop. Of the other occupations, in Public Administration alone the figure for the Highland is better than that for the Midland.

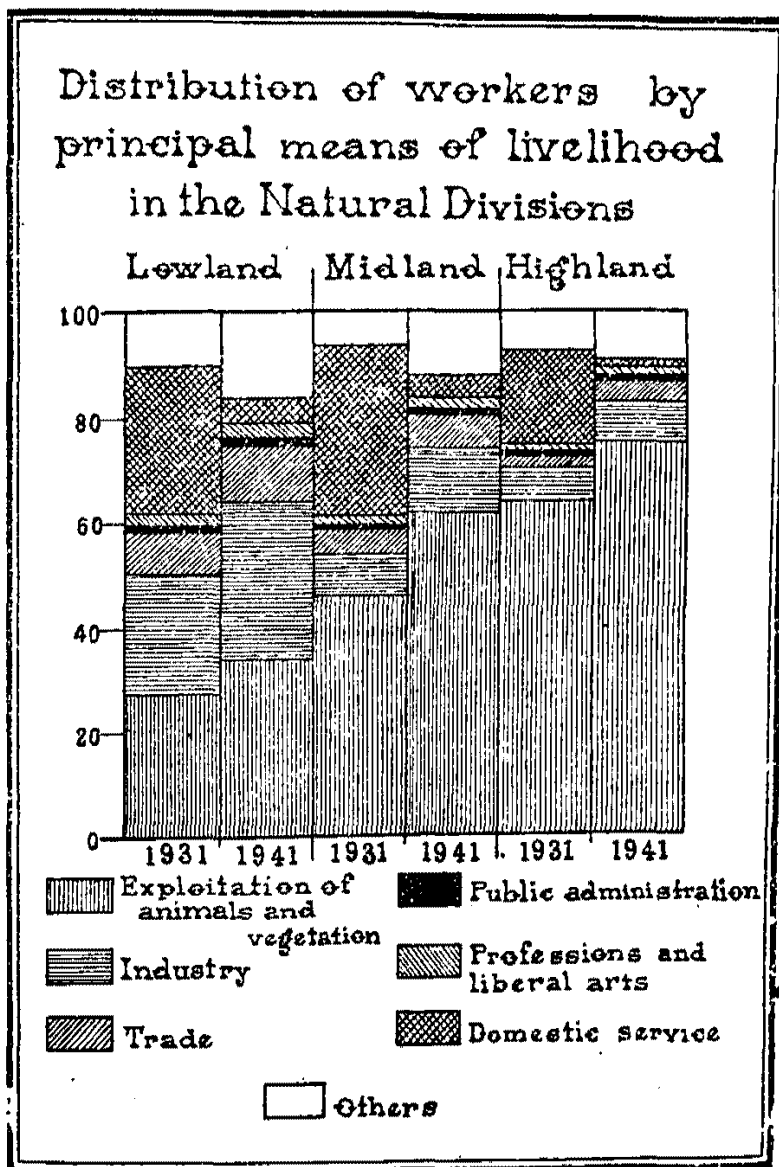
221. As for the Lowland, the returns reveal, as in 1931, the highest percentage in the number

of workers in all the occupations, except in agriculture and pasture where the percentage is lowest, being only 33.8. It may seem paradoxical that in a region which has reached the saturation point in the matter of bringing under cultivation all available land, those in agriculture and pasture should record the least percentage. This may be accounted for by the better opportunities which the Lowlander has over his compeers elsewhere for the pursuit of other means of livelihood besides taking to the plough and the rearing of livestock.

222. The following diagram illustrates these factors with regard to the three natural regions. The Midland has recorded as in 1931, the lowest percentage in Public Administration. While it can be bracketed with the Lowland in point of

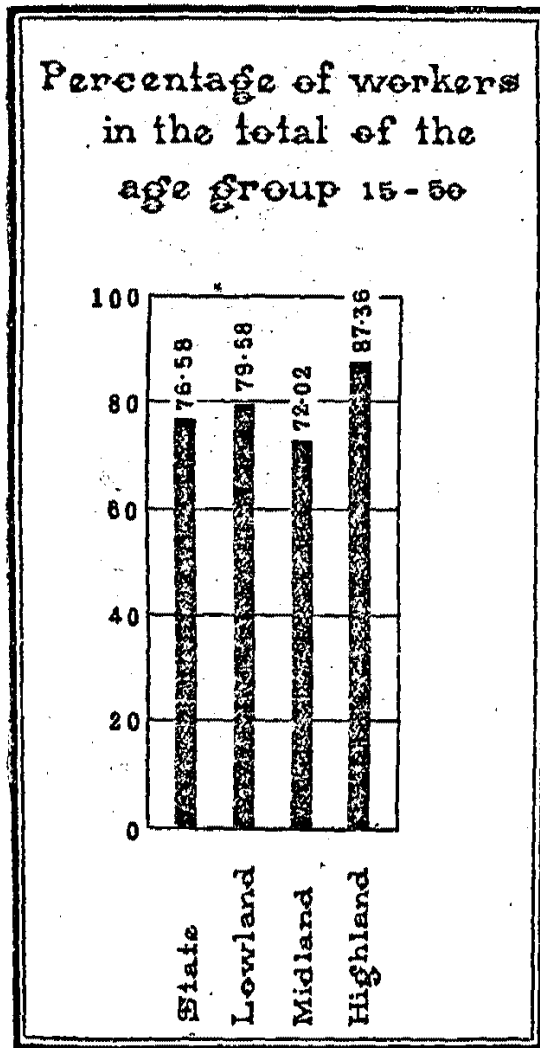
domestic service it ranks creditably high in agriculture and trade. These tend to show, as in the case of the Highland, that the as yet untapped resources of the Midland await the awakening touch of more enterprising workers bent upon surmounting every obstacle, human as well as natural, that is likely to confront them in the trying years to come.

223. It will be interesting, at this juncture, to compute the probable incidence of unemployment in the three Natural Divisions with the aid of the diagram on next page, illustrating the percentage of workers in these regions, falling under the age-group 15—50 that comprehends the working population of the land. It will be clear therefrom that whereas in the Lowland and the Highland the percentage of workers



exceeds that of the whole state, the highest percentage of them is in the Highland (87.36). This is proof positive (subject to the reservation mentioned above, that many of the workers who have migrated to this region have their dependants residing elsewhere) that unemployment is least in the montane areas and corroborates the same findings already pointed out above in the study of the total percentage of dependants in the three Natural Divisions.

Diagram referred to in paragraph 226.



224. If the numerical strength of the gainful workers in any State may be reckoned as a measure of its material prosperity, the part played by the females as earning helpmeets of the males in the national economy would provide a theme of immense interest. The subject is well worth a brief but separate study in so far as the present census discloses certain specific features. In

Travancore the female workers number 268,648 which is 12 per cent. of the total number of workers and 8.9 per cent. of the female population in the State. The difference between these and the corresponding percentages of male workers will appear most glaring, especially when viewed from the standpoint of conditions obtaining in some of the foreign countries. The male workers form 64.9 per cent. of the total male population and 88 per cent. of the total working population. In the normal economy of a household it is the convention, especially in prosperous times, for the male to be a positive earner who supports the family on the income side and the female to be a negative earner who runs the home economically on the expenditure side. In times of stress when the family feels the pinch or dreads the wolf at the door, the females play a necessarily more active part as earners by their gainful activities. The case may be different in countries where the universal spread of female education, the impact of new ideas popularised by feminist movements and the trend of social standards invariably point towards woman's economic independence as reflected in the comparatively high percentage of female workers in every walk of life. In a country like Travancore, custom and convention still govern the occupational readiness or freedom of the female population and therefore the variations of the sex-ratio in the matter of means of livelihood should not be interpreted in the light of western standards.

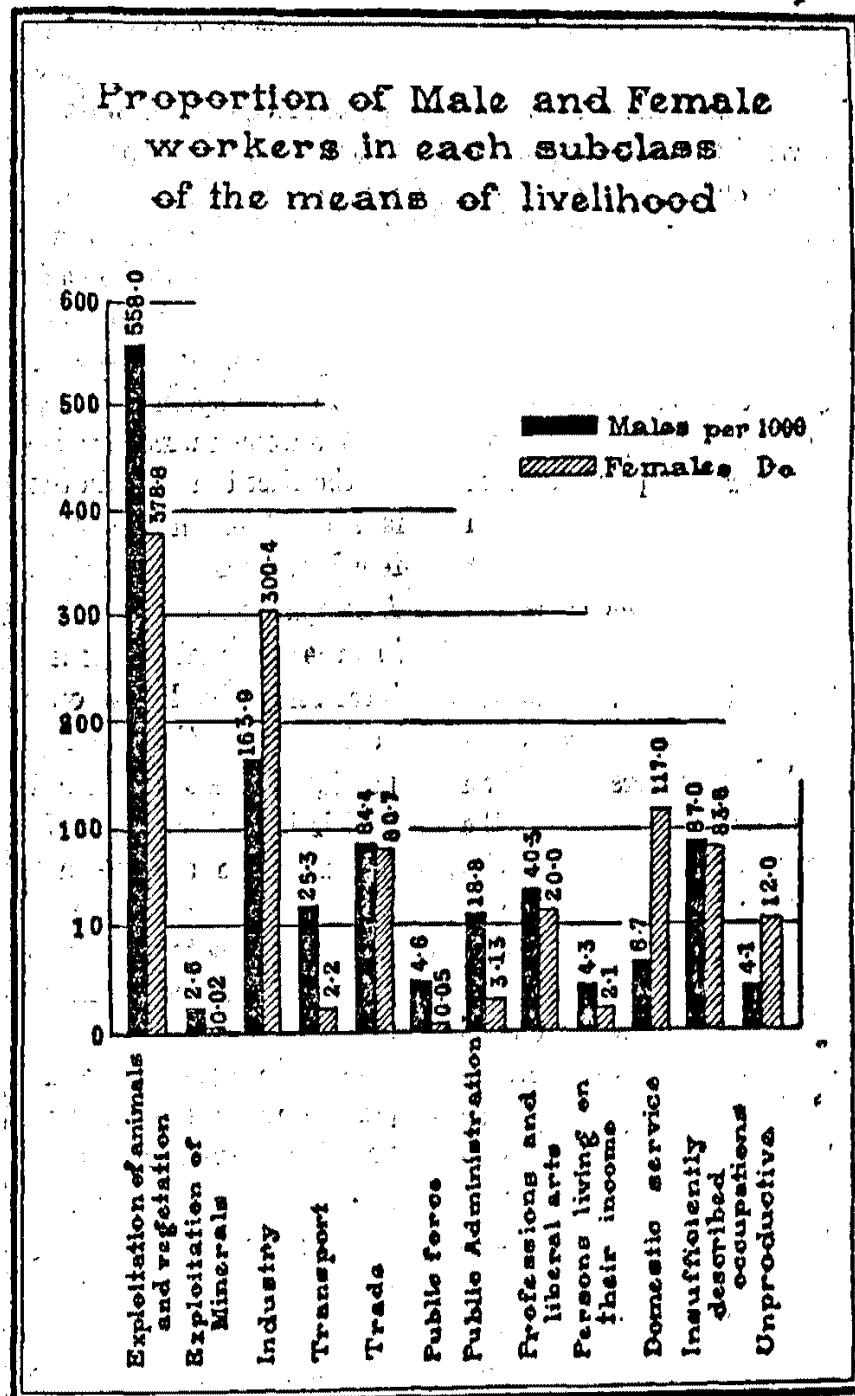
225. The table below sets forth the variations in the ratio of female to male workers

Number of female per 1,000 male workers in the different means of livelihood in 1931 and 1941.

Description	1931	1941
STATE (All classes of means of livelihood)	323	204
1 Exploitation of animals and vegetation	319	138
2 Do. of minerals	151	2
3 Industry	534	374
4 Transport	16	18
5 Trade	288	195
6 Public Force	..	2
7 Public Administration	25	34
8 Professions and Liberal Arts	128	101
9 Persons living on their income	173	100
10 Domestic Service	1,232	3,568
11 Insufficiently described occupations	174	196
12 Unproductive	530	601

in 1931 and 1941. It will be clear from this that the present census registers a fall in the ratio of female workers in many of the subclasses. The classification of females as 'working dependants' in the last census with the consequent inflation in numbers must be held responsible for this fall in number rather than any actual increase in the ratio. As stressed more than once in the foregoing pages there was nothing materially unusual or abnormal in the economic life of the State to warrant an apprecia-

ble reduction in the number of female workers. It is to be deplored that economic phenomena have to suffer misinterpretation by the edge of statistical tools getting blunted by terminological inexactitudes. The diagram below illustrates the proportion of female workers in each sub-class to total female workers per 1,000 and the corresponding ratios for males. As for the relative importance of female occupations revealed in the bargraph, agriculture and industry rank highest in their incidence, domestic service,



trade and insufficiently described occupations coming next, while professions and liberal arts, public administration, transport, exploitation of minerals and persons living on their income figure last. On the comparative side, the female workers in a thousand of total female workers are found twenty times as many as male workers in a thousand of their number in domestic service, thrice in unproductive occupations and twice in industry. While in trade and insufficiently described occupations the ratio is nearly as high as that of the male workers, in exploitation of animals and vegetation, it is nearly two-thirds. The increase of numbers in industry is partly due to the starting of a large number of cashewnut factories where the managers have discovered the special aptitude of the female labourer for shelling the cashewnut. It may be remarked that the crudeness of the process involved and the insanitary conditions in which they work are highly detrimental to the health of a large number of young girls who are to be the future mothers. In the coir yarn industry, the dexterity of the females in plying their nimble fingers will make for the production of yarn of better quality in large quantities and in both these industries the comparative cheapness of female labour is the chief inducement to the employer.

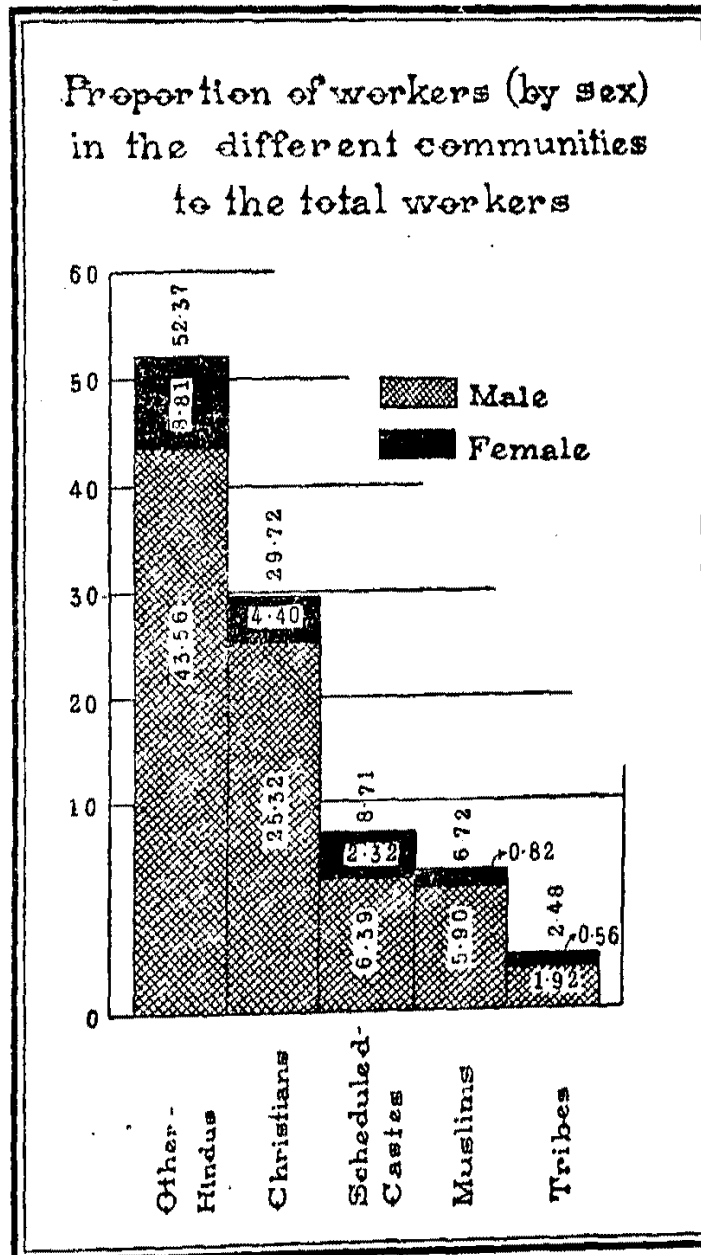
226. A study of Imperial Table VIII shows that the largest number of female workers are employed as agricultural labourers while an almost equally large number are engaged in the raising of special crops like tea, rubber, etc. Nearly half that number are cultivating owners. The fact that these three categories together cover more than a fourth of the female working population is another index of the preponderance of agriculture in the State. Domestic servants come up to four-fifths of the number engaged as agricultural labourers. On the industrial side the making of coir yarn and next to it rice-pounding and husking, employ the largest number of female workers. In these two and in domestic service more females than males are employed though the starting of rice mills has diminished the number of female rice-pounders and huskers

in the last decade. The increase in the number of females in public administration and instruction is a direct result of the rapid spread of female education in the State. The proportion of those giving instruction has fallen from 191 per mille in 1931 to 166 in 1941. It is a disappointing feature that women have not come forward in sufficient numbers into numerous occupations for which they have a special aptitude such as lace-making and needle-work, in which the returns recorded are ridiculously small. There is ample scope for social organisations to wean the female workers away from their indifference that makes them fight shy of their avocational opportunities which are unlimited and in fact illimitable. For example, in such minor occupations as the following, one should have expected larger numbers of women than the low figures recorded in each case for the whole State, for instance bakers, lawyers' clerk, jute spinners, employees in places of entertainment, cotton spinners, scribes and stenographers. Twelve women were recruited into the Police force for the first time within the decade. This aspect is a desideratum for the special attention of female workers, educated as well as uneducated. A comparison of the male and female workers in the natural regions also throws some interesting side lights on the problem. While in the State the number of female workers per 1,000 male workers is 204, in the Highland it is as high as 307 but in the Midland it shrinks to a mere half of it. The Highland also leads in the proportion of female workers to the total female population. Where the State percentage in this respect is 8'9, in the Midland it is only 6'5 but in the Highland it shoots up to 18'3. The low figure pertaining to the Midland is due to the comparatively smaller number of industries carried on there. The position is, however, altered in the ratio of female dependants to male dependants. Here it is least in the Midland being only 159 per 100 males whereas it is 160 in the Highland and 161 in the Lowland. These figures also tally with the findings concerning th

percentage of total dependants pointed out in a previous connection. This aspect of the study points to the need for more and more female workers in the Midland where increasing opportunities are sure to arise with increased exploitation.

227. The distribution of workers both male and female among the various communities in the

ranking in respect of all the three categories. The Hindus other than the Scheduled Castes record the highest percentage, the Christians come next, the Scheduled Castes third, the Muslims fourth and the Tribes last. Though this is in accord with the distribution of population in these communities, a few special features are discernible on a further scrutiny.



State can, be made out easily from the above diagram. Whether we consider the percentage of male and female workers separately or both sexes together in relation to their respective totals of workers, the results reveal the same

Muslim female workers register so low a percentage as 4.8. This is to be attributed to the age-old social convention of the seclusion of the Muslim women. The very high percentage of the 'Other Hindu' workers can, in part, be accounted

for by the presence in their fold of a very large number of working castes which are not included among the six Scheduled Castes. Again whereas among all classes, there is a lesser percentage of female than male workers, the Scheduled Castes and Tribes have proportionately contributed a higher percentage of female workers than males. A yet more striking feature is revealed in the figures pertaining to the Tribes. While they number only just over 2 per cent. of the total population in the State, their percentage to the total workers is 2.3 for males and 3.3 for females, showing thereby a higher percentage in the quota of workers they contribute than is warranted by their population strength. The following table gives the proportion of workers per 1,000 of the population of each sex.

Proportion of workers per 1,000
of the population of each sex.

Description	Males	Females
Scheduled castes	510	188
Other Hindus	442	88
Tribes	478	135
Indian Christians	405	72
Muslims	425	61

228. The Scheduled Castes and the Tribes record the highest proportions in the above, proving thereby that they are predominantly the working classes of the State. It is to the credit of the Indian Christians who number 62 per cent. of the numerical strength of the 'Other Hindus' that they have recorded a higher proportion of workers than the difference in numbers between the two communities warrants. It tends to point to a comparatively greater number of slackers among the 'Other Hindus' than among the other communities. A comparison of female workers in these two categories also corroborates the same conclusion. The two outstanding facts that 'the female

population among the 'Other Hindus' exceeds their male population by 13,347 and also that they number more than the Indian Christian female population by 613,747 go to show that their proportion of 88 per mille of the female population is too low a figure compared to 72 per mille for the Indian Christian females. Even this 88 per mille must dwindle into a far smaller number if we take into account only the high caste females among them because 'Other Hindus', as pointed out above, include several working castes not covered by the official term 'Scheduled Castes'. This conclusion easily locates the particular section of the female population of the State that is most occupation-shy while the increase of literacy and the spread of modern social tendencies should have postulated a better state of affairs. It may incidentally be remembered that the percentage of workers among Indian Christians and Muslims in relation to the total population is partly kept down by the greater fertility noticeable among them, which necessitates on the average a larger number of children and child-bearing females among them than among the other communities.

229. The smallness of the numbers of Jains, Jews, Buddhists, Parsees, etc., does not lend itself to a comparative study. The Christians in the State have been classified in the Imperial Table as Indian Christians, excluding Europeans and Anglo-Indians. Of the 640 males and 616 females in the Anglo-Indian community, 259 of the former and only 35 of the latter are workers, while the partly dependent among them number 34 males and 27 females. The very low percentage of female workers among them (5.6 per cent.) indicates that quite a large number of female workers have gone abroad in quest of suitable jobs to which their educational qualifications (in which they excel their males) entitle them.

230. The incidence of dependence in each community is revealed by the statistics available. The subjoined table gives the proportion of partial

Description	Number of partly dependant to 1,000 workers.	
	Number per 1,000	
Scheduled castes	541	
Other Hindus	393	
Tribes	546	
Indian Christians	419	
Muslims	349	

dependants to 1,000 workers. The Scheduled Castes and Tribes register the highest percentage of partly dependants. It is conspicuous that among the 'Other Hindus' partial dependants are comparatively few. The sex-ratio of partial dependants can be studied from the following table.

Ratio of female partly dependants to 1,000 male partly dependants.

Description	Ratio
Scheduled castes	3,045
Other Hindus	1,442
Tribes	3,123
Indian Christians	1,186
Muslims	1,161

231. The fact that in this table the number of female partial dependants exceeds that of male partial dependants is only natural, because grown-up women and even girls of working age cannot be full-time workers in the ordering of an average household. They can in most cases at best be only partly dependants. The largest number of female partly dependants is found among the Scheduled Castes and Tribes, which as already pointed out, are predominantly a working class. The sex-ratio for the State as a whole for partly dependants is 1,481. The total number of partial dependants to 1,000 workers in the State is 415 which indicates that every alternate worker gets the additional support of a partial worker to lighten his economic burden.

232. The number of dependants a worker has to support on an average is however, better studied from a classification of total dependants.

The following table gives the ratio of total dependants to the workers in each community.

Description	Ratio of total dependants to the workers in the various communities.	
	Ratio	
Scheduled castes	1.86	
Other Hindus	2.78	
Tribes	2.28	
Indian Christians	3.16	
Muslims	3.07	

233. In this respect the Indian Christians lead off, closely followed by the Muslims as every worker in these communities has to support more than three dependants. The strain on the Muslim earner in particular must be reckoned very great in view of the fact already noted above, that partial dependants are fewest in this community, which precludes any substantial relief to the encumbrance he has to shoulder. This state of things has to go on as long as fertility among Muslims continues at the present rate and social custom shelves off the Muslim female from the open arena of gainful activity in the numerous fields accessible to the job-seeker. The incidence of total dependence ranks next among the 'Other Hindus'. The second smallest ratio of partial dependants as pointed out above concerning this community must be put down as a principal reason for the burden that workers in this category have to shoulder. Among the higher castes in this group partial dependants are particularly few and that leaves the vast majority of the total dependants fully dependant on the workers. This is a desideratum for the social leaders in these communities. The same factor holds good in the case of the Indian Christians in more or less the same measure. The smallest ratio of total dependence recorded about the Tribes and Scheduled Castes is another proof positive that they are the most hardworking of the gainful workers in the State.

234. No scientific study of the means of livelihood in general in the State can be considered adequate without a detailed reference, in

certain special respects, to agriculture, the basic occupation of the people from time immemorial. The preponderance of agriculture in the national economy, both as principal and subsidiary means of livelihood, as pursued by male and female workers alike, has already been emphasised and diagrammatically illustrated. The average Travancorean is essentially a son of the soil traditionally bound to his land so to say with hoops of steel. Agriculture, in so far as it employs nearly half the workers in the State and yields both its food-crops and cash-crops, is the mainstay of the population supporting, as it does, no less than 53·7 per cent. of it, which would become 57·4 if those who take to agriculture as subsidiary occupation are also taken into account. It is the produce of the soil whether raised from fragmentary or large-scale holdings or under the estate system that constitutes the raw material for the numerous indigenous industries both of the organised and cottage type and eventually sets the pace for the export trade of the State. Thus as the fundamental factor that determines in general the prosperity of the State and in particular its industrial progress, volume of export trade and extent and variety of communications, and one that would spell depression and famine if adversely affected by freaks of nature or other adventitious occurrences in years of drought or flood, the prospects of the cultivator deserve a further study based on the statistical data available from the occupational standpoint than has already been made in the general section to interpret the factors geographical and economic governing the pressure and movement of population.

235. The first striking feature noticeable is the excess in the percentage in 1941 of those dependent on agriculture by 3 over that in 1931. If those who follow it as subsidiary occupation

are, however, excluded, the percentage would continue to be the same as in the last census.

236. A diversion of the agricultural worker into other means of livelihood is, however, evident from a study of the variations in the percentage of agricultural workers in the last two decades. The table below supplies the necessary figures for this.

Variations in the Proportion of agricultural workers in the State to total workers in 1921, 1931 and 1941.

Year.	Total.	Male.	Female.
1921	42·87	49·22	28·05
1931	53·12	52·74	54·27
1941	50·88	53·60	37·54

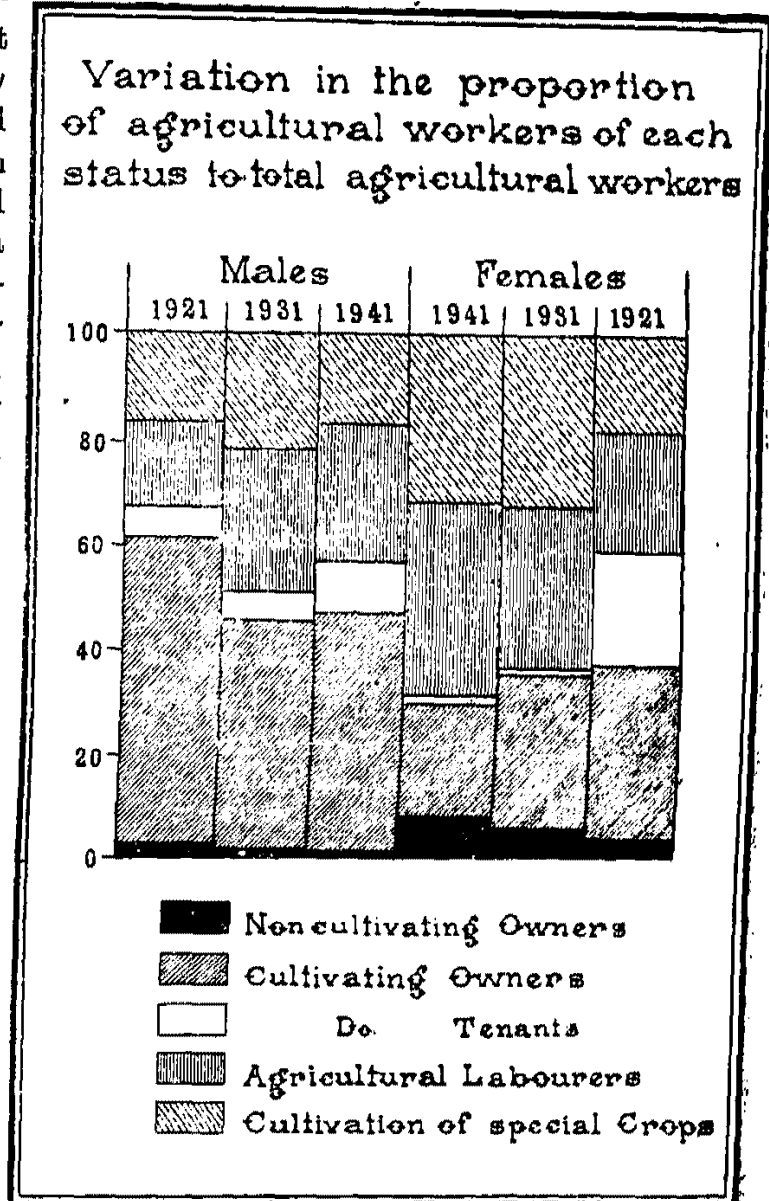
237. Though the percentage of agricultural workers to total workers registers an excess of over 10 per cent. in 1931, a fall of more than 2 per cent. is perceptible in 1941. This can be accounted for if the variations in the two sexes in this respect are separately reckoned. The male workers have increased in both decades, though one should have expected a slightly higher percentage in 1941. The general fall is therefore due to the enormous reduction in the percentage of female workers. While in 1931 their proportion was seen to have nearly doubled, a fall by about 17 in the percentage has been recorded in the present census. This is due rather to the difference in the schemes of classifying female workers in the two censuses than to any palpable economic phenomenon that occurred in the intercensal period. In 1931 every female was asked by the enumerator to state her caste and religion and after that whether she was an earner or dependant. But the questions regarding dependence were not specific enough to elicit the degree of her dependence and the occupation of the person on whom she depended. In the Census Conference held on 20th February

1940 the Census Commissioner for India explained that his approach to this question (about dependence, partial or full) has been *deliberately from the dependent point of view*, the word 'earner' being extremely difficult of explanation and definition to an enumerator. He attached some importance to retaining the concept of a person who was partially dependant. In pursuance of this instruction the question about dependence (No. 6) preceded that about occupation (No. 9) in this year's enumeration card for females. Consequently if a female first returned herself as a dependant, partial or total, when the turn of occupation came there was the possibility for the enumerator to check the first entry against question 6 by the fact recorded against question 9. That is a possible explanation for the fall registered in the number of female workers which in turn adversely affected the figures for the total workers. The same problem can be statistically presented in another way by saying that in the last two decades the male agricultural workers increased by 15.42 per cent. and 19.86 per cent. successively while the female workers increased by 56.95 per cent. in the former decade but decreased by 48.4 per cent. in the latter.

238. Comparing the figures in this respect of the Natural divisions we find a fall in the percentage in the last decade by nearly 3 in the Lowland, more than 2 in the Midland and a little over 1 in the Highland. And in all the three the decrease in number of female agricultural workers is great (*vide* table below).

Year,	Lowland.			Midland.			Highland.		
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.
1931	36.07	35.81	36.85	66.86	66.87	66.84	78.36	75.0	85.9
1941	33.42	36.27	21.31	64.61	67.22	47.69	77.15	75.88	81.3

239. More striking than the fall in the total number of agricultural workers in 1941 is the variation recorded in the number of each of the four groups under the order of 'Cultivation' in Imperial Table VIII. The following diagram illustrates this point with reference to the



last three censuses concerning males and females. In the category of 'non-cultivating owners' who subsist on the rent they receive with or without some subsidiary occupation, there is a steady fall registered in the proportion of males in all the three censuses. This shows they are taking to cultivation in larger numbers. The fall may also be due to a correspondingly steady rise in the number of females in this group, in consequence of legislation within the period concerned pertaining to right of ownership of land by females in the Nayar and Ilava communities. The partition laws led to the rise of many independent ownerships among females and a proportionate reduction in the number of male owners. As for

the second group, *viz.*, cultivating owners there has been a progressive decrease in the proportion of females, the fall being slightly greater in the last decade than in the one before. Among males a fall was recorded in 1931 but the present census has registered a 'rise' by about 2 per cent. The general decrease in this group can be put down as a measure of the extent to which land changed hands during the period. Cultivating owners are essentially a middle class and the total extent of their individual holdings not being much, it is natural for them to sell their land to meet their personal, domestic or social requirements. Though their ownership is thus lost, they may often continue to hold it as tenants and cultivate it. This tendency of cultivating owners to shrink to the level of mere tenants is well illustrated in the rise recorded in the last decade in the number of cultivating tenants among both males and females, the increase being more steady among the former. With regard to every agricultural country, it is usual to look upon the yeomen or middle class farmers as the backbone of the community and the measure of their economic welfare is always an unerring index of general prosperity. Viewed from this aspect, the economic degradation of the peasant proprietor into the cultivating tenant is to be deplored as indicating a tendency towards the gradual disappearance of the small landowner.

240. In England after the break-up of the Manorial System of husbandry by about the close of the 15th century the most outstanding economic change in the 16th century was the disappearance of the small landowner. But there this gave place to a different scheme of agriculture in which a large proportion of the arable land was converted into pasture. There was a loud outcry against this which the contemporary chronicler has expressed in those famous lines "horn and thorn have made the world forlorn". But this idea of consolidated holding was beneficial in that, soon the agricultural economy changed from small-scale peasant proprietorship into large-scale farm ownership. This large-scale

farming and agriculture made it possible for the introduction of scientific methods of cultivation in the centuries that followed. It is doubtful whether in our State the subdivision of agricultural holdings with its by-product, fragmentation, will only be a transitional stage in the evolution of a system of consolidated holdings. The attachment of the individual to land which is so persistent, will fight hard against attempts at consolidation.

241. Incidentally the disappearance of the peasant proprietor may be considered as a measure of the agricultural indebtedness that forces many a middle class farmer to sell up or hypothecate his little inheritance to meet his sudden and growing economic needs. The degradation in the rank and file of the cultivating class is most in evidence in the rapid growth in the number of agricultural day-labourers, particularly pronounced among females. As already pointed out in a previous connection, these have the least number of dependants on them since they live almost a hand to mouth life. Among the cultivators of special crops the number of female workers has decreased by 50 per cent. while that of the males has decreased by nearly 4 per cent.

242. The following table specifies the special crops under which the number of cultivators has decreased and the items in which there is

Number of workers cultivating special crops.

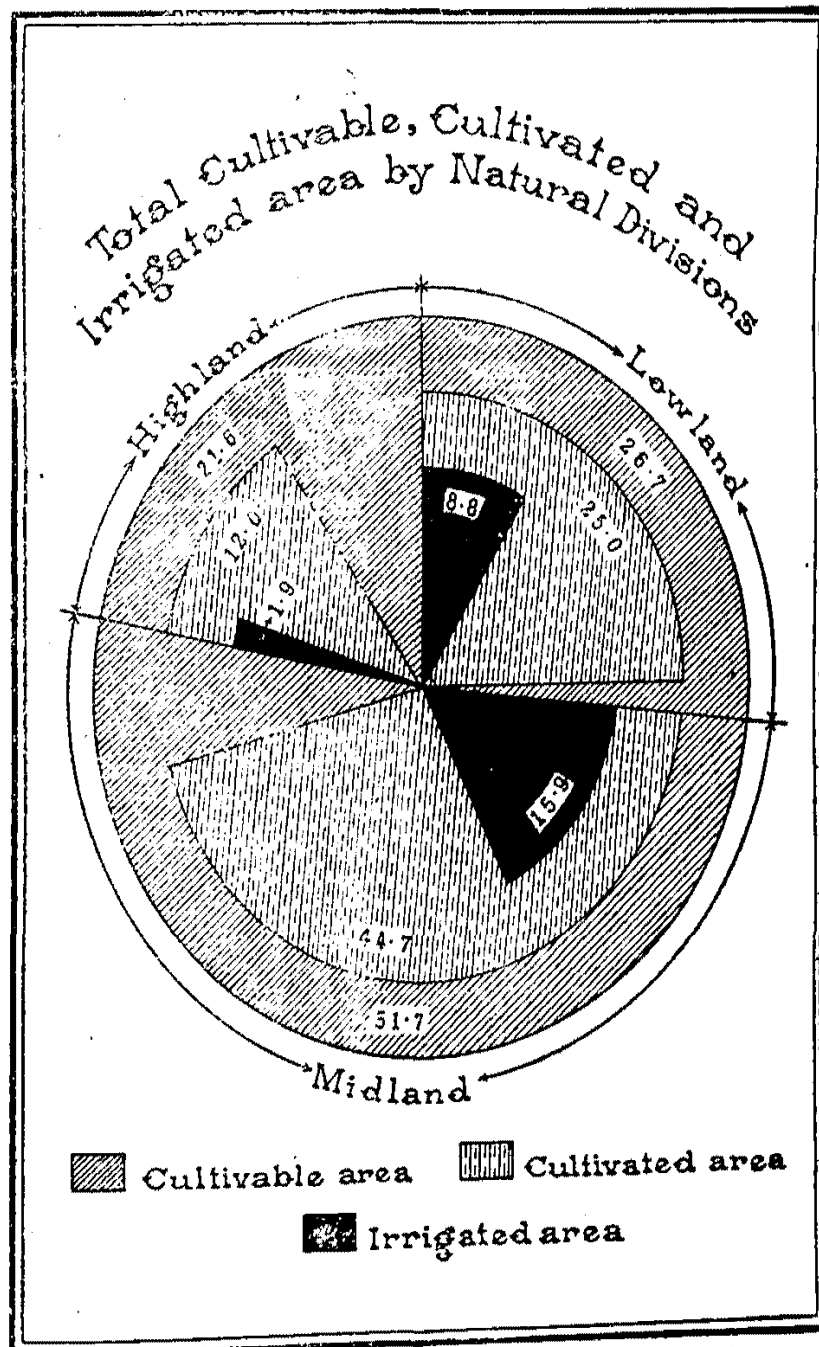
Description.	1931	1941
1 Coconut	102,053	63,235
2 Pansvine	3,120	2,947
3 Rubber	6,925	20,435
4 Coffee	110	188
5 Tea	63,911	55,338
6 Market gardeners and flower and fruit sellers	5,971	2,967

a rise. The fall in the number of coconut cultivators should be attributed to the fall in the price of coconut and its products in successive years and the consequent diversion of many workers to more remunerative occupations. The

decrease in the number of those in tea cultivation may be due to the activities of the Tea Licensing Committee and perhaps also to many estates going out of cultivation as a result of the diminishing economic returns from the lands recently brought under cultivation or to the limitation in the quantity produced to ward off a slump in the market. A small increase in percentage is noticeable in coffee cultivation though the total number engaged in it is negligible. The trebling of the numbers of those engaged in the cultivation of rubber must be due to the gradual rise in the price of that commodity and the larger numbers of Travancoreans taking to its cultivation on that account. The picture of the cultivation of special crops is not very bright since there is a fall of nearly 20 per cent. of the total numbers. On the whole, therefore, the phenomenon of the changes

occurring in the status of the different groups of agricultural workers must provide ample food for thought to those interested in such problems as agrarian reform, landholding, tenancy and agricultural labour. A more detailed discussion of these topics will be found in the Report on the Economic Survey and the Fragmentation of Holdings.

243. A shifting of one's view-point from a retrospect of the past decade into an examination of the present condition will give a valuable insight into the possibilities of the future, in respect of agriculture in the State. Much of its cultivable land remains uncultivated and within the area already under the plough much of irrigable land has yet to be irrigated. The following diagram gives a concrete idea of the percentage



of arable land that is cultivated as well as irrigated. It will be seen therefrom that of the 18.3 per cent. of cultivable land yet to be cultivated, 1.7 is in the Lowland, 7 per cent. in the Midland and 9.6 in the Highland. While the limit of arability has thus nearly been reached in the Lowland, the scope for extension of cultivation in the other two Natural Divisions is not considerable. Though there is the possibility of disafforestation in the montane and sub-montane regions to increase the acreage of arable land, the economic disadvantages attendant on such a step do not justify its adoption. So the utmost that could be done in these two regions is to exploit fully the margin of cultivable land yet available to the plough.

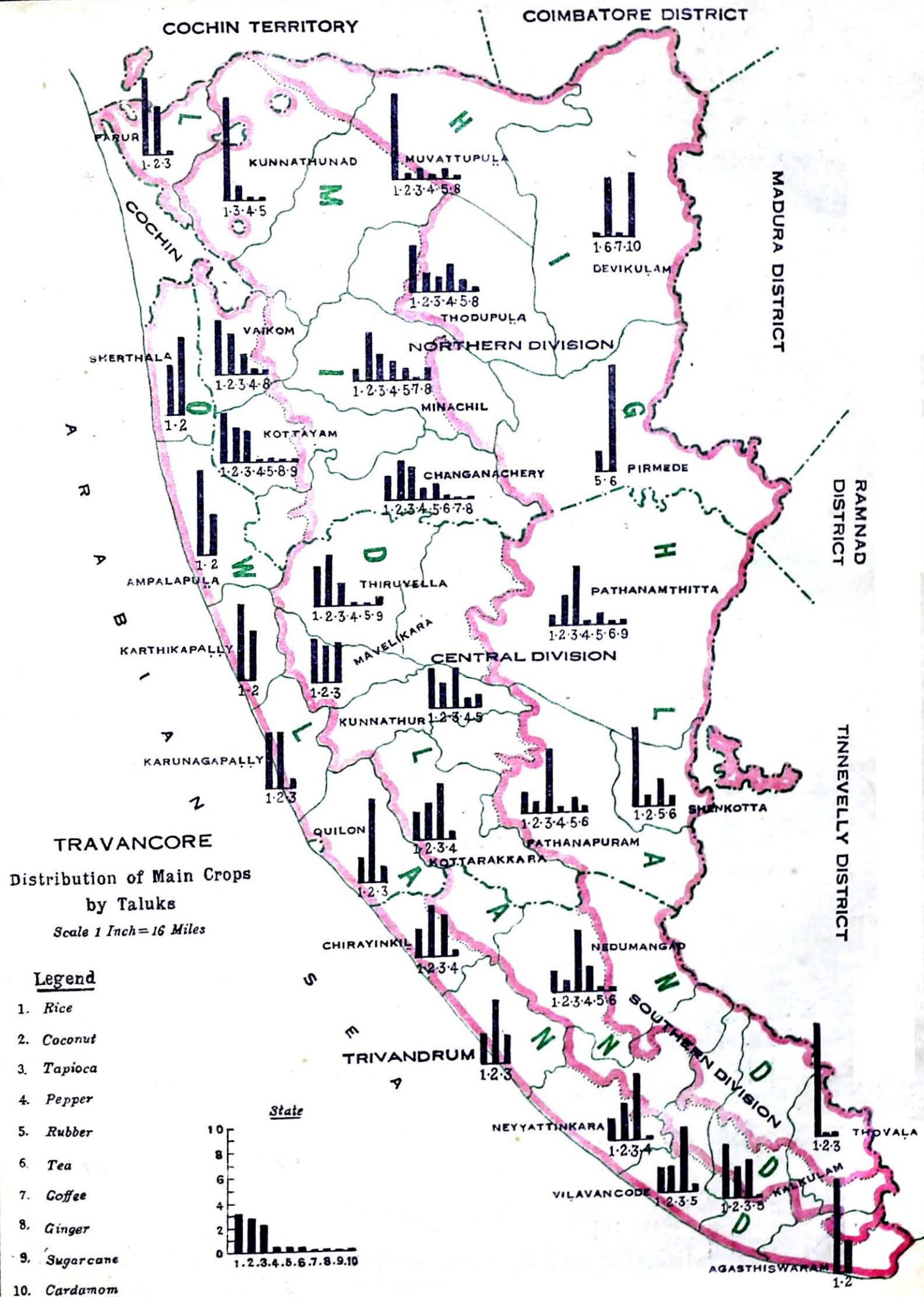
244. Though there is more need of irrigation in the Midland and the Highland, geographical difficulties preclude the idea from materialising except by recourse to the utilisation of electricity for purposes of lift irrigation. Thanks to the inauguration of the Pallivasal Scheme, cheap electric power is available to get such a project translated into practice. The success of it depends on the expert way in which the problem is tackled by cultivators in the years that lie ahead.

245. The need for improvement in cultivation can be better understood if the *per capita* acreage under the plough is taken into account. The necessary calculation goes to show that the land available per head of the population in the State at present is only 44 cents of which 36 cents (11 cents wet and 25 cents dry) are already cultivated land, a bare margin of 8 cents being thus left for further exploitation. If the *per capita* acreage is computed on the total number of agricultural workers in the State each worker has 3.29 acres of cultivable land of which 2.68 is already under the plough. This does not leave him and his dependants more than just 61 cents to

cultivate, to better his prospects and those of his progeny. It is interesting at this juncture to compare the *per capita* holding in some foreign countries. The computation of an American economist goes to show that the ten thousand million acres of arable land now available in the world can support the two thousand million of world population (as it stood in 1931) thereby leaving five acres per head, which is much less than is being actually used. In China where there is as much congestion as in India there are 1.5 persons per acre, in Java 2 and Japan 4. But in a comparatively sparsely peopled country like U. S. A. each inhabitant has 3.4 acres in crops and 8 acres in farm land.

246. It has to be remembered that the sufficiency of arable land to sustain its population does not depend so much upon its extent or fertility as upon the method of its cultivation and the standard of living of the people to be supported by it, especially from the point of view of consumption, of the cost of production, the ability and thrift of the cultivator, the methods and tools used in production, etc. The economic conditions obtaining in Travancore are comparable more to those of densely peopled lands like China and Java which also have to import staple food commodities from outside, than United States which has yet to go a long way towards attainment of its economic 'optimum population.' The very low man-land ratio in the State based on its *per capita* acreage of tillable land is an inexorable economic factor that presages a gloomy future to the agriculturist who has well nigh come to the ends of his tether in the enjoyment of nature's bounty which had pampered his less encumbered forbears in the past.

247. A study of the acreage under net cultivation of the principal crops will give an idea of



their relative proportion in the scale of preference by the cultivators in the State. The following

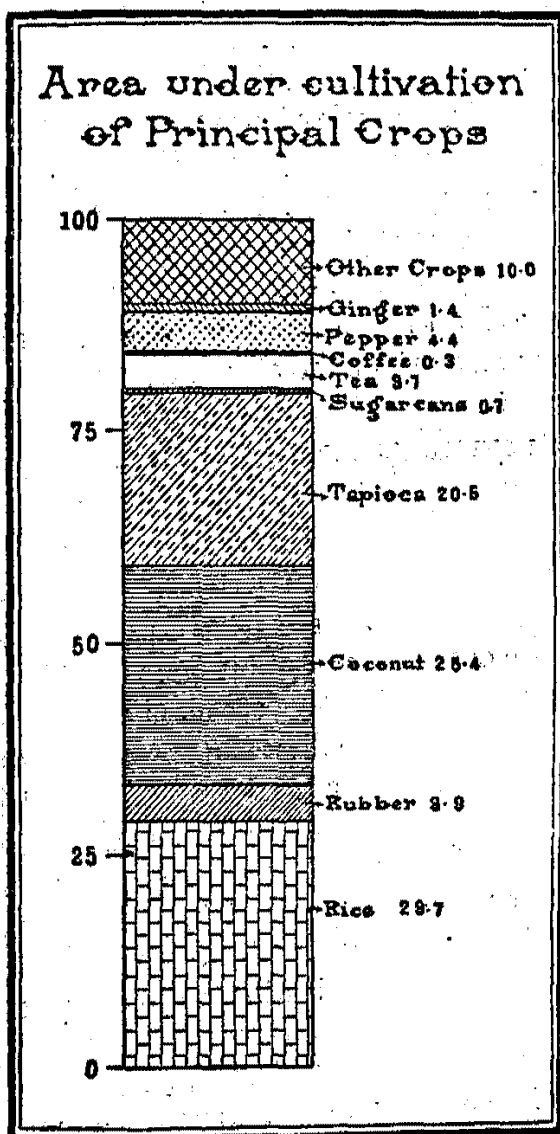


diagram illustrates this. The variety of crops and the area under each have been, even in cases of gradual increase, more or less in the same proportion in the past several decades except in the case of rubber which, being cultivated under the more organised estate system, has recorded an increase in extent by nearly 50 per cent. The perpetuation of traditional lines of cultivation is a clear proof of the innate conservatism of the agriculturist. It is high time for him to shake himself free from his lethargic complacency and look about for new lines of approach especially in view of the two flagrant facts already recorded about the Lowland, *viz.*, that in point of the acreage yet avail-

able to the plough he has almost reached 'the land's end' and that in respect of unit-yield the region has tended to reach saturation point, thanks to the relentless operation of the law of diminishing returns.

248. The attempts made in certain countries to counteract the evils of this law by the production of synthetic substitutes have not made much headway as it is not easy for man to transcend the limits set by nature. As a war-time economy it might neutralise the effects of a blockade but in normal times it may very often turn out to be too costly a venture. In some densely peopled parts of the United States of America, for example, the introduction of better farming methods has led to better yields to meet the growing demands of their increasing population, thanks to the mechanisation of agricultural operations and the introduction of scientific methods of cultivation. But such improvements are not possible in countries like Travancore where the progressive diminution in the size of holdings militates against the introduction of large-scale farming. These countries will find it impossible to extricate themselves from the vicious circle of poverty, children, more poverty and still more children. Remedies have, therefore, to be sought against such an eventuality both by society and the State.

252. Besides the law of diminishing returns, the agriculturist has also to combat against the numerous pests that cause animal and plant disease. The ravages of these cropkillers will continue to be ruinous to agricultural interests and the raising of livestock until they are brought within sufficiently stiff control. Researches along this line are being made and numerous experiments conducted by specialists under the auspices of the University Research Department. The 'coconut roller pest' and the 'rice swarming pest' are now being subjected to scientific study and experimentation by research students in the University under expert guidance. Among the schemes sponsored and financed by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research is the special

study of plant and animal disease which is being conducted with meticulous care by the Entomologists, Botanists and Biochemists under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture. Special attention is being devoted to root and leaf diseases which blister the plant even before it grows old enough to yield, and insect and other pests that decimate if not destroy the crop after its inception.

250. It is also encouraging that other topics of specially agricultural interest such as soil analysis, soluble fertilisers, improvement of crop in reclaimed Kayal areas, nutrition research, improvement in the cultivation of tapioca paddy etc., have also been brought within the purview of the curriculum in the University Department of Research. Side by side with this, the Department of Agriculture has taken a lead in the matter by playing the role of the 'Laputan Flapper' to rouse up the dreaming lords of the plough in the land. It has introduced, as an experimental measure, new crops like tobacco, tomatoes, soyabeans, ragi, cloves, cinchona, various fruit trees with catch-crops planted in between and cover crops to prevent soil erosion, to demonstrate to the lay, custom-ridden monoculturist the possibilities of introducing variety of crops suited to the soil. The Department has also taken such progressive measures as organising proper marketing facilities, opening up of rural centres and agricultural colonies, encouragement of co-operative enterprises, improvement of cattle, spread of agricultural education, scientific selection of seeds, sampling of plant varieties, agricultural demonstration and propaganda, etc. Among private agencies that promote such new ideas, to break new ground, the Y. M. C. A. Rural Reconstruction centres deserve special mention. The unique feature of the Y. M. C. A. centres is the combination under the same agency of the two-fold task of improving the quality of the produce and providing favourable markets for the products. This is organised on a cottage industry scale to make it possible for the poor agriculturist to

supplement his income by subsidiary occupations or for the non-agriculturist to eke out an honest living by such pursuits as bee-keeping, poultry-farming or cattle breeding. The brightest feature of the scheme consists in the Y. M. C. A. itself arranging for the sale of materials without the expensive intervention of a middleman. The organising capacity and the sustained interest evinced by the originators of the scheme have secured for the Y. M. C. A. Rural Reconstruction centre at Marthandom within the short span of 15 years an almost international reputation. The annual training camp run by this institution attracts candidates from all parts of the world.

251. While the cultivator may very well profit by such a lead in the right direction as is given by the State, his earning capacity to stand up to the exacting level of his growing economic needs will pre-eminently depend, in an increasing measure, on far more direct and important steps. The remedies against agricultural over-population suggested in the general section deserve reiteration at this juncture. The development of more intensive farming, the extension, wherever possible, of the double-crop system, the adoption of mixed farming by a scientific rotation of crops, the use of lift irrigation through rural electrification, etc., are really constructive proposals which, if put into operation, can mitigate the intensity of the pressure of population on land and increase what economists call it "carrying capacity" and thus indefinitely put off the evil day when population will begin to out-strip the natural resources of the land. The cultivator who is out to improve the quality and increase the quantity of his crops, will also do well to resort to the lucrative method of plant improvement by selection and cross-breeding, as is being successfully done on a nation-wide scale with regard to wheat in Germany, rubber in the U. S. S. R., cotton in Italy and sugarcane in Java. Recourse may also be had to improvement in fertilisers but as pointed out above, progress in mechanisation may not be easily possible in this country. Subsidiary occupations like care of livestock, poultry-farming

sericulture, apiculture, etc., could be profitably undertaken while the encouragement of rural industries whereby agricultural products are transformed by the workers promptly and suitably into raw material for the industrial workers in urban areas thereby establishing a healthy link between farm and factory, are other ways and means, possible as well as feasible, in this country.

252. The innate conservatism of the agriculturist often acts as a dead weight against any change. Nor can any blame be apportioned to him for this. He has not the wherewithal by way of earnings or savings to venture on new and costly experiments. If with borrowed capital he embarks upon scientific methods and eventually fails he is ruined for life. The general consensus of conservative opinion is sure to set its face against such innovations in agricultural economy for some time to come. A solution may, however, be found in a joint co-operative effort on the part of the few agriculturists who can command capital and the Agricultural Department that is bound to lend its helping hand in matters of such great moment. The introduction of mixed farming, new crops, mechanisation, use of compost manure, etc., should be resorted to not merely for demonstration purposes as models in experimental farms, but as a really working proposition on a large-enough scale for a long-enough period. The active and consistent support of the Agricultural Department would encourage a sufficient investment of the shy capital of the opulent farmer and the abundance of labour available could also be brought to bear upon the scheme to produce tangible results on a considerable scale. There is a reasonable chance for such a system to spread. The capitalist farmers, will, in that case, have rendered a real service to the people and the Department will have acted as a real wet-nurse to age-old agriculture which is still in its infant stage. At any rate, without initiative and enterprise and a dynamic spirit that sets its face resolutely towards the future, the resources of our land will scarcely be able either to stave off

the economic depression that threatens to burst in upon the world in the post-war years or to resist and survive the evils with which it is sure to engulf those peoples that exercise less foresight and vision.

253. If depression does set in, as well it must, the State has to come to the rescue of the agriculturist in remunerating him specially in the matter of labour, purchasing power and general welfare. The decade that followed the last world war was characterised by a world-wide economic depression which had such serious repercussions on Travancore that Government had to institute special inquiries through Committees of experts into such problems as unemployment, banking, credit facilities, agricultural indebtedness, co-operative movement, debt-conciliation, etc., and adopt, wherever possible, the ameliorative measures suggested by them. The economic reasons why State aid is necessary for the rehabilitation of the agriculturist call for some elucidation. When depression sets in owing to the fall in the prices of agricultural commodities, the purchasing power of the agriculturist lessens more than that of purchasers in any other economic categories. Industrial outlets for agricultural goods are contracted, resulting in a general decline of economic activity. There will then be a great disparity between industrial and agricultural prices. In Industry the supply can adjust itself fairly quickly to the demand because certain industries work only to order and a factory may be temporarily closed or made to produce less and the manufacturers can by mutual understanding regulate the volume of production. So the small demand in industry in the period of depression results in a decreased output and consequently prices are not generally lowered. But in agriculture the case is different in two ways. The demand for agricultural products is always rigid, especially for the staple commodities. Secondly the supply is determined largely by such uncontrollable and erratic factors as atmospheric conditions, the regularity of monsoons, etc. Consequently there may be great

fluctuations in harvest. Therefore, in agriculture, unlike in industry, while the demand is constant, the supply varies independently of it. Due to the comparative rise in production there is steady increase in supply and as a result prices necessarily fall. And what with this fall in prices the agriculturist cannot cheapen his production. Thus while his expenses are constant, if not increasing, his returns are diminishing. The disparity thus inevitable between industrial and agricultural prices affects the distribution of national income and introduces a wide difference between the purchasing power of the industrial and agricultural classes respectively. It is this disequilibrium that necessitates the intervention of the State to restore the balance which is a vital condition of national prosperity.

254. The nature, form and extent of State aid to the agriculturist must always be conditioned by the special circumstances in which it has to be rendered. Legislative protection to farming interests in economic exigencies has been a consistent feature of the State administration and the Sovereigns of Travancore have always evinced a deep interest in the progress of agriculture and reserved a soft corner in their Royal hearts for the tillers of the soil. As early as 1819 Rani Gouri Parvati Bayi issued a Royal Proclamation which laid down that the import duty then levied on rice should be removed when sufficient rice was not produced within the country and should be re-imposed when the local production was sufficient to meet the country's demand. The regulation of foreign trade by such 'corn laws' and other pieces of legislation to prevent dumping of foreign goods and to counteract foreign competition is rendered necessary from time to time. Financial aid, direct and indirect to the cultivator, irrigation, regulation of prices and control of marketing etc., besides the activities already enumerated of the Agricultural Department, have done much for the cultivators. The non-cultivating owner who commands easy wealth, the estate manager or agent who thrives on the business he supervises, the cultivating

owner who leads a self-sufficient life often with a small surplus to lay by and the cultivating tenant whose occupational facilities may well keep him above want are comparatively well off if economic conditions are normal and do not always stand so much in need of external aid as the agricultural labourers including partly dependants whose number, as already pointed out, has been steadily increasing throughout the last decade, especially among females.

255. Industrial labourers have the advantage of organised combination and collective action through labour organisations and Trade Unions to extort more favourable conditions from capitalists by their agitations and strikes. Owing to this fact they have always sought and sometimes got state protection to ensure higher wages, fewer hours of work, better housing facilities, medical relief, education of children, old age pensions, insurance schemes, unemployment doles etc., that have enabled them to become an organised power in the land and in several countries to secure and exercise even political control. But the lot of the agricultural labourer is far from enviable. In lands where cultivation is well organised, agricultural labourers also have come up after the fashion of their industrial brethren. But in countries where workmen live under conditions entirely different, their lot is hard indeed. In Travancore, the agricultural labourer is a son of toil, incessant and hard, as much as he is a son of the soil, and his hand to mouth life on the mere pittance he earns, often only in kind, by his strenuous exertions in the hot sun from dawn to dusk with none of the amenities of life nor even its elementary comforts, with just, a mud-hovel for shelter, a loin cloth for dress and a handful of rice for his food, presents indeed a picture far from edifying. And in times of depression he is the hardest hit of all and if State aid is ever rendered to the agriculturist, it should be first and foremost to him. Whatever implement he wields, whether the spade or the plough, the crowbar or the pickaxe, the sickle or the flail and in whatever part of the State he is found, the story is the same. When one

realises that this silent crowd, working in scattered groups, braving the inclemencies of the weather, do get but a small fraction of the wealth which they work hard to produce, it should call for the best in us to make the life of these people happier and better. A prosperous agricultural population, being kept above want and in reasonable comfort will not only be an index of its healthy economic independence but compensate to a considerable extent for the gradual diminution in the number of peasant proprietors.

