

SURVEY
OF
ECONOMIC CHANGE IN RURAL AREAS
(1958-59)

PADUTHONSE
(Taluka Udipi, District South Kanara)
Mysore State

BY
A. R. RAJAPURCHIT
Gokhale Institute of Politics & Economics,
POONA 4

C O N T E N T S

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
	<u>CHAPTER I: Introduction</u>	1 - 11
1.1	Selection of the village	1
1.2	General features of the South Kanara District	2
1.3	Geological Features	2
1.4	Rivers	2
1.5	Temperature and Rainfall	3
1.6	Agricultural situation in the District	3
1.7	Density of the population	4
1.8	Village Paduthonse: Geographical description	4
1.9	Type of land and ownership of land	6
1.10	Crop pattern	8
1.11	Population	8
1.12	Occupational pattern	8
1.13	Market place	11
1.14	Transport and Communications	11
	<u>CHAPTER II: Village Layout</u>	12 - 37
2.1	A 'spread out' village	12
2.2	Localities in a spread out village	13
2.3	Localities in Paduthonse	15
2.4	Location of castes	18
2.5	Location of occupations	24
2.6	Location of the classes based on Economic Status	27
2.7	Location of the Linguistic groups	30
2.8	Location of the Religious Institutes	32
2.9	Location of the Educational Institutes	32
2.10	Internal conveyance system	33
2.11	Location of the market place	35

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
	<u>CHAPTER III: Housing.</u>	38 - 63
3.1	Houses graded	38
3.2	Residential and non-residential houses	42
3.3	Information about the residential houses from 1952-53 to 1958-59	42
3.4	Ownership and tenancy of the houses in different localities.	44
3.5	Age of the houses in different localities	46
3.6	New constructions and major repairs	48
3.7	Housing conditions in different localities	52
3.8	Rent paying families	60
	<u>CHAPTER IV: Village Social Structure and Administration.</u>	64 - 110
4.1	Introduction	64
4.2	Religious groups	64
4.3	Caste groups among the Hindus	65
4.4	Hindu Brahmin temples	69
4.5	Hindu non-Brahmin temples	71
4.6	Mosques	72
4.7	The St. Philomena Church	74
4.8	Social entertainment	75
4.9	Popular habits	82
4.10	Schools and welfare institutions	85
4.11	Village Administration	98
4.12	Tonse Panchayat Board	100
4.13	Caste-cum Occupation Relationship.	105
	<u>CHAPTER V: Civil conditions and Labour Employment.</u>	111 - 153
5.1	Population	111
5.2	Sex and age composition	112
5.3	Marital Status	115
5.4	Size of family	117
5.5	Type of family	118

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
5.6	Literacy and education	119
5.7	Inmigration	126
5.8	Outmigration	133
5.9	Earners and non-earners	138
5.10	Labour employment	147
	<u>CHAPTER VI: Capital Structure.</u>	154 - 182
6.1	Introduction	154
6.2	Ownership of land	156
6.3	Ownership of livestock	161
6.4	Ownership of agricultural implements	170
6.5	Value of land	174
6.6	Value of houses	174
6.7	Value of Gold and Silver Ornaments owned	174
6.8	Other investments	176
6.9	Investment in Fishing equipments	178
6.10	Investment in equipments used in non-agricultural production and processing activities.	178
6.11	Investment in equipments used in trading.	180
6.12	Investment in equipments used in transport.	181
6.13	Investment and disinvestment during last twelve months.	182
	<u>CHAPTER VII: Land Utilization.</u>	183 - 229
7.1	Introduction	183
7.2	Plotwise Survey	184
7.3	Description of the soil	186
7.4	Soil erosion and Bunding	187
7.5	Land values	187
7.6	Types of tenancies	188
7.7	Buildings on farms	191
7.8	Water resources	192

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
	<u>Paddy Fields</u>	193 - 215
7.9	Intensity of land utilization	193
7.10	Cropping pattern	195
7.11	Cultivation practices	200
7.12	Analysis of input data	204
7.13	Dispersion of bullock labour inputs	211
7.14	Analysis of output data	213
	<u>Coconut Plots</u>	215 - 224
7.15	Agewise distribution of the coconut trees	215
7.16	Cultivation practices	217
7.17	Analysis of input data	218
7.18	Analysis of manure input for coconut	222
7.19	Analysis of output data	223
7.20	Employment in agriculture	224
	<u>CHAPTER VIII: Production, Sale and Purchase of Agricultural Commodities.</u>	230 - 242
8.1	Coconut production	230
8.2	Sale of coconuts	232
8.3	Production of paddy and pulses	232
8.4	Sale of paddy and pulses	235
8.5	Dung manure	235
8.6	Fodder	239
8.7	Production, sale and purchase of milk	240
	<u>CHAPTER IX: Fishing Occupation</u>	243 - 318
	(I) Introduction	243 - 245
9.1	Fishing community in Paduthonse	243
9.2	Scope and purpose of the present study	245
9.3	Sources of data	245
	(II) Fishing Techniques	246 - 262
9.4	Physical setting	246
9.5	Operational fields for different techniques of fishing	247

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
9.6	On shore fishing techniques	248
9.7	Near shore fishing techniques	255
9.8	Deep sea fishing techniques	258
9.9	Techniques of river fishing	260
	(III) Fishing organisations	263 - 277
9.10	A changing pattern of the fishing organisations	263
9.11	Conditions prior to the first phase of change	263
9.12	The first phase of change	264
9.13	What happened during the interim period	265
9.14	Second phase of change	267
9.15	Trends of change	268
9.16	Fishermen's own organisations of the Rampani groups	269
	(IV) Capital Structure	277 - 285
9.17	Introduction	277
9.18	Differing volume of investment in different techniques of fishing	277
9.19	Inter-unit variations in total investments	279
9.20	Investments in Rampani equipments	283
9.21	Investments in Patta Bale and Bepu(Big) equipments	283
	(V) Employment Pattern	285 - 293
9.22	Employment in Big Rampani Fishing	285
9.23	Employment in Small Rampani Fishing	288
9.24	Employment in Patta Bale Fishing	290
9.25	Employment in other techniques of Fishing	291
	(VI) Fish Yield	293 - 305
9.26	Yield divergences in Big Rampani Fishing	293
9.27	Yield divergences under classified operative days	297
9.28	Yield divergences under different harvests	301
9.29	Yield from Kai-rampani groups	303
9.30	Yield from Patta Bale groups	304

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
	(VII) Disposal of fish and price system.	305 - 311
9.31	Disposal of the Big Rampani yield	305
9.32	Disposal of the yield from the Patta Bale groups	310
	(VIII) Analysis of income and expenditure	311 - 316
9.33	Income and expenditure analysis of Big Rampani groups	311
9.34	Income and expenditure analysis of Small Rampani groups	311
9.35	Income and expenditure of the Patta Bale groups	311
9.36	Income and expenditure of the Bepux Organisations.	316
	(IX) Fish curing	316 - 318
9.37	Local method of curing fish	316
9.38	Colombo method of curing.	317
9.39	Ratnagiri method of curing	318
	<u>CHAPTER XI</u> : Production System for Non-agricultural Occupations	319 - 370
10.1	Introduction	319
10.2	Quarrying	320
10.3	Lime-Kiln	322
10.4	Aerated water factories	324
10.5	Beedi manufacturing	329
10.6	Tailoring	331
10.7	Oil Pressing	338
10.8	Flour Mill	339
10.9	Blacksmith	340
10.10	Copper Smiths	344
10.11	Copper Utensils manufacturing unit	347
10.12	Gold Smiths	349
10.13	Carpenters	350
10.14	Sawyers	352
10.15	The Furniture making unit, Kemmannu	353
10.16	Basket making	355

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
10.17	Masons	357
10.18	Barbers	359
10.19	Washermen	362
10.20	Removing the skin of the dead cattle.	364
10.21	Repairing the old umbrellas	364
10.22	Stitching the grain bags	365
10.23	Making coconut shell table spoons	366
10.24	Cattle breeding	366
10.25	Coir thread manufacturing and rope making	367
10.26	Palmyra jaggery and Neera	370
	<u>CHAPTER XI: Trade and Transport</u>	371 - 397
11.1	Trading	371
11.2	Wholesale trading in fish	372
11.3	Coir dealers	373
11.4	Coconut dealers	374
11.5	Paddy dealers	374
11.6	Grocers	375
11.7	Cloth Merchants	377
11.8	Stationery Merchants	379
11.9	Pan-bida - Bidi Merchants	380
11.10	Other petty traders	382
11.11	Hotel keepers	382
11.12	Weekly market	384
11.13	Sub-Post office, Kemmannu	389
11.14	Boat Transport	395
11.15	Machava	396
11.16	Lorry	397
	<u>CHAPTER XII: Financial System</u>	398 - 422
12.1	General position of indebtedness	398
12.2	Loans outstanding to date	400
12.3	Lendings outstanding to date	403
12.4	Borrowings during the last twelve months	405

Section No.	Section Title	Page No.
12.5	Repayments of the loans during the last twelve months	409
12.6	General impressions about the working of the financial system.	412
12.7	Case study of the branch office of the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd.	413
12.8	Co-operative Movement.	416
	<u>CHAPTER XIII:</u> Consumer expenditure and ownership of household and luxury articles	423 - 435
13.1	Consumer expenditure	423
13.2	Household articles	427
13.3	Use of Utensils	431
13.4	Certain practices	433
13.5	Storing grain	433
13.6	Lighting arrangements	435
	<u>CHAPTER XIV:</u> Social Aggregates	436 - 449
14.1	Village income	436
14.2	Income from agriculture	438
14.3	Income from fishing	439
14.4	Income from processing and manufacture	440
14.5	Income from trade	442
14.6	Income from transport	444
14.7	Income from construction	445
14.8	Income from public services	445
14.9	Income from other services	446
14.10	Income from unproductive sources	447
14.11	Gross value of physical production	447
14.12	Imports and exports of rice, coconut, fish and coir products.	448

LIST OF TABLES

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
1.1	Persons engaged in different occupations and their dependents in South Kanara District	3
1.2	Acreage under food crops, pulses and commercial crops in 1949-50	5
1.3	Land ownership in the village.	6
1.4	Crop pattern of the village Paduthonse from 1954-55 to 1957-58	7
1.5	Information about houses and persons in Paduthonse and Udipi Taluka according to 1951 census.	8
1.6	Occupational pattern of the Village, Taluka and the District according to 1951 census.	9
1.7	Livelihood classes in Paduthonse, Udipi taluka and south Kanara district according to 1951 census.	10
2.		
2.1	Localities in Paduthonse	17
2.2	Distribution of the families according to castes in different localities	19
2.3	Percentage distribution of the families according to occupation groups in different localities.	25
2.4	Percentage distribution of the families according to economic status	28
2.5	Percentage distribution of the families according to the language spoken in different localities.	31
3.1	Different grades of houses in relation to their values estimated by the Panchayat Board	38
3.2	Grades of houses in different localities	40
3.3	Residential and non-residential houses	41
3.4	Information about the residential houses from 1952-53 to 1958-59.	43
3.5	Ownership and type of tenancy of the houses.	45
3.6	Age of the houses if they are owned.	47
3.7	Cases reporting new construction and repairs and expenses incurred in different localities.	49

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
3.8	Absence or presence of plinth and/or foundation.	53
3.9	Type of walls	56
3.10	Description of the roofs	57
3.11	Area occupied by the houses	58
3.12	Number of rooms in each house	59
3.13	Rent paying families classified according to main occupation	61
4.1	A statement showing the income and expenditure of the 'Shree Talkies', Kemmannu, for the year 1957-58.	81
4.2	Number of audience entertained at 'Shree Talkies', Kemmannu, during 1957-58.	82
4.3	Financial position of the Kandige Elementary School.	86
4.4	Caste composition of the students of Kandige Elementary School during 1958-59.	87
4.5	Paduthonse Hindustani Board Elementary School: Classwise distribution of the students for the year 1958-59.	88
4.6	Financial position of the Kemmannu Aided Higher Elementary School.	90
4.7	Changing pattern of castewise distribution of students since 1930.	91
4.8	Particulars of children classified according to castes, Kemmannu Aided Higher Elementary School	92
4.9	Tonse Panchayat Board Library: Books and Periodicals	98
4.10	Receipts and expenditures of Tonse Panchayat Board from 1952-53 to 1957-58.	103
4.11	Occupationwise distribution of the families belonging to different castes.	104
5.1	Distribution of adults and non-adults according to sex and age	113
5.2	Distribution of population in five age-groups	114
5.3	Distribution of adults and non-adults according to marital status	115
5.4	Married non-adults in different castes	116
5.5	Sizewise distribution of the families in different castes	117
5.6	Distribution of the families according to family type.	119

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
5.7	Literates and illiterates in the village according to 1951 census and our enquiry (1958-59).	120
5.8	Distribution according to educands, non-educands, illiterates and not of school age.	121
5.9	Literacy according to caste groups	123
5.10	Literacy according to income groups.	124
5.11	Literacy according to occupation groups	126
5.12	Distribution of immigrant families according to place of origin.	127
5.13	Distance of the place of the origin.	127
5.14	Reasons for immigration	128
5.15	Castewise distribution of the immigrants	129
5.16	Occupational mobility of immigrant families	131
5.17	Castewise distribution of the families reporting some members outside the village.	134
5.18	Income groupwise distribution of the families reporting some members outside the village.	137
5.19	Occupation groupwise distribution of the families reporting some members outside the village.	138
5.20	Earners and non-earners	139
5.21	Non-working reasons for adults and non-adults	140
5.22	Earners in different castes	142
5.23	Combination of occupational groups for working members (males).	143
5.24	Combination of occupational groups for working members (females).	144
5.25	Age/sex-wise distribution of persons above five years (labour families).	147
5.26	Classification of the selected labour families into different income groups.	148
5.27	Number of days employed in different months.	149
5.28	Wage employed days classified	151
5.29	Self employed days classified	151
5.30	Non-working days classified	152
5.31	Wage paid (daily wage rates).	153

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
6.1	Ownership of land	156
6.2	Ownership of land and income	157
6.3	Land leased in on 'Muli' or 'chal' rent basis	158
6.4	Castewise distribution of pure tenants	159
6.5	Castewise distribution of owner cultivators	160
6.6	Castewise distribution of pure landlords	161
6.7	Distribution of land owned and land cultivated in the village according to castes	162
6.8	Distribution of land owned and land cultivated in and outside the village according to castes	163
6.9	Reported values of plough cattle	164
6.10	Cultivators owning plough cattle	165
6.11	Reported values of milch cattle	166
6.12	Ownership of milch cattle	167
6.13	Reported values of young stock	167
6.14	Reported values of fowls	168
6.15	Births, deaths, purchases and sales of livestock	169
6.16	Agricultural implements	170
6.17	Ownership of wooden ploughs, water lifts and electric pump sets.	172
6.18	Reported values of agricultural implements according to size of the cultivated holding.	173
6.19	Value of land	173
6.20	Value of houses.	175
6.21	Value of gold and silver ornaments owned	176
6.22	Investment in insurance etc.	177
6.23	Investment in the fishing equipments	178
6.24	Reported values of equipments used in non-agricultural production and processing activities.	179
6.25	Reported values of equipments used in Trading.	180
6.26	Reported values of equipments used in Transport.	180
6.27	Investment and disinvestment during last twelve months.	181

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
7.1	Major land uses according to village records	183
7.2	Distribution of sample plots according to colour of soil	185
7.3	Distribution of sample plots according to size.	186
7.4	Distribution of the plots according to the reported value per acre	188
7.5	Distribution of leased out plots according to size.	189
7.6	Distribution of leased out plots according to type of tenancy and per acre rent for each type	189
7.7	Duration of tenancy	190
7.8	Buildings on selected coconut plots	191
7.9	Percentage distribution of the water resources	192
7.10	Intensity of land utilization for selected paddy plots	194
7.11	Percentage distribution of the area under different crops in respect of 58 paddy plots	196
7.12	Percentage distribution of the area under seasonal crops as shown in the village records in Paduthonse (1954-55 to 1957-58)	197
7.13	Crop pattern according to irrigation facilities	199
7.14	Average inputs per acre for paddy (Monsoon)	205
7.15	Average inputs per acre for paddy (Winter)	206
7.16	Average inputs per acre for paddy (Summer)	207
7.17	Proportion of hired labour to total labour input for different operations.	208
7.18	Dispersion estimates (Bullock labour inputs)	212
7.19	Average per acre output for paddy	214
7.20	Per acre distribution of yielding and non-yielding trees	215
7.21	Distribution of the yielding trees according to age groups	216
7.22	Average input per acre for coconut	219
7.23	Percentage distribution of manures used on different soils for sample coconut plots	222

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
7.24	Average per acre output for coconut plots	223
7.25	Monthwise distribution of the human labour input	226
7.26	Monthwise distribution of the proportions of the hired labour to family labour inputs in the sample plots	228
8.1	Agricultural production	231
8.2	Sale of coconuts	233
8.3	Production, sale and purchase of dung manure	236
8.4	Production, sale and purchase of fodder	238
8.5	Families reporting production, sale and purchase of milk	240
8.6	Production, sale and purchase of milk (Value in Rs.)	241
9.1	Information about different techniques of fishing in Paduthonse	249
9.2	Changing pattern of ownership of different fishing organisations	266
9.3	Facts about the leadership of the Big Rampani groups	271
9.4	Facts about the leadership of the Kai-rampani net groups	272
9.5	Details of capital investment in different techniques of fishing	278
9.6	Equipments of the five Big Rampani Groups	280
9.7	Equipments of the Kai-Rampani Net-groups	281
9.8	Equipments of the Patta Bale groups	282
9.9	Equipments of the Bepu (Big) establishments	284
9.10	Facts about the membership of the residents of the Paduthonse village in the Big Rampani groups	286
9.11	Facts about the membership of the residents of the Paduthonse village in the Kai-rampani groups.	288
9.12	Facts about the membership of the residents of the Paduthonse village in the Patta Bale organisations.	289
9.13	Employment and income from other techniques of sea fishing.	292

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
9.14	Employment and income from different techniques of river fishing	292
9.15	Percentage distribution of yield from different techniques of fishing in Paduthonse (1958-59).	294
9.16	Employment during different phases of Rampani season (1958-59).	295
9.17	Number of operative days under each category and the percentage of total yield	297
9.18	Yield variations for 5 Big Rampani Groups under classified operative days during the season (1958-59).	298
9.19	Yield variations for 5 Big Rampani Groups under different harvests during the season (1958-59).	300
9.20	Monthwise yield for the Kai-rampani net-groups	302
9.21	Monthwise yield of the Patta Bale groups	304
9.22	Disposal of the fish by five Big Rampani groups	306
9.23	Price variations for the yield disposed off in different harvests	307
9.24	Monthwise disposal of the yield from the Patta Bale groups	309
9.25	Average price variations for the yield disposed off by the Patta Bale groups	309
9.26	Income and expenditure of Big Rampani groups	312
9.27	Income and expenditure of the Kai-rampani groups	313
9.28	Income and expenditure of the Patta Bale groups	314
9.29	Income and expenditure of the Bepu organisations	315
10.1	Types of the non-agricultural production	320
10.2	Wage rates for digging etc. of stone blocks	321
10.3	Income and expenditure of lime-kilns	323
10.4	Value of the equipments of the aerated water factories	326
10.5	Rates charged for different types of aerated water.	327
10.6	Average per day production of aerated water	328

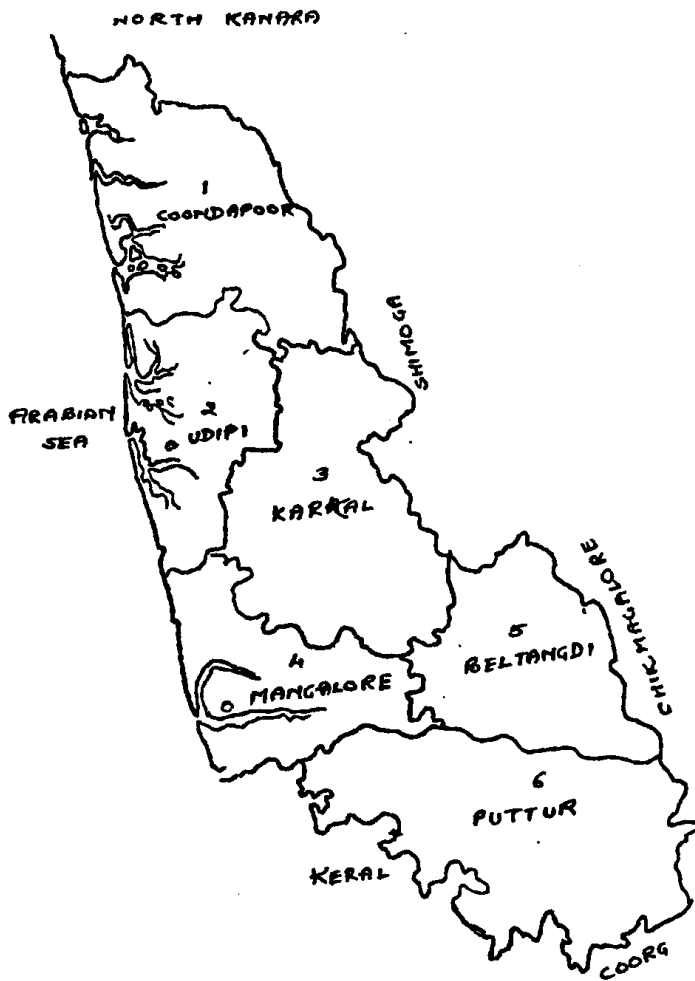
Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
10.7	Cost accounting of a Beedi factory	330
10.8	Value of the equipments of the tailors	335
10.9	A list of the stitching charges per piece and an estimate of production of different garments	337
10.10	Equipments of the Black Smith	341
10.11	Purchase of copper sheets from 1952 to 1958	348
10.12	Income and expenditure of the Furniture-making Unit	354
10.13	Equipments of the washerman	362
10.14	Number of families engaged in different processes of coir industry	369
10.15		
11.1	Trading establishments in Paduthonse	372
11.2	Sales of different commodities by three big grocers in Kemmannu	376
11.3	Yearly requirements of some important commodities by all the hotels in the village	383
11.4	Castewise distribution of the sellers	385
11.5	Distribution of the sellers according to place of origin	387
11.6	Agewise distribution of the sellers	388
11.7	Commodities brought and sold.	388
11.8	Sale of stamps, postcards, etc.	390
11.9	Arrival and dispatch of registered and insured letters	391
11.10	Arrival and dispatch of parcels	391
11.11	Arrival and dispatch of Money Orders	393
11.12	Number and amount of deposits in and withdrawals from the Savings Bank Account	394
11.13	Arrival of news papers, magazines etc.	395
12.1	General position of indebted families	398
12.2	General position of indebtedness	399
12.3	Percentage of loans outstanding to date	400
12.4	Type of loans outstanding to date	401
12.5	Percentage distribution of loans to be paid to date according to size of cultivated holding	401

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
12.6	Percentage distribution of loans to be paid to date according to income groups	402
12.7	Percentage distribution of outstanding loans due to different credit agencies	403
12.8	Percentage distribution of lendings outstanding to date according to size of cultivated holding	404
12.9	Percentage distribution of lendings outstanding to date according to income groups	404
12.10	Percentage distribution of the amount borrowed during the last twelve months according to size of cultivated holding.	405
12.11	Percentage distribution of the amount borrowed during the last twelve months according to income groups	406
12.12	Monthwise distribution of loans borrowed during last twelve months	407
12.13	Percentage distribution of loans borrowed during last twelve months according to sources.	408
12.14	Distribution of loans according to the occupation of the lender and the borrower	410
12.15	Percentage distribution of the amount of loan repaid during the last twelve months according to size of cultivated holding	411
12.16	Percentage distribution of amount of loan repaid during the last twelve months according to income groups	411
12.17	Percentage distribution of loans repaid to different credit agencies during the last twelve months.	412
12.18	Short term and long term deposits and withdrawals	414
12.19	Short term and medium term loans advanced	415
12.20	Transfer of Money	415
13.1	Annual Consumer expenditure on different items by 60 selected families	425
13.2	Average per family expenditure on regular and occasional items in different months	426
13.3	Household and luxury articles	428
13.4	Percentage of families reporting household and luxury articles	429

Table No.	Title of the table	Page No.
13.5	Percentage distribution of families according to type of utensils used for different purposes.	432
13.6	Certain practices (using footwear, razor, etc.)	434
14.1	Total income	437
14.2	Income from agriculture	438
14.3	Income from fishing	440
14.4	Income from processing and manufacture	441
14.5	Income from Trade	443
14.6	Income from Transport	445
14.7	Income from construction	445
14.8	Income from public services	446
14.9	Income from other services	446
14.10	Income from unproductive sources	447
14.11	Value of gross physical production	448
14.12	Imports and exports of rice, fish, coconuts and coir products.	449

M A P S:

No. 1	South Kanara District	1
No. 2	Udipi Taluka	2
No. 3	Paduthonse-Village Layout	15



SOUTH KANARA DIST.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1: Selection of the Village

Village Paduthonse was selected from the Udipi Taluk of South Kanara district in the Mysore State for the survey of 'Economic Change in Rural Area' in 1958-59. The selection was done with a view to studying intensively some of the socio-economic problems peculiar to a coastal village. The problems, prima facie observed, were, (i) intensive cultivation of the paddy fields, (ii) general features of the fishing occupation, (iii) coconut gardens and allied occupations, and (iv) pressure of population and out migration. In this introductory chapter we propose to present information about the physical and general conditions of the South Kanara district and those of the selected village. The data are derived from (i) District Census Hand Book of South Kanara district, 1951 and (ii) Village Records.

In selecting the village Paduthonse for the survey of 'Economic Change in Rural Area' it is important to note the departure from the usual cluster approach. As will be explained in Chapter 2.1, the villages in the coastal belt of the South Kanara district are 'spread out' in their layout. Hence it was not possible to select a cluster consisting of one nucleus village surrounded by two or three depending villages with the characteristics of a socio-economic unit. In fact a cluster of the above type is non-existent in the South Kanara coastal belt. We have therefore selected a single revenue village with a market place of its own. At the outset only, it is necessary to make it clear that the selected village is not a distinctive socio-economic unit.



1.2: General Features of the South Kanara District

Situation

South Kanara is the southern of the two coastal districts of the Mysore State, lying between 12° and 14° of the north latitude and $74^{\circ} 43'$ and $75^{\circ} 45'$ of the east longitude. The district has the North Kanara district on its north, Shimoga, Chikmagalur and Coorg on its east, the Malabar district of Kerala on its south and the Arabian Sea on its west. It is about 150 miles long (including Kasargod) and 25 miles broad except for a bulge towards the east in the taluka of Puttur on the south where the district is about 50 miles broad. (See map No. 1).

1.3: Geological Features

Modern geology has confirmed the view that the whole district is an ancient sea-bed. The district is a broken low plateau spreading from the foot of the Western Ghats to the sea, and forms a long and narrow strip of country with rapid flowing rivers. The ghats occupy the eastern part of the district from north to south with heights ranging from 2000 feet to 3000 feet with peaks rising upto 6000 feet. Nearly one half of the district is occupied by rocky mountains and inaccessible forests. Nearer the coast, the soil is more sandy and the land and climate is congenial for the growth of the coconut trees.

1.4: Rivers

On account of the situation of the ghats on the eastern part of the district, the rivers of South Kanara necessarily flow from east to west joining the Arabian Sea. The rivers and streams are numerous and with the heavy rainfall of the South-West Monsoon, the volume of water carried by these rivers is very great and the current rapid at times.

At the mouths of the rivers, there are broad estuaries in the district, namely (i) the estuary at Mangalore, at the

mouth of Netravati river, (ii) at Coondapoor, at the mouth of the river Mangoli, (iii) north of Udipi, at the mouths of the Sitanadi and Swarne-nadi, and (iv) south of Kasargod, at the mouth of the Chandragiri river. The estuaries are useful for (a) boat transport, (b) river fishing, and it can serve as a minor part.

1.5: Temperature and Rainfall

The district receives an average rainfall of about 156.26 inches per annum. June, July, August and sometimes September too, are the months of heavy rainfall. Coastal talukas of Udipi received on an average 143.13 inches of rainfall during the years 1941-51. The temperature varied between minimum of 65°F in winter to maximum of 95°F in summer.

1.6: Agricultural Situation in the District

Although the per capita cultivated land in the district comes to 55 cents, agriculture is still an important occupation of the district as the figures in table No. 1.1 reveal.

Table 1.1: Persons engaged in Different Occupations and their Dependents in South Kanara District

Occupations	Persons engaged and their dependents	% to the total population
Agriculture	1,099,787	62.9
Non-agricultural production	229,248	13.1
Commerce	117,746	6.7
Transport	33,007	1.9
Miscellaneous	269,203	15.4
Total	1,748,991	100.0

Persons engaged in agriculture and their dependents constitute 62.9 per cent of the population. Next in rank comes 'non-agricultural production' which gives employment and livelihood to 13.1 per cent of the population. It is important to

note here that the non-agricultural production mainly consists of fishing. It seems that the pressure of population on land has shifted some of its population to miscellaneous activities like coir thread preparation and other minor occupations. On the other hand, persons engaged in commerce and their dependents constitute 6.7 per cent of the total population.

As the district is mainly contained of forests and hilly regions, the land left for cultivation is considerably meagre. Nearly one-fifth of the whole area of the district is under plough, paddy being the main food-staple. Pulses like Green gram, Black gram, and Horse gram are grown in plenty. Among the commercial crops, chillies, sugarcane and gingelly are prominent though cotton and tobacco are scarcely grown. Table 1.2 shows the acreage under food crops, pulses and commercial crops for Udipi taluka and the South Kanara districts for the year 1949-50. (Table 1.2).

1.7: Density of the Population

An analysis of the census figures for 1941 and 1951 shows that the population of the district has increased by 14.9 per cent during the decade. In case of Udipi taluka, growth is 16.1 per cent for the same period. The figures show that the density for Udipi taluka is 814 persons per square mile is two times that of the district which is 436 persons per square mile.

VILLAGE PADUTONSE

1.8: Geographical Description

The village Padutonse lies at a distance of six miles to the north-west of Udipi. It lies to the south of the back water of the river Swarna. Along the sea coast, it stretches a strip of land to the north-west upto the estuary of the river Swarna at Kodi. This peninsular strip is about 200 yards, broad and 2½ miles long. From Malpe port, it is at a distance of about two miles to the north. For the revenue

Table 1.2: Acreage under Food Crops, Pulses and Commercial Crops in 1949-50

Name of the Crop	UDIPI TALUKA		SOUTH KANARA DISTRICT	
	Acreage	Percentage to the total	Acreage	Percentage to the total
<u>Food Crops</u>	84,200	85.3	546,000	90.0
Paddy	84,000	85.1	541,200	89.2
Ragi	0,200	0.2	4,800	0.8
<u>Pulses</u>	11,800	11.9	41,300	6.8
Green gram	900	0.9	8,100	1.3
Black gram	3,600	3.6	11,500	1.9
Horse gram	7,300	7.4	21,700	3.6
<u>Commercial Crops</u>	2,700	2.8	18,800	3.1
Chillies	1,000	1.1	8,800	1.5
Sugarcane	1,300	1.3	6,000	1.0
Gingelly	400	0.4	2,500	0.4
Cotton	-	-	200	-
Tobacco	-	-	1,300	0.2
Total	98,700	100.0	606,100	100.0

purpose, nine big and small river beds in the back-water of the Swarna, are attached to this village. A small nullah, locally called 'Keppa Todu' flows from south to the north and joins the back-water on the north. The Keppa Todu divides the village into its eastern and western portions. (See Map No.8).