256. In the scale of national economy, the cultivator, who by his skilful toil and tenacity, makes the soil yield to capacity in farm and field and lets his land be rich in cash and crop, is closely followed by the manufacturer who by hand and tool or plant and power in cottage and factory adds to its riches by expert application of technical skill. While the agriculturist is primarily concerned with the development of natural resources, it is the manufacturer that turns the raw products into good account towards the further development of the economic resources of the land. The term "economic resources" comprehends such factors pertaining to a country as its natural resources, its present economic development, the known possibilities for new developments and the economic relation of that country to other areas. The farm hand functions fundamentally in relation to the first factor while the factory worker's operation conduces more directly towards the realisation of the other three ends. For this reason it can categorically be stated that the degree of success that crowns the efforts of the State for the allround development of its economic resources can most practically be measured by a study of its industrial conditions which will reveal the extent to which the people have actually taken to and profited by the facilities and opportunities afforded by the economic policy of the State. A separate study of industry as one of the principal means of livelihood fraught with dynamic possibilities for the future, much more than any other occupation is, therefore rendered necessary. Industrial activity exists in the State both in its handicraft form and capita-

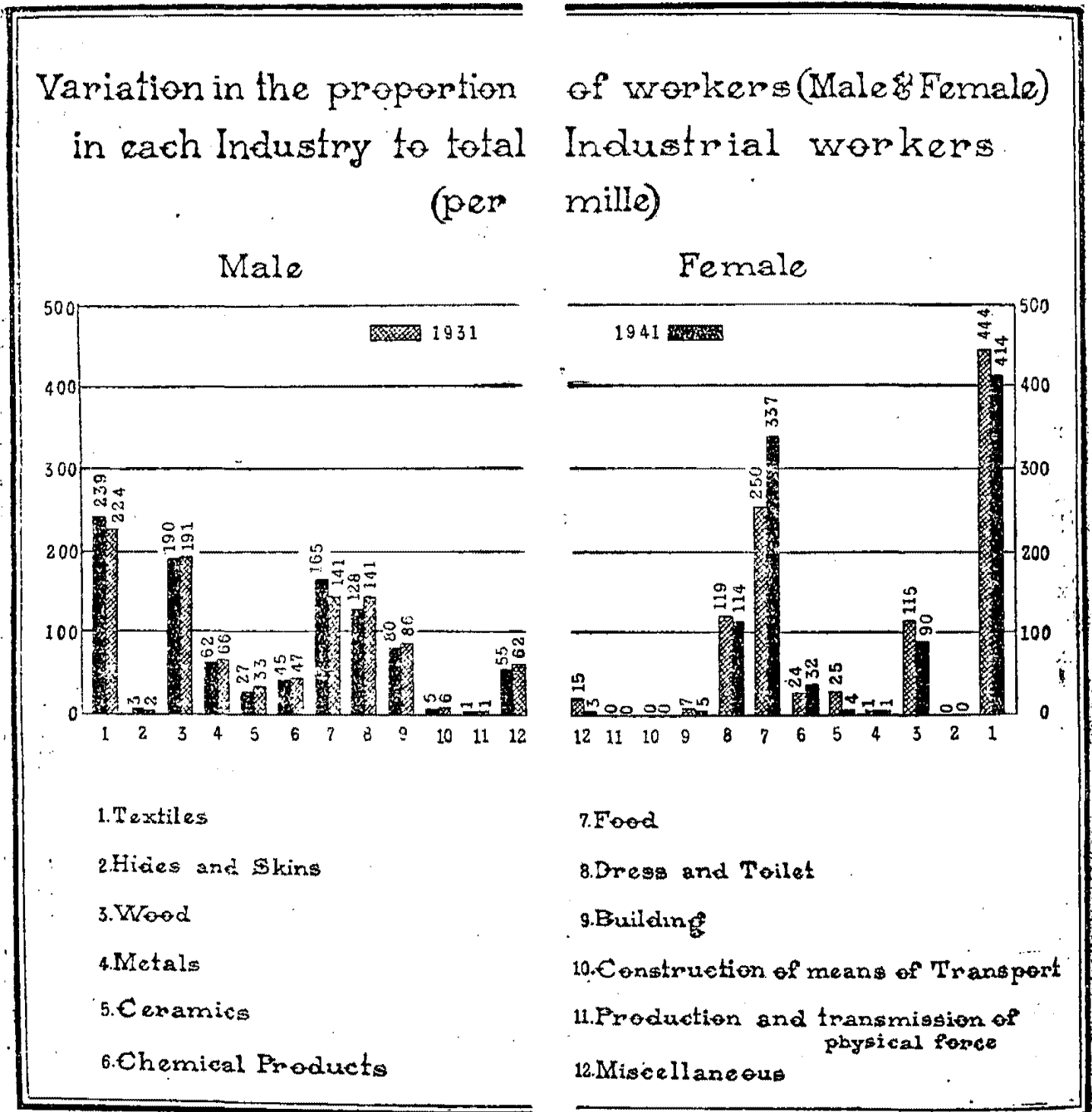
listic aspect and an attempt is made to make a brief statistical survey of the salient features and future trends of industry in the State in general, and organised and cottage industries in particular.

257. In the interpretation of general occupational trends already made, the independent workers in each sub-class were grouped along with partly dependants and subjected to statistical scrutiny. In the separate study of industry in the following paragraphs, workers are grouped, as in the case of agriculture in the foregoing pages, in the restricted sense of independent workers only.

258. The first point to be emphasised in this connection, is that the percentage in the number of industrial workers to total workers has not recorded any variation since 1931, the figures returned in both censuses being about 19 per cent. The inclusion of partly dependants will however, raise the percentage by 2. The absence of any variation in the percentage of independent workers in 1931 and 1941 may be due to their tardiness or reluctance to change their customary avocations and adjust themselves to the new conditions even in allied occupations. The programme of industrialisation, broadly envisaged and partially initiated under the auspices of the State is thus seen to take effect only slowly, but other things being equal, the trend is sure to make for the absorption of more and more workers into the ranks of industry owing to the increasing facilities open to them. The diversion of more and more workers from agricultural into industrial occupations will, as in all progressive countries, prove the best economic remedy for the pressure on land.

259. A comparison of the proportion of workers, male and female, engaged in each particular industry to the total of industrial workers as registered in the last two censuses is illustrated in the diagram on page 88. The relative importance of the various industries and the variations in the distribution of workers among them can be made out therefrom at a glance. The order of preference is found to be

Diagram referred to in paragraph 262.



the same for both males and females in both censuses. In the descending order of numerical strength, the male workers are distributed in the textile, wood, food and dress and toilet industries. Building and metal work come next. In the present Census the percentage of rise recorded among male workers is apparent only in three categories, viz. textiles, hides and skins and the food industry. The increase in the proportion

in the first case, is due to the expansion of the premier industry in the State. The fall in the male workers in other orders such as wood, metal, ceramic and chemical industries is by no means negligible except in a few cases and bespeaks rather of stagnation than of retrogression as well as of the greater scope possible to workers to develop them.

260. The proportion of female workers has decreased in all the orders except the food and chemical industries which register an increase of nearly 14 per cent. each. The statistical reason for the general fall has already been explained in a previous context. Whereas the independent workers among them have been returned in diminishing numbers, the corresponding partial dependants in each category are found to increase showing thereby that there might also have been a steady decline in industrial activity among females within each fold resulting in a deterioration into more and more of economic dependence. It has to be remembered that the occupational choice of females, especially in the industrial orders, is always determined by the physical aptitudes and mental attitudes of workers besides considerations of economy actuating the employer and the employee alike. Women would naturally show a predilection for such industrial pursuits as would involve less physical strain as well as fit in with their specially inherent capacities. That is the reason why in such orders as textile, food industries and pieces of 'woodwork' like basket-making, the proportion of females outnumbered that of males and even come up on an almost numerical par with them in the making of dress and toilet goods, chemical products etc., in every one of which the nimbleness of their fingers, their quickness in plying them and their meticulous care for perfection of detail can be shown off to superior advantage. The employer in the meanwhile is attracted by the additional inducement of the comparative cheapness of female labour which would easily come in handy on the required scale. The female preponderance in the food industry wherein their proportion is double that of males is partly a reflection of the great demand for food outside their houses even at a higher cost among the generally overworked and underfed working classes and therefore an index of the increasingly severe economic drain on day-labourers among whom a large number of women cater or vend food on a business scale. The variations in the female ratio within the last

decade among industrial workers can be studied from the subjoined table:—

Variations in the female ratio among independent workers in the various industries.

Females per 1,000 males in 1931 and 1941.

Description.	1931	1941
All industries	534	374
1. Textiles	1,058	648
2. Hides and skins	—	7
3. Wood	320	176
4. Metal	11	9
5. Ceramics	400	60
6. Chemical products	269	209
7. Food	945	763
8. Dress and toilet	450	330
9. Furniture making
10. Building	42	23
11. Construction of means of transport	3	..
12. Production and transmission of physical force	6	9
13. Miscellaneous	193	22

251. It will be clear therefrom that except in one or two minor instances the ratio tends to fall in the present census from what it was in the last. The preference of female workers for textile and food industries is borne out by the figure which in each case rises to nearly double the total female ratio in industry. Dress and toilet making, chemical products and wood industry are further seen to attract large numbers because of the specially feminine aptitude for them, particularly in basket-making which is grouped under the wood industry. The fall in the ratio of female workers in ceramics is due to the growth of tile factories and the diminution in the number of workers engaged in pottery.

262. The general remark made above in passing that in the rank and file of female industrial workers there is noticeable a submergence from economic sufficiency into more and more dependence can be statistically corroborated by the subjoined table.

Female ratio of partly dependants among industrial workers, i. e. females to 1,000 male partly dependants.

Description.	Ratio.
1. Textiles	4,283
2. Hides and skins	228
3. Wood	2,355
4. Metal	197
5. Ceramics	1,588
6. Chemical products	1,139
7. Food	946
8. Dress and toilet	1,568
9. Furniture making	...
10. Building	289
11. Construction of means of transport	...
12. Production and transmission of physical force	...
13. Miscellaneous	179.

The State ratio *viz.*, 1481 of partly dependants has been exceeded in four industries by female partial dependants and these in the descending order are textiles, wood industry, ceramics and dress and toilet. This shows how the income derived by workers from these industries is high enough for them to support a larger number of dependants. The food industry, despite the high percentage of workers pursuing it, does not bring in much income to the workers as is evidenced by the low figure against that order. In the metal, building and miscellaneous industries besides in the matter of hides and skins the ratio is particularly low.

263. The question of partly dependants of both sexes may be separately studied just to get an idea of the variation in the economic sufficiency of industrial workers in the last decennium. The subjoined table gives the ratio of partly dependants to 1,000 independent workers in the various orders.

Ratio of partly dependants per 1,000 independent workers in the different industries in 1931 and 1941.

Description.	1931.	1941.
All Industries	277	583
1. Textiles	580	1,172
2. Hides and skins	226	165
3. Wood	221	616
4. Metals	124	284
5. Ceramics	113	362
6. Chemical products	80	139
7. Food	143	220
8. Dress and toilet	152	395
9. Furniture	...	289
10. Building	61	232
11. Construction of means of transport	110	157
12. Production and transmission of physical force	6	45
13. Miscellaneous	101	238

264. It will be seen that except in respect of hides and skins there has been a general increase in the proportions registered for the present Census. A margin of error is possible in this calculation owing to the difference in the connotation of the terms 'working dependant' used in 1931 and 'partly dependant' of the present Census. If the figures are taken as absolute, the workers of the present decade are found to be supporting a larger proportion of dependants. Partial dependants number most in textiles where they exceed the number of workers. In wood industry, dress and toilet and ceramics also the number of such is pretty high. But a comparison with the ratio of partial dependants in the State *viz.*, 415 reveals the fact that in general, wholly dependants are not so numerous as in the case of agriculture, as to prove themselves an insupportable encumbrance on the industrial workers.

265. The self-sufficiency of an industrial worker is generally determined by the results of his pursuit of some industry or other as his sole means of livelihood. The fact of his being forced to have recourse to some subsidiary occupation to supplement his income argues the inadequacy of his earnings from industrial pursuits. Of the total number of industrial workers in the State (296,688) nearly one-seventh (39,628) are found to be engaged in some subsidiary occupation or other, of whom 28,439 are males and 11,189 are females. Subsidiary occupations may vary according to circumstances but in a predominantly agricultural country like Travancore, cultivation is sure to figure as an important supplementary avocation to many a worker who is not principally a tiller of the soil. Industrial workers are no exception to this. In the light of this fact it will be interesting to study statistically the degree of dependence which each industry has upon agriculture. This can easily be made out from the subjoined table.

Description.	Per cent. engaged in agriculture.
All Industries	7.2
1. Textiles	5.1
2. Hides and skins	2.5
3. Wood	9.7
4. Metal	7.8
5. Ceramics	3.9
6. Chemical products	3.4
7. Food	9.4
8. Dress and toilet	6.8
9. Furniture	11.7
10. Building	7.9
11. Construction of means of transport	3.3
12. Production and transmission of physical force	0.5
13. Miscellaneous	6.1

Altogether 21,401 industrial workers take to agriculture to supplement their income. Of these 2,618 are females. The furniture industry is carried on only by a few and will not therefore, lend itself to a comparative study. It is in the wood and food industries that the next highest percentage occurs. Metal and building industries follow suit. It is interesting to note that workers in ceramics and chemicals do not have to depend much upon cultivation. The above table is an index of the dependence of industry upon agriculture even as a means of livelihood.

266. Though the statistics so far recorded about industries are seen to rise or fall with regard to ratios or proportions, the rate of actual increase alone will give a correct idea of the pace each industry has kept with the increase registered in population. The subjoined table

Actual rates of variation among independent workers in industries with 5,000 or more workmen.

Description.	Per cent.
1. Textiles	+ 2.75
2. Wood	+ 6.85
3. Metal	+ 12.40
4. Chemical products	+ 13.58
5. Food	+ 27.87
6. Dress and toilet	+ 0.75
7. Building	+ 10.33
8. Ceramics	- 26.03
9. Miscellaneous	- 2.85

sets forth the rate of actual increase over 1931 in the numbers engaged in each major industry (5,000 and above).

267. The most discouraging figure therein is the 26 per cent. decrease registered against the ceramic industry. It has to be borne in mind that more than half the number engaged in it are potters and makers of earthenware and that a number equivalent to three-fourths of these consists of tile and brick makers. The opening of many tile factories and the new ceramic factory must have forced many of the cottage workers in this field to give up their erstwhile occupations as unprofitable against competition. Metal-work and building-construction, which have reasonable prospects as long as human demand lasts for buildings, implements, furniture, tools, etc., record a high enough rate of increase. Oil refining, manufacture of soap and the making of drugs, pharmaceutical goods, matches and fireworks, form the principal chemical industries which bid fair to develop rapidly in future years. The manufacture of textiles as well as dress and toilet-making would have registered a higher rate of increase if only more males (who certainly can earn more) in the former, and more females (who can work better) in the latter, had earnestly taken to these pursuits.

268. It is gratifying to note that a good lead in the matter of industrial progress is given by the food industry which has recorded itself as having far out-stripped the rate of population growth. The preponderance of the female element in this order which has already been emphasised and accounted for, is one obvious reason for this. Another explanation is afforded by the increase in the numbers of those engaged in the sugar and gur industries and in the making of confectionery, sweet-meats and condiments. It can scarcely be gainsaid that human tendency is persistent to go in, off and on, for a bit of quality food in extra-quantities just by way of spicing up and thereby make up for the dietary or culinary shortcomings in the monotonous table routine. Side by side with this propensity, looms the craze for expensive social entertainments with their gourmetic display pandering to the keenness and variety of gustatory

demands as a "*sine qua non*" of sufficiency. As long as these cravings of the human palate continue to exist, individually or collectively, the food industry is sure to keep up its high record. The craving to frequent the tea-shop or the restaurant is developing into an almost irresistible impulse in the younger generation. The restaurant or cafe, like the picture palace has become a marked feature of the urban life of today. Entertaining friends in a restaurant is considered more fashionable than inviting them to tea at home. Even the day-labourer feels himself perfectly happy if he could spend his noon-day food allowance in the nearest tea-shop. The pangs of hunger of those at home, which could partially be alleviated by the extra amount paid to the tea-shop, month after month, does not seem to weigh with him. The predilection of a good many for ice-creams, aerated waters or other colourful liquids to quench their thirst in preference to more homely and natural drinks easily available to those who want them at little or no cost whatsoever, has become a marked tendency, increasingly manifest among the youth of the land. A multiplicity and variety of wants felt and satisfied, may be an index of a rise in one's standard of living. But it can only spell economic ruin unless counterpoised by a corresponding rise in one's income. It is to be deplored that a need for a balance in economy is, more often than not, overlooked by those who hitch their waggon to false standards of better living. The habit of smoking is more widespread than that of drinking. The substitution of the native *beedi* for the foreign cigarette has made this almost a national trait. With a good many, tobacco in some form or other should be a fitting 'finale' to a sumptuous meal. The youthful 'undergrat' now measures the interval between lectures by the time required for a cool drink and a puff or a pinch after that. Incidentally it may also be remembered that the addiction of a good many people to stimulants or beverages, may be, to be braced up a whit or spurred into a modicum of extra vim in work, sometimes a

little strong, to be able to forget the cares of this world, is evidenced by the fact that more than three-fourths of those in the food industry comprise such workers as toddy-drawers, brewers and distillers and manufacturers of tobacco. Until such 'wet' folk turn 'dry', the cup that cheers in moderation but inebriates in excess must continue "to make life worth living" for all those who despise the teetotaler and take the hedonistic view of life so well embodied in "eat, drink and be merry, for tomorrow we die". The easy profits expected by dealers and purveyors from the food industry have made it popular with particular classes and consequently led to the employment of a disproportionately large number within its fold.

269. The industrial conditions in the State are best studied if the two groups into which industry is classified, *viz.*, the cottage and organised industries are separately dealt with. In the cottage industries the majority are doing business on a small scale, each individual working at it at home with the aid of the members of the family, but with little or no hired labour. In the organised industries comparatively smaller numbers in the State work on a large-scale in well-regulated, full-time establishments, wherein, besides the operatives, young as well as old, there are welfare workers rendering medical aid or engaged in teaching work, etc., and the well graded staffs of clerks, and supervisors under the general direction of the manager. Imperial table IX sets forth all the relevant statistics regarding organised industries, collected at the present census.

270. A comparison of the figures therein with those in previous censuses is rendered difficult by the fundamental difference in the basis of the collection of statistics in all cases. In 1911 the industrial census covered all establishments employing 20 persons or more and in 1921 employing 10 or more. The recording in 1931 related to plantations of special crops cultivated on an estate scale and industries worked on a factory scale, the basic rule still being the number of persons engaged. But in the present census

only industries employing *paid assistants* were recognised as organised. Despite this difference in the basis of definition, a rough and ready comparison is possible which shows that in all the different industries, except in those of printing and motor transport, there is a steady progress recorded, the number in coir-industry having quadrupled in the present decade though in this case some allowance will have to be made for statistical vagaries.

271. Seven per cent. of the total male workers in the State in all occupations together, and 20 per cent. of the total female workers are engaged in organised industries. If the percentage is calculated on the total industrial workers only, including those in the semi-organised rubber and tea estates, the males record 34.2 per cent. and the females 51.5 per cent. respectively. The proportion of workers in organised industry to the total industrial workers in each particular group is given in the subjoined table. The figures concerning industry in general are of independent workers only.

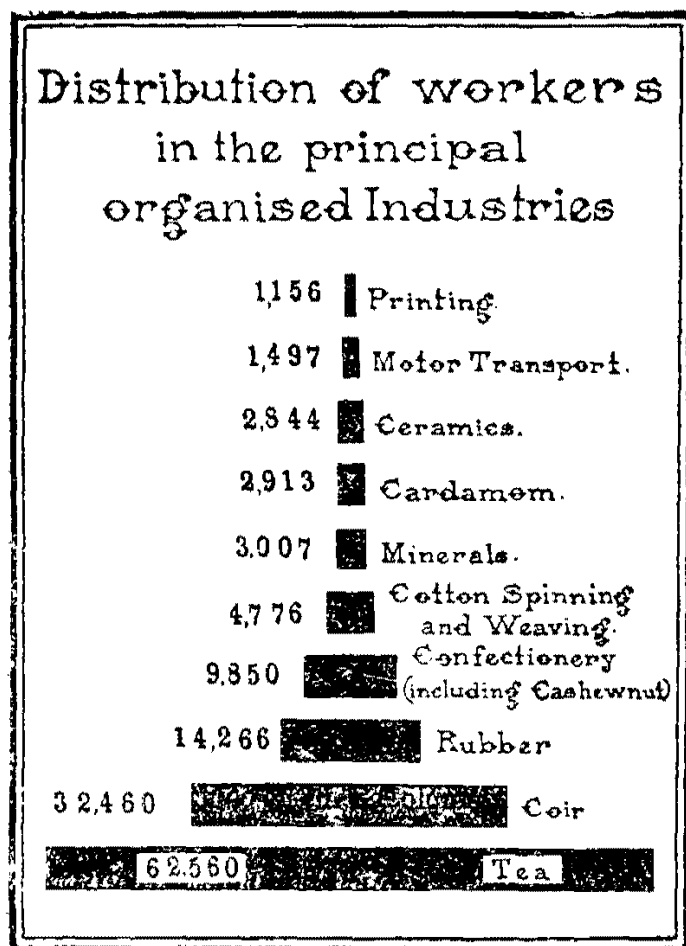
Description.	Number engaged in general industries.	Number in organised industries.	Percentage.
1 Rubber	20,435	14,266	69.8
2 Tea	55,338	62,560	113.1
3 Minerals	1,266	3,007	237.5
4 Cotton spinning and weaving	15,885	4,776	30.1
5 Coir	68,392	32,460	47.5
6 Ceramics	6,184	2,844	46.0
7 Confectionery (including cashewnut)	8,568	9,850	115.0
8 Printing	1,024	1,156	112.9
9 Motor transport	3,301	1,479	44.8

272. A comparison of the figures in the first column with the corresponding ones in the second registers two outstanding facts regarding the nature of employment in each industry. In the first place, cotton spinning and weaving is found to assume the first rank as a cottage industry, since only 30 per cent of the workers in it are seen to be employed under the organised system.

Similarly coir, ceramics and motor transport are also found to employ less than 50 per cent. of their workers on an organised basis. The scope of an isolated or smallscale enterprise on the domestic basis is thereby apparent in these categories. Even the percentages recorded against these three must be taken at a discount in view of the fact that organised industry always admits into its fold not merely those to whom a particular industry is the sole or principal means of livelihood, but a large number of others who pursue other avocations but are temporarily employed in industry. This is the second prominent feature of the statistical data given above. Whereas the figures in the first column represent the total workers who are permanently engaged in each industry, cottage as well as organised, those in the second may comprise, besides permanent workers, lots of others who do odd jobs off and on, in that industry without being permanently employed in the concern and turning up only when permitted or requisitioned. The larger the scale on which an industry is organised, the wider will be the scope for the association of different means of livelihood with it. It is for this reason that in such orders as printing, confectionery and tea the number engaged in organised industry exceeds that in the general and the number against minerals rises up so high as 237.5 per cent. A study of these features easily postulates the desirability of organisation in every possible industry if only for the better scope afforded thereby for a greater incidence and variety of employment, not to speak of other economic advantages ancillary to this.

273. The distribution of workers in the different organised industries is illustrated in the diagram on page 94. Tea, which ranks highest in the order of precedence, is found to engage nearly double the number of workers in coir industry and more than four times the number in rubber. Confectionery ranks fourth, cotton spinning and weaving next. The proportion of distribution of male and female workers in the various orders is given in the subjoined table.

Diagram referred to in paragraph 276.



Proportion of distribution per 1,000.

Description.	Males.	Females.
1 Rubber	130	43
2 Tea	388	504
3 Cardamom	21	18
4 Minerals	32	1
5 Cotton spinning and weaving	44	13
6 Coir	198	267
7 Ceramics	28	6
8 Confectionery (including cashewnut)	41	114
9 Printing	12	1
10 Motor transport	16	..

274. Both male and female workers rank highest in tea and coir industries as in the general scale of precedence, but as for the third place the higher proportion of females in confectionery (which includes cashewnut industry also) is evidenced by their larger numbers in that order than

that of males who rank third in the rubber industry in which female proportion is relatively very small. In the cases of tea and coir also the females record a higher proportion than males. The incidence of female labour is best studied in the subjoined table which sets forth the sex-ratio in the organised industries. The ratio list given in the descending order easily reveals the ranking. It will be seen that the number of females is more than that of males by 60 per cent. in confectionery which comprises the food and

Industries.	Female ratio:
1 Confectionery (including cashewnut)	1,637
2 Coir	784
3 Tea	756
4 Cardamom	480
5 Rubber	191
6 Cotton spinning and weaving	170
7 Ceramics	119
8 Printing	52
9 Minerals	23

cashewnut industries. Coir and Tea are seen to employ fairly large numbers. The figures are naturally lowest in minerals and printing industries.

275. Out of the total of 145,291 recorded as the working population in organised industries, 3,512 are made up of 722 managers, 1,084 supervising and technical workers, 1,527 clerks and 179 welfare workers. The number of welfare workers such as doctors, teachers, etc., in all the industries together may seem too inadequate for a population of 141,779 operatives. As most of the operatives live in scattered homesteads away from the factory the crowding in tenements built in the vicinity of it, as in western industrial centres, is avoided and welfare work is consequently limited to securing sanitary and

hygienic conditions within the factory during the hours of work. It is only in rubber and tea plantations that special arrangements are needed on a large scale. The slight increase in the number of welfare workers this time must be put down to State legislation pertaining to the health and safety of labourers. Most of the welfare workers are divided between rubber and tea plantations.

276. Of the 141,779 operatives in the State more than 50 per cent. are employed in special crop business, tea alone accounting for 62,094, rubber for 13,853 and other crops for 2,855. The proportion of distribution of the remaining 62,977 which is more than double the corresponding figure in 1931 is given in the table in the next column.

Industry	Number	Percentage
Coir	31,916	50.7
Cotton weaving	4,654	7.4
Tile and brick	2,083	3.3
Oil mills	947	1.5
Cashewnut factories	9,356	14.9
Printing press	845	1.3
Motor buses and lorries	1,334	2.1
Others	11,843	18.8

The percentage of operatives in coir factories has increased from 23.1 in 1931 to 50.7 in the present census. Cotton weaving has engaged more than double the corresponding proportion recorded in 1931.

277. Among the operatives in all industries, there are large numbers of women, youthful workers in the 15—16 age-group and thousands of boys and girls, working both in estates and factories. The subjoined table gives the number of such workers grouped by age and sex and their percentage to the total operatives in the State.

Proportion of Operatives (by age and sex) in estates and factories to total operatives.

Description.	Total.	Males.		Females.		Estates.				Factories.				
		Males.		Females.		Males.		Females.		Males.		Females.		
		No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	
1. All age-groups	141,779	100	88,540	63	53,239	37	48,696	35	30,106	21	39,844	28	23,133	16
2. Adults—17 and above	108,643	77	70,904	50	37,739	27	40,320	29	22,283	16	30,584	21	15,476	11
3. Adolescents—15—16	15,175	10	8,640	6	6,535	4	3,110	2	2,302	1	5,530	4	4,233	3
4. Children—below 15	17,961	13	8,996	7	8,965	6	5,266	4	5,541	4	3,730	3	3,424	2

278. It will be seen that of the total number of operatives in the State, only 50 per cent. are adult males. The remaining workers comprise 27 per cent. adult females, 6 per cent. adolescent males, 4 per cent. adolescent females, 7 per cent. boys and 6 per cent. girls. Children and adolescents together constitute 23 per cent. of the total operatives. Factories are found to employ more adolescents than estates while the case of the other age-groups is *vice versa*. Both in estates and factories there are more males than females. While the lot of industrial operatives is a general problem of first-rate significance, the fact that children, adolescents and female adults together number as many as the adult male operatives gives rise to numerous special problems. In view of this fact a general survey of the question of industrial operatives in the State within the last decade is rendered necessary.

279. Travancore is a land of industrial potentialities, no less than agricultural predominance. Organised industry began only from comparatively recent times, gradually to supplement and imperceptibly to supplant her immemorial industrial economy under the domestic system. Since the establishment of the first coir factory on the Alleppey beach as early as 1859—60 by the late James Darragh, the founder of Messrs. Darragh Smail & Co., Ltd., and worked successfully with the help of weavers from Bengal, the coir business has been progressing by leaps and bounds until it became the premier industry in the State in which thousands of families are employed in one or other process of making coir yarn. Numerous estates and factories concerned with various industries soon sprang up in suitable localities. The subjoined table gives a classified list of these as they exist at present. Industrial organisation followed fast in the wake of the rise in industrial population, the factories forging ahead of the estates in the perfection of the industrial technique and the spread and control of business ramifications. Problems soon cropped up, leading to and afterwards resulting from the co-ordination of employers to safeguard their interests, the

subsequent union of workers to protect themselves against undue exploitation and the consequent intervention of the State for arbitration and conciliation in the disputes that were inevitable, of labour *versus* capital.

Factories registered under the Travancore Factories Act (VIII of 1114).*

Factories	Number
1 Tea	89
2 Rubber	15
3 Cashewnut	1
4 Rice hulling	1
5 Engineering	6
6 Tile works	16
7 Woodworks	12
8 Oil mills	13
9 Coir	23
10 Match	2
11 Paper	1
12 Printing	11
13 Sugar	1
14 Distilleries	1
15 Can making	2
16 Electrical	1
17 Ceramics	1
18 Arts and Crafts	1
19 Water works	1
20 Cotton	4
Total	202

Estates in the State.

Description	Total Number.	Estates of less than 100 acres each.
1 Rubber	1,294	1,163
2 Tea	158	14
3 Cardamom	53	..
4 Coffee	6	1
Total	1,511	1,178

280. From the days "when Adam delved and Eve span" the poverty of the labourer has

*There are numerous other factories and concerns under each industry that have not come within the ambit of the Act. There are eight mining centres also in various parts of the State.

not detracted from the dignity of labour, which the capitalist "gentleman" has oftentimes recognised in words but not adequately recompensed in cash. The relation between employer and employee has been more cordial in agricultural than in industrial economy. A sentiment akin to that of loyalty to a chief or fealty to a lord or fidelity to a master has often governed the relation of a tenant to his landlord who has reciprocated it by his patronising solicitude for the welfare of his tenant. The industrial operative, on the other hand, is treated by his employer more like an automaton functioning as an economic unit in his money-making concern without the sentimental attachment to the master, noticeable among the agricultural tenants. In the various ceremonies and annual festivals occurring in the landlord's household the tenant has a definite part to play which gives him a place in the family economy, a feature inconceivable in the relation between a factory hand and his employer. In the organised industries the reciprocity of those who offer and accept service is determined by what Carlyle calls "the cash-nexus". The absence of cultural contacts between the employer and employee has unfortunately led to a clash of interests resulting in the demand for protective organisations to safeguard each other's rights. This tendency has led to the rise of Trade Unionism in all industrialised countries and its internationalisation in recent years. Capitalist obduracy against the claims of labour organisations has forced the latter in some western countries to adopt the programme of direct action through strikes, etc., and thereby set on foot the Syndicalist Movement tending towards socialism that advocates the destruction of capitalism by the nationalisation of all wealth. Wherever such movements have been wrecked on the rock of capitalism, they have risen anew, like the phoenix, with redoubled vigour in the more aggressive forms of communism and anarchism and given rise to socio-economic revolutions and political upheavals.

281. The incipient character of organised industry in Travancore has taken it no farther

than the frontiers and outskirts of such problems, whose multitude and magnitude have taxed the resources of statesmanship so heavily elsewhere. For one thing, the employers started business on terms reasonable enough to preclude any palpable disability. Factories and estates in the initial stages being few and far between, the operatives had little occasion to be detrimentally affected by the rigours and restrictions to which the pressure of competition might have forced their employers to subject them. When the prospects of large-scale business and joint-stock concerns became manifest to local producers, more and more factories were set up and keen business competition set in, which prejudicially affected the business and ultimately the wage-rates. As long as the various factories and estates were based on stable capital and sound organisation, the pernicious effects of competition were not so intense or widespread as to result in agitation. But when numerous mushroom concerns cropped up with little capital and less organisation, competition became unbridled, often of the out-throat type, and constrained the employers to tighten their purse strings and stiffen their attitude to their operatives, who thereupon sought to safeguard their interests, by starting labour unions which gave them greater strength. The example of operatives was followed by workers in other categories also, if not for any immediate advantage, at least for their ultimate good. The subjoined table shows the number and variety of labour unions in the State. Attempts are also in the making to federate all these unions into an All-Travancore Union.

Labour Unions in the State

Description	Number
1. Coir factory Workers' Union	7
2. Mineral Workers' Union	1
3. Factory Workers' Union	1
4. Navika Tholilali Union	4
5. Labour Union	5
6. Motor Drivers' Union	1
7. Press Workers' Union	1
8. Cashewnut Workers' Union	1
9. Coir Dealer's Association	1
10. Paper Mill Workers' Union	1
11. Estate Factory Workers' Union	1
12. Weavers' Association	2
13. Fishing Labourers' Union	1
Total	27

282. Within the last decade many of these unions were active especially in Quilon and Alleppey, where factory workers number most, in organising agitations and strikes for the redress of their manifold grievances pertaining to such matters as wage-rates, hours of work, sanitary conditions, fines and exactions, safety against hazardous operations, separate representation on the legislature, etc. Strikes were answered with lock-outs or wage-cuts, by employers in retaliation and when the dispute developed into a deadlock, Government stepped in by appointing a Board of Conciliation of Trade Disputes to investigate and report. The workers demanded state control or "rationalisation" to rehabilitate the industry of the State. The President of the Chamber of Commerce, Alleppey, put forward a scheme for the establishment of a Control Board to rationalise industry, by exercising control over production and export, to check unwholesome competition, eliminate wasteful expenditure and put down malpractices, to ensure co-operation of employers' associations with labour unions, to standardise wages and secure better conditions for workers. Though the scheme was open to criticism "as revealing the suspicion of European towards Indian business concerns" the Conciliation Board saw their way towards accepting it as a basis for the formulation of a revised scheme. The Board made elaborate recommendations to Government, at once comprehensive and constructive, to promulgate factory legislation pertaining to such matters as recruitment and employment, regulation of wages, reduction of fines, suppression of exactions, health and welfare problems including maternity welfare and education of children, unemployment insurances, the compilation of statistics, labour organisation and the control of industry by a board. A Labour Commissioner was also appointed to co-ordinate the operation of labour laws and to act as a liaison officer between Government and labour and between labourers and capitalists.

283. There are at present five factory laws in operation in the State conducive to the welfare and progress of industrial interests, viz., the

Factories Act, the Trade Disputes Act (which established an Industrial Relations Committee for arbitration and conciliation), the Mines and Minerals Act, the Workmen's Compensation Act and the Trade Unions Act. Hundreds of workmen who sustained injuries or were incapacitated and the widows or children of the few who died while in employment were compensated by the administration of these laws. Of the numerous Trade Unions in the State, functioning vigorously, the most important are the Coir Factory Workers' Union, Alleppey, the Factory Workers' Union, Quilon and the Labour Union, Thuckalay. The growth of protective organisation among operatives presages a bright future for organised industry in the State. Planting and industrial interests have separate representation in the State legislature.

284. A word at this juncture about the Labour Welfare Movement launched in industrial countries abroad and its favourable repercussion in India may not be out of place as suggesting lines along which the lot of operatives in the State can be further improved. Private agencies and voluntary associations engaged in welfare work are concerned chiefly with such ameliorative measures in plantations as licensing of recruits, registration of emigrants and ensuring safe conditions in labour contracts, etc., besides such steps in regard to factories as sanitary and safety measures, regulations concerning age and hours of work of operatives, wage-rates and condition of women and children. In Travancore the problem of labour welfare work, as already pointed out, is to pertain more to the inside arrangements of factories, than to any measures relating to the vicinity since the vast majority of operatives in them hail from the suburbs, rising at cock-crow and, with nothing better than some cold victuals prepared overnight by way of a hasty breakfast, trudging many a weary mile (six or eight in some cases) to arrive betimes, before the gate of morning admission is banged, barred and bolted upon the late-comer. Conditions within the factory should be "at the worst tolerable and at the best

actively pleasant. No amount of amenities provided outside the working hours can really compensate for work which is felt to be a burden". In the regulation of the hours of work the primary principle *viz.* that a shorter period of more intensive work with ample leisure for recuperation and recreation is more conducive to efficiency than long hours of spread-out work. Sanitation is another item of welfare work. Adequate latrine arrangements, drainage, drinking water, bathing and washing conveniences, besides safety against possible accidents must be provided for. The fact that excessive noise such as the monotonous clap of the loom or the whir of the wheel has highly detrimental effects on the nervous system must not be overlooked. The provision of first aid facilities, creches for babies of female operatives, teashops or canteens for lunch and recreation during recess, medical precautions against contagious or infectious, or epizootic diseases and particularly in plantations, proper housing, etc., have to be seen to. Another important factor is the education of workers' children. The planters in Munnar have set a very good example in this respect by providing the staff of their well-equipped school with free quarters, good salaries, special hill allowance, etc., and fee concessions to pupils. Recreational conveniences and provision for games, outdoor and indoor, reading rooms and libraries also form items in the welfare programme. Periodical remission of work by leave, the provision of leave allowances and such facilities as co-operative credit societies, maternity and sickness benefits, bonuses, gratuities, profit-sharing, insurance, pension, etc., also contribute towards the same result. The spread of such welfare work in England, Germany, United States and Japan has easily led to high industrial efficiency in these lands while U. S. S. R. with its forty-hour-week, absence of unemployment, planned economy and even the rule of the proletariat is considered to be the workman's paradise. The clash of interests due to lack of cultural contacts referred to above could, to a certain extent, be mitigated by the development of the

spirit of co-partnership in the concern, envisaged in the modern device of profit-sharing introduced in the Ford Factories in U. S. A. The operatives in the Ford factories are reputed to be the best-cared-for industrial workers in the world. The Y. M. C. A. and the Social Service League in India are doing for the country what the Dojunkai Association of Tokyo is doing for Japan. Among Indian firms, the Tata Iron & Steel Works occupy the front rank in capitalistic munificence to industrial operatives. Our country has much to copy and more to learn from such movements.

285. The Department of Industries has been functioning on progressive lines within the last decade in respect of the development of the industrial resources of the State. Besides tendering expert advice on industrial problems from time to time to such establishments and individuals as stand in need of it, the Department gives the necessary direction and correction to the working of industrial pursuits in general in the State. The Director of Industries has throughout been functioning as the Labour Commissioner since the inception of the latter office for arbitration and conciliation in trade disputes. Mining operations and mineral exports have always engaged the attention of the Industries Department. Besides valuable prospecting work done in regard to such minerals as graphite and mica, the possibilities for the manufacture of cement were fully explored. Along with the conduct of industrial engineering, the Department has been seeing to the proper working, under its aegis, of the Ceramic, Rubber and Sugar Factories, the Travancore Wood Works, the Sri Chithra Textile Mills and the Punalur Paper Mills with its newly set up water turbine and Yanker Cylinder installation which have enabled the mill to meet the heavy demands for paper from the Travancore and Madras Governments. Special interest has been evinced by the Department in such industries as the manufacture of caustic soda and salt of sodium, lacquer work, making of bobbins, plywood and handmade paper. Several technical institutes, a school of commerce, a sales depot and an industrial

library are being run by the Department under whose auspices are working seventy aided and sixty-one unaided industrial schools in which industrial education is imparted. Facilities are also offered for preparing candidates for the technical examination of the Madras and Travancore Governments. An Itinerant Weaving Party, organised by the Department tours the State and makes demonstrations for the benefit of those interested in weaving.

286. The war has given a fillip to industry. By the State aid to Industries Act, a Board of Industries has been set up which, in consultation with the War Supply Department, is to supervise the production of commodities needed for war purposes. A combination of prominent industrialists and commercial magnates known as the War Supplies Syndicate is also collaborating in the matter of providing war supplies. Making of charcoal from coconut shells, manufacture of aluminium products, preparation of tapioca flour, the making of camouflage nets of aloe yarn, coir tent components, salitahs, bags pin and bags-wall are the most important of the new industries that have been thriving under war conditions.

287. The University of Travancore has always evinced special interest in industrial research. Among the subjects brought within the purview of its Research Department are such matters of industrial significance as the manufacture of salt, distillation and refining of fuel oil, extraction of mesothorium and thorium compounds from monazite, retting of coconut husks, charcoal, lemongrass oil and ionone, iodine from seaweed, etc. The possibilities of manufacturing a coagulant for rubber latex, have also been experimentally established. It is again the outcome of University Research that "Sharliverol" or shark liver oil, which is a suitable substitute for, and an equivalent in vitamin-contents, to Cod liver oil, is prepared on a commercial scale and finds a ready market.

288. If we deduct from the number of industrial workers recorded in Imperial Table VIII, that of the workers in organised industry, as

registered in Imperial Table IX, the larger numbers that yet remain are statistically understood to mean workers in cottage industry. It has already been pointed out that out of the total industrial workers in the State including those in the rubber and tea estates, 34.2 per cent. males and 51.5 per cent. females are engaged in organised industry. That gives the figures of the cottage industry workers in the State as 65.8 per cent. males and 48.5 per cent. females. Side by side with this, if we also take into account the already mentioned fact that in the ranks of workers registered under organised industry there are many operatives who are cottage workers requisitioned in factories and estates for temporary jobs of a miscellaneous character, the total percentage of cottage workers must be estimated at a far higher figure. This is an undeniable proof of the greater popularity and vogue of cottage industries in the State.

289. From time out of mind, Travancore has always been a busy hive of industrial activity in cottages, homes and farms much more than in factories and estates, even after these were established. While a good many of the cottage workers engage themselves full time in some industry or other as their principal means of livelihood, a far larger number, especially women, take to it, as an auxiliary occupation or a leisure-time hobby, by which they can earn an extra anna or two towards a favourable balance in their family budget. Far from the madding crowd of factory hands and estate coolies, loudly claiming their legitimate rights or blaming the niggardly capitalists for the disabilities they are subjected to, the cottage workers pursue the noiseless tenor of their way, busily but meekly, in sequestered villages and rural solitudes, contributing their daily quota towards their household economy with none of the demonstrations or agitations about wage-rates or hours of work, health problems or safety measures of a specific character to worry or hurry about. Among the attempts made to promote cottage industry in the State, particular mention has to be made of

COCHIN TERRITORY

COIMBATORE DISTRICT

MADURA DISTRICT

RAMNAD DISTRICT

TINNEVELLY DISTRICT

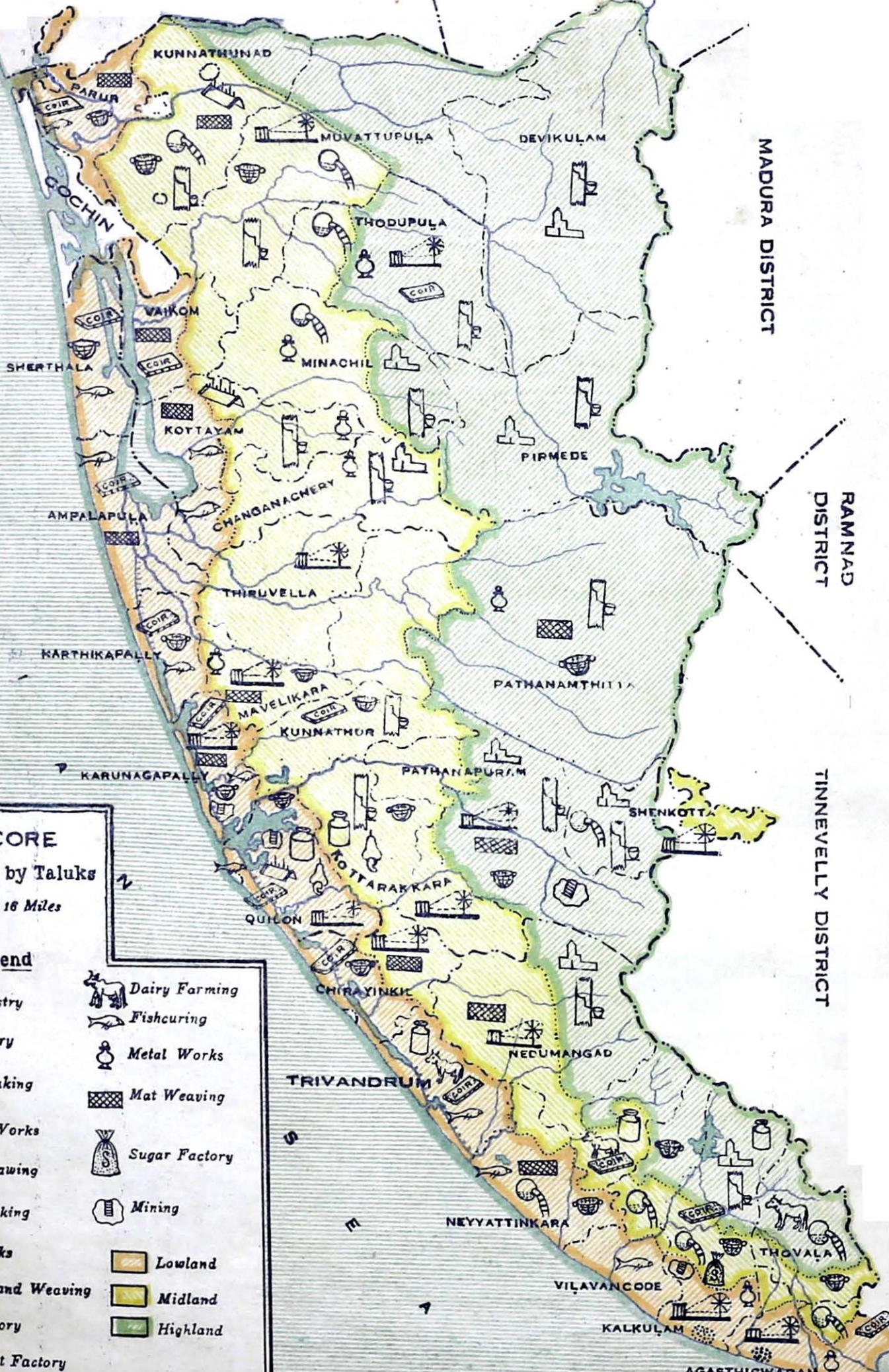
TRAVANCORE

Main Industries by Taluks

Scale 1 Inch = 16 Miles

Legend

- | | |
|--|---|
|  Coir Industry |  Dairy Farming |
|  Tea Factory |  Fishcuring |
|  Rubber Making |  Metal Works |
|  Ceramic Works |  Mat Weaving |
|  Toddy Drawing |  Sugar Factory |
|  Basket Making |  Mining |
|  Tile Works |  Lowland |
|  Spinning and Weaving |  Midland |
|  Salt Factory |  Highland |
|  Cashewnut Factory | |



the 131 industrial schools imparting instruction in such subjects as weaving, carpentry, smithery, coir work, rattan and bamboo work. The annual Industrial Exhibition (often on an All-India scale) held in connection with His Highness the Maharaja's birthday, the Sri Mulam Shash-tiabdapurthi Memorial Institute and the Government Sales Depot, are also meant for the demonstration and sale of industrial products particularly of cottage workers. To get an idea of the number and variety of cottage industries and the high skill, ingenuity and exquisite workmanship of those engaged in them, one has only to attend a village fair or a rural celebration, a temple or church festival, a public market or a welfare centre, in any part of the State. The potentialities are there. To an intelligent people with marvellous adaptability, it wants only a carefully conceived organisation to convince them that the economic independence of the village is no will-o'-the-wisp, but a practical possibility. Travancore can then, like Japan and Russia, make every one of her villages a nucleus of economic self-sufficiency by fostering her cottage industries.

290. It has to be remembered that among the occupations that could, according to Imperial Tables VIII and IX, be taken as cottage industries, there are several arts and crafts of a hereditary character pursued almost exclusively by particular castes. Under this category could be brought such workers as scavengers, barbers, washermen, tree-climbers, smiths, jewellers, cobblers, etc. The weavers also claim to be a distinct class by themselves alleging descent from an eponymous ancestor named Chaliya Rishi. Both in villages and in towns these workers ply their trade which was once looked upon as the occupational monopoly of their caste but which now-a-days has transcended customary barriers and begun to admit outsiders into its fold. As long as the caste-war basis persists in the pursuit of these arts and crafts, the communities concerned can develop such industries by collective effort along lines chalked out under expert guidance by their communal organisations.

Where each of these trades, however, tends to develop a cosmopolitan character, common progress could be achieved by the institution of craft guilds, like those of medieval England in the days when factories were unknown, to safeguard and promote their professional interests. The strikes we often hear of among scavengers, beed-makers and rickshaw-wallahs are symptoms of the increasing realisation of such possibilities of organisation by the workers.

291. There is another class who cannot, in the strict sense, be grouped as workers in cottage industries. Those engaged in motor transport, for running their business as individual or private concerns (and not as members of Motor Unions or Syndicates) cannot do their work in their homes. Similarly a far larger number engaged in water transport as boatmen, etc., also cannot be regarded as cottage workers. They navigate the backwaters, canals and rivers in their canoes or barges or power-boats, from one end of the land to the other, making themselves available for low wages for passenger or goods traffic. Though they are not engaged in organised industry, they have labour organisations of their own. Decorators also come under this category as workers who render service away from their homes.

292. Apart from the exceptional cases pointed out above, there are numerous other arts and crafts pursued in general throughout the State as regular cottage industries. Such jobs as mechanical repairing, binding and stitching engage large numbers, especially in towns. Tailoring is also an individual concern in most cases but in large towns where sartorial demands are heavy and pressing, bigger establishments may be set up. Embroidery, the making of pillow and net laces, drawn-thread and crochet, knitting and tatting, are thriving items of needlework artistically done mostly by women in homes and convents. This is a promising industry into which still larger numbers of women could come forward. The toys made in the State compare favourably in design and workmanship

with those imported from abroad. Sweetmeat-making and selling and small-scale tea and coffee shops and hotels have surpassed any other cottage industry as a business proposition for reasons already explained. The manufacture of tobacco and narcotics supports large numbers in villages and towns. Beedi-making in particular affords decent means of livelihood to hundreds of fleet-fingered juvenile experts. A study of the family budget in Economic Survey reveals the high percentage of expenditure for tobacco in all grades of families in the several income-groups. The slicing and desiccation of large quantities of tender arecanuts for exportation is a paying business practised in North Travancore. The currying of local hides along with tanning of the leather thus obtained, is a popular craft providing material for leather goods of the cheaper and cruder type. Different kinds of yarn and twine are extracted out of barks or thick leaves by a good many workers. Women are employed in thousands in the making of baskets out of willow or wicker or long bamboo shreds. Equally popular but more paying and fashionable are the cane and rattan works producing chairs, settees, suitcases and even tea-poy, tables and cabinets. The palmyra leaf is turned into very good account in a multiplicity of ways in North and South Travancore where it grows in abundance. Cheap and artistic umbrellas are made out of it. The same leaf is also dexterously wrought into baskets, mats and handy fancy goods of various patterns and colours. Mats, hand bags, purses etc., are also made in South Travancore out of the cyperus grass and in Central Travancore and coastal region out of the screw-pine leaf properly prepared and edged. The village of Thalava owes its name to screw-pine mat-making. The highly artistic finish of the superior varieties of both has made them favourites in the aristocratic homes of South India. High-class screw-pine matting with its glossy polish is used for making beautiful hand-bags, pouches, tea-poy covers, etc. of fashionable patterns which find a ready market in North India and even in foreign countries like England and America. The ivory works of Travancore

enjoy a world-wide reputation for exquisite workmanship and beauty of design. The making of gold and silver thread and of silk yarn is also an ancient cottage industry. Coconut shells are made into ladles for common use and works of art of high finish and style. The charcoal, burnt out of this shell, being an absorbent of noxious gases, is now exported abroad for use in the production of gas-masks. Charcoal is also produced in large quantities from ordinary wood for use in carburetion by motorists in lieu of petrol, a saving of 70 per cent. being thereby effected. Soap-making and the distillation of lemongrass oil are again two of the flourishing cottage industries. Similarly tinctures and pharmaceutical preparations are made from various medicinal herbs, in conformity with the specifications of the British pharmacopoeia and used widely in the various Ayurvedic pharmacies and for export. Lime-shell burning in kilns and furnaces, and preparation of tapioca-flour engage large numbers of cottage workers and the latter industry has been considerably expanded to meet the demands of the Supply Department. One of the oldest and most reputed cottage industries in Travancore is the making of various articles out of brass, bronze and the non-malleable bell-metal. Vessels, large and small, and of various shapes and designs, spouted pots, spittoons, lamps, images, etc., made of these alloys and found in ancient homes and temples, are considered symbols of their antiquity and the more conservative people still prefer them to the cheaper varieties of crockery and china. Muvattupuzha, Valapalli and Nagercoil are most famous for this industry and in the conception of the common man no home or temple or mart or exhibition is considered complete without the gleaming sheen of rows of well-burnished brass and bronzeware. One of the vanishing industries in this category is the making of the rather costly mirrors in bell-metal, noted for their finish, polish and lustre. Aranmula, in Central Travancore owes its fame to this industry. Cheap looking glasses have chased bell-metal mirrors out of all local markets. The numerous industries enumerated above have

been prospering in various parts of the State without any let or hindrance due to local competition from any organised industry.

293. Besides these, there are several other cottage industries whose progress is seriously handicapped by the growth of factories conducting the same business on an organised scale. The cashewnut factories, for instance, which have been increasing in number within the last decade and are employing at present nearly 10,000 workers have absorbed all the labour in their vicinity so that roasting and decorticating the nuts and packing the kernel, cannot be profitably done in cottages in the face of factory competition. The potters of the State working in their homes in the making of earthenware and stoneware as well as brick and tile-makers have been adversely affected in their business by the establishment of ceramic and tile factories. South Travancore and Shenkotta have always been famous for handloom flying-shuttle methods of weaving, whose products are prized throughout India for their excellence. The installation of powerlooms in various factories and the competition of cheaper foreign cloth have proved detrimental to handloom weaving, though the industry persists in its struggle to exist and survive. There is scarcely a village or town in the State where in afternoons, both in rain and in shine, the spectacle is missed, of hundreds of women streaming towards, flocking round or returning from, the shops of wholesale rice dealers about the rice-husking business. Each woman bears home the load of her quota of paddy from the shop to be parched, hulled or ground and to be taken back the next day as rice or pounded rice or flour in return for a margin of profit usually doled out in kind, at the rate of a tenth of the total quantity dealt with, which is a welcome addition to her daily income as remuneration from a popular and widespread cottage industry. The advent of rice-mills has paralysed this business a lot, within the last decade, especially because mill-rice is cheaper though somewhat nauseating. But as long as the middle classes at

least, especially in towns, continue to have a preference for the rice hulled in cottages by women, this industry cannot suffer extinction.

294. In the teeth of such competition the cottage industry has to be rehabilitated without detriment to the spread of organised industry. A spirit of co-operation rather than a state of competition would furnish a congenial background for both types of industry to flourish side by side. A scheme of co-ordination in which both concerns agree to complement each other in the pursuit of the industry in question, would, if put into operation, be conducive to its better growth. Such a scheme, broadly envisaged, would involve a division of labour between the cottage and the factory in the industrial transformation of the agricultural product, which could conveniently be effected in two stages, *viz.*, the preliminary being done in the cottage and the subsequent in the factory. The process begun manually in the cottage could thus be completed mechanically in the factory, the two thereby becoming mutually dependent in part and jointly responsible for the whole manufacture. Switzerland has set a laudable example in this respect in her watch industry. Swiss made watches, so famous for their efficiency of service and cheapness of value are the product of such joint efforts in cottage and factory, each part being made in the former and the combination and completion into the whole being effected in the latter.

295. In this State there is ample scope for such industrial co-ordination. The preparation and desiccation of oil-seeds like laurel, *maravetty*, gingely, castor, etc., and of coconut into copra is done in cottages and if the material so prepared is sent as grist to the factory mills, oil-extraction could be done there. The cottage may similarly be made a feeder of the factory in the cotton industry where yarn spinning in the one may lead to weaving in the other. Toddy-drawing, jaggery-making, preparation of reed pulp and rayon, woodcutting and sawing, etc., done in cottages could likewise lead on to factory work in distilling, sugar-making, paper-manufacture,

making of artificial silk and wood industry respectively. It may, however, be added that already such a co-ordination exists with regard to the premier industry of the State because of the vicinity of factories to centres producing coir yarn in abundance. The coir industry is ubiquitous throughout the coastal regions of the State. The women of the Ilava community in particular take to the extraction of coir fibre from retted husks and to the spinning of coir yarn either by hand or by the help of a simple wooden mechanism. There is scarcely a village on the coast which does not present its spectacle of hundreds of coir workers, mostly women and children, beating out the fibre from the soaked husks, with hills of husk-pith and husk-skin around them, and amidst that hell of noise and rotting smell of the soaked stuff scattered about, ginning the fibre or spinning it into yarn for an anna or so which the job would fetch them before sundown. It can safely be asserted that the prosperity of each such village is inextricably bound up with the fortunes of coir industry from time to time, because with most of the poorer folk it is the sole source of income. The factories that absorb all this raw material are really a boon to the cottage workers who get higher prices resulting from greater demand. The example of the cottage feeding the factory in this case is well worth following in other industries too.

296. Reference has, in this connection, to be made to a glaring tendency on the part of coir dealers or irresponsible middlemen in village parts to take inhuman advantage of the straitened circumstances of the workers by deliberately beating down the price of the commodity to the level of its raw-material-price so that the poor yarn-spinner is forced to under-sell it to the profiteer thereby having to sacrifice, on pain of starvation, the little margin of profit due for his hard day's work. Such pitiless exploitation of the poor man's extremities by heartless businessmen calls for strong preventive measures by the awakening of social consciousness towards a standardisation of prices consistent with the

prevailing market trends. The Co-operative Department will be rendering a real service by coming to the rescue of such helpless victims. Unless a speedy remedy is found for this widespread evil, it will be disastrous to the interests of the penniless workers in what is universally recognised as the most popular and promising cottage industry in the State.

297. The progress of cottage enterprise is determined by several economic factors such as availability of sufficient raw material to work upon, capital to invest, skilled labour to apply, assurance of fair prices by adequate demand, co-operative attitude of factories and the nearness of markets. More important than the proximity of markets is their safety against profiteering by swindling middlemen, sharks and sharpers who by deft negotiation of business, manage to pocket a large part of the money meant by the consumer for the producer.

298. A new cottage industry, fraught with immense possibilities for the future, may be mentioned in passing. In the State there are a variety of fruits which now find practically no market outside. Business in easily perishable commodities would involve not merely the problems of production and distribution but also of their safe preservation and quick transportation. Hence, better than canning fruits or making jams of them, a cheaper and more effective method would be their dehydration or desiccation. If fruits are dried properly they remain safe against decomposition and putrefaction for very long periods, while retaining their delicious taste and nutritive value. No other part of India abounds in plantains of such manifold variety or bananas of such excellent quality as Travancore. These and other home-grown fruits like the mango, the jack, the pomegranate, the lime, the gooseberry, etc., could be subjected to scientific experimentation to establish possibilities of improving their quality in cultivation and introducing greater variety in their proper utilisation. The aroma of the edible part of the ripe cashew-stalk

should invite special experimentation. Incidentally it may be added that along with the old, new fruits like oranges and grapes and vegetables like cabbages, tomatoes, etc., could be similarly raised in suitable areas in this State where leaf manure is plentiful and every possible variety of soil and climate is also in evidence in the tier upon tier of rising ground-level stretching from the lowlying coast to the greater altitudes of the Highland. It would be a successful cottage industry for the women at home to get the various fruits dehydrated, in the proper season, their pulp prepared into jam, besides making pickles and preserves of some of them, since profitable markets could be found for these in North India and foreign countries just like the desiccated fruits imported into this country from Syria, Iraq, and Arabia. If the research section of the Agricultural Department could help by soil, manurial and cross-breeding experiments in raising better yield on a small scale in kitchen and fruit gardens in the walled premises of dwellings and homesteads, the success of these would enable a large-scale popularisation of such methods throughout the State. While in rural areas fruit cultivation and fruit industry could thus thrive hand in hand, in urban areas many, especially women, could profitably take to horticulture and croton growing, which, besides embellishing their homes and instilling an aesthetic sense in their growing children, as in the picturesque and colourful homes of Japan and China, would, if done on a commercial scale, prove a highly lucrative hobby.

299. The fisheries of the State form a far more potential and unlimited source of wealth than organised or cottage industry. To a maritime State like Travancore with its 168 miles of coastline, margined by a shallow-water area (100 fathom line) of 3,900 sq. miles, its extensive backwaters stretching from Trivandrum to Cochin, in close proximity to the sea and linked to it by its tidal ebb and flow and the existence of numerous fresh-water streams and vast expanses of punja fields, the economic benefits accruing from a proper exploitation of the inexhaustible

wealth of the deep are not generally limited by the operation of any law of diminishing returns as in the case of agriculture or any of the factors natural or human, that circumscribe the scope of industry in cottage, estate or factory.

300. Fishing and fish-curing have been an important means of livelihood pursued as a regular industry by several communities that inhabit the coastal area as well as the littoral of the backwaters. At present about 40,000 families are engaged in it. In the present census 129,705 returned themselves as being supported by fishing, of whom 31,562 (including 1,064 women) are workers and 98,143 are dependants. Primitive methods are still followed by the fisherfolk, the craft in use in sea fishing south of Trivandrum being still the unsinkable catamaran while in other places canoes of different sizes are more popular. Seine nets are mostly in vogue, though of different material and mesh-size, while on the margins of lakes fixed suspension ("Chinese") nets worked by pulleys or weights are also in use especially on the shores of the Vembanad lake. Besides the crudeness of the methods employed, the fisherfolk have also to reckon with the fury of the breakers in monsoon time and deficiency in coves or harbours along the coast where fishing craft can find safe anchorage.

301. Despite these hindrances inevitable to the fishing industry in the State, the annual catch amounts to no less than 90,000 tons valued at much more than Rs. 120 lakhs. The yield per unit-length of coastline in this case exceeds that of Denmark and Sweden put together or more than double that of England or any other fishing country in the world. The annual value from fisheries per unit length of one mile of coast line is about Rs. 26,000 for Britain, Rs. 16,000 for Japan and Rs. 14,000 for America while it is Rs. 60,000 for Travancore. The yield from the lake fisheries alone amounts annually to Rs. 22 lakhs. Besides several table varieties, such fish of economic importance as butter fish, anchovy sardine, ribbonfish and catfish from the sea, large quantities of prawn both from sea and lake

of an annual value of about Rs. 22 lakhs, mullet from the lakes and also miscellaneous varieties of the cheaper sort form the bulk of the catch. Twenty per cent. of the shank fisheries of the world is contributed by Travancore. Among the chief marine products can be included shark liver oil, turtle oil and body oil of leather-jacket which, besides being put to their separate uses, are often mixed together for wood-treatment by boatmen. The seaworm called trepang and several marine plants and weeds of nutritive value and sargasso weed for commercial extraction of iodine are also other valuable sea products. The shell fish industry is carried on along the shores of the lakes while oyster culture has begun to claim the attention of several workers as a commercial proposition.

302. The saleable surplus of all the catch from sea and lake, after local consumption is cured and sent particularly to the High Ranges and the Tamil country. There are twelve curing yards in the State maintained under the supervision of the Fisheries Department. In all these together there are 19 supervisors and technical advisers including the clerical staff and of the 820 operatives 34 are children, 98 adolescents, 501 male adults and 187 female adults. Since the fish that is salted and dried is devoid of some of the essential properties of fresh fish, a refrigeration plant for preservation and cold storage of fish was installed in Trivandrum in 1938. Though the conservatively-minded fisherfolk were slow to realise the practical utility and economic advantage of the plant, thanks to its installation, fresh fish is now made available in the High Ranges and the Tamil country. 95,000 lbs. of frozen fish were transported to different parts of South India last year though it has to be remembered that the market is shy owing to the comparatively high price of cold-stored fish.

303. The Department of Fisheries, which till 1940 was under the Director of Agriculture but subsequently transferred to the Marine Biology Department of the Travancore University, has been continuing its encouragement of fisheries throughout the decade. Besides supervising the

maintenance and working of the 12 curing yards, it superintended the conduct of the 5 fishery schools (whose management was handed over last year to the Education Department) and of the 42 Co-operative Societies functioning among fishermen, particularly in the matter of fishery loans tenable for short terms. The University has interested itself in piscicultural research, especially about the possibilities of stocking the fish called "pearl-spots". The Aquarium established in Trivandrum is also under the control of the University.

304. As a potential source of wealth for the State and a vast field of illimitable economic possibilities, fisheries call for further development along lines so successfully worked out in such maritime countries as England, Scandinavia, Denmark, U. S. A. and Japan, where scientific devices have been put into operation through their highly specialised fishing fleets each unit of which is provided with mechanical contrivances for spreading and hauling nets, salting, drying or curing the fish and preserving them in cold storage so that as soon as the fishing craft comes home, the entire catch is ready, spick-and-span, for immediate foreign exportation as well as local consumption. The fact that in spite of such enviable advantages as the aid of science and the very high and longstanding maritime traditions, the fisherfolk of these advanced countries have been able to raise only a far less unit-yield per mile of coastline than the comparatively little lozenge of land that is Travancore, with its primitive methods of fishing applied only to a third of the total fishable area, speaks volumes as to the aptness of terming fishing as the Cinderella among the industries of the State.

305. Fishing industry has unfortunately been relegated to a particular class as a profession not fit to be undertaken by the more intellectual and refined society. The ban of convention and custom, not to mention religious prejudices, has prevented a good many in the country from taking to this avocation which is one of the most lucrative in the State. The economic

advantages have been overlooked by orthodox prejudices with the result that this industry has not yet transcended its primitive stage of development. Its potentialities have been described briefly in the previous paragraph. It may be hoped that the new era of industrialisation will make amends for what has been lost in the past by the best talents of the country coming forward to improve and organise this much-neglected field.

309. Lack of such essentials of business success as capital, organisation, education etc. has always handicapped the fishermen from exploiting fully the limitless potentialities of this industry. At present the catch from the sea is confined only to within six or seven miles of the coast so that out of 3,900 sq. miles of fishable area, more than two-thirds is left untapped. A mechanised fishing fleet with highly skilled crews, though it may require a large outlay, can easily raise Travancore to the first rank from the potential to the actual level of reckoning warranted by its prospects ahead. This is indeed a promising field for business enterprise which public spirited individuals and societies may profitably enter. Any new scheme attempted in this line will have first and foremost to take into account the improvement in the lot of the poor fisherman whose amphibious life, day and night, exposes him to greater, more constant and immediate perils and privations than any worker on land is ever subjected to. Besides, in the India of the future, such a progressive maritime State as Travancore has a great part to play towards the equipment and personnel of an efficient Royal Indian Navy for which this State is sure to prove an excellent recruiting ground.

307. Mining is another of the important industries in the State, carried on mostly on an organised scale in eight mining centres. Reference has already been made to the useful prospecting work in graphite, mica, limestone, etc. under the auspices of the Department of Industries. The demand for graphite is raised by its high electrical conductivity and its consequent utility in the manufacture of electrodes for elec-

trolytic work. Physico-chemical experiments to raise its carbon-content are making rapid headway. Large quantities of crude mica have been prospected and the possibilities explored, of the economic use of waste mica derived as residue or by-product. The limestone deposits were subjected to similar investigations by the Industries Department under the expert guidance of a Mining Engineer and Geologist of the Associated Cement Company detailed specially by Government for the purpose.

308. Besides such prospecting work, many of the rare minerals in which the State is rich are being mined by 3,685 workers in the State, including women, the number of dependants on them being 8,806. The regular employees in mining factories number 3,007 including among the operatives, 145 children, 459 adolescents and 50 women many of whom work underground. Mining operations in the State are conducted by private agencies paying a royalty to Government at the rate of 10 per cent. of the profit. The most important products of the mineral industry are rutile, sillimanite and mica which have increased nearly fourfold in quantity and monazite, ilmenite and zircon that record a slight decrease owing to war conditions. Lignite and marcasite concretions in South Travancore have also been subjected to special geological investigations. With better technical guidance to investigate the mineral potentialities of the State and specialised staffs of competent workmen, the mineral industry of the State can record a level of rise far higher if only the necessary capital is forthcoming.

309. Salt is a Government monopoly as in British India and one of the primary industrial concerns in the State. It is mostly manufactured in local factories. This is done by licensees in pans called "*alloms*" in South Travancore by the process of solar evaporation in the interval between the two monsoons. Of the total income from the quantity manufactured, 60 per cent. called "*Melvaram*" belongs to Government and 40 per cent called "*Kudivaram*" is the share of the licensee, which is also taken by Government by

payment of its price called "*Kudivila*". The total area under salt manufacture at present in the State is 592.54 acres. The sale of salt is done in bankshalls and depots by Government and the annual yield in the last decade was subject to constant fluctuations. The insufficient supply of good brine, the percolation of fresh water into the pans from irrigation channels in the vicinity and adverse weather conditions generally hinder the salt-making operations. Of the 19 *alloms* in the State, ten are in Thamarakulam, favourably situated on the estuary of the Manakkudi Lake. In the present Census 486 workers and 1,696 dependants were returned under the salt industry. On an organised scale the industry employs 353 workers including 6 children and 43 adolescents. Though the present out-put of salt manufacture is sufficient for local consumption, further progress has to be made in this industry. The Travancore University Department of Research is exploring the possibilities of improving the quality of salt manufactured in the State. Besides for domestic consumption, salt is also used for curing fish, tanning leather and as manure for which it is issued duty free.

310. The forests of the State, comprising nearly a third of its total area, are a source of potential wealth like the fisheries and the mines. Within the last decade, 6 square miles and 557 acres from forest reserves and 460 acres from fuel and fodder reserves were thrown open for registry. It is feared that further disafforestation may bring about soil erosion resulting in floods in monsoon time which will cause great havoc to crops. The fauna and the flora of the forests constitute a great source of wealth. While the institution of a Game Sanctuary in the catchment area of the Periyar Lake and a Wild Life Nursery at Edapalayam, along with the administration of forest laws, has safeguarded the animal wealth of forest areas, silviculture and the industries connected with forest products have led to the development of forest resources in other directions.

311. Silviculture made great headway within the last decade with the result that only 225

sq. miles of the merchantable timber area of 1,035 sq. miles is now left uncovered by working plans. There are nearly 600 species of timber in the forests. Teak, blackwood, ebony and sandalwood are State monopoly trees cultivated on a commercial scale. The other superior timber varieties such as *Vengai*, *thembavu*, *irul*, *venteak*, *anjili*, *maruthu*, etc. are also cultivated on a large scale. Rubber, cashewnut, casuarina, *elavu* and mahogany are some of the minor species raised. Cultivation of many of these is undertaken by contractors on the *taungya* lease system, costing there by only 6 as per acre, which otherwise would have risen up to about Rs. 47. Transportation by means of cart or elephant or lorry on land or by raft down the waterways is cheaply done by the *mel-labhom* system of contract. Last year the total amount of timber available for disposal was 2,341,522 c.ft. and the total receipts by sale of royalties and of junglewood came up to Rs. 16.72 lakhs. No export duty is levied on timber. A large sum is also annually realised by the sale of teak saplings. Two of the new plant cultivations successfully tried were lac in South Travancore and the beedi-leaf from seeds got down from Hyderabad.

312. The minor items of forest produce consist of reeds, sandalwood, rattan, honey, wax, rubber and ivory, besides firewood, charcoal, cardamom, bamboo and medicinal herbs. The tusks and scivelloes of elephants that die in the forest, yield about 790 lbs. annually and are sold at high prices. Elaborate research was conducted on suitable adhesives of wood to wood and the peeling and bending characteristics of timber with a view to develop the wood industry. The most important products of wood industry are toys, articles of plywood, furniture, trays and wood-wool. The manufacture of plywood on a commercial scale was successfully tried and possibilities established by an experimental contract with a tea company in the High Ranges. A new method of improving the quality of timber is the 'ascu' treatment of wood. Buildings and bridges have been constructed and

electric wire poles set up of wood so treated and though this process is claimed to enable wood to be a substitute for concrete as building material, its efficacy has to be left for time to judge. The forest resources of the State afford a vast field for further exploitation and the introduction of a Forestry Section in the Travancore University may be taken to be a happy augury for the future.

313. The realisation that allround economic progress is best achieved by joint efforts, towards a planned economy, by the various development departments concerned led to the re-constitution, on a comprehensive scale, in 1936, of the Economic Development Board so as to comprise 10 official and non-official members representing such interests as agriculture, industry, forestry, excise, plantations, fisheries, rural reconstruction, banking, co-operation, public health, land revenue, etc. Since its reorganisation, the Board has been functioning as an expert advisory body discussing all questions of policy relating to economic development, making suggestions to government on matters of economic importance and considering and reporting, through sub-committees, particularly on agricultural, industrial and other allied problems. The Travancore Economic Journal is a monthly publication undertaken by the Board whose guidance has enabled the development departments to work in unison to ensure maximum success.

314. Since capital is the mainstay of all economic activity especially of the large-scale type, a brief survey of the financial and credit facilities open to the industrial and agricultural worker within the last decade will serve to reveal as well as explain the rate of progress in the different lines of enterprise. The hold of the financier, the banker and the money-lender over the farmer, the trader and the manufacturer is seen in this connection developing, often through the mechanism of accumulated interest, into a strangle-hold that ultimately paralyses the very business it was meant to prop up. The limited scope and the technical delays involved

in the availability of the agricultural and industrial loans offered by the State, necessitated the financial dependence of many a farmer and manufacturer on some bank, *chitty* concern or other in whose favour his immovable property had to be mortgaged. And when such indebtedness became inextricable, the mortgage culminated in a sale, severely to the detriment of the mortgagor. By reason of the slump still persisting as the aftermath of the economic depression that had characterised the previous decade, inability of debtors to liquidate their debts led in turn to the collapse of many of the *chitties* and banks.

315. In fact the most outstanding economic problem throughout the last decade has been the question of agricultural and industrial indebtedness, by the increasing deadweight of which, the properties of the farmer or manufacturer were getting involved in irredeemable encumbrance. The Banking Enquiry Committee of 1930 had analysed the question in all its bearings. At the beginning of the decade, the investiture of His Highness the Maharaja with ruling powers was signalised by the announcement of a handsome contribution from His Highness's privy purse towards the establishment of a Land Mortgage Bank.

316. The relentless persistence of adverse economic conditions resulted in a fall in the value of immovable property as evidenced by the diminution in the average value of registration documents from Rs. 317 in 1931 to Rs. 180 in 1940. Another index of the same phenomenon was the decrease in 1940 in the total income of the same department, of more than a fourth of what it was in 1931, this obviously being due to the fall in document value which is a criterion for realising the registration fee. There was also a dwindling in the number of *chitties* from 524 in 1931 to 168 in 1940. The number of jointstock banks which had risen from 5 in 1917 to 258 in 1930, fell to 158 in 1941. The strict insistence by Government on the payment of high enough cash securities by such institutions

must have promptly served its well-meant purpose of nipping all mushroom banks and *chitties* in the bud. The same problem of growing indebtedness manifested itself also in the increase in the average number of documents disposed of in each registration office from 3,217 in 1931 to 4,153 in 1940 the increase being mostly due to Credit Bank transactions.

317. In 1931 the problem of agricultural indebtedness became so acute as to lead to the appointment of the Agricultural Debt Redemption Committee upon whose recommendations 8 Conciliation Officers were appointed in different parts of the State to help debtors to square up with their creditors on equitable terms. The creditors who grudged being thus placed at a disadvantage memorialised Government and in consequence, the operation of the Debt Relief Act that followed was put off to commence on 16th, September 1940. According to this Act debts to be repaid within two years were reduced to 70 per cent., those to be repaid within six years to 75 per cent., and those to be repaid within nine years to 80 per cent. interest being fixed at 4 per cent. in cases of money debts and 6 per cent. in paddy debts. The Conciliation Officers ceased to function after this legislation came into force. Meanwhile in August 1938 the Credit Bank was started under Government supervision and the Land Mortgage Bank was merged into it. The new institution is meant to be of greater use in giving loans on the security of landed property to any amount between Rs. 300 and Rs. 3 lakhs, and repayable in any period between 6 months and 25 years.

318. Of the numerous credit facilities available in the economic field the least exacting and therefore the most popular, especially for the small-scale farmer and the cottage worker, is the co-operative society. The method of long-term repayment in easy instalments at low rates of interest under a joint responsibility makes the loan taken from the co-operative societies a far safer transaction than amounts borrowed on severe terms from money-grabbing banks or usurious

individuals. The rapid spread of the Co-operative Movement in the State has, therefore, been a great boon to the middle class businessmen and farmers. At present there are 1,409 co-operative societies (including 8 women's societies) in the State with a total capital of Rs. 28.94 lakhs and a total membership of 3 per cent. of the population, consisting of 76,301 agriculturists, 62,321 non-agriculturists and 8,790 artisans, the women members numbering 22,689, *i. e.*, in the proportion of 1 woman to 7 men. The average working capital of a society is Rs. 5,189, average reserve Rs. 803 and the average membership 130. The primary purpose served by the societies will be evident from their functional grouping given in the subjoined table. Though the practice

Description.	Number.
1 Banking Unions	20
2 Urban Banks	18
3 Agricultural Credit Societies	1,004
4 Non-agricultural credit Societies	199
5 Sale or marketing Societies	6
6 Distributive Societies	51
7 Multi-purpose Societies	18
8 Others	93
Total	1,409

of weeding out moribund societies or the sale by improvident members of their share capital for clearing their loans has latterly reduced the number of societies, their general tendency to spread throughout the country is unmistakable. The Co-operative Department has been hastening slowly in the cautious expansion of the movement and its policy has consistently been one of rectification and consolidation. The preponderance of agricultural societies in the State shows the preference by the small farmer of the co-operative society to other sources of credit as the best safeguard against his economic extinction. A practical method of relieving the pressure of repayment on the hard-hit debtor with moderate means without jeopardising the financial stability or good will of the society is the "*Kettu-thengu*" system by which the arrears are realised from a part of the coconut yield in the debtor's landed property. The holding of

periodical co-operative conferences and an annual session has contributed very much to the rapid improvement of co-operative enterprise in the State. The Co-operative Enquiry Committee has offered valuable suggestions as to the lines along which the movement can best be of service in its manifold ways in the economic field. In fact a glance at the functional grouping of co-operative societies will not only show their present activity but point towards their future possibilities. The co-operative organisation, though based on the sound principle of affording financial relief to hard-hit workers in industry, agriculture or trade, is very often prostituted into a mere money-lending institution, not infrequently for the benefit of its own employees, thereby frustrating the nobility of the purpose meant to be served and detracting from the beneficial effects designed to be promoted by it. The increasing work of the liquidators is proof positive of this unfortunate tendency. Only a just appreciation of the fundamental principles of co-operation and a better sense of responsibility on the part of those involved in the system, strengthened by a healthy public opinion, can administer the necessary correctives to such unwholesome influences that crop up and undermine its progressive usefulness to society.

319. The success of all productive enterprise, agricultural or industrial, ultimately depends upon the capacity of producers to find and reach consumers for their commodity and square up with them with an equitable margin of profit into the bargain. It is the market that serves as a forum for their commercial transaction. If suitable markets are not easily available and the consumer directly accessible, the producer's interests will be seriously jeopardized and his business thereby paralysed. This argues the need for proper marketing facilities to make for fair dealing between the buyer and seller and thus help to maintain the equilibrium between demand and supply.

320. Whereas the markets at home may well be within both the knowledge and reach of the

producer, it is with regard to those abroad that he is more handicapped, on the one hand by his ignorance of their demand for his goods and on the other by the difficulty of distribution directly or through some reliable agency. But the producer in this State has had to experience difficulty in regard to both inland and foreign markets, so that Government have always had to be at his elbow to render him such aid as is called for by marketing exigencies from time to time.

321. Within the State there are altogether 605 markets, 242 public and 363 private. The small-scale producers both in agriculture and industry have to depend mostly on these besides a good many of large-scale producers too. A fair and square commercial transaction is, however, rendered difficult by profiteering middlemen whose mediation causes great disparity between the price paid by the consumer and received by the producer. The consequent price instability is detrimental to the interests of the producer, who cannot thereby foresee the probable economic outcome of his undertakings and rationally plan his production programme. Marketing anomalies affect the producer adversely in three ways, *viz.*, remunerative selling prices are not ensured for him, middlemen are enabled to reap excessive profit and great instability is caused in price levels. The State has therefore to intervene and repair the mechanism of prices by fixing and stabilising them at remunerative levels but at the same time controlling both supply and demand. In standardising prices, the official one stipulated must be elastic enough to have both its boundaries fixed, within which it could vary according to local conditions. The prices so adopted must also be adapted to the time and place and also to the quality of the product. Since price rates directly affect the cost of production, cost of living and rates of wages, such standardisation has to be made in consultation with producers of all grades. To save the buyer and the seller from the evils of profiteering and black-marketing and also from the baneful effects on the market of the habit of some producers to hoard or stock or

otherwise with-hold supply to raise price levels, Government have always adopted prompt and stringent measures from time to time. The enforcement of sufficiently elastic scheduled rates of prices and the rigid supervision of the maintenance of the correct standard of weights and measures by the dealers are other ways in which Government have been trying to stabilise the market.

322. But as more of State aid was called for in the matter of foreign markets, a Marketing Section was opened by the Department of Agriculture in January 1935, in pursuance of a comprehensive All-India Marketing Scheme inaugurated by the Imperial Government. Till recently there have been three Marketing Officers functioning in the State, one for agriculture, another for livestock and a third for crops. The place of the last mentioned has subsequently been abolished and the offices of the other two merged into one. Each Marketing Officer was to make detailed investigations into the production and distribution of all the important commodities in the State and by visiting marketing centres, interviewing merchants and producers and collecting statistical data, prepare useful reports clearly setting forth existing conditions and making constructive suggestions for improvement and supplying the necessary information regarding profitable foreign markets and the methods of reaching them and putting merchants in touch with agents or foreign purchasers. The Marketing Officers of the State have made themselves very useful within the last quinquennium in tendering valuable advice on improvements in production, distribution and exportation, of such commodities as milk, pine-apple, tobacco, coconuts, cashewnut, potatoes, arecanut, cardamom, pepper, ginger, cattle and animal tallow. Advice was also tendered in the preparation of tapioca flour according to the specifications of the War Supplies Department.

323. One specific problem engaging their attention was the proper grading and improved packing of eggs for exportation which tended to

give a spur to poultry farming as a popular cottage industry in the State. A Hiscock type of egg-grading machine was installed by means of which eggs were graded into several classes according to their degree of freshness and excellence. This scientific method had an educative value and produced its healthy reaction in that thenceforward the egg-vendors gave as much attention to quality as to quantity. In course of time improvement in the quality of eggs led to a rise in demand with a consequent increase in profits. A new type of packing case, that is a 14-anna box to hold 500 eggs was devised to facilitate better transportation at concession rates permitted by the railway authorities. The Marketing Officers also investigated the feasibility of opening an egg-freezing factory at Quilon or Alleppey to export frozen eggs to England. Since it required the provision of cold-store stowage in outgoing steamers, the matter had to lie over owing to war conditions. As an experimental measure, a consignment of lime-pickled eggs was despatched to Britain. Such State efforts to improve marketing facilities bid fair to make the market a forum of economic exchange more and more just and equitable.

324. The institution of Trade Agencies by the State in various commercial centres abroad to establish direct dealings with foreign customers in the matter of exports and imports will be an excellent extension of the marketing programme. The rapid progress of industrialisation in Mysore owes its success to the device of an elaborate system of commercial agencies spread out by the State over various business centres outside. The idea has often been mooted and in one instance temporarily tried in this State but has made little headway. Any industrialisation scheme or other economic programme that ignores or under-rates the marketing requirements of producers is bound to lag behind, if not meet with utter failure.

325. About a country as a whole, as much as about a part of it, it may be said that its total



TRAVANCORE
Means of Communication

Scale 1 Inch = 16 Miles

Legend

- Main Road and Concrete Road
- Other Roads
- Railway Line
- River and Stream
- Lakes and Canals
- Municipal Towns
- Other Towns
- Anchal Office
- Post and Telegraph Offices
- Important Markets
- Trunk Telephone Line
- Hydro Electric Lines Existing and proposed
- Aero-drome
- Ports
- Low land
- Mid land
- High land
- Light House

volume of trade, external and internal, is a measure of its economic self-sufficiency. The trade of this State has always been very brisk though the returns in the present census record a slight decrease from those of 1931. Altogether 153,705 workers and 361,648 dependants returned themselves under trade, the largest number being in the food stuffs trade which employs 89,241 workers and 206,095 dependants. Next in rank comes textile trade in which 4,031 workers are engaged, with 12,532 dependants on them. The special facilities available in the state for cheap water transport are being utilised to the full for commercial purposes, as is evident from the fact that more than 50 per cent. of both export and import trade is carried on by backwater.

326. The Excise Department is responsible for customs administration for which it has set up customs houses, 77 inland 4 on the coast and one at the aerodrome. Customs duties are governed by the Interportal Convention of 1865 between the Travancore, Cochin and British Governments. Import duties are levied according to an Imperial Schedule and in certain cases there is a common sharing of customs duties and the grant of mutual concessions by the three Governments. This item forms a large portion of the State revenue. Export duties collected in the State amount to more than three times the import duties. The total customs revenue rose from Rs. 28 lakhs in 1931 to Rs. 65.68 lakhs in 1941, the principal item of increase being the receipts from the Cochin Harbour. In the present year, the net receipts from the Cochin Harbour amounted to Rs. 17.5 lakhs. Export duties are levied on almost all the staple commodities while 75 per cent. of the import duties is derived from tobacco and its derivatives like beedi, etc. Shipping activities were steady throughout the decade except towards the close when war conditions led to a great reduction which has detrimentally affected foreign trade to a disquieting extent.

327. It is the facilities for transport and communication more than anything else, that

link up the various economic units, local, national and international, into interdependent entities. The progress of the State in this direction during the last decade has been commendable, though the total number of people engaged in transport as a means of livelihood has slightly decreased from that of the previous decade. Of the 37,183 workers and 92,655 dependants returned under transport, nearly half in both categories are engaged in road transport and more than a third in water transport. Postal and Aerial services come next and railway workers last.

328. The Public Works Department, which spends more of the State revenue than any other department except that of Education, towards national welfare, has spent a large portion of the allotments in the last decade for improving transport facilities. Though no new canals were cut, two miles of irrigation channels were added to the Kothayar project and improvements were made in the Mulakanchira and Kuttapula canals. 63.14 miles of planter's roads, 10.95 miles of unmetalled and 254.38 miles of metalled road were added in the last decade. The most important road constructed in this decade was the Neri-mangalam—Pallivasal Road connecting the once inaccessible High Ranges by a short-cut with Alwaye. The Main Southern Road from Trivandrum to Nagercoil was concretised and thus better enabled to bear the heaviest traffic in India. The most important bridges constructed were the Alwaye reinforced concrete bridge, the Neri-mangalam bridge and the Thottappalli ascuted-wood bridge.

329. The most outstanding improvement however, in vehicular traffic was the centralisation of motor transport and the organisation of a Transport Department by the State early in 1939 on the recommendations of the Transport Reorganisation Committee. The scheme started with the State monopolising the motor traffic from Trivandrum to Cojachel and to the Cape *via* Nagercoil. Before the year was out, the Trivandrum City service and the Trivandrum-Quilon service were also opened, the fare per mile being half an

anna in city service and a quarter of an anna in the line service.

330. The Department made special arrangements for conveyance of postal and anchal mails and the transit of goods or parcels. In the second year the Munnar-Willingdon Island lorry service establishing a direct commercial link between the High Ranges and the Cochin Harbour was inaugurated. The Trivandrum-Kottayam line was taken up in the third year and the Quilon-Shenkotta line in the fourth. It is proposed to centralise in like manner the entire transport system of the State by road and by water. To effect a reduction of fuel costs, alcohol was tried in lieu of petrol whereby the expenditure was reduced from 20.87 pies per mile to 3.36 pies. A still cheaper form of fuel for the internal combustion engine is coal gas the substitution of which for petrol or alcohol reduces fuel cost by 70 per cent. The present fleet of buses consumes 9 tons of charcoal per day. It has been computed that 20 tons of charcoal would suffice daily for the entire transport system of the State. It is hoped that by the regular use of such cheaper fuel substitutes, it will be possible, in the fulness of time, to reduce considerably the running cost and thereby the schedule rates of fare. This innovation, along with the state control of all motor transport, will enable the Department to give efficient and cheap service to the progressively increasing passenger and goods traffic.

331. Side by side with improvement in internal communication wherein, besides the P. W. D. and Transport Departments, the Anchal, Postal and Telegraph services also played their parts to capacity, the State was linked up with the outside world by air and by telephone. An aerodrome was first opened at Quilon in 1932 but owing to its inadequacy for landing planes a better one was laid out in Trivandrum two years later. The Tata Weekly Air Mail Service to Bombay was started on 25th October 1935, the fare being Rs. 150 which is not more than the first class railway fare for Bombay. The advantage of the comparative cheapness is enhanced,

especially for commercial travellers for whom expeditiousness is the very essence of all business dispatch, by the interesting fact that a passenger, who has his morning "chota" at Trivandrum before the "take off", can, after lunch at Cannanore or Goa, arrive comfortably in Bombay before tea time in the afternoon. Travancore was also linked up with the rest of India by the connection established with the All-India Trunk Telephone system. The increasing popularity of trunk calls is evidenced by the steady rise in their number from 50 in August 1939 to 3,200 in August 1941. The available figures go to show that in the present year there were 35,102 trunk calls within the State, 5,101 calls were transmitted beyond and 10,074 were received from outside the State.

332. Thanks to the electrification of most of the towns, radio news from all important broadcasting stations outside is easily available in most of the high-class homes in urban areas and the installation of a 5 K.W. Medium Wave Station in Trivandrum towards which mechanical work is now in full swing and for which a wave length of 455.926 meters has been allotted by the Government of India will place the metropolis of the State on the broadcasting map of the world and be of incalculable value in a multiplicity of ways.

333. The agricultural, industrial and commercial activities of the State were given a spur by the supply of Hydro-electric power and the consequent facilities for telephone communications between important centres in Travancore and the rest of India. The Pallivasal Hydro-Electric Project, which is becoming the nerve-centre of the whole mechanism of electrification in the State and the mainspring of much of progressive economic activity in the future was completed at a capital cost of Rs. 152.16 lakhs. It utilises the falls of river Muthirapula, a feeder of river Periyar. The diversion of water at Munnar through a two-mile tunnel makes available a head of 1990 ft. The scheme was brought into commercial service in 1940 by transmitting power to the plains at 66,000 volts of double circuit lines from five major sub-stations,

viz., Kothamangalam, Alwaye, Pallam, Mavelikara and Kundara. The revision of tariff and sale of electric motors on the hire purchase system contributed to further utilisation of electric power for agricultural and industrial purposes. Demonstrations were made in various centres of the advantages of using electric power in oil mills, sugar-cane and match industries and in lift-irrigation, besides for printing, lighting, telephonic and radio purposes also. Current-supply to three points in the Cochin State, *viz.*, Ernakulam, Chowwara and Trichur has begun and projects are in operation for extension of the line to Trivandrum and Nagercoil, on the one hand, and Pirmode on the other. It is also hoped to make electric power specially useful to the textile and aluminium factories besides for the starting of new factories in various centres. The farmer in the field, the planter in the estate, the manufacturer in the factory, the worker in the cottage as well as the merchant in the shop is sure to be economically benefited by the electrification of urban and rural areas as envisaged by the scheme and thus the new programme of industrialisation will, in the fullest sense of the term, be a "*fait accompli*".

334. It may be remembered at this juncture that any programme of industrialisation, if it should be beneficial to the whole State, must essentially be based on previous planning on a comprehensive scale, so as to press fully into service and link mutually into harmony, all the different agencies of economic endeavour. In all planned economy, whatever be the duration of the period bargained for, whether it is a five-year or ten-year plan, a well thought out and carefully planned system of communications is the prerequisite for a forward industrial programme. This must be so designed as to facilitate the transport of raw materials and manufactured articles to different centres in the quickest possible time at the cheapest possible rate. The products of the hill and the forest, the mine and the quarry, the farm and the field, the cottage and the factory could then find prompt transmission to the most profitable market at home or abroad.

335. The mechanism of trade always functions like a see-saw, gravitating one way or the other in response to the shifting of weightage which is largely determined by the combined effects of quickness, cheapness and safety of transport. Time was when this State had a practical monopoly of the carrying trade of South India. Her inability to keep pace with the increasing modernisation of transport in the 19th century when the railway system was developed in the territories beyond the Ghats, was largely responsible for the loss of this monopoly. Strenuous attempts have been made since then to regain lost ground. If the industrialisation of the State is viewed from this background, it will be possible for every patriotic Travancorean to realise the 'debt immense of endless gratitude' he owes to those who were responsible for the planning and execution of the Pallivasal Hydro-Electric Scheme, the Neriyanangalam—Pallivasal Road, the Sherthala—Aroor Road, the Neendakara, Alwaye, and Neriyanangalam Bridges, the improvement of the Alleppey and Trivandrum piers and various other projects, some completed, others in the course of completion and quite a few still under consideration.

336. The industrial development of the State, fraught with such great possibilities, is embodied in the gracious speech of our beloved Maharaja at the opening of the Rubber Factory in 1935, wherein is envisaged the industrial future of the State in words which will be an inspiration to every patriotic Travancorean:—

"Travancore being mainly an agricultural State the extension of cultivation is subject to various natural limitations, but the needs of a growing population demand a supplementing of our income and our resources by the encouragement of industrial pursuits, more particularly as we possess an abundant supply of raw materials and are able to command cheap labour and transport facilities, not to mention the electric power which is available in sufficient quantities and which will provide the requisite energy.....
..... I want no slums in my big cities. I want

no wrangling between employers and labour and what has been described as exploitation of labour by capitalists. These are some of the mistakes I want to avoid in Travancore. My idea is to set up a net work of cottage industries linked with one another. We shall use "white coal" and by tapping our rivers provide the cheap electrical energy we require so much for our cottage industries." The foundation being thus well laid the coming decades are bound to register a steady and rapid progress along the lines chalked out with such wonderful vision and keen foresight.

337. The rise of a country to its full economic stature is determined primarily by the scope of unlimited employment for its adult population in the pursuit of the different means of livelihood, whether arts or crafts, trades or professions. So its educational system has to adapt itself as much to its economic needs as to its cultural requirements. In occupations involving mere muscular effort, such as those of clod-hoppers or spade-workers, hewers of wood or drawers of water, the development of a good physique is considered sufficient as an occupational training, sometimes with just an additional knowledge of the three R's. But education meant for better types of workmen, is always given a vocational bias after a certain stage, though in Japan, Germany and Russia this latter aspect is given predominant consideration in the training of the young. This State with its numerous technical schools, professional colleges or diploma and apprenticeship courses, has always been anxious to open various avenues of employment to all its literates and qualified adults. With many in this country, the economic motive is paramount in the expenditure incurred in a child's education, which is looked upon as an investment of as much monetary value as an outlay in the cultivation of some crop or capital shelled out to finance some industrial concern or commercial undertaking. The middle classes which have recorded the highest percentage of literacy in the State do not hesitate to hazard the sale or mortgage of the entire bulk of

their family wealth in seeing their children through schools and colleges, though many of the dullards or sluggards among those attending colleges literally impoverish their families by their tardiness to secure the necessary qualification to procure a suitable job. The higher the amount spent on such education, the fatter the salary a son or nephew is expected to earn and the lesser the dowry the daughter or niece is supposed to claim. In such a state, therefore, it will be nothing short of a tragedy if unemployment or underemployment should be found to exist to any considerable extent especially among the highly educated.

338. In Soviet Russia where the scare of unemployment is said to be non-existent, the slogan "a job for every hand and a hand for every job" is of as much significance as the device of choosing and using the right man for the right job at the right time, to eliminate the possibility of fixing up a misfit. Nothing can spell so much of wastage for any country as the unfulfilled potentialities of its qualified youth who rot away or loaf about in a state of "chronic unemployment" which leads to deterioration of talent and therefrom even to criminal propensities. What is vaguely called 'unrest', without anything definite or specific about it, may very often be traced to the unwholesome influence of the 'chronic' educated unemployed, who, having knocked at every door and found each barred and bolted, develop a sort of cynicism whereby they cherish contempt for every institution, irrespective of its effects beneficial or otherwise upon society. If this category of the unemployed should record a progressive increase, it must spell danger to any state or society however well-governed or organised it might be. Here is a field for the educational reformer and the social worker. They could put their heads together and devise a system of education which would segregate, even from the earlier stages, those who are almost certain to develop into misfits in society. The psychologist may perhaps ween them off even in their earlier years and organise a course for them, adapted to their mediocre or perverted talent, without giving them an opportunity to race with

the rest and claim a place for having been in the category of "also ran". If it is at all possible to effect this elimination by crying halt to the policy of mass production in higher education the difficult problem of educated unemployment could be tackled in a more satisfactory and effective manner.

339. An aspirant or an applicant for a job may often miss it through sheer ignorance of a vacancy either at hand or in some far off place. The provision of an "Unemployment Bureau" may mitigate the evil to some extent. In some cases the cause of unemployment may be indifference or indolence due to the dullness of the prospects ahead. But more often than that, the lack of push or pluck manifest in cases of continued "unemployment", must be put down to the diffidence that arises from unfavourable environments or lack of opportunity. Though the avenues of employment open to the educated are far more numerous in western countries, yet even in this State there are several professional doors open to qualified candidates in public service, besides in such private institutions as firms and banks, shops and factories, schools and dispensaries, railway and motor transport, estates, commercial or insurance concerns etc. Still the number of those that prefer the "wanted" columns in current journals to the leading article or news headlines is legion. Foreign service has naturally absorbed the most pushful elements in local talent but it is the lot of the survivors, whom circumstances pin down to the native soil, merely to add to the encumbrance of others which they are unable to relieve. Just before the last decade the problem of unemployment, consequent on the prevalence of economic depression, occasioned such acute distress as to necessitate the institution of a special Unemployment Committee to investigate and report.

340. In the last decade the same problem assumed a new garb in the shape of an organised movement for the distribution of Government posts in proportion to the numerical strength of the different communities. To assure a just and

equitable distribution of posts in public service, by which each deserving section could enjoy proportional representation, a Public Service Enquiry Committee was instituted. Upon its recommendation a Public Service Commissioner was appointed to see to the proper distribution of appointments in the lower, intermediate and higher cadres partly by competitive examinations and partly by the principle of communal rotation so that the claims of sectional representation might be satisfied without detriment to the requirements of efficiency in public service.

341. Another problem of kindred interest that cropped up in the last decade was the competition of women with men in the field of qualified employment. The high percentage of female literacy and the rapid spread of collegiate and technical education among females rendered this possible. Whereas in the previous decennium the women employees in public service were honoured with an enhanced scale of salaries as a measure of encouragement deserved by the paucity of their numbers, the claim of equality to the stronger sex made by the fairer one in the present decade was conceded by Government in the shape of an equalisation of salaries of males and females in all grades and cadres, and also in the enhancement from half to three-fourths of the instructional fees of school and college girls. One may possibly venture to envisage a period in no distant future when women may even suffer if not demand a lowering of their salaries to facilitate their preference in public service as the number of qualified hands among them increases further still. Such an innovation would make for uniformity in the generally accepted principle of the cheapness of female labour in all walks of life. At any rate Eve in modern Travancore seems to have taken her cue rather from her English and American prototypes than from the Frauen of Germany or the Signoras of Italy among whom feminine role in life seems to take after the late ex-Kaiser's famous dictum that every woman should be strictly confined to her three fold province of church, children and kitchen

instead of being permitted to oust the men folk from the domain of employment by their unwarranted incursions.

{ 342. The Census study of the problem of unemployment has, therefore, to be made with special reference to educated unemployment among males as well as females, illiterate, literate and qualified, in the various age-groups.

343. In 1931 unemployment statistics were collected by a special schedule along with the preliminary enumeration. Though it was an admitted failure from the All-India point of view, the returns registered with regard to this State were productive of comparatively better results despite its numerous shortcomings. In the present census with a view to make the unemployment enquiry more comprehensive and accurate, the questions pertaining to the same were incorporated in the general enumeration card itself. The tabulated results of the enquiry are presented in Imperial Table X. The relative inaccuracy of the figures in the last Census renders their comparison with those of the present one of doubtful statistical value.

344. Before proceeding to a discussion of the unemployment trends revealed by the returns, three limitations have to be pointed out regarding the basis of the statistics collected, for any discussion of figures without a clear grasp of the definitions intended would lead to erroneous conclusions.

345. In the first place it has to be emphasised that only absolute unemployment was taken into account at this Census since a widening of the scope of the investigation would have involved complications of an inextricable nature. By 'unemployment' was meant the entire absence of a means of livelihood for the individual. Students and married women were obviously left out of consideration since they cannot in the nature of things be said to be unemployed. So also pensioners who have a definite and regular

means of livelihood, could not be reckoned among the unemployed despite their cessation from gainful activity as of old. One exception has, however, to be made for a specific reason and cannot, therefore be ignored in passing. Whereas married women generally running their households or idling at home without having to seek a job for themselves were not considered unemployed, many educated wives who really aspired to some special employment consistent with their qualification were considered as unemployed. For example, when an educated wife returned herself under question No. 9 (c) as seeking employment, she was put down as "unemployed".

346. Secondly, no figures have been collected for under-employment or seasonal unemployment. In order to avoid any ambiguity that the definition might involve, questions were specially asked as to whether one was seeking an employment and if so for how long. Under-employment also contributes to the potential loss to the State caused by general unemployment. But since it is an anomalous procedure to group persons employed for a few weeks, in the same category as those working throughout the year, such cases of seasonal unemployment were left out of account. Incidentally it may be mentioned that the only means of securing accurate information about all aspects of the problem is a correct system of registration.

347. The third limitation pertains to the age-grouping of the unemployed adopted in the scheme of tabulation. In the preparation of Imperial Table X persons outside the age-group 16-40 were left out of the calculation. Though it was also not made compulsory to tabulate figures for the two sexes separately, the keen competition of the women of Travancore with their menfolk in the field of unemployment, already pointed out above, necessitated a separate tabulation. It may also be remembered at the outset that the unemployment figures published in the table may not give an accurate idea of the phenomenon technically termed

“hidden unemployment” alluded to and elucidated in a former section.

348. It was pointed out in a previous connection that by deducting the total number of workers in the State from the number in the 15-50 age-group of the population, the figure for the unemployed could be roughly computed to be 686,832 or 23.42 per cent. According to Imperial Table X the total number in the State returned as unemployed (literate as well as illiterate, in the age-group 16-40) is 140,707 of whom 77,890 are males and 62,817 are females. These numbers form 6 per cent of the 16-40 age-group of the population. The subjoined table sets forth the percentage of unemployment in certain important countries. Of the total unemployed, the literate (including those with some recognised qualification) number 93,754, i. e., 67 per cent. This proves that the incidence of unemployment is widest and the problem most

Country	Percentage of Unemployment 1940 (Age-group not specified.)
1. Australia	8.1
2. Canada	14.5
3. U. S. A.	18.6
4. Japan	3.0
5. Netherlands	19.3
6. United Kingdom	
Permanent	6.0
Temporary	0.7
Travancore 1941 (for 16-40 age-group)	6.0

acute among the educated section of the population. The reason is obvious. Whereas the illiterate readily take to the plough or the tool for some unskilled labour to eke out an honest living, the literate persons fight shy of such manual occupations as derogatory to their dignity. It may be mentioned, however, that a change is noticeable by which “the dignity of labour” is slowly ceasing to be merely platform politics and becoming more and more a matter of practical application with the educated youth of the country owing to various influences, social, political and economic.

349. A study of the age-groups of the generally unemployed persons and the proportions in

each group of those who have been seeking employment for more than one year is facilitated by the subjoined table.

Age-group.	Proportion in the age-group to the total unemployed per mille.			Proportion per mille of unemployed in the age-group who were seeking employment.		
	State.	Lowland.	Midland.	Highland.	Less than 1 year.	More than 1 year.
16-20	612	596	641	509	136	364
21-25	218	219	210	237	139	361
26-30	95	101	83	135	154	340
31-35	45	50	38	63	150	341
36-40	32	34	28	56	143	357
Total	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	140	386

350. It can be reckoned therefrom that about 83 per cent. of the total unemployed are in the 16-25 age-group, and the inclusion within its fold of the 26-30 age-group, would raise the percentage to 92. Among the Natural Divisions the Highland registers the highest percentage of unemployed in the 26-40 age-group. Probably older persons are in less demand in those areas. It is also seen that of the total number of unemployed 52.7 per cent. are in the Lowland, 43.3 per cent. in the Midland and 4.0 per cent. in the Highland. The high proportion in the Lowland argues the higher pressure of population in that region. The last two columns of the table above specify the proportion of those in each age-group who are unemployed for less or more than one year. The last column indicates the proportion of what can be called “chronic unemployment”. It is found that 360 per mille are unemployed for more than one year and 140 per mille for less than one year. A comparison of these proportions with regard to the age-groups reveals that the unemployed of less than one year's standing increase in proportion up to the 35th age after which there is a fall. This shows how the number of those who were temporarily employed before the census period is relatively higher in the 26-35 age-group.

351. In the ranks of the unemployed, there is naturally a preponderance of males. The sex-ratio for the State is 806 females per 1,000 males. In the various age-groups the ratios reveal interesting variations (*vide* subjoined table).

It is seen to rise with advancing age after the 25th. In the 36-40 group females even exceed

Age-group.	Females unemployed per 1,000 males unemployed.
16—20	821
21—25	724
26—30	792
31—35	890
36—40	1,079

males. For the State as a whole, the sex-ratio is 806. It is highest in the Highland (1,158), less in the Lowland (804) and lowest in the Midland (782).

352. The problem of educated unemployment demands a separate study. The number of the literate unemployed has already been pointed out to be 93,754 and of these 79,453 have no recognised qualification for entry in public service. Those who have studied up to the middle school standard either in English or in Malayalam or Tamil constitute the majority of the educated unemployed. It will be interesting to compare proportions of the educated unemployed in each age-group to the total unemployed in the group (*vide* subjoined table). It will be seen that the proportion

Age-group	Proportion to total unemployed (per mille)		
	Illiterate	Literate but with no certified qualification	Having recognised qualification (including middle school)
16—20	289	641	70
21—25	347	479	174
26—30	431	423	146
31—35	511	389	100
36—40	561	363	76
All ages	334	565	101

of the illiterate unemployed becomes larger in the higher age-groups and that there is a corresponding decrease in the literate unemployed with no certified qualification. This is explained by the increasing proportions of literacy recorded

from year to year. Among the educationally qualified unemployed the highest proportion is maintained in the 21—25 age-group.

353. An examination of the numbers recorded under the various qualificational categories leads to more accurate findings. The total number of educationally qualified without employment is 14,301. The proportion of distribution under the main qualifications is given in the subjoined table. It will be seen therefrom that

Description	Actual number	Proportion per mille
Total	14,301	1,000
1 English Middle School	5,062	554
2 Malayalam and Tamil Do.	3,065	214
3 Malayalam and Tamil Higher	1,146	80
4 E. S. L. C.	3,680	257
5 Intermediate	425	30
6 Graduates	499	35
7 Other Degree and Diplomas	424	30

67 per cent. of the qualified unemployed are drawn from the Middle school group and 34 per cent. from the E. S. L. C. and Malayalam and Tamil Higher groups together. Intermediates constitute only 3 per cent. The low percentage in this case must be attributed to the fact that most of them continue to be students whether 'Septembrians' or 'Marchers' without actively trying for employment until they eventually lose all hopes of securing some degree or other. Graduates and other degree or diploma holders comprise only 6.5 per cent. The inauguration of the State Transport Department which has absorbed into its higher cadres quite a large number of graduates and the exodus of a good many for war or quasi-war service abroad must be held responsible for this. The ennoblement of motor conductorship, police constabulary and soldiering by the condescension of more and more graduates to betake themselves to these domains has been a laudable feature of the present decade.

354. The subjoined table will show the various age-groups in which the major proportion of the unemployed persons with each qualification can be found. It will be seen that the largest number among those with Middle School qualifications are in the 16-20 age-group. Among

Qualifications	Age Groups				
	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40
1. English Middle School	453	349	127	46	25
2. Malayalam and Tamil Middle School	493	332	106	41	28
3. Matriculate or E. S. L. C.	384	401	152	43	20
4. Malayalam and Tamil Higher	517	392	65	16	10
5. Intermediate	245	402	249	66	38
6. Graduate	104	461	307	96	32
7. Other Degrees and Diplomas (including Oriental)	297	396	203	59	45

E. S. L. C's the mode is shifted to the 21-25 age-group though in the lower age-group also large numbers are recorded. Among the Graduate and Intermediate unemployed the proportions are higher in the higher age-groups when compared to the E. S. L. C's. The statistics go to show that the incidence of unemployment is greatest among the English educated perhaps due to their innate aversion to work with those who are illiterate.

355. It is interesting to compare the sex-ratio of the qualified as well as those without any recognised qualification among the literate unemployed. The subjoined table sets forth the relevant figures.

Age-group	Females per 1,000 males	
	Literate without recognised qualification	Qualified for service
16-20	741	406
21-25	678	236
26-30	794	183
31-35	776	242
36-40	787	201

356. It will be seen that among the qualified unemployed the sex-ratio is much less than among the unqualified literates. It may also be noticed that among the former there is a general tendency for the ratio to decrease with age, while among the latter it tends to increase with age. This is a commendable feature. The

educationally qualified females are thus found to have far better chances of employment than females who have no recognised qualification and in this respect their prospects are practically three times better than those of the qualified male unemployed. The exact degree of difference in prospects between the two sexes in the different qualifications can be gauged from the following table. It will be apparent that there is a

Qualifications	Sex-ratio of unemployed females per 1,000 males
1. English Middle School	367
2. Malayalam and Tamil Middle School	345
3. Malayalam and Tamil Higher	246
4. E. S. L. C.	210
5. Intermediate	211
6. Graduates	208

progressive decline in the sex-ratio with the rise in the qualification recorded. The decrease in the female unemployed in proportion to the rising scale in their qualification is an encouraging feature for which two reasons can be assigned, viz., the smaller number of qualified females than males and the encouragement given to females in the matter of recruitment to service.

357. The present war has led to the absorption into service abroad, of thousands of men, mostly young and educated, in the ranks of the army, navy, air force and the clerical line, besides as war technicians, mechanists, drivers, road builders, tailors, teachers and doctors. Nor is the number inconsiderable, of the educated young women getting themselves enrolled as nurses, red-cross and ambulance workers. Though this exodus of so much of the working element will temporarily alleviate the distress of unemployment, the prospect of their return after the war threatens to revive, accentuate and perpetuate the acuteness of the problem which fortunately does not press for an immediate solution. The inauguration of the Travancore University, from whose portals hundreds of qualified young men and women may emerge every year in quest of professional opportunities, is likely to intensify the difficulty. Critics are not even now wanting

who cast their animadversions upon schools and colleges for indiscriminately reinforcing the already swollen ranks of the army of unemployed in the State. It has, however, to be remembered that educational institutions, while they no doubt are expected to give technical and vocational training also, are primarily meant to impart a liberal and cultural education to the young. A case could therefore be made out for mass production in Colleges. The solution to the unemployment problem has to be threshed out rather between government and society than to

be solved by educational bodies. While the newly adumbrated programme of industrialisation is likely to provide more employment for the educated element, an elaborate scheme of public works will in far greater measure, relieve the pressure of unemployment among the masses in general. At any rate, the institution of a Bureau of Information is called for by the situation to gather and disseminate statistical and other information to enlighten the thousands that grope in the dark for changes or chances that would open the door of employment to them.

CULTURAL

358. The satisfaction of economic wants implied in the pursuit of a means of livelihood postulates the measurement of welfare in terms of wealth, and prosperity in terms of material sufficiency. But it is only the higher cravings of the mind and spirit that can spell real greatness or happiness however much one's lot may otherwise be bettered. To one who cultivates the art of living an enlightened life, such "goods in life's rich hand" as the yearning for the divine, the sense of oneness with one's kind, the thirst to know and understand, the gains of science and the gifts of art, do elevate the cultural above any occupational efforts or effects. As for this State, while her occupational trends may very well determine her claim to be considered a rich country, it is her cultural progress that should bid fair to make her a great State. The unity she is able to evolve out of her diversity of creeds and customs, thanks primarily to the pre-eminence she enjoys in India in the incidence of literacy, than which a better background for a liberal education and catholicity of outlook can scarcely be imagined, may rightly be put down as the criterion of her cultural advancement.

359. The geographical unity and historical continuity traced in the opening pages gave political stability to the State. Happily enough,

political vicissitudes failed to effect the least change in the political allegiance of the several communities. The Hindus who were converted to the Christian or Islamic faith, still continued to live in peace and amity with their brethren who did not adopt the new creeds. Nor was such proselytisation productive of any tangible alteration in the structure of society as a whole. On the other hand the Hindus, the Christians, and the Muslims, lived on as of old as a homogeneous community with common aims and aspirations. The munificent grants made by the Hindu rulers and the Hindu aristocracy to those who professed other faiths for building new houses of worship, whether churches or mosques, were but the manifestation of a cultural inheritance which transcended the narrow limits of religious intolerance and bigotry. The contact with the new faiths served only to broaden further still such a liberal outlook and the cultural unity which has thus been evolved constitutes a heritage of incalculable value and significance.

360. The question may well be raised as to how such a cultural fusion could have been rendered possible so effectively in a State where caste and custom have reigned supreme for so long. The answer is found in the rapid spread of literacy in the land and the healthy reactions

it produced both in the religious and the social spheres. The diffusion of liberal ideas among the masses through the spread of a uniform system of education tended to broaden their outlook and while in the social sphere this liberalisation conduced towards the evolution of a rational cosmopolitanism, in the field of religion it sapped the very foundations of bigotry and fanaticism that too often find violent expression elsewhere in India in irreconcilable conflicts between different creeds or various denominations professing the same faith. It stands highly to the credit of this State that literacy and education have been able to exercise so salutary an influence on the social and religious life of the people as to make every community live and let live in perfect freedom of conscience and mutual respect as well as forbearance.

361. At the very outset it has to be remembered that the basic factor underlying the progress of the State along this line is the very keen interest evinced throughout her history by the Sovereigns in the education of their subjects. Cultural influences have indeed spread down from the rulers to the ruled. The Sovereigns themselves being carefully educated and highly cultured, always munificently patronised art and letters and spent more on education than on anything else pertaining to public weal, and while spontaneously practising toleration themselves, were ever solicitous about the prevalence of tolerance among their subjects. Above all, being enlightened scholars and savants and lovers of science and art they were best fitted to be the leading lights of a land ever ready to welcome to its hospitable homes many a refugee or victim from abroad, seeking sanctuary from religious persecution which has blackened so much the history of other parts of India but whose shadows have never been cast over the bright annals of this State.

362. An attempt is made in the following pages to set forth, with special emphasis on the trends and tendencies of the last decade statistically revealed by the census returns, the rate of

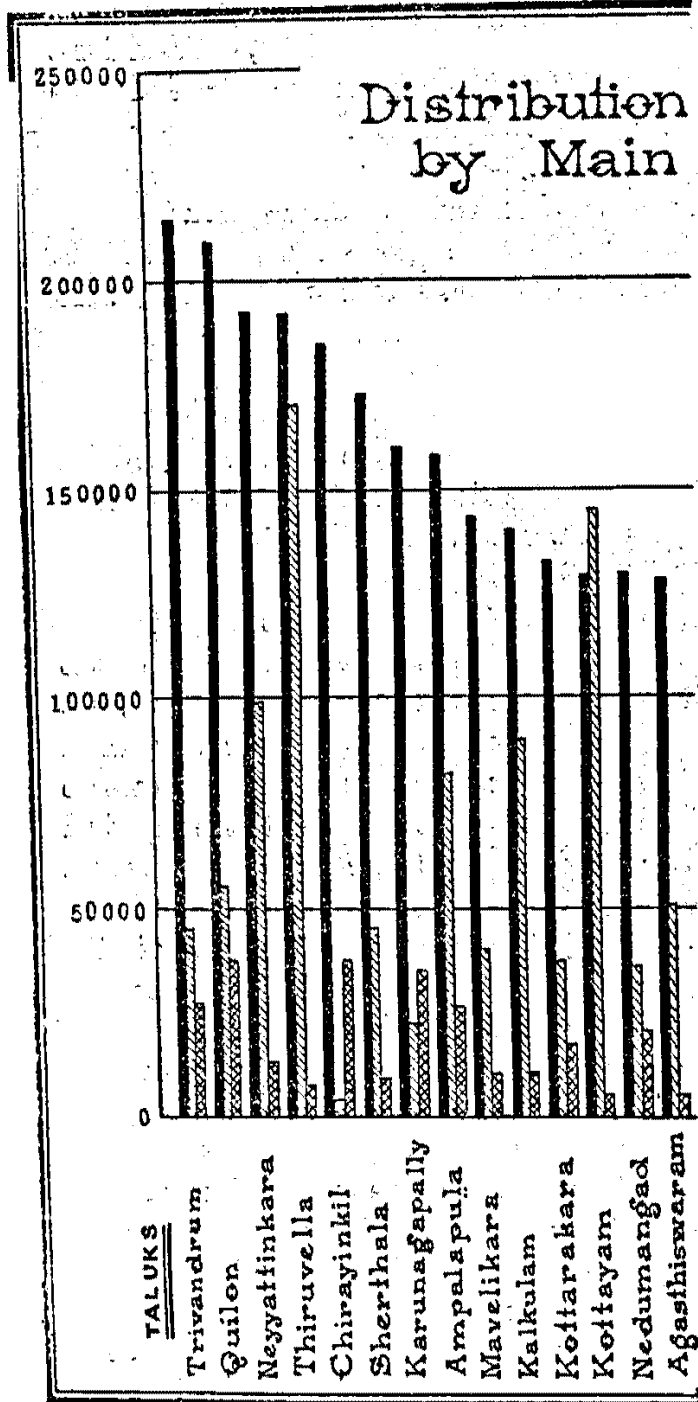
growth of the major communities in the State, their cultural progress from convention and tradition towards rational cosmopolitanism, the problem of language distribution, the progress of literacy and education among them as causes contributing to the change, the efflorescence of fine art in recent years as an expression of the instinct for cultural preservation and lastly the bright cultural future of the State that could be envisaged from the rate of present development.

363. The major communities in the State are the Hindus, the Christians and the Muslims. The Jews, the Jains, the Sikhs, the Buddhists and the Parsees together number only 481 while the religion of 99 persons has not been specified of whom 79, enumerated on board a ship, were returned as Chinese. Before 1901 tribal religionists had been grouped along with the Hindus. In the last four censuses they were recorded separately, their number being however, found steadily to decrease each time. In 1921 they numbered 12,637 but in 1931 only 2,907 persons returned themselves under tribal religion though the numerical strength of the total tribal population was 128,838. The rest had obviously been absorbed partly in the Hindu and partly in the Christian fold, as is evidenced by the fact that in the present census 97 per cent. of the Tribes have returned themselves as Hindus, the rest as Christians and none under any tribal religion whatever. The complete disappearance of the tribal religionists is due to their gradual absorption into the major religions. Development of easy means of communication resulting in increasing migration and settlement of the Tribes in the plains has considerably facilitated this process. The inclusion of the Tribes among the Hindus in the census operations of the last century as well as their actual absorption into the Hindu fold in vast numbers in recent years might have been due to the close affinity of tribal forms of worship to Hindu rituals. The polytheistic conception underlying the tribal religion was essentially Hindu in character. Naturally enough, the Pulaya, the Muthuvan, the Malayarayan, the Mannan and the Kanikkaran

originally worshipping some indefinable power or spirit supposed "to reside in the primeval forest, in the crumbling hills, in the rushing river or in the spreading tree" slowly took to the more refined aspects of popular Hinduism and accepted as titular deities, Sastha, Subramonya, Kali or Meenakshi, Gods and Goddesses of the Hindu pantheon who are often associated with hills and forests. In the later stages of evolution when the idea of religion took a more concrete shape proselytising them into other

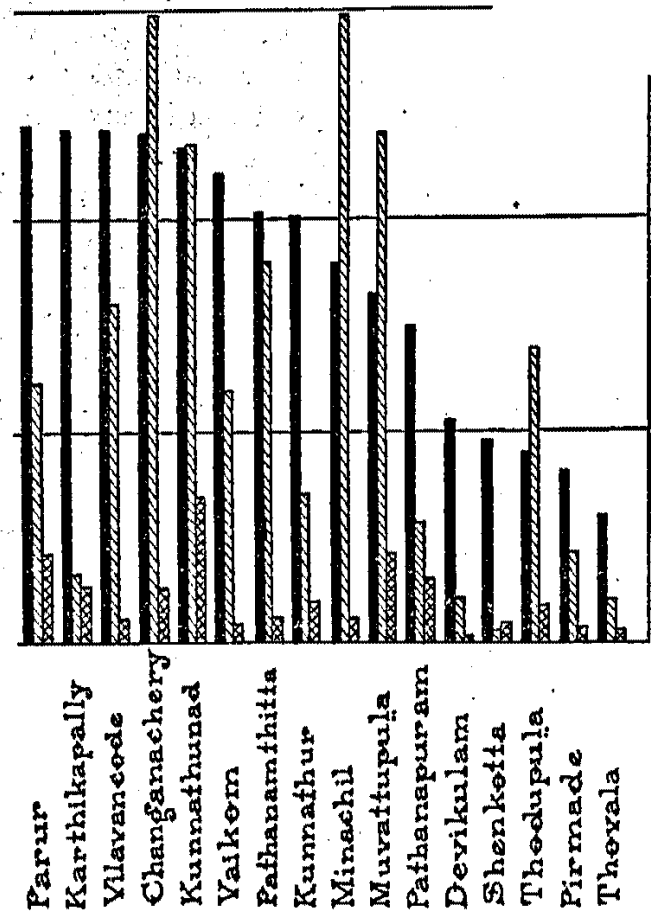
faiths must have become easy. In the discussions that follow, therefore, tribal religion is not given separate consideration, since of the 132,682 persons enumerated under Tribes, 129,081 have returned themselves as Hindus, and 3,601 as Christians.

364. The statistics relating to community are contained in Imperial Table XIII and Subsidiary Tables (i) to (iii). In the present Census the Hindus number 3,671,480, including Tribes, the Christians,



of Population Community

Hindu
 Christian
 Muslim



1,963,808 including Tribes, the Muslims, 434,150 and the others 580. Out of every 10,000 of the population, 6,049 are Hindus, 3,235 Christians and 715 Muslims. The other religionists constitute only 1 in every 10,000. The diagram on the previous page shows the distribution of the population by main Community in the various taluks.

365. The percentages in the Administrative and Natural Divisions are given in the subjoined table. With the absorption of the High Range

State and Division.	Number per cent. of the population who are		
	Hindus	Christians,	Muslims
STATE	60.5	32.8	7.2
Administrative Divisions			
Southern	67.7	25.0	7.3
Central	68.3	25.9	7.8
Northern	46.9	47.0	6.1
Natural Divisions			
Lowland	67.5	24.1	8.4
Midland	53.7	40.4	5.9
Highland	60.9	32.0	7.1

Division into the Northern, the percentage for the Hindus in the latter has averaged down to 46.9 as against 75.7 and 49.6 of the corresponding areas in 1931. In the Natural Divisions, the Hindus maintain their numerical superiority while in the Administrative Divisions their strength has been equalised in the Northern to that of the Christians, consequent on the amalgamation of the Revenue Divisions. The distribution of the Muslim population does not show any marked difference from that of 1931.