Topographically, the village can be divided into four natural parts as mentioned below :-

1. A strip of sandy region along the coast where casurnia and coconut trees are grown. High density of population exists in this region.

2. A long plain of wet land for paddy, stretched evenly on both sides of the Keppa Todu on the north-south directions. There are no residences on this plain as Monsoon flood inundates the area.

3. Reddish soil and sand mixed dry land on the eastern border of the village, where the market place is situated.

4. Clay and sand mixed river beds of the back-water.

1.9: Type of Land and Ownership of Land

According to the revenue records, the area of the village is 1609.73 acres. The census report has put it at 2.52 square miles. There is no Inam land in the village. About 63 per cent of the land is owned by the private individuals and the rest mostly are under roads, rivers, etc. by the Government. Table 1.3 shows the type of land and its ownership.

Table 1.3 : Land Ownership in the Village

Type of	Owned by the individuals (acres)	Owned by the Government (acres)	Total (acres)
Paddy fields	299.90	6.99	306.89
Coconut groves	493.55	0.72	494.27
Forest and uncultivable high land	214.08	52.45	266.53
Land under roads, rivers, or under any public utility	-	542.04	542.04
Total	1007.53	602.20	1609.73

Table 1.4: Crop pattern of the village Paduthonse from 1954-55 to 1957-58

Name of the Crop	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58
Paddy	442.00 (39.8)	447.00 (39.8)	447.00 (39.6)	452.00 (39.1)
1st crop	250.00	250.00	250.00	254.00
2nd crop	117.00	122.00	122.00	123.00
3rd crop	75.00	75.00	75.00	75.00
Coconuts	449.00 (43.6)	488.00 (43.5)	488.00 (43.3)	489.00 (42.3)
Sugarcane	12.00	10.00	10.00	12.00
Vegetables	20.00	25.00	25.00	15.00
Sweet-potato	5.00	5.00	5.00	10.00
Casurina	113.00 (10.1)	113.00 (10.1)	113.00 (10.0)	123.00 (10.6)
Chilly	5.00	5.00	5.00	10.00
Black-gram	10.00	5.00	10.00	15.00
Horse-gram	10.00	10.00	10.00	15.00
Green-gram	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
Alsand-gram	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
Total	1120.00 (100.00)	1123.00 (100.0)	1129.00 (100.0)	1135.00 (100.0)

Note: Figures in brackets are percentages of bottom totals

1.10: Crop Pattern

During 1957-58, it was reported that in all 1155 acres of land was under crop, out of which 123 acres of land was cropped twice and 75 acres of land, three times in the year. Table 1.4 shows the cropping pattern of the area under cultivation for the survey year 1957-58. Data for the years 1954-55 to 1957-58 showed that 39.1 per cent of the total cultivated area is under paddy while 42.3 per cent is under coconut gardens. Casurina and other fuel trees have occupied 10.6 per cent of the cultivated land. Pulses, vegetables and sugarcane are minor crops. The pattern of cropping has not changed much since 1954-55.

1.11: Population

According to the 1951 census, the population of the village was 4,803. The females were in excess of males by 19 per cent. 54.9 per cent of the males and 21.6 per cent of the females were literate. Further 36.8 per cent of the village population was literate. Table 1.5 gives information about houses, total number of persons enumerated and literacy of the population in respect of the village Paduthonse and Udipi Taluka.

Table 1.5: Information about Houses and Persons in Paduthonse and Udipi Taluka according to 1951 census

	Area in square miles	Occupied Houses		Total number of persons Enumerated			Literates	
		No. of houses	No. of house-holds	Per-sons	Males	Fe-males	Males	Fe-males
Paduthonse	2.52	800	887	4803	2194	2609	1207	560
Udipi Taluk	352.79	41431	45346	270108	125611	144497	44387	23587

1.12: Occupational Pattern

In table 1.6 census data are given in respect of persons

Table 1.6: Occupational Pattern of the Village, Taluka and the District, according to 1951 census

	Village Paduthonse		Udipi Taluka		South Kanara District	
	Persons engaged and their dependents	% to the total	Persons engaged and their dependents	% to the total	Persons engaged and their dependents	% to the total
Agriculture	2,033	42.5	202,101	74.8	1,099,787	62.9
Non-agricultural productions	1,543	32.1	50,526	11.3	229,248	13.1
Commerce	453	9.4	12,622	4.7	117,746	6.7
Transport	339	7.1	2,758	1.0	53,007	1.9
Other services and miscellaneous sources	435	9.1	22,101	8.2	269,203	15.4
Total	4,803	100.0	270,108	100.0	1,748,991	100.0

engaged and their dependents in different occupations. Further, the village figures are compared with the taluka and district figures. It is seen that the occupations other than agriculture are more important in this village than they are in respect of the taluka and the district. Table 1.7 gives

Table 1.7: Livelihood classes in Paduthonse, Udipi Taluka and South Kanara District according to 1951 census

Persons and their dependents who derive their principal means of livelihood from		Paduthonse	Udipi Taluka	South Kanara District
Cultivation of land wholly or mainly owned	Males	221	17,088	86,259
	Females	249	19,710	90,751
Cultivation of land wholly or mainly unowned	Males	276	52,188	285,060
	Females	322	53,488	303,957
Cultivation labour	Males	355	17,625	119,119
	Females	441	24,663	149,807
Non-cultivating owners of land	Males	81	5,458	30,072
	Females	88	6,883	34,762
Production other than cultivation	Males	716	15,215	115,662
	Females	827	15,761	113,536
Commerce	Males	198	5,761	57,210
	Females	255	6,861	60,536
Transport	Males	174	1,561	17,452
	Females	165	1,197	15,555
Other services and miscellaneous sources	Males	273	10,717	130,175
	Females	362	11,384	139,025

stratified data for the persons engaged and their dependents, for different livelihood classes such as agriculture, non-agricultural production, commerce, transport and the miscellaneous sources of income. The village figures are compared with the consolidated figures for the taluka and the district.

1.13: Market Place

There is a market place on the north-eastern border of the village. The part of the village where now the market has developed is locally called by the name 'Kemmannu'. Kemmannu claims two higher elementary schools, a sub-post office, a cinema house, a Catholic Church, two dispensaries and other shops. An approach road from Kemmannu connects the Udipi-Coondapoor highway at Santekatte, at a distance of 2½ miles to the south-east border of the village. Since 1956, buses are running between Udipi and Kemmannu.

During 1955-56, a market yard was constructed by the Panchayat Board, mainly for the sale of fresh fish during the season. Once in a week, that is on every Thursday, a weekly market for the vegetables is held at the same place. Retail fish market is held every evening during the fish season.

1.14: Transport and Communications

As the district is not favoured with the railway lines due to natural reasons, people mainly depend upon road transport for internal communications. Taluka place Udipi, and district place Mangalore are approached by various road links from Kemmannu. Mangalore Railway Terminus on Mangalore-Cochin Coast-line, at a distance of 44 miles, from the village, so to say, is the nearest railway station, which serves the distant travellers to the southern most part of the country, which is said to be on a very small scale. In fact, Harihar railway station on Poona-Bangalore rail track, which lies at a distance of 144 miles from Udipi, serves the major portion of the population who mainly go to Bombay. The nearest port to the village is Malpe, at a distance of three miles south to the southern border of the village. During non-monsoon months, once in a week, steamer service is available to the passengers from Malpe to go to Bombay.

-: CHAPTER II :-

-: VILLAGE LAYOUT :-

2.1 A 'Spread Out' Village:

The village Paduthonse is what is known as a 'spread out' village where residential houses are scattered throughout the village area. The main characteristics of a spread out village in the coastal belt of the South Kanara district are as mentioned below. In the first place, residential houses are built at the elevated places of coconut groves and casurina fields so that the danger from inundation of the dwellings from the Monsoon floods is avoided. Secondly, there seems to be a relationship between the situation of the dwellings and the nearness of the source of livelihood for the dwellers. For example, we observe the coconut thatched huts of the fishermen communities along the coast line while the well-to-do cultivating classes like Bants and Brahmins stay in houses along the paddy fields. The houses of those engaged in secondary occupations like fish processing or coir thread spinning and rope making, mix up with the dwellings of the fishermen or coconut gardeners as the case permits them to do so. In the third instance, factors like the caste groups and the occupation groups determine different localities in the same village which are connected by a common link like a 'market place' in the economic sense and by a temple or a mosque or a church in the social sense. There are instances to quote when these two links functioned mutually, as it happened in case of Udipi, where a big market place developed just around the famous Krishna temple. In the fourth place, the market place so developed extends its services to some of the localities belonging to the neighbouring villages as they happen to be in the border. Sometime it comes about the other way, say, the localities at the other end of the village may be attached to the market place belonging to the

neighbouring village. The tendency of a locality in a village leaning towards the market place of the own or the other village is guided by the distance of the market place in consideration from the locality. Factors like good transport system, combined with centrally situated location influence the development of a market place. Some times the market place may be situated at the centre of four or five villages and that factor is considered as very congenial for development. Fifthly, the availability of drinking water at any spot with little effort has greatly favoured the spreading nature of the dwellings though other reasons like constant attention warranted by the perennial crops like coconut groves or a primary occupation like fishing could have influenced the 'spread out' to a considerable extent.

2.2 Localities in a spread out village:

As understood above, broadly speaking, factors like caste groups and the occupation groups decide the demarcation of different localities in the same village. But in the pure sense of the term, practically no locality can be qualified by a single caste groups or a single occupation group. This is because, in the first place, the major caste group in the locality allows in, in the course of time, the other caste groups the presence of which, it may be believed, will not harm the interests of the existing caste group. Some time the appearance of other caste group may be inevitable, as the services of the 'guest' caste group are required for the occupation followed by the 'host' caste group. Secondly, opportunities for ancillary occupations in the locality may break the occupation group. Generally this 'mixing up' process is both way influenced.

The main characteristics of a locality in a coastal village, as they exist presently, are described in short below. In the first place, one or two major caste groups are predominant in the localities. The other minor caste

groups would be such that in culture and social habits they differ very little from the major caste groups. Secondly one or two major occupations, determined by the physical resources, are predominant in the locality. The other minor occupations would be such that they are ~~in~~ either ancillary or secondary in nature to the major occupations. Thirdly, residents of one locality may seek employment in the neighbouring locality where the nature of physical resources or other conditions create more employment opportunities than in their own localities. But the residents concerned, in the short run, rarely move their residences to the locality where employment is available, because they have either relative interests in their own localities or the employment opportunities available in the other localities are seasonal or temporary. Fourthly, interlocality contact is determined by the caste-cum-occupation relationship prevailing between two localities. Fifthly, temple, mosque or church links the different religious groups residing in different localities, while the 'market place' or the locality where the marketing operations are prevalent links the residents of different localities irrespective of their caste or occupation. Usually it is the market place which is connected with the approach road linking the highway. Some time the market locality develops along the road side. In the last place, localities at the village borders establish inter-village socio-economic link. It is not necessary that a locality should limit its 'spread out' within the revenue boundaries of a village. A single locality may spread out half in one village and half in the neighbouring village.

The above characteristics of the localities in a 'spread out' village in the coastal belt of the South Kanara district suggest that it is wrong to qualify a village as a socio-economic unit. The revenue boundary of a village is demarcated according to the convenience of the revenue Department. Our present study, therefore, is limited to different localities

PADUTONSE
 Layout of the Village



coming under a revenue unit. In the forthcoming paragraphs we describe the layout and the ecological pattern in different localities of the village Paduthonse and shall try to establish the inter locality link as well as inter village link with a view to knowing to what extent this revenue unit fulfills the qualifications of a socio-economic unit.

2.3 Localities in Paduthonse:

In the present section, it is intended to describe the various localities in the village pointing out their socio-economic significance. In the first instance, the localities as they exist presently will be listed and their history of original settlement will be traced in brief wherever possible. However, it was found that many localities were mixed up with the neighbouring localities in such a manner that the identification of the localities separately was made impossible. And it was also felt that the localities were too numerous to treat separately. So, in the second place, we have grouped the small localities with the neighbouring localities wherever conditions permitted us to do so. In formation of such groups we have made it a point to merge only those localities which are similar in case of their respective caste groups and/or occupation groups. Thirdly, we deal with the caste groups in different localities which are grouped. Fourthly, data regarding the occupation groups in different localities will be presented. Fifthly, families living in different localities will be classified according to their economic status. In the sixth place, various religious institutes in the village will be spotted to explain the social link established between main religious groups scattered in different localities. In the seventh place, location of the various educational institutes will be explained with the social and historical background. In the eighth place, the inter-locality

contact in relation to the transport system within the village is explained. In the last place, the location of the market place with its historic and economic background is sought an explanation.

In table 2.1 is presented a list of different localities as they exist presently in the village Paduthonsé. The information about the historic origin of settlement and other matters of social significance were gathered wherever possible. For that purpose, the Research Assistant paid an informal visit to different parts of the village and made enquiries as regards the existing social significance and the past history of the place, if known. The final listing presented some 17 localities, big and small, distinguishing themselves from the neighbouring localities in their characteristics. The different localities in the village are as described in table 2.1.

We have shown in the tables the families distributed over different localities which are grouped for the purpose of simplicity. For example we have treated Timman Kudru, Baligar Kudru, Sinnesi Kudru and Guder Kambla as one locality. This arrangement is done to avoid unnecessary details about too many localities. We shall give here below a list of the localities so grouped and in future, unless otherwise stated, we refer to a group of localities by the Roman number which indicates that group.

Localities Grouped:

- I The islands: Timman Kudru, Baligar Kudru, Guder Kambala & Sinnesi Kudru.
- II Padukudru : Padu Kudru and Gazani.
- III Kambla Thota Kambala Thota.
- IV Kemmennu : Kemmannu
- V Gulibettu : Guli Bettu
- VI Adda Bengre: Adda Bengre, Pinter Kudru, Parengi Kudru, Pilli Parengi Kudru.
- VII Hoođe : Hoođe.
- VIII Gujjar Bettu Gujjar Bettu, Kandig and Tenka Hoođe.

TABLE 2.1 : Localities in Paduthonse.

Name of locality	Situation and short description.	Houses		Type of soil	Area under coconut (acres)	Area under paddy (acres)	Major occupation	Major caste group
		residential	Non-residential					
Sinnesi Kudru	Small island in the river Swarna to the north east corner of the village.	8	-	alluvium	11.05	-	coconut cultivation	Catholic Christians
Timmen Kudru	Medium sized island at the north east corner	39	-	alluvium	29.76	-	coconut cultivation	Sayyad Muslims
Balliger Kudru	Medium sized island situated to the north of Padukudru.	25	-	alluvium	31.39	-	Coir products, coconut cultivation.	Billavas
Guder Kambla	Small island, north of Hoode	11	-	alluvium	10.68	-	coir products	Billavas
Padukudru	Biggest island situated at the north east corner of the village.	107	1	alluvium with black soil	24.56	75.90	Paddy cultivation	Marijans, Brahmins, Christians
Gazani	Tiny island at the west of Padukudru	7	-	alluvium with sand	10.03	-	coconut cultivation	Christians
Kambla Thota	North eastern corner of the main land.	76	-	Blakish sand	15.68	39.26	coconut cultivation	Christians
Kemmannu	South of Kambla Thota	50	41	Red soil with sand	21.76	45.75	Market place	Miscellaneous
Guli Bettu	South east corner of the village.	not available	-	Red soil with sand	55.77	65.84	Paddy cultivation	Bants
Adda Bengre	Peninsular strip at the north west corner of the village.	141	-	Sand	41.86	-	Fishing	Mogavirs
Parengikudru	Tinny islands in the back water to the south east of Adda Bengre.	6	-	Alluvium with sand	Not available	-	Coconut cultivation	Catholic Christians
Finter kudru		2	-					
Pilli Parenjikudru		3	-					
Hoode	North-west corner of the main land	216	-	Sand	94.66	21.21	Cocconut cultivation, coir, fishing	Navayat Muslims and Mogavirs.
Gujjar Bettu	South west corner of the village.	178	-	Sand	34.45	Not available	Fishing and paddy cultivation	Mogavirs, Marijans, Brahmins
Kandige								
Tenka Hoode								

2.4 Location of Castes:

It seems to be important to see how far a particular caste group dominates a particular locality. It is also desirable to know the pattern of the different caste groups in a particular locality, assuming that any socio-economic change would result in a change in the pattern due to out-migration of a particular caste group and in-migration of another caste group. In table 2.2, we present data as regards the distribution of the families in different localities according to caste groups. To start with, we shall see how each ethnic group like a religious group is distributed over different localities. We had three broad ethnic groups like Hindus, Muslims and Christians. Secondly, we shall see how the sub-groups of these broad ethnic groups are distributed over different localities, and see the relationship between a sub-group and its broader ethnic group.

The figures in table 2.2, reveal that about 56 per cent. of the families belong to the Hindu religion giving it a majority over the combined strength of the rest of the two religious groups, viz. Muslims and Christians. Muslim families constitute about 27 percent of the total number of families in the village and their strength is nearly half that of the Hindus. Last come the Christians who constitute only 17 percent of the total number of families.

The figures in table 2.2, further reveal that Hindus are scattered over all the localities in the village and they are prominent in five of the eight localities.

The Muslims stay in all localities except in Kambla Thota. They are predominant in locality VII. In Adda Bengre, they are half of the Hindus and in locality I, they share the majority equally with the Hindus. The Christians reside in all the localities and they constitute the major group in Kambla Thota.

TABLE 2.2: Distribution of the Families according to Castes in Different Localities.

Religion and Caste.	L O C A L I T I E S								T O T A L
	I The Islands	II Padukudru	III KambalThota	IV Kammanu	V Gulibettu	VI Adda Bengre	VII Hoode	VIII Gujjar Bettu	
HINDUS	31 (3.2)	64 (6.7)	27 (2.8)	44 (4.6)	80 (8.3)	101 (10.5)	62 (6.5)	123 (13.3)	537 (55.9)
Brahmins	-	15 (1.6)	-	3 (0.3)	2 (0.2)	-	-	16 (1.7)	36 (3.7)
G.S.Brahmins	-	-	-	5 (0.5)	5 (0.5)	-	-	-	10 (1.0)
Maratha	-	-	-	1 (0.1)	-	-	-	-	1 (0.1)
Bent	-	-	-	9 (0.9)	32 (3.3)	-	1 (0.1)	-	42 (4.4)
Billava	20 (2.1)	-	14 (1.5)	12 (1.2)	17 (1.8)	32 (3.3)	37 (3.8)	32 (3.3)	164 (17.1)
Belfad	6 (0.6)	3 (0.3)	11 (1.1)	5 (0.5)	10 (1.0)	-	6 (0.6)	9 (0.9)	50 (5.2)
V.K.Brahmin	-	1 (0.1)	-	1 (0.1)	2 (0.2)	-	-	-	4 (0.4)
Madiwal	-	-	-	3 (0.3)	-	-	-	-	3 (0.3)
Bhendari	-	-	-	-	1 (0.1)	-	-	-	1 (0.1)
Davadiga	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)
Ganig	1 (0.1)	9 (0.9)	2 (0.2)	2 (0.2)	5 (0.5)	-	-	1 (0.1)	20 (2.1)
Mogavir	-	7 (0.7)	-	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)	56 (5.8)	18 (1.9)	39 (4.1)	122 (12.7)
Karvi	-	-	-	-	-	13 (1.3)	-	-	13 (1.3)
Koosa	4 (0.4)	29 (3.0)	-	2 (0.2)	2 (0.2)	-	-	30 (3.1)	67 (7.0)
Korga	-	-	-	-	3 (0.3)	-	-	-	3 (0.3)
MUSLIMS	31 (3.2)	6 (0.6)	-	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)	47 (4.9)	148 (15.4)	25 (2.6)	259 (26.9)
Sayyad	23 (2.4)	6 (0.6)	-	1 (0.1)	-	-	2 (0.2)	1 (0.1)	33 (3.4)
Navayat	8 (0.8)	-	-	-	-	46 (4.8)	146 (15.2)	21 (2.2)	221 (23.0)
Byari	-	-	-	-	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)	-	3 (0.3)	5 (0.5)
CHRISTIANS	21 (2.2)	44 (4.6)	49 (5.1)	5 (0.5)	11 (1.1)	4 (0.4)	6 (0.6)	25 (2.6)	165 (17.2)
Roman Catholic	21 (2.2)	44 (4.6)	49 (5.1)	5 (0.5)	11 (1.1)	4 (0.4)	6 (0.6)	25 (2.6)	165 (17.2)
TOTAL	85 (8.6)	114 (11.9)	76 (7.9)	50 (5.2)	92 (9.6)	152 (15.8)	216 (22.5)	178 (18.5)	961 (100.0)

NOTE: Figures in the brackets are percentages of total number of families in the village.

The major caste groups among Hindus may be listed in two ways. Firstly, they may be ranked according to their physical strength in the village. Secondly, they may be ranked according to their social status. When ranked according to physical strength, Billavas come first constituting nearly one third of the Hindu population. Further, they are followed by Mogavirs, Koosas (Harijans), Beljadas, Bants, Brahmins and Ganigs. When ranked according to social status enjoyed, Brahmins take the lead followed by Bants, Ganigs, Billavas, Beljadas, Mogavirs and Koosas. The understanding of these two things seems to be important while studying the intermixture of various caste groups in a particular locality.

Brahmins, who constitute 3.7 percent of the total households are present in four localities but are concentrated in two localities only which seem to be their original places and have established their religious institutes like temples. After the development of the Kemmannu locality as a market place, it seems that some five families established their households there. Of these 5 families, 3 shifted from Kandige and 2 were in-migrants from the neighbouring villages, for profession.

In Kandige, the Brahmins are confronting the Mogavirs and Koosas (Harijans) in the west and Christians in the north. However, the Kandige locality where the Brahmins are in majority is compact and only large scale infringements from the other caste groups seems to be unlikely in the near future. Brahmins have tolerated the near presence of the low caste groups like Koosas and Billavas, because (i) those low caste groups serve as the main source of the agricultural labour which the Brahmins require for their main occupation and (ii) the low caste groups have accepted the superiority of the social status of the Brahmins. In Padukudru Brahmins live by the side of Koosas and Christians. Koosas serve as the main source of cultivation labour to both Brahmins and Christians. In contrast

to the Brahmins^{of} Kandige, Brahmins of Padukudru came in near contact with an advanced caste group like that of Christians. Though these two major caste groups keep aloof from each other in case of social matters, they came in close contact whenever economic things are concerned. Both the caste groups are mutually respected as regards their social status. Among other things, both share a common point like exploiting the Koosas' labour for cultivation purposes. There is one more contrast between the two major Brahmin localities, as regards the social contact. Brahmins in Kandige come in near contact with the Bants because their operation field is inter-mixed, while the Brahmins in Padukudru never come in contact with the Bants as far as their operation is concerned.

Next in status is the Bants' caste group which is concentrated in Kemmannu and Gulibettu. The Bants' locality is infringed by the Billavas and to some extent by Beljadas, who are allowed in as they supplied the main source of cultivation labour to the Bants. The other minor castes which are living in Bants' localities are scattered in the dry land of eastern part, having no socio-economic contact with the major caste of the locality. Their major interest lies in the adjoining place where a market is developing.

Then come the Ganigs whose traditional occupation was vegetable oil pressing. Though Ganigs are supposed to be superior to Billavas and Beljadas in social status, their scattered appearance in different localities with little strength has given them unimportant socio-economic consideration.

Billavas' is the major caste group among Hindus spreading over all the localities except in Padukudru. There is a superstitious belief among the Billavas that if any member of its caste spends a night in Padukudru, it will bring about disaster to the individual concerned. So goes the reason for their conspicuous absence in Padukudru. Billavas have concentrated in localities where cultivation of land or fishing

is prominent. They serve the main source of labour to cultivators as well as fishermen to cure the fish. They are also self-engaged in tapping which is their traditional occupation. As they are spread over in different localities, they have come in social contact with almost all the major caste groups and religious groups in the village. In Kemmannu and Gulibettu, they are mixed with the Bants with whom they have socio-economic contacts from the tradition. It is often said that a Billava is a right-hand man of the Bant. What is implied here is that the Bant has become predominant only because he is physically supported by the Billava. It also implies the traditional master-servant relationship of the Bants and Billavas. It seems that the contact of the Billavas with other communities like Mogavirs, Christians and Muslims in other localities is of recent origin.

Beljadas or Malayali Billavas, whose traditional occupation is preparing jaggery out of palmyra juice, are scattered over all the localities except in Adda Bengre. Usually they are found mixed up with Billavas whenever possible as they originally belong to the same caste group differed on regional basis. It seems that Beljadas are in-migrants from Kerala, as they speak a corrupt form of Malayalam at home. Many of them are still following their traditional occupation. It can be seen from the data presented in the table that the Beljada families are concentrated in the localities like Kambla Thota, Gulibettu and Hoode where palmyra trees are present.

Mogavirs, the major fishermen caste group, is concentrated on the coast line in Gujjarbettu, Hoode and Adda Bengre. In Gujjarbettu and Adda Bengre they constitute the major caste group and in Hoode they are confronted with an overwhelming Muslim majority.

Koosas or Harijans are present in five localities. However, they are concentrated in two localities, namely Padukudru and Gujjarbettu, mostly engaged in cultivation and fish curing

labour. Some of the Koosas in Padukudru are engaged in river fishing also. In Padukudru, Koosas have settled on land owned by Brahmins and Christians on 'free tenancy' system while in Gujjarbettu government has allotted some free land for their settlement. In Padukudru they are confronting a superior caste like Brahmins and an enlightened caste like Christians, while in Kandige, they confront the Mogavirs, Muslims & Brahmins.

As mentioned in the beginning of this sub section, in this paragraph we shall try to see the general tendency of the layout of the minor caste groups like G.S. Brahmins, Maratha, V.K. Brahmins, Madiwal, Bhandari, Devadiga and Koraga. We shall see from the table 2.1 that most of these castes are present only in Kemmannu and Gulibettu around the market place. Many of these minor castes have no interest either in land or sea. Therefore they have undertaken some odd jobs which have no connection with cultivation or fishing. That may be the reason why they flocked together in the area nearer the market place. However, an exceptional case is that of a Devadiga family which has appeared in Gujjarbettu locality. The traditional occupation of the Devadiga is to render service in a temple. As most of the Brahmin temples are located in Kandige (Gujjarbettu group) the Devadiga was not attracted by the market locality. The general conclusion may be drawn as to say that the minor castes whose occupations are unconnected with only primary production or processing have a tendency to locate nearer the market place. That seems to be the reason why we come across so many caste groups in Kemmannu and Gulibettu.

Location of Muslims and their sub-castes:

Muslims are present in all localities except in Kambla Thot. Mainly three sub-castes among the Muslims were observed among the Muslims, namely, Sayyad, Navayat and Byari. Sayyad Muslims were in absolute majority in Timman Kudru and were thinly scattered over Padukudru, Kemmannu, Gujjarbettu and Hoode. Navayat Muslims dominated the Hoode locality and they were also prominent in Adda Bengre and Gujjarbettu. Byari Muslims were very few in strength & were thinly scattered in the coastal localities

Christians:

Among the Christians, only Roman Catholic were present in the village. Catholic Christians were present in all the localities without any exception. However, they were in an absolute majority in Kambla Thota and their prominence was observed ⁱⁿ the islands, Padukudru and Gujjarbettu. They are mixed with Billaves in Sinnesi Kudru and Baliger Kudru Farengi Kudru and Pinter Kudru. In Padukudru, they are confronting Brahmins and Koosas, two extremities of Hindu caste system. In Kambla Thota, they have allowed the infringement of Billaves and Beljadas to a considerable extent. In Gujjarbettu, they serve as a buffer between the Brahmins locality in the south and the Muslims locality in the north.

2.5 Location of Occupations:

Table 2.3 gives the distribution of the families in different localities according to the main occupation of the family. Topography and the physical conditions seem to be the deciding factors of the location of occupation groups in case of primary production activities like agriculture and fishing. Agriculture is an important occupation in Gulibettu, Kemmannu and Kambla Thota, because these localities confront a vast strip of paddy fields. Gujjarbettu and Hoode are less important as regards agriculture because these localities, though they face the strip of paddy fields referred above, they face the sea coast in the west and the importance of the fishing has gone up as against that of the agriculture. In Adda Bengre, because of the scarcity of land and availability of opportunities in other sectors, the importance of the agriculture has gone down to a considerable extent. In case of the islands and Padukudru the availability of other opportunities has put the agricultural sector in balance.

In the case of fishing, Adda Bengre and Gujjarbettu dominate and in Hoode the importance of the fishing is more than balanced by the appearance of opportunities for non-agricultural production. As Padukudru faces the vast back water

Table 2.3 : Percentage Distribution of the Families according to occupation groups in different localities

Occupation Groups :	<u>Localities</u>							TOTAL	
	The Islands	Padu Kudru	Kambila Thota	Kemmannu	Guli Bettu	Adda Bengre	Hooche		Gujjar Bettu
1. Agriculture	43.3	36.8	48.6	34.0	44.5	9.2	15.3	25.3	27.6
2. Fishing	2.4	20.2	5.3	-	4.3	57.2	19.4	43.8	25.1
3. Non-agricultural Production etc.	27.7	21.0	11.8	20.0	20.6	11.8	29.2	8.4	18.8
4. Trade	7.2	4.4	1.3	8.0	3.3	10.5	13.9	4.5	7.6
5. Transport	10.8	8.8	6.6	2.0	5.4	4.6	9.7	1.7	6.3
6. Services	6.0	5.3	2.6	25.0	8.7	3.9	5.5	5.6	6.4
7. Unproductive sources	2.4	3.5	23.7	10.0	13.0	2.6	6.9	10.7	8.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

of the river Swarna, river fishing is facilitated in that locality. Very few families engaged in fishing or fish curing as the main occupation have infringed in the non-coastal localities like the islands, Kambla Thota etc, because either they have/^{not}got residential accommodation in the coastal localities or they must have other interests in settling there.

Concentration or non-concentration of the non-agricultural production activity is also related to the availability of the opportunities for development of such activity in a particular locality. For example, in Hoode development of the coir spinning and rope making was possible due to the nearness of the back water with low depth for retting the husk. But this seems to provide a partial reason towards the concentration of the non-agricultural production. Apart from the availability of opportunities for development of such industries, general poverty in a particular locality also seems to be an important cause for the development of such industries as they provide employment during the off season. In the islands and Padukudru and to some extent in Adda Bengre also, coir fibre is imported for spinning purpose. Of course, the concentration of other non-agricultural productions like palmyra jaggery and neera, lime kiln production, will be explained by the first cause only.

In the case of wholesale commodity trade, Hoode and to some extent Adda Bengre too seem to be the venues of transaction. In respect of consumer goods transaction, a majority of the shop premises are concentrated in Kemmannu. But, as the owners of the shop premises resided in the islands, Padukudru and Culibettu, the figures in the table do not reveal the concentration of the trade activity in Kemmannu. However, taking for granted the concentration of trade activity in Kemmannu, the figures reveal the share of that activity by the residents of different localities. In respect of transport activities, the concentration is in those localities which border the back water of the river Swarna. Secondly, transport activity is

About the services, as it was in case of the trade in consumer goods, the venue of operation is Kemmannu and the owners of the premises of different services are residing in different localities. Those who earn their living mainly from unproductive sources are scattered in all the localities though in KamblaThota, their number is significantly high.

2.6 Location of the Classes based on Economic Status:

In table 2.4 we have presented data regarding the distribution of the families according to the size of income in different localities. For the purpose of analysis we are classifying the families into 5 classes based on economic status. Our classification of the economic classes is arbitrary and is guided by the common sense. For instance, those families whose annual income comes below Rs.250/-, they will be brought under the term 'very poor' at the bottom of the economic classes. Next come the 'poor' class families whose size of income is above Rs.250 and below Rs.750. The third grade of the economic class is named as 'lower middle class' and the families coming under this class earn an income between Rs.750 to Rs.1500. The fourth category is that of the 'upper middle class' families whose income ranges from Rs.1500 to Rs.3500. Those who earn more than Rs.3500 are classed as 'Rich' and are at the top of the economic classes.

Figures in table 2.4 reveal that the families falling under 'poor' and 'Lower middle' classes form the bulk of the population constituting 78.7 percent of the total number of families. A considerable number of families constituting 12.4 percent of the total families are classed as 'very poor'. Only 7.1 percent and 1.8 percent of the total families could climb up the range of 'upper middle' class and 'rich' class respectively. Our main task is to see the respective strength of these class groups in different localities. In the first instance, an assumption is that the economic status of the families is influenced, to some extent, by the forces existing

Table 2.4 : Percentage Distribution of the Families According to Economic Status

	The Islands	Padukudru	Kambla Thota	Kemmannu	Guli Bettu	Adda Bengre	Hoode	Gujjar Bettu	Total
Very Poor Upto Rs.250	7.2	7.9	10.5	8.0	16.3	22.3	15.7	5.1	12.4
Poor Rs.251 to Rs.750.	51.9	62.3	51.0	36.0	46.7	59.3	46.8	58.9	53.3
Lower middle class Rs.751/- Rs.1500/.	25.3	21.1	30.3	34.0	25.0	10.5	29.6	31.5	25.4
Upper Middle class Rs.1501 to Rs.3500.	13.2	4.3	3.9	20.0	7.6	7.9	6.5	3.4	7.1
Rich -above Rs.3501	2.4	4.4	1.3	2.0	4.4	-	1.4	1.1	1.8
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

in their respective localities. It may be due to (i) the paying capacity of the major occupations in that locality and (ii) the 'other' advantages or disadvantages of the locality concerned influencing the size of the income of the families residing therein. We could observe from the data given in table 2.4 that in Kemmannu, due to the advantages of the market and transport facilities, the opportunities for different services which are more paying than the primary production were present. And also, due to the same advantages, the nature of the non-agricultural production could have been more paying than in other localities. These two explanations may serve as the reason for the Kemmannu locality recording the highest percentage of lower and upper middle classes and the lowest percentage of the 'poor' classes. On the other hand, Adda Bengre lacks in opportunities for development of any paying occupation on a considerable scale due to its physical conditions and the absence of land transport might have adversely affected the economic status of the families residing in that locality. The Adda Bengre, therefore, records the highest percentages in 'very poor' and 'poor' classes and lowest in 'lower middle class'. As there were opportunities in commodity transactions like fish dealing and coconut dealing, some 7.9 per cent of the families, it seems, could cross the margin of the lower middle class and come to the status of 'higher middle class'. Under the circumstances existing, the absence of the 'rich' class in that locality has no cause for surprise.

Following the two extreme cases mentioned above, data about the other localities also reveal that the economic status of the families in a particular locality is determined by the nature of the employment opportunities and the transport system. In the cases of KamblaThota, Gulibettu, Hoode and Gujjarbettu, as they are partly connected by approach roads and Padukudru is connected by a foot-bridge to the market locality. The islands are practically isolated from the main land but for the regular boat transport conveyance. As we have seen above the major occupation groups in these localities, vary from fishing combine

with agriculture and non-agricultural production in the coastal localities to agriculture combined with services and non-agricultural occupation in the localities nearer the market place. Still we observe very little individual variations from the average as regards the predominance of different economic classes in different localities.

2.7 Location of the Linguistic Groups:

Paduthonse, like other coastal villages in the South Kanara district, is a multi-lingual village, with as many as three major tongues like Tulu, Konkani and Navayati were in usage. But as the Tulu language dominated the region, inter-lingua purposes are served by Tulu. Among the literates on the other hand, Kannada serves as an inter-lingua medium.

Data presented in table 2.5 reveals that these linguistic groups are concentrated in different localities. For example, Timman Kudru is absolutely dominated by the Hindustani speaking population and Hoode by the Navayati speaking group. This is due to the fact that in many cases language and castes are related. Konkani language is spoken by the entire Christian population and G.S.Brahmins and Karvis among the Hindus. Navayati was spoken by the Navayat Muslims while Sayyad Muslims spoke Hindustani. Billavas, Nogavirs, Bants, Koosas and some of the Brahmins used Tulu, while Ganig, Non-Tulu Brahmins spoke Kannada. Malayalam was spoken by Beljadas and Byaris among Muslims.

It seems that the main factor determining the Tulu language as the inter-lingua seems to be that the caste groups among the Hindus whose language is Tulu are spread out in all the localities. Secondly, in majority of the cases of economic contact, Tulu speaking population is approached by the Non-Tulu speakers, because the former are mainly engaged in primary occupations like cultivation and fishing. Due to the spread of education, it may be speculated that the Kannada language may slowly usurp the inter-lingua state at least in the market locality as it is happening presently in Udipi.

Table 2.5 : Percentage Distribution of the Families according to the Language Spoken in different localities.

Language	<u>Localities</u>								Total
	The Islands	Padukudru	Kambha Thota	Kemmannu	Guli bettu	Adda Bengra	Hoofo	Gujjar battu	
Tulu	28.9	39.5	18.4	60.0	65.2	50.0	25.9	62.4	43.3
Konkani	25.3	38.6	64.4	20.0	17.4	11.2	2.8	14.0	19.6
Navayati	9.6	-	-	-	-	30.3	67.6	11.8	23.0
Hindustani	27.7	5.3	-	2.0	-	-	0.9	0.6	3.4
Kannada	1.2	14.0	2.6	6.0	5.4	7.9	-	4.5	4.9
Marathi	-	-	-	2.0	-	-	-	-	0.1
Malayalam	7.2	2.6	14.5	10.0	11.9	0.7	2.8	6.7	5.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.8 Location of the Religious Institutes:

Religious institutes like temples, mosques and church seem to be situated nearer the localities of the respective caste groups, though, in some cases, the exceptions are there. Of the six Brahmins temples five are in Kandige Math and one is in Padukudru. The other Non-Brahmin temples of the Hindus are situated along the coast. There are two Bhajana Mandirs or 'Praying rooms' for non-Brahmin Hindus in Gujjarbettu, one for Mogavirs and the other for the Billavas.

For Muslims, there are two mosques, 'Kadeem Jumma Masjid' and 'Jadidi Jumma Masjid'. 'Kadeem Jumma Masjid' meant for Navayat Muslims of Hoode, is situated in the same locality. Jadidi Numma Masjid of Sayyad Muslims of Timman Kudru is situated in the northern border of Gujjarbettu.

The Catholic Church is situated in the extended part of the Kemmannu locality in Mudthonse village. It is exactly on the eastern border of the Kemmannu market road.

2.9 Location of the Educational Institutes:

There are two Higher Elementary Schools and two elementary schools in the Paduthonse area. The two higher elementary schools, namely, Kemmannu Aided Higher Elementary School, and St. Philomena Higher Elementary School are situated side by side in the Kemmannu locality. Of the two elementary schools, the Kandige Elementary School, the pioneer institute of the village is situated in the Kandige locality and the Board Hindustani Elementary School, run by the District Educational Board is situated in Hoode.

Apart from the schools situated in the Paduthonse village boundary, it seems desirable to make a mention of those which are situated on the border localities of the surrounding villages. There is one Fisheries Elementary School in Bengre adjoining Adda Bengre locality and Thottam Elementary School is situated at a distance of only one mile away from the southern border of the village. In the extended part of the Kemmannu locality, within the premises of the St. Philomena Church, there is situated one

Labour Elementary School meant for the depressed caste students. Again, in Mudu Kudru island of the Mudthonse locality, there is a lower elementary school.

The elementary schools spread out in different localities seem to serve the locality where they are situated and sometimes the neighbouring localities where such school facilities are not available. Again these elementary schools serve as feeder institutions for the Higher Elementary Schools situated in the Kemmannu locality. An advantage with the Kemmannu locality may be that it is centrally situated for majority of the feeding institutions mentioned above.

2.10 Internal Conveyance system:

Internal conveyance within a locality or from locality to locality is mainly carried out by the (i) foot paths going through the coconut groves as well as on the embankments of the paddy fields, (ii) approach roads where vehicles are pliable and (iii) boat transport. We shall give below a short description of the conveyance systems as they exist in the village during our survey year.

1) Foot Paths:

The foot paths connect the different residential houses in a locality and they also connect residential parts of localities. The various foot paths connecting the different different/residential parts in the village are shown in the Map. These foot paths need cause-ways whenever they come across an 'outlet'. There were as many as 21 cause-ways which were of cement and stone construction and a large number of them with a simple device of placing a coconut trunk on both sides. For a stranger, it needs little practice to cross on the second type of the cause-ways.

Usually foot paths are of 3 to 5 feet breadth. On the embankments of the paddy fields they are narrower than when they go through a coconut grove. The foot path which goes along the coast connecting Adda Bengre, Hooche and Gujjarbettu is, at some place, as wide as 10 feet. In all the islands except Padu Kudru, foot paths are not elevated though they go through

low lying land. In Padu Kudru, a foot path connecting the southern point to the north-eastern point was elevated during the survey year to facilitate the passers-by coming from Timman Kudru.

During low tides, a foot path is created along the coast end. The path is so hard that even bicycles could ply. During high tides it will be again full of water and path is merged.

ii) Approach Roads:

The approach roads are of recent origin, and they are constructed during the decade ending with our survey. The main approach road connects the Udipi-Coondapoor high way with the Kemmannu market place. The road touches the village boundary at the south-east corner of the village and comes along the eastern border of Gulibettu and Kemmannu. The road is about 12 feet wide and is metalled. Buses and lorries coming from opposite direction find it difficult to cross. The other two approach roads connecting Kemmannu locality with the Gujjarbettu coast and the Hoode coast are about 8 feet wide only. On the Gujjarbettu approach road, buses are pliable while on Hoode road, because the bridge is not constructed for Keppa Todu, buses cannot ply. Both the roads are 'katchcha' in nature and are not metalled. The Gujjarbettu approach road connects Gujjarbettu with Kemmannu, while the Hoode road connects Hoode and Kambal Thota localities to Kemmannu.

iii) Boat Transport:

As there are a number of islands belonging to this village and the neighbouring village in the back water of the Swarna river, boat transport was the only means of conveyance between these islands and the residents of the main land. The biggest island of the village, namely, Padu Kudru, is connected to the main land with a foot bridge and further, Gazani island is connected to Padu Kudru avoiding the boat transport conveyance between these areas. However, the majority of the islands which are distantly placed are approached on boat only. Regular boat

service is available between Fadu Kudru and Baliger Kudur and Padu Kudru and Timmanna Kudru. However, many of the residents of these localities own boats for private use.

As the boat transport is a cheap means of transporting goods, commodities like coconuts, fish and coir ropes are transported from Adda Bengre and Hoode localities to Kemmannu and further to Kalyanpur preferably on boat. Boats also mainly engage in supplying clay collected at the river bottom to the coconut gardeners. The boatmen collect the clay at the river back water and enter the main land through various outlets and supply the clay manure at the spot. So, the outlets also serve as the useful routes of conveyance for the boats.

Along the sea coast bigger boats are engaged sometime to transport the fish to Malpe. As far as internal conveyance is concerned, it is not of any importance.

2.11. Location of the Market Place:

The term 'market place' may be used in two meanings. In the first instance, the implication of the term may lead us to the place where commodity transaction takes place. Secondly, it may be meant by the term that the place where shop premises are concentrated along with administrative and institutional buildings with transport links to distant places. The market places exist in Paduthouse in both the sense of the term implied above. In the first sense of the term, commodity transaction like transaction in coconut, coir and fish is concentrated in Hoode and is also present in the islands. Fish transaction is concentrated in all the coastal localities. The location of the market places for different commodities seems to be governed by (i) the nearness to the place of production and (ii) availability of the transport facilities. Marketing activity for the coconut is concentrated in Hoode and to some extent in the islands and Padu Kudru. As these localities touch the back waters, the advantages to dealers in coconut are two fold. In the first place, the coconut husk could be easily carried to the spots of retting with no loss of time.

Secondly, dehusked coconuts are taken to the Kemmannu terminus of the approach road on boat. In case of fish, other important production of the village, the market for the whole-sale dealing is spread along the coast. However, it is significant to note that the dealers are almost located in the vicinity of the ground or water routes.

The second type of market place cited above has developed in the Kemmannu area, during the last two decades. The shop premises, the office buildings, and the institutional buildings are established on both the sides of the approach road terminus. And the market place is gradually extending towards the south along the approach road. To some extent, the market place has extended into the neighbouring village. We have covered all the shop premises in the Kemmannu market, irrespective of their location inside the survey village boundary or in the neighbouring village as we were convinced that the whole market place made a compact unit.

It may be interesting to search for the factors which influenced the Kemmannu area to develop a market place. Firstly, the old foot paths connecting the Udipi-Coondapoor high way terminated at Kemmannu. And the foot paths from different localities in the village were connected with the approach path which terminated at Kemmannu. Secondly, the Kemmannu area was centrally situated to (i) the coastal localities in the west, (ii) Guli bettu locality and Badanidiyur village in the south, (iii) western localities of the Mudthonse village in the east and (iv) the river bed islands in the north. Thirdly, the topography of Kemmannu area, as its very suggests (Kempu-Red and Manu-soil) was made up of dry red soil mixed with sand. The area was situated high and it was believed that the soil was not good for cultivation. Fourthly, the locality touched the back water of Swarna river in the north and facilitated boat transport to the northern market places like Mangarkatte, Mabu Galla, Barkur and so forth. Finally, the Catholic church

was built as early as 1923 in the Kemmannu locality. The educational institutes like the St. Philomena Higher Elementary School and the Aided Higher Elementary School were established in 1925. The offices of the Patel and the Shanbhogue (the village accountant) were situated in this locality since long time. The concentration of the institutional and administrative activity might have influenced the development of the shop premises in this locality.

38

- CHAPTER III -

H O U S I N G

3.1: Houses Graded :

The Tonse Panchayat Board has maintained a record of the houses in the Paduthonse village. The houses are graded according to the value estimated by a committee of four persons, namely, the President of the Panchayat Board, two members of the Panchayat Board (one representing the locality concerned and the other an outsider) and the village Shanbhogue. It is reported that the value was estimated on the basis of (i) the materials used in the construction, (ii) area in which the house is constructed and (iii) the age of the house.

Table 3.1: Different Grades of Houses in relation to their values estimated by the Panchayat Board.

Grades	Value in Rs.	No. of Houses
I	Below Rs. 240	475
II	Rs. 240 to Rs. 600	197
III	Rs. 601 to Rs. 1000	162
IV	Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000	137
V	Rs. 2001 to Rs. 4000	102
VI	Rs. 4001 to Rs. 8000	18
VII	Above Rs. 8000	11
Total		1102

In table 3.1 figures are presented about the number of houses coming under each grade as formulated by the Panchayat Board. It is important to note that of the total 1102 houses as many as 475 or 43.1 per cent of the total are valued below Rs. 240/-. The records in the grades

representing values from Rs.240 to Rs.400, Rs.400 to Rs.600, and Rs.600 to Rs.800 are also pretty high. On the other hand, the houses valued high, for example, from Rs.2000 to Rs.2400 are only 28 or 3.4 per cent, of the total. Similarly houses valued from Rs.4000 to Rs.8000 are only 18 and houses valued above Rs.8000 are 11. This obviously reveals the fact that the general condition of housing in the village as it is in other coastal villages in the Western India is very poor.

In table 3.2 data are given about the number of houses in each grade for different localities in the village. It is revealed therein that the varying conditions of housing exist in different localities. For example, in Padukudru 68 out of 125 ^{houses} families and in Adda Bengre 102 out of 169 ^{houses} families graded as valued below Rs.240. On the other hand in Kambla Thota, only 17 out of 83 and in Kemmannu only 12 out of 70 are valued below Rs.240. The reason for latter two localities recording highest percentage of houses in the grade valued below Rs.240 may be due to the fact that in those two localities the percentage of the occupants of the houses on free tenancy basis is considerably high. (See table 3.5). Usually the landlords built small hutments to provide rent free accommodation for the labouring class. In the same way coastal localities like H code and Gajjarbettu record considerably high figures for the houses valued below Rs.240 as well as from Rs.240 to 600. The so called best houses valued above Rs.8,000 are present in six out of eight localities. The absence of the best houses in Adda Bengre and Gulibettu may be due to the general economic backwardness of the residents of those localities. In Adda Bengre particularly, many of the well-to-do residents are reluctant to build good houses because the area is constantly under the fear

Table 3.2 : Grades of Houses in Different Localities

Locality	Upto Rs. 240.	Rs. 240 to Rs. 600.	Rs. 600 to Rs. 1000.	Rs. 1000 to Rs. 2000.	Rs. 2000 to Rs. 4000.	Rs. 4000 to Rs. 8000.	Above 8000.
I The Islands	39	9	15	10	13	3	1
II Padu Kudru	68	10	16	11	14	4	2
III Kambla Thota	17	15	19	16	13	1	2
IV Kemmannu	12	21	12	12	8	3	2
V Guli bettu	49	29	15	19	11	1	-
VI Adda Bengre	102	30	16	15	5	1	-
VII Hoode	95	50	29	33	24	2	3
VIII Gujjar bettu	93	33	40	21	14	3	1
TOTAL	475	197	162	137	102	18	11

Table 3.3 : Residential and Non-residential Houses

Locality	Residential Houses		Non-residential Houses	Total
	Resided	Vacant		
I The Islands	83	6	1	90
II Padu Kudru	113	9	3	125
III Kambla Thota	76	7	-	83
IV Kemmannu	50	7	31	70
V Guli bettu	92	14	-	124
VI Adda Bengre	152	1	-	169
VII Hoode	216	20	16	233
VIII Gajjar bettu	178	19	8	205
TOTAL	960	83	59	1102

of sea erosion. In Gulibettu, however, the topographical conditions are amicable for construction of better buildings and secondly the locality is in the vicinity of the approach road and the market place, which may also influence the construction of best houses in the next five years.

3.2: Residential and Non-Residential Houses

The houses were built for residential purpose or for non-residential purpose. Non-residential houses were built for accommodating cattle, storing the fishing equipments, for establishing the shop premises or for accommodating religious, educational or administrative buildings. In table 3.3 we give information about the residential and non-residential houses in different localities of the village. We have also classified the residential houses into those resided and those vacant at the time of our survey. It was seen that of the 1043 residential houses 83 were vacant and 960 were resided. One unimember family was an institute dweller and that is not accounted. Non-residential houses were only 59 or 6 per cent of the total houses. Most of the non-residential houses are concentrated in Kemmannu while in Kambla Thota, Gulibettu and Adda Bengre no non-residential houses exist. In Hoode, where commodity trade activity is taking place, as many as 16 non-residential houses exist while in Gujjarbettu, as many as 8 non-residential houses exist, most of them being Brahmin temples.

3.3: Information about the residential houses from 1952-53 to 1958-59.

In table 3.4 we supply comparative data about the number of residential houses in 1952-53 and 1958-59. It is also shown in the table the number of houses newly built and those which were worn out and destructed during that period in different localities of the village. While island

Table 3.4 : Information about the residential houses from 1952-53 to 1958-59

Localities	1952 - 1953			During 1952-53 to 1958-1959			1958-1959		
	Houses resided.	Houses vacant	Total No. of residential houses	New houses built	Old houses destroyed	Increase or decrease	Houses resided	Houses vacant	Total residential houses
I The Islands	79	3	82	10	3	+ 7	83	6	89
II Padu Kudru	115	3	118	11	7	+ 4	118	9	122
III Kambla Thota	74	3	77	8	2	+ 6	76	7	83
IV Kemmannu	61	1	62	7	12	- 5	50	7	57
V Guli bettu	103	5	108	13	15	- 2	92	14	106
VI Adda Bengre	99	3	102	76	25	+ 51	152	1	153
VII Hoode	194	18	212	40	16	+ 24	216	20	236
VIII Gujjar bettu	153	18	171	45	19	+ 26	178	19	197
TOTAL	878	54	932	210	99	+111	960	83	1043

localities and Kambla Thota are seen registering a slight rising trend in the construction of the residential houses, it is strange to observe the declining trend of the same in Kemmannu and Gulibettu where a market place is developing very fast. Perhaps it may be due to the increase in the land value in those localities, the residents on free tenancy basis are removed and the number of vacant houses in 1958-59 has recorded a substantial increase over that in 1952-53. Adda Bangre, Hooda and Gajjarbettu have recorded a very high rate of building activity. In Adda Bangre it might have been due to a high rate of in-migrant families evacuated from the Bangre area which was washed off into the sea. In Hooda and Gajjarbettu, it may be said that due to development of the fishing activity after 1950, the in-migration took place which ultimately has influenced the increase in the number of residential houses.

3.4: Ownership and Tenancy of the Houses in different localities :

In table 3.5 we have given data as regards the ownership and type of tenancy of the houses in different localities. As previously noted above, one family in Padukudru reported as an institute-dweller and we exclude that family from our future discussion of the housing problems. Practically we have 960 resident families in the village after excluding the institute-dweller family. Of the 960 families, 451 families or 46.9 per cent of the total, own houses, while the rest 509 or 53.1 per cent do not own any houses. Those who do not own the houses are residing in the houses owned by the landlords either on rent payment basis or tenancy basis. Of the 509 non-owners of the houses, only 75 or 14.8 per cent reported as rent paying families while a bulk of 434 or 85.2 per cent reported having accommodation on free tenancy basis. The

Table 3.5 : Ownership and Type of Tenancy of the Houses .

LOCALITIES :-	The islands	Padukudru	Kambla Thota	Kommannu	Gull-Bettu	Adda Bengre	Hoods	Gujjar Bettu	Total
Houses owned or occupies	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
Owned	40	37	44	28	49	48	106	99	451
Rented	3	2	2	7	11	12	14	24	75
Free Tenancy	40	74	30	15	32	92	96	55	434
Total	83	113	76	50	92	152	216	178	960

analysis of the figures reveals that the number of house owning families is considerably high in Kambla Thota, Kemmannu, Gulibettu and Gujjarbettu, Padukudru and Adda Bengre the houseless families are predominant. The rent paying families are considerably present in the coastal localities and in Kemmannu and Gulibettu.

3.5: Age of the Houses in Different Localities :

We could gather the information about the age of the houses if they are owned. In table 3.6 we give data as regards the age of the owned houses in different localities of the village. 21 houses were built during 1957, one year earlier the survey, mainly in Gujjarbettu, Adda Bengre, Hoode and Kambla thota. 28 houses were built during 1956, mainly in the coastal localities. During 1953 to 1955 some 47 houses were built of which six were in Hoode, nine in Adda Bengre and twenty in Gujjarbettu. Of the 73 houses which were built during 1948-52, nine were in Adda Bengre and sixteen each in Hoode and Gujjarbettu. Houses built during 1943-47 were 42. They were mainly in Hoode, Adda Bengre and Gujjarbettu. Of the houses built during 1933 to 1942, during a period of 10 years, we have only 51 houses survived upto the survey year. They were in coastal localities as well as in Padukudru and Gulibettu. Of the 74 houses built during 1908-1932, two were in Kemmannu, six in Adda Bengre, nine in the islands, ten in Gulibettu, twelve each in Padukudru and Gujjarbettu and fourteen in Hoode. Of the 106 houses built before 1907, as many as 41 were in Hoode and the rest were mainly in Kemmannu, Kambla thota, Gulibettu and the islands. We could not get the age of those houses purchased by the present owner. Such cases were one each in Padukudru and Kambla thota, two in Gulibettu, four in Hoode total being eight. For

Table 3.6: Age of the houses if they are owned

Year- when built	Localities : -								Total
	The Islands I	Padu Kudru II	Kambila Thota III	Kemmannu IV	Guli Bettu V	Adda Bengre VI	Hoode VII	Gajjar Bettu VIII	
1957	-	-	3	1	2	4	3	8	21
1956	2	1	1	1	3	7	4	9	28
1953-55	3	1	4	-	4	9	6	20	47
1948-52	7	4	8	5	8	9	16	16	73
1943-47	4	1	4	8	5	1	6	13	42
1933-42	3	8	3	1	9	7	12	8	51
1908-32	9	12	9	2	10	6	14	12	74
Before 1907	12	9	11	10	8	4	41	11	106
Purchased	-	1	1	-	-	1	4	2	9
TOTAL	40	37	44	28	49	48	106	99	451

one house in Adda Bengre we could not get the information by the respondent. The data reveal that the building construction activity took place in the coastal localities considerably during the years of the recent past. However, prior to 1933, more houses were built in the interior localities. The main reason for the large scale building construction activity in the coastal localities is due to the development of fishing during the years after 1933.

From the resurvey point of view, our first interest is to know how many new families will built houses during the next five years, and how many present owners will either dispose off their houses by selling or renting it out to others. Our second interest is to know how many houses in different age groups in different localities will be worn out during the next five years.

3.6: New constructions and major repairs :

In table 3.7 figures are given in respect of the cases of the house owners reporting expenditure on new construction (in the sense, extension of the existing house by adding rooms) and major repairs, (meaning thereby the reconstruction of the worn out part of the existing house). The figures are given separately for each locality in the village to enable one to understand the extent of expenditure incurred in different localities at different points of time. During 1957, of the 12 families reporting expenditure on new constructions and major repairs of the houses, one reported from Adda Bengre, two each from Kemmannu, Gulibettu and Hoode and three from the islands. None reported from Padukudru and Kambla Thota during that year. Of the total expenditure incurred during that year (Rs. 2950) 41.8 per cent from the islands, 27.8 per cent from Hoode

3.7
 TABLE 2.12: Cases reporting new construction and repairs and expenses incurred in different localities.
 Notes: Figures in brackets are percentages of total expenditure for the respective year or years.

Period	Locality I		Locality II		Locality III	Locality IV		Locality V		Locality VI		Locality VII		Locality VIII		Total		
	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.		No. of cases	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.	No. of cases	Expenditure in R.
1957	3	1650 (41.8)	-	-	-	2	300 (7.6)	2	250 (6.3)	1	400 (10.2)	2	250 (6.3)	2	1100 (27.8)	12	2950 (100)	
1956	2	850 (13.1)	2	1100 (16.7)	1	30 (0.5)	-	2	700 (10.7)	1	1200 (18.3)	9	2480 (37.7)	2	200 (3.0)	19	6570 (100)	
1955	1	600 (4.9)	4	1830 (14.9)	4	1100 (33.3)	3	4200 (24.1)	-	-	-	4	630 (5.1)	3	950 (7.7)	19	12310 (100)	
1954	3	950 (7.1)	-	-	5	3850 (28.9)	-	3	3750 (28.1)	2	750 (5.6)	7	3750 (28.1)	2	280 (2.2)	24	13330 (100)	
1953	1	500 (6.3)	1	4000 (49.7)	1	300 (3.7)	-	1	500 (6.2)	1	800 (9.9)	4	1950 (24.2)	-	-	9	2050 (100)	
1953-1957	10	4560 (10.5)	7	6930 (15.9)	11	3280 (19.1)	5	4500 (10.3)	8	5200 (11.9)	5	3150 (7.2)	26	8430 (19.3)	9	2520 (5.8)	21	43520 (100)
1948-1952	5	2350 (6.8)	11	19560 (56.1)	4	1300 (3.7)	5	4900 (14.1)	2	1300 (3.7)	1	1500 (4.3)	8	3160 (9.1)	3	760 (2.2)	29	34870 (100)
1943-1947	1	400 (9.9)	-	-	1	100 (2.5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	3550 (87.6)	7	4050 (100)	
Before 1942	2	900 (5.9)	-	-	2	900 (5.9)	2	200 (1.3)	1	1500 (3.8)	1	1200 (7.9)	8	7800 (51.1)	6	2750 (18.1)	22	15250 (100)
Total:	18	8210 (8.3)	18	26480 (25.9)	18	1580 (10.8)	12	9600 (9.8)	11	8000 (8.2)	7	5250 (5.9)	42	20020 (20.3)	23	9590 (7.8)	149	98330 (100)

and less than 10 per cent from the other localities. During 1956, a total number of 19 families reported expenditure on new constructions and major repairs, of which 9 belonged to Hoode, one each from Kambla Thota and Adda Bengre and two each from the other localities. During that year Rs.6570 were spent for new constructions and repairs of which 37.7 per cent was shared by Hoode. The other localities spent less than 20 per cent and more than 10 per cent while Kambla Thota and Gujjar bettu spent less than 10 per cent of the total expenditure. During 1955, 19 cases reported expenditure of which one from the islands, three each from Kemmannu and Gujjar bettu and four each from localities Padu kudru, Kambla thota and Hoode. The total expenditure was Rs.12310. During 1954, as many as 24 cases reported expenditure from different localities incurring a total expenditure of Rs.13330/- on new constructions and repairs. Of the total expenditure nearly 28 per cent was spent each by localities Kambla thota, Guli Bettu and Hoode. During 1953, only nine cases reported expenditure on new construction and major repairs. The total expenditure incurred during that year was Rs.8050, of which, nearly 50 per cent was claimed by a single case in Padukudru and about 24 per cent in Hoode. The rest of the localities reported expenditure spent less than 10 per cent each.

Taking the consolidated figures for the last five years from the survey year, i.e. from 1953 to 1957, it is observed that of the 81 cases reported expenditure during that period, as many as 26 were reported from Hoode. In respect of the other localities, ten cases reported from the islands, seven from Padukudru, eleven from Kambla thota, five from Kemmannu, eight from Guli bettu, five from Adda Bengre and nine from Gujjar Bettu. The total

expenditure incurred during that period was Rs.43580/- of which Kambla Thota and Hoode claimed nearly 19 per cent, of the total expenditure. Padu kudru shared 16 per cent of the expenditure while the other localities spent round about 10 per cent only. Adda Bengre and Gujjar Bettu spent less than 10 per cent of the total expenditure.

During the period 1948 to 1952, some 39 families reported expenditure on new construction and major repairs. The total expenditure incurred during that period was Rs.34820 of which as much as 56 per cent was spent in Padu kudru. In Kemmamu, 14 per cent of the total expenditure was reported while in rest of the localities expenditure was less than 10 per cent in each case.