366. The Muslims seem to evince a distinct preference for urban life. Agriculture has been the main occupation of the Christian, his preference for urban life being a more recent development, perhaps on account of the greater attractions offered for the investment of his surplus or on account of the diminishing returns from his fields and pastures. The commercially inclined Muslims preferred the towns along the coast for carrying on their trade and moved into the interior in small numbers later on, when, through political consolidation general security was

guaranteed. The Hindus distributed themselves fairly equally in the urban and rural areas and might have shown a slight bias for the towns on account of opportunities afforded for an official or professional career which their education and preference for letters had opened out with the establishment of a centralised Government.

367. The percentages of the major communities to the total population at the different censuses from 1816 onwards are set forth in the subjoined table.

Year	Hindus and Tribal religion.	Christians.	Muslims.
	Percentage to total population	Percentage to total population.	Percentage to total population.
1816-20	83.0	12.4	4.6
1875	73.6	20.3	6.1
1881	73.1	20.8	6.1
1891	73.2	20.6	6.2
1901	69.9	23.6	6.5
1911	67.0	26.4	6.6
1921	64.0	29.3	6.7
1931	61.6	31.5	6.9
1941	60.5	32.3	7.2

368. From 1820, the date of the first census to 1941 the total population of the State has increased 6.7 times, Hindus 4.9, Christians 17.5 and Muslims 10.3. The rate of increase of the Muslims has been steady during the intercensal periods. The larger increase of Christians must have been due to their proselytising activities. Their conversion work must have been done mainly among the Hindus as is evident from the variations in the percentages of both communities. In the last decade the Hindus have recorded an increase of 17 per cent. the Christians 22.4 per cent. and Muslims 22.9 per cent. If the proportion is calculated on every 10,000 from 1901 to 1941 it could be seen that throughout the succeeding censuses the proportionate strength of the Hindus has been declining while the Christians and the Muslims have been recording a rise. Whereas in 1901 these two communities combined did not constitute even 50 per cent. of the Hindu population, in the present census their strength has worked up to 65 per cent. Throughout the four decades of

the present century taken together the proportion of Hindus to total population has decreased by 13'5 per cent. while the proportion of Christians has increased by 36'9 and that of the Muslims by 10'8.

369 Besides a study of the comparative strength of the major communities and the relative proportion of their decennial variation, a separate study of each of them is necessary to understand their individual trends. The Hindus are numerically the strongest. Their rate of growth however, has always been less than that of the State population, as can be seen from the subjoined figures.

Rate of decennial increase per cent.		
Decade.	Aggregate population.	Hindus.
1901—1911	16·2	12·1
1911—1921	16·8	11·7
1921—1931	27·2	23·0
1931—1941	19·1	17·0*

*Including Tribes.

370 In the explanation of this difference, several factors like fertility, conversions and immigration have to be taken into account. It has not been possible this time to estimate the net immigration to Travancore as figures were not available from the neighbouring British Indian Provinces and other parts of India. During the decade conversions to other religions have definitely declined. This can be inferred from a comparison of the proportion of the Hindus with that of the Christians and Muslims in the last decade. During recent years conversion to Hinduism has been a special feature. The Kerala Hindu Mission alone claims that they have converted over 80,000 persons to the Hindu fold. In spite of this, Hindus have not been able to come up to the rate of increase of the other communities.

371. Considering distribution by Taluks it can be seen that Shenkotta records the highest proportion of Hindus with a percentage of 87·9. Next to it, comes Devikulam with 81·4 per cent. At the bottom of the scale stands Minachil with 36·1 per cent.

372. Hinduism has shown a fund of adaptability in Travancore as compared to the rest of India. The generous toleration of the Travancore rulers and the lack of fanaticism in the followers of the Hindu faith made it possible not only for the different schools of Hindu thought but also the exponents of other religions like Jainism and Buddhism, to have unrestricted influence on the masses. The people switched themselves on, as it were, from one form of religious worship to another without any official or religious pressure from above. This is a peculiar phenomenon in the religious life of the people of this Land of Charity. The Hinduism which has thus been evolved is therefore, a combination of the Dravidian, the Buddhist and the Jain cults influenced at intermittent intervals by the preachings of religious reformers. In it we find a happy blending of the polytheism of the Dravidian, the lofty Vedantism of the Upanishad, the Ahimsa of the Buddhist and the Jain and the diversified views of the several religious reformers who visited the country from time to time from other parts of India.

373. The most ancient forms of religious worship prevalent among the original settlers must have been the Dravidian cult of Nature-worship. The Aryans who immigrated in small numbers might not have felt strong enough to impose their Vedic religion on the Dravidians. By gentle persuasion they must have prevailed upon the Dravidian majority to accept their particular form of worship and thus a modified form of Vedic religion combining in itself both the traits of the Dravidian and Aryan religions came to be professed by the people. The Aryan religion with its worship of Nature in its sublime and imposing aspects is an easy transition from the polytheism of the Dravidian cult. The Vedic cult with its visualisation of the existence of an all-pervading soul behind the diversities of Nature is only a natural development from this stage, though perhaps confined to the cultured few. This slow absorption of the Dravidian into the Aryan cult is apparent in Hinduism as it is practised in Travancore. The Naga worship which was essentially

Dravidian in character was absorbed in the new Hinduism while the worship of Sakti, the Goddess of Energy, probably Vedic in its origin, was accepted by the Dravidian whose religion never lacked virility or force.

374. Successive waves of religious reform also had their repercussions on the faith prevalent in the State. Thus when Vardhamana Mahavira and Sidhartha preached their new-founded faiths, Travancore became receptive of their influences. Buddhism secured a large following and became the prevailing religion from one end of the country to the other during the time of Asoka. Many of the temples dedicated to the various deities along the coast and the Sasta temple on the Western Ghats are vestiges of this Buddhistic influence. Though the new faith was not able to keep its pre-eminent position for long, it left behind permanent landmarks in the form of Hindu worship by bequeathing the God Sasta to the Hindu pantheon. The doctrine of Ahimsa which was an essential feature of Buddhism was incorporated into Hinduism. *Uthsavams* and religious processions which form part and parcel of the Hindu form of worship are essentially Buddhistic in their origin.

375. With the impact of new religious forces Buddhism lost its hold over the people. The advent of the great Sankaracharya, the exponent of the Advaita philosophy was a challenge to the permeating influence of Buddhism. Buddhism stripped of its sublime simplicity was caught in a whirlpool of forms and ceremonies when Sankara appeared on the scene, turned the tide of Buddhist domination and ushered in the era of revived Hinduism with its dogmas and rituals, without at the same time losing its innate liberalism, thereby giving the Hindu the zeal of a missionary and the fanaticism of a new convert. It was no wonder, therefore, that Travancore, the land of his birth, should have come under his influence and be affected by his re-establishment of the supremacy of the Vedic religion. But after Sankara, Hinduism in Travancore was

influenced to a certain extent by the Vaishnavite cult popularised by Ramanujacharya. His teachings became popular and secured a large number of adherents to the Vaishnavite creed throughout the country.

376. The followers of Ramanuja who spread the Vaishnavite cult in Travancore dedicated several temples to Vishnu which are visited by the Vaishnavite pilgrims from all parts of India even to this day. The popularity of the Visishtadvaita philosophists soon gave way to the influence of the followers of Sri Madhwa who stressed the importance of a personal God in the system of Hindu worship in his teachings. The Tulu Brahmans who are ordinarily the priests in most of the temples in Travancore are his followers. Two centuries later Sri Chaitanya the great religious teacher of Bengal visited Travancore. He took with him from Thiruvattar (South Travancore) a rare manuscript, the "*Brahma Samhita*", which he acclaimed as the gospel of Vaishnavism and popularised in North India. The Mahratta religious movement (Pandarpur Movement) also affected Travancore but its influence was confined to the Konkaneese, a small community of people who came to Travancore to escape persecution from the Portuguese.

377. In later days Travancore was subject to the impact of the teachings of Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Dayananda Saraswathi. But their doctrines did not catch the imagination of the people and the Arya Samaj and the Brahmo Samaj have not yet made any appreciable headway in securing recruits. Of the more recent religious movements, the Ramakrishna Mission and the Theosophical Society have secured a small band of followers.

378. The rigours of the caste system and other social customs, which kept large sections of the so-called untouchables down in the social scale, gave an impetus to mass conversion to other faiths, especially Christianity. This was discernible particularly during the 19th century.

When the Hindu faith was thus losing its appeal among a section of the population, Chattampi-swamikal appeared on the scene to shake the Hindu out of his lethargy and give him a purpose and a goal. By his simple life and complete identification with the common folk he rekindled the dying embers of Hindu religion and gave it a position of influence in the direction of human affairs. His was essentially the work of a Reformer with vision and imagination. He propounded the theory that spiritual salvation is possible to the *Grahastha* also and that *Sanyasam* need not identify itself with asceticism. He was mainly responsible for infusing life and vigour into Hinduism which, if it had been permitted to continue in its passivity, would have succumbed to the more definite and concrete faiths which came in later on from abroad and whose followers had tried to enforce it with official sanction and missionary zeal. His personal influence, however, was most potent among the members of his own community. His essential humanity drew round him a band of devoted disciples from other communities also.

379. Sri Narayanaguru Swamikal, the spiritual leader of the Ilavas gave this reform movement a social bias and a practical turn. He gave momentum to the individuality and sense of self-respect which were generated by the wide-spread of education among the masses. The tolerant policy of the State in recognising the legitimate claims of the Backward Communities made his task easy. His activities helped to stem the tide of conversion from the Hindu fold. He built several temples on the West Coast intended primarily for the Ilavas, but open to all classes of people without distinction of caste or creed. A number of Sanyasins were trained to carry on religious propaganda on the lines chalked out by him.

380. The temple is the concrete expression of the philosophies of the Hindu faith. For the Hindu, his devotion, his piety, his faith in an all-pervading force, his resignation to what has

been ordained from above, all these find their expression and their specific realisation in the temple, the abode of the Deity. The temples of Travancore have been consecrated with the objective of symbolising the universality of the Hindu faith. In other parts of Hindu India the attainment of this universality has been made difficult by the clash between the Saivaite and Vaishnavite sects. This unfortunate schism was neither sanctioned by custom nor observed in practice in Hindu religious worship in Travancore. There are numerous temples in the State where within the same *prakaram* shrines have been consecrated to the Gods of the Vaishnavite and the Saivaite cults. In this devotional practice, the Hindu devotee seldom shows a preference for the Vaishnavite or the Saivaite temple.

381. In ancient Travancore the temple had a definite place in the socio-political life of the Hindus. There was hardly a *kara* without its important temple. The Hindu aristocrat was distinguished by his private temple and tank. Even among the ordinary gentry there was hardly a house which did not set apart a portion for religious worship. Where the temple was not maintained by the landlord it was under the management of the *Karakkar*. Temples coming to be under the control of Government is essentially a modern development.

382. Village life then centered round the temple. The *Uthsavam* was the most important event in the year and was looked forward to by the village folk. The fairs which were often associated with these temple festivals were miniature exhibitions, where all the best wares which the village could manufacture and all the greens and grains which the rich soil of the village yielded to the agriculturist were bought and sold.

383. With the temple was also associated the *Kulari*, the academy of physical culture wherein centered the life of the youth of the village. Whatever went by the name of education was

imparted here. The *Asan* of the *Kalari* was acclaimed as the friend, philosopher and guide of the village folk and he was respected and loved alike by the young and the old. The large number of temples (21,658) which Ward and Conner found during their survey in 1820 is evidence of the pervasive influence of the temples in the life of the Hindus of ancient Travancore. Political consolidation changed the venue of the socio-religious life of the people. The lethargy becoming noticeable in Hindu society has been responsible for the neglect of many a temple; and the phenomenal decrease in the number of temples and places of Hindu worship—from 21,658 of 1820 to 9,250 at the close of the last decade is an index of this change.

384. With this decline, the ownership of the Hindu temples became the bone of contention. Political consolidation gave edge to this conflict and ownership of temples became associated with prestige and power in the locality. Temples thereby became more and more secular. With this change arose the special privileges claimed by the Savarnas, perhaps due to kinship with the owners of the temple. Unapproachability and untouchability slowly crept in. The 'low-caste' people were kept aloof and allotted places of prescribed distance. When the masses became more and more educated they resented this treatment and the resentment found expression in the creation of their own temples, where they could worship freely without any such class distinction.

385. In the course of the conflict for the ownership of the temples, the management of several of them became disorderly and the State had in consequence to assume their control and management through the exercise of its paramountcy or 'Melkoima' right. The majority of the temples in course of time came under the management of the State so much so, their administration became a regular function of Government as distinct from their original management by the *Karakkar*. With the spread of English education, a feeling of self-respect asserted itself among the masses along with the desire to

share in the religious life inside the temples permitted to the Savarnas only. The assumption of the management of temples by the State transformed the demand for this privilege into the claim for a right and, together, these forces paved the way for the movement for temple-entry. This assumed shape and proportion and secured the sympathetic support of large numbers of people belonging to the Savarna classes. Solicitous that none of His Highness's subjects should by reason of birth, or caste or community be denied the consolations and solace of the Hindu faith His Highness the Maharaja Sri Chitra Thirunal issued the epoch-making Temple Entry Proclamation on 12th November 1936.

386. The Proclamation which in itself epitomises wonderfully the necessity for and the circumstances which led to its issue is given below:—

"Profoundly convinced of the truth and validity of Our religion, believing that it is based on divine guidance and on an all comprehending toleration, knowing that in its practice, it has, throughout the centuries, adapted itself to the needs of changing times, solicitous that none of Our Hindu subjects should, by reason of birth or caste or community, be denied the consolations and solace of the Hindu faith, We have decided and hereby declare, ordain and command that, subject to such rules and conditions as may be laid down and imposed by Us for preserving their proper atmosphere and maintaining their rituals and observances, there should henceforth be no restriction placed on any Hindu by birth or religion on entering or worshipping at the temples controlled by Us and Our Government."

387. Unapproachability and untouchability which had driven many a Hindu to leave his fold to seek solace in other religions were removed by this proclamation. It arrested the forces of disintegration in Hindu society and must have had its effect both in reducing the number of converts to other religions and in encouraging several of those who had already left Hinduism to come back to the fold. In

Travancore, Hindu religion, with its rigidity and exclusiveness thus relaxed, gave freedom and equality to its followers.

388. One of the distinguishing features of Hindu religion is the caste system. The Hindu society has not yet reached a stage when caste could be ignored altogether; though the rigidity of the caste system has been tempered very much latterly by the influence of political, religious and social considerations. So much has been written on the origin of caste and its development that it is not proposed in this Synoptic Essay to examine the different theories and their applications to caste system in Travancore. The Census Commissioner for India has also expressed the view that "the Census has done all it could ever really produce in the direction of caste study" and that the form of the question in the enumeration card 'Race, Tribe and Caste' was adopted "merely as an administrative measure to facilitate the extraction of details otherwise required." An attempt is, however, made to trace the influences which have helped to break the barriers of caste in the last few years. The most important feature noticeable in this direction is the almost complete elimination of the distance and touch pollution, unapproachability and untouchability. The Hindu reform movements have contributed towards the attainment of this result. The Ramakrishna Mission, the Arya Samajist, the Brahma Samajist and the Theosophist do not recognise caste. The forces which worked towards the demand for Temple Entry, discussed in a previous paragraph, had their influence on this aspect also, the proclamation itself serving to remove the last vestiges of caste exclusiveness.

389. The conservative joint-family preserved and perpetuated the caste system. With its break up in the wake of the numerous pieces of social legislation and the impact of economic changes, the younger generation felt themselves free from the shackles imposed upon them by their dependence on the orthodox joint-family.

390. The Savarnas who were the upholders of the conservative Hindu faith enthusiastically

welcomed the Temple Entry Proclamation which ushered in an era of spiritual revival. The Proclamation paved the way for renewed attempts to consolidate and unite the various communities of the Hindu fold on a basis of tolerance and mutual understanding. Even the Sanatanists who had in the past resisted all changes in the orthodox observances were second to none in applauding the new charter of religious liberty and in co-operating in the fullest measure to implement the spirit of the Proclamation.

391. The secondary and collegiate education which has spread so widely in the last few years has also been partly responsible for undermining the caste system. Besides, the fact of large numbers of people going to foreign countries has contributed to the introduction of cosmopolitanism which accelerated this process. The increasing migration of population from the rural to the urban area, their contact with the members of the casteless creeds and their participation in the various social and official functions have also conduced towards the elimination of caste from the Hindu fold. The facilities provided by the rapid extension of the means of communication in Travancore have made it possible for the town dweller to reach the village in a few hours. This constant contact between town and village has gone a long way towards making caste prejudices and caste restrictions less and less effective in the village.

392. The 'Young Hindu' and other Youth movements gave the Hindu youth an organisation for the propagation of his reformed views and the concrete expression of his individual independence. The Self Respect Movement had also a considerable effect in relaxing the rigidity of the caste system which was more pronounced among the Backward classes than among the Savarnas. The stirrings of a desire for social reform thus permeated the whole society. In the new world, therefore, caste could no longer stand against the aspirations of the young Hindu.

393. The dominating influence of caste has now diminished considerably. Sea-travel is no

longer tabooed even for the orthodox Brahman. The orthodox Brahman and the Adi Dravida sitting side by side at the tea-table or being received with equal honours during social ceremonies is a common sight today. The conventions of the caste system prescribed particular forms of dress for particular castes and the consequent identification of their caste by the dress is no longer insisted upon or even tolerated. A return to simplicity under the influence, partly of economic causes and partly for social and political reasons, has introduced a uniformity of apparel which is most pronounced among the younger generation. This is particularly noticeable among the women folk amidst whom caste conventions had imposed certain restrictions in the matter of the wearing of jewels. Crude and heavy jewellery has now given way to better-cut and more simple-fashioned ornaments. In the matter of personal appearance too, great changes have happened. The Malayali, and for that matter even the younger generation of the orthodox Namputhiris, have discarded the distinguishing mark of the tuft. The Tamil Brahman's tuft has been considerably attenuated, being left at convenient length to satisfy the requirements of orthodoxy.

394. Caste has thus lost much of its significance as an institution perpetuating social exclusiveness. Caste disabilities have been, to a large extent, removed by legislation as well as by administrative measures. Fusion and regrouping have been the immediate results of these changes. The process has been going on in some of the communities without any conscious effort on the part of its members, while in some others it has been brought about by concerted action on the part of the leaders of the most progressive sections. The Nayar and the Ilava come under the first category, the Kammala, the Varnava and the Araya under the second. The Nayars who had recorded 116 sub-castes in 1901 returned themselves only under three caste names in 1931. But even then, the Census Commissioner for 1931

confessed that 'their correctness could not be vouched for.' In spite of the decisions of the Travancore High Court in XIX T. L. J. 30 and XXI T. L. J. 851 that the Velakkithala and Veluthada Nayars are Nayars governed by the Nayar Act, they were shown separately in the last Census. But tendencies in favour of a fusion with the mother sect and a disinclination to maintain a separatist sub-sect were discernible even then. This has developed to a great extent during the last decade. The Chakkala, the Maran, the Velakkithala and Veluthada Nayars who numbered respectively, 12,794, 16,257, 30,603, and 14,878 in 1931 have recorded their numerical strength in 1941 only as 10,026, 5,155, 30,119, and 15,311 respectively. The inference is clear. If all the members belonging to those sub-sects had returned themselves as such in the present Census they would all have shown a proportionate increase and recorded a higher figure in each case. The figures clearly show that a large number of these sub-sects have returned themselves as Nayars this time. For correct statistical presentation, the only method is to total up this number and show the figures returned for each sub-sect as an indication of the changes happening in this community.

395. A similar fusion appears to have been taking place among the Ilavas also, the progress thereof being at an accelerated pace as compared with that of the Nayars. They had recorded themselves as one caste even in 1931 as against 22 sub-divisions of 1891. This must, to a large extent, have been due to the remarkable influence of the socio-religious movement inaugurated by Sri Narayanaguru Swamikal.

396. Identity of occupation has drawn together many a caste which originally held not only distinct caste-names but also preserved mutual exclusiveness. An analogy with the medieval guilds is not sustainable on account of the fact that this combination was not intended to exclude people from the secrets of

the respective professions and maintain a monopoly. It had more a political colouring, of votes carrying the day in representative democracy. The discarding in some cases of the old names and the adoption of new ones also lend support to this view.

397. There is an attempt made to bring under the common name of 'Arayan,' all those who follow the occupation of fishing. From the figures available it is seen that those who have returned themselves as Arayan have increased from 23,380 in 1931 to 33,247 in 1941, thus recording a decennial increase of nearly 50 per cent. Though this lends support to the theory of fusion, yet the Vaïans, who form the next numerically strong community among those who follow the occupation, have not shown any distinct preference to the new name as will be seen from the fact that as many as 23,766 have returned themselves as Valan against 21,172 of 1931. A large majority of the Mukkuvan, the Marakkan and the Chavalakkaran have been converted to Christianity and returned themselves as coming under the several denominations of the Christian religion.

398. In the case of the Varnava the fusion is advocated on the same grounds, *viz.*, identity of occupation. He has shown better organisation and conducted intensive propaganda. But the force of custom seems still to have a hold upon the majority of the community who follow washing as their profession. 4,980 have returned themselves as Varnavas, while the numbers of those who have returned themselves as Vannan, Mannan, Pathiyan and Chayakkaran come to nearly 15,000. It will be clear from these figures that the movement has made only slight headway.

399. Kammaḷas who number 256,673 have increased by nearly 25 per cent. A strenuous attempt is being made by them to bring under the common name of 'Kammaḷa' all those who come under the category of the artisan class. But the figures show that their attempt has not been fully successful as the numerous denominations under which they have been returned during

1931 still maintain their strength and show proportionate increase, though their addition of the suffix 'Kammaḷa' to their particular caste names indicates strong tendencies towards fusion. Their attempt might have been more successful if they had not dissipated their energy by propaganda in trying to give the artisan class a new name 'Viswakarma.' The latter movement has been able to rope in only 5,630 out of a total population of the artisan class numbering up to nearly quarter of a million.

400. Caste has now assumed a new garb. New tendencies with little or no affinity to the old caste scruples or caste exclusiveness have begun to take shape. Owing to the social degradation which the names by usage had acquired, the Pulaya and the Paraya evinced a desire to change their names to Cheramar and Sambavar and with the active sympathy of Christian missionaries started a movement akin in externals to the Self Respect Movement in Tamil Nad. This movement received a distinct set back with the Temple Entry Proclamation. The Hindu Pulaya and the Paraya would now rather have their old names than the new appellations of Cheramar and Sambavar. This is evident from the returns of this Census. Out of a total population of 237,865 Pulayas and 77,382 Parayas, only a negligible number below 2,000 have favoured the new nomenclatures.

401. Another tendency which is discernible is for caste to assume the badge of antiquity. Suitable changes in caste names are made to give a plausible explanation for such assertions. I have received several letters and representations which provide interesting literature on this subject. The Nadar claims Kshatriya origin and descent from the Dravidian Rulers of ancient times. A few among the artisan class trace their descent to Viswakarma. The Cheramars would establish their affinity to the great Perumals.

402. Caste is now in a nebulous condition. Changes are happening in such rapid succession on account of a variety of circumstances that it is impossible to predict now how it will settle.

down after this period of transition. One thing may be safely assumed. The tendency towards fusion may become more and more pronounced and the demarcations between one group and another very much coloured by their political aspirations and the degree of influence each can bring to bear by the weight of its numbers. Increasing literacy has developed social consciousness and a leader with vision and imagination could bring about changes which religious reformers have found it difficult to achieve in the early centuries.

403. A list of all the castes in the State with a numerical strength of 3,000 and above is given in State Table No. IX. No attempt is however made to show the decennial variations in the numbers recorded against the various castes. Such a table would be statistically useless as sufficient reliance could not be placed on the figures for different castes due to changes brought about by fusion, re-grouping and re-naming.

404. At this period of transition when caste has lost much of its original significance, it may not be profitable to give detailed accounts of the origin and characteristics of the different caste-groups. The results of research made in the fields of Ethnography, Anthropology and other allied subjects by persons of the standing of Thurston, Risley, etc., have been embodied in the Report of the Census of 1931. The last decade has added practically nothing to 'caste study' by scholars of repute which demands a revision of the accounts given by my predecessor. Tendencies and developments are more in place in a Synoptic Essay than 'wearisome screeds' on caste question.

405. Numerically the Christians form the second major community in the State. Christianity, like Islam, has been, throughout its history, an essentially missionary religion, enlarging its frontiers as much by conversions from outside as by natural growth from within. But the social and religious homogeneity revealed by the Muslims in the present census returns contrasted

strangely with the bewildering variety of denominations under which the Christians returned themselves; they being outdone in this, only by the caste returns of the Hindus. Though the Muslims had, till the 1931 Census, usually recorded their subdivisions, they designated themselves this time as a single community 'Muslim' with their religion 'Islam'. The Christians, on the other hand, classified themselves under no less than seventy denominations and sects of varying numerical strength. Out of the eight principal subdivisions, six number more than a hundred thousand and two between forty thousand and a hundred thousand. Three out of the rest number between ten thousand and twenty thousand and nine between one thousand and ten thousand. All the others fall below 1,000, forty numbering less than 100. Several of the denominations have all along been progressing steadily under well-established Church organisations, hierarchical or democratic, with their ecclesiastical headquarters in some foreign city such as London, Rome or Antioch. But many more of comparatively recent growth and smaller numbers have also been stealing a march, in their own way, under the spiritual or temporal leadership of clerics or evangelists, gossellers or catechists within the State itself. Since a systematic history of Christianity is out of place in a Synoptic Essay, a succinct account of the historical antecedents of the major denominations in the State is called for, if only to elucidate the meaning and import of the nomenclature they have adopted in their classification.

406. At the very outset, it has to be pointed out that the various denominations, as at present constituted, derive their origin as well as their names from the various Church organisations that hailed from the Near East or the Far West and established their respective jurisdictions from time to time within the State. For this reason, a conspectus of Church history in Trayancore if isolated from its foreign ecclesiastical setting, would distort one's viewpoint as well as render unintelligible the cross-currents involved in the

clash of jurisdictions, doctrines and liturgies among the Christian denominations. In the first few centuries of the Christian era, such ecclesiastical centres as Jerusalem, Antioch, Alexandria and Rome rose into pre-eminence in Christendom with more or less common doctrines and rituals but with difference in the language used in their liturgy. In course of time, Rome brought under papal domination the whole of Central and Western Europe where Latin liturgy was uniformly followed. That was how the West came to be reckoned as the sphere of Latin Christianity. The attempts of Rome to make its supremacy over Christendom universal by extending it over the Patriarchs and their Metropolitans and Suffragans in the Middle East met with only partial success. The Eastern prelates (such as the Patriarchs ruling over the Coptic, Greek and Antiochian Churches) continued their career independent of the Roman Pontiff and following their separate liturgies such as Syrian, Coptic, or Greek. Meanwhile from the 4th century onwards splits or 'schisms' arose in the Christian fold by the variety of interpretations given to some of the mysteries of Christian revelation, especially those pertaining to the incarnation and divinity of Christ and the doctrine of trinity. The Arians, the Nestorians, the Monophysites, the Eutychians, etc., were instances of such schismatics who held 'heretical' theories on such doctrines, as a result of which the heads of the Eastern Churches found it difficult to preserve unity or uniformity in doctrine, ritual and jurisdiction. In one such struggle involving Nestorian antagonism against the Patriarch of Antioch, a monk named Yakoob Boordhana or Jacob Baradaeus (540—578) successfully opposed the Nestorians and helped to restore the members to the allegiance of the Patriarch. The Jacobites derive their name from him. The Church of Antioch has after him often been called the Jacobite Church. Seleucia or Babylon, which was the suffragan bishopric of Antioch, repudiated her by accepting Nestorianism. At the same time Rome which had unified Western Christendom under the Latin or Roman Catholic Church

succeeded in extending its supremacy over some of the Eastern bishoprics as well, where, however, the Eastern liturgy and ritual were left unaltered while uniformity of doctrine was insisted upon. From the time of Martin Luther's protest against Papal supremacy, Western Christendom came to be split up into Roman Catholic and Protestant. Protestantism in Europe assumed different forms, some of which were extended into America in the centuries that followed. Viewed from this background, the brief account given below of the contact of Travancore with the Eastern and Western Churches, Syrian and Latin liturgies, Jacobite, Roman Catholic and Protestant Missions, Lutheran, Anglican and American Missionaries, etc., may be more clear and their separate impact really inter-connected.

407. It has also to be remembered that such a plant of exotic origin as Christianity could never have had an indigenous growth in Travancore without a highly congenial atmosphere and this was freely, almost solicitously provided from time to time, by the Sovereigns of the State who, though strictly orthodox, were remarkably tolerant and so genuinely religious that they fostered religious worship by others whether Buddhist, Jain, Christian or Muslim. Not only was toleration practised by them and preserved among their subjects, but liberal grants were made to the Christians to build their churches. Charters conferring special privileges were often granted to the Christians. Thomas of Cana who led a band of Syrian colonists into Malabar was the recipient of such a royal favour from Cheraman Perumal in 345 A. D. A similar copper-plate grant from the Raja of Venad (Aiyar Atikal Thiruvatikal) made in 825 A. D. to a Christian merchant from Persia named Sapir Iso Maruwan is still preserved in the old Jacobite Seminary at Kottayam. In 1516 the Rani of Quilon agreed to rebuild a Christian church which had been burnt down by some enemies and even granted permission to her subjects, whether Hindus or Muslims, to embrace the Christian faith if they chose. The Sovereigns of the State have

always maintained cordial relations with ecclesiastical dignitaries especially the Patriarchs of Antioch and the Popes of Rome. His Highness the Maharaja visited the Vatican and had an audience with the late Pope during His Highness's European tour. It is small wonder, therefore, that under benign rulers who abhorred any idea of persecution, Christianity made considerable headway in the State.

408. Christianity was introduced into Travancore straight from the land of Jesus Christ, not long after His crucifixion. Tradition associates its introduction with the name of St. Thomas (52--68 A. D.) one of the twelve Apostles of Jesus Christ and the pioneer of evangelisation in India. Through all the thick mist that shrouds the traditional accounts, one fact stands out clear, *viz.*, that the earliest conversions must have been effected by a person of great spiritual influence and magnetic personality, for among the converts to the new faith there appear to have been several who did not suffer any disabilities imposed by the Hindu religion, but occupied positions of authority and influence in Hindu society. The tolerant attitude of the rulers facilitated the success of early Christian missionary enterprise.

409 The Church in Travancore was thus one of the oldest in the world, older than in any other part of India and in most parts of Europe. It was obviously Eastern in character and Syrian in liturgy. Its members were called Syrian Christians, "not because they were of Syrian blood or a Syrian nation but because they followed a Syrian liturgy and used prayers and scriptures written in Syriac language. Thus the nomenclature was purely ecclesiastical rather than geographical, ethnological or political". The name "Syrian Christian", primarily determined by liturgical uniformity rather than racial homogeneity, has latterly come to have a variety of connotations according as differences of ecclesiastical jurisdiction divided them, their descendants and their converts into different religious folds. In the present census several persons

returned themselves simply as "Syrian Christians" or "Orthodox Syrians". As used in common parlance today the term "Syrian Christian" comprehends the members of the Jacobite, Marthomite, Syro-Roman and Syro-Malankara Churches, using the Syrian liturgy.

410. An important landmark in the history of Syrian Christians was the establishment in 345 A. D. of a Syrian colony in Malabar under the leadership of a rich Armenian merchant named Thomas of Cana or Knaya Thoma. He arrived with several Christians from Baghdad, Jerusalem and Nineveh, several priests and a bishop named Joseph of Edessa who owed allegiance to Seleucia or Babylon. They spread their activities into the territories of Vadakkumkur and Thekkumkoor and strengthened Syrian Christianity in the State. The Knanaya Syrian Christians of today, both Jacobite and Catholic, claim descent from Thomas of Cana and his band of colonists. The Catholic Knanites have now a separate bishop of their own. Through Seleucia or Babylon the Patriarch of Antioch claimed control over the Syrian Christians and the effectiveness of the control depended upon the steadfastness of the allegiance of Seleucia to the Patriarchate of Antioch. But the percolation of Nestorian influence partly into the ranks of Syrian Christians in the State and partly over Babylon subjected the Antiochian control to constant oscillations.

411. It was about this time that Jacob Baradaeus reorganised the Church of Antioch which thereafter came to be known as the Jacobite Church. The Jacobites in the State have been a flourishing and progressive community with a separate ecclesiastical organisation of their own. They follow the liturgy of St. James, and are still under the Patriarch of Antioch. Among the Syrian Christians in the State there were, however, many who were outside the Jacobite Church.

412. The next important landmark was the direct intervention of the Pope of Rome in the affairs of the Christians in the State. Papal

emissaries who were sent to fraternise with them and thereby bring them under his spiritual supremacy elicited little response. The Franciscan friars who accompanied the Portuguese expeditions to the East, were more successful. It was the Portuguese priests that systematically set on foot Latin Christianity in the State with Latin liturgy and direct allegiance to the Pope. The Syrian Christians very cordially received their Latin brethren who made extensive conversions in different parts of the State chiefly through the missionary zeal of Francis Xavier who was the most outstanding figure of the period. In 1557 the Latin Christians were placed under the newly constituted Bishopric of Cochin. With the coming of the Jesuits soon after, the Papacy adopted a more militant attitude. A systematic campaign was launched, not only to evangelise the 'heathens' but to latinise the Syrians and thus ensure liturgical uniformity side by side with papal supremacy. A Seminary and a College were started by the Jesuits to impart sacerdotal training and general education to those Syrian Christians who had not subscribed to the Jacobite Church and through them to win over the Jacobites themselves. The non-Jacobite Syrians in those days owed allegiance to the Chaldaean Patriarch of Babylon who was then under the supremacy of Rome.

413. Realising the necessity of centralising their spiritual activities in the East, Rome established an Archbishopric at Goa with the Cochin Bishopric as a Suffragan See. To place a strong man at the helm, the Pope appointed Menezes as Archbishop of Goa. Fortified by the support of both the Portuguese and the Raja of Cochin he started a vigorous campaign to subdue all who opposed Latin Christianity. The success he achieved in his preliminary steps emboldened him to convene the Synod of Diamper (Udayampur) in 1599. At this memorable gathering Archbishop Menezes compelled all the Syrians, Jacobites and others, to acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope, subscribe to the Latin doctrines

and rituals and abjure all heresy. They were then incorporated into the Bishopric of Cochin. As a matter of concession to the Chaldaeans the Syrians were allowed to use the Syriac Chaldaean liturgy which was prepared for them in conformity with that in Latin. This forcible union of the Jacobite Syrian Church with Rome being superficial, proved short-lived. With the decline of Portuguese power and the appearance on the scene of a Jacobite Bishop from Syria or Babylon the allegiance to Rome began to wane. This Bishop was imprisoned by the Portuguese. The exasperated Jacobite Syrians thereupon met in solemn conclave at Koonen Cross in Mattancherry in 1653 and renounced their allegiance to Rome. They accepted as their leader Archdeacon Thomas who was subsequently consecrated as Archbishop by twelve Syrian "Cathans". The consecration was confirmed in 1665 by a Bishop from Jerusalem sent by the Patriarch of Antioch. Thus the Jacobite Church survived in the struggle with Latin Christianity. The non-Jacobite Syrians came to be called the Syro-Romans. They have ever since remained in communion with Rome and are also known as Syrian Catholics or Romo-Syrians.

414. The years that followed witnessed systematic attempts on the part of Rome to recapture lost ground and the persistent efforts of the Koonen Cross covenantors to stand their own. The tactful Carmelites who replaced the militant Jesuits in 1657, managed to detach and consecrate as Catholic Bishop under the name Alexander, a close kinsman of Archdeacon Thomas by name Parampil Chandy Cathanar. In this diplomatic way they succeeded in winning back to the Roman fold, the majority of the seceders (84 out of 116 churches) whose retrocession thus reinforced the ranks of Romo-Syrians. It is from this time onwards that Romo-Syrians came to be called the "Palaya Koottukar" and the Jacobite adherents of the Antiochian Church (ruled hereafter by Archdeacon Thomas as Mar Thoma I and his successors) known as the "Puthen Koottukar".

The latter part of the 17th and the whole of the 18th century passed without any more epoch-making events in Church history in the State. Politically and geographically Travancore had, by the end of the 18th century, attained her present dimensions under the great Sovereigns Marthanda Varma and the "Dharma Raja" and entered into subsidiary alliance with the British Suzerain Power.

415. The 19th century was fraught with further trials for the Jacobite Church, characterised by internal disorganisation, partly under Anglican influence, and external pressure from Rome. These culminated in a few paralysing party-defections from within and several protective but oft-solicited State interventions from without. No less than five important instances are recorded of such State arbitration, resulting in the issue of Royal Proclamations, either according State recognition to some Metropolitan whose consecration was open to technical objection or adjudicating in disputed successions or jurisdictions of episcopal rivals. The Royal Proclamations of 1817, 1827 and 1828, during the administration of Col. Munro were meant to settle some of the later disputes. The most epoch-making Church dispute of the century in this State occurred in 1848 when a Royal Proclamation was issued recognising as Metropolitan Mar Mathew Athanasius, who had been duly consecrated in Antioch. But the appointment, soon after, of another Metropolitan from Antioch led to a revival of dissensions culminating in the visit of the Patriarch of Antioch to Travancore, followed by the Synod of Mulanthuruthi and the declaration of the Patriarch's nominee (Mar Dionysius V) as Metropolitan in 1876. The State accorded its sanction to this choice and declared it as its definite policy henceforward to interfere and adjudicate only in the temporal affairs of the Church involving "the maintenance of peace and good order" "through the established courts of the country". The Athanasius party influenced by Protestant missionaries refused to recognise any foreign

authority and seceded from the Jacobite Church in 1868. They constituted themselves into a separate Church called the Reformed or Mar Thoma Syrian Church. This incident thus marks the origin of the Mar Thomite Syrians who have preserved their independent organisation ever since. They still use the Jacobite Syrian liturgy from which, however, they have expunged several portions repugnant to their reformed religious conceptions.

416. The present century witnessed on the one hand the weakening of Antiochian control by the revival of the Catholicate and on the other the secession of two bishops from its ranks. In 1930, Mar Ivanios, the Jacobite Metropolitan of Bethany and his associate Mar Theophilus, joined the Catholic Church and two years later the former was made titular Archbishop of Phasia with residence at Trivandrum and the latter to be under him as the titular bishop of Arad with his residence at Thiruvella. A separate hierarchy was established for the new Catholic denomination founded by them and they adopted the "Syro-Malankara rite", the doctrines and dogmas being those of the Catholic Church. This recent Catholic offshoot from the Jacobite Church has vaguely been designated as "The Malankara Syrian Church" (under the "Archbishop of Trivandrum") embodying blended elements, the Roman in doctrine and jurisdiction and the Syrian in its Syro-Malankara rite and liturgy. It is perhaps this unique character of their rite that has labelled them as "Reethukar" in common parlance, though their other name "Puthenkor Catholics" does more correctly differentiate them from the other Syrian Catholics of the State than the very broad appellation of "Malankara Syrian Church".

417. The ancient Jacobite Church with its chequered history, often shaken by frequent dissensions, sometimes weakened by periodical defections and still threatened by further secessions, steadfastly survives all its vicissitudes in

its pristine orthodoxy under Antioch's spiritual supremacy.

•418. Meanwhile the necessity of adjusting the Catholic Church organisations in the State to suit the ecclesiastical requirements of the various denominations owing allegiance to Rome, led to the formation, within the last generation, of separate bishoprics and hierarchies with well-defined jurisdictions for both the Latin Catholics and the Syrian Catholics (or Romo-Syrians or Palaya Koottukar) who had been under the Portuguese Bishops of Cochin and Cranganore and the Carmelite Bishops of Verapoly. In consequence of such measures, the Latin Catholics and the Syro-Romans were provided with separate hierarchies, which in recent years have been Indianised.

419. The Syrian and Latin hierarchies functioning in the State at present are constituted as follows. The present heads of the Jacobite Church in Malabar are two rival claimants—the Catholics of the East residing at the old Seminary, Kottayam and the other the Metropolitan at Alwaye under Antioch's spiritual supremacy. There are eight Bishops under them. The Mar. Thomite or Reformed Syrians who are independent of any external spiritual control are under their chief Metropolitan at Thiruvella with three Suffragans under him. The Syro-Romans (Syrian Catholics,) are under the Archbishop of Ernakulam and the Bishop of Changanchery, the Knanite section alone among them being separately under the Bishop of Kottayam. Both the Changanchery and Kottayam Bishops are under the Archbishop of Ernakulam. The "Malankara Syrian Church" following the Romanised Syro-Malankra liturgy is under the Archbishop of Trivandrum. The Latin Catholics of the State are placed under five Bishops, of whom those of Kottar, Trivandrum, Quilon and Vijayapuram are under the Archbishop of Verapoly and the Bishop of Cochin is under the Archbishop of Goa. Despite the difference in liturgies and episcopal jurisdictions, all the Catholics in the State, as

everywhere else in the world, are under the spiritual supremacy of the Pope of Rome.

420. From the beginning of the 19th century the Protestant Missions from the West had begun their activities in Travancore. The most prominent of these was the Church Mission Society. In 1806 and 1807 Dr. Claudius Buchanan of Calcutta visited Travancore at the instance of the then Governor-General the Marquis of Wellesley and started work in co-operation with the Syrian Metropolitan of Malankara. The mission had its headquarters at Kottayam and attempted between 1816 and 1836 to effect a fusion of the Syrian and the Anglican Churches. It had the very active and sympathetic support of Col. Munro and through him of the Government of Travancore. They tried to introduce the English liturgy in the Travancore churches by translating the same hoping that in course of time they would be able to win over the Syrians. The success of the Anglican Missionaries in Travancore was short-lived. The following years witnessed the gradual separation of the Syrians from the influence of the Church Missionary Society. In 1836 the Syrian Christians formally severed their connections for good from the C. M. S. missionaries and thenceforward the latter commenced direct mission work. Several C. M. S. mission centres were established in various parts of the State. In 1869 the Society working in Travancore and Cochin was transferred from the control of the Bishop of Calcutta and placed under a Church Council. Two Councils were established, one at Kottayam and the other at Mavelikara. The Dioceses of Travancore and Cochin were set up in 1879. Till a few years ago, this Church was known as the Church of England in India or the Anglican Church in India. The legal connection of the Church of England in India and the established Church of England has now been severed by an Act of Parliament, though it retains its organic connection with the Anglican communion. Since then, they have formed a component part of "the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon". They have a separate Bishop with headquarters at

Kottayam. The governing body is the Diocesan Council with a standing committee of eleven clerical and twenty-six lay members.

421. Even before the Church Missionary Society, the London Mission Society had started their proselytising activities in Travancore. The mission started work in 1806, chiefly under the leadership of a German by name Ringletaube, with the active support of the British Residents Col. Macaulay, Col. Munro and General Fraser, in whose time the successive Sovereigns made periodical gifts to the mission in the shape of donations and lands to build churches or to cultivate, besides revenue concessions, grants-in-aid to schools, etc. In 1866 the Pastorate was partly Indianised and at present the Mission is divided into six districts, *viz.*, Nagercoil, Neyyoor, Marthandam, Parassala, Trivandrum, and Quilon, each with its own minister and administrative council. The churches that have grown up in Travancore as a result of the work of the London Mission Society have for the last 30 years belonged to the South India United Church, comprising churches of Congregational and Presbyterian denominations scattered in the different parts of South India. It represents a union of churches which had themselves taken steps to remove certain differences.

422. The Salvation Army started work in 1889 in a village near Nagercoil and progressed on the same lines as other missions of the S. I. U. C. Its founder, General Booth paid a visit to Travancore soon after they started work. The sect owes its name to its emphasis on the doctrine of the salvation of the soul through Jesus Christ. Within a short time they were able to secure a large body of converts. The unique feature of this sect is the adoption by its members of red and yellow uniforms and well-graded military designations. In 1924 they established the headquarters of Territorial Commander of the South Indian District in Trivandrum. The Divisional Commanders were also appointed in ten separate centres in Travancore.

423. Besides the major Christian denominations whose history has been briefly dealt with there are a large number of other sects, of exotic as well as indigenous origin, some of the numerically more important of them being the Lutheran Mission, Pentecost, Baptist, Brother Mission, Bible Faith and Church of America.

424. It has already been stated that the proportion of the Christians to the total population of the State has been increasing in succeeding Censuses. In 1875 when the first regular Census was taken the Christians had a numerical strength of 469,023 only. In the present Census their population is 1,963,808. Between 1875 and 1941 they have increased by 318.7 per cent. The decennial rate of increase of the Christians has been higher than that of the Hindus and also of the aggregate State population during the past several decades as has already been stated. Since 1931 the Christians have increased by 22.4 per cent. while the Hindus have increased by only 17 per cent. and the total population of the State by 19 per cent.

425. The Christians have maintained the proportions of the last Census in their distribution by taluks. Meenachil with 61.6 per cent. leads, while Changanachery, Kottayam, Muvattupula and Thodupula have recorded more than 50 per cent. As in 1931, Kunnathunad is the only taluk in which both Hindus and Christians are each less than 50 per cent. Of the taluks in the State, Chirayinkil contains the lowest percentage of Christians *viz.*, 2.1. Of the total Christian population 46.4 per cent. is in the Northern, 32.2 in the Central and 21.4 in the Southern Divisions.

426. The subjoined table shows the distribution of the Christian population by main sects. It gives also their proportion to the total Christian population. In the 1931 Report, only

Sect.	Actual Number.	Percentage to the total Christian population.
Anglican communion	88,217	4.49
Jacobite Syrians	405,057	20.62
Mar Thoma (Reformed) Syrians	171,962	8.76
Romo-Syrians	560,834	28.57
Roman Catholics	453,224	23.08
Salvationists	49,755	2.53
South India United Church	113,857	5.80
Others	120,902	6.15

two denominations of Catholics, *viz.*, Romo-Syrians and Roman Catholics, have been recorded. In this Census the Catholics have returned themselves as three main denominations, *viz.*, the Roman Catholics, the Latin Catholics and the Syrian Catholics. From the total number of Roman Catholics it has to be presumed that the Latin Catholics also have been included under Roman Catholics in 1931. It is necessary, therefore, for purposes of comparison and analysis to group them together under the same heading. Roman Catholics and Latin Catholics as returned number 230,158 and 223,066 respectively.

427. The Catholics constitute the majority among the Christians. The Romo-Syrians and the Roman Catholics both of whom owe allegiance to the Pope, together number 1,014,058 and form 51.6 per cent. of the total Christian population. The Jacobite Syrians who form 20.6 per cent. of the total come next. All the other sects together form only 27.8 per cent. The Roman Catholics have increased from 360,217 to 453,224 *i. e.*, by 25.8 per cent. They have registered the largest percentage of increase among the Christians. The Romo-Syrians number 560,834 against 449,173 of the last Census. They have increased by 24.9 per cent. This increase is higher than the rate of increase of the Christian population as a whole. They have increased in their comparative strength also. In 1931 they formed only 28 per cent. of the Christian population. Now they constitute 28.6 per cent. The strength of the Jacobite Syrian sect has increased from 337,872 to 405,057, *i. e.*, by 19.9 per cent. They constitute 20.6 per cent. of the Christian population. The Mar Thoma Syrians have increased from 142,486 to 171,962, *i. e.* by 20.7 per cent. They constitute 8.8 per cent. of the total Christian population.

428. The population of the Anglicans has increased from 85,261 to 88,217. They now form only 4.49 per cent. of the Christian population while, according to the 1931 Census they constituted 5.3 per cent. of the total Christians.

429. The Salvationists and the South India United Church register a decrease as compared with

the figures for 1931. The former number only 49,755 as against 58,991 of 1931. In 1931 they formed 3.7 per cent. of the Christian population while this time they form only 2.5 per cent.

430. The population returned under the South India United Church formed 8.7 per cent. of the total Christian population in 1931, but in 1941 they form only 5.8 per cent. Their numerical strength has fallen from 138,958 to 113,857. This decrease can be explained only in two ways. Probably the Mission has not been able to keep up the rate of conversion of the previous decade. A large number of their parish people may have left their fold and gone over to other sects or other religions. In the enumeration stage there was a good deal of propaganda and several petitions came up from the adherents of this sect. Some of the members of the South India United Church were reluctant to renounce the caste to which they had belonged before conversion. Between the injunctions issued by the Missions to return themselves as S. I. U. C and the desire of the individual to hold fast to his caste, there seemed to exist a lot of confusion with the result that the returns contained several denominations as Nadar Christian, Cheramar Christian, Sambavar Christian, Aiyavar Christian, etc. In fact between the period of the preliminary and final enumerations there was simultaneous propaganda by two parties, one insisting upon the mention of caste even to the elimination of the sect and the other emphasising the need for recording sect ignoring caste altogether. The tendency described earlier while discussing Hinduism, of caste assuming a new garb for political purposes, is discernible here also but with this difference, that while the character of the transition in Hindu society was centripetal, that in the Christian was centrifugal. For example the Nadars of South Travancore started an agitation that all Nadars irrespective of the religion to which they belonged should be grouped as belonging to a homogeneous community so that the weight of their numbers might help them for official preferment and representation in public bodies and institutions. So also, though in a lesser degree,

there has been a similar movement among the Cheramars, the Sambavars and the Aiyavars. It is too early to predict at the present moment, when regrouping and renaming of communities, sects and castes are frequent, whether these sects will, in eventually evolving themselves into groups, base their identity on caste or religion or a combination of both.

431. Besides the major sects mentioned above numerous other missionary bodies are working in the State. These bodies are financed from Europe and elsewhere and have established churches of their own in different parts of the State. "The divergent interpretations of Christianity by the exponents of numerous missions contribute not a little to the puzzlement of the Hindus among whom they work." Many of the converts to their fold are from the Backward Communities who are unable to understand the differences in dogma or ritual among the different schools and though they may realise the fact that they have changed their religion, they are seldom conscious of the comparative merits of the tenets of the new creed to which they have been converted. The Christian who has changed from one sect to another may have done so for special advantage or convenience. This may offer some explanation for the existence and continuance of the large number of miscellaneous Christian sects in Travancore. A list of the several sects with their respective strengths is given below. In addition to these there are 54 other denominations whose numerical strength falls below 1,000 and 40 even below 100.

Sect.	Number.
1. Tribe	3,801
2. Lutheran Mission	13,200
3. Protestant	17,531
4. Nadar Christian	1,989
5. S. D. A.	2,033
6. Brother Mission	9,413
7. Pentecost	10,044
8. Syrian Unspecified	5,141
9. P. R. D. S.	4,015
10. Bible Faith	2,046
11. Cheramar	3,725
12. Baptist	3,886

432. The Muslims who constitute the third major community in the State have increased from 353,274 to 434,150 in 1941. They constitute 7.2 per cent of the total population. It is recorded that the first batch of Muslims reached Malabar as early as 712 A. D., i. e. about the same year as the advent of Islam in Sind as well as in Spain. The people of Malabar and their Rulers, who were tolerant to the religions of the many nations who traded in their ports appear to have given them all help and encouragement. The Muslim traders on their part respected the customs and usages of the country and maintained the most friendly intercourse with the local population. Several mosques were built and they made many converts to Islam. They always received very kind and generous treatment at the hands of the Rulers of Travancore and under Royal patronage Islam seems to have prospered in the State. The clash of interest which has characterised Hindu-Muslim relations in other parts of India never existed in Travancore. There is in fact no real Hindu-Muslim problem here. This can be attributed more to the tolerance and catholicity of the Rulers and the people than to the fact of their being a small minority in the State. Conversions to Islam in Travancore were made in a quiet and unobtrusive way and were thus free from the taint of aggression or intolerance as in certain other parts of India. The Muslims here never adopted a policy of aloofness but lived in peace and amity with their fellow citizens and pursued their religious life in conformity with the usages of the times. "The Maharajas exercised a power of control in the management of their religious institutions. The permission of Government was necessary for the opening of mosques while the right of appointing the priests was reserved in the Sovereign himself."

433. The Muslims in the State were divided in 1931 into two major sub-divisions—Shiahs and Sunnis. The Sunni Muslims were further subdivided into five sub-sections each having 3 and 4 subdivisions. But with the commencement of the Census operations of 1941, the Muslims in

the State conducted intensive propaganda to secure uniformity in returns as a single community. As a result the Muslims have returned themselves as one homogeneous body with 'Islam' as their religion and 'Muslim' as their community.

434. Since the last decade the Muslims have increased by 22.9 per cent. Among the three major communities, the Muslims have recorded the highest percentage of increase. During the last 40 years, they have increased by 127.8 per cent. Although they are found throughout the State, their presence in force is essentially a feature of the Central Division. But in no taluk of the State do they constitute a majority. It is in Chirayinkil that they have the highest percentage but even there they form only 16.6 per cent of the taluk population. They have their least strength in Devikulam (1.3 per cent). As in 1931, Chirayinkil and Karunagapally retain their first and second ranks in Muslim strength, while Kunnathunad, which held the third rank of 1931 *i. e.* (12.9) has yielded it to Pathanapuram (13.2).

435. Besides these, Sikhism, Jainism, Zoroastrianism, Buddhism and Judaism have also found their adherents in Travancore. Twenty persons have not returned themselves under any religion at all. The Jews, the Sikhs and the Jains have increased now to 371, 31 and 62 from 298, 12 and 41 respectively in 1931. There has been a fall in the strength of the Buddhist from 64 to 16.

436. The west coast has often been considered an exceedingly interesting place combining the charms of a hoary antiquity with the delightful simplicity of domestic life. It is true that the Malayalee was different in many respects from the people who lived beyond the Ghats. *Marumakkathayam* laws existed in few other parts of India. In habits and attire, he adopted a mode distinct from any found elsewhere in India. In domestic life, the joint-family system maintained conventions and practices peculiar to this land. In food and clothing, there was a distinctiveness which could not escape the notice of even the casual visitor. In marriages and other functions

social or religious, there are noticeable certain characteristics which are the results of the personal laws peculiar to this part of the country. And yet in this strange land on the western side of the Ghats where the curious visitor might have expected to see things fundamentally different from what he had seen or heard beyond, there has occurred in the last few decades almost revolutionary changes which have transformed this caste-ridden country into almost the most progressive part of the whole of India.

437. The outlook of the people on life in general has changed and new ideas resulting from the wide spread of liberal education have permeated society at large. This modernisation in outlook, manners and customs is discernible in all aspects of life—social, religious and political. People are becoming increasingly adaptable to the changes that are constantly taking place around them and society is moving forward with the times casting off its rigidity and exclusiveness and becoming more and more receptive of new ideas and ideals.

438. Though by religion the people of Travancore are divided into three main communities—the Hindu, the Christian and the Muslim—in appearance, dress and habits they can be grouped into two broad classes. The descendants of those who came under the civilising influence of the Aryan immigrants who occupied from early times positions of distinction and authority are to be distinguished from the descendants of those who stood outside their fold. The distinctiveness in personal appearance marked by fairness of complexion and regularity of features, clean habits and simple life can be attributed to the social rank which they enjoyed irrespective of their religious persuasions. The indigenous population wherein there has been less admixture of foreign blood is characterised by dark complexion and features which are not so well outlined.

439. Even among this apparently homogeneous group certain distinguishing features existed to identify the particular sect or class to

which each belonged. A couple of decades ago the Namputhiri could easily be distinguished from the Nayar and the Vellala from the Ampalavasi. Caste had long preserved this distinctiveness particularly of the upper classes in society. Social and economic changes which have gone far to eliminate caste have set in motion a tendency for the gradual disappearance of these special characteristics. With the gradual elimination of caste prejudices and caste exclusiveness, custom and tradition became less and less effective. The tuft is no longer an identifying mark of the Hindu. The wearing of caste-marks is becoming a rarity. One England-returned Brahman gentleman recently described it as 'war paint'. The close shave of the Christian has disappeared, the comb and the hair-brush coming in as an indispensable item in his toilet. Even among the Muslims who are more conservative, there is a tendency on the part of the educated few to give up the close shave and the skull cap or the turban.

443. Through economic changes and nationalistic influences a uniformity of apparel is coming into common use and this has to a very large extent democratised society; so much so, that it has become almost impossible to identify caste or community by the dress that is worn. This healthy and wholesome change is unfortunately accompanied by a tendency to make costume more expensive, less artistic and ill-adapted to the climatic conditions of the country. The shirt is an addition becoming more and more popular. The white *mundu* is being fast replaced by the *Veshi* with broad borders and the towel with stripes has taken the place of the old simple *thorthu*. The large majority of the Muslims, however have not given up their traditional costume.

444. A tendency towards extravagance in dress and habits is noticeable in the younger generation of the educated classes, particularly among those with higher education. Though the attraction for the European costume is fast disappearing under nationalistic influences such

expensive habits as the use of silks, costly linon, cosmetics, etc., are on the increase. This unfortunate tendency to bestow too much attention on personal appearance is having its baneful effects on society.

445. In female attire also there has been considerable change. Malayali women were noted for their preference of simple white dress, though the manner of dressing varied with the women of different communities. The educated section of women and those who follow their lead are adopting innovations in dress which bring them nearer to the general mode of dressing in vogue in other parts of India. The use of silks and sarees is becoming common among the wealthier classes. Jumpers, blouses and jackets have come into common use among all classes but fashions vary with each caste. No remarkable change has come about in the dress of the Malayala Brahman women. Among the Nayar ladies, the simplicity and elegance of the *pudava*, *rowka* and the upper cloth, all white in colour, have given place to the glamorous sheen of the saree, the blouse and the jumper. The Syrian Christian women dress in their own particular fashion though sarees form an attraction for the younger generation. The Muslim ladies still adhere to the dress of the customary pattern which distinguishes their appearance from that of the members of other communities.

443. In the wearing of ornaments, however, a healthy change is noticeable. The heavy and crude ornaments particularly the ear-pendants, have disappeared and given place generally to better-cut and more fashionable patterns. The restrictions imposed by custom prohibiting the wearing of particular ornaments by certain classes have completely disappeared. Jewelry is used only very sparingly by all communities. Formerly the women loaded the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, the waist and the ankles with heavy jewelry. The tendency among the younger women now is to limit the ornaments to a gold chain with a pendant of artistic workmanship,

a pair of *kammals* with drops, several bangles of different patterns and a pair of *kolusus*. Colour-scheme has invaded the fashionable woman's toilette to a disastrous extent. Enamel-ware and imitation stones have come in handy to satisfy the fastidious tastes of the fashionable *belles* of all communities.

44. Blackening of the eyes and eye-brows with antimony was a common practice among the Hindu women. The Muslim women used '*surma*'. It certainly added to the comeliness of the fair sex. This practice still continues but is now done more artistically. A less costly carbon paste has, however, taken the place of antimony. To these have been added in recent years powder and cream. The former is more in general use than the latter. The aping of the West has reached a ludicrous extent by the advent of the lipstick and the nail polish among the ultra-fashionable. Hair-dye also is coming into frequent use and here perhaps man is a worse sinner than woman.

445. Formerly it was easy to distinguish particular castes by their distinctive mode of dressing the hair. Hair used to be dressed in several artistic forms mostly on and near the forehead. This custom is fast disappearing. A uniform mode of tying the hair on the back portion of the head is becoming more and more popular among all communities.

446. Statistics have revealed a distinct degeneracy in the physique of the younger generation. From an analysis of the age-tables, it has become evident that only a small percentage of juvenile population are of the proper height, weight and build corresponding to that age.

447. Child marriage which was once in vogue in Travancore has now been prohibited. Pre-puberty marriage, even among Brahmans, has become an exception. Intermarriages between sub-sects have become more common even in orthodox circles. Marriage festivities usually occupying several days, have been reduced to an almost one-day function. This change has not, however, been accompanied by a corresponding

economy in marriage expenses. Marriage without dowry has become an exception even among communities which looked down upon the dowry system.

448. Various religious and social ceremonies which custom perpetuated in the old joint-families are being given up partly for economic reasons and partly through social reform. The *Thalikettu*, *Thirantukalyanam* and the *Pulikudi* which were prevalent among the non-Brahman classes, particularly among the Nayars, have been almost abandoned. The observance of pollution in connection with births and deaths is not being kept up now except in the matter of entering temples.

449. The same latitude is seen in respect of interdining also. No communal distinction is being observed in social functions like garden parties and tea parties. Interdining among the advanced sections of communities is becoming more common. Restricting invitations to marriages, etc., exclusively to those belonging to the community of the host has, however, not been fully given up.

450. With the almost complete elimination of touch and distance pollution, people have shaken themselves free from the rigidity of time-honoured usage in this direction. The custom which demanded a bath in the temple tank and worship in the temple in wet clothes is rarely observed now. The habit of daily worship in the nearest temple which was a common feature of Hindu family life, is being now observed only by a few. The Christian and the Muslim, however, have kept up their Sunday and Friday worship as an essential item in their life.

451. With the relaxation of custom the way has been cleared for external influences to develop new tastes and habits in society. The cinema and the fashionable club have begun to attract the people more and more, in preference to the old inexpensive and indigenous recreations and pastimes. The use of tobacco and liquor has become more general. Society is being called

upon to face more seriously the problem of leisure raised by the increasing mechanisation.