Our purpose here is to see whether after five years the pattern of expenditure on new constructions and major repairs for different localities will remain constant or change in favour of the localities with low capacity to spend on improvements in housing conditions. The data referred above reveal that the period between 1953 to 1957 saw a substantial change in the expenditure pattern for different localities from the period between 1947 to 1952. During 1947-52, Padu kudru alone shared more than 60 per cent of the total expenditure on new construction and repairs, while during 1953-57, almost all localities with low capacity to spend on house improvements have improved their expenditure position by increasing their percentage shares of the total expenditure. Our purpose is to observe whether this tendency continues during the next five years and abolish the unevenness of expenditure on house improvements in different localities.

3.7 : Housing Conditions in Different Localities :

The data presented in tables 3.8 to 3.12 reveal the housing conditions in different localities of the village. The housing conditions were studied in respect of (i) the presence or absence of foundation and/or plinth, (ii) the types of walls, (iii) the types of roofs, (iv) the size of the area occupied by the house and (v) the number of rooms or partitions in the house. The housing conditions in the above context may change from locality to locality for (a) topographical conditions influencing the housing conditions, (b) the economic conditions and (c) the occupation of the resident. As it was felt that (b) and (c) influencing the housing conditions in different localities would present data of very complex nature, that is, presenting a sort of combined influence of topographical conditions, economic status and occupation in a particular locality, it was desired to concentrate on the influence of the topography on the housing conditions in this section, and subsequently study the influence of the latter two in the forthcoming sections separately.

Table 3.8 gives information about the absence or presence of plinth and/or foundation for the houses in different localities. It was seen whether the house has (i) foundation only, (ii) plinth only, (iii) both foundation and plinth or (iv) neither foundation nor plinth. Therefore, (i) plus (iii) meant the total number of houses with foundation, (ii) plus (iii) meant the total number of houses with plinth and (iv) meant number of houses with neither the plinth nor the foundation.

In the island localities and also in Kambla Thota which is low lying, there is always a fear of Monsoon

Table 3.8: Absence or Presence of Plinth and/or Foundation

Localities :	The Islands	Padu Kudru	Kambala Thota	Kemmannu	Guli Bettu	Adda Bengre	Hoode	Gujjar Bettu	Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
Foundation only	-	-	1 (1.4)	-	-	9 (5.9)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.6)	12 (1.3)
Plinth only	16 (19.3)	70 (61.9)	33 (43.4)	15 (30.0)	12 (13.0)	5 (3.3)	47 (21.8)	39 (21.9)	237 (24.7)
Foundation + Plinth	64 (77.1)	39 (34.5)	42 (55.2)	34 (68.0)	73 (79.3)	64 (42.1)	143 (66.1)	89 (50.0)	548 (57.0)
No foundation + no plinth	3 (3.6)	4 (3.6)	-	1 (2.0)	7 (7.7)	74 (48.7)	25 (11.6)	49 (27.5)	163 (17.0)
TOTAL	83 (100)	113 (100)	76 (100)	50 (100)	92 (100)	152 (100)	216 (100)	178 (100)	960 (100)

Note : Figures in brackets are percentages of bottom totals.

flood inundating the residential houses. That may be the reason why, in most of the cases, plinths are raised without bothering about the foundation. In Kemmannu and Gull Bettu, the land is high levelled and the topography presents fine sand mixed with red soil. There is absolutely no fear of flood water inundating the residential locality. Still a large majority of the houses have plinths without foundation. But it was observed that the plinths in the island localities significantly differ from those in Kemmannu in respect of the height. If the plinths in the islands measure 6' to 8' high from the ground, those in Kemmannu hardly measure 2' to 4' high. As the coastal localities are situated on heaps of coastal sand at a high level, there is to be no fear of Monsoon floods entering the residential houses. That may be the reason why a large majority of the houses have neither plinths nor foundations. In Adda Bengre especially, apart from the topographical reasons, this situation may be due to the large scale in-migration of the evacuees from Bengre area which was recently washed away into sea due to sea erosion.

In table 3.9 figures are presented to describe the walls of the houses in different localities. Walls were built of (i) earth, (ii) bricks, (iii) stones or (iv) - coconut thatches. In case of the earthen walls, the corner pillars were built of stones or bricks and the wall was raised with unbaked bricks with earthen plastering. In respect of brick walls, the corner pillars were usually of stone and the wall was built with bricks and lime plastered. The stone walls were built completely of stone with lime or cement plastering. As regards the walls of coconut thatches, the pillars at the corner were either of unbaked bricks or of coconut or palmyra trunks. Usually

two layers of the coconut thatches were put to build wall.

The figures in table 3.9 reveal that the walls built of earth and those built of coconut thatches are prominent in majority of the localities in the village. Only in Kemmannu and Guli Bettu, the coconut thatched walls are of little importance. It may be due to the fact that in those localities the good quality earth is available at the spot while in other localities it is imported. Another reason seems to be the non-productivity of the coconut thatches in these localities. The fact that large number of houses were built with coconut thatches in Adda Bengre may be again due to the large scale in-migration of the families from Bengre. The coconut thatches are obviously cheaper than the unbaked bricks and the building costs are comparatively lower. The inmigrated families in Adda Bengre could not have afforded better type of walls within their means.

In table 3.10 figures are given in respect of roofs of the houses in different localities. Roofs were of two types, (i) roofs with Mangalore type of tiles and (ii) - roofs with paddy straw. Except in Kemmannu and Guli Bettu which have a sort of urban influence, in all the localities, the proportion of tiled roofs to paddy straw roofs seems to be something like 1:2. In Kemmannu, 46 per cent were tiled and in Guli Bettu, about 60 per cent were tiled. Our intention during the resurvey may be to see how far the proportion of tiled roofs to paddy straw roofs will change.

In table 3.11 data are given in respect of the area occupied by each house in different localities. In table 3.12 the figures are presented in respect of the number of rooms in a house in different localities. From the point

Table 3.9 : Type of Walls.

Localities :	The Islands	Padu Kudra	Kambala Thota	Kemmannu	Guli Bettu	Adda Bangre	Hoode	Gujjar Bettu	Total
Type of Walls	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
Earthern	58 (69.8)	50 (44.2)	42 (55.2)	44 (88.0)	72 (78.2)	78 (51.3)	164 (75.9)	119 (66.8)	627 (65.3)
Bricks	-	3 (2.7)	4 (5.3)	-	3 (3.3)	2 (1.3)	1 (0.5)	-	13 (1.4)
Stones	5 (6.1)	17 (15.0)	12 (15.8)	3 (6.0)	11 (12.0)	-	8 (3.7)	4 (2.3)	60 (6.2)
Coconut Thatches	20 (24.1)	43 (38.1)	18 (23.7)	3 (3.0)	6 (6.5)	72 (47.4)	43 (19.9)	55 (30.9)	260 (27.1)
Total	83 (100)	113 (100)	76 (100)	50 (100)	92 (100)	152 (100)	216 (100)	178 (100)	960 (100)

Note- Figures in brackets are percentages of bottom totals.

Table 3.10 : Description of the Roofs

Types of Roofs	Localities:	The Islands I	Padu Kudru II	Kanbla Thota III	Kemmannu IV	Adda Bengre V	Guli Bettu VI	Adda Bengre VII	Hoode VIII	Total
Mangalore Tiles		27 (32.5)	39 (34.5)	29 (38.1)	23 (46.0)	54 (58.7)	40 (26.3)	73 (33.8)	65 (36.5)	350 (36.5)
Grass		56 (67.5)	74 (65.5)	47 (61.8)	27 (54.0)	38 (41.3)	112 (73.7)	143 (66.2)	113 (63.5)	610 (63.5)
Total		83 (100)	113 (100)	76 (100)	50 (100)	92 (100)	152 (100)	216 (100)	178 (100)	950 (100)

Note - Figures in brackets are percentages of bottom totals.

Area in Sq.ft.	The islands I	Padu kudru II	Kambla Thota III	Kemmannu IV	Gali Bettu V	Adda Bengre VI	Hoode VII	Gajjar Bettu VIII	Total
Upto 100	2 (2.4)	11 (9.7)	1 (1.3)	-	7 (7.6)	34 (22.5)	8 (3.7)	7 (3.9)	70 (7.3)
101 - 200	7 (8.4)	34 (30.1)	15 (19.8)	7 (14.0)	2 (2.2)	52 (34.2)	27 (12.5)	43 (24.2)	187 (19.5)
201 - 300	18 (21.7)	15 (13.3)	12 (15.8)	12 (24.0)	21 (22.8)	25 (16.4)	33 (15.3)	38 (21.3)	174 (18.1)
301 - 400	10 (12.1)	8 (7.1)	15 (19.7)	5 (10.0)	23 (25.0)	16 (10.5)	44 (20.4)	24 (13.5)	145 (15.1)
401 - 500	2 (2.4)	5 (4.4)	2 (2.6)	2 (4.0)	5 (5.4)	8 (5.3)	25 (11.6)	16 (9.0)	65 (6.8)
501 - 600	30 (26.1)	13 (11.5)	22 (28.9)	16 (32.0)	17 (18.5)	7 (4.6)	55 (25.5)	32 (18.0)	192 (20.0)
601 - 700	1 (1.2)	6 (5.3)	- ()	-	2 (2.2)	4 (2.6)	4 (1.8)	5 (2.8)	22 (2.3)
701 - 800	1 (1.2)	6 (5.3)	3 (3.9)	2 (4.0)	7 (7.6)	2 (1.3)	4 (1.8)	3 (1.7)	28 (2.9)
Above 801	12 (14.5)	15 (13.3)	6 (8.0)	6 (12.0)	8 (8.7)	4 (2.6)	16 (7.4)	10 (5.6)	77 (8.0)
TOTAL	83 (100)	114 (100)	76 (100)	50 (100)	92 (100)	152 (100)	216 (100)	178 (100)	961 (100)

Note: Figures in brackets are percentages of bottom total.

Table 2.12 : Number of Rooms in Each House

No. of Rooms	The Islands I	Padu Kudru II	Kabla Thota III	Kommanu IV	Guli Bettu V	Adda Bengre VI	Hooda VII	Gujjar Bettu VIII	Total
1	3 (3.6)	19 (16.8)	3 (3.9)	1 (2.0)	5 (5.4)	36 (23.6)	26 (12.1)	35 (19.7)	128 (13.3)
2	11 (13.3)	41 (35.4)	4 (5.3)	9 (18.0)	11 (12.0)	41 (40.1)	40 (18.5)	36 (20.1)	213 (22.2)
3	32 (38.5)	24 (21.2)	30 (39.5)	18 (36.0)	37 (40.2)	27 (17.8)	78 (36.1)	43 (24.2)	289 (30.1)
4	20 (24.2)	11 (9.7)	23 (30.3)	11 (22.0)	26 (28.3)	19 (12.5)	44 (20.4)	35 (19.7)	189 (19.7)
5	6 (7.2)	6 (5.3)	10 (13.2)	3 (6.0)	4 (4.3)	7 (4.6)	15 (6.9)	22 (12.4)	73 (7.6)
6	8 (9.6)	3 (2.7)	3 (3.9)	3 (6.0)	4 (4.3)	1 (0.7)	2 (0.9)	4 (2.2)	28 (2.9)
7	1 (1.2)	1 (0.9)	1 (1.3)	1 (2.0)	2 (2.2)	1 (0.7)	5 (2.3)	1 (0.6)	13 (1.4)
8	1 (1.2)	4 (3.5)	1 (1.3)	2 (4.0)	-	-	1 (0.5)	-	9 (0.9)
9	1 (1.2)	4 (3.5)	1 (1.3)	2 (4.0)	3 (3.3)	-	5 (2.3)	2 (1.1)	15 (1.9)
TOTAL	83 (100)	114 (100)	76 (100)	50 (100)	92 (100)	152 (100)	216 (100)	178 (100)	951 (100)

Note : Figures in brackets are percentages of bottom total.

of view of the resurvey these figures are very useful for comparison of the housing conditions at two points of time. The size of the housing area and the number of rooms in a house certainly reflect the pattern of housing conditions in a particular locality, at a point of time. It is the congestion caused by the internal growth as well as in-migration which influences the size of the area devoted for housing and the number of rooms in a particular locality. More the congestion, less area will be devoted for housing and it may further reflect in less number of rooms in a house in that particular locality. In table 3.11 the figures reveal the extent of congestion in different localities through the size of area devoted for housing in respective localities. For example, Kemmannu may be considered as the most congested locality in the village as more than 56 per cent of the houses occupy area below 200 square feet each. Next comes Padu-Kudru where 40 per cent of the houses occupy an area below 200 sq.ft each. Our aim in the resurvey may be to compare these figures in different strata with the figures obtained during the next survey for different localities. That comparison may reveal whether the increase in the number of households in a particular locality due to internal population growth plus in-migration results in lesser area being devoted to the households. The same case may be argued with the number of rooms in a house which may change as the result of change in the area devoted for housing.

3.8 : Rent Paying Families :

A mention has already been made in section 3.4 while analysing the data in table 3.5 that there are in all 75 families in the village occupying the houses on rent payment basis. In table 3.13 data are given as regards the rent paying families distributed occupation wise. It was

Table 3.13 : Rent Paying Families Classified according to main occupation

Occupation	Annual Rent in Rs.								TOTAL	
	12	24	36	48	60	72	84	96		108 and above
1) Fishing in Sea	3	3	1							7
2) Cultivation Labour		2	2							4
3) Garden Labour	1	1	1							3
4) Fish Curing Labour	5	10	3							18
5) Tad Gud and Neera				1						1
6) Beedi making			1	1						2
7) Coir Spinning	1	4	1							6
8) Copper Smith		1								1
9) Gold Smith		1								1
10) Making Coconut thatches		1								1
11) Hawkers					2					2
12) Grocers						1				1
13) Pan-Beerl Merchant		1								1
14) Dealers in Coir			1							1
15) Dealers in Coconut			1							1
16) Money Lender				1						1
17) Hamali	1		2							3
18) Boat Transport			2							2
19) Boat Repairing	1	1								2
20) Midwife			1							1
21) Teacher		3		1						4
22) Barbers			1		1					2
23) Washerman	1									1
24) Hotel Keeper	1	1					1	1	1	5
25) Working in Cinema Theatre			1							1
26) Family Remittances			1	2						3
Total	14	29	19	6	3	1	1	1	1	75

remarkably noted that rent paying families were found in almost all occupation groups. From agricultural group, four families following cultivation labour and three families following garden labour were paying rent upto Rs.3 per month. In fishing also, seven families with fishing in sea as the main occupation and 18 families following fish curing labour were rent paying. Their capacity to pay rent was also limited to Rs.3 per month, but a majority of them paid Rs.2 per month only. Twelve families engaged in non-agricultural production and processing reported paying rent. Of these twelve, one was following 'palmyra neera and jaggery', two were manufacturing beedi, six were engaged in coir rope making and spinning the string and one each in 'copper smithy', 'gold smithy' and 'manufacturing coconut thatches'. The family engaged in manufacturing palmyra jaggery paid a monthly rent of Rs.4/- while two beedi manufacturers paid Rs.3/- and Rs.4/- per month each. Of the six rope making families one paid Rs.1/-, four Rs.2/- and one Rs.3/- per month. The other three families engaged in copper smithy, gold smithy and manufacturing the coconut thatches, paid Rs.2/- per month each. Seven families engaged in trade were paying rent of which two were unclassified petty merchants and one each were a grocer, a beeri merchant, a coir dealer, a wholesale coconut dealer and a commission agent for fish dealers. The grocer paid Rs.7/- per month and two unclassified merchants paid Rs.5/- per month each. The commission agent for fish reported paying Rs.4/- per month while the coconut and coir dealers paid Rs.3/- per month only. The pan beeri merchant paid only Rs.2/- per month, the least in this group. Seven families following transport reported paying the rent of which three followed head-load transport as the main occupation and two each were engaged in boat transport and boat repairing. The rent paying capacity of these

seven families was two at the rate Rs.1/- per month, one at Rs.2/- per month and four at Rs.3/- per month. Fourteen families engaged in different services reported paying rent of which one was a nurse, four were teachers two were barbers, one a washerman, five were hotel-keepers and one was the operator in the local Cinema theatre. One of the hotel keepers paid Rs.10/- per month, the highest rent paid in the village. Of the others in this group, two paid Rs.1/- each, four paid Rs.2/-, three Rs.3/-, one each Rs.4/-, Rs.5/-, Rs.7/-, and Rs.8/-. It is significant to note that the hotel-keepers who paid Rs.7/- and Rs.8/- per month, comparatively high rates of rents in the village. Three families who reported family remittances as the main source of income were paying rent. Of these three, one was paying rent at the rate of Rs.3/- per month, two each at the rate of Rs.4/- per month.

The following conclusions may be drawn from the above facts: (i) the rent paying families are found in all the occupation groups in the village; (ii) a large majority of the families pay rent below Rs.3/- per month. (iii) - a few families paying rent above Rs.4/- per month belong to 'non-agricultural production', 'trade' and 'service' groups.

CHAPTER IV

VILLAGE SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND ADMINISTRATION

4.1 : Introduction -

In chapter II we have already seen how the three religious groups in the village were distributed in different localities. We have also seen further, such distribution of castes in different localities with a view to studying the concentration or otherwise of a particular caste group at a particular locality. In this chapter, to begin with, it is tried to note some sociological aspects of these religious groups and caste groups to elicit information about the social structure based on religion and/or caste. Secondly, such sociological aspects of the society not based on religion and/or caste are dealt further which mainly include topics like social entertainment, popular habits, education and welfare and so forth. Thirdly, administrative organs or bodies with functions in the interest of group are covered in details which include topics like village administration and working of the village Panchayat Board.

4.2 : Religious Groups -

As it is seen in chapter II, the three main religious groups were (a) Hindus (b) Muslims and (c) Christians. Though, as it was found previously, there was locational dominance of each religious group, over all, Hindus were found to be in majority in the village followed by Muslims and Christians in respect. In case of the Muslims and the Christians the mosque and the church were the controlling organs of religious faiths of the respective groups while in case of the Hindus there was no effective controlling organ influencing all the sections with Hindu faiths. Even these sections or

so-called caste groups widely differed in customs from each other and the difference had barred the social contact of these caste groups to some extent. Hence, the importance of studying the caste groups among the Hindus though it may not be of the same importance in case of Muslims and Christians.

4.3 : Caste Groups among the Hindus :

Originally it seems that different caste groups which are found in this region came into existence as a result of the occupation they followed. For example, the Mogavirs were the fishermen, Billavas the tappers, Beljadas, the manufacturers of Gur, Bants, the cultivators of land and so forth; this caste-cum -occupation relationship was still prominent and it would be discussed about in detail in section 3.15. In this section, we shall name the various caste groups among the Hindus in this village and try to place them on the traditional rungs of the Hindu caste system.

As in other parts of our country, this village was no exception to disregard the reservation of a seat for the Brahmins at the highest rung of the Hindu social structure. Their gods were also revered by all the Hindus alike with distinctive favouritism while the gods of the non-Brahmin Hindus were rarely accepted by the Brahmins. The entry into the Brahmin temples by the non-Brahmin devotees was again a matter of discretion. If the superior non-Brahmins could come upto the threshold of the temple the so-called inferior born were expected to stand at a distance of 100 yards from the threshold. The so-called untouchables were never expected to enter the premises of the temple at whatever distance.

The Brahmins were followed by the Goud Saraswat Brahmins in the matter of social status. The Goud Saraswat

Brahmins were the immigrants from the Goa region and their customs were entirely different from the native Brahmins. Moreover, the Goud Saraswat Brahmins were originally non-vegetarians though many of them were turned to be pure vegetarians after coming to this region. Still, Brahmins kept very little contact with the Goud Saraswat Brahmins inspite of the advanced economic status of the latter as a merchant community. The Goud Saraswat Brahmins were very few in number and did not seem to have any influence over the lower or upper classes of the Hindus as far as religion was concerned.

Next to the Goud Saraswat Brahmins, the Ganigs and the Vaishwa Karma Brahmins claimed a position though it was strongly challenged by the Bants, the native landlords and the cultivators. The main difference between the Ganigs and Vishwa Karma Brahmins on the one hand and the Bants on the other hand was that the former were directly under the Brahmanical influence. The Ganigs (oilman) and the Vishwa Karma Brahmin (artisan) used to wear the holy thread and exclusively worship the gods and goddesses of the Hindu mythology; while the Bants did not wear the holy thread and retained the original customs of the 'ghost worship'. But the superiority of the former over the latter was challenged because the physical and economical strength of the former was very weak while those of the latter were very sound. The Brahmins too seemed to support the claim of the Bants against the positions of the Ganigs and the Vishwa Karma Brahmins because they thought that it was in their self interest to confer favour on that socially and economically sound caste group.

After the Bants, Billawas and Beljadas claimed a

Y31.2154CP.N6L4
 J9
 278385

position. In one respect at least, Beljadas seemed to be superior to the Billavas. The Billava did not seem to mind touching a Koosa (an untouchable) while the Beljad takes utmost care to keep away from the Koosa. Both the caste groups were organised under the respective caste panchayat boards, but the actions of the caste panchayat board of the Beljadas were more severe and effective than those of the Billavas.

The next position in the Hindu caste system may be given to the Mogavirs and the Karvis, both being the fishermen castes. The Mogavirs mainly worshipped the 'ghosts' while the Karvis worshipped the Hindu Mythological gods. Still the Mogavirs were considered to be superior because they were in a grand majority and their economic status was comparatively sound.

On the last rung of the Hindu caste system, Koosas and Koragas, the two depressed caste groups were placed. Both the caste groups were worshipping the ghosts along with their caste deity, the 'Mari' goddess. The Koragas were supposed to be inferior to the Koosas because,

- i) the Koraga ate the beef of the dead cattle;
- ii) he participated in the Kola ceremony so as to dispose his person under the spell of the ghosts. He ate the raw flesh of the cock sacrificed and sucked its blood.
- iii) he also drank the mixture of the liquid lime and the tumeric powder when he was under the trance of the ghost.

Castes among Muslims: Muslims were divided into (a) Navayats, (b) Sayyads and (c) Byaris. Navayats seemed to be the original settlers among the Muslims.

The leaders of that community as well as the Khazi of the Kadeem Jumma Masjid claimed their origin to the

Arab merchants of the early Islam era who traded with the West Coast of India. The Sayyad Muslims on the other hand claimed that they migrated to this place from Bijapur after the downfall of the Bijapur Sultanate by Aurangzeb in 1683 A.D. They might have migrated in the first instance to the southern territory of the Tungabhadra river and had finally moved to the west down the ghats to the coastal belt of the Kanara district. As one of the enlightened Sayyad Muslim of the village put it, the migrated muslim families from Bijapur chose the West Coast belt as their destination of resettlement because (i) they were politically unwanted elements for Aurangzeb who was in constant search of them. They might have thought that the west coast belt down the ghat was the safest place for them; and (ii) there was the presence of the Navayat and the Byari Muslims on the West Coast engaged mainly in trade. The Sayyads naturally sought the shelter with the peace loving Navyat Muslims. The third caste among the Muslims was that of the Byaris. The origin of the Byaris was similar to the Navayats. While the Navayats were originally from the Konkan coast, the Byaris were from the Malbar coast. Naturally their language was Malayalam.

Christians: Among the Christians, only Roman Catholics were reported residing in the village. The total absence of the Protestants or the Syrian Christians was a significant fact to note. The exclusive presence of the Roman Catholics seemed to be due to the historical process. According to the south Kanara Gazetteer, it was the Portugese Missionaries who first caused the spread of Christianity on the coast of the South Kanara district. As the Portugese were strictly Catholics, their missionaries established Catholic Churches only and opposed other reformers.

4.4 : Hindu Brahmin Temples.

There are six Hindu Brahmin temples, five in Kandige and one in Padu Kudru. These temples are completely under the control of the Brahmins as far as worshipping and other rituals are concerned and the financial interests are jointly controlled by the Brahmins and the Bants. The priesthood is hereditary in case of all the temples. The priests, in five cases are Madhwa Shivalli Brahmins and in one case, a Kota Brahmin with Bhagawatha tradition. All the temples receive some grants from the Government towards the expenses. Two of these temples own some land which is donated by the devotees. A detailed description of the working of these religious institutes is narrated in the forthcoming paragraphs.

(1) Shri. Kandige Laxmi Maha-Ganepathi Devasthan :

This temple was reported to have been built some 500 years ago by a Jain devotee, by name Chouda. A legend is often told about this Chouda, who, once upon a time, happened to be a staunch devotee of God Laxmi Narayan, whose temple was situated some 200 yards interior to the sea shore. He never used to touch his food unless he took 'teertha' and 'prasada' of God Laxminarayan. On a Ganesh Chaturthi day, he happened to come to the temple a bit late. He was disappointed to see that the doors of the temple were closed as the priest had gone home after the worship. Chouda observed fast that day and did not move from that place. He stucked upto his place even after sunset. He slept under a banyan tree just opposite the temple. In the early hour of dawn he dreant a Brahmachari coming to him and informed him that a big wooden log is lying on the sea shore. He was asked by the Brahmachari to built a temple with that log and install the idol of God Laxmi Maha Ganapathi which was hidden in the Bannanje tank. When Chouda woke up, he went to the sea shore and

found the wooden log as described by the Brahmachari in his dream. He also found an idol of Ganapathi in the Bannanje tank. He built the temple with a single wooden log (Kandige) and installed the idol of God Laxmi Maha Ganapathi. He donated some paddy fields to the temple.

According to an old Brahmin of the village, major repairs were made with the temple building on two occasions ; once in 1898 when about Rs.8000/- were spent and for the second time during 1952 when about Rs.5000/- were spent. On both the occasions funds were combinedly raised by the Brahmin and Bant families.

The temple owns 0.80 acres of land which was donated by the devotees belonging to the Bant's community. Government grant per annum comes round about Rs.60/-. The priest stays in a house which is adjacent to the temple. During the month of Shravan, a special 'arathi' known as Sonarathi is done every evening the expenses of which are borne by prominent Bant families. Average expenses over a Sonarathi comes to about Rs.5/-. The priest receives in form of gifts and Daxina, an amount worth Rs.200/- per year.

(2) Padu Kudru Ganapathi temple : This temple is situated in Padu Kudru. The temple owns land worth 1.50 acres donated by the devotees. The temple receives from the Government Rs.20/- as grants. This is the only Brahmin temple at Kandige locality and is famous for the 'Sonarathi' during the month of Shravan. Padu Kudru Ganapati is famous for its Ranga Pooja Vidhi sometime during April. On the midnight of the Ranga Pooja, one maund of boiled rice is offered to God Ganapati as 'Naivedya'. The rice is spread on long wooden planks placed jointly before the God's idol, the next morning, the rice is removed and given to the Shudras as Prasada.

(3) Sitaram Devastha, Pararimath : The temple is an Pararimath area of Kandige locality. The temple does not own any land. It receives Rs.10/- per year from the Government as grant. The area of the temple is very small and it is almost a family temple.

(4) Shri. Janardan Devasthan : It is a small family temple in the Kandige area. The temple has no land but it receives an annual grant of Rs.12/- from the Government.

(5) Shri. Durga Parameshwari Devasthan : This is also a family temple in the Kandige area and does not own any land. The annual grant from the Government is Rs.20/- .

(6) Shri. Laxmi Narayan Devasthan : This is a small family temple in Kandige and receives an annual grant of Rs.10/- from the Government. The temple owns no land.

4.5 : Hindu Non-Brahmin temples

Among the non-Brahmin Hindus, ghost worship seems to be widely prevalent. To name some of the ghosts, Bobbariya, Kalkuda and Panjurli seem to be dominating. Sometime a particular family was found to accept a particular ghost as its family 'god' and worship. An informal enquiry conducted by the Research Assistant revealed that there were devotees of these ghosts among the educated non-Brahmin Hindus also. Even among Brahmins, nobody was found to challenge the importance of these ghosts. Apart from these ghosts, the non-Brahmin Hindus were also found worshipping the Mari Goddess. There were three Bobbariya's temples and one Mari temple in the village . Of the three Bobbariya's temples one was in Gujjar bettu and two were in Moode, all being worshipped by the Mogavirs. The Mari temple was in Gudyan locality of the Mudthonse village adjacent to Kemmannu locality. These temples did not receive any grants from the Government and they did not own any land.

The Bobbariya's temple in Gujjar-bettu was the biggest among the non-Brahmin temples. It was reported that the temple was built mainly out of the donations by a Mogavir Master-fisherman. There was a drinking water well just in front of the temple which was constructed along with the temple building during 1948. The construction value of the temple building and the well, as it was reported, was nearabout Rs.10,000/-. The other two Bobbariya's temples in Hoode were very small in size. A significant point with these Bobbariya's temples was that all of them were situated along the coast. The ghost Bobbariya was found to play an important role in the socio-economic living of the Mogavir community.

Mari was the most important Goddess for the non-Brahmin Hindus guiding and controlling the destinies of her devotees. Once in a year, she offered animals or birds to extinguish the wrath of hunger. On the first Tuesday in the month of Shraavan the Mari festival was celebrated in the village during the survey year. The festival was celebrated from the middle of night to the early dawn and according to the estimation of our Investigator, nearly 2000 birds (both cocks and hens) were sacrificed on that day. However, no animals like rams, sheep or he-buffalo were sacrificed. It was said that sacrifice of the animals was not practised since long time. Presently only cocks and hens are sacrificed.

Apart from these temples, there are two 'Bhajan Mandirs' (i.e. praying rooms) one in Gujjar bettu organised by the Mogavirs and the other one in Hoode organised by the Billavas.

4.6 : Mosques :

There were two mosques, both situated in Hoode. The first was the Kadeem Jumma Masjid situated to the north

of the Kemmannu -Hoode approach road. The second, the Jadeedi Jumma Masjid is situated on the boarder of the Hoode and Gujjar bettu localities. Details about these two mosques are summarised below :

(1) Kadeem Jumma Masjid : The mosque seemed to be pretty old, built some 400 years ago or even earlier. The Khazi of the mosque argued that the mosque was built some 800 years back by the Arab merchants who had settled in that locality for trade. But there was no evidence to prove that argument. The mosque owned a land of about 2 acres around the masjid building and that land was used for 'Kabrasthan'. According to the record kept by the Khazi of the mosque, 154 Navayat Muslim houses were attached to this mosque. Of these 154, as many as 151 were from Hoode and Adda Bengre localities alone, only 3 were from Bengre locality of the Kodi village. The estimated expenses for burning oil lamps (kerosene oil and coconut oil were used) was about Rs.125/- per year which was meted out by the income from the sale of coconuts produced in the premises of the mosque. The income from the coconut trees in the premises of the mosque was nearly Rs.1000/- per year which was enjoyed by the Khazi. The Khazi reported getting an average Rs.3/- per year from each house-hold attached to the mosque. Income from the mosque was calculated at about Rs.450/-. Apart from that the Khazi received Rs.60/- as gifts from those households on special occasions. At the time of the marriage ceremony, he got from the bride's party Rs.2-8-0 and from the groom's party Rs.2-8-0 too. At the time of death, he received Re.1/- from the successor of the deceased.