452. The break-up of the joint-family system resulting in the individual members leaving the family home and setting up establishments of their own, particularly after marriage, has to a large extent been responsible for the gradual disappearance of the old type of houses peculiar to this part of the country. The *Nalukettu* with different apartments for the male and the female members of the family and separate place of honour for the *Karanavar* has disappeared and in its place have come terraced or tiled unitary bungalows designed to cater to the comparatively luxurious conveniences of single families. These changes have invaded even the *Illoms* of the Namputhiris whose steadfastness to custom and tradition is proverbial.

453. Rice is the staple food of the people. The Brahmans, the Kshatriyas and the Ampalavasis are vegetarians. The Nayars and the Ilavas are generally non-vegetarians. To the Christian and the Muslim non-vegetarian food is almost a necessity. As different from the Hindus they eat beef. The Backward Communities like the Pulayas and the Parayas are meat-eaters but the Pulayas generally eschew beef. *Kanji* (Rice gruel) in the morning, a more substantial meal at noon and supper after sunset form the daily routine of the middle class Malayalis of all castes. But *Kanji* is being slowly supplanted by tea, coffee, cocoa or other beverages. The working classes are addicted to drink. They use toddy which is a cheap intoxicant supposed to possess some nutritive value also. A good many among them use arrack which is far stronger and more injurious.

454. According to the law of inheritance and succession the subjects of the State can be divided into *marumakkathayis* and *makkathayis*. Those who trace their inheritance through the mother are the *marumakkathayis* and those tracing their inheritance through the father are the *makkathayis*. The Kshatriya, the Ampalavasi, the Samantha, the Nayar, the Ilava and the

Nanjanad Vellala and a few of the Muslims come under the first category. All the other Hindus, the Christians and the Muslims come under the latter. During the last two decades there was intense legislative activity consequent on the agitation of the younger generation against the uncontrolled authority of the *Karanavar*. As a result, the Nayar, the Ilava, the Nanjanad Vellala and the Kshatriya Acts have been passed enabling the members of these communities to adopt *makkathayam* in lieu of *marumakkathayam*. These legislative enactments, however, are permissive in character. But due advantage of them has been taken by the majority. Legislation has not yet rooted out the *marumakkathayam* customs and traditions. The divided members still cling on to their old family names and titles. In the observance of the customary ceremonies and pollutions the affinity to the *marumakkathayam* system is still evident. Besides the matriarchal and patriarchal systems, a mixed system of inheritance is followed by a few communities like the Ilava, the Vellala, the Krishnanvaka, etc.

455. Society has thus emerged into the wider world of today from the comparative isolation and delightful simplicity of the remote but self-contained village meeting its simple wants from the services of its people. It is facing divergent problems of a nature quite different from those it confronted before, such for example, as those connected with an increasing population, development of economic resources under the severest world competition, preservation and development of the literary, artistic and other cultural inheritance and tradition of the different communities. In short, society has to find ways and means of adjusting itself to the severe and perplexing demands of a complex civilisation. Clash of interests, varied or vested and conflict of authorities, customary or specific, have added to the difficulties of these problems.

456. The newspapers and the numerous associations and clubs catering to the literary, social, political and other interests of society are

but the outward expressions of its complexity. The struggle for existence is discernible almost in every department of human activity. The conflict in ideals and ideologies is only the outward manifestation of this inward urge in the different communities. It is almost impossible to forecast how society will settle down after this period of conflict and unsettlement. A mutual adjustment of differences and the happy evolution of a common goal of ultimate unity towards which the cultural inheritance of this land has always pointed, should form the common creed of the *intelligentsia* in the country. The progress of society should be measured by the rate at which the identification of the individual with the State without losing his personality and initiative is achieved in the different spheres of human activity, for that indeed is a consummation devoutly to be wished for.

457. It is the centripetal tendencies that have undeniably set society on the straight path towards such a grand consummation that have really raised Travancore, not merely to the vanguard of progressive India, but as a possible model of social homogeneity based on a cultural fusion. Elsewhere in India not only the conflict between creed and creed but the clash between castes or sects within the same creed, has often hindered the evolution of a real unity or unanimity in the social sphere. From the sketch given above it is obvious that in Travancore neither intolerance of sect nor fanaticism of creed on the part of the rulers or the ruled has, in modern times, neutralised the cohesive forces of society. Besides by the fissiparous tendencies inherent in caste and creed, cultural fusion has often been impeded by the prevalence of a multiplicity of dialects and languages. Though the advent of such a world-language as English as a medium of expression throughout India has tended to nationalise the Indians, the very spirit of nationalism fostered by the English language has latterly led to the rise of Hindi or Urdu as indigenous alternatives, if not substitutes for English as the "*lingua franca*" of India. Imperial Table XII is designed to

assess the incidence of the various languages in vogue, and through a statistical study of the tendencies revealed, examine such problems like bilingualism and multilingualism, as may have a bearing upon the prevailing conditions in the State.

458. Before proceeding to discuss the findings in Table XII it has to be emphasised that so far as this State is concerned, the tendency of its prevalent as well as predominant languages has been to foster rather than hinder its cultural fusion. The reasons are not far to seek. For one thing, Travancore has the unique distinction of having been ruled by a single dynasty down to the present time, under the uninterrupted sway of a single, growing, living language. The personal language of the ruler and the national language of the large majority of the ruled has ever been the same. The English language is cherished and treasured both by the Sovereign and the subjects alike. This identity and harmony of linguistic interest which has consistently been in evidence since the introduction of English education in the State, earlier than anywhere else in South India, precludes any idea of antagonism in the preference or prevalence of any of the languages in the State. Secondly, though no less than 34 languages are spoken in the State, only 9 per cent. of the population speak languages other than Malayalam and Tamil, the former being spoken by 84.7 per cent. and the latter, which is in vogue in the taluks fringing the adjacent Tamil Nad, being spoken by 14.4 per cent. Both these languages being derivatives from the same Dravidian stock, any one who speaks only Malayalam or Tamil will find the other easily intelligible thus making mutual comprehension readily possible. Again, with regard to this State, the compactness of its configuration along with its net-work of communications precludes the possibility of dialectical variations such as provincialisms and colloquialisms becoming mutually incomprehensible as in the case of English that is spoken in Scotland or Wales or in the Eastern Counties. On the other hand the main languages in vogue are so well placed

as to link the State culturally to the outside world in a widening circle of proximity, enabling it thereby to imbibe, without linguistic isolation or national provincialism, cultural influences from Tamil Nad through Tamil, from Cochin and Malabar through Malayalam and from the rest of the world by means of English. So any hindrance to a cultural fusion from the direction of language can never assume such proportions in this State as in many of the Provinces of British India or such foreign countries as Switzerland, Poland, Yugoslavia or Czechoslovakia. Far more important than all these is the fact that the two principal languages in the State form the medium for the spread of literacy under a uniform system of elementary and middle school education, serving as an excellent background for a cultural fusion. For these various reasons, therefore, the problem of language in Travancore easily aligns itself with the wider problem of cultural unity more as a fostering element than as a deterrent. Before taking up the study of literacy and education, which have a more immediate bearing on the evolution of cultural unity, the statistical findings with regard to language in Table XII may be set forth in some detail.

459. Malayalam is the mother tongue of 84.7 per cent. and Tamil that of 14.4 per cent. of the population. The number speaking the former has increased by 20.7 per cent. (*i. e.*, 1.6 higher than the rate of population increase) and the latter by 11.2 per cent. (*i. e.*, 8 less than the rate of population increase). Only .9 per cent. of the population speak languages other than these two. In the taluks of Thovala, Agasthiswaram, Kalkulam and Vilavancode, 86.6 per cent. of the population and in Shenkotta 94.6 per cent. use Tamil as the mother-tongue. In all the other taluks, Malayalam is the mother-tongue of the large majority except in Firmede and Devikulam where Tamil is spoken by 66 per cent. of the population. The wide prevalence of Tamil in the taluks mentioned is due partly to their proximity to Tamil Nad and partly to the large number of immigrants who

come to work as coolies in the plantations of these areas. It may also be noted at the very outset that while a large percentage of those whose mother-tongue is Tamil, speak Malayalam as subsidiary language, only a very small percentage of those with mother-tongue as Malayalam speak Tamil as subsidiary language.

460. The parent tongue of both these languages is proto-Tamil. Both the Tamil and Malayalam dialects used now in the State are the developed forms of this. Those who lived in taluks near Tamil Nad continued to use Tamil which, with the influx of pure and more literary elements, has grown into the form used today in those regions. The language in vogue in other parts of the State was subjected to various influences, mainly of Sanskrit and to a small extent, of Tulu, Kanarose and Telugu. Malayalam in its present form is the resultant of the impact of these exotic forces upon the original dialect. In course of time, numerous terms connected with the Islamic religion, Government and commerce found their way into Malayalam from Arabic, Persian, Marathi and Hindusthani while Hebrew, Syriac, Greek and Latin contributed their quota of Christian phraseology. The contact with the Portuguese, Dutch, French and English traders also led to the coining of fresh words and idioms to express the new and unfamiliar concepts of foreign origin. In this way the present Malayalam vocabulary derived much linguistic nourishment in the course of its evolution from a variety of foreign tongues.

461. Next in importance to Tamil in point of incidence is the English language which in the English Schools and Colleges assumes special importance as the 'first language' and a certified proficiency in which is considered both as a hall-mark of education and the "*sine qua non*" for higher professional recruitment and preferment. Since the opening of the earliest English Schools in the State at Kottayam in 1816 and at Nagercoil in 1818 by the C. M. S. and L. M. S. Missionaries respectively, English has been spreading rapidly in the State. Today the

number of persons who are able to read and write English is many times more than those who speak it as their mother-tongue. Though only 854 persons have returned English as their mother-tongue, there are 403,678 literates in the language which is 6.6 per cent. of the total population. This is explained by the fact that English is the official language in Travancore, used in courts of law and Government publications. English is at present making more rapid headway in the State than in any other part of India. With 342 English schools, ten colleges, numberless English libraries and 16 English and 31 quasi-English journals and periodicals circulating in the State, with its academic, commercial, social, political and cultural contacts with the outside world, the number of people able to speak English is bound to increase by leaps and bounds in the years to come. In this connection it may specially be pointed out that of all the cultural influences of modern times tending towards the evolution of a social unity, the English language is undoubtedly entitled to a high place. The accessibility to universal knowledge, the widening of outlook and better cultural association with foreign lands, rendered possible through the medium of such a world-wide language as English, have tended to lift the Travancorean above the parochialism to which he may be subjected by age-old conventions as well as geographical barriers. It is to the English language again, along with his liberal education, that the Travancorean owes his prospects and his reputation abroad, his cosmopolitan outlook at home and his ever-widening circle of civic sympathies that makes his mind accommodative and hospitable to other views and standpoints than his own and hence really cultured in the best sense of the term.

462. Travancore has been making great headway in recent years in the popularisation of Hindi. It has been introduced as an optional second language in 8 Government and 12 private schools and even in some of the Colleges. The Kerala and the Travancore Hindi Prachara Sabhas are conducting propoganda for the spread of Hindi. There are

quite a few private institutions where it is taught. But perhaps the prevalence of Hindi in the important towns and its permeation into even remote villages must be attributed to the perigrinations of itinerant Hindi masters or "Pracharaks", (seventy of them now working in 40 centres) who take it mostly as a labour of love to bring a working knowledge of the language within the easy reach of the ordinary folk just for a rupee or less per mensem with practically little outlay on books or notebooks. As a result about 15,000 persons have acquired knowledge of Hindi within the last decade and 850 males and 625 females are now under instruction. A large number of persons have passed one or the other of the graded examinations and hold degrees, several being Graduates in Hindi. In the number of candidates annually presented for Hindi examinations, Trivandrum stands first in South India. On the whole, thanks to nationalistic influences people are taking more and more to this language of All-India importance and in this matter women seem to evince a more distinct preference than men. But it may take some time for Hindi to assume the pervasive character which English has achieved in the State.

463. The figures showing the distribution of languages according to the classification accepted by the Linguistic Survey of India are given in the subjoined table.

Languages classified by Family and Group.				
Family, Sub-family, etc.	Number of languages returned.		Number of speakers.	
	1941	1931	1941	1931
STATE	34	29	6,070,018	5,095,973
A Languages of India	13	14	6,062,250	5,091,006
(i) Dravidian Family	5	5	6,033,874	5,084,323
(a) Dravida group	4	4	6,025,671	5,054,468
(b) Andhra Language	1	1	8,203	9,855
ii Tibeto-Chinese Family	1	..	3	..
iii Indo-European Family Indo-Aryan Branch	7	9	28,373	26,683
B Languages of Asiatic countries other than India	6	8	6,703	3,596
C European Languages	15	9	1,062	1,371
D Language unspecified	3	113*

* Included in Indo-European Family

The Dravidian family is represented in this State by Malayalam, Tamil, Canarese, Tulu and Telugu. It has been stated that 99.1 per cent. of the total population speak Malayalam or Tamil. If the other languages of the Dravidian family are also included, the percentage will be 99.4. The Dravidian family covered the same percentage of the total population in 1931 also. The strength and distribution of these languages have been stated above. It will be clear from Imperial Table XII that the foreign languages of the Dravidian family are practically confined to the Northern Division. Only very few persons speak them in the Central and the Southern Divisions.

464. The Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European family is represented by seven languages. Of the languages of other Asiatic countries, Singhalese which also belongs to the Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European family is spoken by 14 persons. Chinese, which belongs to the Chinese Branch of the Tibeto-Chinese family, is spoken by 81 persons; but 79 of these were passengers travelling in a steamer off the Travancore coast on the Census day. Arabic, Hebrew, Syriac and Maltese are languages recorded under the Semitic family. Syriac and Maltese are spoken only by 1 person each and Hebrew by 16.

465. Of the European languages, the units of the Romano group, the Celtic group, the Teutonic group, the Baltic-Slavonic group and the Ural-Altai group have been returned. The languages of the Romano group are spoken by 134 persons. Of these 1 speaks Italian, 45 French, 37 Spanish, 39 Portuguese and 12 Basque. One person speaks Gaelic (Scotch) of the Celtic group, 7 Polish and 1 Russian of the Baltic-Slavonic group. In the Teutonic group, 854 persons speak English, 8 Flemish, 27 Norwegian, 24 German and 2 Dutch. There are 4 persons—1 Finnish and 3 Hungarians who speak languages belonging to the Ural-Altai group.

466. From the fact that over 99 per cent. of the total population speak either Tamil or Malayalam, it will be clear that it is not possible from

the language spoken by a community to identify its caste. For example there are castes which consist of groups speaking different languages. The Kammala caste includes the Malayalam as well as the Tamil speaking groups and so also the Paraya, the Parava, the Kurava and several other castes, which are found both in the Malayalam and Tamil districts. There are other castes, for example the Chotties, the Nayudus etc., who speak three languages—Malayalam, Tamil and Telugu. There are several such composite castes especially of the Dravidian race and it is not therefore possible to correlate language with caste except in the case of a few minor ones. Owing to the dropping of tabulation for several tables in the adjoining British Indian Provinces, it has not been possible to correlate the language figures with the figures for birthplace and ascertain exactly the number of immigrants.

467. Figures representing bilingualism in respect of Malayalam and Tamil are given in the subjoined statement. The details given therein

Division or Taluk.	Percentage of population speaking Malayalam as mother tongue.	Percentage of population speaking Tamil as mother tongue.	Percentage of persons with Malayalam as mother tongue speaking Tamil as subsidiary language.	Percentage of persons with Tamil as mother tongue speaking Malayalam as subsidiary language.
Thovala, Agasthiswaram, Kalkulam and Vilavancode taluks in Southern Division.	13.0	80.6	9.4	4.1
Other taluks in the Southern Division.	91.4	7.6	0.6	42.6
Central Division, excluding Shenkotta taluk.	97.1	2.1	0.1	66.7
Shenkotta taluk.	3.0	94.6	4.4	0.7
Northern Division excluding Pirmede and Devikulam taluks.	98.0	1.8	0.1	69.3
Pirmede and Devikulam taluks.	30.9	66.0	4.6	1.9

reveal certain interesting facts. The Tamilians, where they are in a minority, ranging from 1.3 per cent. to 7.6 per cent. of the total population, acquire the habit of speaking Malayalam in much larger proportions. In the Northern Division, where there are only 1.3 per cent. of Tamilians, nearly 70 per cent. of them are able to speak Malayalam. Similarly, in the Central Division, excluding Shenkotta, and the Southern Division excluding the four taluks in the south, 66.7 and 42.5 per cent. respectively of the Tamilian population speak Malayalam. Where the preponderating mother-tongue is Tamil, the reverse order holds good. That is to say, the proportion of Tamilians who speak Malayalam is much smaller than that of Malayalis speaking Tamil. The conclusion that may be drawn from the above figures is that when a community is in a minority in any locality, it tries to adapt itself to its environments by learning to speak the language of the majority community. In the State as a whole only 39 persons out of 10,000 who speak Malayalam as mother-tongue speak Tamil as subsidiary language, while 1,192 persons out of 10,000 who speak Tamil as mother-tongue speak Malayalam as subsidiary language.

468. Most of the people who speak languages other than Tamil or Malayalam are immigrants who have come for trade or for cool labour in the plantation areas. Among the former there are many who have practically settled down in this country but yet maintain their exclusiveness by using, for all domestic purposes and in their dealings with members of their own communities, languages other than Malayalam or Tamil. Of the 49,157 persons, as many as 13,376 speak Konkani language, which is akin to Marathi, a language spoken by 7,292 persons. So nearly 42 per cent. of the people who speak languages other than Tamil or Malayalam are those who have come from the Konkani area. These people are found mostly in Sherthala, Alleppey, Prakkad, Kayankulam and Quilon, *i. e.*, practically in the commercial centres in the Lowland area near enough to the ports. 8,203 persons speak Telugu. They are mostly found in the

plantation areas in the High Ranges. Most of them are coolies in estates. Tulu is spoken by 3,380 persons and Kanarese by 1,430 persons. They are fairly equally distributed throughout the State. A large percentage of them is engaged in temple services or earn their living as cooks or hotel-keepers. Gujarathi is spoken by 2,675 persons who also form an exclusive community, engaged in commerce and perhaps are the most affluent among the immigrants. 6,590 persons have returned themselves as speaking Arabic. The Census returns show only two persons of Arabic nationality. But the large number of persons returned as speaking Arabic is accounted for by the fact that all those who read the Koran consider themselves as familiar with the Arabic language though the number of those that comprehend it is infinitesimal. Hindustani is spoken by 4,792 persons.

469. The proportion of persons speaking important languages other than Malayalam and Tamil in the State per 10,000 of the total population is given in the subjoined Table. The

Number of persons per 10,000 who speak as mother tongue.

Language.	Number.
Kanarese	2
Tulu	6
Telugu	14
Marathi	12
Konkani	22
Hindustani	8
Gujarathi	4
Arabic	11

proportions of persons speaking the above languages as mother-tongue together with Malayalam or Tamil as subsidiary language are shown in the subjoined table. Whether Malayalam or

Number of persons per 10,000 who speak certain languages as mother-tongue with Malayalam or Tamil as subsidiary language.

Mother-tongue.	Number per 10,000 speaking as subsidiary language.	
	Malayalam.	Tamil.
Kanarese	5,399	1,832
Tulu	4,494	1,077
Telugu	1,179	6,318
Marathi	7,534	258
Konkani	6,632	154
Hindustani	4,606	1,528
Gujarathi	4,751	1,750
Arabic	5,700	866

Tamil is spoken as a subsidiary language in any locality depends upon which of them is the preponderating language there. Thus in the southern taluks of the Southern Division, in Shenkotta taluk in the Central Division and in the taluks of Pirmeda and Devikulam in the Northern division, Tamil rather than Malayalam is ordinarily spoken as subsidiary to other languages and *vice versa*. Taking the State as a whole, it is seen that Konkani, Marathi and Hindustani are combined more largely with Malayalam than with Tamil, Telugu with Tamil more than with Malayalam and Kanarese more or less equally with either of them.

470. Other instances of bilingualism which may be worth noting are combinations of Tulu and Kanarese and Marathi and Hindi. It will be seen from subsidiary table (ii) on Imperial Table XII that out of every 10,000 persons speaking Tulu as mother-tongue 86 persons speak Kanarese as subsidiary language, out of 10,000 persons speaking Kanarese as mother-tongue 147 speak Tulu and out of 10,000 speaking Marathi as mother-tongue 16 speak Hindi.

471. We have seen that 99 per cent. of the population speak either Malayalam or Tamil and that Malayalam is the mother-tongue of nearly 85 per cent. of the people while even among the rest Malayalam is spoken as a subsidiary language. This feature has very much facilitated the spread of literacy in the State; for, any measure taken by Government or by private agency towards this may not bring about satisfactory results if appreciable proportions of the population speak different languages. Malayalam, as it has evolved today, is quite different from what it was in the early stages. Spoken Malayalam was then quite different from literary Malayalam. The excessive influence of Sanskrit which was apparent in the later stages of its growth has abated to a considerable extent. If Malayalam had retained its close affinity to Sanskrit it would never have been possible for it to develop into a popular literary language. The progress of literacy in the State has been considerably advanced by the fortunate development of Malayalam literature

on lines which brought it nearer to the spoken tongue without at the same time sacrificing its raciness or literary excellence. It is, therefore necessary to trace briefly the evolution of the language to its present position to understand and appreciate its contribution to the spread of literacy in the State.

472. The growth of Malayalam was achieved not in conflict but in complete co-operation with Tamil and Sanskrit. This spirit of assimilation has enriched the literature of the country and given it that necessary freedom which makes it possible for literature and art to be free from narrow provincialism. In this matter it is therefore difficult to talk of Travancore in isolation. It is part and parcel of Kerala art, Kerala literature and Kerala culture.

473. The history of the development of the language is marked in all its stages by the dominating influence of another language which was in literary favour during the particular periods. Tamil was the influencing factor in the earlier stages. As a matter of fact the language was at that time known as *Karimtamil* and not as Malayalam at all. We find a strong admixture of Tamil in the songs of the period composed by Kulasekhara Alwar and Pakkanar and others. The *Payyannoor Pattola*, the earliest work known to the student of Malayalam will read to the modern Malayali as Gothic to the Englishman. Separated from the old stock, *Karimtamil*, which grew to become Malayalam, underwent gradual changes. Sanskrit thereafter began to affect the grammar and vocabulary of old Malayalam to a considerable extent. We find innumerable Sanskrit words in the language by the close of this period. "*Ramacharitham*" and Kannassa Pauiker's "*Ramayanam*" are examples of the stage to which Malayalam language had developed during this period. In the "*Sandesa Kavyams*" and "*Champus*" of the next stage the dominating influence of Sanskrit is very apparent. In the circumstances one would not have expected Malayalam ever to assume an individuality of its own after this long period of bondage. The genius of Cherussery Namputhiri however turned

the scales in favour of Malayalam in his "*Krishnagatha*". He showed that a great work can be produced in Malayalam without a large admixture of Sanskrit words. It was left to the genius of Thunchathu Ramanujan Eluthachan to show that Malayalam could develop on its own lines and to demonstrate through his "*Kilippattus*" that the highest emotions and the sublimest thoughts of a community or people can find apt expression only if they are couched in their mother-tongue. The greatest work in Sanskrit written in Kerala may be a great work of art, something to be admired and looked upon with reverence and awe, but it seldom touches the heart of the people. The "*Adhyathma Ramayanam*" and the "*Mahabharatham*" on the other hand, are known in every Hindu home and countless millions have been inspired by it, consoled by it and have gone to raptures over it. It is no wonder therefore that Eluthachan is regarded as the father of indigenous Malayalam literature. His genius gave the ordinary, work-a-day man's language a literary form. In the period which followed Eluthachan a further stage in the development of Malayalam was achieved by the evolution of the "*Attakkatha*", a unique contribution of Kerala. In this, puranic stories are dramatised with vividness and colour, dexterously interwoven by the magnificence of the language, which adapts itself to the varying emotions and scenes in the story. Here generally the *slokas* which outline the theme are in Sanskrit and the songs which unravel it are in Malayalam. It is therefore a marvellous combination of Sanskrit and Malayalam, the one flowing into the other without any conscious separation. It showed clearly that Malayalam could rise to the level of Sanskrit. Even for the expert it is difficult to say which is superior, the Sanskrit *slokas* or the Malayalam songs.

474. The lead given to Malayalam by the '*Kilippattus*' and the '*Kathakali*' was fully utilised and Malayalam blossomed out in its native simplicity and grandeur in the compositions of Kunchan Nambiar who was able to portray society in all its weakness and strength in simple,

homely Malayalam unsurpassed by any previous or subsequent writer. In the famous "*Thullal Kathas*" of Nambiar, only the initiated could detect its affinity to Sanskrit or Tamil. He cast to the winds the conventions imposed by Sanskrit and his versatile genius has made the puranic heroes live and move with us in the familiar surroundings of Kerala.

475. While the literary labours of poets like Eluthachan and Nambiar conduced towards the emergence of Malayalam as an independent vehicle of refined thought and elegant instrument of poetic expression, indigenous Malayalam prose was gradually evolving on parallel lines under exotic influences. The European missionaries who settled down in Malabar gave a great fillip to the growth of Malayalam. For proselytism and propaganda they mastered the "*lingua malabarica*" with characteristic ease and thoroughness. By the publication of grammar books and scientific treatises in the language, the compilation of dictionaries and the institution of printing presses, in the wake of which cropped up newspapers and libraries, they paved the way for the rapid liquidation of illiteracy in the land.

476. It is by the straightforward, direct prose they evolved that they best enriched the language. In their Malayalam renderings of the Bible they scrupulously strove for simplicity of diction and directness of meaning. Of the two types of Malayalam then in vogue, the Missionaries for obvious reasons came to prefer the tamilised, colloquial, simple form called the "*Neecha-bhasha*" to the more learned, sanskritised literary language called "*Uchabhasha*" or "*grandhabhasha*", though they prepared grammar books on both.

477. The earliest lexicographers in Malayalam were missionaries. It is to them again that Malayalam owes its first printing press set up at Vaipin fort (near Cochin) in 1577. Two years later another was established in Cochin and within a decade others followed at Chennamangalam and Cranganore. Both Malayalam and Tamil

books were printed in these presses. The number of printing presses and type-foundries began rapidly to increase. The earliest Malayalam newspaper was the "*Nasrani Deepika*" published from the Carmelite monastery at Mannanam.

478. Despite the many-sidedness of the work done by the missionaries, the type of prose sponsored and fostered by them in the early Christian publications could not transcend the archaisms, colloquialisms and the tamilisms forced upon the Christians by the missionaries who insisted upon keeping the Syriac and Latin construction. But the same was the case with the prose in which were couched the state-papers, despatches, documents, etc., of both Travancore and Cochin during the centuries in question, since the diction, syntax and idioms of a living language can never be the same at all times.

479. It is through centuries of such development that Malayalam prose came to its own, shedding off its sanskritism in respect of the peculiar order and interrelation of words, syntax and often of high-sounding vocabulary. It is no longer a grammarless jargon blindly conforming to exotic rules. It has survived its sanskritic mania by the dropping of the personal endings in verbs, getting rid thereby of the inflections of gender, number and person as of old. The flow of its sentences is facilitated by the new types of word-termination in half consonants. It has now evolved its own code of grammatical rules and its own characteristic idioms.

480. It has specially to be remembered that in the evolution of both Malayalam language and literature, the literary genius of several of the Sovereigns and of the members of the ruling family in the State has made substantial contributions in prose as well as verse from time to time. By the time of Maharaja Ayilyam Thirunal a distinct type of prose had evolved itself. "*Meenakethanacharitham*" and a prose version of "*Sakunthalam*" written by His Highness may be taken to be the earliest specimens of modern prose style. To complete the modernisation of prose,

Kerala Varma Valia Koil Thampuran has, by his translations of English and Sanskrit books on new lines, set a model in the development of a style as graceful as that of Addison, "familiar but not vulgar, elegant but not ostentatious".

481. The progress of education in the 19th century and after has left its impress on the development of Malayalam language. The majority of the writers began thereafter to derive their inspiration mainly from English. English literature took the people out of the confines of Kerala and introduced them to the wider world beyond. The old conventions became irksome and the literary idealism of the ancients unattractive to modern society. Proficiency in Sanskrit was no longer considered necessary for any effective work in Malayalam. With this change is noticeable the revival of old metres and idioms which are so genuinely and characteristically indigenous. The essay, the short story and the prose drama are the outcome of the changes described above. Realism invaded the field of poetry also.

482. Malayalam made great headway in the composition of scientific treatises during the present century. Here the authors felt the poverty of the language to describe the various phases of natural phenomena. The need was therefore felt for creating a vocabulary of Malayalam equivalents for scientific terms. In the last decade great progress has been made in this direction and after the inauguration of the University, a committee of experts has been appointed to prepare a vocabulary of scientific terms. Their work which is nearing completion, will crown the many-sided developments of the language in the last half a century.

483. In the 1931 Census the Enumerators were required to record "not only whether a person was literate according to the *test prescribed* but also whether he or she *had passed the fourth standard in Vernacular education*". (vide page 281). While the figures so obtained might have given an accurate estimate of the number of persons who had passed the Fourth Class

examination and standards above that, they can hardly give an accurate estimate of the really literate persons in the State, viz., *all those persons who could read and write.*

484. In my experience in the field of education during the last seventeen years, I have come across a large number of boys and girls in elementary schools giving up their studies in the middle of the year or taking a number of years to pass the Fourth Class on account of their inability to attain the required standard in Arithmetic, Geography or History; but at the same time *able to read and write*, their language standard being invariably higher than that of the Fourth Class. The Census Commissioner for 1931 has also not taken into account the large number of girls who leave off studies before reaching the Fourth Class, since their parents refuse to send them to school after these girls attain puberty. Incidentally it may be stated that the average age of the girl in the several standards is higher than that of the boy. A large number of these girls are given private tuition not only in language but in sewing, cooking, etc., which will make them useful housewives and I know from experience that this practical application of their literacy in their everyday life at home, combined with a wide taste for reading, which is prevalent among both males and females in the State, makes them more conversant with the three R's than perhaps the boy or the girl who undergoes a regular course in the pre-middle school classes.

485. These observations are of course confined to those who are sent to school. But a large number of girls among the Malayala Brahmans, Muslims and even among the Tamil Brahmans are not sent to school at all after the age of 11 or 12. Certainly two decades ago, it must have been more rigidly observed than today. But these girls are given a regular coaching in letters at home. With regard to boys, the custom is to start them in letters as soon as they complete the 3rd year. They are sent to school after the preliminary education at home for two years during which a large percentage of them, particularly from the

upper and middle classes, are able to read the Second Reader and do at least, addition and subtraction before they join school. The above aspects have been explained at some length to show that while a rigidity of test may be useful in preventing inflation of figures it may also stand in the way of correctly assessing the incidence of literacy in the State.

486. In view of what is stated above it may be clear that the literacy figures for 1931 were under-estimated. My predecessor has stated that as the test of literacy was not sufficiently rigid the figures for 1921 were naturally inflated. In the circumstances it was considered better to graduate the figures by the Logarithmic method for purposes of inference. (*vide* Appendix IV).

487. The population figures and the literacy figures from 1901 to 1941 in broad age-groups were examined in detail and the margin of error ascertained. The conclusions are the following:—

- i. The percentage of error is at its maximum in 1931 and the 1921 figures are not so unreliable as is stated in the 1931 Report.
- ii. With regard to 1941, it may be pointed out that the number of people who are literate as per Census returns is less than the graduated figures (*e. g.*, 2,858,053 against 2,907,777). The divergence of the Census figures from the general trend is due to economic causes. The economic depression which set in by about 1929 had assumed serious proportions by about the middle of the last decade. It adversely affected the life of the large numbers of people leading a hand-to-mouth existence, who found it difficult therefore to provide themselves with even the necessaries of life and much less find the wherewithal to send their children to school. It is seen from the Administration Report of the Education Department for the year 1939 that the recognition of 758 primary schools had been withdrawn during the period 1935—39. Naturally these schools must have been closed.

Though overlapping is one of the reasons attributed for this measure, it may be stated without fear of contradiction that it would have been almost impossible to close several of these schools if there had been a rush for admission to them in their respective areas.

488. The progress of literacy could not be viewed in its proper perspective if for reasons stated above, a comparison is made between the figures for 1931 and 1941 only. It would be more logical to take a survey of the number of literates for a longer period and therefore the period from 1901 to 1941 has been taken up for comparison. The number of people, male and female, considered literate as per the Census returns and as per the graduation method and of the indices for the changes during the successive decades were taken into account. The conclusion deducible therefrom is that in the total literacy there is distinct progress from decade to decade and the same trend is maintained in all the age-groups.

489. The present Census has recorded a higher percentage of literacy than that for 1931. This time 2,858,053 persons have been returned as literates. This gives a percentage of 47.1 literates to the total population. These figures do not include 6,577 children who are under 5 years and who have been returned as literates. If these children are also included the total number of literates would be 2,864,630 and the percentage to the total population would be 47.2. But children under 5 years of age had to be left out of account according to instructions from the Census Commissioner for India. The population under 5 has also therefore to be deducted from the total population to ascertain correctly the percentage of literates to the total population. The population of the State excluding children under 5 years of age is 5,192,505 and of these the percentage of literates would be 55.04. So high a percentage has secured for the State the first rank among the States and Provinces of India.

490. This place of honour which Travancore occupies to-day in point of literacy has been the

result of the personal interest taken by the successive rulers of the country in the educational uplift of the people. So early as 1817 Rani Gouri Parvati Bayi issued a rescript directing "that the State shall defray the entire cost of the education of its people in order that there may be no backwardness in the spread of enlightenment among them, that by diffusion of education they might become better subjects and public servants and that the reputation of the State may be advanced thereby". This reads so modern in its enunciation of a principle which has gained popular currency only in very recent times. It is interesting to note that in the early days invariably all the schools were situated in the neighbourhood of the palaces. This Royal interest is also reflected in the progressive increase in the allotment for education in the State Budget year after year.

Year	Pupils.	Expenditure. Rs.
1910-11	211,773	7,06,715
1920-21	423,022	26,49,036
1930-31	688,098	40,00,670
1940-41	764,544	51,28,800

491. As a result, the position and prestige of the Department of Education have been raised to those of a major department in the State. The substantial help rendered by Government to various non-official bodies who shared with Government the responsibility of imparting education to the people at large contributed not a little to the progress of education in the State. It was the policy of Government during successive decades to spend the major portion of the allotment for education for the establishment, promotion and development of schools where the medium of instruction was the mother-tongue of the people. To-day, therefore, there are 3,451 Malayalam and Tamil schools averaging to 1 school for 1.5 sq. miles of inhabited area. The absence of any fees up to the fourth standard, the lower fees levied in classes above that and the proximity of the schools to the home attracted the majority of the school-going population to these schools. If

attention had been focussed more on the development of English schools which was the fashion then, literacy would not have progressed at such an accelerated pace as really happened during successive decades. The following table gives the proportion of expenditure for the Malayalam and English schools.

Year.	English school	Malayalam and Tamil
	education. Rs.	school education. Rs.
1932	8,36,461	27,86,309
1936	9,03,109	28,82,481
1941	7,76,261	29,00,695

492. Education had thus recorded a great advance by the beginning of the decade. The public had come to realise the importance of education. They actively co-operated with Government both in the spread of literacy and in the development of higher education. The budget allotment of Government for education had reached the high figure of 49 lakhs, *i. e.*, 20.6 per cent of the State revenue in 1931. But in spite of these efforts only 13.9 per cent of the age-group 5-10 and 25.8 per cent of the age-group 10-15 were literate, and the consequent lapse into illiteracy still remained a vexed problem. This had to be solved and methods devised to secure the maximum returns for the large amounts spent by Government and the public on education.

493. The accession of His Highness the Maharaja Sri Chitra Thirunal, which happily synchronised with the first year of the last decade, inaugurated a period of intense educational planning. An Education Reforms Committee was constituted towards the close of 1932 "to enquire into the present educational system in the State and advise Government as to the reform to be effected in it". The Committee stressed the importance of the introduction of co-education, free primary education including and up to the fifth class, the encouragement of technical education and the education of the backward communities. The necessity of co-ordinating education with the means of earning a livelihood was recognised to be of the utmost importance and urgency. The Committee noticed also that

among other things the existence of several incomplete primary schools made lapse into illiteracy almost inevitable. No definite principles had been formulated with regard to the distribution of the primary schools. There were also different types of schools catering to the needs of particular communities. The *Mahtab* system of education continued to flourish among the Muslims in spite of its patent defects. Even in the primary stage co-education was not introduced and a costly bifurcation was thus perpetuated. The inadequacy of supervisory staff made annual inspection of classes almost impossible. It is no wonder, therefore, that in spite of the expenditure of large sums of money, no commensurate progress was recorded in the spread of literacy in the State. The Committee had made specific recommendations for remedying these defects. The President of the Committee was appointed as Director of Public Instruction. He and his successors were able to persuade Government to carry out the reforms which had been recommended in the report. Recognition was withdrawn for the incomplete primary schools, first of the one class schools, then of two class schools and lastly of the three class schools. Care was taken that in all cases where the management agreed to raise incomplete schools to complete schools recognition was not withdrawn. This process of transformation of the incomplete to the complete primary school started in 1935. The primary schools which had shown definite increase during the decade ending with 1921, from 1,433 in 1911 to 3,457 in 1921 recorded a small decrease during the last two decades, the number in 1931 and 1941 being only 3,252 and 2,902 respectively. This fall was due also to the rigorous enforcement of grant-in-aid rules, prevention of unhealthy competition among denominational schools and the abolition of overlapping schools. Though the number of schools recorded a decrease during the last decade, the strength did not undergo any decrease but recorded only an increase. The reduction in numbers mentioned above may partly be due to the economic depression felt particularly by the labourers

and agriculturists and also the enforcement of the rule that children below 5 should not be admitted to schools.

494. Subsidiary Table (vi) on Imperial Table XI gives the number of institutions of each grade and their strength for the years 1911, 1921, 1931 and 1941. The scholars in all these institutions increased by 100·2 per cent. in the first decade, 38·7 per cent. in the next and 30 per cent. in the last decade. The total increase of scholars has been 261 per cent. "There are only very few Pakuthies in Travancore without a school in or near them. New schools are opened year after year in localities where educational facilities do not exist to the fullest extent." The increase in the number and strength of primary schools is an index of the progress of literacy. Taking the State as a whole the average area served by each primary school was 5·3 sq. miles in 1911, 2·2 in 1921, 2·3 in 1931 and 2·6 in 1941. The average number of persons served by each school was 2,393 in 1911, 1,159 in 1921, 1,567 in 1931 and 2,092 in 1941. The higher ratios both in point of area as well as the average number of persons served by the schools when compared to those of 1931 are due to the fact that owing to the increased facilities for transport each school by providing additional accommodation, could cater to a larger number of pupils.

495. Co-education was introduced into the primary section. A great saving to Government was thus effected and at the same time the convenience to the public was increased. Encouragement was given to the starting of schools in localities where none existed before. Government discouraged the maintenance of schools which did not conform to the standard set up for the primary section by the Department. The results of these measures are seen in the higher percentage of children coming up to the Fourth Class standard from 1933 onwards, which has progressively increased the number of effective literates in the State. The chances of wastage and stagnation in education and lapse into illiteracy are thus being progressively reduced.

For every 100 pupils in class 1 in 1928 only 39 reached class 4 in 1931, for every 100 in class 1 in 1932—33, 57 reached class 4 in 1935—36; and for every 100 in class 1 in 1936—37, 60 reached class 4 in 1939—40.

496. No improvement in primary or secondary education is possible without a competent staff. In 1931 nearly 60 per cent. of the teachers were not trained. On the recommendations of the Education Reforms Committee the number of training schools was increased. In 1931 there were only 18 training schools in the State with 338 pupil-teachers in them. In 1941 the corresponding figures are 47 and 1,428. Better equipment and better standards were demanded of these training schools. A more thorough and efficient system of inspection was also inaugurated. Today in the management schools nearly 65 per cent. and in most of the Government schools nearly cent. per cent. of the teachers are trained.

497. The curricula of studies have also been considerably improved and brought up to date. The vast changes that have occurred in the last quarter of a century in the system of education are embodied in the new syllabuses prescribed by the Syllabus Revision Committees and adopted by the Department. The Education Code framed nearly a quarter of a century ago had become obsolete and a new code was brought into existence.

498. The problem of finding suitable text books for the several classes had been a vexed one for some years. With the progressive adoption of Malayalam and Tamil as the medium of instruction it was found difficult to get suitable text books particularly on scientific subjects. Government successfully tackled this problem also and it is indeed an achievement that in the short span of one year suitable text books for the various subjects have been published under departmental direction.

499. Education has been progressing to such a remarkable degree in the last few decades that Government rightly thought that the next step

should be to make it more and more efficient and to avoid wastage as far as possible. Public examinations were therefore instituted at the end of the Fourth Standard and the Third Form. This ensured better qualified pupils going up for studies in higher classes. The results of the Middle School and the High School public examinations bear ample testimony to the progress of effective education.

500. The number of candidates presented for such public examinations has considerably increased. A noteworthy feature is that the Malayalam and Tamil examinations have recorded a higher percentage of increase. In 1931 only 492 candidates appeared for the Malayalam and Tamil Higher Examinations while in 1941 the number increased to 3,810. In the Malayalam and Tamil School Leaving Certificate Examinations the number of candidates sent up increased from 5,831 in 1930 to 9,042 in 1941. Government's policy of making education more efficient by instituting public examinations at the different stages and making these more and more rigid did not scare away the students, but instead produced only the encouraging result of an increase in the number of candidates appearing for them.

501. The education of the Backward Communities had been engaging the attention of Government even during the early years of the present century. Government schools were thrown open to all castes and communities, and deserving candidates of the Backward Communities were exempted from examination fees. Government even ordered that the necessary condition for the recognition of a private school by the Department of Education was that it should be thrown open to all classes of people. In 1936 liberal fee concessions were sanctioned for the pupils belonging to these communities. As a result, such of their pupils as came up to the top classes of the primary section were given the special advantage of being supplied with text books free of cost. In the last few years fee concessions were extended to them in the

higher classes also. As an experimental measure a Harijan Hostel was recently started in Trivandrum and it gives free board and lodging to the pupils of the Backward Communities. Special preference is also shown to these communities in the matter of recruitments to Public Service. Private agencies have also been encouraged to provide facilities for the education of the backward communities, by liberal grants from Government.

502. In the sphere of primary and secondary education therefore the State had introduced far-reaching changes as a result of the recommendations of the Reforms Committee and Government felt that the reforms effected in the secondary education would not be sufficiently comprehensive or complete unless followed by suitable changes in Collegiate education as well. A system of collegiate education which stood aloof and isolated from school education is bound to be a misfit in any country. Collegiate education had made vast strides in the last half a century and at the beginning of the last decade the State had 10 Colleges of which 6 were maintained by Government and 4 by private management. There were nearly 3,000 undergraduates in all these institutions put together. Besides these colleges, there were as many as 8 quasi-educational institutions useful for research and advanced technical studies by the University students. Despite the large amounts spent by Government to provide accommodation in the colleges in Travancore, the number of applicants was far in excess of the accommodation available and many were therefore obliged to seek admission to institutions outside the State. The admission of Travancore students to technical and professional colleges outside the State was also becoming more and more difficult.

503. In 1922 steps were taken by the Madras Government by means of a Bill in the Madras Legislative Assembly to concentrate the resources of the University of Madras and to create a synthesis involving a different level between the Colleges at Madras and the affiliated mofussil colleges. This was virtually a notice for separation.

504. The question of establishing a separate University for Travancore so that the students of the State may not have to seek accommodation in outside colleges had already engaged the attention of Government and at the beginning of the decade itself Government were considering the recommendations made by the Travancore University Committee of 1923 regarding the constitution of a separate University for Travancore.

505. Since 1916 three Universities, the Mysore, the Andhra and the Annamalai had come into existence by separation from the Madras University and in all these cases the resources and materials available for the creation of separate Universities were less adequate than those which Travancore possessed. Further, the recommendations of the Sadler Commission and the Hartog Committee emphasised that the main attempts of a University should be directed to its teaching and research side.

506. In 1936 a fully representative University Advisory Committee was constituted. On the basis of the suggestions made by this Committee a memorandum on the proposed University was prepared and submitted by the special University Officer in May 1937 and the final draft of the University Act was presented on 19th October.

507. On 2nd November 1937 His Highness the Maharaja issued a Proclamation embodying the Act announcing the establishment and the incorporation of the Travancore University. Immediately after its formation the University took up the question of providing facilities for professional education and established an Engineering College, an Institute of Textile Technology, a Central Institute of Research and an Institute of Forestry. With the inauguration of the new University great impetus was given to physical education by the establishment of a Physical Education Board. Apart from the encouragement given to games and athletics by providing additional facilities in the various colleges thereby making it possible for a larger number of students to participate in the various

physical activities, the Board inaugurated a programme of intense and varied inter-collegiate competitions. A comprehensive programme was also drawn up for the development of indigenous games and exercises. The most notable achievement in this direction was the starting of the University Labour Corps. The chief objects of the Corps were to give its members military training and to instil in their minds a true idea of the dignity of manual labour.

508. The educated Travancorean may well pause and consider, in this connection, the weighty words of Sir Michael Sadler when he says that "the education of a people is not given by the schools and colleges alone. Other influences blend with them. The spirit and temper of the community which they serve, the power exerted over its thought and character by the prevalent aspirations and beliefs, the tone of its family life, the rules and restrictions imposed by social organisations, the conditions under which its whole work for livelihood is done."

509. Among the male population of 5 years and over the literates number 1,768,296 or 67.9 per cent. and among the females of 5 years and over there are 1,089,757 literates or 42.1 per cent.

510. The proportion of literacy by age-group and sex according to the present Census is given in the subjoined table. It will be seen that

Age-groups.	Percentage of literates.	
	Males.	Females.
5-10	55.6	40.8
10-15	76.3	60.8
15-20	79.3	58.6

the peak point in literacy is reached in the 15-20 group among males and in the 10-15 group among females.

511. The proportional figures of literates by sex and locality derived from subsidiary table (ii) on Imperial Table XI are given below. It will be clear therefrom that of the Administrative

State or Division.	Number per cent. of all ages 5 and over who are literates.		
	Persons	Males	Females
State	55.0	67.9	42.1
Administrative Divisions			
Southern	45.7	59.5	32.0
Central	59.2	72.7	45.7
Northern	58.0	69.3	46.3
Natural Divisions			
Lowland	54.6	68.4	41.0
Midland	57.5	69.8	45.0
Highland	39.1	50.6	26.0

Divisions, the Central has the highest proportion of male literates and the Northern the highest proportion of female literates. Of the Natural Divisions the Midland records the highest and the Highland the lowest percentage of literacy.

512. Literacy in the urban areas is proportionately greater than that in the rural areas because the towns offer greater facilities for education. The subjoined statement shows the ratio of males and females in the towns and rural parts.

Literacy in urban and rural areas.

Number per cent. of all ages 5 and over who are literates.

Locality	Persons	Males	Females
Rural	53.9	66.9	40.9
Urban	67.4	79.3	55.0

513. The percentage of literacy of both sexes in the Municipal towns in the State, including the Corporation of Trivandrum, is given in the descending order of male literacy in the subjoined table. It will be seen that Trivandrum, the

Corporation or Municipality.

Percentage of literates.

	Males	Females
1. Thiruvella	90.6	75.3
2. Kottayam	87.5	73.0
3. Changanachery	85.0	64.8
4. Alleppey	82.9	56.8
5. Kayankulam	81.8	55.9
6. Alwaye	81.7	58.0
7. Vaikom	80.8	55.1
8. Nagercoil	80.5	48.5
9. Trivandrum	80.2	57.5
10. Parur	79.6	56.2
11. Attingal	77.0	49.9
12. Quilon	76.1	53.3
13. Neyyattinkara.	73.1	51.6
14. Kulithura	71.8	46.9
15. Shenkotta	66.9	21.1
16. Padmanabhapuram	61.1	34.7
17. Colachel	46.2	28.6

Capital, takes only the ninth rank in spite of her numerous educational institutions, while Thiruvella, Kottayam and Changanachery occupy the first three places in the list in the respective percentages of both male and female literacy. This may be due to the fact that the larger area of the City of Trivandrum makes the schools in the city more widely distributed than in those three towns where a comparatively closer proximity of a number of schools is found to exist within their smaller areas.

514. It is interesting to note that the same ranking of Trivandrum city in comparison with the three municipal towns mentioned above holds good in the case of the Trivandrum taluk also in relation to the corresponding taluks in which the three towns are situated. The subjoined table, setting forth the percentages of literacy by sex in the various taluks arranged in

Taluks arranged according to literacy.

Taluku	Persons	Males	Females
Thiruvella	74.4	84.3	64.4
Kottayam	73.5	83.5	63.1
Changanachery	70.7	80.0	61.0
Minachil	68.8	78.1	59.2
Pathanamthitta	68.1	78.6	57.3
Ampalappula	63.9	76.0	51.5
Karthigappally	61.0	75.9	46.8
Mavelikara	60.7	74.1	47.6
Vaikom	59.9	74.6	45.0
Trivandrum	58.3	71.5	45.0
Karunagapally	55.9	69.6	42.7
Sherthala	55.4	73.1	37.9
Thodupula	54.1	64.9	42.9
Quilon	53.5	68.1	39.5
Parur	52.3	64.3	40.8
Agasthiswaram	51.7	67.8	35.9
Kunnathur	51.1	64.3	38.0
Kottarakkara	48.7	64.0	33.4
Muvattupula	48.0	61.7	34.4
Kunnathunad	47.7	61.2	34.4
Pathanapuram	47.5	62.0	32.7
Neyyattinkara	47.5	60.0	34.9
Thovala	45.7	64.2	27.7
Chirayinkil	43.9	61.1	28.8
Nedumangad	41.5	56.4	26.6
Kalkulam	37.7	48.4	26.8
Vilavancode	34.7	47.8	21.3
Pirmede	33.0	44.7	17.7
Shenkotta	30.9	50.9	10.8
Devikulam	18.2	27.8	6.2

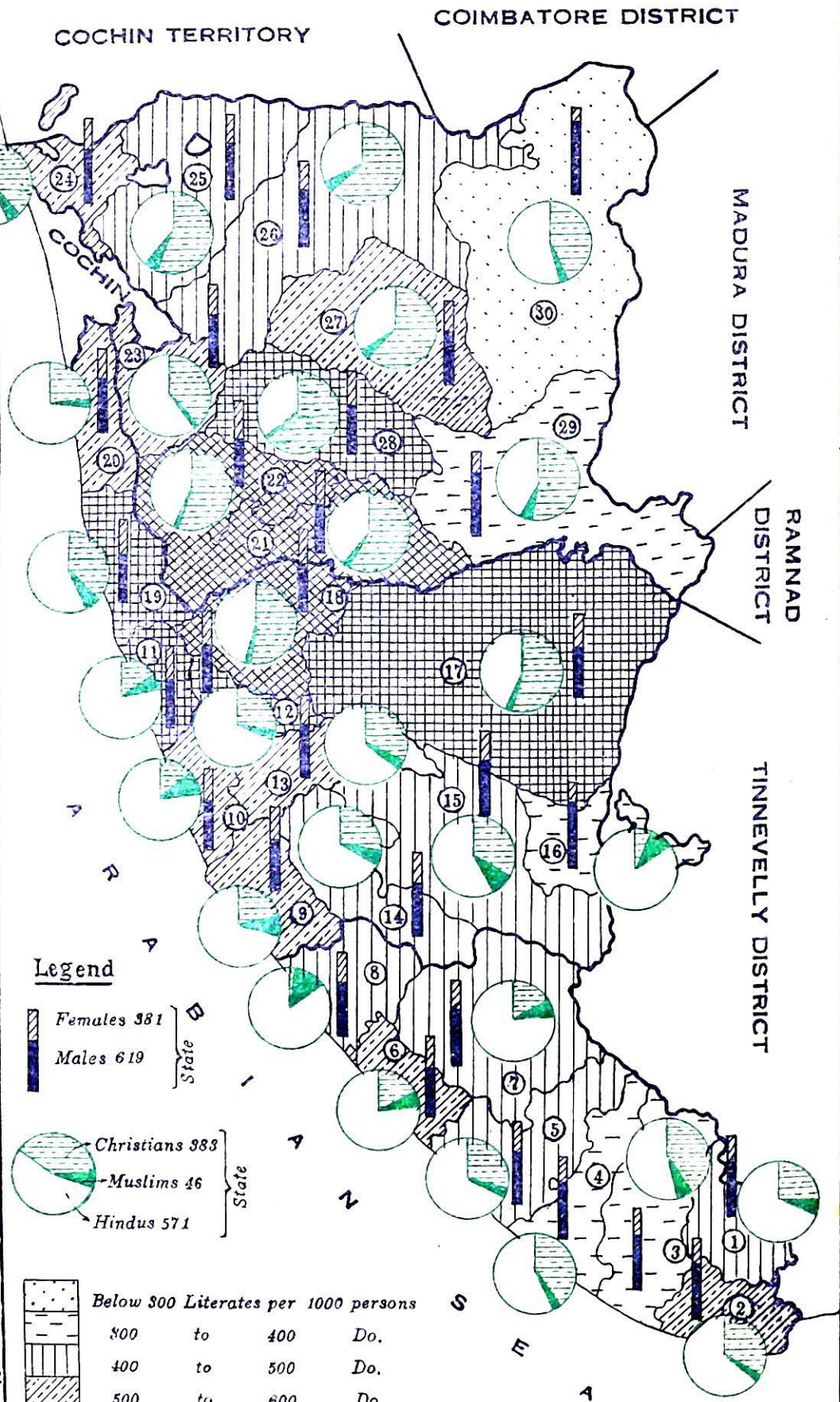
TRAVANCORE

Literacy by Taluks, Sex and Community

Scale 1 Inch = 20 Miles

Sq. Miles	Rank	Area
694.97	1	9.1
1543.66	2	20.1
1327.56	3	17.4
2453.94	4	32.0
974.59	5	12.7
667.03	6	18.7

Rank	Name of Taluk	Litorates per 1000	Proportion of 1000 Literates by				
			Sex		Community		
			Males	Females	Hindus	Muslims	Christians
22	1. Thovala	457	694	306	694	62	244
16	2. Agasthiswaram	517	649	351	645	35	320
25	3. Kalkulam	377	649	351	541	63	396
26	4. Vilavancode	347	697	303	584	26	390
21	5. Neyyattinkara	475	633	367	677	28	295
10	6. Trivandrum	583	616	384	779	61	160
24	7. Nedumangad	415	679	321	752	72	176
23	8. Chirayinkil	439	651	349	847	129	24
14	9. Quilon	535	625	375	699	80	221
11	10. Karunagapally	559	612	388	747	109	144
7	11. Karthikapally	610	608	392	791	58	151
8	12. Mavelikara	607	603	397	702	33	265
17	13. Kunnathur	511	628	372	665	34	301
18	14. Kottarakkara	487	655	345	686	52	262
21	15. Pathanapuram	475	660	340	591	104	305
28	16. Shenkotta	309	825	175	850	93	57
5	17. Pathanamthitta	681	585	415	443	23	534
1	18. Thiruvella	744	569	431	467	13	520
6	19. Ampalapula	639	601	399	570	72	358
12	20. Sherthala	554	654	346	732	28	240
3	21. Changanachery	707	581	419	385	37	578
2	22. Kottayam	735	578	422	429	14	557
9	23. Vaikom	599	625	375	597	16	387
15	24. Parur	523	606	394	566	49	385
20	25. Kunnathunad	477	636	364	375	63	562
19	26. Muvattupula	480	643	357	317	38	645
13	27. Thodupula	541	613	387	316	42	642
4	28. Minachil	688	579	421	334	14	652
27	29. Pirmede	330	768	232	426	57	517
29	30. Devikulam	182	850	150	542	30	428



Legend

Females 381
 Males 619
 Christians 383
 Muslims 46
 Hindus 571

Below 300 Literates per 1000 persons

300 to 400	Do.
400 to 500	Do.
500 to 600	Do.
600 to 700	Do.
700 and over	Do.

descending order bears out this fact. Two important features emerge from a study of the table. In the first place the several taluks that top the list owe their high percentage of literacy more to private educational agencies than to government institutions. Again these taluks are all located in Central Travancore. It may also be remembered that they owe their places of honour to their priority in the establishment of schools within their bounds, chiefly through the efforts of Christian missionaries. Devikulam owes its melancholy distinction of holding the last place in the list obviously to its situation in the comparatively undeveloped High Ranges.

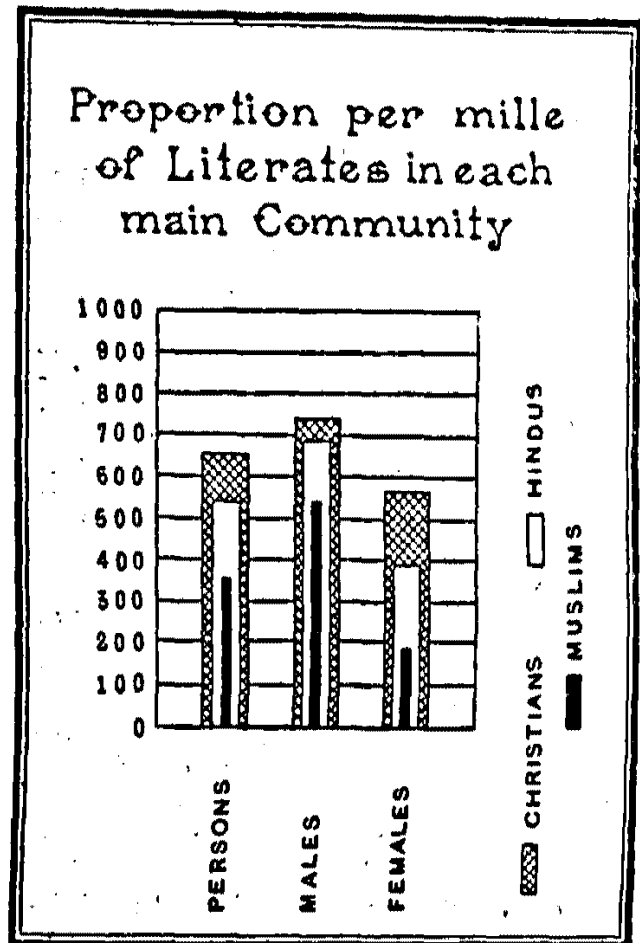
515. Taking all age-groups together, the proportion of female to male literates is 62 to 100 but it varies considerably in the different age-groups as can be seen from the subjoined figures.

Literacy by sex and age period.

Age-group.	Number of female literates per 100 male literates.
All Ages	62
5-10	83
10-15	78
15-20	75
20-30	64
30-50	44
50 and over	28

The progressive increase revealed in female literacy in the lower age-groups indicates the more rapid spread of female education in recent years, particularly during the last decade.

516. On a comparison of the literacy figures pertaining to the major communities, it is found that the Christians record the highest percentage. (See diagram.) A large proportion of the Hindus belongs to the Backward Communities who are not sufficiently advanced and that accounts for the comparative backwardness of the Hindus in point of literacy. The Muslims record the lowest proportion of literates. They took to education seriously only from recent times but they have ever since been making substantial progress during the last few years. The subjoined table will show that the ratio of the



proportion of Hindu males to females is as 17 : 10 Christian 9 : 7 and Muslims 3 : 1. Among the

Number per cent. of the population 5 and over, who are literate in each main community.

Community.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Hindu	58.6	68.4	38.6
Muslim	35.7	53.0	17.9
Christian	65.2	73.8	56.3

male population of 5 years and over, 2 in every 3 among the Hindus, 3 in every 4 among Christians, and 1 in every 2 among the Muslims are literate. Among the females, there is greater disparity. Two in every 5 among the Hindus, 3 in every 5 among the Christians and only 1 in every 6 among the Muslims are literate. The percentage of female to male literates is given in the subjoined table.

Literacy by sex in the main communities.

Community.	Number of female literates per 100 male literates.
All communities	62
Hindu	57
Muslim	33
Christian	74

517. If the total literate population is taken into account there are 62 females to 100 male literates. The Christians have a higher ratio than the State average. During the last decade the number of literate females per 100 literate males has increased from 35 to 57 in the case of Hindus, from 53 to 74 in the case of Christians and from 11 to 33 in the case of Muslims.

518. The boy or girl who has successfully completed the Seventh Class or the School Final Class may be regarded as having attained a sufficiently effective standard of literacy. Lapse into illiteracy will seldom happen after this period. A boy ordinarily gets to the 7th standard by his 11th or 12th year and to the School Final Class by his 15th year. Effective literacy can therefore be ascertained from the age-group 10-15. Literacy in the next age-group 15-20 will be useful in ascertaining the extent and progress of higher education in the State. The progress made in education in these two age-groups will give an idea of the material available for employment in Government service and to find out persons capable of taking up other professional careers. Effective participation in the life of the country will depend largely upon the equipment the individual gets during ages 15-20. The number of people who are thus equipped in society is a very important criterion in determining the possibilities of social progress. Further the number of educated persons in these two age-groups will also be helpful in examining the problems of educated unemployment. A comparison with the percentages in these age-groups with those of 1931 is also possible as the rigidity of the standard set up by the Census Commissioner for 1931 may not materially affect the corresponding figures.

519. The figures for males and females by the main communities are given in the subjoined table for the age-groups 10-15 and 15-20.