Jadeedi Jumma Masjid: It seemed the mosque was built some 150 years back by an organised effort of the Sayyad Muslims of the Timman Kudru. There were 80 Sayyad

Muslim households attached to that mosque. The households belonged to Timman Kudru, and Padu Kudru of the Paduthonse village and Kukkade, Beggar Betta across the river. The mosque owned the land worth 4 acres most of it being dry uncultivable heaps of sand. The 'Kabrasthan' was behind the mosque. Recently attempts were made to grow casurina trees in the open land with above 50% success.

The Khazi used to get Rs.3/- from each household attached to that mosque. The annual income from that contribution was Rs.240/- of which Rs.120/- were received during the Ramzan and the rest Rs.120/- were received during the Bakari-Id. Receipts during the special occasions like marriage and death were about Rs.50/-.

4.7 : The St. Philomena Church.

Kemmannu : The Church at Kemmannu was situated on the border of the Mudthonse village on the other side of the Kemmannu approach road. The Church was built in the year 1932, at an expense of Rs.25,000/-. The Catholic management of the Church was so conservative that the facts about the income-expenditure, property ownership etc., were not disclosed to the Research Assistant even after several attempts to persuade its authorities to do so. The Research Assistant tried to re-approach the authorities through the President of the Tonse Panchayat Board and was assured by the Rev. Father of the information required. The Research Assistant was told that the necessary information would be supplied by the Secretary. When the Secretary was approached, he asked to give in writing the main items on which the information is needed. After doing so, the Research Assistant waited for a fortnight and approached the Secretary once again. The answer received was not enthusiastic as he told frankly that information will not be disclosed on all the items especially items on income and expenditure management and property owned.

When he was reminded that the Rev. Father had agreed to supply the information the reply was that the Rev. Father was not concerned about it. When the Research Assistant enquired whether he should approach the Rev. Father and to get renewed his assurances, the reply was in flat 'no' with a news that the Rev. Father had sent instructions not to give him the interviews. The Research Assistant very much regrets his inability to get any information from the Church authorities. For this non-co-operation on the part of the Church authorities, he could not blame any individuals concerned. He had, however, suspicions that the authorities of that religious organisation were simply abiding by the general rules set by the higher authorities. The Research Assistant, due to lack of time could not investigate the matter with the higher authorities in Mangalore. The experience of the investigator reveals, however, that it is the Christian families who responded in a best manner to our General Family Enquiry. An attempt should be made in the next survey to elicit information about the Church from the top level.

4.8 : Social Entertainment :

(a) Cock fight : It is the most important entertainment for the villagers throughout the year except during the rainy season. The male birds which are specially nursed and trained to fight were brought to the cock-fight ground in Kemmannu locality every evening by 5 p.m. to 6-30 p.m. It was normally observed that there were 20-25 birds present each evening for fight. The birds were brought from distant places like Hangarkatte, Mabukalla, Baikadi in the north. Usually it is the Bant landlords who engage their birds for this game. As spectators all sorts of people from different castes except Brahmins collect near the ground. The usual strength of the

spectators varies between 50 and 100.

The parties concerned, after consulting the honorary referee who is present there make the engagements for the fighting birds. The referee may not allow the fight if he feels that the birds are of unequal size or strength. The bird is supposed to have won the fight which (i) makes his opponent run away from the ground (ii) causes fatal injuries to his opponent or (iii) practically kills the opponent in the fight. Usually the opponent bird is killed by the winner, but the run away from the ground by the opponent rarely happens. If the bird runs away from the ground, it is supposed as a great insult to the owner of the defeated bird. The owner of the winner bird has his claim over the defeated bird dead or alive plus some cash ranging from Re.1 to Rs.3 as fixed during engagement transaction. The bird brought up for fighting costs usually between Rs.8 to Rs.12.

The fighting weapons are small knives with very sharp blades tied to the right feet of the cock. Usually the injuries that occur during the fight, will be of fatal in nature. Sometimes, both the birds are seriously injured and it may result in a sort of confusion as regards the identification of the winning bird. Then the referee will pass his verdict on the basis of the manner of fight, injuries received and the time of death.

The other side of the game is more interesting. The spectators among themselves are betting on a particular bird which they think would win the fight, or be defeated. Most of the spectators collect there only for that purpose. Those who think that a particular bird will win, bet some cash ranging from 1 to 5 rupees and those who do not think that the particular bird will not win, challenge the bet. When the fighting is over, the result also decides

the winners and the defeated among the spectators who betted. The winners receive the cash betted from those who are defeated in the bet.

(b) Buffalo race : Every year, on the first day of the Kartika Vadya, a buffalo race is arranged by a Bant landlord family. A paddy field of an acre size in Kemmannu is reserved for that purpose. After the monsoon crop, the field is cleared and kept ready for 'Kambala' as it is locally known. On the day of Kambala, the field is completely irrigated and then it is levelled with the levelling bar. Kambala ceremony seems to have no religious touch at all. It seems to be just a social entertainment held once a year after the harvest of the monsoon crop.

For the Kambala ceremony during the survey year, 25 pairs of buffaloes from different villages of the taluka had arrived. The majority of the buffaloes were local or belonged to the neighbouring villages. On the day of the Kambala, the buffalo pairs decorated with garlands and horns coloured, were brought to the race ground in a procession with 'Shaha-nai' music. There were some exhibitions of acrobatic feats as the procession came. The head of the family which held the Kambala came forward to welcome the buffalo pairs. The Kambala starts with the beating of the drums. The pairs of buffaloes run a distance of about one furlong. Formerly, it is said, the pair which ran straight and which ran quicker was given a silver medal. Presently no such thing takes place. The best running pairs are run twice or thrice even.

It was estimated that a crowd of about 3000 heads gathered to witness the Kambala. Some 50 petty merchants had opened their shop premises near the Kambala ground. They were mainly sweatmeat sellers, soda and sweet potatoes, bangle shops etc. The total turnover was estimated at Rs. 1000/ for all the establishments for the evening.

(c) Yaksha Gana : It is an ancient art depicting dance, music and drama which is peculiar to South and North Kanara districts of Mysore State. It is performed in open air stage in the paddy fields after the winter crop is harvested. The stage for the theatre is temporarily erected at a location which is at the centre of two or three villages. Two male adults from the Paduthonse village are reported taking part in Yaksha Gana. They are practically engaged in Yaksha Gana as their main source of livelihood.

During the survey year, half a dozen times the Yaksha Gana was staged in the vicinity of the village Paduthonse. The play starts at about 9 p.m. and ends at the early dawn. In most cases the entrance is free and more than 2000 people collect at the auditorium. The Company which stages the play is usually patronized by an individual landlord, or a group of landlords belonging to one village.

Occasional entertainment by wandering tribes :

Beggars - Beggars are rarely seen in this village. Sometime during October, some beggars had come to the market yard (that was the weekly market day). But no information could be collected as they fled towards Kalyanpur.

Kavalettu or Nandi Bail : On 20th January 1959, two families came to the village and had their camp upto 25th instant near the market yard. There were two Nandi Bails, two cows and two calves. The members of the families included three male adults, three female adults and four children. When our investigator approached these people, in the beginning the response was very poor. When the male adults were asked to answer some questions the females and the children started crying. After fairly persuading them for two days the investigator could gather some basic

information about the families. The families belonged to Maratha caste and hailed from rural area of Chitaldurg district in Mysore State. They are engaged in agricultural labour for six months in a year, from June to December at their native place. It is their family custom to stage Nandi Bail play in different parts of the southern Mysore State for the rest of the year. Usually they visit South Kanara district once in five years. Among other episodes, Sita Swayamwara was staged by the Nandi Bail which was very popular. According to the estimates of our investigator they earned Rs.20/- in cash and Rs.30/- in kind especially in form of old clothes.

Chandra Royal Circus : A small circus company by the name 'Chandra Royal Circus' had camped at Kemmannu market yard for eight days from 8th April 1959. There were no animals. Only acrobatic feats from men and women were exhibited. The investigator has estimated the daily collection between Rs.30/- to Rs.40/-.

Puppet Show : On 25th April 1959, a puppet show was exhibited by a professional from Jodhpur. Among other things, he had brought one horse to carry the luggage. There was one male adult, one female adult and a child. The woman used to play on the 'Mridanga' when the play was staged. The man used to hold the string. As the play was explained through the medium of Hindi language, many people who had gathered there could not follow it. The man was disappointed when the collection was Rs.6/- only for that show. The next morning he proceeded to Kalyanpur.

Shree Talkies, Kemmannu : This is a touring talkies and was established for the first time in the year 1956 at Kemmannu. Usually it opens during the month of October and closes by the end of May. So far, three camps were held from 1956-57 to 1958-59. All the three camps were

held at Kemmannu.

The President of the Tonse Panchayat Board is the Proprietor of this talkies. During an interview, he told the Research Assistant that two purposes have been served by establishing this talkies. (i) Availability of good entertainment to the villagers. (ii) An additional and important source of revenue to the Panchayat Board is made available through the entertainment tax.

Fixed Capital : For the cinema site, an area of 1/2 acre has been taken on Multi-right ownership at an annual rent of Rs.40/-. Further, for the construction of the shed, about Rs.4000/- were spent. The machinery and the furniture were purchased at Rs.3000/-. The fixed capital is put at Rs.7000/-.

Circulating Capital : Circulating capital is required for (i) repair charges (ii) expenses over publicity (iii) salary (iv) halting allowance and T.A. (v) Purchase of carbons (vi) Electricity bill (vii) Stationaries and miscellaneous purchases (viii) freight charges (ix) Licence fee and (x) Postage. It was reported the current expenses are met out of the current income or the reserve fund.

Terms of hiring films : Usually there is a contract with the distributors. A share of 50% of the net income (after deducting the entertainment tax and I.N.R. from the gross collection) is paid to the distributors, as the hiring charges. In case of a Box office-hit film, the share of the distributor is bigger. During 1957-58 Rs.8,355/- were paid to the distributors as hiring charges.

Income and Expenditure : The table 4.1 shows in detail, the income and expenditure of the cinema house during 1957-58 camp.

Table 4.1 :

A Statement showing the Income and Expenditure
of the ' Shree Talkies ', Kemmannu, for the
year 1957-1958

.....

Income in Rs.		Expenditure Rs.	
19,824	Sale of Tickets	678	Publicity
300	Slides commercial publicity etc.	939	T.A.etc
180	Share from distri- butors towards I.N.R.	2,360	Salary paid
		3,369	Entertainment tax
		500	Purchase of carbons
		70	Postage
		770	Electricity Bill
		200	Stationaries and misce- llaneous expenses
		475	Freight charges
		44	Rent
		8,355	Distributor's share
		<u>17,751</u>	
		2,553	Net Profit
<u>20,304</u>		<u>20,304</u>	

Quality of the films : During 1957-58 camp, a total number of 60 films were shown. Classified according to the languages, 14 films were Kannada, 30 Tamil, 14 Hindi and 2 English. Classified according to the type of film, 15 were social, 12 historical, 25 stunt and 8 mythological.

Persons entertained : The table 4.2 shows the number of persons entertained from October 1957 to May 1958.

Persons employed : The operator who is a casual immigrant from Kasargod is paid Rs.100/- per month while the assistant operator is paid Rs.40/- per month. It is reported that the assistant operator is the younger

brother of the operator who came along with his brother to this village. Three Gate Keepers on payments of Rs.40/-, Rs.30/- and Rs.20/- per month respectively are appointed. They are also expected to do some miscellaneous services. A part-time booking clerk and a painter each on Rs.20/- per month are employed. The proprietor looks after the general management of the talkies.

Table 4.2 : Number of audience entertained at "Shree" talkies during 1957-1958.

Month	3-Anna Class	6-Anna Class	9-Anna Class	12-Anna Class	Total
October '57	4981	2195	279	45	7500
November	8245	3213	679	63	12,200
December	8411	3391	632	67	12,501
January '58	7873	1778	281	68	10,000
February	6113	2517	307	63	9,000
March	3495	2005	444	66	6,010
April	6820	3087	260	67	10,234
May	7163	2496	283	61	10,003
Total	53,101	20,682	3,165	500	77,448

During an interview, the proprietor claimed that the number of audience during the three camps has shown an increasing trend. He also claimed that the majority of the cine-goers are workers and fisherman, Muslim males, it was observed, were the frequent cine-goers. According to him, it is not risky to run a permanent cinema talkies in Kemmannu.

4.9 : Popular Habits :

Generally, the following habits seemed to be popular in the village. (a) Tea and Coffee ; (b)Chewing tobacco with pan and betel nut; (c) Smoking bidi and cigarette; (d) Drinking illicit liquor and toddy; (e) Snuff.

The main purpose of this section is to describe the extent of the spread of each habit mentioned above. It may be wrong to assume that the next five years will witness a drastic change in the pattern of any of the above habits. However, it will be of use to observe any possible change in the extent of spread of each habit. The data referred here are derived from the Family Budget Enquiry conducted in the Centre for a selected 60 families. The descriptive part is guided by the information available in the investigator's village diary and the Research Assistant's own observations. We shall see below in detail about the popular habits mentioned above.

(a) Tea and Coffee : It was estimated from the family budget enquiry that about 95 per cent of the households in the village are addicted to taking tea or coffee. They purchase tea or coffee powder or both from the market or visit hotels . Some families prepare tea or coffee at home and visit the hotels occasionally. The family budget enquiry revealed that about 65 per cent of the families purchased tea powder and about 29 per cent of the families purchased coffee powder from the market. Per family reported expenditures on tea and coffee were Rs.2.04 and Rs.2.05 respectively per month. (These figures are calculated for the 1st visit only.) 75 per cent of the families reported visiting hotels for snacks and the hot drinks. Per reported family expenditure on hotels was Rs.11.37 per month. It is also believed that these percentages slightly change according to the season. The present figures reveal the extent of expenses during July 1958 to September 1958.

It was observed that the educated and more well-to-do people were inclined to addict to coffee while the rest were in the habit of taking tea. During the course of time, tea may be substituted to a little extent by coffee. However, a large scale substitution may not take because majority

of the population is not addicted to coffee because of the climatic reasons.

(b) Pan-tobacco : About 80 per cent of the families in the Family Budget Enquiry reported that they were purchasing the pan, betel nut and the chewing tobacco. It was observed that the habit of tobacco chewing with pan and betel nut was very widely practised from members of all the castes. Per family expenditure on these items was more than Rs.3/- per month. The raw betel was used with indigenous variety of black leaves. The tobacco used was mainly imported from interior Mysore State. Most of the households addicted to this habit were found to possess (i) a betel nut cracker (ii) a kal-batta and (iii) a spittoon. The nut cracker was used in the first instance, to remove the husk of the raw nut, and secondly to crack it into small pieces. Kalbatta was used for powdering the nut and making an ingredient of the nut powder, pan and lime with tobacco. The spittoon was usually kept in the sitting room. It was meant for spitting the chewed stuff. The members of the family as well as the guests belonging to the equal or superior castes could use the spittoon.

(c) Bidi-cigarette : About the 40 per cent of the families reported expenditure on Bidi and Cigarette in the Family Budget Enquiry. Per family expenditure on these items was more than Rs.3.50 per month. It seemed that the smoking of Bidi or cigarette was not as wide spread as the chewing of the tobacco with the pan and betel nut. Bidis were manufactured locally since 1951 after the establishment of a factory in the village by a Muslim businessman. Other brands of bidis were imported to some extent. Educated and well-to-do classes preferred the cigarettes.

(d) Liquor : Although the region was under 'dry law',

use of toddy and indigenous liquor was widely found among the Catholic Christians and Hindus other than Brahmins and some Bants. A large majority of the Muslims were not addicted to drinking as it was believed to be against the rules of the Koran. Mogavirs, Billavas, Beljadas, Koosas and Koragas used to take toddy while Christians tried illicit liquor. It was believed that the sales depot of the Palmyra Juggery and Neera Producers' Co-operative Society was selling fermented toddy in the name of the Neera. A large majority of the tappers also privately found a good market for toddy illegally retained by them. The indigenous manufacturers of the liquor were mainly concentrated in the islands and numbered eight. The General Family Schedule income figures have failed to inform about this transaction.

(e) Snuff : Only 20 per cent of the households of the Family Budget Enquiry reported expenditure on snuff. Snuff was sold in all the stationery shops in the Kemmannu market. Per family expenditure on snuff was about Re.1.25 nP per month. It was observed that the snuff was mainly used by the older generation. It was also observed that the families belonging to superior castes like Brahmins, Bants among H-indus and Catholic Christians were mainly addicted to this habit. During the re-survey we may observe a slight fall in the percentage of the families using snuff.

4.10 : Schools and Welfare Institutions :

There were two elementary and two higher elementary schools in the Paduthonse village area. The elementary schools conducted classes from 1st to 5th while the higher elementary schools conducted from 1st to 8th classes. The two elementary schools were located in Kandige and Hoode areas respectively. At the higher elementary schools were located in the Kemmannu locality. There were two other elementary schools one at the border of the Mudthonse and the Paduthonse villages in Kammannu, another at the border

of the Bengre and Paduthonse villages at the Adda Bengre locality. Only two elementary schools and two higher elementary schools were covered by a case study and the outcomes are briefly summarised below :

(1) Kandige Elementary School : The school was founded by a Brahmin landlord in 1896. Prior to that, there were no schooling facilities for the residents of the Paduthonse in their village. Those desirous of schooling their children used to send them to Udipi or Brahmavar. The Brahmin gentleman established the school to facilitate the schooling of the Brahmin children in the locality. Still the admission to the school for the non-Brahmin students was not barred. But the sitting arrangement for such students was made outside the school building. The building was too small to accommodate all the students admitted. It was a clumsy mud work roofed by the coconut thatches. There was no governmental or non-governmental financial assistance. The teacher was not paid.

The conditions improved fast during the course of the survival of the school all these years. Information about the financial position of the school is supplied in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 : Financial Position of the Kandige Elementary School.

Year	Govt. aid	Local aid	Salary	Contin-gency	Furniture
1940-41	511-0	-	414-0	-	-
1945-46	826-0	-	751-0	-	-
1950-51	2949-0	-	2874-0	175-0	-
1955-56	3583-0	-	3337-0	268-0	75-0
1957-58	4658-0	-	4636-0	275-0	-

At the time of our survey, the school owned a moderate building with spacious and well ventilated rooms. The first room, built in 1952, measured 30'x18' and the second one

built the next year measured 72'x18'. The first room was used by the head master exclusively while the rest of the teachers conducted their respective classes in the second room.

Including the head master there were five teachers among whom one was a lady. The lady teacher was entrusted with the beginners. The strength of the school was 136, with 73 boys and 63 girls. A caste wise distribution of the students studying in different classes is given in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 : Caste Composition of the Students of Kandige Elementary School belonging to each standard - during 1958-1959.-

Caste	Sex	Ist Std.	IIInd Std.	IIIrd Std.	IVth Std.	Vth Std.
Brahmins	Boys	2	1	-	4	1
	Girls	-	5	1	1	2
Backward Hindus	Boys	20	13	11	8	9
	Girls	15	11	7	11	6
Other Forwards	Boys	-	-	-	-	-
	Girls	-	-	-	-	-
Muslims	Boys	-	2	1	1	-
	Girls	2	-	1	1	-
Christians	Boys	-	-	-	-	-
	Girls	-	-	-	-	-
Scheduled caste, etc.	Boys	-	-	-	-	-
	Girls	-	-	-	-	-
Total	Boys	22	16	12	13	10
	Girls	17	16	9	13	8

(2) Paduthonse Hindustani Elementary School :

The school was established by the District School Board during 1912, to provide schooling facilities to the Muslim children in the Hoode locality, with the medium of the Hindustani language.

The present building of the school was built during 1925. In an interview, some old persons in the surrounding area informed that the earlier building was washed away during the time of the great flood during 1923. The present building of the school was consisted of two rooms of about 500 sq.ft. each. The school was moderately equipped with the furnitures like bhairs and tables for the use of the teachers and the visiting supervisors. The students, however, were squatting on the ground opposite the teacher. More than two classes were held in each class room at a time.

During the survey year, the Tonse Panchayat Board constructed a play-ground in front of the school building. The school children were found making use of the play ground during races hour.

There were 59 boys and 30 girls attending the school during the survey year. All the students belonged to the Muslim community. Table 4.5 gives the distribution of the students in different classes they attended.

Table 4.5 : Paduthonse Hindustani Board Elementary School
Class wise distribution of the students for
- the year 1958-1959 -

1st class	27 boys	9 girls
2nd class	10 boys	7 girls
3rd class	7 boys	6 girls
4th class	8 boys	5 girls
5th class	7 boys	3 girls
Total	59 boys	30 girls

(3) The Kemmannu Aided Higher Elementary School :

The school was founded in June 1926 by the founder of the Kandige Elementary School. The main object of the school was to provide higher elementary education to those poor students who could not afford going outside the

village for that purpose. The well-to-do people were sending their children to places like Brahmavar or Uipi for higher elementary as well as high school education. The opening of such school in the village was felt necessary by the village leaders who approached the District Educational Officer for sanction. Meanwhile the Catholic Missionary at Kaliyanpur also made petition on its own account to sanction the opening of a higher elementary school at Kemmannu. In the beginning there was lot of confusion between the Christians and non-Christians because of the lack of co-ordination in their efforts. However, the District Educational Officer sanctioned both the parties to open their respective schools in the Kemmannu area from June 1926.

The school was administered under the private management. The management was financially aided by the Government. The school also got financial help from villagers whenever it was needed for a specific purpose. Upto 1950-51, school fees were charged to meet out some of the expenses of the school. However, the fees were completely abolished for the first five classes and in case of the higher classes, only those children of the well-to-do parents were charged fees. Table 4.6 shows income and expenditure position of the school for every fifth year from 1925-1926.

The school building consisted of four blocks. The total area under the roof measured about 4000 sq.ft. The first block was built during 1929, and the second, the third and the fourth were built during 1931, 1949 and 1956 respectively. All the rooms were furnished for teachers as well as the students. The school had invested something like Rs.830/- on furnitures and their repairs since its start. Most of the furnitures were manufactured by the students during their 'crafts' hours.

Table 4.7 gives a caste wise distribution of the

Table 4.6 : Financial position of the Kemmannu Aided Higher Elementary School :

Year	I N C O M E			E X P E N D I T U R E			
	Govt. Aid	Private Aid	Fees	Salary	Contingency.	Furnitures & Repairs	Miscellaneous.
1925-26	112	709	18	260	10	169	-
1930-31	1064	-	193	1130	30	69	-
1935-36	1389	-	465	2160	40	32	-
1940-41	1698	700	377	1680	43	250	-
1945-46	2103	1100	540	2384	38	-	87
1950-51	8276	-	728	8770	152	100	116
1955-56	13497	-	26	12122	139	210	918
Worth mentioning -							
1926	-	400	Public donation while starting				
1939	-	700	Old Boys' Association				
1943	-	1100	Vidya Vardhak Sangha				
1946	-	1400	Govt. grant for building and furniture				
1958	-	250	Improvement of the playground.				

students attending the school for every fifth year from 1930-31 to 1955-56 and for the survey year. The figures revealed two tendencies : (i) the non-Brahmin Hindus tended to take more interest in schooling and (ii) the proportion of girls attending the school was increasing.

In table 4.8 data are given in respect of the sex wise distribution of the students attending different classes. The figures mainly reveal that the girls among the backward Hindus and the Muslims were not showing a tendency of continuing their studies when they came to the upper classes. In other cases, irrespective of the caste or sex, a large majority of the students tended to complete the higher elementary course.

Table 4.7 : Changing pattern of caste wise distribution of Students since 1-930.

Caste	Sex	1930	1935	1940	1945	1950	1955
		- 31	- 36	- 41	- 46	- 51	- 56
Brahmins	Boys	31	38	34	41	43	37
	Girls	14	30	21	27	33	37
Non-Brahmins Backward	Boys	66	81	95	121	133	157
	Girls	-	-	-	-	78	73
Non-Brahmins Forward	Boys	23	23	38	52	52	49
	Girls	-	-	-	-	33	34
Scheduled Caste	Boys	-	-	3	4	1	2
	Girls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Muslims	Boys	23	9	15	27	29	46
	Girls	-	-	1	5	8	13
Christians	Boys	-	2	13	5	2	-
	Girls	-	-	2	1	-	-
Total	Boys	120	130	160	198	260	291
	Girls	37	53	62	84	152	157

(4) St. Philomena Higher Elementary School :

The school was founded by the Catholic Missionary of Kalyanpur during 1926. The management was directly under the Rev. Father of the Kalyanpur Church. All the members of the staff were Catholic Christians, a majority of them being the nuns. All the students were also Catholic Christians though there was no rigid rule as to the admission of the students on caste basis.

The management at the first instance was not prepared to give any information at the request of the Research Assistant. However, after explanation of the good purpose of the survey and persuasion it was possible to gather the following information.

The school building had two blocks surrounded by a coconut grove. In one of the three blocks the nuns stayed and the other one was used for engaging classes. The school

Table : 4.8 : Particulars of children classified according to castes, Kemmannu Aided Higher Elementary School, Kemmannu.

Caste	Standards :	VIII		VII		VI		V		IV		III		II		I		Total	
		B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
Brahmin		7	11	5	6	12	8	5	4	5	3	7	2	8	4	5	7	54	45
Non-Brahmin Forward		-	-	2	4	7	8	9	4	3	2	8	4	8	3	4	6	41	22
Non-Brahmin Backward		19	2	31	12	27	13	9	7	21	9	11	14	9	19	39	30	166	106
Harijans		-	-	3	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1
Muslims		6	1	7	-	11	-	8	3	6	3	8	-	1	5	6	4	53	16
Christians		2	-	4	1	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	-
TOTAL		34	15	52	23	60	29	33	18	35	17	34	20	23	31	54	47	228	200

rooms were equipped with furnitures for teachers as well as students. The playground was in the school compound and occupied an area of about one acre.

There were 380 students studying in different classes, of whom 182 were boys and 198 were girls. It seems to be important to note that the proportion of the boys to girls was 1.0 : 1.1. The greater awareness of the education for women among the Catholic Christians was revealed by those figures.

There were thirteen teachers, all ladies, The girl students were taught needle work and embroidery along with the usual syllabus.

(5) Monthly Teachers' meeting :

Teachers from seven elementary schools, two from Paduthonse, three from Madthonse, one each from Badanidiyur and Bengre and two higher elementary schools of Kemmannu were meeting at the Aided Higher Elementary School on every second Saturday of each calendar month. The main objects of the meeting were to (i) discuss the problems of mutual interests, (ii) make experiments in the methods of teaching, (iii) exhibit the work of art like drawing and painting, (iv) recite poems etc. The Research Assistant attended two such meetings and observed that the meetings contributed to the competition for maintaining the efficiency in the art of teaching.

Women Welfare Centre, Padu Kudru :

This Welfare Centre was established at Kemmannu in July 1956. Then it was shifted to Padu Kudru.

During 1955, the President of the Panchayat Board felt that there is a need for such centre in Kemmannu area, so he sent a petition to the Conveyor of the Welfare Project at Udipi. The project was financed under Kasturba Fund. The Centre at Kemmannu was sanctioned and opened

in July 1956.

The aims and objects of this centre are to, (i) facilitate the kindergarten type of education to children between ages 3 and 6, (ii) craft, tailoring etc., for women, (iii) spreading the knowledge of Hindi and (iv) a midwife's services were provided to the villagers free of charge.

The building is rented for Rs.8/- per month. There are six rooms and each room is furnished to the requirement. The recorded list of the furnitures read the following : four chairs, two almiras with glasses, two benches, two stools, one blackboard with stand, and one table.

There are three social workers in the centre, all females. Each of them are entrusted respectively with children welfare, craft and tailoring and midwifery. Once in a week a tutor in Hindi comes from Udipi and engages classes in this centre.

Under the children welfare scheme, children under the age group of three and six are admitted to the classes. Children are taught to play, sing and tell stories. They learn alphabets and count numbers from 1 to 100. They are also taught to speak correct Kannada. There were 18 children attending the class during the survey year. It was reported that the children are provided with milk in the morning. No kind of fee is charged for the children attending the class.

The response to the services of the midwife seems to be enthusiastic. Her services are especially valuable to the pregnant women who seek her advice. At the time of delivery her services are almost indispensable to the villagers. Her services are free of charge. Nevertheless, people pay her according to their capacity with a sense of gratitude.

During the survey year about 21 women, all above 13 years of age, were taking a course in tailoring. Apart from that the centre was also interested in (i) spreading

the reading habits among the women (ii) culinary art (iii) light music and (iv) participation in debate.

A caste wise distribution of the students was not possible as the record is not kept in that respect. It seems that the Christians are taking much interest. Among the Hindus, a few backward class students are attending. Response from the upper class Hindus is very poor. There are no Muslim students in the centre.

Thonse Roshani Society :

Originally this society was known as "Vachanalaya - Sangha". Later it assumed the title of "Thonse Islamia Library". However, it was only recently that the members desired that this society should be more than a mere library - and this consequently led to a further change in the name and was finally re-christened as 'Thonse - Roshani Society'.

The 'Vachanalaya Sangha', was originally founded by six young Muslim students of Timman Kudru who were then studying in the Higher Elementary School at Kemmannu. They were aged between 9 and 12 and were very intelligent students. They had some ideals before them which they wanted to achieve during their life time. Later on, three of these six founder members took their M.B.B.S. degrees from different Indian Universities. The fourth one took his B.A. degree from Madras University. The rest two could study upto matriculation standard only because mainly of economic reasons. Of the first three who got their M.B.B.S. degrees, the first one is presently working as a resident physician at the Sheikdom of Bahnein in Porsian Gulf. The second one is in the United States of America working for his post-graduate course in surgery. The last one immediately after his graduation established his own dispensary at Kemmannu. The fourth one who got

his B.A. did not go out for any job after taking his degree, instead he stayed in the village and has undertaken fish dealing. Of the rest two who did only their matriculation were engaged in a dispensary as a compounder and in a stationery shop respectively.

The chief aims and objects of the society are to achieve and thereby promote good will and understanding among the members. The society helps poor students in purchase of their school requirements and establish a night school, invite learneds to deliver lectures. The society has donated funds to the most intelligent students at schools. The society owns a ferry boat and provides free ferry service between Padukudru and Timmankudru river. It has donated a First-Aid box to the Aided Higher Elementary school at Kemmannu. The society publishes a handwritten annual magazine where amateurs and others find opportunity to get their articles published.

The original contribution of membership was as low as one pie per month, was raised to one pice later and after about five years from the establishment of the society the fee was raised to annas twelve per year. Formerly there was no admission fee but later the new members admitted were charged annas four apart from their annual membership fee.

The society owns one almirah worth Rs.145/- and book rack worth Rs.15/- purchased during 1949. In 1956, the society purchased a ferry boat for Rs.88/- to benefit the Timmankudru residents. After two years, it was disposed off for Rs.50/- and a bigger boat was purchased for Rs.157/.

The Library has no reading room of its own. The books are kept with one of the members.

The Tonse Panchayat Board Library and the Reading Room :
The Panchayat Board opened a Library and a Reading

room during 1953 as per the Board's resolution No.77 dated 10-11-1953. In its meeting, the Board framed a separate constitution for the library and that was approved by the District Educational Officer. As per the constitution, the Panchayat Board President should be the Honorary Secretary of the library and the clerk of the Panchayat Board should be the Librarian. The Board is paying a salary of Rs.8/- per month to the Librarian. A Reading Room is also attached to this library. Both the Library and the reading room are located in a rented single spacious room and are accessible to the public. The Board is paying a rent of Rs.8/- per month.