Literacy by sex and community at the age-groups 10-15 and 15-20.

Period.	Community.	Number per cent. who are literate.	
		Males.	Females.
10-15	Hindu	78.8	58.9
	Muslim	59.7	29.7
	Christian	82.3	74.1
15-20	Hindu	79.6	56.0
	Muslim	64.8	25.4
	Christian	84.9	74.0

520. The statistics relating to the different castes and communities are given below with a view to show the relative importance of each caste in point of literacy. The castes and sects are ranked in the order of the percentage of literates.

Caste or Community.	Percentage of Literacy of different castes and communities.		
	Percentage of literates to the total population of each community.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1. Kshatriya	74.0	75.4	72.5
2. Brahman	73.9	83.5	63.9
3. Marthomite	70.7	77.4	63.8
4. Ampalavasi	69.2	74.5	63.7
5. Jacobite	62.5	71.6	53.1
6. Ilavathi	62.4	74.3	51.9
7. Syrian Catholic	61.9	67.1	56.4
8. Kaniyan	61.9	77.0	46.4
9. Nayar	61.7	73.4	50.3
10. Vellalan	56.7	73.1	40.4
11. Saliyan	55.7	71.1	40.0
12. Anglican	53.8	60.0	47.2
13. Veluthadanayar	53.5	65.4	42.3
14. Velakkithalanayar	48.3	62.1	34.9
15. S. I. U. C.	47.6	55.2	39.8
16. Kammalan	46.6	63.6	29.4
17. Ilavan	46.5	61.0	32.2
18. Chetti	46.4	59.9	32.0
19. Roman Catholic	43.5	52.0	34.9
20. Virasaivar	43.4	59.4	27.2
21. Panan	42.5	57.0	28.7
22. Arayan	42.3	53.7	30.3
23. Vaniyan	39.2	56.7	21.4
24. Paravan	37.9	53.7	22.6
25. Valan	37.7	56.7	18.0
26. Velan	36.6	50.6	22.8
27. Krishnanvaka	35.9	53.7	17.8
28. Yadavan	35.9	52.3	19.4
29. Vannan	35.6	47.1	24.1
30. Ilavathian	35.4	58.6	11.6
31. Salvationists	35.2	44.3	26.1
32. Muslim	30.2	44.8	15.1
33. Thandan	28.1	40.1	16.1
34. Chackaravar	28.1	38.3	16.3
35. Nulayan	25.3	39.1	11.5
36. Kudmi	24.0	37.8	9.5
37. Nadar	22.3	33.3	10.7
38. Velan	19.2	30.0	8.4
39. Maravan	18.8	31.5	5.2
40. Pulayan	17.0	25.2	8.7
41. Parayan	16.4	25.1	7.6
42. Kanikkaran	11.8	16.7	6.0
43. Ullatan	10.2	14.4	6.1
44. Kuravan	7.8	12.8	3.2
45. Pallan	6.0	10.7	1.0
46. Chakkiliyan	6.0	9.5	2.6
47. Vetan	3.8	5.1	2.3

521. It has been noticed that female education has been advancing rapidly in Travancore which in 1931 occupied the second place among the different Provinces and States in India in female literacy. During the decade so great an impetus was given to female education that she has attained the place of honour at this Census by taking the first rank in India. There are at present 42.1 per cent. female literates of 5 years and over in Travancore, the corresponding percentage for males being 67.9.

522. The Table below shows the progress of literacy since 1901. From this it can be seen that literacy has made rapid progress in the State during the last 40 years. The graduated figures also show that literacy has

Progress of literacy.

Number of literates per cent. at different age-periods.

Year.	10—15		15—20		20 and over.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1901	13.6	4.3	26.4	5.8	32.0	8.5
1911	16.9	7.1	31.8	9.7	36.9	5.6
1921	35.7	21.0	43.7	22.6	44.0	16.0
1931	31.4	20.0	53.0	27.4	47.5	15.3
1941	76.3	60.8	79.3	58.6	66.8	32.5

been making striking progress from decade to decade. In 1901, 7 males and 2 females were literate for every 50 males and 50 females, while in 1941, 38 males and 30 females are literate for every 50 males and 50 females in the age-groups 10-15. The 5-10 age-group of 1931 will be the 15-20 age-group of 1941. During the latter period the boy or girl ordinarily completes the school and collegiate education. The number in the above group should include, in a country where education is progressing, people who have had a sound education which would enable them effectively to participate in the life of the country as responsible citizens. Hence a comparison of figures during the last 40 years in this age-group will be useful and necessary. A clear idea of the comparative progress in effective education may be thus obtained from the actual number of literates in the age-group 15-20 from the figures recorded in the last five censuses. It will be seen from the table given above that in this age-

group the percentage of literates has increased from 26.4 males and 5.8 females in 1901 to 79.3 and 58.6 in 1941. In 1901 only 13 males and 3 females for every 50 males and 50 females were literate. The figures have now increased to 40 per 50 among males and 29 per 50 among females. The figures for the last five censuses are given below.

Literates in age group 15—20 at the last five Censuses.

Year.	Persons.	Increase per cent.	Males.	Increase per cent.	Females.	Increase per cent.
1901	48,887	..	35,778	..	8,109	..
1911	67,076	63	50,805	42	16,271	101
1921	129,780	98	84,578	66	45,157	178
1931	194,671	50	126,411	49	68,260	51
1941	428,510	120	244,420	93	184,090	170

523. The table below gives the number of literates per 100 of each sex in the age-group 15-20 in the Administrative Divisions at the last

Number of literates per cent. of each sex at the age group 15—20 in the Administrative Divisions at the last five censuses.

Division.	Males.					Females.				
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941
Southern	22.5	28.0	37.3	44.1	68.9	5.6	9.3	16.4	19.3	44.1
Central	28.2	33.2	47.6	57.2	84.5	5.6	9.4	25.1	30.2	64.0
Northern	27.7	38.4	44.7	55.6	81.6	6.8	10.7	25.3	31.3	64.6

five censuses. It shows the difference in the progress of education in the different divisions. The greatest progress is seen in the Northern and the least in the Southern Divisions.

524. The proportion of the male and female literates of the different communities in the age-group 15-20 from 1901 to 1941 are shown in the subjoined statement. The Christians record the greatest progress.

Communi- nity	Males.					Females.				
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941
All Com- munities	26.4	31.8	43.7	53.0	79.3	5.8	9.7	22.6	27.4	58.6
Hindu	25.4	30.5	42.3	51.5	79.6	5.0	8.2	19.4	23.7	56.0
Muslim	15.3	19.6	22.7	31.3	64.3	1.6	2.0	4.9	4.5	25.4
Christian	33.3	38.2	51.3	60.6	84.9	9.5	15.7	33.7	39.7	74.0

525. In Provincial Table II, the total literate population of each sex of the Hindus classified into Scheduled Castes and Others, of the Indian Christians, Muslims and Tribes is given. The

proportionate figures worked out from this table are shown in the table below. The proportion is

Number literate per cent. of the total population of all ages of each sex of different classes of people.

Class of people.	Males.	Females.
Hindus		
Scheduled castes	26.8	9.0
Others	62.6	36.2
Muslim	44.8	15.1
Indian Christians	63.1	48.0
Tribes	13.4	4.3

based on the total population of all ages. The Indian Christian males and females take the first rank in literacy. The Other Hindus come next and the Muslims occupy the third place. The Scheduled Castes and the Tribes respectively take the last two ranks.

526. The literacy figures of the major provinces and States in India for 1941 are given in the table below for purposes of comparison.

Number literate per 1,000 of the total population in States and Provinces in India. *

State or Province.	Number literate per 1,000 of the total population.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.
TRAVANCORE STATE	471	581	360
Cochin State	354	447	265
Baroda State	229	327	123
Coorg	205	270	128
Bombay	195	298	86
Bengal	161	247	66
Western India States	146	221	70
Ajmer—Merwara	135	212	51
Madras	130	205	56
Punjab	129	179	70
Mysore State	122	193	48
Assam	115	135	37
Central Provinces and Berar	114
Orissa	109	199	24
Baluchistan	104	156	30
Bihar	92	161	22
United Provinces	85	140	24
North West Frontier Provinces	77
Gwalior State	74
Central India States	70
Hyderabad State	69	114	22
Kashmir State	66	104	22
Rajputana	57	98	11
Sikkim State	48	90	3
INDIA	122	195	52

* The above proportions are based on the Provisional literacy figures published by the Government of India. Figures for Travancore and Baroda are final.

Cochin which occupied the first place in 1931 comes second followed by Baroda which occupied the third rank even in 1931. In the major Provinces in India, the percentage of literacy ranges from 8 to 20 per cent., the highest being in Bombay with 19.5 per cent. For India as a whole the percentage of literacy is only 12.2 per cent.

527. The number of literates in English in the total population of the State aged 5 years and over is 403,678 composed of 295,033 males and 108,645 females. Of these 216,793 persons are Hindus, 175,466 Christians and 10,837 are Muslims. The number of literates in English per 1,000 of the population of 5 years and over has increased from 6 in 1901 to 78 in 1941. Out of 1,000 of each sex 113 males and 42 females are now able to read and write English as against 10 males and 2 females in 1901. One in every 9 males (5 years and over) and one in every 25 females (5 years and over) have now acquired literacy in English.

528. The figures in the table below show the progress of literacy in English by sex in the State and the Administrative Divisions during the last 40 years. For the State as a whole

Number of literates in English per mille of all ages, five years and over.

State or Division.	1901		1911		1921		1931		1941	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
STATE	10	2	15	2	25	6	31	7	113	42
Southern	16	2	27	4	33	7	38	9	110	34
Central	7	1	10	2	23	5	29	7	126	48
Northern	9	1	11	2	19	6	27	6	100	40

the proportion of male literates in English increased by 103. Among females the proportion has increased from 2 to 42 per mille.

529. The following table shows the variation in the proportion of literates in English per mille of each sex during the last 40 years. It will be

Variation in the proportion of literates in English per mille of each sex.

Division.	1931—41		1921—31		1911—21		1901—11	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Southern	+72	+25	+5	+2	+6	+3	+11	+2
Central	+97	+41	+6	+2	+13	+3	+3	+1
Northern	+73	+34	+8	..	+8	+4	+2	+1

noted that there has been an increase in the proportion of male literates in all the Divisions. In the Northern Division alone female literacy in English did not record any increase in 1921 to 1931. During the decade 1931 to 1941 the Central Division has recorded the highest proportion of increase among both males and females. The Northern Division comes next and the Southern last.

530. The proportion of literates in English by sex in the main communities is given in the table below. The Christians have the highest

Number per mille, aged 5 and over, who are literate in English.

Community.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
State	78	113	42
Hindu	68	110	33
(a) Scheduled castes	12	22	3
(b) Others	79	121	37
Muslim	30	53	6
Christian	105	140	69
(a) Indian Christian	104	139	68
(b) Anglo-Indian	553	556	549
(c) European	861	800	920
Tribes	4	8	1

proportion of English literates among both males and females. The Hindus come next and Muslims third. Among the Muslim males only 53 per 1,000 are able to read and write English and among the females the proportion falls to 6.

531. While literacy owes its existence and diffusion among the juvenile population to school and private instruction, it is primarily to the regular habit of reading newspapers and periodicals, more than books, that literacy owes its preservation and advancement among the adults many of whom might otherwise have lapsed into illiteracy. The cent per cent. literacy obtaining in England, rendered possible by the prevalence of its system of compulsory elementary education has culturally stood that country in such good stead chiefly because there is no English home without its newspaper and there is no English man, woman or child that does not make profitable use of it every day. As for this State, there is no denying the fact that newspapers and

periodicals have contributed very liberally towards its cultural progress.

532. In the first place they have always tended to raise linguistic standards in the oral as well as written aspects and to make for up-to-dateness of style in the expression of thought and feeling. Though literary excellence has never been the aim of newspapers, and what is commonly understood as "journalese" has come in for a good deal of cavilling at the hands of ultra-critical purists in style, the number of those who are indebted to the highclass journals they read for their linguistic attainments, is legion. Again journalism has always been a feeder to the stream of literature. The better types of periodicals have never failed to embody, for the education of the young and the edification of the old, numerous little literary gems such as short stories or poems, skits or sketches, reviews or critical appreciations, tit bits and "bons mots" and serial publications, which subsequently reappear in book form as anthologies or omnibus volumes. The literary novice who cleverly scribbles for the nonce something of current topical interest is editorially encouraged to aspire to higher literary achievement. Many an author of repute in the State has started with a few lines in newspaper columns as the first rung in the ladder of literary eminence and many a "litterateur" has found dabbling in journalism spelling for him the A B C of literary excellence. It is for this reason that the idea has been mooted of introducing a regular degree course in journalism in the University of Travancore. The prevalence of three main languages in the State has led to the rise of bilingual and even trilingual dailies, weeklies and monthlies. The number and variety of the newspapers and periodicals in circulation in the State at present as well as a decade ago can be studied from the subjoined table.

Newspapers and periodicals published

Language	1930		1940	
	No.	Circulation	No.	Circulation
1. English	21	16,575	16	13,220
2. Malayalam	50	58,015	27	38,658
3. Tamil	6	6,780	6	5,600
4. Bilingual	54	62,131	31	57,746
5. Trilingual	5	10,550	8	12,800

533. It will be seen therefrom that in most cases there has been a fall both in the number of journals and in the numbers among whom they circulate. The reasons are not far to seek. The preference of the general reader for dailies, whether local or foreign, has elbowed out the bi-weekly and weekly papers. The craze for world news, particularly after the outbreak of the present war, has progressively lessened interest in local news and local politics. The radio has set the pace in this transition from provincialism to cosmopolitanism in the out-look of the reading public. This is particularly in evidence in their growing interest in all-India movements, political or otherwise. Since the bi-weeklies and weeklies cannot possibly keep pace with the dailies in catering to these new tastes and interests, the increasing number of the latter in the last decade is bound to be the natural outcome. This has proved an advantage to several foreign English dailies which find an easy circulation among the educated in the State particularly where their rates are on a par with those of the local dailies in the mother-tongue. This accounts for the reduction in the number and circulation of the local papers as only those which are sufficiently well financed will be able to stand this keen competition. The indiscriminate production of newspapers by all and sundry has to a certain extent been curtailed by the licensing fee and the cash security which have put a check on irresponsible journalism. Latterly there has also been the scarcity of paper with the consequent doubling and even trebling of the rates of subscription, abridgement of contents, overcrowding and use of small types and other unavoidable evils inevitable to paper shortage. The reluctance of readers to subscribe for abridged papers at enhanced rates has led to the present day practice of several people jointly getting down a paper and making a common use of it and also of a few papers being merged into a single publication as a joint business proposition. The beginning of the decade was the golden age of newspapers in the State when more than half a dozen highclass dailies circulated among thousands at the cheapest

imaginable rate *viz.* a quarter of an anna each and many more at half an anna each. This facilitated so wide a dissemination as to enable the vast masses in the State not only to become newspaper-minded but to be more intelligently responsive to the reactions of the external world as well as to improve the standard of literacy they had already attained.

534. The variety of tastes and interests to which the current journals cater can be understood from their classification into different categories according to their contents or the language in which they are couched. Of the 88 journals now in circulation, 27 are newspapers and 61 periodicals. Nineteen of them deal with general and political topics, 18 social and religious, 32 religious, 3 legal, 3 commercial, 3 humorous, 1 relating to medical and public health matters and 9 general, educational and literary. If they are classified according to language 29 are Malayalam publications, 35 quasi-Malayalam, 5 Tamil, 31 quasi-Tamil, 16 English, 31 quasi-English, 1 Sanskrit, 1 Syriac and a few Latin. Hindi Journals are also sure to come into existence in the State before long. The topical and linguistic variety of these journals is an index of their wide popularity. It is interesting to note that some of these are exclusively meant for children while a few pride themselves upon being "journals of the women, for the women, by the women." A Department of Information has recently been instituted to co-ordinate journalism in the State and give it a lead and a direction.

535. The cultural value of the journals in the State has been incalculable and this is evidenced by the rapidly growing number of reading rooms and the impatient eagerness with which readers await the arrival of the ubiquitous newspaper-boy to be able to get the latest tidings hot from the oven. It is only a home truth that after "paper-time" each day the next meal is scarcely relished unless preceded by a rapid survey of the various headlines and succeeded by a discussion setting forth one's views on the news items gathered with so much of avidity. It is small wonder that the timely satisfaction of one's news-hunger by

shelling out just an anna or so is looked upon as tantamount to the gratification of one's wanderlust for which even the earnings of an entire life time would scarcely have sufficed. A running review, at a cursory glance, of the daily occurrences in the world, or a leisurely study of a learned article in a quality magazine is no doubt the best liberaliser to the stay-at-home folk of the frog-in-the well type whom Kipling had in mind when he asked, "What do they know of England, who only England know?" Any standard newspaper, in whatever way it is viewed, whether as a barometer of public opinion; a feeler that indicates the way the wind blows; a trumpet whose blast will never fail to give a loud advertisement; a handwriting on the wall that spells a timely warning; an eye-opener that shows both the obverse and reverse side of every medal; a corrective that pulls down some short-sighted public man a peg or two; a treasure-chest that embodies profound wisdom or at least a map on which are spread out the daily happenings in the world, can undeniably claim a great share in the cultural progress of the State.

536. Though journals have exercised a potent influence in the public life of Travancore, especially in rousing the civic and political consciousness of the masses, the journalists themselves have to pause and consider whether the salutary effects of this noble service have not sometimes been vitiated by their abuse of their "organs of public opinion" into instruments of flattery or weapons of acrimony. All civic and political perspective can only be distorted by the prostitution of journalistic columns into cockpits of animosity, personal or communal or arenas for political tugs of war. Side by side with this is the fact that those journals are no less obnoxious which deteriorate into mere compendia of commercial advertisements, coloured news and jaundiced views.

537. The future of the press in the State, from what we know of its past, is certainly promising. As in all progressive States, it has functioned here not merely as the twin sister of the platform, but as the nurse of literacy and the

exponent of liberal ideas and ideals. The western world presents both types of undesirable extremities between which the press may swing under the impact of popular influences or upheavals. But in a progressive and enlightened State like Travancore with a well-balanced constitutional Government under the wise aegis of liberal sovereigns, the press can steer clear of the two extremes of irresponsible omnipotence or absolute impotence. The history of the press in England presents a laudable example. It has ever been the link between literacy and democracy. To the Englishman, literacy without democracy has no fruit and democracy without literacy has no root. In his country universal adult suffrage became a '*fait accompli*' only long after cent per cent. literacy was achieved by the introduction of compulsory elementary education. In the natural evolution of this State along lines indicated by her historical antecedents, literacy in which she now stands first is bound, in the years that lie ahead, to determine the pace of her constitutional progress in which she has made such rapid strides in the last decade. It may therefore be hoped that the journals of the State, spreading authentic news, ventilating disinterested views, omitting light without generating heat and proving luminous without being voluminous, will create for the growth of its citizens an atmosphere of real constitutional freedom that affords space enough for every wing and wind enough for every sail. That will really be the greatest contribution that any individual or institution could ever have made to the cultural progress of the State.

538. Journals, in spite of the current topical interest they evoke, are as a rule more ephemeral in character than books. Apart from 'the books of the hour' which, like most of the journals, easily sink into oblivion, 'the books of all time' are to mankind what the memory is to the individual. The really good books that make up a nation's literature are not only the preservatives of its culture but the mirrors of national life, the repositories of national aspirations and the exponents of national ideals. Travancore has in every decade presented to the world its output

of literature the quality and quantity of which have reflected, as through the other phases of fine art, her instinct for cultural preservation. The subjoined table will help to gauge the literary contribution of the last decennium in comparison with that of the preceding years.

Language.	Books published in	
	1930	1940
English	145	54
Malayalam	188	101
Tamil	6	5
Sanskrit	1	...
Arabic	...	6
Bi-lingual	10	3
Tri-lingual	1	4

539. The fall noticeable in the number of books published is really a feature to be deplored. It is not possible to agree fully with those critics who are prepared to lay the blame for this at the door of either the system of education obtaining in the State till recently, as not being conducive enough to original thought and expression; or of the Department of Education that has recently taken over to itself the compilation and publication of a good many of the text books required for use in schools. The explanation lies deeper. The flowering of all art and thought is ever the outcome of peace of mind and ease of heart consequent on the circumstantial assurance of material sufficiency that serves to dispel all mundane cares and worries. The persons taking to authorship as a profession in the State being few and far between, a period of economic depression can, in general, tend only to stifle rather than foster the growth of literature. One who recalls the withering nature of the trying years with which the last decade started, cannot but admit that the literary output as revealed by the figures given above is intimately connected with this phenomenon. It may, however be hoped that in the coming years, especially with the new orientation given to learning and the spur administered to original art and creative thought by the inauguration of the Travancore University and the overhauling of the secondary education in the State, along new lines side by side

with the cultural alignment of the State with the progressive elements of the outside world, by the impact of new cultural association in recent years the record of her achievement in literature will be consistent with her potentialities. The introduction of the Research Department in the University, the completion of lexicographical attempts to coin Malayalam and Tamil equivalents for scientific and technical terms in English and the rapid spread of the Rural Library and Village Welfare movements are unmistakable tendencies that will usher in a growing demand for new books in larger numbers.

540. The efflorescence of art has always been the best means not merely of the expression but of the preservation and perpetuation as well, of the cultural progress of a State. Rather than through the achievements of the industrial or utilitarian arts as practised by the artisan, it is through the masterpieces of fine art produced by the artist, that the cultural greatness of a nation is gauged and its cultural legacy transmitted from generation to generation. The manifestation of the aesthetic sense through the plastic, graphic or rhythmic arts into something exquisite, in symmetry of shape or beauty of form, magic of word or colourfulness of sight, melody of sound or rhythm of movement, serves to delight the visual or auditory impression. And the thing of beauty that it becomes, proves a joy for ever and to one that comes to love it, "Its loveliness increases; It will never pass into nothingness." It makes life sweet and the world beautiful to live in.

541. Fine art in Travancore has had a long history, and the range, richness, variety and permanence of her artistic achievements, under the aegis of Sovereigns some of whom were themselves great artists, while all were lovers and patrons of art, have won ungrudging recognition at the hands of connoisseurs of art all the world over. Besides conforming in important respects to the characteristic features that individualise Indian art in general, the fine arts in the State have developed certain unique features indigenous to

Kerala in particular, as could be seen by a study of art specimens and art relics now extant, as reminiscent of her past history. The cultural remains and art-treasures of her historic past, that still survive are so widely scattered, badly neglected, partially forgotten or blurred and disfigured by the wear and tear of time, that the need was keenly felt to save them from irreparable damage or even utter extinction. It is the systematic attempts towards the reinstatement of fine art into the position of pre-eminence which it once enjoyed in the State, that have made the last decade the most memorable in the annals of art in Travancore. In fact it has aptly been styled an era of artistic revival or "Renaissance". Fine art flowered in varied fields in various ways in the State within the last ten years and this cultural efflorescence has served to link the past with the present and the future, not merely in the continuity of cultural history but in serving to instil in her citizens a pride in the past, as well as an ambition for the future, which every true patriot is sure to feel in such an ennobling atmosphere of cultural renovation.

542. The collection and decipherment of inscriptions, the exploration of ancient works and sites of art such as sculptures on wood, metal and stone showing the wonderful sense of proportion and skill of the Travancore craftsmen in the past, in designing and execution have always been patronised by Government and a separate Department has been in existence for sometime. The art treasures of the old palace of Padmanabhapuram have been recently renovated and its historical antiquities exhibited. To the Trivandrum Museum has been attached an Annexe, equipped as a gallery of Far Eastern arts and crafts and exhibiting great works of art from China, Japan and the East Indies brought by Their Highnesses the Maharaja and Maharani after their tour of Java and Bali in 1937. To enable outsiders to get an idea of the architectural and sculptural glories of the various temples in the State, perfect plaster replicas of deific and other figures have been executed and placed in

the Government Museum. The Ranga Vilasam Palace in the Fort has also been equipped into a Museum of Arts and a gallery of State portraiture and general painting accumulated during previous reigns.

543. The institution primarily concerned with imparting education in art is the School of Arts, Trivandrum. It has continued to function and make itself useful to increasing numbers in the last decade to qualify school teachers to teach fine arts and art crafts.

544. One of the three new institutions that sprang into existence within the last decade, is the Sri Chitralayam or the State Picture Gallery, opened in September 1935. It is the second of its kind in South India (the first being the Chitrasala of Mysore) but the first in point of inclusiveness, containing as it does masterpieces representing all schools and phases of the pictorial art in India from the days of cave-painting to the Bengal revival. By far the best of the exhibits are the paintings of the late Raja Ravi Varma. Examples of the Tibetan, Chinese and Japanese method are furnished by the handiworks of the Russian artists, Nicholas Roerich and his son Svetoslav Roerich. Another attractive feature of the gallery is the collection of duplicates of the renovated puranic mural paintings which for centuries had adorned the walls of many an old temple and palace. This art gallery presents a kaleidoscopic view of practically every era and style of painting in the East.

545. The 'Renaissance' in music took shape in the inauguration, in September 1939, of the Sri Swathi Thirunal Academy of Music, in memory of a great Maharaja who was "a musician among Kings and a King among musicians". The devotional songs of classical excellence which His Highness composed in Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu and other languages embodying sublime sentiments couched in simple, mellifluous language and tuned to soul-stirring, melodious music are rare gems constituting a rich heritage to humanity. It was with the threefold object of interpreting

and popularising these for the joy of the human soul, conserving them for the enjoyment and enlightenment of future generations and initiating the untutored lay folk into the "*terra incognita*" of musical science that the academy was started. It provides a three years' diploma course in vocal and instrumental music. The Department of Education has made arrangements both for getting the music teachers of the various schools trained in the Academy and for preference in the recruitment of music teachers to be shown to those so trained. Thus, through the Department of Education, it would be serving its great purpose of popularising the rich musical legacy bequeathed by the great Maharaja Swathi Thirunal.

546. Equally important was the resuscitation of the Indian Classical dance based on "*Natya Sasthra*" as practised traditionally in Kerala. This took shape in the foundation in February 1937 of the Sri Chitrodaya Narthakalayam. In this institution, instruction in dancing is imparted to boys and girls up to 18 and public demonstrations and performances are held from time to time by experts to the accompaniment of a well-trained orchestra. The main feature of the art as practised and taught in the institution is the interpretative episodic dance based on the "*Katha Kali*" technique but modernised by being divested of much of its exterior accoutrements. In the simple purity and resplendent beauty of its renovated form, the dance is "no longer a mere device for whetting the jaded appetite of the idle rich" but is ennobled into a rhythmic movement made "to suit the music of the spheres" and to sweeten life with an occasional hour of solace and repose. It is really gratifying to remember that "*Kerala Natya Kala*" has really come into its own "in which every motion is a word and every rest is eloquence".

547. Besides leading to the foundation of new and improvement of old institutions for the development of fine art, the artistic revival characteristic of the last decade has been in special evidence in the annual celebration of the Art Festival which has latterly been merged

most appropriately into the general festivities in connection with His Highness the Maharaja's birthday. The principal feature of this festival has been the putting on board of first-rate performances by reputed artistes, from within the State and outside, in music, dance and drama, juvenile talent being specially encouraged by the award of prizes, medals and certificates of merit. Such an artistic background provided for life in general, lays the proper foundation for the edifice of cultural eminence, for "each art is part of that greatest of cultures, the creation of a comprehensive, full and many sided life, which is humanity's climax and crown, its liberation and salvation".

548. It is indeed a happy coincidence that the earliest and the latest steps towards the cultural progress of the State should have been taken respectively by two great Queens of the same name. Just as it was Rani Parvati Bayi whose educational policy embodied in the famous Proclamation of 1817 set on foot the scheme of Malayalam education that paved the way for the rapid spread of literacy, it was left for the versatile genius of Maharani Setu Parvati Bayi in the present decade to set many a lustrous jewel in the cultural diadem of the State. By her instinctive foresight and resplendent thinking Her Highness grasped the greatness of traditional art and by her dynamic power successfully saw to its reinstatement on the pedestal of its ancient pre-eminence. Fine art in the State has thus had "the supreme good fortune to be tended and fostered by a benevolent and exacting mentor who can not only visualise, but compel realisation".

549. Apart from the special features discussed above, the State is indebted for her cultural progress to numerous other sources which it is impossible to bring within the purview of this synoptic essay, particularly in instances where the operation of such agencies was not confined to the last decade alone, and also for the reason that the Census operations were not specially directed so as to comprehend them within its scope. Nevertheless it will be

an unpardonable fault of omission, if not of commission, if at least a passing mention of a general character is not made of such broad as well as deep tributaries that have continued to flow, silently and imperceptibly into the stream of culture that is welding society into a coherent whole with a universal outlook. The various educational institutions in the State, under Government as well as private management, the academic associations and liberal clubs flourishing in various localities, the religious institutions and communal organisations with their special sessions and annual conferences, have, by their manifold activities, in the piece-meal way circumscribed by their limited scope, contributed a great deal towards the cultural progress of the land. The socialising and liberalising influence diffused by such agencies has been widened still further by the participation of the State in various international associations and world movements functioning on a wide scale from different centres. The activities of the Boy Scout and Girl Guide Movements for juveniles and such bodies as the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A. on the one hand and the active part played by the State in all progressive all-India movements and several world-conferences on the other, have served only to render more effective the spread of the spirit of human brotherhood by the newspaper, the cinema and the radio.

550. But the latest step towards focussing universal attention on the cultural progress of the State was taken in the last decade, which can, for that reason be very well said to have placed her in her proper setting on the cultural map of India. Not content with a mere alignment with the liberal movements of the outside world, she has culturally expanded herself to such large dimensions as to constitute a forum for the functioning of all-India movements under her own auspices from time to time. Instead of dangling in splendid isolation as a bright pendant, linked no doubt to the rest of India, she has latterly proved herself culturally spacious enough to attract to her capital city some of the progressive movements of the world beyond her frontiers, so that

by the absorption and adoption of the best they could contribute, she might demonstrate her cultural adaptability and, at the same time, by stamping on them the deep impress of her own indigenous influences, she might assert her cultural individuality. This was rendered possible by the vision and imagination of the eminent statesman Sachivottama Sir C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar, who, within the last quinquennium, has placed the State in the forefront of India by giving her economic stability through progressive industrialisation and academic independence by the inauguration of the Travancore University. This University though the youngest in India, has not been behind-hand in the assertion of the outstanding vigour of its youth, by conducting under its auspices, not merely Inter-University tourneys and occasional demonstrations of athletic skill by world champions but the Sixteenth Session in January 1941 of the Inter-University Board Meeting, wherein the Vice-Chancellors of the various Universities in India took part and threshed out educational and cultural schemes of great moment. A greater occasion was the Ninth Session of the Oriental Conference held in December 1937 in the metropolis of the State. This was attended by about 150 Pandits from all parts of India and 250 delegates from different parts of the world, representing the "*creme de la creme*" of the world culture in its varied aspects, and imparted much to, but imbibed more from, the springs of national culture in the State. The occasion, with its several sessions each dealing with a separate aspect of indigenous or exotic culture, really signalised a cultural illumination for mutual enlightenment and lasting edification.

551. If the view is sound that the best criterion of a nation's culture is the measure of progress attained by its women folk, Travancore which can boast of the first rank in India in the percentage of female literacy and the advent of the first women members not only in the Legislature but at the Bar and the Bench, can be said to have asserted her cultural pre-eminence in 1935. It was the occasion of the Tenth Session

of the All-India Women's Conference held in Trivandrum under the distinguished presidency of Her Highness Maharani Setu Parvati Bayi, whose leadership of Indian Womanhood has inspired it with newer aspirations and enriched it with better realisation. The cultural efflorescence resulting from this historic conference and the continuation of Her Highness's leadership throughout the year that followed, has stood particularly the women of the State in very good stead.

552. The cultural progress in the last decade has thus raised Travancore to the pre-eminence to which she is entitled as much by her historical antecedents as by her solid achievements, as

the cynosure of admiring eyes and the paradise of the discerning tourist and the devout pilgrim. Her epoch-making emergence into the wider world of today as a land of cultural unity, abiding humanity and universal charity has set her on the road on which one of the youngest but by far the most widely-travelled of her great Maharajas had all his life been aspiring and striving to see her advance. In the spacious firmament of the wider outlook, down the corridor of cultural unity and beneath the arch of universal brotherhood, "where-through gleams that untravelled world",

"Una mente et uno corde proficiant omnes".

APPENDIX I.

FERTILITY ENQUIRY.

Fertility Enquiries were conducted in Travancore in 1921 and 1931. In 1921 the Enquiry was limited both in range as well as scope as it was confined only to a few aspects of the question in municipal towns. In 1931 it was carried out on a more elaborate scale, a special schedule having been drawn up for the purpose and the Enquiry extended to rural areas also. The schedules were distributed among the municipal staff in the municipal towns and the school masters in rural areas. The latter in their turn distributed the schedules among the grown-up boys and girls to have them filled up at their houses in consultation with their parents. The items of information collected included such points as caste, age of mother, occupation and age of father, duration of married life, number and sex of the children born and surviving and their ages.

2. In 1941 the Census Commissioner for India, with the idea of awakening public consciousness of the importance of fertility studies proposed that two questions on fertility *viz.*, the age at birth of first child and the number of children born and surviving should be asked of *each and every* married woman. This time the Enquiry was therefore extended to cover all the married females. Three further points regarding (1) the sexes of children born and surviving, (2) the duration of marriage and (3) the sex of the first child were also added to the Fertility Enquiry of this State. The difficulty of getting information on the effective duration of marriage has been recognised everywhere and presumably it was to avoid this that the Census Commissioner for India included the question regarding the age at birth of the first child, to which no one would resent to give an answer. It is evident that the age at birth of first child combined with the present age of the woman would itself indicate approximately the effective

3. For a comparative study at the present Census, homogeneous social units with a population of 50,000 and above were selected. The following groups were therefore brought under tabulation *viz.* Non-Malayala Brahman, Ilava, Kammala, Kurava, Nadar, Nayar, Paraya, Pulaya, Vellala, Muslim and Syrian Christian. Within the limited time allowed for tabulation it was not possible to extract all the requisite data to study the various aspects of the question. But in combination with the results of the Vital Statistics Enquiry conducted in selected areas, the fertility data could throw much light on the population problems of Travancore. The main tables prepared on fertility are given along with the subsidiary tables under Imperial Table VII.

4. The total number of slips pertaining to married women brought under tabulation was 873,397. The following table shows the age distribution of the married women and the number and percentage of those in each age-group who have actually given birth to children.

Age-group.	Total number of married women.	Number having children.	Percentage.
Less than 15	3,878	110	2'99
15—20	79,068	29,808	37'66
20—25	152,030	123,711	81'37
25—30	153,887	143,194	93'05
30—35	121,806	116,212	95'39
35—40	114,768	109,314	95'18
40—45	79,655	76,068	95'54
45 and above	169,015	166,596	98'56
Total.	873,397	761,538	87'51

It is observed that 98'6 per cent. of the married women in the 45 and above group have given birth to children and that 1'4 per cent. are sterile. In 1931 the corresponding proportions were the same.

5. Fertility will vary for different age-groups of married women. Before considering the number of children born to married women in each

age-group, fertility in general of the various communities may be compared. In the following table eleven communities are arranged in the order of their general fertility.

Community.	Average children born per married woman.
Kammala	3·88
Ilava	3·84
Syrian Christian	3·79
Muslim	3·71
Nadar	3·64
Nayar	3·63
Vellala	3·43
Pulaya	3·43
Paraya	3·23
Kurava	3·13
Brahman	3·13

It is noted that the Kammalas, Ilavas, Syrian Christians and Muslims have on the average a larger number of children born to them than the others, the Brahmans coming last in the list. The Kuravas who are included under Tribes show a low fertility and so also the Pulayas and the Parayas. The Vellalas and Nayars form the middle group. The general average is observed to be 3·69 children per woman. The corresponding average for 1931 was 4·10 but in comparing the two averages it is to be remembered that the 1931 Enquiry was mainly confined to the mothers of school children and hence a comparatively large proportion of the younger mothers whose children had not reached the school-going age might have been omitted. In making comparisons with the figures obtained for 1931 in other respects also this fact has to be kept in view.

6. A real comparison of the fertility of the various communities can be made only if we consider the number of children born to women of 45 and above, since these in all cases would have lived through their fertile periods. The following table which shows the number of children born to women of completed fertility age-groups reveals that the order of sequence has slightly varied but the inference that the Kammalas, Ilavas, Syrian Christians and Muslims have high fertility and that the Brahmans and Kuravas have low fertility still holds good. The figures for 1931 are obtainable only for certain

of the communities. These are given within brackets for purposes of comparison.

Number of children born per married woman 45 or above.

Community.	Average No. of children.	
	1941.	1931.
Kammala	7·12	
Syrian Christian	7·02	(7·0)
Muslim	6·99	(6·2)
Ilava	6·82	(6·7)
Nadar	6·51	
Nayar	6·30	(6·3)
Pulaya	6·28	
Paraya	5·92	
Brahman	5·89	(5·8)
Vellala	5·88	
Kurava	5·50	
General average	6·65	(6·5)

7. The following table gives the number of children born on the average per married woman of each age-group. Naturally the women of the higher age-groups have a larger number of children than the women of the lower age-groups.

Age-group.	Average No. of children.	
	1941.	1931.
Less than 15	0·03	(0·04)
15—20	0·45	(0·49)
20—25	1·52	(1·51)
25—30	2·70	(2·87)
30—35	3·76	(4·35)
35—40	4·75	(5·35)
40—45	5·25	(5·90)
45 and above	6·65	(6·50)

On a comparison with the figures obtained in 1931, it is observed that there is a close similarity between the two sets except for the age-groups 30-35 and 35-40. The high average in these two groups in 1931 can be explained by the fact that the mothers of school-going children have fallen in these groups in comparatively high proportions while the mothers without school-going children must have been excluded.

8. Incidentally it may be observed that from the average number of children born to married women of each age-group, one can get some idea of the specific birth-rates for various age-groups. Thus women between 15 and 20 or who are on the average 17·5 years old have 45 children born to each *i. e.* 450 per 1,000. Similarly those who are between 20 and 25 or on the average

22.5 years old have 1,520 children per 1,000. Thus the number of children born in passing through the period of five years from 17.5 to 22.5 will be 1,520—450 *i. e.* 1,070 or 214 per year. From the Vital Statistics Enquiry the specific birth-rate for 15-20 has been observed to be 230 per 1,000 married women. Similarly for the other age-groups the results obtained may be stated below.

Fertility Enquiry.		Vital Statistics Enquiry.	
Age-group.	Approximate estimated specific birth-rates.	Age-group.	Observed specific birth-rates.
17.5—22.5	214	15—20	230
22.5—27.5	236	20—25	247
27.5—32.5	210	25—30	222
32.5—37.5	198	30—35	187
37.5—42.5	100	35—40	141

9. In order to study the real effect of the age at birth of first child on the number of children born or surviving, it is essential, that the women concerned should have lived through the whole fertile period. Hence it is necessary to take into account only those who have lived through the child-bearing period *i. e.* those who have passed 45, the age at which fertility generally ceases. Before comparing the number of children born the proportion per cent. of the married women of 45 and above in each community who have given birth to the first child before attaining 20 and 25 may be examined with the aid of the following table.

Community.	Percentage of married women of 45 and above who have given birth to the first child before attaining the age of.	
	20	25
Brahman	70.6	92.6
Ilava	50.1	90.8
Kammala	54.6	91.6
Kurava	40.0	85.8
Nadar	37.7	86.0
Nayar	52.2	90.5
Paraya	42.3	87.6
Pulaya	46.9	89.5
Vellala	53.7	90.9
Muslim	59.4	92.2
Syrian Christian	41.2	89.6
Average	48.2	90.1

Generally speaking 90 per cent. of the women have given birth to the first child before attaining 25 and about 50 per cent. before attaining 20. Among Brahmans 70 per cent. have given birth to the first child before attaining 20.

10. The following table shows for all communities the ages at birth of first child and the number of children born against each group.

Age at birth of first child.	Average number of children born.
15 and below	7.54
15—20	7.38
20—25	6.46
25—30	5.08
30—35	4.02
35—40	2.23
40 and above	2.19
Average	6.65

It may be noted that the number of children born decreases as the age at birth of first child advances or in other words as the effective duration of marriage decreases.

11. That there is a relation between the number of children born and the age at birth of first child is further elucidated in the following table which shows for each number of children born the percentage of women who have given birth to the first child before attaining 20 or 25.

Number of children born.	Percentage of women whose age at birth of first child was below	
	20	25
1	26.8	65.3
2	32.1	74.0
3	36.2	80.6
4	38.8	84.7
5	40.8	87.8
6	44.7	91.0
7	48.2	93.0
8	53.3	95.0
9	58.3	96.0
10 and above	67.0	97.7

Of those who have only one child each, about 27 per cent. gave birth to it before 20 while of those who have 10 children 67 per cent. gave

birth to the first child before 20. Conversely it has been observed that of those women who gave birth to the first child while between 15—20, 61 per cent. have 7 or more children while of those who gave birth to the first child between 20—25 only 49 per cent. have 7 or more children. Again of those who gave birth to the first child while above 40, no one was returned as having more than 6 children whereas 67 per cent. have below 2 children. Out of the 166,596 mothers aged 45 and above, barely one per cent. gave birth to the first child after 35 (*vide* Fertility Table iii).

12. On comparing the average number of children born to married women living in urban and rural areas it is observed that fertility in the urban areas (municipal towns) is generally lower. The finding is substantiated by the Enquiry of 1931 also. The following table shows the average number of children born for married women in each community in the urban and rural areas.

Community.	Number of children born per family in	
	Urban area.	Rural area.
Brahman	5.7	6.3
Ilava	6.5	6.7
Kammala	6.5	7.3
Kurava	5.6	5.6
Nadar	6.5	6.5
Nayar	5.7	6.4
Paraya	6.0	6.0
Pulaya	6.0	6.4
Vellala	5.4	6.2
Muslim	6.0	7.2
Syrian Christian	7.1	7.1
Average	6.1	6.7

That urban fertility is generally lower than rural fertility has been substantiated by enquiries made in other places also.

13. The survival ratios (number of children surviving per 1,000 children born) of children born to married women of the various communities are given below along with the average number of children surviving.

Community	Average number of children surviving per family	Proportion surviving per 1000 born
Syrian Christian	2.98	790
Nadar	2.86	788
Kurava	2.43	778
Nayar	2.79	766
Muslim	2.83	762
Ilava	2.89	753
Kammala	2.92	752
Brahman	2.30	734
Vellala	2.47	721
Pulaya	2.38	694
Paraya	2.15	660
Average	2.81	762

For a strict comparison of the survival rates of children born in various communities, one should have a knowledge of the age-constitution of the children coming under each group. On comparing the figures of children surviving it is observed that Syrian Christians, Kammalas, Ilavas and Nadars show high averages. Parayas show the lowest average of children surviving. The ratio of survivorship is also highest for the Syrian Christians. The same ratio is lowest for the Parayas.

14. A comparison on the other hand of the average number of children surviving of mothers who are 45 years or above will show better the rate of survivorship in respect of each community in as much as the age-constitutions of the children falling within each community are not likely to be materially different from one another. The following table shows the average number of children surviving for the different communities when only mothers of 45 and above are taken into account. The communities are arranged in the order of the rate of survival.

Community	Average number of children surviving	Proportion surviving per 1000 born
Syrian Christian	4.9	702
Nadar	4.5	692
Brahman	3.9	669
Muslim	4.7	688
Ilava	4.4	682
Nayar	4.1	648
Kurava	3.5	641
Kammala	4.6	639
Vellala	3.7	621
Paraya	3.6	601
Pulaya	3.6	589
Average	4.4	664

The Parayas and Pulayas appear last in the list.

The average number of children surviving is high for Syrian Christians, Kammalaa, Muslims, Ilava and Nadars. The same is low for Pulayas and Parayas.

The average number of children surviving and rate of survivorship according to age-groups of mothers are given below :

Age of mother	Average children surviving	Proportion surviving per 1,000 born
Below 15	·02	637
15—20	·38	855
20—25	1·28	841
25—30	2·26	836
30—35	3·11	829
35—40	3·76	791
40—45	4·16	791
45 and above	4·41	664
All ages	2·81	762

15. The average number of children surviving is seen to be larger for the higher age-groups. When the actual rates of survivorship are considered certain variations are observed between the figures for different age-groups. The net survivorship of children of mothers of any age-group will be the result of the specific mortalities and the age constitution of the children of the mothers in the group and the period for which these children have been exposed to risk. Thus one may expect that the average age of children of women between 15 and 20, will mostly be less than that of the children of women 45 and above, and that the latter will on the average have been exposed to longer periods of risk. The net result is, that the resulting mortality is most pronounced among children of mothers of 45 and above and decreases with the age of the mother. In the case of children of mothers below 15, the rate of mortality appears to be high.

16. The following table shows the number of children surviving and their rate of survivorship according to the age at birth of first child.

Age at birth of first child	Average number of children surviving	Proportion surviving per 1,000 born
Below 15	4·78	633
15—20	4·91	664
20—25	4·23	655
25—30	3·63	713
30—35	2·89	718
35—40	2·05	729
40 and above	1·49	679
Average	4·41	662

In this table only women who have completed their fertility period have been included. Hence the higher the age of the mother at birth of first child, the lower will be the average age of the children ; and the period for which they may have been exposed to risk will consequently be smaller than in the case of women who have given birth to first child at earlier ages. The net survivorship will reflect all these factors. It is significant however that the average number of children surviving of mothers who gave birth to the first child between 15 and 20 is higher than the corresponding average for those who gave birth to the first child below 15. (4·91 against 4·78).

17. The following table shows for each number of children surviving the percentage of women who gave birth to their first child before 20 or 25.

Number of children surviving	Percentage of married women of completed fertility who gave birth to the first child before	
	20	25
1	36·7	78·5
2	41·8	84·3
3	43·8	87·9
4	47·1	90·2
5	48·8	91·9
6	52·9	94·1
7	57·3	95·4
8	62·4	96·5
9	67·1	97·0
10 and above	73·3	98·0

It was already shown that of the women of completed fertility, who have had 10 or more children born to them nearly 98 per cent gave birth to the first child before attaining the age of 25. When we take into account only the number of children surviving it is seen that of the women who have only one child surviving, 78 per cent had given birth to the first child before attaining 25 while of those who have 10 or more children surviving 98 per cent had given birth to the first child before attaining 25. Conversely it has been observed that of those women who gave birth to the first child while between 15 and 20, 88 per cent have 7 children or less surviving. Of those who gave birth to the first child while above 40, no one has more than 5 children surviving though 3 per cent had 6 children born to them (*vide* Fertility Table iv).

18. The following table shows the average number of children surviving and the rate of survivorship in urban and rural areas for various communities for women of completed fertility age-groups.

Community	Average No. of children surviving		Number surviving per 1000 born	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Brahman	4.3	3.7	746	584
Ilava	4.4	4.4	683	661
Kammala	4.4	4.7	676	636
Kurava	3.0	3.6	544	642
Nadar	4.6	4.5	717	691
Nayar	3.8	4.2	679	645
Paraya	3.4	3.6	572	602
Pulaya	3.3	3.6	544	570
Vellala	3.5	3.8	657	613
Muslim	4.1	4.8	683	663
Syrian Christian	4.9	5.0	699	702
Average	4.2	4.5	686	663

The average number of children surviving is 4.2 in the urban areas (as against 6.1 born) and 4.5 in the rural areas (as against 6.7 born). The rate of survivorship is 686 per 1,000 born in the urban and 663 per 1,000 born in the rural areas. This may be due to the better facilities available in the towns in the matter of medical help.

19. It will be instructive to find out whether survivorship has any relation to the actual size of the family. Figures have been extracted for the above purpose and the results are shown below (for completed fertility cases).

Number of children born	Number of families	Number of children		Proportion surviving per 1,000 born
		Born	Surviving	
0	2,419
1	5,409	5,409	3,922	725
2	7,824	15,648	11,147	712
3	10,383	31,149	21,763	700
4	14,551	58,204	43,092	740
5	19,024	95,120	67,619	711
6	22,052	132,312	92,987	701
7	24,537	171,759	119,014	692
8	22,780	182,240	122,711	673
9	16,536	148,824	98,530	662
10	12,987	129,870	76,130	586

It is observed that there is a general tendency for survivorship to decrease with the number of children born though there is a rise in the rate at 4. Since the rate of survivorship depends

upon the age-constitution of the children of each group any generalisation could be made only with some reservation.

20. The fact that the larger the family, the greater the mortality may be inferred from an examination of the distribution of families according to the number of children born and surviving. Thus it is seen that out of 166,596 families of completed fertility there are only 23,500 families in which 10 or more children were born and of these there are only 2,094 families in which 10 or more children are surviving, that is to say, in 91 per cent of such families one or more children are dead. Similarly there are 40,036 families in which 9 or more children were born of which only 5,990 families have 9 or more children surviving, *i. e.*, in 85 per cent of the families one or more children are dead. As for families in which 8 or more children are born it is found that the corresponding percentage is 73. There is therefore a progressive reduction of survivorship with increasing size of family.

21. The average numbers of children of mothers of each age-group have already been indicated. But more important than the average itself is the distribution of families according to the number of children born. Thus out of 166,596 women of completed fertility, 48 per cent have 6 children or less and about 37 per cent have 8 or more children. The remaining 15 per cent have 7 children each and this is found to be the mode. In 1931 also the mode for women of completed fertility was found to be at 7 and the corresponding percentage of families to 13.

22. The modal size and the corresponding percentages of families along with the various age-groups of mothers are given below.

Age of mother	Mode (children born)	Percentage of families with children born		
		Less than mode	Equal to mode	More than mode
15-20	1	..	82	18
20-25	1	..	43	57
25-30	2	19	25	56
30-35	4	43	29	37
35-40	5	45	17	38
40-45	5	36	14	50
45 and above	7	48	15	37

23. In a similar manner when the distribution of families in accordance with the number of children surviving is studied, it is found that the mode of children surviving is 4 in the case of women of completed fertility, the number of families having 4 children surviving being 27,460 out of 166,596 *i. e.*, 16, per cent. 34 per cent have 3 or less number of children surviving and the remaining 50 per cent have 5 or more children surviving. Similar proportions worked out for the different age-groups of mothers are given in the following table.

Age	Mode (Children surviving)	Percentage of mothers having children		
		Less than mode	Equal to mode	More than mode
15-20	1	12	75	13
20-25	1	7	47	46
25-30	2	27	28	45
30-35	3	36	21	43
35-40	4	43	18	39
40-45	4	37	16	47
45 and above	4	34	16	50

24. *Masculinity* is defined as the ratio of male to female births. Variation in the proportion of males to females is the result of a number of complex factors, mainly of changing social conditions. Urbanisation for instance is said to decrease the proportion of male births while war will increase it. The results of the Vital Statistics Enquiry showing the variation of the proportion of male to female births with varying factors is examined in greater detail in the next Appendix. In the following discussions only children of mothers who have passed through their fertility periods, *i. e.*, have arrived at the age of 45 or above are dealt with.

25. The 166,596 fertile married women of completed fertility age-groups have given birth to 1,121,826 children (6.7 on the average) of whom 577,530 are males and 544,296 are females, the ratio of females to 1,000 males being 943. If first births only are considered, it is found that of the 166,596 first births 91,143 are males and 75,453 are females the ratio of females to 1,000 males for this group being 828. Thus masculinity for first births very much exceeds masculinity for births generally. The average number of children born for women of the completed fertility group is 3.5 males and 3.2 females.

26. The ratios of female to 1,000 male children born to mothers of 45 and above of the different communities are shown below.

Community	Proportion of female children to 1000 male children among	
	First Births	Total Births
Bráhmañ	817	924
Ijaya	818	944
Kammala	822	901
Kurava	771	989
Nadár	743	932
Nayar	857	940
Paraya	757	925
Pulaya	763	962
Vellala	877	983
Muslim	807	928
Syrian Christian	856	944
Average	828	943

Among the first born masculinity is low for Syrian Christians, Vellalas and Nayars. It is high for Muslims, Pulayas, Parayas and Nadars. Among the total number of children born, masculinity is least for Vellalas and highest for Kammalas.

27. Of the total 1,121,826 children born to the 166,596 women of 45 years and above, 62,500 (31,919 males and 30,581 females) are children of 10,183 women residing in the urban areas and 1,059,326 (545,611 males and 513,715 females) are children of women residing in rural areas. The ratio of females to 1,000 males is 958 in urban areas and 941 in rural areas. Thus masculinity in rural areas is higher than that in urban areas.

28. The following table shows for families up to 10 children, the number of male and female children and the proportion of female to male children against each.

Size of family	Number of families	Children		Proportion of females to 1000 males
		Male	Female	
1	5409	2792	2617	937
2	7824	8084	7614	948
3	10388	16169	14980	926
4	14551	29854	28350	949
5	19024	48987	46188	944
6	22052	67998	64314	946
7	24537	88356	83403	944
8	22780	98701	88539	945
9	16536	76253	72571	952
10	12987	66818	63052	944

There does not appear any general trend in the variation of the sex-ratio. The drop observed in the ratios corresponding to 3 and 6 children may not have any significance.

29. It has been a matter of considerable speculation in the past whether the sex of first child will in any way indicate the probable sex constitution of the whole family. It has often been said that in respect of families in which the first child is a male there is a greater probability of males predominating. But it is obvious that the converse proposition may be equally true statistically *viz.* if males predominate in a family there is greater chance of the first or second or any other birth being a male.

30. The following table prepared from Fertility Table vi shows the proportion of families (grouped according to the sex of the first child) in which male or female children predominate.

	Percentage of families having		
	Males greater than females	Males equal to females	Males less than females
All families	45.2	16.5	38.3
Families with male first born	57.8	16.6	25.6
Families with female first born	30.1	16.4	53.5

In the general class of families 45 per cent record an excess of males and 16 per cent. an equality. But in families with male first born 58 per cent. have an excess of males and in families with females first born 53 per cent. have an excess of females. These are different from the proportion for the generality of families.

31. It may be interesting to study whether there is any relation between the sex of the first child and the size of the family. The following table shows for each size of family up to 10 the number with male and female first born and the ratio of female first birth to 1,000 male births. Only women of completed fertility are taken into account. It is observed that the female ratio decreases up to four children and then again increases. Thus in very small as well as very large families there is greater chance of the first being a female than a male *i. e.*, if the first child is a female, the family may be either very small or very large.

Size of family	Families with		Proportion of female to 1000 males
	Male first birth	Female first birth	
1	2,792	2,617	937
2	4,224	3,600	852
3	5,676	4,707	829
4	8,076	6,475	802
5	10,451	8,573	820
6	12,054	9,998	829
7	13,316	11,221	843
8	12,328	10,452	848
9	8,916	7,620	855
10	7,044	5,943	843

32. So far we have been dealing with the sex-constitution of the children born. It is worth while to examine how the ratio of females to males varies with different communities when survivors alone are considered. The following table gives the figures for the different communities.

Communities	Number children surviving per 1000 born	
	Males	Females
Brahman	648	691
Ilava	645	682
Kammala	635	643
Kurava	664	617
Nadar	708	680
Nayar	624	672
Paraya	581	623
Pulaya	568	570
Vellala	639	603
Muslim	684	644
Syrian Christian	712	691
All communities	659	668

Generally speaking female survivorship exceeds male survivorship. Kuravas, Nadars, Muslims and Syrian Christians, appear to be exceptions.

33. An attempt has been made in the foregoing pages to analyse the figures obtained for the Fertility Enquiry. It is for the experts in the fields of anthropology, medicine, public health etc. to go deeper into the subject and find reasons physiological and psychological for the variations observed in the different communities at different age-groups. The function of the Census Commissioner stops with the analysis of the data and the presentation of the facts thereby disclosed. This section should be read along with the next (Appendix II) on Vital Statistics to get a clear idea of the factors which determine the population trends in the State.

APPENDIX II.

VITAL STATISTICS ENQUIRY.

It has already been stated in the preceding section that the Census Commissioner for India had introduced a few questions on fertility in the general enumeration card and that his object in doing so was to do something in the way of propaganda to awaken public consciousness of the extreme importance of vital statistics. In Travancore, the previous Census Commissioners have dwelt at length on the absence of reliable vital statistics data and the consequent difficulties encountered by them in giving a correct explanation of the growth of population. The Census figures reveal that the existing vital statistical records are largely erroneous. This error must mainly be attributed to the inadequacy of the agency employed for registration of births and deaths to cope with the work. Further there are defects in the form of presentation of data such as the absence of information about the age of mother. Recent literature on population problems, foreign and Indian, lays considerable stress on the classification of births according to the age of mother. This information, coupled with that regarding the total number of married women in each age-group furnished by the Census, will enable us to calculate what are called the specific birth-rates. Similarly deaths have to be classified according to age-group and the number of deaths in each group studied with reference to the total population in that age-group. The variation of births and deaths from region to region or from season to season will not give any idea of the factors causing these variations unless the specific birth-rates and death-rates are calculated. It was proposed therefore to utilise the opportunity afforded by the present Census to conduct in

selected areas a special enquiry on births and deaths occurring in one year, of which 1st March 1941, the date of the Census, was the central point. This device eliminated the necessity for estimating population in various age-groups forming the basis of the figures for the calculation of the specific birth and death-rates.

2. Two cards were designed for the purpose, containing a series of questions, one relating to births and the other to deaths. Though for purposes of immediate population study such a large number of items was not necessary, most of the questions have a public health significance and are helpful in illustrating the methods by which public health problems are to be tackled. Specimens of the Specific Fertility and Mortality Enquiry Cards are appended.

3. The area selected for the Enquiry consisted of the Police Conservancy Towns and the Health Unit at Neyyattinkara. The total population of these centres numbered 270,000. In these centres the registration of births and deaths was done directly by the staff of the Public Health Department. The investigators were thus people with the necessary training and equipment. As each birth or death occurred, the particulars regarding the same were recorded in the specified card and forwarded direct to the Census Office at the end of each month. The results obtained have amply justified the assumption that registration of births and deaths in these areas is more or less accurately carried on, by verification with the data obtained through the Population Census. The tabulation of the data was done in the Census Office. The tables prepared are mainly illustrative

of the uses to which vital statistics can be put. They are not exhaustive. As suggested in para I, in the case of births, the age of mother and in the case of deaths, the age of the deceased are fundamentally differentiating factors and hence the sorting of birth-cards was first done according to age of mother and the death-cards according to the age of the deceased. The birth-cards in each age-group of mothers were further sorted by community, means of livelihood of father, duration of marriage and rank of child born. Similarly the 'death-cards' in each age-group were further sorted by community, means of livelihood, cause of death and age of parents. It will be clear from the above that the method adopted will facilitate the extraction of the details required for a comprehensive study of the subject.

4. In discussing the results certain serious limitations of the Enquiry have to be borne in mind. Firstly the Enquiry was confined to one year. The fact that the year chosen is a normal one from the point of view of public health and economic conditions, will, however enhance the value of the Enquiry. The second limitation is that the Enquiry has been confined to selected areas, *viz.*, the Police Conservancy Towns and the Health Unit. Though the centres selected constitute the urban area only, the fact that in the State most of the Police Conservancy Towns are but outgrown villages will make it clear that the deductions from the data collected will generally apply to the rural population also. This is confirmed by the close approximation in most cases of the figures obtained by the Vital Statistics Enquiry with the population figures. The proximity of these centres to the City or the municipal towns, where medical help in maternity cases is more easily available, constitutes an element of error but not to such an extent as to affect the general conclusions.

5. The total number of births registered in the areas selected was 7,432 in a population of 270,000, thus giving a crude birth-rate of 28 per mille of the population. The number of deaths registered was 4,028 and the crude death-rate

was therefore 15 per mille. The number of infant deaths recorded was 949 thus giving a rate of 127 per mille of live births. Variations of these rates from region to region or from period to period will broadly indicate changes in public health conditions. Of the above three rates the infantile mortality rate is the most sensitive index of social conditions since it is directly and immediately affected by biological and environmental factors, economic condition of the group dealt with, social customs, etc.

6. To illustrate by an example how the rates differ for different regions, the conservancy towns may be briefly classed under two groups, one consisting of Aramboly, Bhuthapandy, Cape Comorin, Suchindram, Achanputhur and Samburvadakara and the other group consisting of the remaining towns. (For complete list refer to Table I at the end of this annexure.) In the former group the Tamilian element of the population predominates and their conditions correspond more or less to those prevailing in the neighbouring districts of Tinnevely and Madura. In the remaining towns the Malayalee element predominates and they really represent the true conditions of the major portion of Travancore. The general averages however have not deviated far from the average for the Malayalee group of towns since the percentage of total population in the Tamilian group of towns is only 13. This may be seen from the following table.

Group of Towns	Birth rate per 1,000	Death rate per 1,000	Infantile mortality rate per 1,000 births
Tamilian	37	22	199
Malayalee	26	14	111
General Average	28	15	127

Thus in the Tamilian areas the general mortality and the infant mortality-rate are higher than those prevailing in the other group. The constant aim of the Public Health staff is to bring down the mortality-rates of these areas when they are high, by ascertaining, controlling and regulating the factors which cause these variations. In the same manner the vital rates in the same region may vary from year to year.