The reading room is furnished with five chairs, four benches, one big table. There are two almirahs for keeping the books. All these furnitures valued at Rs.300/-, were purchased by the Board in various years. There is a Radio-set in the reading room which is usually tuned on between 5 p.m. and 7-30 p.m.

There are 36 readers who have kept a deposit of Rs.2/- each with the library and they are entitled to take the books home. Once a book is borrowed, the borrower should return it within a fortnight, failing to do so, his deposit would be forfeited.

Daily nearly 70-80 visitors take the benefit of the reading room. It was reported that the majority of the visitors are students.

Since 1957 the library is getting a grant of Rs.40/- per annum from the Government. The Board is spending Rs.300/- per annum for the purchase of books and the periodicals. Books are also received from the public as gifts.

The table 4.9 shows the books and the periodicals classified according to the type and the language.

Table 4.9 : Tonse Panchayat Board Library Books and Periodicals

Language	Books			Periodicals			
	Poetry	Prose	Fic- tion	Drama	Daily	Week- ly	Month- ly
Kannada	21	128	237	11	2	8	6
English	1	34	23	-	1	1	2
Hindi	-	8	-	-	-	-	-

4.11 : Village Administration :

Village Officers : As usual, the village administration is carried on by two officers the Patel (the chief-tain of the village) and the Shanbhogue (the village account keeper) assisted by the Ugranis (the village messengers). The assignments are hereditary. In exceptional cases, when the person holding the right to the assignment is incapable of holding the assignment, another person will be temporarily appointed by the Government in his place. In case of Paduthonse village, but for the Shanbhogue's post, all were held hereditarily. The shanbhogue was appointed temporarily by the Government as the hereditary right holder was a minor. There are no Inam lands attached to the above posts. The officers as well as their messengers get monthly salary from the Government.

Patel : He is a catholic christian and enjoys the hereditary right to this post. He is aged 31 and is educated upto VI standard. He owns land worth 3.90 acres and his annual income was reported as Rs.1849. He receives from the Government Rs.22/- per month. He has rented a room in the Kemmannu market for his office and pays Rs.8/- per month towards its rent, from his own pocket. Government

does not own any building for Patel's office. The Patel has furnished his rooms with furnitures of his own.

The main duties ascribed to Patel were : (1) to collect the land revenue (ii) to maintain law and order in the village. Usually he will be present in the proceedings of the Panchayat Board Court. Especially when he suits are of criminal nature, Patel's voice reflects in the verdiction.

Shanbogue : He is a Hindu Bant and aged 51 years. Originally he belongs to Adi Udipi and came to this village 16 years back. He was appointed by the Government as the hereditary right holder was a minor. He receives Rs.25/- per month as salary. Like the Patel the Shanbhogue has also rented a room in Kemmannu market for his office purpose, at his own expenses and has furnished the room with his own furnitures. The Shanbhogue is educated upto VII standard and owns no property at the village.

The main duties of the Shanbhogue are (i) to keep and maintain the village records (ii) helping the patel in collection of land revenue and keeping its account, and (iii) execution of the orders of the Tehsildar in the village.

Ugranis : There are three Ugranis, two assisting the work of the Patel and one assisting the work of the Shanbhogue. One each of them belong to Muslim, Maratha and Roman Catholic Christian castes respectively. They do not possess any Inam land. They are paid by the Government a monthly salary of Rs.22/- each.

The duties of the Ugranis assisting the Patel are (i) to assist the Patel in collecting the land revenue (ii) to assist the vaccinator when he visits the village. (iii) to assist the other revenue and Police officers when they visit the village and (iv) to assist the Patel in maintaining law and order in the village.

The duties of the Ugrani assisting the Shanbhogue

are (i) to assist the shanbhogue when he is on field and (ii) to deliver Government notices to the cultivators.

4.12 : Tonse Panchayat Board :

Establishment : The Panchayat Board was established in February 1939, as per the Madras Local Boards Act XIV of 1920. As nomination is not in vogue, this Panchayat Board is an elected body. The election has taken place only three times after the formation of the Panchayat. The first election took place in February 1939 when the President was unanimously elected. No election was held during the period from 1939 to 1953, as it was stated the period of the second World War and other difficulties with the Government. But it is felt that the above reason was unsatisfactory at least after independence. The second election was held some time during January 1953. It seems that by the time younger generation with new ideas of development was gaining prominency in the village and that generation was mainly dissatisfied with the achievements of the previous Board headed by an old president. There was not much struggle, however, as the old president made room for the new generation by not contesting for the election himself and advising his then colleagues to abstain from the election. So the whole Board was elected unanimously during January 1953 with a matriculated young Brahmin as its president. The third election took place in May 1958 when the existing Board was unanimously elected with one exception of a member from the Adda Bengre area who was contested by a new entrant and was defeated in the election.

Development and present position of the Panchayat :

The nature of the resolutions which are mentioned year wise in the second part of this section reveals that the old Panchayat Board which held office from 1939 to 1953

did very little that could have contributed to the general welfare of the village, while the new Panchayat Board from its very initiation has tried to develop the different aspects of the village welfare by actively associating with the developmental works. The following reasons may be given as regards the stagnation of the old society. (i) The income of the society was very low. (ii) Government aid was negligible during the foreign rule. (iii) The members and the President of the old Board were lethargic in respect of the developmental ideas.

However, when the new Board took office during 1953, the real phase of development started. The time was very ripe for the new Board as our National Government had launched the first five year plan and the country was under development conscious. The old Board had constructed some eight wooden bridges to the streams at a total cost of Rs.300/- and had constructed one wooden foot-bridge to the Kemmannu river at a cost of Rs.7,000/- half of which being received from the Government as grants. While the second Board could do many more things during a short period, which are summarised here below :

(1) Steps to increase the income : In the first instance, house tax was assessed in a progressive manner, so the Board could get additional Rs.1500/- from this source only. Secondly, the Board introduced taxes on vehicles, professional tax, market duties and duties on ferry. Thirdly, there was a major addition in the Board's income through the entertainment tax since 1956. By that year the President of the Board had started a Touring Cinema Talkies in the Kemmannu area.

(2) Communications : A large number of the foot-bridges, nearly 21 were built or had their major repairs in different localities of the village. The approach road from Kalyanpur to Kemmannu was got repaired and two

coastal approach roads were built from Kemmannu to connect Kemmannu Gujjarbetta and Kemmannu - Hoode. Kemmannu market street was metalled and gutters were built on both sides. Two wharfs were constctued to the river, one at Kemmannu and the other at Baligerkudru.

(3) **Electricity :** It should be admitted that only through the perseverance of the Board, the village could get electricity from Hydro-electric project at Jog. The Board is presently maintaining 16 electric street lights and some eight kerosene oil lamps in different parts of the village for lighting purpose.

(4) **Other Welfare Works :** The Board started a reading room, a library and has constructed a market yard, three wells and two playgrounds for the children. It has held public meetings to crystalise the demand for establishing a High School in the village and has passed a couple of resolutions on its own account urging the ministry of education to consider the matter.

(5) **Power and functions :** By getting a scheme approved by a majority in the meeting of the Board, the Board can execute original work upto the cost of Rs.500/- and execute repairs upto the cost of Rs.850/- . Above that, technical sanction from the competitive authority should be obtained. The Panchayat Board is holding a court also. Civil suits upto Rs.100/ and criminal suits are tried.

Usually once during a month the Panchayat will meet in the office room of the Board. The Board will approve the expenditures and discuss the administrative matters. One third of the total members must be present for the quorum.

The Budget expenditure and receipts :

In table 4.10 figures are prescribed in respect of the receipts and expenditures of the Panchayat Board for six years from 1952-53 to 1957-58. The figures suggest that the Panchayat since 1953-54, under the new President

Table 4.10 : Receipts and Expenditures of Tonse Panchayat Board from 1952-53 to 1957-58.

Head of Accounts	R E C E I P T S .						Head of Expenditure	E X P E N D I T U R E S						
	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58		1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	
Opening balance	3607	8807	9842	9636	5442	3121	<u>Establishment</u>							
Land cess	199	202	200	200	471	201	Staff	439	550	756	788	819	849	
License Fees	438	377	321	360	375	364	Rent	72	112	64	128	203	176	
Profession tax	172	134	147	262	160	233	Postage & contingency	-	54	86	130	106	110	
House tax	572	1006	1063	1072	1138	751	Books and Forms	13	91	113	-	-	122	
Vehicle tax	60	87	122	116	91	47	Travelling Allowance	14	87	45	13	9	18	
Market fees	420	562	520	521	398	320	Tools and Plants	-	43	113	168	18	89	
Ferry Fees	352	375	501	415	477	410	<u>Communication</u>							
Fines	2	-	-	-	-	-	New Roads	-	-	-	-	-	1078	
Interest	53	24	12	29	19	215	Road Repairs	-	-	-	80	448	824	
Library grants	-	-	-	-	-	80	Foot bridges	-	1405	3055	1555	996	1455	
Land Surcharge duty	3040	833	881	821	983	702	Street lights	259	199	220	212	418	457	
Entertainment tax	82	-	36	-	429	2852	Market sheds	-	-	-	50	928	-	
Government Grants	744	408	1944	-	-	-	Road Sweeping	108	112	120	120	130	120	
Miscellaneous	30	-	7	13	21	-	Well repairs	25	-	-	-	-	-	
Miscellaneous auction	-	31	91	21	46	49	Reading room	-	95	130	164	133	217	
Contribution	-	-	-	-	-	24	Library	-	54	155	245	56	105	
Sub-total for current receipts	6164	4039	5845	4140	4608	6248	Librarian	-	-	3	36	45	72	
							Radio Maintenance	-	150	170	108	75	160	
							<u>Others</u>							
							Contribution for Local Development works (which works the Board executed)	5	-	870	4253	2350	713	
							Celebration of Vana-Mahostava & other days	-	5	-	-	25	45	
							Market rent	20	20	20	20	40	19	
							Publication charge	7	9	13	11	8	12	
							Election charge	-	-	-	-	-	25	
							Sports club	-	-	90	27	-	-	
							Miscellaneous	2	18	28	226	122	21	
TOTAL	9771	12846	15687	13776	10050	9369	TOTAL	964	3004	6051	8334	6929	6687	

with his team of the youngsters, has tremendously increased its annual income and is tending towards the large scale expenditure on roads, constructing bridges and some welfare works for which the funds contributed from the Local Development Works were used. It is also seen that the Board is spending its accumulated reserves very intensively during these years for the development works. For example, we see a decreasing trend in the opening balances for the years from 1954-55 to 1957-58. The Board may reach a stage sometime during the next five years where it should either increase its revenues by some other means or cease to spend on the developmental activities at this rate, of course other things remaining the same. It is suggested here to observe the trends of the revenue-expenditure budgets of the Panchayat Board very minutely for the coming years so that some meaningful conclusions could be drawn at that stage about the growth- its continuity and obstacles of the Panchayat Board.

Local Development Works Scheme : Under this scheme developmental schemes prepared by the Panchayat Board were partially accommodated with financial help. Usually 50 per cent of the total expenditure was contributed by the Board and 50 per cent by the Government under Local Development Works Scheme. From 1955-56 to 1957-58, the Board received aid from the Local Development Works to the tune of Rs. 19,250/- and the Board on its behalf contributed during the same period, about Rs. 8,000/- to some of the developmental schemes undertaken in the village. It should be noted that the Government Grants which the Board used to receive previously were merged in the contributions of the Local Development Works Scheme. Some schemes were financed entirely under the Local Development Works scheme. Two approach roads from Kemmannu to the coast, metalling the Kemmannu market road, market yard, children's play -

TABLE 4.11 : Occupation-wise distribution of the families belonging to different castes.

Occupations	Brahmins		Cultivation Castes				Artisan caste	Service Castes				Fishing Castes	Depressed Castes		Muslims		Christians	Total		
	Brahmins	G.S. Brahmins	Mara-tha	Bant va	Billa-va	Bejad	V.K. Brahmins	Parel Madi-val	Bhan-dari	Deva-diga	Ganig	Moga-vir	Karvi	Koosa	Koraga	Sayyad yat	Nava-yat		Byari	Roman Catholic
I <u>Agricultural Total</u>	23 (63.9)	1 (10.0)	-	31 (73.8)	52 (31.7)	22 (44.0)	1 (25.0)	-	-	1 (100.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (1.6)	-	18 (26.9)	1 (33.3)	9 (27.3)	25 (11.3)	-	71 (43.0)	264 (27.5)
1. Paddy cultivation mainly owned	6	-	-	22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Paddy cultivation mainly un-owned	4	-	-	6	10	1	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	8
3. Coconut cultivation mainly owned	4	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	10	-	-	17
4. Coconut cultivation mainly un-owned	4	1	-	-	11	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	3	6	-	-	36
5. Cultivation labour	-	-	-	1	26	20	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	17	1	-	9	-	-	4
6. Rent receiver	5	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
II <u>Fishing Total</u>	-	-	-	-	33 (20.1)	3 (6.0)	-	-	-	-	-	104 (85.4)	13 (100.0)	43 (64.2)	-	1 (3.0)	37 (16.7)	3 (60.0)	4 (2.4)	241 (25.1)
1. Fishing in sea	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	96	11	-	-	-	1	1	-	-
2. Fishing in river	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Fish curing labour	-	-	-	-	30	3	-	-	-	-	-	5	1	39	-	1	36	2	-	4
III <u>Non-agricultural Production etc.</u>	-	-	-	5 (11.9)	29 (17.7)	16 (32.0)	3 (75.0)	-	-	-	5 (25.0)	-	-	2 (3.0)	1 (33.3)	16 (48.5)	70 (31.7)	1 (20.0)	26 (15.8)	174 (18.1)
IV <u>Trade</u>	1 (2.8)	5 (50.0)	1 (100.0)	-	2 (1.2)	1 (2.0)	-	-	-	-	1 (5.0)	11 (9.0)	-	-	-	6 (18.2)	40 (18.1)	1 (20.0)	4 (2.4)	73 (7.5)
V <u>Transport</u>	-	-	-	1 (2.4)	17 (10.4)	3 (6.0)	-	-	-	-	3 (15.0)	2 (1.6)	-	-	-	-	23 (10.4)	-	11 (6.7)	60 (6.2)
VI <u>Construction</u>	-	-	-	-	4 (2.5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 (4.5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	7 (0.7)
VII <u>Services</u>	9 (25.0)	3 (30.0)	-	2 (4.8)	13 (7.9)	4 (8.0)	-	3 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	-	3 (15.0)	2 (1.6)	-	-	-	1 (3.0)	13 (5.9)	-	9 (5.5)	62 (6.6)
VIII <u>Unproductive Services</u>	3 (8.3)	1 (10.0)	-	3 (7.1)	14 (8.5)	1 (2.0)	-	-	-	-	1 (5.0)	1 (0.8)	-	1 (1.4)	1 (33.3)	-	13 (5.9)	-	40 (24.2)	79 (8.3)
1. Remittances	3	-	-	3	14	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	12	-	-	39
2. Other Unproductive sources	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
TOTAL	36 (100)	10 (100)	1 (100)	42 (100)	164 (100)	50 (100)	4 (100)	3 (100)	1 (100)	1 (100)	20 (100)	122 (100)	13 (100)	67 (100)	3 (100)	33 (100)	221 (100)	5 (100)	165 (100)	960 (100)

NOTE : Figures in brackets are percentages of bottom totals.

grounds are the main achievements of the Local Development Works Scheme.

4.13: Caste -cum Occupation Relationship :

In Section 4.3 above we cited that caste-cum occupation relationship was still prominent in the village. However, the trends of occupational change were observed to some extent in different caste groups. It is important to observe such trends as the trends of occupational shift may reveal the deteriorating conditions in the traditional occupation due to introduction of technology in that field or internal pressure of the population may necessitate such shifts; or such other reasons. In this section we have tried to analyse the existing relationship between a caste group and its traditional occupation to what extent the occupational shift is taking place and how it varies from caste to caste. We have also tried to explain the present trends of occupational shifts of a given caste group.

Table 4.11 gives data about the caste groups following different occupations as the main source of their livelihood. For brevity sake, we have made eight broader groups of the occupations mainly followed in the village as I : Agriculture, II: Fishing, III: Non-agricultural production, processing etc. IV: Trade, V: Transport, VI: Construction of buildings and roads, VII: Services and VIII: Unproductive sources of income. However, we felt that it might be useful to supply data for individual occupation of the groups I, II and VIII. Group I comprises of individual occupations like (1) Paddy cultivation mainly owned; (2) Paddy cultivation mainly unowned; (3) Coconut cultivation mainly owned; (4) Coconut cultivation mainly unowned; (5) Cultivation labour; and finally (6) Rent receiver. In the similar way, Group II consists

of three individual sub-occupations, like (1) Fishing in sea; (2) Fishing in river and (3) Fish curing labour. In Group VIII, in breaking the sub occupations our interest was to separate the outside money remittances from rest of the unproductive sources of income. Hence, we have divided that group into mainly two as (1) remittances and (2) other unproductive sources of income.

On the other hand we have supplied data about the individual castes separately. However, we have arranged such castes into broader groups as (1) Brahmins and allied castes (2) cultivating castes (3) Artisan castes (4) Service castes (5) Fishing castes (6) Depressed castes (7) Muslims and (8) Christians. Caste groups from 1 to 6 constitute different castes of the Hindu religion and each such caste it is believed is traditionally bound by an occupation followed since generations. In the forthcoming paragraphs we shall observe the occupational pattern of each caste group with reference to its traditional occupation. As the cases of Muslims and Christians are not bound by any traditional occupation we shall deal with them separately at the end.

Brahmins : We have classified Brahmins mainly as the native Brahmins who are commonly known on the Shivalli of Kota Brahmins and the Gouda Saraswat Brahmins who are migrated to this region from Goa. The traditional occupation of the native Brahmins seem to be the religious service and to a little extent, agriculture. Presently, these Brahmins are mainly engaged in Agriculture. The figures reveal that nearly 64 per cent of them are engaged in Agriculture. On the other hand, about three per cent are engaged in trade, 25 per cent in services and 8 per cent drew their main source of income from the family remittances. As the Gouda Saraswat Brahmins are immigrants, they do not own much land and their main interest in trade and

services. The figures reveal that 50 per cent and 30 per cent of them are engaged in trade and services respectively while 10 per cent are drawing their main income from Agriculture and rest 10 per cent from the unproductive sources of income.

Cultivation Castes : The traditional cultivation castes are 4 in number, namely (i) Maratha, (ii) Bant, (iii) Billava and (iv) Beljada. A solitary instance of the presence of a Maratha family in the village is not representing the true characteristics of a caste group. Although the traditional occupation of the Marathas is generally taken as Agriculture, the Maratha family in this village no longer represents a cultivating caste as it might be one among such thousands of Maratha families migrated to the South Mysore as the warriors of the Peshwas who fought against Hyder Ali in the beginning of the last quarter of the 18th century. The Maratha family of the village is presently engaged in trade as an unclassified hawker. Hence, we do not have any reason to consider the Marathas of the South Kanara representing a traditional cultivating caste.

The Bants are the original landlords and the traditional cultivators. The data show that presently 73.8% of the Bant families are mainly engaged in Agriculture while 11.9% are engaged in Non-agricultural production and processing, 2.4% in transport, 4.8% in services and 7% draw their main source of income from remittances from outside. The Bants are mainly engaged in Agriculture as (i) cultivators of paddy fields mainly owned and (ii) cultivators of paddy fields mainly unowned. While, the Billavas as a cultivating caste, are mainly engaged in Agriculture as the cultivating labour. It was learnt that the traditional occupation of the Billavas was

tapping the toddy and to some extent cultivation labour. Presently, the Billavas are engaged in all the eight classified occupation groups but to a greater extent in Agriculture and Fishing. In both these fields, they are engaged as the labourers. As a majority of the families in this caste group are engaged in some kind of labour, this caste group may be said to be representing the labour force of the village. Due to internal pressure of the population, presently this caste group no longer represents one traditional occupation as such. As the figures reveal, 31.7 per cent of them are engaged in Agriculture while 20.1 per cent are engaged in Fishing. On the other hand, 17.7 per cent are drawing their main income from Non-agricultural production (mainly production of 'neera'), 1.2 per cent from trade, 10.4 per cent from transport, 2.5 per cent construction, 7.9 per cent from services and 8.5 per cent from unproductive sources.

The traditional occupation of the Beljadas is reported as preparation of Tad Gud. To some extent, they also claim that their traditional occupation is cultivation labour. Presently, 44 per cent are engaged in Agriculture (mainly cultivation labour), 6 per cent in Fishing (Fish curing labour), 32 per cent in non-agriculture production, processing etc (mainly preparation of Tad Gud), 2 per cent in Trade, 6 per cent in transport, 8 per cent in services and 2 per cent draw their main source of income from unproductive sources.

Artisan castes : There were only 4 Vishwa Karma Brahmin families, a solitary caste group representing the artisans. Of these 4, 3 were engaged in their traditional occupation, while one was engaged in coconut cultivation, mainly unowned.

Service castes : There were four caste groups with

different village-services as their traditional occupations. Of the three Parel Madiwal families, one was a washerman and two were barbers. A solitary Bhandari family was following its traditional occupation, as a barber. On the other hand, a solitary Devadiga family, though engaged partly in its traditional occupation of services in the village temple, claimed cultivation of paddy fields mainly unowned as its main occupation.

The traditional occupation of the Ganigs is that of vegetable oil pressing. But presently, it is mainly supposed to be a service caste group. There were only two instances of oil pressing undertaken as a subsidiary source of income. Presently, 35 per cent of them are engaged in Agriculture (mainly as cultivation labourers) 25 per cent in non-agricultural production and processing 5 per cent in trade, 15 per cent in transport, 15 per cent in services and 5 per cent derive their income from unproductive sources.

Fishing castes : There were two traditional fishing castes, namely (i) Mogavirs and (ii) Karvis. The figures reveal that 85.4 per cent of the Mogavirs are engaged in Fishing, while 1.6 per cent in Agriculture, 9 per cent in trade (mainly with trade), 1.6 per cent in transport, 1.6 per cent in services and .08 per cent draw their main income from unproductive sources. All the Karvi families in the village are mainly engaged in Fishing.

Depressed castes : There were two depressed castes, namely, Koosas and Koragas. The traditional occupation of the Koosas and Koragas, besides cultivation labour, seems to be the specialised religious service during the 'Kola' and 'Mari' ceremonies. Presently, 26.9 per cent of the Koosas are engaged in Agriculture (as cultivation labourers) , 64.2 per cent in Fishing (in fish curing

labour as well as river fishing), 3 per cent in non-agricultural production, processing etc., 4.5 per cent in construction of buildings, roads etc., and 1.4 per cent in unproductive sources. As regards Koragas, there are only three families and each is engaged respectively in cultivation labour, non-agricultural production and processing and un-productive source as the main source of its income.

Non-Hindu Caste groups : As regards the caste-cum occupation relationship, non-Hindu caste groups are treated separately because none of them claim a traditional occupation as such. We are interested to see whether a particular caste group, under the given circumstances is tending towards specialising in a particular occupation group. Figures in table 3.16 suggest that the sub-castes among Muslims are specialising in different occupation groups. For example, Sayyad and Navayat Muslims are specialising in non-agricultural production and processing, while Byari Muslims are specialising in Fishing. Navayat Muslims have entered the field of Fishing as Fish curing labourers in a sufficiently large number while Sayyad Muslims have not. In case of the Roman Catholics a large majority of them are engaged in Agriculture as the coconut cultivators. On the other hand it is the Roman Catholics who represent the largest number of those deriving their main source of income from the family remittances.

CHAPTER V

- Civil Conditions and Labour Employment -

The present chapter studies, in the first place, the demographic data collected in the General Family Enquiry. In the second instance, problems of labour employment and unemployment will be observed. In case of all the latter, a special enquiry was conducted for selected 60 labour families divided into three groups of 20 families each. Each group was contacted for four times during the survey year for different months to assess the seasonal conditions of labour employment and unemployment. The demographic data were collected on topics such as sex and age composition of the population, marital status, size of family, type of family literacy and education, spatial and occupational mobility of the families, and finally, composition of earners and non-earners in the population.

5.1 : Population :

According to the 1951 census, the population of the village Paduthonse was 4,803. The sex-composition of the population at the time of the 1951 census put 1183 females per 1000 males. Our survey revealed that, after seven years, the sex composition of the population found very negligible change. In 1958-59, there were 1190 females per 1000 males. Percentage distribution of the population according to sex was, in 1951, 45.7% males and 54.3% females, while in 1958-59, the corresponding figures were 45.6 per cent males and 54.4 per cent females. There was an increase of 13.5 per cent of the population during the seven years. For the corresponding period, the sex wise increase of population was 13.4 per cent for males and 13.5 per cent for females.

The main trend observed in the population structure was that the sex composition balanced unfavourably with the males. The reason for the overall shortage of the males seems to be due to the fact that a large number of young men migrate every year to places like Bombay in search of

jobs, while the degree of female outmigration is comparatively lower. Following figures show that the sex composition changes for different age groups.

<u>Age groups</u> <u>(years)</u>	<u>Females per 1000 males.</u>
Upto 14	988
15 - 20	1526
21 - 35	1430
36 - 55	1355
Above 55	1072

The above figures reveal three trends in the sex composition for different age groups. First, upto the age of 14 there were only 988 girls per 1000 boys. Secondly, after the age of 15, boys started migrating out on a very large scale in search of a career. Hence, in the age group from 15 to 20 we observe an entirely different picture from the trend observed in the first age group. In the third place, after serving for a given time, say 10 to 20 years, outside the village and earning some money, some of the outmigrants start coming back to the village. But a large majority of them stay outside the village until their retirement. Meanwhile, their families, composed of mainly females and children, stay in the village. Outmigrants seem to visit their families at home once in a year. This trend is observed by the above figures which reveal that the number of females per 1000 males drops from 1526 to 1430 for the age groups from 15 to 20 years to from 21 to 35 years. The corresponding figures for the age groups from 36 to 55 years and above 55 years are 1355 and 1072 respectively showing further decline of female predominance in the sex composition.

5.2 : Sex and Age Composition :

We have mentioned above the proportion of females over males in different broad age groups. In this section, we analyse the age composition of the population for males and females separately. Population is broadly divided into adults and non-adults. Those who are upto 14 years of age

are considered as non-adults. Those who are above 15 years of age are treated as adults. The percentages of adults and non-adults in the total population are 54.7% and 45.3% respectively. Non-adults constitute 50 per cent in the male population while 41.5 per cent in female population. Adults constitute 50 per cent of the male population and 58.5 % of the female population.

Table 5.1 : Distribution of adults and non-adults according to sex and age.

Age Group (years)	ADULTS		NON-ADULTS	
	Males %	Females%	Males%	Females%
Upto 4	-	-	34.6	34.8
5 to 9	-	-	36.5	33.9
10 to 14	-	-	28.9	31.3
15 to 20	18.8	20.6	-	-
21 to 25	12.6	14.4	-	-
26 to 35	23.1	24.0	-	-
36 to 45	17.4	16.9	-	-
46 to 55	12.5	12.2	-	-
56 to 60	5.1	5.1	-	-
Above 61	10.5	6.8	-	-
Total (actual)	100.0 (1245)	100.0 (1734)	100.0 (1243)	100.0 (1228)

Table 5.1 gives percentage distribution of the adults and non-adults according to different age groups. The data are separately given for males and females. It may be seen from the table that 34.6 per cent of the non-adult males and 34.8 per cent of the non-adult females are in the age group upto 4 years. The corresponding figures for the age groups 5 to 9 years and 10 to 14 years are 36.5 per cent and 28.9 per cent for male non-adults and 33.9 per cent and 31.3 per cent for the female non-adults.

Of the adult male population, 18.8 per cent, 12.6 per cent and 23.1 per cent are in the age groups 15 to 20 years, 21 to 25 years and 26 to 35 years respectively. The corresponding figures for the female adults are 20.6 per cent, 14.4 per cent and 24.0 per cent respectively. This reveals the fact that female adults are more concentrated in the earlier age groups than the male adults. In the latter age groups of 36 to 45 years, 46 to 55 years and 56 to 60 years, male adults constitute 17.4 per cent, 12.5 per cent and 5.1 per cent respectively of the total male adult population; while the corresponding figures for female adults are 16.9 per cent, 12.2 per cent and 5.1 per cent respectively. For the age group above 61 years, male adults constitute 10.5 per cent of the total male adult population and the female adults only 6.8 per cent of the total female adult population.

Table 5.2 : Distribution of Population in five Age groups

Age group (years)	Males %	Females %	Total %
Upto 14	50.0	41.5	45.3
15 to 20	9.4	12.1	10.8
21 to 35	17.9	22.4	20.4
36 to 55	14.9	17.0	16.1
Above 56	7.8	7.0	7.4
Total (Actual)	100.0 (2483)	100.0 (2962)	100.0 (5450)

Table 5.2 gives the distribution of the population according to sex, in five age groups. The first group consists of non-adults below fourteen years of age; the second group comprises of the adolescents between 15 to 20 years; in the third group come the young people between 21 to 35 years; the fourth group consists of middle aged persons between 36 to 55 years; and lastly, the fifth group comprises of the old persons who are above 56 years. The table reveals that

50 per cent of the male population and 41.5 per cent of the female population constitute non-adults. 9.4 per cent of the males and 12.1 per cent of the females come under adolescent group. Young people claim 17.9 per cent of the males and 22.4 per cent of the females. Middle aged persons constitute 14.9 per cent of the male population while the corresponding figure for the female population is 17.0 per cent. Lastly, 7.8 per cent of the males and 7.0 per cent of the females are termed as old persons. These figures reveal that concentration of males in the non-adult group and old age group is more than those increase of the females. On the other hand, female population is more concentrated in the 'adolescent' group, 'young persons' group and 'middle aged persons' group than those of the males.

Table 5.3 : Distribution of adults and non-adults according to marital status.

Marital Status	Un-married	Married	Widows	Sepe-rated	Total
Male adults	27.2	67.2	5.0	0.6	100.0 (1245)
Male non-adults	99.9	0.1	-	-	100.0 (1243)
Female adults	10.1	64.8	23.5	1.6	100.0 (1734)
Female non-adults	97.9	2.1	-	-	100.0 (1228)

5.3 : Marital Status :

Table 5.3 gives the sex wise distribution of adults and non-adults according to marital status. Of the total male adults 27.2 per cent are unmarried, 67.2 per cent are married, 5 per cent are widowed and only 0.6 per cent are separated. On the other hand, of the total female adults 10.1 per cent are unmarried, 64.8 per cent are married, 23.5 per cent widowed and 1.6 per cent separated. The percentage of the unmarried female adults is far less than that of the male adults. While the percentages of widowed and

separated female adults are much more than those of the widowed and separated males. Widow remarriage is socially accepted by a majority of the castes in the village. Still, the high percentage of widows in the adult female population of the village shows that, in practice, widows rarely find an opportunity for re-marriage. It may be due to comparatively higher percentages of female adults in the age groups from 15 years to 35 years than those of the male adults.