Hence arises the necessity for keeping a continuous and complete record of vital statistics for each geographical unit. It is very apt that the recording of vital occurrences has been called the "book keeping of life" while the Census is something like a taking of stock at regular intervals.

7. Till recently it has been assumed by population experts that the difference between the birth-rate and death-rate will form a good index of the population growth and that so long as births exceed deaths the population may be considered to be increasing satisfactorily. More recent researches in vital statistics have revealed that this need not always be the case in as much as birth-rates are different for different age-groups of mothers and it may happen that the apparent increase in births and decrease in deaths, may be merely the result of a favourable age-constitution and this favourable state of affairs may be suddenly replaced by quite unfavourable conditions due to changes in age-constitution. Since from the point of view of reproduction, women play a more prominent part it is highly essential that each girl born now should give birth at least to one girl before her death so that the population may replace itself adequately and this is the best index of population growth.

8. The following data are required to calculate what is generally called the net reproduction-rate which gives the ratio of future girls that will be born to every 1,000 girls now born:—

- (i) Specific birth-rates at different ages of mothers from 15—50;
- (ii) A life table showing the number of women who will survive at different ages according to current mortality-rates at each age;
- (iii) Ratio of female births to total births; and
- (iv) The proportions of married women to total women in each age-group.

Of these various requisites the Census will provide only the fourth. The remaining have to be obtained from a correct record of vital statistics. The results of the present Vital Statistics Enquiry have been utilised to extract the

required data on (i), (ii) and (iii) and thereby to get an idea of the current net reproduction-rate.

9. The 7,432 births recorded have been grouped according to the age of mothers. The total number of married women living in each age-group of mother is also obtained from the Census results. From these the specific birth-rates are calculated as below;

Age of mother.	No. of births for mothers	Total number of married women	Number of births per 1,000 married women.
15—19	979	4,266	230
20—24	2,055	8,317	247
25—29	1,974	8,904	222
30—34	1,281	7,665	167
35—39	889	6,804	141
40—44	200	4,479	45
45—49	51	3,345	15

10. Approximate specific birth-rates for each individual age have been worked out by graphical interpolation. These are given below. It may be noted that the birth-rate at the very early ages 15 or 16 is not so high as for the ages 19 or 20. It is highest at about 23—24 and then steadily decreases till it falls to 0 after 50. This is in accordance with the experience recorded of all countries.

Specific Birth-rates. (individual ages)					
Age	Children born per 1,000 married women.	Age	Children born per 1,000 married women.	Age	Children born per 1,000 married women.
15	222	27	231	39	100
16	226	28	221	40	87
17	229	29	211	41	72
18	232	30	200	42	54
19	235	31	192	43	43
20	237	32	185	44	37
21	240	33	176	45	30
22	244	34	168	46	24
23	246	35	154	47	19
24	248	36	144	48	14
25	245	37	130	49	7
26	240	38	115	50	2

11. The 4,028 deaths have been classified according to the age of the deceased. The total population living in the areas selected in each age-group being known from the Census, the specific mortality rates for certain broad age-groups are calculated for males and females separately. In spite of the comparative smallness of the number of cards dealt with, it is noted that the law of mortality generally observed holds good for the State as a whole.

Mortality-rates by age and sex.

Age-group.	Males.	Females.
0—1	143.2	111.5
1—5	19.5	23.7
5—10	4.3	4.1
10—15	2.5	2.7
15—20	4.0	4.2
20—25	5.0	5.5
25—30	7.7	7.1
30—35	7.1	6.4
35—40	8.6	7.3
40—45	12.9	8.5
45—50	16.6	11.0
50—55	18.5	12.3
55—60	30.7	20.5
60—65	51.9	32.5
65—70	61.6	58.0
70 and over	128.2	128.4

The slight irregularities observed in the trend of the rates were smoothed out by means of a graph and the mortality-rates for individual ages obtained by interpolation. The rates so obtained are given in column 4 of the Life Tables given at the end of this annexure. The following inferences are found to hold good.

- (i) Between 0 and 12 mortality among males is higher than that among females;
- (ii) Between 13 and 29 female mortality is higher;
- (iii) After 29 female mortality is again lower.

12. Based on the mortality-rates estimated from the Vital Statistics Enquiry, a life table has been prepared, for males and females. This is the first life table prepared in this State from recorded vital statistics data. Starting

with 10,000 babies, we apply the mortality-rate at each age and successively calculate the number surviving and dying at each age till all of them die out. The average expectation of life at each age also has been worked out. A life table prepared in 1931 from theoretically estimated mortality-rates gives figures for quinquennial ages only. The following table compares the figures, at decennial ages, of mortality-rates and expectation of life in 1931 and 1941. Even

Age.	Males				Females			
	Death rate per 1,000.		Expectation of life in years.		Death rate per 1,000.		Expectation of life in years.	
	1931	1941	1931	1941	1931	1941	1931	1941
10	3.8	3.1	46.0	50.3	3.5	2.8	44.8	52.6
20	4.2	3.2	37.5	41.5	6.8	4.5	36.6	44.2
30	8.5	6.3	29.5	33.2	11.6	5.9	29.5	36.3
40	14.2	10.6	22.3	25.5	17.2	8.2	22.7	28.5
50	27.7	18.5	16.1	18.5	26.9	12.5	17.0	20.9
60	46.8	36.8	10.7	12.3	39.8	24.7	11.6	13.7
70	99.0	75.2	6.5	7.5	88.1	67.0	7.0	8.0
80	196.5	178.8	3.5	3.7	132.7	164.7	3.8	3.9
90	509.0	502.0	1.3	1.3	493.7	485.9	1.3	1.4

though the mortality-rates for 1941 are deduced from figures relating to conservancy towns only, we may not be wrong in inferring that the mortality rates for the State in 1941 are definitely lower than those that prevailed in 1931 and similarly the expectation of life in 1941 at all ages is higher than that revealed by the figures for 1931. Moreover the increase in female survivorship at all ages is greater than that in male survivorship. The fact that the female ratio in the general population is greater in 1941 than in 1931 can therefore be attributed at least in part to the increase in female survivorship. The schemes of maternity and child welfare work inaugurated during the last decade must have contributed to this.

13. Having constructed a life table for females and ascertained the specific birth-rates for each individual age, the calculation of the total number of children that will be born to 10,000 girls now born is an easy step. Applying the specific birth-rates to the number of women

who will survive at 15, 16, 17, etc., to 50, we find that the total number of children that will be born to 10,000 girls is 40,100 if all the girls get married. But in practice all these girls are not likely to get married. Taking into account only the proportions of those who will be married, it is noted that the total number of children will be reduced to 28,900. The enquiry has further revealed that out of 7,432 births 3,827 are males and 3605 are females, the proportion of female to total births being 48.5 per cent. If this proportion is applied to the total number of children born to 10,000 girls as calculated above the total number of girls that will be born to 1,000 girls of today is found to be about 1,400 according to the current rate of marriages and fertility. The net reproduction rate is therefore 1.4 which shows that the present age-constitution, marriage rates and fertility rates are quite satisfactory for adequate replacement and normal increase of population. The most important purpose for which the Vital Statistics Enquiry was conducted *viz*, the calculation of the specific birth-rates and death-rates the preparation of a life table and the calculation of the net reproduction rate, has been illustrated in this and the preceding paragraphs. In the following paragraphs other salient features of the data collected are dealt with briefly.

14. It is observed that of the total of 7,432 births 5,011 or 67 per cent. are born to mothers below 30. Only 251 or 3 per cent. are born to those above 40 and about 30 per cent. to those between 30 and 40. These proportions may be assumed to hold good approximately at least for births in general in the State. The mean age of the mothers who give birth to children is 27.4. The following table shows the distribution of births according to the age of the father with the average age of the mother for each age-group of fathers. It is observed that 27.5

Age-group of father.	No. of births.	Percentage to total births.	Average age of mother
Below 20	6	0.1	17.5
20—24	455	6.1	18.1
25—29	1,606	21.6	21.7
30—34	1,633	22.0	25.1
35—39	1,639	22.1	28.8
40—44	1,028	13.6	32.9
45—49	635	8.5	35.4
50—55	288	3.2	36.9
55 and over	142	2.2	36.4

per cent. of the births are for fathers below 40 and only 2 per cent. take place in respect of fathers above 55. The mean age of the fathers is 35.7 so that the average of the difference between the ages of the husband and wife is 8.3. From the above table it is also seen that the disparity between the ages of the husband and wife is greater with regard to the higher age groups of husbands. Thus husbands who are on the average 32.5 years have wives of average age 25.1 years while those who are on the average 47.5 years have wives of average age 35.4 years. After this age-group of husbands the change in the average age of the wives who give birth to children is not appreciable.

15. The following table shows the average duration of marriage of mothers in each age-group and the average number of children born to them.

Age of mother	Average duration of marriage in year	Average number of children born including the present child.
15—19	3.1	1.3
20—24	5.7	2.2
25—29	10.8	3.8
30—34	14.9	5.8
35—39	19.2	6.8
40—44	23.2	8.0
45—49	25.4	8.5
Average	10.3	3.8

A significant inference possible from the above table is that the average number of children born to women for the various age-groups and particularly for the age-group 35—39, 40—44 and 45—49 is found to be comparatively higher than the average number recorded for the married women of these groups in the general population. It is likely that women with large families have a tendency to give birth to more children after the age of 35, 40 or 45. The average age of the married women has been already shown to be 27.4 years and the average duration of marriage is 10.3 years. The average age of marriage is therefore deduced to be 17.1 years. When compared to this average it is found that the average age of marriage of the women who continue to give birth to children between 45 and 49 is also higher (47.5—25.4=22.1) years. The average number of children born is 3.8. Generally speaking about 53 per cent. of the total births occur in the case of mothers, the duration of whose marriage is below 10 years and they

are either first, second or third births. Comparing individual ranks, it is seen that 1st births predominate (about 20 per cent.), there being a steady decrease in the frequency of births of other rank. Similarly for births between different durations of marriage the frequency is greatest for duration below 5 years. The fall in frequencies must be due to the fact that fertility-rates decrease with age of woman (*vide* table on page 183).

16. The 7,432 births returned have been grouped according to the means of livelihood of the father in certain broad classes. Only under pasture and agriculture, industry, trade, professions and liberal arts, and unspecified labour have more than 500 cases been returned. Against public administration, 319 births have been recorded. A study of the births returned under the other means of livelihood may not be of any interest since their numbers are comparatively small. The following table shows the average age of the mothers returned against each principal means of livelihood.

Means of livelihood of father.	Number of births.	Average age of mother.
Agriculture	2,643	27.6
Industry	901	27.2
Trade	1,336	27.1
Public Administration	319	27.9
Professions and Liberal Arts	620	27.5
Labour	1,356	26.5

The average age will indicate the nature of the age-constitution of the wives. Since fertility is higher in the lower age-groups a lower average is conducive to higher birth-rate. It may be noted that the age-constitution of the wives of persons following public administration and professions is such as will bring down fertility; but in the case of labour, industry and trade the effect is just the reverse. The agriculturist will occupy a middle place.

17. Since the figures for births returned against the various communities are too small it is not possible to compare the birth-rates for the different communities. The following table however shows the birth-rate calculated from population for the more important communities

residing in the areas selected for the enquiry. It appears that the Hindus and the Muslims have

Community.	Population.	Births.	Birth-rate.
Hindu	163,000	4,621	28 per mille
Christian	79,000	1,966	25 "
Muslim	28,000	845	30 "
Total	270,000	7,432	28 "

higher birth-rates than the Christians. The lower birth-rate for the Christians may be due to the fact that excepting for certain sections of the Syrian Christians, marriages take place among them at later ages.

18. Of the 7,432 births, 3,827 were males and 3,605 were females, the ratio of males to 1,000 female births being 1,061. It is known that the ratio of males to females in the general population is only 1,007. Naturally it can be inferred that female survivorship is greater than that of male survivorship in general.

19. It may be of interest to examine the variation of masculinity of birth for mothers of different age-groups, different communities and for different durations of marriage, means of livelihood of father, etc. But the value of the data collected is very limited owing to the smallness of the numbers dealt with as well as the restricted area brought under the enquiry.

Masculinity in relation to age of mother.

Age of mother.	Proportion of male births to 1,000 female births.
15—19	1,070
20—24	1,090
25—29	1,065
30—34	1,011
35—39	1,147
40—44	818
45—49	700

One significant feature noted is that masculinity is comparatively high in the earlier ages 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29 and low in the higher ages 40-44 and 45-49. Masculinity is very

Masculinity vs. Community.

Community.	Proportion of male to 1,000 female births.
Brahmin	1,272
Nayar	1,059
Ilava	1,013
Muslim	1,280
Syrian Christian	1,101
Nadar	1,022
Kammala	1,000
Vellala	926

high for Brahmins and Muslims but Vellalas Nayars, Ilavas and Nadars record a low masculi-

Masculinity vs. Means of Livelihood.

Means of livelihood of father.	Proportion of male births to 1,000 female births.
Agriculture	999
Industry	998
Trade	1,090
Administration	1,085
Professions	1,058
Labour	1,156

nity. On comparing the more important means of livelihood it is observed that in the case of labour proportionately more male children are born than in the case of the other means of livelihood.

Masculinity vs. Rank of child.

Rank of child.	Proportion of male to 1,000 female births.
1	1,073
2	1,073
3	1,009
4	1,002
5	1,140
6	1,058
7	1,121
8	1,181

When masculinity is compared for births of different ranks it is observed that excepting in the case of 3rd and 4th births masculinity is generally high.

Masculinity vs. Duration of marriage

Duration of marriage	Proportion of male births to 1,000 female births
0-5 years	1,067
5-9 "	1,098
10-14 "	1,056
15-19 "	955
20-24 "	1,198

Masculinity is high in the earlier years of duration. At 15-19 years there is a fall. This is supported by the fact that the masculinity is found to be low among births by mothers of ages 40-49.

20. The most important classification of deaths, viz., by age and sex has been discussed in the earlier paragraphs in connection with the life table. The classification of deaths was also made according to means of livelihood of the deceased, community, cause of death and age of the dead and living parents. The results are shown in the tables at the end of this annexure.

21. The following table shows for each age of the deceased the proportion of mothers and fathers who are dead.

Age of deceased	Proportion of mothers dead	Proportion of fathers dead
0-1	2.8 per cent.	1.2 per cent.
1-5	2.6 "	4.9 "
5-10	6.2 "	8.7 "
10-15	8.8 "	17.0 "
15-20	11.4 "	25.7 "
20-25	25.5 "	45.5 "
25-30	30.1 "	41.2 "
30-35	48.5 "	66.7 "
35-40	64.1 "	77.8 "
40-45	75.9 "	86.2 "
45-50	78.0 "	91.7 "
50-55	88.7 "	94.0 "
55-60	95.9 "	100.0 "
60-65	97.2 "	100.0 "
65-70	97.6 "	100.0 "
70 and over	100.0 "	100.0 "

22. Naturally with the advancing age of the deceased, the proportions of mothers or fathers dead also increase. For instance with regard to deceased person aged 55-60, 95.9 per cent of the mothers and 100 per cent. of the fathers are dead. One noteworthy feature is that in the case of infant deaths the proportion of mothers dead is higher than the proportion of fathers dead. This is mostly due to the deaths among women during child-birth. The table below shows for each age-group of the deceased the average age at death of the mother and the average age at death of the father. It is noted that excepting for one or two erratic cases, the higher the age of the deceased, the higher also is the age at death of the father or mother of the deceased. It substantiates a generally established finding that longevity has some relation to heredity.

Age of the deceased	Average age at death of	
	Mother	Father
0-1	28.8	40.2
1-5	30.0	36.2
5-10	31.0	51.5
10-15	28.8	51.6
15-20	43.7	49.9
20-25	32.0	51.2
25-30	47.4	48.4
30-35	51.6	58.2
35-40	54.8	60.8
40-45	55.9	61.8
45-50	59.0	80.0
50-55	58.5	62.0
55-60	63.4	67.2
60-65	63.1	68.4
65-70	65.4	68.0
70 and over	67.0	71.4

Thus for persons deceased at 70 and over the average age of the mothers at death is 67.0 and that of the fathers at death is 71.4.

23. It is generally conceded that means of livelihood has some relation to mortality since some occupations are more conducive to longevity than others. A detailed analysis of the effect of the means of livelihood on mortality is not possible because the number of cards dealt with is too small. Only a few occupations have returned more than a hundred cases and the proportionate distribution of deaths calculated for certain broad age-groups for these is given below.

Means of Livelihood	Number of deaths returned	Proportion dying per mille at age		
		0-20	20-60	60 & over
Pasture & Agriculture	386	28	529	443
Industry	119	50	689	261
Trade	140	57	579	364
Domestic Service	920	63	465	472
Unspecified Labour	192	57	708	235

The comparatively large proportions observed for the age-group 60 and above under pasture and agriculture and domestic service may indicate either that these occupations are favourable for longevity or that old persons also can continue these occupations. Similarly the high proportions for the age-group 20—60 under industry or labour indicate that these occupations are followed mostly by persons of middle age or that they are not favourable for longevity. With regard to domestic service out of 920 persons returned 870 are females. For the other occupations the number of females returned are relatively very small.

24. Of the 4,028 deaths returned, 2,066 had no occupations at all, *i. e.*, they include children and wholly dependent persons. For the whole population in general it is observed that 498 per mille of those who die are below 20 years of age, 268 are between 20 and 60 and the rest (234) above 60 years. The following table shows

the crude death-rate calculated for the major communities. The Hindus and Muslims have

Community	Number of deaths	Population	Death rate per mille
Hindu	2,617	163,000	16
Christian	976	79,000	12
Muslim	485	28,000	15
Total	4,028	270,000	15

higher death-rates than Christians. But as the birth-rate for Muslims and Christians is higher than that of Hindus the natural increase of the former is higher than that of the latter.

25. Of the major castes only Nayars, Ilavas, Muslims, Other Christians, Nadars and Kammalas and Other Hindus have returned more than 200 deaths each in the year under enquiry in the selected centres. The following table shows the proportional distribution of deaths in certain broad age-groups for certain communities.

Community (Caste)	Number of deaths	Proportion dying at ages		
		Below 20	20-60	Above 60
Nayar	569	413	281	306
Ilava	437	458	311	231
Vellala	194	515	227	258
Muslim	435	538	248	214
Syrian Christian	197	457	299	244
Kammala	228	478	278	244
Nadar	237	477	244	279

It is noted that the Nayars show the highest proportion dying above 60 years and Muslims the least.

26. The 4,028 deaths returned have been classified according to certain major causes of death. A study of these figures has interest only from the public health aspect but has no direct bearing on the population problems. The value of the data is also limited by the fact that no statistics of morbidity are available, for unless the number of actual attacks under each cause is known the incidence of mortality cannot be measured.

The major causes of death are shown below along with percentage in each class of disease to the

Cause of death	Number of deaths	Percentage to total
Smallpox	17	0.4
Typhoid	77	1.9
Malaria	28	0.7
Fevers	350	8.7
Dysentery & Diarrhoea	780	19.3
Respiratory diseases	744	18.4
Diseases of the circulatory system	583	14.5
Genito Urinary system	50	1.2
Maternal deaths	62	1.5
Accidents	87	2.2

total. Fevers, Dysentery and Diarrhoea, diseases of respiratory and the circulatory system predominate. Accidents also account for an appreciable number of deaths.

27. The following table shows the proportional distribution of deaths in certain broad age-groups for the more numerous returned of the causes.

Cause of death	Number of deaths	Per mille dying in the ages		
		Below 20	20—60	above 60
Typhoid	77	545	455	...
Fevers	350	637	234	129
Dysentery and Diarrhoea	780	693	187	170
Respiratory diseases	744	375	421	204
Diseases of the circulatory system	583	182	336	482
Maternal deaths	62	258	742	...
Accidents	87	414	494	92

From the above table it is seen that Typhoid, Fevers and Dysentery are more prevalent in the lower age-groups while diseases of the circulatory system are most prevalent in the higher age-group. Diseases of the respiratory system appear to be most prevalent in the middle age-group.

28. In order to discover whether any periodicity exists in the variation of births and deaths it is necessary to have figures by months concerning a series of years. Since we have figures for one year only, such a process is not possible. Still the proportion of births to deaths (vital index) calculated for the various months will indicate which are the most favourable months from the

standpoint of growth of population. The following table shows the vital indices (births for every 100 deaths) calculated for the various months.

Month	Vital Index
September	197
October	230
November	194
December	179
January	168
February	238
March	185
April	187
May	172
June	176
July	150
August	161
Total	185

The vital index is above the average from September to November and February to April. It is very low for July, August, December and January which are, as far as this State is concerned, considered as unhealthy months.

29. The vital indices calculated for certain specified communities are also given below for comparison. A noteworthy feature is that the

Community	Vital Index
Brahman	238
Nayar	180
Ilava	172
Muslim	194
Syrian Christian	338
Nadar	228

Syrian Christians have a comparatively high vital index.

30. Infantile mortality is the best index of social welfare since it is susceptible to even slight variations in public health, economic and other factors. The number of infant deaths recorded was 949 against 7,432 births thus giving a rate of 127 per 1,000 births. This is much lower than the rates prevailing in other parts of India which vary from 200 to 300. It was already stated that on comparing different regions the Tamilian group of towns (Aramboly, Bhoothapandy, Cape Comorin, Suchindram, Achanputhur and Samburvadakara) have a much higher infantile mortality rate (199 per 1,000 births) than the other towns, which have a rate only of 111 per 1,000 births. The difference must be mainly

due to the insanitary conditions, backwardness in education and unhealthy social customs of the Tamilian areas.

31. The following table shows the difference in infantile mortality with varying ages of mother and for certain communities

Age of mother		vs. Infantile mortality	
Age of mother	Number of births	Number of infant deaths	Infant deaths per 1,000 births
15—20	979	132	135
20—25	2,055	262	127
25—30	1,974	208	105
30—35	1,281	167	130
35—40	889	133	149
40—45	200	27	135
45 and above	51	6	117

Community		vs. Infantile mortality	
Community	Number of births	Number of infant deaths	Infant deaths per 1,000 births
Brahman	250	37	148
Nayar	1,077	107	99
Ilava	751	80	107
Muslim	845	116	137
Syrian			
Christian	666	34	51
Vellala	287	54	188
Kammala	268	52	194
Nadar	540	52	96

Comparing different age-groups of mothers it appears that infantile mortality is low for the age-groups 20—25 and 25—30. The variations between communities are more marked. Nayers, Ilavas, Syrian Christians and Nadars have low infant mortality rates. For Brahmans,

Muslims, Vellalas and Kammalas the rates are high.

32. The number of still births recorded in the year under enquiry was 168 (96 males and 72 females) giving a ratio of 22 per 1,000 live births. As the number of cards returned under this item is very small and as still births are of no special significance in vital statistical studies no detailed classification of these was attempted.

33. From the preceding paragraphs it may be seen that a correct record of vital statistics is required for the formulation of population policies. The increasing attention bestowed on population problems and the intimate bearing which these have on social planning whether in the field of public health, education, or economic development make it very essential to make the registration of births and deaths as accurate as possible. The registration of births and deaths is a fairly old practice and all civilized Governments have created administrative machineries to carry on this item of work, but perfection has been attained only in some of them. This is possible only by the hearty co-operation of the public with the Governments concerned. The public have in their turn to be properly enlightened by persistent propaganda in regard to the uses of vital statistics. If the present Vital Statistics Enquiry in the State has served this purpose, to whatever little extent it may be, it can be said to have justified the time and effort spent on the same.

ENQUIRY CARDS

CENSUS OF TRAVANCORE 1941

Specific Fertility Enquiry Card

Taluk.....
 Police Conservancy town.....Block No.....Name of
 head of family.....
 Circle No.....House No.

A. - Particulars of child born

1. Male..... Date of birth..... Order of birth.....
 or
 Female.....

B. Particulars of parents

	Father	Mother
Name		
Age (years and months)		
Caste		
Occupation		
Birth place		
Whether first, second or third marriage		
Duration of present marriage		

C. Particulars of previous children of the same mother.

Order. Male or female. Age of living. Age at death, if dead.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8

Countersigned
 Sanitary Circle Officer.

Conservancy Overseer.

CENSUS OF TRAVANCORE 1941

Specific Mortality Enquiry Card

Taluk.....
 Police Conservancy town.....
 Circle No. Block No..... House No.....
 Name of head of family.....

A. Particulars of deceased.

1. Name
2. Sex
3. Age in years and months
4. Whether married or not
5. Caste
6. Occupation last followed
7. Birth place
8. Cause of death
9. Date of death

B. Particulars of parents of deceased.

	Father.	Mother.
Name		
Age (if living)		
Age at death, if dead		
Occupation		
Birth place		
Countersigned		
Sanitary Circle Officer.		Conservancy Overseer.

TABLES ON VITAL STATISTICS

TABLE I—Classification of births according to months

Conservancy towns	Months												Total
	September	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Aramboly	22	24	18	20	16	19	19	26	28	23	28	28	271
Bhuthapandy	12	12	11	10	14	16	27	17	11	13	17	18	178
Cape Comorin	18	12	16	19	8	11	12	9	14	14	16	15	164
Suchindram	16	7	8	10	8	12	13	20	11	14	10	12	141
Eraniel	24	23	22	16	27	25	19	34	17	28	35	30	300
Thiruvithancode	16	17	14	17	15	19	13	8	14	23	9	17	182
Thiruvattai	2	2	4	5	8	4	7	7	6	3	3	4	55
Parassala	9	10	9	10	16	24	5	6	8	8	13	10	128
Nedumangad	5	5	4	5	4	3	6	7	6	2	9	4	55
Varkala	14	10	14	12	10	3	9	9	9	12	12	4	118
Kottarakkara	18	7	13	11	16	25	14	15	15	15	13	14	176
Punalur	45	19	23	26	32	42	26	23	36	36	27	31	366
Achanputhur	18	15	18	33	22	14	20	10	15	18	29	28	240
Samburvadakara	23	16	14	24	28	17	35	17	31	31	26	30	292
Karunagapally	20	15	15	13	18	14	15	7	16	27	10	16	187
Haripad	19	25	26	26	19	19	17	24	29	26	19	22	271
Mavelikara	40	31	37	30	29	37	26	17	31	33	30	30	371
Chengannur	27	22	24	21	22	35	24	26	31	45	25	23	325
Pathanamthitta	15	13	18	12	11	10	11	11	15	10	11	3	148
Ambalapuzha	30	42	35	24	23	32	23	23	21	29	28	18	328
Sherthala	3	13	24	14	13	13	13	11	9	18	17	14	162
Ettumanur	21	27	12	18	15	20	10	8	15	18	13	17	197
Minachil	8	9	8	7	10	9	12	4	10	7	9	4	97
Mundakayam	12	14	22	13	13	14	16	13	15	20	17	31	200
Muvattupuzha	21	25	19	20	25	23	15	16	21	7	192
Thodupuzha	20	14	16	15	8	12	13	13	8	6	19	..	144
Perumpavoor	23	17	17	22	12	22	14	22	15	21	14	14	213
Neyyattinkara Health Unit	143	171	175	176	175	153	179	161	178	179	142	99	1,931
Total	639	818	836	629	617	655	613	564	638	686	601	536	7,432

TABLE II—Classification of births by age and community of mother and sex of child

Community	Age of mother and sex of child														
	Below 15			15-19			20-24			25-29			30-34		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Brahman	57	28	31	64	41	23	54	29	25	36	18	18
Nayar	158	81	78	304	155	149	280	144	136	108	104	94
Ilava	94	49	45	210	113	97	199	89	110	129	64	65
Muslim	1	..	11	130	78	52	229	131	108	204	120	84	144	83	61
Syrian Christian	65	34	31	186	106	80	189	94	95	126	65	61
Other Christian	137	62	75	344	172	172	391	194	107	219	102	117
Other Hindu	2	1	1	199	106	93	370	191	179	310	170	146	213	108	105
Hindu Nādar	52	30	22	154	70	84	151	85	66	102	45	57
Kammāla	28	14	14	86	44	42	68	27	41	49	29	20
Vellāla	39	18	21	76	39	37	84	39	45	45	22	23
Paraya	8	4	4	9	3	6	8	6	2	7	1	6
Pulaya	8	3	5	19	13	6	20	14	6	10	3	7
Kurava	3	1	2	4	4	..	10	7	3	3	..	3
Total	3	1	2	979	506	473	2,055	1,072	982	1,974	1,018	956	1,281	644	627

Community	Age of mother and sex of child											
	35-39			40-44			45 and above			Total		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	
Brahman	35	24	11	3	1	2	1	1	..	250	140	110
Nayar	112	58	54	20	10	10	4	2	2	1,077	554	523
Ilava	95	52	43	23	10	13	1	1	..	751	378	373
Muslim	104	50	54	28	14	14	5	..	5	845	466	379
Syrian Christian	67	36	31	28	12	16	5	2	3	686	349	317
Other Christian	162	77	85	32	13	19	15	6	9	1,300	626	674
Other Hindu	171	94	77	38	19	19	10	5	5	1,319	694	625
Hindu Nādar	61	34	27	15	6	9	5	3	2	540	273	267
Kammāla	28	16	12	7	3	4	2	1	1	268	134	134
Vellāla	37	20	17	3	..	3	3	..	3	287	138	149
Paraya	5	4	1	37	18	19
Pulaya	8	7	1	2	2	67	42	25
Kurava	4	3	1	1	..	1	25	15	10
Total	889	475	414	200	90	110	81	21	30	7,332	3,827	3,605

TABLE III—Classification of births according to age of mother, age of father and sex of child

Age of mother and sex of child

Age of father	Age of mother and sex of child														
	Below 15			15—19			20—24			25—29			30—34		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Below 20	6	5	1
20—24	2	1	1	317	159	158	131	79	52	3	1	2	1	..	1
25—29	1	..	1	449	232	217	957	465	462	195	101	94	3	2	1
30—34	143	73	70	626	317	309	798	418	380	111	60	51
35—39	45	29	16	243	138	110	686	354	332	551	262	239
40—44	12	5	7	61	28	33	181	86	95	379	188	191
45—49	7	3	4	18	8	10	70	35	35	157	87	70
50—54	8	4	4	23	12	11	50	26	24
55 and above	6	3	3	18	11	7	29	19	10
Total	3	1	2	979	508	478	2,055	1,072	983	1,974	1,018	956	1,284	644	637

Age of mother and sex of child

Age of father	Age of mother and sex of child											
	35—39			40—44			45 and above			Total		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
Below 20	6	5	1
20—24	1	..	1	455	240	215
25—29	1	..	1	1,606	830	776
30—34	5	4	1	1,683	872	811
35—39	106	52	54	1	..	1	2	1	1	1,639	836	803
40—44	363	189	174	30	14	16	2	..	2	1,028	510	518
45—49	280	156	124	93	40	53	10	4	6	635	333	302
50—54	84	50	34	54	25	29	19	8	11	238	125	113
55 and above	49	24	25	22	11	11	13	8	10	142	76	66
Total	839	478	414	200	90	110	51	31	30	7,432	3,927	3,605

TABLE IV - Classification of births according to age of mother, duration of marriage and sex of child

Duration of marriage (Years)	Age of mother and sex of child											
	Below 15			15-19			20-24			25-29		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Below 5	3	1	2	865	449	416	922	482	440	201	97	104
5-9	114	57	57	941	493	448	674	304	310
10-14	192	97	95	929	476	454
15-19	170	82	86
20-24
25 and above
Total	3	1	2	979	503	473	2,055	1,072	933	1,974	1,018	956

Duration of marriage (Years)	Age of mother and sex of child														
	30-34			35-39			40-44			45 and above			Total		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	
Below 5	46	21	25	18	11	7	2,055	1,061	994
5-9	108	55	53	29	9	20	2	..	2	1	1,869	978	891
10-14	454	234	220	98	53	45	13	7	8	1,696	846	820
15-19	547	284	263	294	150	144	20	6	14	5	4	1	1,036	506	530
20-24	126	70	56	393	219	174	85	42	43	7	2	5	611	333	278
25 and above	57	33	24	80	35	45	38	15	23	175	88	92
Total	1,281	644	637	889	475	414	200	90	110	51	21	20	7,432	3,827	3,605

TABLE V—Classification of births according to age of mother and rank and sex of child

Rank of present child	Age of mother and sex of child											
	Below 15			15-19			20-24			25-29		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
I	3	1	2	745	380	365	592	313	279	112	58	54
II	210	111	99	734	388	346	270	135	135
III	20	12	8	477	244	233	475	230	245
IV	1	1	..	197	100	97	513	272	241
V	3	2	1	39	18	21	395	210	185
VI	16	9	7	139	79	60
VII	57	26	31
VIII	13	8	5
IX
X
XI
XII
XIII
XIV
Total	3	1	2	979	503	473	2,055	1,072	983	1,974	1,018	988

Rank of present child	Age of mother and sex of child														
	30-34			35-39			40-44			45 and above			Total		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
I	23	11	12	2	2	1	..	1	1,478	765	713
II	75	37	38	18	6	12	1	..	1	1,308	677	631
III	116	61	55	39	19	20	5	3	2	1	..	1	1,133	569	564
IV	200	90	110	58	24	34	7	2	5	1	..	1	977	489	488
V	269	150	119	106	56	50	12	3	9	2	1	1	828	440	386
VI	280	137	143	156	77	79	16	11	5	5	1	4	612	314	298
VII	183	91	92	172	101	71	40	20	20	2	2	..	454	240	214
VIII	85	41	44	168	95	73	33	16	17	10	4	6	309	164	145
IX	39	21	18	103	52	51	33	13	20	10	2	8	185	88	97
X	7	3	4	36	27	9	28	13	15	8	4	4	79	47	32
XI	4	2	2	21	10	11	14	6	8	10	6	4	49	24	25
XII	5	4	1	6	3	3	11	7	4
XIII	4	1	3	3	..	3	1	1	..	8	2	6
XIV	1	1	..	2	..	2	3	1	2
Total	1,281	644	637	1,859	475	414	200	90	110	51	31	30	7,332	3,827	3,605

TABLE VI—Classification of births according to age of mother, occupation of father and sex of child

Occupation of father	Age of mother and sex of child														
	Below 15			15—19			20—24			25—29			30—34		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Exploitation of Animals and vegetation	324	161	163	721	377	344	723	344	379	436	221	315
Industry	1	1	..	122	64	58	273	133	140	216	105	111	146	83	65
Transport	5	4	1	17	9	8	12	8	4	3	2	1
Trade	216	112	104	345	179	166	348	188	160	239	124	115
Public Force	2	1	1	5	4	1	8	5	3	2	..	2
Public Administration	1	..	1	28	15	13	97	44	53	79	49	30	62	28	34
Professions and Liberal Arts	78	40	38	172	86	86	161	88	73	112	46	66
Pension	1	1	..
Domestic service	16	7	9	43	26	17	38	20	18	23	12	11
Unspecified labour	174	94	80	368	205	163	367	197	170	244	120	124
Unproductive	2	2	..	1	1	1	1	..
Student	1	..	1	3	1	2
Nil	9	5	4	13	8	5	22	14	8	10	6	4
Total	3	1	2	979	503	473	2,055	1,072	933	1,974	1,013	935	1,231	644	637

Occupation of father	Age of mother and sex of child											
	35—39			40—44			45 and above			Total		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
Exploitation of Animals and vegetation	344	176	168	75	32	43	20	10	10	2,043	1,321	1,322
Industry	110	51	59	26	10	16	5	2	3	901	449	452
Transport	2	1	1	1	1	40	25	15
Trade	146	78	68	32	14	18	10	2	8	1,336	697	639
Public force	17	10	7
Public Administration	40	26	14	11	3	8	1	1	..	319	166	153
Professions and Liberal Arts	78	49	29	16	8	8	3	1	2	620	318	302
Pension	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	4	2	2
Domestic service	9	5	4	1	..	1	1	1	..	131	71	60
Unspecified labour	156	85	71	37	22	15	10	4	6	1,356	727	629
Unproductive	2	2	6	6	..
Student	4	1	3
Nil	1	1	55	34	21
Total	889	475	414	200	90	110	51	21	30	7,432	3,827	3,605

TABLE VII—Classification of deaths according to months

Conservancy towns	Months												Total
	September	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Aramboly	11	24	17	18	10	9	8	12	14	20	14	16	173
Bhuthapandy	4	8	10	3	9	1	12	10	6	12	9	6	90
Cape Comorin	5	7	5	11	10	6	5	5	7	8	6	11	86
Suchindram	13	9	7	4	13	5	10	9	11	6	10	4	101
Eraniel	13	10	10	7	10	16	14	10	11	13	15	14	143
Thiruvithancode	5	5	10	8	3	9	9	8	9	8	13	8	95
Thiruvattar	2	..	2	4	3	2	3	6	4	2	3	3	34
Parassala	1	4	6	4	12	6	3	..	8	4	3	3	56
Nedumangad	4	2	4	3	1	1	1	4	4	2	3	7	36
Varkala	3	2	8	10	4	2	6	6	9	14	14	6	84
Kottarakkara	10	3	2	8	7	7	9	3	9	12	14	5	89
Punalur	10	3	11	16	13	11	9	8	9	13	12	15	130
Achanputhur	12	5	15	17	16	15	12	5	16	14	5	10	142
Samburvadakara	16	10	19	24	16	9	21	6	10	12	11	9	163
Karunagapally	10	13	8	10	16	7	5	7	8	17	24	10	135
Haripad	15	12	11	22	13	22	17	13	24	13	27	27	216
Mavelikara	23	23	21	11	21	15	19	10	7	16	16	21	203
Chengannur	24	13	16	12	13	13	9	18	14	9	21	13	175
Pathanamthitta	10	8	5	4	7	4	4	8	9	9	10	5	83
Ambalapuzha	18	14	20	22	16	20	14	23	31	21	31	15	245
Sherthala	8	6	13	14	11	6	9	9	8	11	7	10	112
Ettumanur	12	9	4	16	9	5	7	5	5	9	10	15	108
Minachil	2	2	2	3	5	1	3	3	4	4	1	2	32
Mundakayam	11	7	7	7	11	5	8	10	19	13	8	10	116
Muvattupuzha	7	9	6	8	9	11	11	4	9	7	81
Thodupuzha	11	6	12	9	4	3	4	2	4	3	8	5	71
Perumpavur	11	3	9	10	9	2	6	8	7	9	7	12	93
Neyyattinkara Health Unit	53	52	67	66	97	62	94	37	96	108	97	70	949
Total	324	269	327	361	368	275	332	301	372	389	399	332	4,033

N. B.—11 cases were ownerless dead bodies. Detailed information regarding these were not available. They have been excluded from the general sorting.

TABLE VIII—Classification of deaths by age, community and sex of the deceased

Community of the deceased	Age and sex of the deceased																	
	Below 1		1-5		5-10		10-15		15-20		20-25		25-30		30-35		35-40	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Brahman	25	12	5	10	8	4	1	1	..	4	..	1	1	1	..	1	..	2
Nayar	63	44	41	37	15	10	5	9	4	7	7	9	7	11	9	6	6	11
Ilava	41	39	29	50	12	9	1	2	8	11	5	9	12	4	6	5	10	9
Muslim	63	53	32	28	12	8	11	8	12	7	4	1	8	10	9	8	4	5
Syrian Christian	20	14	17	17	5	4	1	7	3	2	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	1
Other Christians	108	77	64	69	18	19	10	9	12	7	16	16	11	19	18	10	12	10
Other Hindus	113	97	54	79	6	14	8	6	8	10	13	13	12	16	11	14	18	10
Vellála	31	23	12	24	1	4	2	..	2	1	..	1	6	2	..	1	2	3
Kammala	28	24	16	27	5	4	1	1	1	1	2	1	8	3	2	2	3	3
Nadar	24	28	23	24	4	1	1	4	4	4	3	6	5	2	1	3	4	1
Pulaya	6	6	9	11	1	1	1	1	..	2	..	1	1	2
Paraya	7	2	2	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	..
Kurava	..	1	..	4	1	1	2	1
Total	529	420	304	381	83	79	45	48	53	56	54	63	73	73	60	57	64	56

Community of the deceased	Age and sex of the deceased																
	40-45		45-50		50-55		55-60		60-65		65-70		70 and above		Total		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
Brahman	2	..	3	1	1	..	1	1	3	3	4	3	4	8	105	53	52
Nayar	6	11	10	15	12	6	20	15	25	17	19	18	41	54	509	289	280
Ilava	12	8	10	12	10	4	7	13	13	12	12	8	23	33	437	209	228
Muslim	9	5	16	2	8	6	13	5	20	7	14	7	23	22	435	258	177
Syrian Christian	8	2	6	4	8	3	2	1	9	5	4	4	19	7	197	115	82
Other Christians	15	9	16	11	14	10	20	9	20	11	14	21	51	44	770	419	360
Other Hindus	11	14	13	6	14	8	15	11	13	13	20	20	32	54	746	361	385
Vellála	4	..	2	4	6	8	4	1	10	4	1	5	13	17	194	96	98
Kammala	5	1	5	4	5	3	8	9	5	4	8	5	8	25	226	110	116
Nadar	5	3	6	..	2	4	6	3	8	3	4	6	23	22	237	123	114
Pulaya	1	1	6	1	1	1	2	3	58	28	30
Paraya	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	26	17	9
Kurava	1	..	1	3	2	2	19	7	12
Total	79	54	87	60	80	52	103	70	129	83	100	98	242	293	4,028	2,066	1,943

TABLE IX—Classification of deaths by age, occupation and sex of the deceased

Occupation of the deceased	Age and sex of the deceased																	
	Below 1		1-5		5-10		10-15		15-20		20-25		25-30		30-35		35-40	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Exploitation of animals and vegetation	1	..	10	..	16	..	21	..	19	..	19	1
Industry	6	..	4	..	15	2	7	1	14	3
Transport	1
Trade	2	..	6	..	3	..	13	..	6	..	7	..
Public force	1	1
Public Administration	1	1	1
Professions and Liberal Arts	4	..	2	1	2	..	1	1
Pension
Domestic service	12	..	46	1	52	1	65	..	51	1	46
Insufficiently described occupations	1	1	7	2	14	3	12	3	18	3	15	3
Unproductive	1	1
Student	23	21	25	10	6	2	1
Nil	529	420	304	381	60	58	16	25	16	6	10	7	9	2	5	1	7	2
Total	529	420	304	381	83	79	45	48	53	56	54	63	73	73	60	57	64	56

Occupation of the deceased	Age and sex of the deceased															Total		
	40-45		45-50		50-55		55-60		60-65		65-70		70 & above		Persons	Males	Females	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females						
20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36		
Exploitation of animals and vegetation	29	..	34	..	32	..	33	..	47	..	36	..	86	2	386	383	3	
Industry	9	..	8	..	7	1	8	3	11	1	7	..	11	1	119	107	12	
Transport	1	1	..	3	3	..	
Trade	14	2	10	1	12	..	13	..	20	..	13	..	18	..	140	137	3	
Public force	2	2	..	
Public Administration	5	..	10	..	8	2	28	27	1	
Professions and Liberal Arts	5	..	2	1	7	..	5	..	8	..	3	..	8	..	50	47	3	
Pension	5	..	3	..	5	..	9	..	22	22	..	
Domestic service	1	46	2	53	2	48	5	54	10	76	11	87	16	234	920	50	870	
Insufficiently described occupations	11	4	14	2	3	1	22	8	9	3	6	2	14	11	192	146	46	
Unproductive	1	..	2	..	1	1	2	3	12	7	5	
Student	88	55	33	
Nil	5	2	7	3	8	2	11	5	17	3	18	8	77	42	2,066	1,099	967	
Total	79	54	87	60	80	82	103	70	129	83	100	98	242	293	4,028	2,085	1,943	

TABLE X—Classification of deaths by age and sex of the deceased and the cause of death

Cause of death	Age and sex of the deceased																	
	Below 1		1-5		5-10		10-15		15-20		20-25		25-30		30-35		35-40	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Small-pox	..	2	..	2	2	1	1	..	1	1
Typhoid	..	1	5	5	6	4	7	2	5	7	4	4	3	7	4	1	2	..
Malaria	1	1	1	2	..	1	2	3	..	1	2	1	2
Other fevers	39	33	35	54	13	7	10	12	14	6	6	5	4	12	5	2	7	3
Accident	2	1	6	1	4	5	6	3	4	4	4	3	3	..	3	2	3	1
Dysentery and Diarrhoea	105	86	136	150	19	24	3	3	5	7	11	4	9	5	5	7	3	0
Respiratory diseases	68	64	36	43	10	9	9	11	14	13	16	20	30	16	21	20	21	20
Genito urinary diseases	1	1	..	1	2	1	2	2	1	2
Diseases of the circulatory system	5	2	19	38	9	14	4	10	2	3	6	3	5	15	6	7	12	10
Other causes	309	231	62	87	20	14	5	6	7	18	7	24	7	16	12	14	13	11
Total	529	420	304	381	83	79	45	48	53	56	54	63	73	73	60	67	64	56

Cause of death	Age and sex of the deceased																Total	
	40-45		45-50		50-55		55-60		60-65		65-70		70 and above		Persons	Males	Females	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females				
1	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	
Small pox	..	1	1	..	1	1	2	1	17	8	9	
Typhoid	4	..	2	..	1	..	2	1	77	45	32	
Malaria	2	2	..	3	2	2	28	13	15	
Other fevers	4	4	6	5	3	5	9	2	7	4	7	3	10	14	350	179	171	
Accident	10	2	3	..	2	1	1	..	1	1	2	1	2	1	87	61	26	
Dysentery and Diarrhoea	6	4	6	8	8	6	7	12	15	14	10	19	26	49	780	376	404	
Respiratory diseases	24	17	23	14	17	11	23	20	25	14	23	15	38	37	744	400	344	
Genito urinary diseases	3	1	2	..	4	1	4	1	2	..	1	1	17	..	50	41	9	
Diseases of the circulatory system	10	8	19	20	23	11	23	13	39	25	34	33	65	85	583	281	302	
Other causes	16	15	25	10	21	16	34	14	36	25	23	23	84	106	1,312	691	621	
Total	79	54	87	60	80	52	103	70	129	83	100	93	242	293	4,028	2,085	1,943	

TABLE XI—Distribution of deaths according to age of the deceased and the age of the deceased's mother (living and dead)

Age of the deceased	Age of mother living and dead*																			
	Below 15		15-19		20-24		25-29		30-34		35-39		40-44		45-49		50-54		55-59	
	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
0-1	3	..	132	..	251	11	203	5	162	5	131	2	25	2	5	1	1
1-5	30	2	147	1	214	4	139	8	95	3	29	..	8	..	1
5-10	1	..	13	1	48	6	41	1	27	..	14	1	7	1	1
10-15	2	..	4	2	16	1	24	2	15	..	13	2	7	..	1	..
15-20	1	8	..	33	2	20	4	13	2	9	3	7	..
20-25	1	1	1	1	1	8	3	14	7	23	6	12	3	9	1
25-30	1	6	1	6	8	5	28	8	17	6	25	6
30-35	3	..	5	..	5	6	8	9	11	20	7	..
35-40	4	2	..	2	..	7	..	7	4	11	9	11	..
40-45	2	3	..	7	..	8	..	18	1	16	..
45-50	1	1	..	3	..	6	..	7	..	17	2	19	..
50-55	1	..	4	..	8	..	13	..	13	..	14	..
55-60	2	1	..	3	..	3	..	11	..	9	..	24	..
60-65	2	..	1	..	3	..	4	..	15	..	13	..	20	..
65-70	2	..	2	3	..	3	..	9	..	12	..	16	..
70 and above	1	..	3	..	6	..	3	..	8	..	12	..	31	..	35

Age of the deceased	Age of mother living and dead*																Total		Particulars of parents 'unknown
	60-64		65-69		70-74		75-79		80-84		85-89		90 and above		Persons	Living	Dead		
	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead							
	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	
0-1	949	913	26	10	
1-5	685	663	18	4	
5-10	162	152	10	..	
10-15	1	1	93	83	8	2	
15-20	3	109	93	12	4	
20-25	7	..	5	..	2	117	82	28	7	
25-30	4	2	6	1	4	..	1	1	146	95	41	10	
30-35	14	10	3	..	1	1	1	1	117	54	51	12	
35-40	11	11	7	4	4	3	3	2	..	4	120	38	68	14	
40-45	8	15	5	9	6	8	6	..	2	1	1	133	28	88	17	
45-50	6	21	8	9	5	11	3	7	3	1	1	..	1	..	147	29	103	15	
50-55	..	20	4	8	9	7	3	5	3	4	1	132	19	98	15	
55-60	..	32	..	20	..	22	3	6	1	7	..	2	2	..	173	6	142	25	
60-65	..	37	..	28	..	30	..	12	3	7	..	2	2	1	212	5	176	31	
65-70	..	29	..	25	..	36	..	13	1	10	3	1	..	2	198	4	162	32	
70 and above	..	72	..	57	..	74	..	51	..	42	..	22	..	19	535	..	436	99	

N. B.—In the case of dead parents, the age group specified represents the age at the time of death

TABLE XII—Distribution of deaths according to age of the deceased and the age of the deceased's father (living and dead)

Age of the deceased	Age of father living and dead																			
	Below 15		15-19		20-24		25-29		30-34		35-39		40-44		45-49		50-54		55-59	
	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
0-1	87	..	186	1	194	4	188	1	140	1	89	3	80	..	8	..
1-5	15	1	101	7	139	5	167	3	105	5	77	2	26	2	17	2
5-10	7	2	82	1	41	3	23	2	15	2	13	1	8	1
10-15	1	..	3	..	10	2	16	2	20	3	9	4	8	2
15-20	1	..	1	4	13	8	20	5	18	2	12	2
20-25	2	1	4	5	5	18	12	11	18	8	6
25-30	1	8	2	8	19	8	14	12
30-35	1	..	1	..	3	..	4	..	5	1	9	9	15
35-40	2	..	3	..	4	..	5	..	14	2	9
40-45	1	1	..	3	..	4	..	5	..	9	1	14
45-50	1	..	1	..	3	..	1	..	6	..	14	..	18
50-55	2	..	1	..	3	..	7	..	17	..	9
55-60	1	2	..	5	..	6	..	15
60-65	1	..	1	..	4	..	2	..	10	..	20
65-70	1	2	..	1	..	3	..	7	..	9	..	11
70 and above	2	..	4	..	5	..	6	..	5	..	24	..	20

Age of the deceased	Age of father living and dead																	Total	Particulars of patients unknown
	60-64		65-69		70-74		75-79		80-84		85-89		90 & above		Persons	Living	Dead		
	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead	Living	Dead							
	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	
0-1	5	1	1	1	949	928	11	10	
1-5	3	1	2	1	1	685	652	29	4	
5-10	3	1	..	1	1	182	148	14	..	
10-15	4	1	1	2	2	..	1	98	75	18	2	
15-20	10	2	2	3	1	1	109	78	27	4	
20-25	11	3	6	3	3	2	1	..	1	117	60	50	7	
25-30	14	11	16	2	7	5	4	2	1	..	1	..	1	..	146	80	66	10	
30-35	10	14	9	9	3	5	1	2	1	117	85	70	12	
35-40	7	16	8	8	5	9	1	7	..	4	1	1	120	24	82	14	
40-45	8	28	3	19	3	10	1	6	2	3	1	..	2	..	138	16	100	17	
45-50	..	35	5	13	3	14	2	3	..	8	1	4	147	11	121	15	
50-55	..	35	..	14	2	11	3	1	..	7	1	2	1	1	132	7	110	15	
55-60	..	35	..	23	..	32	..	15	..	9	..	3	..	2	173	..	148	25	
60-65	..	23	..	37	..	37	..	21	..	15	..	6	..	4	212	..	181	81	
65-70	..	25	..	27	..	35	..	18	..	19	..	3	..	5	198	..	166	82	
70 and above	..	60	..	53	..	72	..	60	..	74	..	29	..	22	535	..	436	99	

LIFE TABLE—MALES.

(Prepared from smoothed specific mortality rates obtained from the vital statistical enquiry)

Age	Number living	Number dying	Mortality per mille	Average expectation of life in years	Age	Number living	Number dying	Mortality per mille	Average expectation of life in years
x	lx	dx	1000 qx	ex	x	lx	dx	1000 qx	ex
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
0	10000	1430	143.0	44.6	48	5728	95	16.5	19.9
1	8670	422	49.2	51.6	49	5633	99	17.5	19.2
2	8148	230	28.2	53.2	50	5534	102	18.5	18.5
3	7918	162	20.4	53.7	51	5432	106	19.6	17.9
4	7756	117	15.1	53.8	52	5326	110	20.7	17.2
5	7639	81	10.6	53.6	53	5216	114	21.9	16.5
6	7558	54	7.2	53.2	54	5102	119	23.3	15.9
7	7504	38	5.1	52.6	55	4983	126	25.2	15.3
8	7466	30	4.0	51.9	56	4857	133	27.3	14.7
9	7436	26	3.5	51.1	57	4724	140	29.6	14.1
10	7410	23	3.1	50.3	58	4584	146	31.9	13.5
11	7387	20	2.7	49.4	59	4438	152	34.2	12.9
12	7367	18	2.4	48.6	60	4286	158	36.8	12.3
13	7349	18	2.5	47.7	61	4128	164	39.5	11.8
14	7331	19	2.6	46.8	62	3965	169	42.5	11.3
15	7312	20	2.7	45.9	63	3796	174	45.8	10.7
16	7292	20	2.8	45.0	64	3622	179	49.4	10.2
17	7272	21	2.9	44.2	65	3443	184	53.4	9.7
18	7251	22	3.0	43.3	66	3259	188	57.6	9.3
19	7229	22	3.1	42.4	67	3071	189	61.7	8.8
20	7207	23	3.2	41.5	68	2882	190	66.0	8.3
21	7184	24	3.4	40.7	69	2692	190	70.4	7.9
22	7160	26	3.6	39.8	70	2502	188	75.2	7.5
23	7134	28	3.9	39.0	71	2314	188	81.1	7.0
24	7106	30	4.2	38.2	72	2126	187	87.6	6.6
25	7076	32	4.5	37.3	73	1939	184	94.8	6.2
26	7044	34	4.8	36.4	74	1755	182	104.0	5.8
27	7010	36	5.1	35.6	75	1573	178	113.4	5.4
28	6974	38	5.5	34.8	76	1395	173	124.2	5.0
29	6936	41	5.9	34.0	77	1222	166	135.7	4.7
30	6895	43	6.3	33.2	78	1056	157	148.5	4.3
31	6852	46	6.7	32.4	79	899	146	162.8	4.0
32	6806	48	7.1	31.6	80	753	135	178.8	3.7
33	6758	51	7.5	30.8	81	618	122	197.2	3.4
34	6707	53	7.9	30.0	82	496	109	219.3	3.1
35	6654	55	8.3	29.3	83	387	95	245.6	2.8
36	6599	57	8.7	28.5	84	292	80	272.8	2.5
37	6542	60	9.1	27.7	85	212	64	303.9	2.3
38	6482	62	9.5	27.0	86	148	50	335.2	2.1
39	6420	64	10.0	26.3	87	98	36	370.1	1.9
40	6356	67	10.6	25.5	88	62	25	409.4	1.7
41	6289	70	11.2	24.8	89	37	17	453.3	1.5
42	6219	73	11.8	24.1	90	20	10	502.0	1.3
43	6146	77	12.5	23.3	91	10	6	555.3	1.2
44	6069	80	13.2	22.6	92	4	2	613.4	1.2
45	5989	83	13.9	21.9	93	2	1	676.3	1.0
46	5906	87	14.7	21.2	94	1
47	5819	91	15.6	20.5					

LIFE TABLE—FEMALES
(Prepared from smoothed specific mortality rates obtained from the
vital statistical enquiry)

Age	Number living	Number dying	Mortality per mille	Average expectation of life in years	Age	Number living	Number dying	Mortality per mille	Average expectation of life in years
x	lx	dx	1000 qx	ex	x	lx	dx	1000 qx	ex
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	10000	1162	116.2	49.4	48	6291	70	11.2	22.4
1	8838	367	41.5	45.3	49	6221	73	11.8	21.6
2	8471	197	23.3	46.7	50	6148	77	12.5	20.9
3	8274	122	14.8	47.1	51	6071	80	13.2	20.1
4	8152	79	9.7	46.9	52	5991	83	13.9	19.4
5	8073	53	6.6	46.4	53	5908	87	14.7	18.7
6	8020	38	4.8	45.8	54	5821	90	15.5	18.0
7	7982	30	3.8	45.1	55	5731	94	16.4	17.2
8	7952	25	3.2	44.3	56	5637	98	17.4	16.6
9	7927	23	2.9	43.5	57	5539	103	18.6	15.8
10	7904	22	2.8	42.6	58	5436	111	20.4	15.1
11	7882	21	2.7	41.8	59	5325	119	22.3	14.4
12	7861	22	2.8	40.9	60	5206	129	24.7	13.7
13	7839	23	2.9	40.1	61	5077	139	27.8	13.0
14	7816	24	3.1	39.2	62	4938	149	30.1	12.4
15	7792	25	3.3	38.4	63	4789	160	33.5	11.8
16	7766	27	3.5	37.5	64	4629	173	37.5	11.2
17	7739	29	3.8	36.7	65	4456	186	41.7	10.6
18	7710	32	4.1	35.9	66	4270	196	46.0	10.0
19	7678	33	4.3	35.1	67	4074	206	50.5	9.4
20	7645	34	4.5	34.2	68	3868	216	56.0	8.9
21	7611	36	4.7	33.4	69	3652	225	61.5	8.4
22	7575	36	4.8	32.6	70	3427	230	67.0	8.0
23	7539	37	4.9	31.8	71	3197	232	72.5	7.5
24	7502	38	5.0	31.0	72	2965	233	78.7	7.0
25	7464	38	5.1	30.3	73	2732	233	85.3	6.6
26	7426	39	5.3	29.5	74	2499	233	93.5	6.2
27	7387	41	5.5	28.7	75	2266	232	102.4	5.7
28	7346	41	5.6	27.9	76	2034	229	112.5	5.3
29	7305	42	5.8	27.1	77	1805	223	123.4	5.0
30	7263	43	5.9	26.3	78	1582	214	135.6	4.6
31	7220	44	6.1	25.5	79	1368	204	149.2	4.2
32	7176	45	6.3	24.7	80	1164	191	164.7	3.9
33	7131	46	6.5	23.9	81	973	177	182.4	3.5
34	7085	47	6.7	23.2	82	796	162	203.7	3.2
35	7038	48	6.9	22.4	83	634	145	229.1	2.9
36	6990	50	7.2	21.6	84	489	125	255.6	2.6
37	6940	51	7.4	20.8	85	364	104	286.3	2.4
38	6889	52	7.6	20.0	86	260	83	317.4	2.1
39	6837	54	7.9	19.3	87	177	66	352.8	1.9
40	6783	56	8.2	18.5	88	111	43	391.8	1.7
41	6727	57	8.4	17.7	89	63	30	436.1	1.5
42	6670	59	8.7	17.0	90	38	18	485.9	1.4
43	6611	60	9.1	16.2	91	20	11	540.9	1.2
44	6551	62	9.5	15.4	92	9	6	601.7	1.0
45	6489	64	9.8	14.7	93	3	2	668.2	0.8
46	6425	66	10.2	23.9	94	1
47	6359	68	10.7	23.2					

APPENDIX III.

RANDOM SAMPLES.

The study of a population necessarily implies the study of the traits or characteristics that are common to the individuals in the group. Certain characteristics are measurable while others, though non-measurable, allow of qualitative estimation. These values are the constants called parameters that define the population.

2. The study of a population involves the evaluation of the parameters referred to above. The changes noticeable in these parameters due to differences in time and space indicate the trends in growth of the population. Hence a correct estimate of the parameters is of fundamental importance in all population studies.

3. The Census that occurs once in ten years is an attempt at measuring the traits in the population—men and women in a country. The census operations, in view of the fact that all the individuals in the country have to be enumerated, require the setting up of a very costly, complicated and unwieldy machinery. Even assuming that the cost should not stand in the way, it has to be observed that the Census enumerators are invariably new to the work, being mostly teachers from the various schools in the State. However correct and precise the instructions given to the enumerators may be, it is only natural that a margin of error should creep in during the census work. Apart from the difficulties of the field work, the Tabulation in the Census Office is much too heavy and laborious a process. Any one who has sorted the Census Cards before the Tables are presented in the form seen in the Census Report will bear ample testimony to the time required for the different stages in the work and the possibilities of a slip here or there that will bring about disparities between the final totals arrived at.

4. Thus from the different points of view from which the census operations can be looked at, one feels the uncomfortable misgiving if this laborious method is not in a sense 'primitive'. In statistical studies, as in all fields of human

activity, the aim should be to secure the maximum benefit with minimum expenditure and time. In spite of the supposed accuracy possible in the census one would unhesitatingly go in for a simpler and more convenient mode of approach where there is perfect certainty of the extent of error that may be committed and where cost and time can be saved. To quote the Census Commissioner for India "If we can through improvement or skill, so lessen our error and extend our scope that we can establish types from which we can accurately project the whole we have before us the possibility of a far more useful application of our limited and relatively inextensible financial resources. That is, of course, sampling".