Table 5.4 : Married non-adults in different castes

Caste	Males			Females			Total
	1-5	6-9	10-14	1-5	6-9	10-14	
Bhillava	-	-	-	-	-	3	3
Mogavir	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Koosa (Harijan)	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Muslim (Navayat)	-	1	-	-	-	18	19
Muslim (Byari)	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
Total	-	1	-	-	-	26	27

Custom of child-marriage seems to be less prevalent in the village. In table 5.4 figures are given about the marital status of the non-adult population, distributed caste-wise. In the age group upto 5 years, cases of married children were not reported at all. In the age group from 6 years to 9 years, a single case of a Navayat Muslim boy of 9 years age was reported. Surprisingly enough, his spouse was aged 10 years old. In the age group from 10 years to 14 years, cases of boy children married are not reported at all. However, 26 cases of girl children are reported married. A large majority of them (18) belonged to the Navayat Muslim caste. Of the rest, 3 were from Bhillavas, 2 each from Mogavirs and Koosas (Harijans) and 1 from Byari Muslims.

5.4 : Size of family :

Table 5.5 gives information about the size wise distribution of the families in different castes.

Table 5.5: Size-wise distribution of the families in different castes

Size of the family	Brahmins %	Cultivating castes %	Artisan Service castes %	Fishermen castes %	Depressed castes %	Muslims %	Christians %	Total %
1	2.2	3.9	17.3	1.5	7.1	3.8	6.6	4.6
2	15.2	10.1	6.9	5.2	8.6	14.3	10.9	10.7
3 to 5	34.8	37.0	24.1	29.6	38.6	36.7	46.1	37.0
6 to 8	28.2	32.3	27.6	38.5	32.8	31.3	27.7	31.6
Above 9	19.6	16.7	24.1	25.2	12.9	13.9	9.7	17.1
Total	100.0 (46)	100.0 (257)	100.0 (29)	100.0 (135)	100.0 (70)	100.0 (259)	100.0 (165)	100.0 (961)

37 per cent of the families claimed 3 to 5 members while 31.6 per cent of the families came under the size group of 6 to 8 members. Those families having 9 and above members were 17.1 per cent. On the other hand, 4.6 per cent were unimember families and 10.7 per cent of the families claimed 2 members each. The figures show that the concentration of the families is in the size groups of 3 to 5 members and 6 to 8 members. It is also important to note that larger families having 9 and above members outnumber the smaller families of unimember character or with two members only. It seems that unimember families are female dominated, because only 1.1 per cent of the total families claim unimember males and the rest 3.5 per cent have unimember females.

Size wise distribution of the families in different castes reveals the following observations :-

- (1) The percentages of the unimember families are more than average in case of artisan and service castes, depressed castes and christians. Fishermen castes

claim lowest percentage of the unimember families.

(ii) Brahmins and Muslims have more than average percentages of the two member families. Christians have more than , but nearer to the average, while cultivating castes have less than but nearer to the average percentages of two member families. Lowest percentage of the two member families is reported by the fishermen castes.

(iii) Christians and depressed castes have more than average percentages of the families having 3 to 5 members, while that of the cultivating castes is equal to the average.

(iv) Fishermen castes, depressed castes and cultivating castes claim more than average percentages of the families having 6 to 8 members while that of the Muslims is less than but nearer the average.

(v) Fishermen castes, artisan and service castes and the Brahmins have more than average percentages of the families having 9 and above members. Lowest percentage is claimed in this category by the Christians.

5.5 : Type of family :

Table 5.6 gives data about the type of the families in the village. About 67.5 per cent of the families are headed by the males and about 32.5 per cent by the females. Only 0.2 per cent of the families are classified as miscellaneous. The families which are headed by the males are further classified into (1) unimember male, (2) Male with or without wife and children, (3) 2 + married children with family, (4) 3 + parents or brothers or sisters married or unmarried with their families (5) 4 + other paternal relations (6) 4 + other maternal relations and (7) 2 + wife's relatives. The families headed by females are classified as (8) females only, (9) female with married or unmarried children, (10) 9 + relatives of children and (11) 9 + parents or other

relations. Largest number of families belong to "male with or without wife and children" type (34 per cent). Those living with their married children with family constitute 10.3 per cent. 17.1 per cent of the families live with their parents and/or brothers or sisters, married or unmarried with their families. On the other hand, 17.9 per cent of the families headed by females live with their married or unmarried children and 6 per cent of such families live with the relations of their children. Males living with their other paternal relations (0.3 per cent), with their other maternal relations (2.8 per cent) or with wife's relations (1.8 per cent) are very few.

Table 5.6 : Distribution of the families according to family type.

Type of the family	No. of families	Percentage
1. Unimember male	11	1.1
2. Male with or without wife-children	327	34.0
3. 2 + married children with family	98	10.3
4. 3 + Parents or brothers or sisters married or unmarried with their families.	164	17.1
5. 4 + other paternal relations	3	0.3
6. 4 + other maternal relations	27	2.8
7. 2 + wife's relations	17	1.8
8. Female only	46	4.8
9. Female with married or unmarried children	172	17.9
10. 9 + relations of children	58	6.0
11. 9 + parents or other relations	36	3.7
12. Miscellaneous	2	0.2
Total	961	100.0

5.6 : Literacy and Education :

We have described in Chapter V Section 10, the working of schools and welfare institutes in the village. There were two elementary schools and two higher elementary schools inside the village boundary. Just on the border of the village there were three more elementary schools within the revenue boundary of the neighbouring villages viz., Badanidiyur, Benzre and Mudthonse.

Table 5.7 : Literates and illiterates in the village according to 1951 census and our enquiry (1958-1959)

	According to 1951 census	According to our enquiry (1958-59)
Percentage of literates in total population	36.8	43.5
Percentage of illiterates in total population	63.2	56.5
Percentage of males among literates	68.3	55.5
Percentage of females among literates	31.7	44.5
Percentage of males among illiterates	32.5	38.1
Percentage of females among illiterates	67.5	61.9

Table 5.7 gives figures about the literates and illiterates in the village according to 1951 census and also according to an enquiry conducted during 1958-59. In 1951 percentage of literates in the total population of the village was 36.8% while it was 43.5% according to our enquiry (1958-59). The corresponding percentages of illiterates were 63.2% and 56.5% respectively. During 1951 68.3 per cent of the literates were males while during 1958-59 it was brought down to 55.5 per cent. The corresponding percentages of males among illiterates were 32.5% and 38.1% respectively. 31.7 per cent of the literates were females during 1951 while, during 1958-59, it has increased to 44.5 per cent. The corresponding percentages of females among illiterates were 67.5 per cent and 61.9 per cent respectively. We observe two trends on the basis of the above data. First, the rate of literacy is fast increasing. Second, literacy among females is increasing more rapidly than among males.

Table 5.8 gives the percentage distribution of the males and females into educands, non-educands, illiterates and not of school age. Males and females are further

divided into adults and non-adults. Educands are those who were attending the school at the time of survey. Non-educands are the literates but not attending the school at the time of survey. Those who could only sign their names were not included among the non-educands. They were considered as illiterates. Those children who were below 5 years were considered as 'not of school age'.

The data reveal that of the male adults 5.1 per cent were educands and 52.4 per cent non-educands, making the literates among male adults 57.5 per cent. Of the female adults, 2.2 per cent were educands and 30.6 per cent were non-educands. Hence the literates among the female adults were 32.8 per cent. 42.5 per cent of the male adults were illiterates while the corresponding figure for the female adults was 67.2 per cent.

Table 5.8 : Distribution according to educands, non-educands, illiterates and not of school age.

	Edu- cands.	Non- edu- cands.	Illi- terates.	Not of School age.	Total
Male adults	5.1	52.4	42.5	-	100.0 (1245)
Male non-adults	42.8	5.6	17.1	34.5	100.0 (1243)
Female adults	2.2	30.6	67.2	-	100.0 (1731)
Female non- -adults	31.6	8.6	25.4	34.4	100.0 (1228)
Total	18.6	25.0	40.8	15.6	100.0 (5150)

Among the male non-adults, 42.8 per cent were educands and 5.6 per cent were non-educands. Hence the literates among the male non-adults were 48.4 per cent. Illiterates among the non-adult males constituted 17.1 per cent while those not of school age were 34.5 per cent. Among the female non-adults 31.6 per cent were educands and 8.6 per cent

were non-educands. Illiterates among the non-adult females constituted 25.4 per cent while those not of school age were 34.4 per cent. Of the total population, 18.6 per cent were educands and 25.0 per cent were non-educands. Hence the total literates among the village population were 43.5 per cent. 40.8 per cent of the total population were illiterates and 15.6 per cent were not of school age.

Literacy and Castes

Table 5.9 presents the percentage distribution of the educands, non-educands and illiterates according to castes. Among the Brahmins, 31.7 per cent were educands, 41.4 per cent were non-educands and 26.9 per cent were illiterates. The corresponding figures for Goud Saraswat Brahmins were 23.8 per cent, 64.3 per cent and 11.9 per cent respectively. Among the cultivating castes, Bants seem to have more advanced in literacy. Among them, 22.1 per cent were educands 34 per cent were non-educands and 43.9 per cent were illiterates. On the other hand, 16.9 per cent of the Billavas and 16.8 per cent of the Beljadas were educands, 21.9 per cent and 10.9 per cent respectively were non-educands and 61.2 per cent and 72.3 per cent respectively were illiterates. In the artisans and service castes, Vishva Karma Brahmins claim 20.6 per cent educands, 50 per cent non-educands and 29.4 per cent illiterates. Among the Ganigas, 16.5 per cent were educands, 27.8 per cent were non-educands and 55.7 per cent were illiterates. Of the Bhandaris and Madiwals, 25 per cent and 42.8 per cent were educands, 33.3 per cent and 14.4 per cent were non-educands and 41.7 per cent and 42.8 per cent were illiterates respectively. Mogavirs and Karvis are two fishing castes which have remained most backward in the field of literacy. 10.9 per cent of the Mogavirs and 3 per cent of the Karvis are educands, 10.3 per cent and 20.9 per cent respectively were non-educands and 78.8 per cent and 76.1 per cent are

Table 5.9 : Literacy according to caste groups I

Castes	Edu- cands %	Non-edu- cands %	Illiterates	Total
I. Brahmins				
Brahmin	31.7	41.4	26.0	100.0
G. S. Brah- min	23.8	64.3	11.9	100.0
II Cultivating castes				
Maratha	37.5	12.5	50.0	100.0
Bant	22.1	34.0	43.9	100.0
Billava	16.9	21.9	61.2	100.0
Belijada	16.8	10.9	72.3	100.0
III Artisans & service castes				
V. K. Brahmin	20.6	50.0	29.4	100.0
Bhandari	25.0	33.3	41.7	100.0
Madiwal	42.8	14.4	42.8	100.0
Devadiga	9.1	36.4	54.5	100.0
Ganiga	16.5	27.8	55.7	100.0
IV. Fishing castes				
Mogavir	10.9	10.3	78.8	100.0
Karvi	3.0	20.9	76.1	100.0
V. Depressed castes				
Koosa	11.0	14.2	74.8	100.0
Koraga	19.1	9.5	71.4	100.0
VI. Muslims				
Sayyad Muslims	24.7	29.0	46.3	100.0
Navayat Muslims	15.0	30.0	55.0	100.0
Byari Muslims	4.0	4.0	92.0	100.0
VII Christians				
Christians	32.0	35.2	32.8	100.0
TOTAL	18.6	25.0	56.4	100.0

illiterates. Depressed castes of Koosas and Koragas are slightly more advanced in the field of literacy than the fishing castes. 11.0 per cent of the Koosas and 19.1 per cent of the Koragas are educands, 14.2 per cent and 9.5 per cent

respectively are non-educands and 74.8 per cent and 71.4 per cent respectively are illiterates.

Among the non-Hindu castes, Roman Catholic Christians are more advanced in literacy than any Muslim sub-castes. Among the Roman Catholic Christians, 32 per cent were educands, 35.2 per cent were non-educands and 32.8 per cent were literates. On the other hand, 24.7 per cent of the Sayyad Muslims, 15 per cent of the Navayat Muslims and 4 per cent of the Byari Muslims were educands, 29 per cent, 30 per cent and 4 per cent respectively were non-educands and 46.3 per cent, 55 per cent and 92 per cent respectively are illiterates.

Table 5.10 : Literacy according to income groups

Income groups (in Rs)	Edu- cands %	Non- edu- cands %	Illi- terates %	Total %
Upto 100	11.5	28.9	59.6	100.0
101 - 250	10.6	15.8	73.9	100.0
251 - 500	12.9	19.3	67.8	100.0
501 - 750	15.7	22.2	62.1	100.0
751 -1000	18.7	26.0	55.3	100.0
1001-1500	22.0	29.8	48.3	100.0
1501-2500	26.8	32.0	41.2	100.0
2501-3500	31.9	33.1	35.0	100.0
3501-5000	36.6	42.7	20.7	100.0
5001-10,000	36.4	47.0	16.6	100.0
above 10,001	54.8	36.4	9.1	100.0
TOTAL	18.6	25.0	56.4	100.0

Literacy according to income groups :

Table 5.10 gives the percentage distribution of educands, non-educands and illiterates, according the income groups. The figures show that income and literacy are directly related while income and illiteracy are inversely related.

The families at the bottom strata of income have shown exceptionally strange tendency. Those whose income is upto Rs.100 have reported 41.4 per cent literates and 59.6 per cent illiterates; while the families coming under Rs.101 to Rs.250 income group have registered only 26.1 per cent literates and 73.9 per cent illiterates. From Rs.101 to Rs.250 income group onward, the percentage of literates gradually goes on increasing. For Rs.251 to Rs.500 group, it is 32.2 per cent; for Rs.501 to Rs.750 income group, it is raised to 37.9 per cent. Further, for Rs.751 to Rs.1000 income group, the literates constitute 44.7 per cent, which is nearer the average percentage of literates in the village. Families drawing their income from Rs.1001 to Rs.1500, Rs.1501 to Rs.2500, Rs.2501 to Rs.3500, Rs.3501 to Rs.5000, Rs.5001 to Rs.10,000 and above Rs.10,001 have recorded the literates as 51.5 per cent, 58.8 per cent, 65 per cent, 79.3 per cent, 83.4 per cent and 90.9 per cent respectively. The fact that literacy and size of income are directly related is made very clear by the above analysis of the data.

The illiterates constitute 73.9 per cent of the families in the Rs.101 to Rs.250 income group. In the next income groups the percentage of illiterates comes down from 67.8 per cent to 9.1 per cent. Hence the figures reveal that illiteracy and size of income are inversely related.

Literacy according to occupation groups :

Table 5.11 gives percentage distribution of the educands, non-educands and illiterates, according to the occupation groups in the village. Highest percentage of literates were found in the 'services' group where 65 per cent reported as literates and only 34 per cent were illiterates. On the other hand, highest percentage of illiterates were reported in the 'Fishing' group where 77.6 per cent were illiterate and only 22.4 per cent were literates. 'Trading' and 'Unproductive sources of income'

groups reported 53 per cent and 57.3 per cent of the literates respectively, slightly higher than the corresponding percentage figure for the 'Agriculture' group which was 53.7 per cent. 'Transport' group reported 42.2 per cent of the literates. The corresponding figures for 'Non agricultural production and processing' and 'construction' groups were 39.2 per cent and 37.5 per cent respectively.

Table 5.11 : Literacy according to occupation groups :

Occupation groups	Edu-cands %	Non-edu-cands %	Illi-terates. %	Total %
Agriculture	22.8	30.9	46.3	100.0
Fishing	9.9	12.5	77.6	100.0
Non-agricultural production and processing	15.8	23.4	60.8	100.0
Trade	23.1	32.9	44.0	100.0
Transport	16.0	26.2	57.8	100.0
Construction	15.6	21.9	62.5	100.0
Services	29.1	36.9	34.0	100.0
Unproductive sources	27.6	29.7	42.7	100.0
TOTAL	18.6	25.0	56.4	100.0

5.7: Inmigration :

About 33.3 per cent of the total number of the families were found to have their origin outside the village. They were treated as innigrant families. In table 5.12 we give the place of origin of such innigrant families. 77 per cent of the total innigrant families were migrated from neighbouring villages like Bengre, Haradi, Baikadi, Uppur, Mudthonse, Kela Arkal Bettu and Badanidiyur. Some 13.4 per cent of the families had their origin in the distant villages belonging to Udipi taluka. Only 7.2 per cent of families had come from the places outside Udipi taluka but in the South Kanara district. Lastly 1.5 per cent of the families reported their

place of origin outside the boundaries of South Kanara district.

Table 5.12: Distribution of immigrant families according to place of origin.

Place of Origin	No. of cases reported.	Percentage
Neighbouring village	249	77.0
Udipi taluka	43	13.4
South Kanara district	23	7.2
Neighbouring district	5	1.5
Total	320	100.0

Table 5.13 : Distance of the place of the origin :

Distance of the place of the origin (miles)	No. of cases reported	Percentage
Not reported	4	1.3
1 - 5	200	62.5
6 - 10	58	18.1
11 - 20	32	10.0
21 - 30	11	3.4
31 - 40	6	1.9
41 - 60	7	2.2
61 - 100	2	0.6
TOTAL	320	100.0

Table 5.13 gives the distance of the place of origin of the migrated families. 62.5 per cent of the families reported their place of origin at a distance upto 5 miles from the village. 18.1 per cent of the families had their origin at a distance of 6 to 10 miles from the village. At a distance of 11 to 20 miles from the village, 10 per cent of the families had their place of origin. 3.4 per cent, 1.9 per cent and 2.2 per cent of the inmigrated families had their origin at the distances of 21 to 30 miles, 31 to

40 miles and 41 to 60 miles respectively. Only 0.6 per cent of the families reported their origin at a distance of 61 to 100 miles from the village. 1.3 per cent of the families did not report the distance of the place of origin from the village.

Table 5.14: Reasons for immigration :

Reason	No. of cases	Percentage
For service	4	1.3
For occupation	78	24.4
For business	3	0.9
To live with relatives	45	14.1
Refugees from Bengre	59	18.4
Matriarchal family	115	35.9
Purchased property	9	2.8
Reason not reported	7	2.2
Total	320	100.0

In table 5.14, the immigrant families are distributed according to the reason for immigration. 35.9 per cent of the families reported that matriarchal family system was the main reason for their migration. Next reason in importance for immigration was to follow some occupation in the expanding economic activity of the village. Some 14.1 per cent of the families reported that they immigrated to follow some occupation other than business or service. 0.9 per cent of the families came to the village to follow business and 1.3 per cent came for service.

There was heavy sea erosion in the neighbouring village of Bengre from 1949 to 1952. Two-third of the village area was washed off into the sea. 59 refugee families from Bengre who constituted 18.4 per cent of the immigrant families came to the village for shelter. They were mainly

engaged in fishing, fish curing labour and coir industry. Some 14.1 per cent of the immigrant families reported that they came to this village to live with their relatives. Only 2.8 per cent of the families came to the village because they purchased some property in the village. 2.2 per cent of the families did not report any reason for their immigration.

Table 5.15 : Castewise distribution of the immigrants :

Castes	No. of cases reported	Percentage
Brahmin	4	1.3
G. S. Brahmin	6	1.9
Maratha	1	0.3
Bant	24	7.5
Billava	79	24.7
Beljad	18	5.6
V. K. Brahmin	1	0.3
Bhandari	1	0.3
Devadiga	1	0.3
Ganig	5	1.6
Mogavir	89	27.8
Karvi	8	2.5
Koosa	9	2.8
Koraga	1	0.3
Sayyad Muslim	5	1.5
Navayat Muslim	41	12.8
Byari Muslim	4	1.3
Christians	23	7.2
TOTAL	320	100.0

Table 5.15 gives the castewise distribution of the immigrant families. Majority of the immigrant families belonged Mogavirs, Billavas or Navayat Muslims. These three castes constitute 65.3 per cent of the total immigrated families. Mogavirs, who mainly migrated to this village to follow sea fishing registered 27.8 per cent of the total immigrant families. Billavas immigrated to follow mainly fish curing labour and other sundry occupations. They constituted 24.7 per cent of the total immigrant families. Navayat Muslims who immigrated to follow business in fish dealing coconut dealing etc., and also to follow fish curing labour and coir industry, recorded 12.8 per cent of the total

immigrated families. Many of the Bants migrated to this village because of the matriarchal family system they followed. They were 7.5 per cent of the total immigrant families. Roman Catholic Christians constituted 7.2 per cent of the families. They mainly came to the village to live with their relatives. Belijadas who immigrated to follow their caste occupation of preparation of palmyra jaggery and also to follow cultivation labour, were 5.6 per cent of the immigrant families. Other castes who came to the village were Brahmins, Goud Saraswat Brahmins, Maratha, Vishwakarma Brahmins, Bhandari, Devadiga, Ganig, Karvi, Kocsa, Koraga, Sayyad Muslims and Byari Muslims. They combinedly registered 14.4 percent of the total immigrant families.

As a large majority of the immigrant families reported that the reason for their immigration was to follow some occupation or to enter business or to join some service, it is imperative that those immigrants, in many cases, must have shifted to an entirely new occupation from the occupation followed by their respective fathers. In table 5.16 we give the occupational mobility for two generations in respect of the immigrant families.

Totals at the bottom in table 5.16 give us the occupational pattern followed by the previous generation while those at the right hand side of the table present the occupational pattern of the present generation. In the previous generation, 18.9 per cent of the families were following paddy cultivation and the corresponding figure for the present generation is only 8.1 per cent. Of the 54 families claiming paddy cultivation as the main occupation in the previous generation, 33 reported the change in the occupation. Change was to 'processing and manufacturing' in 7 cases, to 'cultivation labour' and 'unproductive source' in 5 cases each, to 'coconut gardening' and 'public services' in 4 cases each, to 'Fishing in sea' and

Table 5.16 :

- Occupational Mobility of Immigrant Families -

Occupation of the Present Head of the Family.	Father's Occupation														Total
	1a	1b	1c	1d	1e	1f	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1a. Paddy cultivation	21	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	26 (8.1)
1b. Coconut gardening	4	2	2	-	-	1	4	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	19 (5.9)
1c. Cultivation labour	5	-	11	-	-	-	5	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	23 (7.2)
1d. Fishing in river	-	-	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 (0.9)
1e. Fishing in sea	3	-	4	45	24	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	79 (24.7)
1f. Fish curing labour	-	1	11	1	3	4	6	-	5	1	2	-	1	-	35 (10.9)
2. Processing and manufacturing	7	-	11	-	-	1	11	2	5	1	1	-	-	-	39 (12.2)
3. Other processing and manufacturing	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	6 (1.9)
4. Commerce	1	3	1	4	4	-	-	1	9	1	-	1	3	-	28 (8.8)
5. Transport	3	2	1	-	1	1	2	1	2	1	-	-	-	-	14 (4.4)
6. Construction	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	2 (0.6)
7. Public services	4	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	1	1	-	13 (4.1)
8. Other services	1	2	3	-	-	1	1	-	-	2	-	2	2	-	14 (4.4)
9. Unproductive	5	2	7	1	-	-	1	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	19 (5.9)
Total	54	16	56	53	33	9	31	11	31	7	4	7	8	-	320 (100.0)
	(16.9)	(5.0)	(17.5)	(16.6)	(10.3)	(2.8)	(9.7)	(3.4)	(9.7)	(2.2)	(1.2)	(2.2)	(2.5)		

and 'Transport' in 3 cases each and to 'commerce' and 'other services' in 1 case each. 5 per cent of the families were following coconut gardening as the main occupation in the previous generation and the corresponding figure for the present generation was 5.9 per cent. Of the 13 families who reported their fathers' main occupation as 'coconut gardening' only 2 remained in the same occupation in the present generation. These two facts show that there was much shuffling in case of the occupational change from and to 'coconut gardening'. It is important to note that shift from 'processing and manufacturing' and 'commerce' to 'coconut gardening' is remarkably prominent. As regards the 'cultivational labour', 17.5 per cent of the families were reported it as main occupation in the previous generation while the corresponding figure for the present generation was 7.2 per cent. A large number of the families with their main occupation as 'cultivation labour' in the previous generation have shifted to 'Fish curing labour' and 'processing and manufacturing'. Some have changed their occupation to 'unproductive sources', 'public and other services' and 'commerce and transport'.

In the previous generation, 16.6 per cent of the families were engaged in 'river fishing' while the corresponding figure for the present generation is 0.9 per cent only. On the other hand, the previous generation reported 10.3 per cent of the families engaged in 'sea fishing' and the present generation puts the corresponding figure at 24.7 per cent. A very large majority of the families with 'river fishing' in the previous generation, have shifted to 'sea fishing' in the present generation; Only 2.8 per cent of the families in the previous generation were engaged in 'fish curing labour' while the corresponding figure for the present generation is 10.9 per cent. This shows the increase in the employment opportunities in

'fish curing' as a result of the expansion of 'sea fishing' in the recent decades.

'Processing and manufacturing' activity was the main occupation for 9.7 per cent of the families in the previous generation. The present generation puts the corresponding figure at 12.2 per cent. On the other hand, 'other processing and manufacturing' was the main occupation of 3.4 per cent of the families in the previous generation and only 1.9 per cent of the families in the present generation. 'Commerce' claimed 9.7 per cent of the families in the previous generation as against 8.8 per cent of the families in the present generation. 2.2 per cent of the families were engaged in the previous generation in the field of 'transport' while the present generation reports 4.4 per cent. In 'construction' 1.2 per cent of the families were engaged in the previous generation as against 0.6 per cent in the present generation. 2.2 per cent and 2.8 per cent of the families were engaged in 'public services' and 'other services' respectively in the previous generation. The corresponding figures for the present generation are 4.1 per cent and 4.4 per cent respectively. None of the families in the previous generation reported 'unproductive source of income' while in the present generation, there were as many as 5.9 per cent of the families making their living from 'unproductive sources of income' like 'money remittances', 'pensions' etc.

5.8 : Outmigration :

High density of population seems to be the main cause for outmigration of some members of a large number of families. According to General Family Enquiry 42.6 per cent of the resident families in Paduthouse reported outmigrant members. Average number of outmigrant per family was 2.6. In the following paragraphs, the outmigrant families are distributed over different castes, different income groups

and different occupation groups. The purpose is to know, 'in the first instance, who are the outmigrants. Secondly, we have tried to see where they have migrated. Thirdly, we are interested in knowing why they have migrated.

Table 5.17 : Castewise distribution of the families reporting some members outside the village.

Castes	Proportion of families reporting members outside the village to total number of families.	No. of outmigrants per family.
Brahmins	80.5	4.0
G. S. Brahmins	50.0	2.0
Bants	66.7	3.0
Billavas	48.2	2.5
Belijadas	34.0	2.2
Ganigs	50.0	3.7
Mogavirs	26.2	2.9
Other Hindu castes	26.1	2.1
Depressed castes	21.4	2.9
Muslims	27.8	2.0
Christians	70.3	2.5
TOTAL	42.6	2.6

Table 5.17 gives the distribution of the families according to castes reporting outmigrant members. Among the Brahmins, 80.5 per cent of the families reported an average number of 4 members from each family staying outside the village. A large number of Brahmin outmigrants (63.5 per cent) were reported from towns and cities from Mysore, Andhra, Kerala and Southern Maharashtra. Most of them were engaged in the hotel business. A few of them had taken their female members also along with them. Among the Goud Saraswat Brahmins, 50 per cent of the families reported outmigrant members. Number of outmigrants per family was 2. Most of the outmigrants were in different towns of South

Kanara and North Malbar districts. A few were in Bombay and Madras. Those who were in different towns of South Kanara district and Malbar district were engaged in some kind of trade activity while those who were in Bombay and Madras were engaged in Public or Private services.

65.7 per cent of the Bant families reported outmigrants. Number of outmigrants per family was 3. In 43 per cent of the cases, outmigrants were engaged in some kind of service in big cities like Bombay, Bangalore and Madras. In other cases, they were mainly engaged in hotel business in big and small towns of Mysore State. 42.8 per cent of the Billavas reported outmigrants, the number of outmigrants per family being 2.5. A large majority of them (68 per cent) were reported from Bombay where they were engaged in miscellaneous activities as domestic servants, taxi-drivers, boot polish boys, hawkers, pan-beerivalas etc. About 25 per cent of the outmigrants were reported from towns and cities of Mysore, Andhra and Southern Maharashtra where ~~they~~ ^{they} were mainly engaged as hotel servants. 34 per cent of the Beljadas reported outmigrants. The number of outmigrants per family was 2.2. Like Billavas, a large majority of the Beljadas (73 per cent) were in Bombay, engaged in miscellaneous activities. A few of them (12 per cent) were reported from towns and cities of Mysore State and Southern Maharashtra, where they were engaged as hotel servants.

Of the Ganigs, 50 per cent of the families reported outmigrants. The number of outmigrants per family was 3.7. Most of them (63.7 per cent) were engaged in hotel business in different towns of Mysore State and Southern Maharashtra. Of the Mogavirs 26.2 per cent of the families reported outmigrants. The number of outmigrant members per family was 2.9. About 30 per cent of them were in Bombay, engaged in miscellaneous activities. Another 30 per cent were in different towns and cities of Mysore and Southern Maharashtra where they were engaged as hotel servants.

Of the other Hindu castes, 23.1 per cent of the families reported outmigrants, the number of outmigrants per family being 2.1. Most of them (58 per cent) were engaged in hotel business and service in different towns and cities of Mysore and Southern Maharashtra. About 20 per cent of them were in Bombay engaged in miscellaneous activities.

Of the depressed castes, 21.4 per cent of the families reported outmigrants. The number of outmigrants per family was 2.9. It is important to note that none of the depressed caste outmigrants were engaged in hotel business or service. And it is also interesting to note that none of them were reported from Bombay. A large majority of them were engaged in road construction and other building and construction activities in different part of South Kanara district. Some were also engaged as labourers in the coffee plantations in Chikmagalur district.

Of the Muslims, 27.8 per cent of the families reported outmigrants. The number of outmigrants per family was 2. Most of them (62.8 per cent) were engaged in trading the coir products and coconuts in the neighboring districts of Shimoga and Chikmagalur districts. Among them, a few were also engaged in copper smithy. About 21 per cent of the outmigrants were in Bombay, engaged in miscellaneous activities.

70.3 per cent of the Christians reported outmigrants. The number of outmigrants per family was 2.6. A very large majority (86.2 per cent) of them were in Bombay. Most of them were engaged in miscellaneous activities. Very few (9.7 per cent) were reported from Madras and Bangalore.

Two Muslim families and three Christian families reported outmigrants staying abroad. Muslim outmigrants in both the cases were holding degrees in Medicine from Madras University. One of them was serving as an Assistant Surgeon in the

Sheikhdom of Bahrain. Another was in U.S.A. for higher studies in Surgery. Of the three Christians staying abroad, one was in Cansia, serving as an Accountant in a bank, the second one was in England working in a Shipping Company and the third one was in Australia serving as a butler in a Shipping company.

Table 5.18 : Income groupwise distribution of the families reporting some members outside the village.