5. A brief reference to the sampling method to bring out the advantages and limitations therein is only appropriate. The sampling method is resorted to in ordinary life almost involuntarily, by every one in making judgments or inferences. When you wish to buy anything from the bazaar you satisfy yourself as to its quality by testing it with the help of the sample. In large manufacturing concerns, the same method is employed in the control of quality of manufactured goods. "In Statistical sampling, however, we are not quite in the position of the commercial traveller and there is a great deal to do in the actual checking of our methods and the quality of the sample we produce by them".

6. Consider a homogeneous population for the sake of simplicity. The values of the characteristics for the large majority of individuals will lie in fairly short intervals round the corresponding values of the parameter in such populations. There will no doubt exist a small minority lying outside the regions so specified. If, therefore, a sample is taken from such a population one can expect that most of the individuals in the sample will correspond to those that are in the neighbourhood of the population parameters and in consequence, the

sample can be utilised in estimating these parameters.

7. "The object of the sample is to afford an indication of the whole of which it is a fragment; and the better the sample, the more confidently and closely we can predict the whole". The success of the sampling method, therefore, depends on so designing it as to give a miniature form of the original population. In the case of homogeneous groups, the end is achieved by picking out at random the individuals for the sample. It may mathematically be demonstrated that the method is correct and that the sample gives the values of the population constants with accuracy that can be measured. The random selection to form the sample has to be done by the lottery method. But when the population is large and where the individuals cannot be numbered in serial order, the method is not applicable. One of the devices usually adopted to get a random sample from large populations is known as the *n*'th method. If it is desired for instance to take a ten per cent. sample of the houses in a locality, the procedure is to take every tenth house that comes in by following a particular order in counting them. The method is not so efficient as the one involving the use of Random Sampling numbers. But the shortcomings may be overlooked when the sample itself is large.

8. It has been observed that the random sample is applicable only in the study of homogeneous populations. An indiscriminate use of the random sample in studying what may be called heterogeneous populations will only give distorted facts regarding the population. In such cases the method for scientific inference is to resort to the Stratified Random Sample. This method has been discussed at length in the volume on Economic Survey.

9. The study of population problems by the sampling method necessarily involves the important step of taking a fairly good and representative sample. The theoretic method of the Stratified Representative Sampling is undoubtedly more efficient. In studies based on this method,

stress is placed on an intensive appraisal of the features relating to the many-sided activities of the individuals forming the population. The study is in this respect microscopic by taking sections. Such a study may not be necessary in social and administrative problems where indices showing broad tendencies alone are required. The age-composition of the population, their civil condition, literacy and occupational facilities—are some of the factors that require measurement, in the broad sense, before the trends can be indicated. If each of these items has to be studied in detail the only method available is the one mentioned above. But if only a birds-eye-view that gives the salient features of the group—is required the question may be asked why not the Random Sample method. "The predictive qualities of a Statistical sample of this kind will vary according to the aspect under examination and in general will be best where the aspect is universally present in the population". The sample should be selected by grouping throughout the entire group. Naturally the Principle of Insufficient Reason—in other words, the Principle of Equal Distribution of Ignorance—urges one to assert that the Random Sample will give a miniature population containing all the traits of the parent group. How far this is correct can be judged only by the results it yields.

10. The method suggested by the Census Commissioner for India enables a comparison of the Sample values with the population values. The results of the comparison may be accidental. Before the final verdict on the utility of the method could be given the question as to how the results based on this method behave in repeated samples has to be gone into. But the possibility of verifying the results with the population census figures has not necessitated the further subdivision of the sample for noting the sampling fluctuations. It may however be pointed out that the surprising agreement between the sample values and the population values obtained in the present investigation warrants the statement that the method is

sufficiently reliable and efficient. It was suggested by the Census Commissioner for India that a 1/50 sample of the population should be selected and that the sample slips so selected should be sorted for certain Imperial Tables and the results compared. The marking of the sample slips was accordingly done before the enumeration pads were broken up for the general sorting. The pads were arranged in the serial order of the blocks, each taluk being treated as one whole unit, the Municipal town if any in a taluk being placed last in the list of pakhthies in each taluk. Counting from the first slip of each taluk, every 50th slip was marked off with a bold X at the back (the marking being done for males and females in two separate series) till the whole taluk was finished. The actual extraction of the sample slips was done at the close of the general sorting. The sample slips were then sorted for Imperial Tables VII, XI, and XIII and the data obtained are given at the end of this note.

11. The total number of slips obtained by this sampling amounted to 121,366 (60,889 males and 60,477 females.)

12. *Imperial Table VII.* This table is perhaps the most important of the Imperial Tables and one of the most expensive to compile. It is estimated that 1/3 of the expenditure on Tabulation has to be set apart for the sorting and the compilation of this table. If therefore the results of the sample sorting for Table VII prove satisfactory for studying the nature and variation of the age distribution there will be sufficient justification for adopting this method in limiting tabulation to samples in future Censuses. The Census Commissioner has remarked that the results of the sample will be most satisfactory when the attribute studied is one universally present in the population; as for instance age. For attributes which are likely to be localised in particular centres *viz.*, community or literacy or industry the value of the sample will decrease in proportion to such concentration. The following table gives the number of

persons in each age-group as per the sample side by side with the results estimated from the original Imperial Table and the range of possible divergence due to random sampling.

Age-group	Number obtained as per sample	* Number calculated from the general distribution	Difference	* Possible range of error due to random sampling
0—5	17,494	17,550	- 56	246
5—10	16,686	16,716	- 30	244
10—15	15,693	15,563	+130	232
15—20	12,611	12,446	+165	212
20—25	10,576	10,544	+ 32	196
25—30	9,181	9,336	-155	186
30—35	8,070	8,153	- 83	174
35—40	7,251	7,176	+ 75	164
40—45	6,085	5,551	+154	150
45—50	5,067	5,035	+ 32	138
50—55	3,898	3,991	- 93	124
55—60	3,086	3,180	- 94	112
60—65	2,271	2,341	- 70	96
65—70	1,535	1,538	- 3	78
70 & over	1,862	1,879	- 17	86

So far as the age distribution is concerned the results of the sample are highly satisfactory. In all cases the results of the sample are in close agreement with the estimated results. A comparison of the proportional distribution of males and females according to age may be made from the following and the same inference is patent.

Proportional age distribution of males and females for the general population and the sample (per cent.)

Age-group	Males		Females	
	Population	Sample	Population	Sample
0—5	14'53	14'45	14'38	14'36
5—10	13'76	13'96	13'78	13'55
10—15	12'92	13'09	12'72	12'76
15—20	10'12	10'30	10'38	10'48
20—25	8'47	8'49	8'90	8'94
25—30	7'57	7'43	7'81	7'70
30—35	6'71	6'64	6'73	6'65
35—40	5'99	6'02	5'84	5'93
40—45	5'01	4'99	4'79	5'04
45—50	4'23	4'12	4'06	4'23
50—55	3'38	3'28	3'19	3'15
55—60	2'65	2'62	2'59	2'47
60—65	1'94	1'86	1'92	1'89
65—70	1'24	1'21	1'29	1'32
70 & over	1'48	1'54	1'62	1'53

* If p is the probability of occurrence of any event and $q=1-p$ and n is the size of the sample.

Mean frequency in the sample $= np$
 Standard deviation of the mean \sqrt{npq}
 Range of random error has been taken as $2 \times \sqrt{npq}$

The proportions in either case show very close resemblance thereby revealing that the results obtained from the sample are very satisfactory.

13. The proportional distribution by civil condition for certain age groups also confirms this fact (*vide* table below). The figures in italics show the proportions for the general population extracted from the subsidiary table on Imperial Table VII.

Proportional distribution by civil condition per 1,000 in each age-group

Age-group	Unmarried		Married		Widowed and Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
0—5	1,000	1,000
	<i>1,000</i>	<i>1,000</i>				
5—10	1,000	1,000				
	<i>1,000</i>	<i>1,000</i>				
10—15	999	974	1	25
	<i>998</i>	<i>975</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>25</i>
15—20	945	634	53	353	1	13
	<i>943</i>	<i>624</i>	<i>51</i>	<i>363</i>	...	<i>13</i>
20—40	318	92	664	828	18	80
	<i>320</i>	<i>85</i>	<i>660</i>	<i>854</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>81</i>
40—60	20	8	904	580	76	403
	<i>24</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>907</i>	<i>645</i>	<i>69</i>	<i>344</i>
60 & over	15	6	761	235	224	759
	<i>15</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>765</i>	<i>245</i>	<i>220</i>	<i>748</i>
All Ages	608	499	367	390	25	111
	<i>604</i>	<i>497</i>	<i>369</i>	<i>392</i>	<i>27</i>	<i>111</i>

The proportions in most cases agree very closely. The results of the sample can therefore be relied upon for a study of the distribution of the population by age and civil condition.

14. *Table XI.* Considering the next important *Table viz.*, Literacy, it is observed that in the sample population of 121,366 persons 57,766 or 47.6 per cent. are literate. The corresponding proportion for the total population is 47.1 per cent. The proportion to the population literate in English according to the sample is 6.4 per cent. while that obtained from the Census is 6.7 per cent. The result shows a slight variation and can be attributed to the fact that the literate in English are concentrated in urban areas and hence has affected the sample. In general the distribution of literate population in various age-groups is in close agreement to the distribution estimated from Imperial Table XI as may be seen from below:—

Age-group.	Literacy by age-group.	
	Number estimated.	Number obtained as per sample.
0—5
5—10	8,519	8,554
10—15	10,666	11,690
15—20	8,570	8,617
20—30	11,979	11,949
30—50	12,709	12,448
50 and over	4,694	4,508

A slight exaggeration is noted about the group 10—15 probably because a large number of school-going children belong to this group and since schools are mostly present in urban areas there may be a bias for localisation in this group.

15. *Table XIII.* As regards the distribution by community of the sample population the resemblance between the theoretical and actual distribution is even more striking (*vide* table below).

Community.	Sample.	Estimated.	Range of random error.
Scheduled Hindu	7,925	7,016	172
Other Hindu	62,957	62,911	348
Muslim	8,526	8,680	180
Indian Christian	39,149	39,158	328
European	12	10	6
Anglo-Indian	20	25	10
Jain	1	1	2
Jew	4	7	5
Tribe	2,772	2,568	104

The results indicate that excepting in the case of Tribes, the community distributions of the sample are very close to the calculated results. But even in their case the difference is not much. The Tribes are a localised community being confined mostly to Forest areas. It is interesting to observe that in Baroda also this slight exaggeration in the figure for Tribes was noted in the sample table on community.

16. *House sampling.* One table has been compiled to study the relation between the number of rooms and the size of the household on the basis of a sample of selected houses. One in 20 of the houses in certain taluks and Municipal towns was ticked off in the block lists and the table compiled for the houses so selected. The salient inferences obtained from this table have already been discussed in paragraph 100. The table is given along with the population sample tables.

17. It is evident from the investigations on the Sample that qualitative characteristics of a population can be assessed with great accuracy by the Sampling Method. Thus it may be possible to dispense with the compilation of the Imperial Tables on Age and Civil Condition, Literacy and Main Communities and replaced by a smaller and more compact procedure based on the Sample. The investigators should however be specially trained and the units carefully selected before the sample method is substituted for the census method.

TABLE VII—Age and Civil Condition

Age	Population			Unmarried		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
	2	3	4	5	6	7
All ages	121,366	60,899	60,477	67,148	36,998	30,150
0	3,326	1,639	1,687	3,326	1,639	1,687
1	3,515	1,751	1,764	3,515	1,751	1,764
2	3,554	1,830	1,724	3,554	1,830	1,724
3	3,634	1,838	1,796	3,634	1,838	1,796
4	3,465	1,743	1,722	3,465	1,743	1,722
0—5	17,494	8,801	8,693	17,494	8,801	8,693
5—10	16,686	8,498	8,188	16,686	8,498	8,188
10—15	15,693	7,973	7,720	15,487	7,966	7,521
15—20	12,611	6,272	6,339	9,949	5,929	4,020
20—25	10,576	5,171	5,405	4,553	3,400	1,153
25—30	9,181	4,526	4,655	1,798	1,489	309
30—35	8,070	4,046	4,024	573	475	98
35—40	7,251	3,666	3,585	253	182	71
40—45	6,085	3,037	3,048	129	96	33
45—50	5,087	2,507	2,560	79	59	20
50—55	3,898	1,999	1,899	48	38	15
55—60	3,086	1,593	1,493	40	27	13
60—65	2,271	1,130	1,141	24	16	8
65—70	1,535	735	800	14	11	3
70 and over	1,862	935	927	21	16	5

Age	Married			Widowed			Divorced		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
All ages	45,926	22,337	23,589	7,475	1,334	6,141	817	220	597
0
1
2
3
4
0—5
5—10
10—15	202	7	195	1	..	1	3	..	3
15—20	2,575	336	2,239	26	2	24	61	5	56
20—25	5,787	1,731	4,056	109	17	92	127	23	104
25—30	7,032	2,962	4,070	210	38	172	141	37	104
30—35	7,018	3,479	3,539	358	58	300	121	34	87
35—40	6,323	3,364	2,959	559	86	473	116	34	82
40—45	5,168	2,813	2,355	700	104	596	88	24	64
45—50	4,034	2,300	1,734	893	127	766	61	21	40
50—55	2,909	1,814	1,095	907	137	770	34	15	19
55—60	2,075	1,400	675	951	159	792	20	7	13
60—65	1,329	945	384	897	162	735	21	7	14
65—70	751	570	181	758	148	608	14	6	8
70 and over	723	616	107	1,108	296	812	10	7	3

1/50 Sample

TABLE XI—Literacy

Age Number	Population			Literate			Illiterate			Literate in English		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
All ages	121,366	60,889	60,477	57,766	35,218	22,550	63,600	25,673	37,927	7,773	5,659	2,114
0—5	17,494	8,801	8,693	17,404	8,801	8,603
5—10	16,636	8,498	8,188	8,554	4,741	3,813	8,132	3,757	4,375	272	170	08
10—15	15,693	7,973	7,720	11,690	6,090	5,600	4,003	1,888	2,120	1,320	804	405
15—20	12,611	6,272	6,339	8,817	5,000	3,817	3,804	1,272	2,722	1,002	1,130	553
20—30	19,757	9,697	10,060	11,949	7,247	4,702	7,808	2,450	5,358	2,277	1,000	017
30—50	26,473	13,256	13,217	12,448	8,569	3,859	14,025	4,607	9,358	1,650	1,500	350
50 and over	12,652	6,392	6,260	4,508	3,549	959	8,144	2,843	5,301	344	308	80

TABLE XIII—Community

State and administrative Division	Population			Scheduled Caste Hindu			Other Hindu					
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females			
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
STATE	121,366	60,889	60,477	7,925	3,988	3,939	62,957	31,457	31,500			
Administrative Divisions												
Southern	33,736	16,812	16,924	1,170	588	582	21,095	10,435	10,660			
Central	46,824	24,388	24,441	3,269	1,638	1,631	27,126	13,460	13,657			
Northern	38,806	19,694	19,112	3,486	1,760	1,726	14,736	7,553	7,183			
	Indian Christian			Anglo-Indian			European					
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females			
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19			
STATE	39,149	19,697	19,452	20	10	10	12	6	6			
Administrative Divisions												
Southern	8,467	4,233	4,184	4	2	2	5	2	3			
Central	12,646	6,347	6,299	7	3	4	2	2	..			
Northern	18,036	9,067	8,969	9	5	4	5	2	3			
	Muslim			Tribe			Jew			Jain		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
STATE	8,526	4,351	4,175	2,772	1,379	1,393	4	2	2	1	1	..
Administrative Divisions												
Southern	2,340	1,181	1,159	655	321	334
Central	3,913	1,991	1,922	1,860	932	928	1	1	..
Northern	2,273	1,179	1,094	257	126	131	4	2	2

HOUSING CONDITION

1/20 sample from selected Taluks

Distribution of occupied houses by number of rooms and number of residents

Number of residents	Number of rooms										Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 and over	
1	648	361	179	39	56	20	14	24	7	2	1,350
2	1,434	1,004	489	186	90	33	17	6	4	10	3,278
3	2,019	1,631	763	268	109	62	21	12	6	17	4,908
4	2,395	2,057	989	403	164	65	47	34	12	13	6,179
5	2,362	2,089	1,255	432	198	116	54	36	25	13	6,600
6	1,834	1,847	1,136	453	229	90	54	21	11	23	5,698
7	1,271	1,525	994	416	184	93	52	18	2	17	4,572
8	764	941	641	339	157	73	38	25	14	21	3,013
9	376	534	470	212	106	78	39	17	7	11	1,850
10 and over	329	578	610	362	221	154	71	72	32	78	2,507
Total	13,452	12,567	7,526	3,110	1,514	784	407	265	120	205	39,950

APPENDIX IV

SMOOTHING (LITERACY FIGURES.)

The estimate of literacy by the enumerator cannot in the nature of things guarantee scientific accuracy. Whether a person possesses a working knowledge of the three R's will be determined by the enumerator largely according to his own individual impression of what constitutes "a working knowledge." If the test is too rigid or too flexible there is the common danger of not getting an exact estimate of the literates in a country. In a State like Travancore, one should normally expect a uniform progress with only reasonable fluctuations if the test of literacy had been based upon a measurable standard, but unfortunately this has not been disclosed by the figures. It has therefore become necessary to smooth the figures relating not only to literacy but to the population in the relevant age-groups. Any process of smoothing is empirical and arbitrary. Hence it is not claimed that the process will eliminate all the errors of enumeration, but it will help to a considerable extent in measuring with dependable accuracy the trends in the progress of literacy from decade to decade.

The data available for the present work consist of the Census figures for the four decades—1901 to 1941. The figures are available in different age-groups for each Census. From the point of view of literacy, the study may be confined to the ages 5 and above. Great inaccuracies are likely to arise in the returns in the age-group 5-10 and consequently, for purposes of analysis the data have been arranged into broad categories—5 to 10, 10 to 20 and 20 and above. Thus the figures analysed may be given in the following tabular form.

Age-group	Census year				
	1	2	3	4	5
5-10	p_{11}	p_{12}	p_{13}	p_{14}	p_{15}
10-20	p_{21}	p_{22}	p_{23}	p_{24}	p_{25}
Over 20	p_{31}	p_{32}	p_{33}	p_{34}	p_{35}
All ages	p_{41}	p_{42}	p_{43}	p_{44}	p_{45}

From a table of the above type it is clear that the data, for purposes of smoothing, are

scanty. Hence the usual methods of smoothing—the Summation Method of the actuary or other methods based on elaborate mathematical formulæ—cannot with propriety be applied in the present case. The graphical method of plotting the points and drawing a smooth curve through them either by freehand or by the use of a spline is probably adequate; but the space covered by the given points is so little that a certain amount of lack of control is bound to creep in allowing a great variety of curves to be fitted to the points. These considerations have made the present problem rather too difficult for a satisfactory solution.

The data have been analysed in four steps corresponding to the four rows of the above Table. For convenience the figures in any row will be denoted by $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4,$ and p_5 . Direct smoothing of these values by Polynomial Regression would mean assuming the values to be given by $p = a + bt + ct^2 + \dots$ where p denotes the smoothed value and t , the Census year. The number of constants (a, b, \dots) has to be very small as there are only five values in the Table. Further, in population problems where the increase in figures is more or less on the logarithmic scale, it will be more desirable to take logarithms of p rather than the actual p . If this method is adopted, the process of smoothing will take into account the relations between the several values of p only through the coefficients in the equation. It was felt therefore that a better way of levelling the inaccuracies in the values of p would be to smooth the cumulative effect. Denoting this by Q , it was found by actual trial that $Q = \text{Log } P$ approximately followed the Parabolic Trend. Hence the formula for smoothing has been taken as $Q = a + bt + ct^2$.

Adopting the least square method of estimating the constants, we minimise

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^5 [Q_i - (a + bi + ci^2)]^2 \text{ with respect to } a,$$

b and c . This gives the following equations to determine the value of a , b and c .

$$5a + 15b + 55c = R$$

$$15a + 55b + 225c = S$$

$$55a + 225b + 979c = T$$

where

$$R = Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3 + Q_4 + Q_5$$

$$S = Q_1 + 2Q_2 + 3Q_3 + 4Q_4 + 5Q_5$$

$$T = Q_1 + 4Q_2 + 9Q_3 + 16Q_4 + 25Q_5$$

$$Q_1 = \text{Log. } p_1$$

$$Q_2 = \text{Log } (p_1 + p_2)$$

$$Q_3 = \text{Log } (p_1 + p_2 + p_3)$$

$$Q_4 = \text{Log } (p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + p_4)$$

$$Q_5 = \text{Log } (p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + p_4 + p_5)$$

$$a = (322R + 35T - 231S)/70$$

$$b = (187S - 33T - 231R)/70$$

$$c = (7R + T - 6S)/14$$

It is by using these formulae that the figures for the four groups in the Table have been smoothed. The results of the smoothing are given in the final Table. The smoothed figures are in fair agreement with the unsmoothed ones as will be evident from the percentage of error given for each. Thus without shooting too wide of the mark, the Table may be used with advantage in the study of trends regarding literacy in the State for the last few decades.

Appendix IV
(TABLE)

APPENDIX IV.

Age-group.	1901			1911			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
5-10	A	193,654	193,563	387,217	230,525	228,858	459,383
	B	193,790	194,264	388,054	229,276	226,672	455,948
	C	0.07	0.36	0.22	0.54	0.96	0.75
	D	381,215	395,609	776,824	458,396	466,798	925,194
	E	6,600	2,878	9,478	10,437	4,978	15,415
	F	376,088	391,165	767,253	462,115	467,951	930,066
	G	6,067	2,365	8,432	13,062	8,402	21,464
10-15	A	17.31	7.27	12.20	22.77	10.66	16.66
	B	182,786	166,685	349,471	216,495	200,873	417,368
	C	182,956	168,603	349,559	216,771	201,511	418,282
	D	0.09	0.05	0.03	0.13	0.32	0.22
	E	24,920	7,186	32,106	36,565	14,339	50,904
	F	23,346	6,640	29,986	43,515	17,702	61,217
	G	136.33	43.11	91.87	168.90	71.38	121.96
15-20	A	127.60	39.36	10.99	28.27	17.95	23.08
	B	135,496	140,126	275,622	159,935	166,980	326,915
	C	135,737	140,325	276,062	159,539	166,184	325,723
	D	0.16	0.14	0.16	0.25	0.48	0.37
	E	35,778	8,109	43,887	50,805	16,271	67,076
	F	353,56	7,761	43,117	52,433	18,292	70,730
	G	264.05	57.37	159.23	317.66	97.44	205.18
20 and over	A	260.47	55.31	156.19	328.68	110.07	217.15
	B	790,668	759,572	1,550,240	896,537	862,961	1,759,498
	C	790,408	759,847	1,550,255	896,745	859,247	1,755,992
	D	0.03	0.05	0.01	0.02	.43	0.20
	E	252,679	26,660	279,339	331,142	48,512	379,654
	F	252,503	24,549	277,052	331,747	60,448	392,195
	G	319.58	35.10	180.19	369.36	56.22	215.77
All Ages	A	319.46	32.30	178.70	369.95	70.35	223.35
	B	1,490,165	1,461,992	2,952,157	1,731,363	1,697,612	3,428,975
	C	1,485,189	1,458,040	2,943,229	1,735,170	1,694,893	3,430,063
	D	0.34	0.27	0.30	0.22	0.16	0.03
	E	319,977	44,833	364,810	428,949	84,100	513,049
	F	317,272	41,315	358,587	440,762	104,844	545,606
	G	214.73	30.67	123.57	247.75	49.54	149.62
Literacy	A	213.62	28.34	121.83	254.02	61.86	159.07
	B						

Population { A—Census figures.
B—Smoothed figures
C—percentage of error

Literacy { D—Census figures
E—Smoothed figures

APPENDIX IV.

1921			1931			1941		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
272,589	269,029	541,618	341,345	331,750	673,095	419,042	416,736	835,778
275,908	270,949	546,857	337,712	331,712	669,424	420,441	416,218	836,659
1.20	0.71	0.96	1.68	0.01	0.54	0.33	0.12	0.11
538,800	535,007	1,073,807	732,196	768,141	1,500,337	861,575	851,716	1,713,291
36,831	39,970	76,801	56,526	37,425	93,951	233,056	192,922	425,978
571,911	568,737	1,140,648	712,252	701,966	1,414,218	892,139	879,692	1,771,831
31,127	26,992	58,119	82,099	78,410	160,509	239,685	205,965	445,650
68.36	74.71	71.52	72.27	48.72	60.60	270.50	226.61	248.63
54.43	47.46	50.96	115.27	111.70	113.50	268.50	234.13	251.52
262,894	248,386	511,280	313,728	304,211	617,939	393,543	384,610	778,159
260,435	246,759	507,194	317,279	305,916	623,195	391,948	383,063	775,011
0.94	0.66	0.81	1.12	0.66	0.84	0.41	0.17	0.29
93,747	52,275	146,022	98,484	60,928	159,412	300,447	233,939	534,386
82,272	44,636	126,915	157,813	106,461	264,274	307,048	240,177	547,225
356.60	210.46	285.60	313.92	200.28	257.97	763.44	608.24	686.73
315.93	180.89	250.23	497.40	348.01	424.06	783.39	625.62	705.27
193,514	199,943	393,457	233,499	249,413	482,912	308,269	314,056	622,325
192,926	210,105	403,031	240,077	248,678	488,755	307,410	314,216	621,626
0.30	0.58	0.15	0.66	0.30	0.17	0.28	0.05	0.11
84,573	45,157	129,730	126,411	68,260	194,671	244,420	184,090	428,510
82,592	41,363	123,955	139,146	89,740	227,886	245,343	186,800	432,143
437.04	225.85	329.72	530.03	273.68	398.998	792.88	586.17	688.56
428.10	205.68	314.58	575.42	360.87	466.26	798.23	594.50	696.25
1,037,345	990,173	2,027,518	1,230,650	1,209,135	2,439,785	1,481,716	1,474,528	2,956,243
1,038,681	1,000,108	2,038,789	1,228,262	1,198,309	2,426,571	1,482,842	1,478,035	2,960,877
0.13	0.99	0.55	0.19	0.90	0.54	0.08	0.24	0.16
456,915	158,665	615,580	584,892	184,993	769,885	990,373	478,806	1,469,179
456,307	134,537	590,844	657,079	270,653	927,732	990,574	492,145	1,482,719
440.47	160.24	303.61	475.27	153.00	315.56	668.40	324.72	496.98
439.31	134.52	239.80	537.97	225.86	382.32	668.02	332.97	500.77
2,032,553	1,973,509	4,006,062	2,565,073	2,530,900	5,095,973	3,045,102	3,024,916	6,070,018
2,063,953	2,016,709	4,080,662	2,497,870	2,454,869	4,952,739	3,074,339	3,055,906	6,130,245
1.52	2.14	1.83	2.69	3.10	2.89	0.95	1.01	0.98
672,066	296,067	968,133	866,313	351,611	1,217,924	1,768,296	1,089,757	2,858,053
652,305	247,523	899,823	1,035,137	545,264	1,580,401	1,782,690	1,125,087	2,907,777
330.65	150.02	241.67	337.73	138.98	239.00	580.70	300.26	470.85
316.05	122.74	220.51	414.41	222.12	319.10	579.86	368.17	474.33

D1—Population below 10 (Census).

E1—Population below 10 (Smoothed figures).

Literate per 1000 { F—(Census.)
G—(Smoothed).

GLOSSARY

- ADVAITA**—The system of Vedanta philosophy expounded by Sri Sankaracharya
- ALLOMS**—Salt-pans
- ANANTHASAYANAM**—Repose on Anantha (The infinite repose)
- ANCHAL**—Travancore and Cochin postal service
- ASAN**—Village schoolmaster
- ASRAMAS**—Hermitages
- ATTAKKATHA**—A kind of dramatic literature peculiar to Kerala
- CATHANAR**—Syrian Christian priest
- CHAMPU**—A classical form of Malayalam Literature where prose and verse intermingle
- CHITTY**—Chit Fund
- ILLOMS**—Malayala Brahman houses
- JENMI**—Landlord
- KALARI**—Physical Academy
- KARA**—A minor subdivision of a taluk
- KARAKKAR**—People of a kara
- KARANAVAR**—Head of a family
- KARIMTAMIL**—An old form of Tamil
- KATHAKALI**—A kind of pantomime peculiar to Kerala
- KAYAL**—Backwater or lagoon
- KETTUTHENGU SYSTEM**—Payment in kind, (coconuts), proportionate to the yield
- KILIPPATTU**—A form of melodious poetry represented as being sung by a parrot
- KUDIVAROM**—Tenant's share of crop
- KUDIVILA**—Tenant's share of price
- KUDIYAN**—Tenant
- MAHTAB SYSTEM**—Muslim system of schools
- MAKKATHAYAM**—Inheritance from father to son
- MAKKATHAYIS**—Those who follow the system of inheritance from father to son
- MARUMAKKATHAYAM**—Inheritance in the female line
- MARUMAKKATHAYIS**—Those who follow the system of inheritance in the female line
- MELKOIMA**—Overlordship—Suzerainty
- MELVAROM**—Government's share of rent—additional rent
- MUNDU**—Loin Cloth usually worn by the people of Kerala
- NALUKETTU**—A building with four separate apartments with an open quadrangle in the centre
- NAMASANKIRTHANAM**—Recitation of the name of the Lord
- NARTHAKALAYAM**—Dancing School.
- NATYASASTRA**—The Science of dancing
- NITHISASTRA**—The Science of law and morality
- PUDAVA**—Kerala women's garment
- PULIKUDI**—A ceremony observed by women during the first pregnancy
- PUNJA**—Wet cultivation ; wet land
- ROWKA**—A jacket worn by Kerala women
- SAIVITES**—Worshippers of God Siva
- SAMBANDHOM**—Marriage
- SAMSKARA**—Ceremony
- SANATANISTS**—Followers of orthodox Hinduism
- SAVARNAS**—Those belonging to the four castes of Hindu Society
- SHASHTIABDAPOORTHI**—Completion of the 60th year ; a ceremony conducted in connection with it.
- SLOKAS**—Verses
- SRI VALUMKODE**—(Lit—the land of prosperity) Ancient name of Travancore
- SURMA**—Collyrium
- TARAWAD**—Joint-family
- THALIKETTU**—A marriage ceremony, the important item of which is the tying of a neck-ornament (Thali)
- THIRANTU KALYANAM**—A ceremony connected with the attainment of puberty
- THORTHU**—Towel
- THIRIPPADIDANAM**—Dedication to God
- THULLAL KATHA**—A variety of Malayalam poetry
- UTHSAVAMS**—Periodical temple celebrations
- VAISHNAVITES**—Worshippers of God Vishnu
- VANAPRASTHAM**—(Lit.—Retiring to the forest) the third stage of life prescribed for the higher castes
- VEDANTISM**—The system of religious philosophy generally accepted by the Hindus
- VISISHTADVAITOM**—A philosophical system expounded by Sri Ramanujacharya

INDEX

	Pages		Pages
A		Coir Workers Union	98
Academy of Music	169	Allans	107
Acreage under crops	35	Alwar (Kulsokhara)	161
Acts	15	Alwaye	20, 21, 22, 80, 113, 114
Debt Relief	110	Alwaye Bridge	40, 113
Factories	98	Aluminium Factory	21
Ilava	59	Ambalapula	6
Jenmi Kudiyan	8	Ambalavasi	164
Kshatriya	59	American	134, 139
Malayala Brahman	59	Anglican	134, 162
Mines and Minerals	98	Anglo-Indians	76, 77
Nayar	59, 131	Anamudy	4
State Aid to Industries	100	Ananthasayanom	21
Trade Disputes	98	Anantha Victoria Marthandan	
Trade Unions	98	Canal	6
Vellala	59	Anarchism	97
Workmen's Compensation	98	Anchal	113, 114
Actuarial Report	46	Antioch	133, to 134
Adi Dravida	131	Arabia	106
Addison	153	Arabic	149, 150
Adhyatma Ramayana	152	Arable—animal husbandry	38
Administrative Divisions	18, 21, 26, 41, 160, 163	Aranmulai	170
Advaita	127	Arayan	126, 131, 162
Aerodrome	114	Archdeacon Alexander	136
Age-composition	49	Archdeacon Thomas	136
Age-constitution	176	Area (corrected)	17
Age-group	55	Arians	134
of operatives	95	Armenian	135
of unemployed	119	Art Festival	170
Agasthiswaram	147	Art Gallery	21
Agricultural		Arts College	21
Debt Redemption Committee	110	School of	171
Improvements	83	Arur	6
Loans	15	Aryan immigrants	142
Prospects	85	Arya Samaj	127, 130
Research	83	Asan	129
Agriculture (Department of)	36, 39, 84, 85	Ascu treatment	108
Director of	106	Asoka	127
importance of	78	Asramas	45
Ahimsa	126, 127	Assam	159
Air Mail Service	114	Associated Cement Company	107
Aiyavar	141	Athanasius (Mar Mathew)	137
Aiyar Atikal Thiruvatikai	134	Attakatha	152
Ajmer-Merwara	164	Attingal	20, 22, 30
Alangad	1	Australia	25
Alexandria	134	Ayillyan Thirunal (Maharaja)	152
Alleppey	7, 15, 20, 21, 80	B	
First Coir Factory at	96	Babylon	134
		Backward communities	61, 141, 158

Baghdad	135	Central Provinces	164
Balance of Trade	15	Ceramic Factory (Kundara)	13
Bali	168	Ceylon	138
Baltic-Slavonic group	149	Chackaravar	162
Baluchistan	164	Chakkala	131
Banking Enquiry Committee	109	Chakkilian	162
Baptist	139	Chaldean (Patriarch of babylon)	136
Baradeus Jacob	134	Chaliya Rishi	101
Baroda	17, 164	Chamber of Commerce	96
Basque	149	<i>Champus</i>	151
Beedi	92, 102	Chandy-Cathanar	136
Begging	69	Changanachery	6, 19, 22, 160
Belgians	25	Charcoal	102
Bell metal	102	Chattampi Swanikal	128
Bengal	96, 127, 164	Chavara	40
Bengal Revival	169	Chayakaran	132
Behar	164	Chennamangalam	152
Berar	164	Cheraman Perumal	184
<i>Bhartruhari</i>	45	Cheramar	41, 132, 141
Bible Faith	139, 141	Cheras	2
Birth-rate	182, 186	Cherusseri Nampoothiri	151
Board of Industries	100	Chetti	162
Bombay	7, 114, 164	Child Marriage	144
Books	168	Child Welfare Work	15
Boordhana Yakub	134	China	25, 105, 169
Boy Scout Movement	171	Chinese language	149
Brahman	162	Chinese nets	105
Brahmo Samaj	127, 130	Chinese painting	169
Bridges	7, 40	Chirayinkil	6, 112, 142
Britain	105, 112	Chitra Thirunal Maharaja, Sri	8, 101, 109, 135, 156, 170
British Supremacy	3	Chithrasala, Mysore	169
Broadcasting Station	114	Cholas	1, 2
Brother Mission	139, 141	Chowwara	115
Buchanan (Dr. Claudius)	138	Christ (Jesus)	135, 139
Buddhism	115, 127	Christians	133 to 141
Buddhists	76, 142	Christian sects	141
Bureau of Information	122	Church Missionary Society	22
Burma	25, 138	Civil condition	57
		Classical dance	170
		C. M. S.	147
		Claudius (Buchanan Dr.)	138
		Coastal trade	7
		Cochin	6, 7, 105, 113, 152
		Cochin Bishop	136
		Cochin Harbour	21, 113, 114
		Cochin Raja	1, 136
		Cochin State	1, 43, 115, 164
		Coconut palm	4
		Co-education	157
		Coir factory	96
		Coir industry	104
		Colachel	1, 6, 7, 21, 113
		Collegiate education	158
		Communications	6, 14, 15, 40, 113
		Communism	97
Calicut (Zamorin of)	1		
Cana Thomas of	134, 135		
Cannanore	114		
Cape Comorin	4, 7, 22, 40, 113		
Capital <i>versus</i> labour	97		
Capitalist farmer	85		
Carmelite	136, 153		
Carr Saunders	34		
"Carrying capacity"	84		
Cash-nexus	97		
Caste	130 to 138		
Caste-mark	43		
Catamaran	105		
Catholic	134		
Roman	162		
Syrian	162		
Celtic group of languages	149		
Census date	10		
Central India States	164		

Communities	23, 50, 52, 54, 57, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 75, 77, 124, 125, 126, 142, 162	Disafforestation	34
Conciliation (Board of Trade Disputes)	98	Disputes (Trade)	98
Conciliation Officers	110	District Health Officer	15
Conner	129	Divisions (See Administrative and Natural)	
Consortium	60	Divorce	61, 62
Control Board	98	D'Launey	21
Conversions	126	Dojunki Association	99
Cool drink habit	92	Domestic Service	69, 68
Co-operative Department	104	Double cropping	30, 30
Co-operative Enquiry Committee	111	Dravidian	129, 132
Co-operative Societies	34, 108	Dravidian languages	149
Coorg	164	Drinking habit	92
Coptic	134	Dutch	1, 21, 149
Copper plate grant	134		
"Corn Laws"	86	E	
Corporation	20, 31, 160	East India Company	2
Cottage Industries	101, 102	East India States	164
Cottage Workers	100	East Indies	169
Courtallam Falls	22	Economic Depression	13
Cranganore	138, 152	Economic Development Board	109
Credit Bank	15, 110	Economic Journal	109
Credit facilities	109	Economic resources	87
Cultivable area (acreage)	28, 32, 81	Economic Survey	35, 38
Cultivated area	28, 32, 81	Do. Report	81
Cultivated area under crops	88	Edanad	5
Cultivating owners	80	Edapalayam	107
Cultivating tenants	80	Educated Unemployment	121
Cultivation (of special crops)	81	Education Code	157
(punja)	14	Education Department	100, 113, 154 155, 168, 170
Cultural unity	144, 147, 171	Education Reforms Committee	156
Culture (problem of)	122	Egg-grading	112
Czechoslovakia	147	Eluthachan	152
		Emigration	42, 43
D		Endogamy	53, 59
Dance (Indian Classical)	170	Energy (Goddess of)	126
Danish system of husbandry	38	Engineering College	159
Darragh James	96	England	80, 99, 101, 105, 106, 138, 165
Darragh Smail & Co.	96	English language	140
Dayananda Saraswathi	127	schools, earliest	147
Death-rate	182, 188	libraries and journals	148
Debt Relief Act	15, 110	Enumeration (preliminary and final)	10
Denmark	4, 105	Epidemics	15
Density (Population)	27	Epizootic diseases	99
Dependants (partial & total)	68	Equalisation of salaries of men and women	117
Dependence (Incidence of)	77	Ernakulam	115, 138
Deviculam	30, 41	Estate economy	27, 43
Dharma Raja	2	Estates in the State	96
Dialects	146	Ettumanur	22
Diamper	136	Europe	141
Diminishing Returns (law of)	89, 83	European languages	149
Dioceses	138-139	Eutychians	131
Dionysius V (Mar)	137	Eve	117

INDEX

Excise Department	113	Girl Guide Movement	171
Exhibition (Industrial)	101	Goa	114
Ex-Kaiser	117	(Archbishop of)	136
Exogamy	59	Gothic	151
Expectation of life	184	Gouri Parvati Bayi (Rani)	86, 155, 170
Ezhava (Ilava)	131, 145, 162	Graduated figures	12, 13
		Graduate wives	118
		Grahastham	128
F		"Grandhabhasha"	152
Factories (in the State)	96	Greek	134
Factories Act	98	Gujerathi	150
Factory laws	98	Gwalior State	164
Family budget	10		
Far East	169	H	
Female choice of occupation	89	Harijan Hostel	158
Female fecundity	53	Haripad	20
Female ratio (of industrial workers)	89	Hartog Committee	159
Female unemployment	117	Health Division	15
Female workers (percentage)	72	Health Unit	15, 22
(insufficiency of)	74	Hebrew	149
(by community)	76	"Hidden misery"	60
(in industry)	89	"Hidden unemployment"	37, 44
Females (Married)	50	High Range	106, 113, 114
Fertility	174 to 176	Hindi	46, 148
Fertility and Mortality Enquiry	17, 49, 57 & 174, & 176	Hindi Prachara Sabhas	148
		Hindu Pantheon	124
Fine Art	168	Hindus	126 to 132
Finnish	149	Hindus (Other)	77
Fisheries Department	106	Hindusthani	150, 151
Flemish	149	Hiscock machine	112
Folklore	3	Histogram	47
Food industry	89	House density	29
Force of birth	16	House (Lower)	9
Force of death	19	(Upper)	9
Ford Factories	99	House structure	31
Forest products	5, 108	Hungarians	149
Forest resources	108	Hyderabad	18, 164
Forestry (institute of)	159	Hydro-electric power	6
Forestry section	109		
Fragmentation	80	I	
Fragmentation Enquiry	33	Ilava	131, 145, 162
Fragmentation of Holdings Report	81	Ilava Aot	59
France	25	Ilavathi	162
Franchise	9	Ilavanian	162
Franciscans	136	Iloms	145
Francis Xavier	136	Ilmenite	107
Fraser (General)	139	Immigration	42, 43
Frauen	117	Index of concentration	46
French	149	India	164
Fruit Industry	104-105	Indian Christian (workers)	76, 77
		Indian Classical Dance	170
G		Indo-Aryan (branch of languages)	49
Gaelic	149	Indo-European	149
Gainful workers	71, 72	Industrial Exhibition	101
Game Sanctuary	108	Industrialisation	35, 40, 66, 87
Garhasthyam	45	Industrial organisation	96
German	149	Industrial planning	115
Germany	116	Industrial Relations Committee	98
Welfare work in	99	Industrial schools	101
Wheat cultivation in	84	Industrial workers	87

	Page		Page
Female workers	89	Karthikapally	6, 30
Industries—(Board of)	100	Karthika Thiruvai Maharaaja	2
cottage	101	Karunagapally	6, 30, 141
Department of	97, 107	Kashmir	100
Director of	99	Kathakali	152, 170
organised	14, 83	Kaumaram	45
State Aid to (Act)	100	Kayal reclamation	84
Infantile Mortality	182, 189, 100	Kayamkulam	22
Information Bureau	122	Kerala	28
Information Department	166	Kerala Culture	151
Institute of Forestry	159	Kerala Hindu Mission	126
of Research	159	Kerala Natya Kala	170
of Textile Technology	159	Kerla Varma (Valiakoil Thampuran)	153
Intermarriages	144	Kettuthengu system	110
Interportal Convention	113	Kilippattus	152
Inter-University Board	171	Kingship	9
Iran	25	Kipling	105
Iraq	105	Knanaya Syrians	135
Irrigated Area	81	Knaya Thoma	135
Islam	142	Konkanese	127
Italian	149	Konkani	150, 151
Italy	25, 38, 84	Koonen Cross	136
Itinerant Weaving Party	109	Koran	150
Ivanios (Mar)	137	Kothayar Project	5, 7, 30, 113
		Kothamangalam	114
Jacob Baradeus	134, 135	Kottar	22, 138
Jacobite	134, 162	Kottarakara	6, 7, 41
Jainism	126, 141	Kottayam	6, 20, 22, 40, 114, 160
Jains	76	'Krishnagatha'	152
Japan	38, 99, 105, 106, 116, 169	Krishnanvaka	162
Japanese painting	169	Kshatriya	182, 144, 145, 162
Java	84	Kshatriya Aot	59
Jenmikudiyam Act	8	Kudivarom	107
Jerusalem	135, 138	Kudivila	108
Jesuit College and Seminary	135	Kudumi	162
Jesus Christ	135, 139	Kulasekhara Alwar	151
Jews	76	Kulithura	20
Joseph of Edessa	135	Kunchan Nambiar	152
"Journalese"	165	Kundara	5, 114
Journalism	165	Kunnathunad	89, 141, 142
Judaism	141	Kunnathur	1
Jugo Slavia	147	Kurava	149, 162
		Kuttanad	41
		Kuttapala	113
Kalakaud	1		
Kalari	6, 128		
Kali	124		
Kalkulam	5		
Kammalas	131, 149, 162	Labour Commissioner	95, 99
Kanarese	151	Labour Corps	42, 66, 161
Kanikkaran	124, 162	Labour Union, Thuckalay	95
Kaniyan	162	Labour Unions	97
'Kanji'	135	Labour vs. Capital	97
Kara	128	Labour Welfare Movement	95, 99
Karakkar	128	Land Mortgage Bank	109, 110
Karanavar	144, 145	Land-owner (small)	86
Karim Tamil	151	'Land's end'	83
		Languages	146-153

	Page		Page
'Laputan Flapper'	87	Maravan	162
Latin	153	Marcasite	107
Latin Catholics	134, 138, 162	Marine Biology	106
Leapuram	1, 7	Marcher lords	1
Legislation	9	" Marchers "	120
Legislature (bicameral)	9	Marital legislation	59
Lepper Colony	115	Marketing	111
Liaison Officer	99	Marketing Officers	112
Life Tables	184	Marketing Scheme (All-India)	112
Lift Irrigation	41	Marketing section	112
Lignite	151	Markets	41, 112
'Lingua Franca'	148	Marthanda Varma Maharaja	2, 4, 5
'Lingua Malabarica'	152	Marthandam	139
Linguistic Survey of India	148	Marthandom Rural Reoonstruction centre	84
Literacy	153-167	Mar Thoma I	136
Literate unemployed	120	Mar Thoma Metropolitan	22
L. M. S.	139, 147	Mar Thomite	162
London	133, 139	Martin Luther	134
Lower House	9	Marumakkathayam laws	141, 142, 145
Luther, Martin	134	Maruwan (Sapor Iso)	134
Lutheran Mission	134, 141	Masoot	40
		Masculinity	179
M		Maternity work	15
		Mathew Athanasius	137
Macaulay (Col.)	139	Mats	102
Madras	164	Mattancherry	136
Madras Legislative Assembly	158	Mavelikara	6, 20, 27, 114
Madras Presidency	18, 28, 43	Meenachil	6
Madras University	158, 159	Meenakethana Charitham	153
Madura	43	Meikle	46, 48
Magna Carta	9	'Melkoima' right	127
Mahabharatham	152	Melvaroms	107
Maharaja Sri Chitra Thirunal	8, 101, 109, 135, 156, 170	Menezes (Archbishop)	137
Maharani Setu Pārvati Bayi	169, 170-171	Middle School	121
Mahavira	127	Migration	41, 42, 43
Mahtab system	158	Mineral Industry	107
Main Central Road	6, 22	Minerals	5, 105
Main Southern Road	113	Mines and Minerals Act	98
Major communities	123	Mining	107
Makkathayis	145	Mixed farming	38
Malabar	18, 63	Mode	178, 179
Malaya	42	' Model State '	4
Malayala Brahman Act	59	Monazite	4, 107
Malayarayan	123	Money-crops	5
Male workers (percentage)	72	Monophysites	134
Maltese	149	Motor conductorship	120
Manakudi Lake	108	Motor fuel	114
Man-land ratio	33, 34	Motor Syndicates	101
Mannan	123	Motor Unions	101
Mannanam	153	Mughal Empire	3
Manorial System	80	Mukkuvan	132
Mar Dionysius V.	136	Mulakanchira	113
Mar Thoma	136	Mulanthuruthi	137
Marakkan	132	Multiple-household	30
Maran	131	Municipal towns	20, 31, 162
Marathi	150, 151	Munnar	40, 114
		Munnar Planters	99

	Page		Page
Munro (Col.)	137, 138, 139		
Muslim history	141		
percentage of increase	141		
strength	142		
Muslim workers	75, 77		
Muthirapula	5, 81, 114, 162		
Muthuvan	123		
Museum Anneze	169		
Muvattupula	6, 39, 102		
Mysore	18, 112, 164, 169		
Sultan of	2		
N			
Nadar	132, 162		
Nadar Christian	141		
Naga worship	126		
Nagercoil	22, 40, 56, 102, 113, 114		
Nalukettu	145		
Namasankirthanam	127		
Nambiar (Kunchan)	152		
Nambuthiris	131		
Nanjanad	5		
Narasimha Varman	2		
Narayana Guru Swamikal (Sri)	128		
Narthakalayam (Sri Chitra)	170		
Natural Divisions	18, 21, 26, 27, 33, 55, 60, 71, 72, 74, 79, 81, 120, 160		
Nature worship	126		
Natyasastra	170		
Nayar	131, 145, 162		
Nayar Act	59, 131		
Nayudus	149		
Nazrani Deepika	153		
Nedumangad	6		
Nedumjeliyan	2		
Neechabhasha	152		
Neendakara Bridge	115		
Neryamangalam Bridge	40, 113, 115		
Nestorians	134, 135		
Netherlands	25		
Newspapers	165, 166		
Neyyattinkara	15, 16, 19, 20, 22, 30		
Neyyoor	139		
Nicholas Roerich	169		
Nithisastra	45		
Norwegian	149		
Nuranad	16		
N. W. F. Provinces	162		
		O	
Occupation			64
Occupational returns			65
trends			67
Other Hindus			77
Operatives			96
Optimum population			34, 82
Oriental Conference			171
Organised industries			93
Orissa			164
Orthodox Syrians			136
Over-population (agricultural)			36
(evils of)			38-39
(symptoms of)			36
Oversea trade			7
		P	
Padmanabhapuram			21
Padmanabhapuram Palace			169
Pakkanar			151
Palayakoottukar			136
Pallan			162
Pallavas			2
Pallivasal			5, 6, 22, 82, 114, 115
Pallom			114
Panan			104
Pandarpur Movement			127
Pandyankal			6
Pandyas			1, 2, 21
Parambil Chandy Kathinar			136
Parameter			206
Parassala			139
Parava			149, 162
Paraya			132, 149, 162
Parliament			138
Parsees			76
Parur			1, 22, 39
Parvati Bayi Rani Gouri			89, 155, 170
Parvati Bayi, Maharani Setu			169, 170, 171
Pathamars			7
Pathanamthitta			41
Pathanapuram			7, 41, 142
Pathiyan			132
Patriarch of Antioch			135, 137, 138
Payyanoor Pattola			151
Peasant proprietors			89
Pechippara			5
Pentecost			139, 141
Per capita Acreage			34, 82
Periyar Lake			103
Pests (crop)			63
Picture Gallery			169

	Page	R	Page
Physical Education Board	159		
Pirnede	41, 115, 151	Railways	7, 40
Plantations	27	Rainfall	13
Plywood	99	Rajakesava Das	3
Poland	33, 147	Raja Raja the Great	2
Police Conservancy towns	30	Raja Rama Mohan Roy	127
Polygamy	59	Rajputana	164
Poniatowki	33	Ramacharitham	151
Pope of Rome	135	Ramanamom	151
Popular legislatures	9	Ramanujacharya	127
Portuguese	1, 136, 149	Ramaswami Aiyar, Sachivottama Sir C. P.	171
Postal service	113, 114	Ramayanam	151
Poultry-farming	85	Rama Iyen	2
Pracharaks (Hindi)	148	Ramakrishna Mission	127
P. R. D. S.	141	Rama Varma	1, 2
Presbyterian	139	Ramnad	43
Press, the	165, 168	Rani (of Quilon)	134
Press, Printing (first)	152	Gouri Parvati Bayi	89, 155, 170
Primary education	11	Ranga Vilasom Palace	169
Primus inter pares	9	Ravi Varma	169
Proclamation of Bani Gouri		Reethukar	137
Parvati Bayi	81	Renaissance of Art	169
Proclamations of 1817, 28, & 48	137	Reproduction rate	17, 183, 185
of 1888	9	Research (Imperial Agricultural)	83, 84
Temple Entry	129	(Institute of)	159
Protestantism	134, 141	(University Department)	37, 83, 84, 100,
Public Examinations	160		108, 168
Public Health Laboratory	15, 16	Revenue Department	11, 16
Public Health Programme	11, 12, 15, 44	Refrigerator	106
Pulikudi	144	Registration (of documents)	109
P. W. D.	113, 144	Relief measures (economic)	15
P. W. D. maintenance coolies	68	Remedial measures	39
Public Instruction	6	Replacement (population)	53
Public Service Enquiry Committee	117	Rice cultivation	35
Public Service Commission	117	Rice-husking	103
Public Works	6, 40	Rice Mills	103
Pulaya	123, 132, 162	Ringeltaube	139
Punalur	22	Risley	129
Punalur Paper Mills	22, 99	Roads	6
Punja cultivation	14	Rockefeller Foundation	15, 22
Punjab	164	Roerich (Nicholas and Svetoslav)	169
Puth	69	Roman Catholic	134, 139, 162
Puthenar	5	Roman Pontiff	134
Puthenkoottukar	138	Romano-group of languages	149
Puthra	59	Rome	133
		Romo-Syrians	136, 139, 164
		Rotation of crops	36
		Royal Indian Navy	107
		Rubber Factory	115
		Rural electrification	39
		Rural Reconstruction (Marthandom)	84
		Russia	84, 99, 116
		Russian artists	169

Q

Quartile distribution	51, 62
Quilon	6, 7, 19, 20, 21,
	22, 30, 40, 113,
	114
Quilon Factory Workers' Union	98
Quilon (Ranee of)	134

S	Page	Page
Sachivottama (Sir C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar) .	171	Signoras 117
Sacrament	61	Sillimanite 107
Sadler Commission	159	Sikhim 104
Sadler (Sir Michael)	159	Sikkiam 141
Sahyadris	4, 5	S. I. U. C. 102
Saisavam	45	Slavonic group (of languages) 140
Saivites	128	Slokas 162
Sakti	128	Smoking habit 82
Sakunthalam	153	Smoothing 214
Sales Depot	99, 101	Smoothed figures 216, 217
Saliyan	162	Social life 145
Salt pans	107	Social Service League 99
Salvation Army	22, 139	South Indian Railway 21
Samantha	145	Sovereigns promoting culture 128
Sambandam	59	Soviet Russia 110
Sambavar	132, 141	Spanish 140
Sampling	Special crops 80, 81
Samstara	61	Specific birth-rate 176, 183
Sanatanists	130	Specific death-rate 181
Sandesakavyam	151	Sri Chaitanya 127
Sankaracharya	127	Sri Chitra Thirunal (Maharaja) 8, 101, 109, 135, 160, 170
Sanskrit	151	Sri Chithralayam 100
Sanyasam	45, 127	Sri Chithra Mills 21, 30, 99
Sapor Iso Maruwan	134	Sri Chithrodaya Narthakalayam 170
Sarda Act	57	Sri Madhwa 127
Sastha	124, 127	Sri Mulam Shashtiabdapoorthi Memorial Institute 101
Saturation point	81, 71	Sri Narayana Guruswamikal 128
Saturday Adventists	141	Sri Padmanabha 2
Savarnas	130	Srivalumkode 21
Scandinavia	106	State Aid to Agriculture 80
Scattered holdings	8	State Aid to Industries Act 100
Scheduled Castes	76, 166	St. Berchman's College 19
School Leaving Certificate	158	Still births 100
School of Arts	169	St. James 135
Science College	21	Straits Settlements 42
Scientific vocabulary	153	St. Thomas 135
Scotch	149	Subramonia 124
Scott Christian College	22	Subsidiary means of livelihood 70
Scott Christian Mission	22	Suohindram 22
S. D. A.	141	Sundberg ratio 49
Seine nets	105	Sunnis 141
Seleucia	134	Supply Department 102
Self Respect Movement	130, 132	Survey of India 18
Semitic	149	„ Linguistic 145
“Septembrians”	120	Survivorship 176, 177, 178, 180
Setu Parvati Bayi (Maha Rani)	169, 170, 171	Svetoslav Roerich 169
Sex-constitution	180	Swathi Thirunal (Sri) Maharaja 169, 170
Sex-ratio	55	Sweden 4, 105
Shakespeare	45	Swiss watches 108
“Sharliverol”	100	Switzerland 103, 147
Shenkotta	2, 6, 7, 30, 40, 41, 103	Syllabus Revision Committee 159
Sherthala	6, 22, 30	Sylviculture 107
Sherthala-Arur Road	115	Syndicalist Movement 97
Shriahs	141	
Siddhardha	127	

	Page		Page
Syndicate of War Supplies	100	Towns (Municipal)	20, 31, 160
Synod of Diamper	136	Trade	68
Synthetic food	83	Trade Agency	112
Syria	105	Trade Disputes Act	98
Syrian Christians	134—138	Trade Disputes (Board of Conciliation of)	98
Syriac	149, 153	Trade Unionism	97
Syrian Catholic	162	Trade Unions	86
Syrian unspecified	141	Trade Unions Act	98
Syro-Malankara	135, 137	Training Schools	159
Syro-Roman	135, 138, 162	Transport Department	113, 120
		Transport Reorganisation Committee	113
		Travancore Wood Works	99
		Tribal religion	123
		Tribe	141
		Trichur	115
		Trivandrum	6, 7, 19, 20, 21, 30, 70, 105, 106, 113, 114, 115, 160, 170.
		Trunk Telephone	7, 41, 114
		Tuberculosis Hospital	16
		Tulu Brahmans	127
		Turkey	25
		— U —	
		Udayagiri	40
		Udayamperur	136
		Ullatan	162
		Undernutrition	37
		Unemployed by age-groups	191
		Unemployment in 15—50 age-group	69
		Unemployment ("Chronic")	118
		Unemployment Bureau	117
		Unemployment Committee	117
		Unemployment (Educated)	121
		United Kingdom	25
		United Provinces	166
		United States	25, 83, 90, 106
		University Act	159
		University Advisory Committee	159
		University—Andhra	159
		—Annamalai	159
		—Madras	158, 159
		—Mysore	159
		University Research Department	37, 83, 84, 100, 108, 168.
		University of Travancore	21, 100, 106, 121, 159, 171.
		Unproductive occupations	68
		Upanishads	126
		Upper House	9
		Ural-Altai Group	149
		Urban density	31
		Urban population	20, 21
		Urban-rural ratio	19

T

Talikota	1
Taluku	19, 26, 82, 56, 160
Tapioca	5, 35
Tata Air Mail	114
Tata Iron and Steel Works	99
Taungya lease System	108
Teashop habit	92
Technical Examinations	100
Telegraphic service	114
Telugu	150
Temple	128, 129
Temple Entry	128, 129, 130
Temple Entry Proclamation	129
Territorial Commander	139
Tentonic group	149
Textile Mills (Sri Chithra)	99
Textile Technology (Institute of)	159
Thalickettu	144
Thamarakulam	108
Thandan	162
Thekkumkoor	135
Theophilus (Mar)	137
Theosophical Society	127—130
Thirantukalyanam	144
Thirunakkara	22
Thiruvalla	6, 19, 22, 27
Thiruvattar	22
Thoma, Knaya or Thomas Cana	134, 135
Thomas St.	135
Thottapally Bridge	40, 113
Thovala	19, 30
Thrippadidanom	2
Thuckalay	21
Thuckalay Labour Union	98
Thullal Katha	152
Thunchathu Eluthachan	152
Thurston	133
Tibetan family of languages	169
Tibeto-Chinese languages	149
Tinnevely	7, 22
Tippu Sultan	2, 3
Tokyo	99
Toleration (of rulers)	126, 134, 141

INDEX

229

	Page		Page
Urbanised villages	8	Vital Statistics Enquiry	12, 16, 17, 53, 181
Urdu	146	Vizhinjam	1, 7
U. S. S. R.	84, 99, 116		
Utchabhasha	152	W	
Utsavams	127, 128	"Walled Houses"	24
V		Ward	120
Vaccination	15	War Supplies Syndicate	100
Vadakkumkoor	135	War Supplies Department	100, 112
Vaikom	22	War Technicians	42, 44, 66
Vaipin Fort	152	Weaving Party (Itinerant)	100
Vaishnavite cult	127, 128	Welfare (Movement for Labour)	98
Valan	182, 162	Welfare Workers	94, 99
Valia Koil Thampuram (Kerala Varma)	153	Wellesley (Marquis of)	138
Valliyur	2	West Coast Road	4
Vanaprastham	45	Westermarck	53
Vaniyan	162	'White Coal'	5, 118
Vannan	132, 162	Widowed	163
Yardhakkyam	45	Wild Life Nursery	107
Vardhamana Mahavira	127	Willingdon Island	114
Varkala	22	Women's Conference (All-India)	171
Varnava	181, 182	Woodwork	89
Vatassery	22	Woodworks (Travancore)	99
Vatican	135	Workers (Distribution of)	65, 68, 69
Vazhapally	102	Workers by community	75
Vedantism	126	Workers in Agriculture	79
Vedic cult	126, 127	Workers in Industry	87
Velakithala Nayar	181, 162	Workers and dependants	64, 65
Velan	162	Workmen's Compensation Act	98
Vellala Act	59	X	
Vellalan	162	Xavier (Francis)	136
Veluthedathu Nayar	181, 162	Y	
Vembanad Lake	105	Yadavan	164
Venad	134	Yakoob Boordhana	134
Verapoly (Archbishop of)	138	Yanker Cylinder Installation	99
Vetan	162	Yield increase	39
Vijayanagar	1	Y. M. C. A.	99, 171
Vijayapuram (Bishop of)	138	Y. W. C. A.	171
Vilavancode	5	Yauvanom	45
Villages	25, 41, 128, 129	Yeomen	80
Vira Saivar	162	Young Hindu Movement	130
Visishtadvaitam	127	Z	
Viswakarma	132	Zamorin	3
Vital Index	189	Zircon	107
		Zoroastrianism	141