Income groups in Rs.	Proportion of families reporting members out- side the village to total number of families.	No. of out- migrants per family.
1 Upto 100	13.0	1.0
2 101 - 250	33.3	2.0
3 251 - 500	41.8	2.1
4 501 - 750	43.1	2.7
5 751 -1000	47.1	2.8
6 1001-1500	48.0	2.7
7 1501-2500	44.6	3.0
8 2501-3500	38.1	5.1
9 3501-5000	77.7	3.4
10 5001-10,000	50.0	6.3
09 Above 10,000	100.0	2.0
Total	42.6	2.6

In tables 5.18 and 5.19 respectively, we have given the income group wise and occupation group wise distributions of the families reporting outmigrants. The lowest number of families (13 per cent) reporting outmigrants were from 'upto Rs.100' income group . 33.3 per cent of the families reported in 'Rs 101 to Rs.250' income group. On the other hand, nearer the average percentages were reported from 'Rs.251 to Rs.500' (41.8 per cent) 'Rs. 501 to Rs.750' (43.1 per cent) 'Rs.1501 to Rs.2500' (44.6 per cent) and 'Rs.2501 to Rs.3500' (38.1 per cent) income groups. More than average percentages were reported from 'Rs.751 to

Rs. 1000' (47.1 per cent) , Rs. '1001 to 1500'(48 per cent) and the upper three income groups. (77.7 per cent, 50 per cent and 100 per cent respectively).

Table 5.19 : Occupation groupwise distribution of the families reporting some members outside the village.

Occupation groups	Proportion of families reporting members outside the village to total number of families.	No. of out-migrants per family.
Agriculture	55.3	2.6
Fishing	26.1	2.8
Non-agricultural production etc.	43.1	2.2
Trade	24.6	3.1
Transport	30.0	2.7
Services	54.3	2.1
Remittances	90.4	2.2
Unproductive sources	20.0	2.0
TOTAL	42.6	2.6

As regards the occupation groups, lower than average percentages were reported from 'Unproductive sources'(20%), 'Fishing' (26.1 per cent), 'Trade' (24.6 per cent) and 'Transport' (30.0 per cent). Nearer the average percentage was reported from 'Non-agricultural production and processing activity' (43.1 per cent). More than average percentages were reported from 'Agriculture'(55.3 per cent), 'Services' (54.3 per cent) and 'Money remittances'(90.4 per cent).

5.9 : Earners and Non-earners

Table 5.20 gives the sex wise distribution of the adults and non-adults into earners and non-earners. Of the male adults, 1047 were earners and only 198 were non-earners. The percentage of non-earner male adults to total male adults

Table 5.20 : Earners and Non-earners I

	Earners	Non-earners	Percentage of Non-earners to total members
Male adults	1047	198	15.9
Male non-adults	47	1196	96.2
Female adults	999	735	42.4
Female non-adults.	70	1158	94.3
Total adults	2046	933	31.3
Total non adults	117	2354	95.2

was 15.9 per cent. Of the female adults on the other hand, 999 were earners and 735 were non-earners. Non-earner female adults registered 42.4 per cent of the total female adults. This shows two tendencies : (i) predominance of the males in the earning class; and (ii) economic dependence of the females.

In case of the non-adults, a large number of children are non-earners. 96.2 per cent of the male-non-adults and 94.3 per cent of the female non-adults were non-earners. This may be due to the fact that neither agriculture nor fishing, the two major occupations in the village, employ child labour. In agriculture, child labour is not required because the supply of adult labour seems to be in abundance. In fishing, it is physically impossible for the children below 14 to operate different varieties of the nets. That may involve much risk also. It is only in coir thread spinning that the child labour is engaged.

In table 5.21, we give data in respect of non-working reasons for adults and non-adults. 30.3 per cent of the male adults were not working because of the old age. 27.3 per cent were students, hence they were non-earners. Those engaged in home work were 3.5 per cent. 5.1 per cent and 4.5 per cent were unable to work due to disability and

Table 5.21 : Non-working reasons for adults and non-adults:

Reasons	Male adults %	Male non adults%	Female adults %	Female non adults %
Old age	30.3	-	9.0	-
Education	27.3	44.0	2.3	32.5
Home work	3.5	0.8	79.4	8.0
Minor	-	50.5	0.3	57.8
Disabled	5.1	0.1	0.5	0.4
Illness	4.5	-	0.7	-
Work not available	18.2	3.0	0.3	0.6
Unproductive source	7.1	-	5.6	-
Blank	4.0	1.6	1.9	0.7
Total Actual	100.0 (198)	100.0 (1198)	100.0 (735)	100.0 (1158)

and illness respectively. 18.2 per cent of them reported that, inspite of their efforts, work is not available. Those who get income from unproductive sources, sometime, do not and need not work. Such persons constituted 7.1 per cent of the total. Only 4 per cent of the male adults did not give any reason for not working.

As regards the female adults, 79.4 per cent were engaged in household work. 9 per cent of them were not working because of old age. 2.3 per cent of them were still students. Non working reasons such as 'minors' 'disabled' and 'illness' were reported by 0.3 per cent, 0.5 per cent and 0.7 per cent respectively. Work was not available for 0.3 per cent of them. 5.6 per cent of them were getting income from some unproductive source, hence there was no need to work. 1.9 per cent of them did not report any reason for not working.

Of the male non-adults, 44 per cent and 50.5 per cent were not working because they were students and minors respectively. The corresponding figures for female non-adults were 32.5 per cent and 57.8 per cent, 0.8 per cent of the

male non-adults were engaged in home work while the corresponding figure for female non-adults was 8 per cent. 0.1 per cent of the male non-adults and 0.4 per cent of the female non-adults were disabled. None of the male non-adults and 0.7 per cent of the female non-adults reported illness as the main cause for not working. For 3 per cent of the male non-adults, work was not available. The corresponding figure for female non-adults was 0.6 per cent only. 1.6 per cent of the male non-adults and 0.7 per cent of the female non-adults did not report any reason.

Table 5.22 presents the data in respect of the sexwise distribution of the earners and non-earners in different castes. It is shown therein that 55 per cent of the male population and 63.9 per cent of the female population were non-earners. It may be important to observe the corresponding percentages for different castes. Among the Brahmins, 68.1 per cent of the males and 89.7 per cent of the females were non-earners. Some Brahmin women were engaged in preparing the coconut thatches, hence they were included among earners. The number of non-earners among Brahmins is very high, because they are property owners. Social prestige among them also limits their employment scope in the village. The conditions of the Goud Saraswat Brahmins, Bants and Christians may be compared with those of the Brahmins. Among the labour castes like Billavas, Beljadas, Ganigs and depressed castes like Koozas and Korgas, the percentage of non-earners to total members is very low, for both the sexes. For the fisherman castes, the conditions are slightly different. If the percentage of non-earners among the fishermen males is low, that among the fishermen females is ~~high~~ high. Among the Navayat Muslims, the percentage of non-earning males and females is about 50 per cent. On the other hand, 55.1 per cent of the Sayyad Muslim males and 77 per cent of the Sayyad Muslim females were non-earners. High rate of non-earners among a particular caste group

seen to reveal the better economic conditions of that particular group.

Table 5.22 : Earners in different castes :

Castes	Earners		Non-earners		Percentage of non-earners to total members-	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Brahmin	29	12	62	105	68.1	89.7
G.3. Brahmin	10	3	11	18	52.3	85.7
Maratha	1	-	3	4	75.0	100.0
Bant	49	65	79	133	61.7	67.2
Billava	194	244	216	277	52.7	53.2
Beljada	52	63	67	92	56.3	59.4
V.K. Brahmin	8	1	10	15	55.5	93.8
Dhandari	4	-	8	12	66.7	100.0
Madiwal	2	1	3	1	60.0	50.0
Devadiga	4	2	2	3	33.3	60.0
Ganiga	15	26	25	31	62.5	54.3
Mogavir	196	100	226	320	53.5	73.2
Karvi	20	3	18	26	47.4	89.6
Koosa	87	86	90	90	50.8	51.1
Koraga	8	5	5	3	38.5	37.5
Sayyad Muslim	53	26	65	87	55.1	77.0
Navayat Muslim	258	307	264	313	50.6	50.5
Byari Muslim	7	1	5	12	41.7	92.3
Christians	97	124	235	351	70.8	73.9
Total	1094	1069	1394	1893	56.0	63.9

Combination of occupational groups :

In tables 5.23 and 5.24 we present the figures in respect of the combination of occupational groups for working males and females respectively. Our purpose is to establish the pattern of occupational combinations for the individuals with a view to comparing it with the similar pattern to be established on the basis of the resurvey data. In a short

Table 5.23:

- Combination of Occupational Groups for working members (males) -

	1	3	5	6	7	8	9	0	A1	A2	A3	A5	A
1. Cultivation of (1+2) paddy fields.	49 (53.8)	11 (7.9)	-	-	2 (2.0)	14 (8.8)	4 (2.2)	-	7 (12.7)	3 (4.1)	-	-	1 (0.5)
3. Cultivation of (3+4) coconut gardens.	11 (12.1)	47 (33.8)	3 (1.5)	-	7 (7.1)	4 (2.5)	4 (2.2)	3 (15.0)	3 (5.5)	12 (16.3)	12 (31.7)	8 (23.5)	25 (11.7)
5. Fishing in Sea.	-	3 (2.2)	119 (58.9)	71 (79.8)	-	3 (1.9)	-	-	-	-	-	5 (14.7)	1 (0.5)
6. Fishing in River	-	-	71 (35.1)	9 (10.1)	-	-	9 (5.0)	-	-	-	-	-	-
7. Coir thread prepara- tion	2 (2.2)	7 (5.0)	-	-	68 (69.6)	2 (1.3)	10 (5.5)	2 (10.0)	-	1 (1.3)	1 (2.6)	-	5 (2.3)
8. Cultivation labour	14 (15.4)	4 (2.9)	3 (1.5)	-	2 (2.0)	61 (38.3)	55 (30.6)	2 (10.0)	2 (3.6)	-	-	-	16 (7.5)
9. Fish labour	4 (4.4)	4 (2.9)	-	9 (10.1)	10 (10.2)	55 (34.6)	80 (41.4)	2 (10.0)	-	2 (2.7)	1 (2.6)	-	13 (6.1)
0. Other non-agric- ultural labour	-	3 (2.2)	-	-	2 (2.0)	2 (1.3)	2 (1.1)	11 (55.0)	-	-	-	-	-
A1 Artisans and service class. (A1 + A9)	7 (7.7)	3 (2.2)	-	-	-	2 (1.3)	-	-	42 (76.4)	1 (1.3)	-	-	-
A2 Dealers in food grains, general 4+A6 traders & shop keepers, hotels.	3 (3.3)	12 (8.6)	-	-	1 (1.0)	-	2 (1.1)	-	1 (1.8)	51 (66.9)	-	2 (5.9)	2 (0.9)
A3. Dealers in coir, (A3+A7) coconuts.	-	12 (8.6)	-	-	1 (1.0)	-	1 (0.7)	-	-	-	20 (52.6)	3 (8.8)	1 (0.5)
A5 Dealers in Fish	-	8 (5.7)	5 (2.5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 (2.7)	3 (7.9)	15 (44.2)	1 (0.5)
A Miscellaneous	1 (1.1)	25 (18.0)	1 (0.5)	-	5 (5.1)	16 (10.0)	13 (7.2)	-	-	2 (2.7)	1 (2.6)	1 (2.9)	148 (69.5)
TOTAL	91 (100.0)	139 (100.0)	202 (100.0)	89 (100.0)	98 (100.0)	159 (100.0)	180 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	55 (100.0)	74 (100.0)	38 (100.0)	34 (100.0)	213 (100.0)

Table 5.24 :

- Combination of Occupational Groups for Working Members (Females) -

	1	3	5	6	7	8	9	0	A1	A2	A3	A5	A
1 - Cultivation of paddy (1+2) fields	68 (78.1)	5 (7.2)	-	-	3 (0.5)	1 (0.5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	10 (16.4)
3 - Cultivation of coconut (3+4) gardens	5 (5.7)	34 (48.6)	-	-	18 (3.1)	1 (0.5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	12 (19.7)
5 - Fishing in sea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 - Fishing in river	-	-	-	4 (66.6)	-	-	1 (0.8)	-	-	-	-	1 (1.3)	-
7 - Coir thread preparation	3 (3.5)	18 (25.7)	-	-	474 (81.9)	47 (25.5)	14 (10.7)	1 (20.0)	-	1 (9.1)	-	-	21 (34.4)
8 - Cultivation labour	1 (1.2)	1 (1.4)	-	-	47 (8.1)	68 (37.0)	56 (42.7)	-	-	-	-	-	11 (18.0)
9 - Fish labour	-	-	-	1 (16.7)	14 (2.4)	56 (30.5)	47 (25.9)	-	-	-	-	9 (11.5)	4 (6.6)
0 - Other Non-agricultural labour	-	-	-	-	1 (0.2)	-	-	3 (60.0)	-	-	-	-	1 (1.6)
A - Artisans etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5 (100.0)	-	-	-	-
A2- Dealers in food grains traders etc. (A2+A4+A6)	-	-	-	-	1 (0.2)	-	-	-	-	10 (90.9)	-	-	-
A3- Dealers in coir, coconut	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5- Dealers in Fish	-	-	-	1 (16.7)	-	-	9 (16.9)	-	-	-	-	68 (87.2)	-
A Miscellaneous	10 (11.5)	12 (17.1)	-	-	21 (3.6)	11 (6.0)	4 (3.0)	1 (20.0)	-	-	-	-	2 (3.3)
TOTAL	87 (100.0)	70 (100.0)	-	6 (100.0)	579 (100.0)	184 (100.0)	131 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	-	78 (100.0)	61 (100.0)

period of five years, we may expect the individuals giving up certain occupations and picking up new occupations for reasons which may be mainly economic and to some extent social also. Hence we may observe a qualitative change in the pattern of occupational combinations for the individuals. Secondly, we must also compare individuals following single occupations at two points of time to see the tendencies of 'specialisation' and 'diversification' in employment.

There were in all 68 different occupations followed by the individuals in Paduthonse out of which only seven occupations were found to be of major importance from the point of view of the number of persons engaged. These seven occupations, namely, cultivation of paddy fields, cultivation of coconut gardens, fishing in sea, fishing in river, coir thread preparation and rope making, cultivation labour and fish curing labour were treated individually and the other occupations were broadly grouped into artisans and services (consisting of 17 different occupations), dealers in food grains and general traders and shop keepers (8 occupations) dealers in coir and coconut (2 occupations), dealers in fish (3 occupations) and finally a miscellaneous group consisting of 27 different occupations.

Figures in tables 5.23 and 5.24 should be read along the vertical columns. The total figure at the bottom of each column shows the total number of individuals engaged in that particular occupation or occupational group. Where the horizontal and vertical columns of a particular occupation or occupational group cross, the figure shows the number of individuals solely engaged in that particular occupation. Where the vertical column of a particular occupation or occupational group crosses with the horizontal columns of other occupations or occupational groups, the figures show the number of individuals who also follow respective occupations along with the occupation mentioned at the top

of the vertical column. In other words, the tables establish a pattern of occupational combinations for earners, separately for males and females. In case a particular individual was engaged in more than two occupations only major two occupations were considered.

The following are some of the observations of the pattern of occupational combinations established in tables 5.23 and 5.24.

(1) Those males engaged in cultivation of paddy fields are tending to combine their occupation with cultivation of coconut gardens, cultivation labour and occupations of artisans and service class.

(2) Those males engaged in coconut cultivation are tending to combine their occupation with cultivation of paddy fields, coir thread preparation, general traders and shop keepers etc dealers in coir, coconuts, dealers in fish and miscellaneous activities.

(3) Those males engaged in fishing in sea have combined their occupation with fishing in river in 35.1 per cent of the cases. On the other hand, those males who are engaged in river fishing have combined their occupation with sea fishing in 79.8 per cent of the cases.

(4) 69.6 per cent of the males and 81.9 per cent of the females engaged in coir thread spinning and rope making, follow it as a single occupation. However, there is a tendency of the males combining that occupation with fish curing labour and females with cultivation labour.

(5) Combination of fish curing labour and cultivation labour is common for both males and females.

(6) Artisans and service class have combined their occupations with paddy cultivation and cultivation of coconut gardens.

(7) Dealers in food grains and general shop keepers, hotels, dealers in fish, coir and coconut, have combined

their occupations with cultivation of coconut gardens.

5.10 : Labour employment I

The purpose of this section is to study the pattern of labour employment in the village. A special enquiry was conducted for that purpose for 60 sample families who followed same kind of labour as a source of living. These families were divided into three groups of 20 each and each such group was given a quarterly visit. Employment and unemployment conditions during the previous month of the visit were recorded for the families in the respective groups. Hence we have information for 20 labour families for all the twelve months of the survey year.

Table 5.25 : Age/Sex wise distribution of persons above five years.

Age/sex wise classification	No.	Percentage
Male adults	60	26.3
Female adults	97	42.5
Male non-adults	36	15.8
Female non-adults	35	15.4
Total	228	100.0

Table 5.25 gives the age/sex wise distribution of persons above 5 years in the selected labour families. As the number of persons slightly changed from visit to visit, an average number of persons per visit was worked out. Table 5.25 shows that a very large number of the persons are female adults constituting 42.5 per cent of the total number of the persons above 5 years in the selected families. Hence the importance of studying the employment conditions of the female adults. Male adults constitute 26.3 per cent of the total number of persons while male non-adults and female non-adults claim about 15 per cent of the total number each.

Table 5.26 : Classification of the selected labour families into different income groups.

Income Groups Rs.	No.	Percentage.
101 - 250	4	6.7
251 - 500	19	31.6
501 - 750	22	36.7
751 - 1000	14	23.3
1001 - 1500	1	1.7
Total	60	100.0

Table 5.26 classifies the selected labour families into different income groups. Most of the families are represented in the following three income groups, viz., from Rs.251 to Rs.500, 31.6 per cent of the families are represented; from Rs.501 to Rs.750, 36.7 per cent of the families are represented; and from Rs.751 to Rs.1000, 23.3 per cent of the families are represented. This shows that a large majority of the labour families are concentrated in the income groups from Rs.251 to Rs.1000.

Monthwise distribution of employed and unemployed days :

Table 5.27 gives the days on wage employment, days on self employment and unemployment days in different months per average male adult, female adult and non-adult. The average male adult reported 171 days on wage employment, 109.6 days on self employment and 84.4 days unemployed from July 1958 to June 1959. The corresponding days for an average female adult were 159.9, 97.8 and 107.3 respectively. As the practice of child labour was very rare, an average non-adult reported only 38 days on wage and self employment. The month wise break down of the figures reveals the following :

(1) Months from October to January are favourable for wage employment for both male adults and female adults when the agricultural operations of the winter crop and the

Table 5.27 :

Number of days employed in different months
(Average per individual

Months	Male-Adult				Female -Adult				Non-Adult			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
I. Group :												
1. July	9.1	9.1	12.8	31	11.7	13.2	6.1	31	1.5	1.1	28.4	31
4. October	22.0	4.8	4.2	31	20.9	2.0	8.1	31	-	1.1	29.9	31
7 January	23.1	4.3	3.6	31	21.2	2.3	7.5	31	2.7	1.3	27.0	31
10 April	7.0	13.0	10.0	30	5.3	14.6	10.1	30	1.9	0.7	27.4	30
II. Group :												
2 August	13.4	11.1	6.5	31	14.1	7.8	9.1	31	-	2.5	28.5	31
5 November	21.9	5.0	3.1	30	19.2	6.0	4.8	30	-	1.9	28.1	30
8 February	12.0	12.2	3.8	28	13.6	7.2	7.2	28	-	3.6	24.4	28
11 May	9.3	11.6	10.1	31	7.0	7.8	16.2	31	-	-	31.0	31
III Group :												
3 September	15.6	8.2	6.2	30	12.3	9.7	8.0	30	3.6	2.7	23.7	30
6 December	18.3	7.1	5.6	31	11.2	9.9	9.9	31	2.9	2.1	26.0	31
9 March	13.1	9.6	8.3	31	13.4	8.4	9.2	31	2.1	2.1	26.8	31
12 June	6.2	13.6	10.2	30	10.0	8.9	11.1	30	2.6	1.6	25.8	30
Total	171.0	109.6	84.4	365	159.9	97.8	107.3	365	17.3	20.7	327.0	365

Note :
 1 = Days on wage employment
 2 = Days on self employment
 3 = Days unemployed
 4 = Total number of days

fish curing labour are combined;

(ii) Months of August, September, February and March are normal as far as wage employment is considered for both male and female adults. During August and September males get employed in ring preparation and spreading of the manure for the coconut groves, while females are required for weeding and harvesting operations of the Monsoon crop; During February and March males get engaged in the preparation for the summer crop and females are employed in watering the coconut trees;

(iii) Months from April to July are slack from the point of view of wage employment, especially for male adults. But for the ploughing operation for the Monsoon crop in the month of May, male adults have no employment opportunities during this period. However, female adults are better employed during this period in the harvesting operation of the summer crop as well as in the transplantation operation of the Monsoon crop. Watering the coconut trees by the female adults is continued during the summer months of April and May.

(iv) Days on self employment are adjusted with the conditions of employment on wage basis. During the slack season of the wage employment days on self employment increase. On the other hand, during the peak season of the wage employment days on self employment are reduced.

(v) From the point of view of unemployment, April, May, June and July are the months when male adult is without work for more than 10 days in a month. The conditions of the female adult are similar with the male adult except for the month of July.

Wage employed days classified :

In table 5.28, wage employed days are classified according to type of employment. Of 171 days engaged by the male adult in wage employment, 67.8 days are reported under Agricultural labour, 78.1 days under Fish curing labour

and 25.1 days under other labour. The corresponding figures for the female adult are 72.9 days, 57.4 days and 29.6 days respectively. This shows that male labour is more important in Fish curing than in Agriculture. The non-adult is mainly engaged in other miscellaneous labour. The non-adult's disengagement from fish curing labour is worth noting.

Table 5.28 : Wage employed days classified :

Type of employment.	Male adult	Female adult	Non-adult
Agricultural labour	67.8	72.9	2.4
Fish curing labour	78.1	57.4	-
Other labour	25.1	29.6	14.9
Total	171.0	159.9	17.3

Table 5.29 : Self-employed days classified :

Type of employment	Male adult	Female adult	Non-adult
Cultivation	19.6	17.3	-
Fishing	42.7	-	-
Non-agricultural production and processing	23.8	73.8	16.2
Transport	11.3	-	-
Others	12.2	6.7	4.5
Total	109.6	97.8	20.7

Self employed days classified :

Classification of the self employed days according to type of employment is presented in table 5.29. The male adult is engaged for 19.6 days in cultivation, 42.7 days in fishing (on own account), 23.8 days on non-agricultural production and processing activities, 11.3 days on Transport

and 12.2 days in other activities. The female adult on the other hand, is self employed on 73.8 days in non-agricultural production and processing activities (mainly coir thread spinning). She is engaged for 17.3 days in cultivation and 6.7 days in other activities. She is not engaged in either fishing or transport. The non-adult is engaged in non-agricultural production and processing activities for 15.2 days and in other miscellaneous activities for 4.5 days. The non-adult is not engaged in either cultivation, or fishing and transport.

Table 5.30 : Non-working days classified :

Reasons for non-working.	Male adults	Female adults	Non-adult
Unemployed	16.7	12.8	-
Illness, Oldage etc..	37.6	19.1	-
Household work	8.9	61.8	49.3
Rest	21.2	13.6	-
Minor Education	-	-	147.8
			129.9
Total	84.4	107.3	327.0

Non-working days classified :

In table 5.30, non-working days are classified according to the reasons for non-working. The male adult did not work for 84.4 days, out of which, for 16.7 days, he was unemployed; for 37.6 days, he did not work due to illness, old age etc.; for 8.9 days, he was engaged in household work; and for 21.2 days, he took rest. The female adult did not work for 107.3 days, out of which , for 12.8 days, she was unemployed; for 19.1 days, she did not work due to illness, old age etc; for 61.8 days, she was engaged in household work; and for 13.6 days, she took rest. The non-adult did not work for 327 days of which 49.3 days, and

129.9 days were spent on household work and education respectively while 147.8 days were not used for any purpose for the reason that the non-adult is a 'minor'.

Table 5.31 : Wages paid (daily wage rates) :

	<u>Agricultural labour</u>			<u>Fish curing labour</u>			<u>Other labour</u>		
	cash Rs	kind Rs	total Rs	cash Rs	kind Rs	total Rs	cash Rs	kind Rs	total Rs
Male adults	1.31	0.19	1.50	1.87	-	1.87	2.07	-	2.07
Female adults	0.27	0.59	0.86	1.21	-	1.21	0.95	-	0.95
Non-adults	0.36	-	0.36	-	-	-	0.53	-	0.53

Wage rates :

In table 5.31, average daily wage rates are given for different types of labour separately for male adults, female adults and non-adults. A male adult gets Rs.1.50 in Agricultural labour, Rs.1.87 in Fish curing labour and Rs.2.07 in other labour. On the other hand, a female gets Rs.0.86 in Agricultural labour, Rs.1.21 in Fish curing labour and Re.0.95 in other labour. A non-adult gets on an average Re.0.36 when engaged in Agricultural labour and Re.0.53 when engaged in other labour. These average wage rates are important from the point of view of comparison with the corresponding rates computed at the resurvey.

CHAPTER VI

- CAPITAL STRUCTURE -

6.1: The General Family Schedule, which was canvassed to all the households in the village contained questions in relation to the assets and liabilities position of the families concerned. The information was mainly collected, among other things, of the investments in land, residential and other buildings, tools and implements for cultivation as well as non-agricultural production and processing activity and services. Data were collected in respect of the expenditure incurred on the purchases, new construction, or the repairs of the above mentioned assets for a period of 12 months preceding the Survey Year. Information was also collected of the purchases and sales of land, agricultural tools and implements, fishing equipments and gold during the twelve months preceding the survey year.

In respect of the families engaged in fishing, it was observed that the fishing equipments like boats and nets were jointly owned by a number of families belonging to Paduthonse as well as neighbouring villages. In that case a joint account of the estimate of the capital invested in those equipments was arrived at and the value of the equipments owned by the fishermen belonging to Paduthonse and the value of the equipments owned by the fishermen belonging to other villages but operating on the Paduthonse coast was given.

As regards the families engaged in non-agricultural production and processing activity, an attempt was made to collect the data relating to stock, furniture and equipments etc., owned by the respondents.

It was felt that the purpose of the study of the ownership and distribution of wealth would be served

if the families were treated separately on the basis of the nature of the occupation they followed. To illustrate, the families concerned may be grouped under three broad heads as, (i) Cultivating families, (ii) Fishing families and (iii) Non-agricultural families. In case of the cultivating families, the analysis was made on the basis of the size of the cultivated holding. In the following sections it is therefore felt that a study on the distribution of land ownership as well as cultivated holding, capital invested in houses, livestock, cultivation implements would be of much use. In case of the families following fishing as suggested above, the ownership of the equipments will be treated jointly in the first instance and further a stratified account of the same will be given on the basis of the residents and non-residents of the Paduthonse village. In case of the non-agricultural occupations, capital invested in tools, implements and other equipments will be taken into account.

As regards the value of the different assets described above, the prices reported by the respondents were recorded. Some time, as our investigational experience revealed, the respondent himself was unable to report the value of his assets, like the home bred livestock or inherited land property. In that case, our investigator used to help the respondent to estimate the value of his assets. The investigator was particular to note that the reported value of an asset was guided by the then market rates of the similar assets. In case of the equipments of the fishermen, it was very difficult to estimate the present value of the assets as neither the respondent nor the investigator could estimate the depreciation value of the net pieces particularly. However, we could manage to get the original value and average life of a particular net piece and on the basis of that we could arrive at the present value of the net

pieces. In the case of the non-agricultural production, we could get satisfactory information relating to the asset position.

Table 6.1: - Distribution of Owned Land -

Groups (acres)	Land owning families.	Per-cent- age.	Owned-land (acres-cents)	Per-cent- age.
Upto 0.25	59	19.8	10.04	1.6
0.26 - 0.50	73	24.5	31.36	4.9
0.51 - 1.0	55	18.5	44.17	6.9
1.1 - 2.0	46	15.4	77.01	12.1
2.1 - 3.0	16	5.4	35.11	5.5
3.1 - 5.0	21	7.1	80.86	12.7
5.1 - 7.50	8	2.7	49.84	7.8
7.51 - 10.0	6	2.0	53.85	8.4
10.1 - 15.0	7	2.3	90.32	14.2
Above 15.1	7	2.3	165.28	25.9
TOTAL	298	100.0	637.84	100.0

6.2 : Ownership of Land :

Data are presented in table 6.1 as regards the distribution of the owners of the land according to owned holdings. It was revealed from the data that the proportion of the land owning families in the village and/or outside the village came to 31 per cent of the total number of families in the village. Only 9.3 per cent of the families hold land above 5 acres. But the land owned by those families accounts for 56.3 per cent of the total land. This shows that a small percentage of owners hold a large portion of land.

Table 6.2 gives the distribution of the land owning families according to income groups. It is revealed that the size of owned holding increases as the income of the family goes up. It is significant to note that 135 families

Table A.2 :

Ownership of Land and Income

Income Group ₹	Size of Owned Holding (in acres)										Total No. of Land- owners	Total Land owned (acres)	Average land owned per reporting family.
	0.25- 0.50	0.51- 1.00	1.01- 2.00	2.01- 3.00	3.01- 5.00	5.01- 7.50	7.51- 10.00	10.00- 15.00	15.01 & above				
Upto 100	2	1									2	4.08	0.36
101- 250	2	4	4	2	1						13	10.28	0.79
251- 500	10	18	10	10	1	1					50	40.05	0.80
501- 750	21	18	7	10	4	1					61	45.28	0.74
751-1000	6	12	8	4	1	2	3				35	50.08	1.39
1001-1500	9	18	20	11	3	3	2	3	1		70	112.59	1.61
1501-2500	6	3	3	3	2	9	-	1	2	2	31	113.17	3.65
2501-3500	3	-	2	4	1	3	3	1	1	-	18	65.12	2.62
3501-5000				2	2				2	2	8	69.03	8.64
5001-10,000						2	-	1	1	3	7	108.58	15.51
above 10,000					1						1	2.22	2.2
TOTAL	59	73	55	46	16	21	8	6	7	7	298	617.84	2.07

whose annual income is more than Rs.1000/-, hold 471 acres of land (about 76 per cent) . The average land owned per reporting family also increases with the increase in income.

As the large portion of land was held by a few owners, it was natural that many cultivators with small piece of land or no land leased in considerable land for cultivation. The land leased by a single cultivator was, in many cases, belonged to more than three landlords.

Table 6.3: - Land leased in on 'Muli' and 'Chal' rent basis-

Type of tenure No. of owners Col. 15	- Land rented in -			Total Land cultivated in the village.
	On 'Chal' rent basis	On 'Muli' rent basis.	Total rented in.	
0-3 Area	11.85	81.93	93.78	155.86
%	(7.6)	(52.6)	(60.2)	(100.0)
4-7 Area	98.28	140.87	239.15	432.76
%	(22.7)	(32.6)	(55.3)	(100.0)
8 Area	10.13	13.51	23.64	50.80
%	(19.9)	(26.7)	(46.6)	(100.0)
Total Area	120.26	236.31	356.57	639.42
%	(18.8)	(37.0)	(55.8)	(100.0)

Table 6.3 gives the area of land leased in on 'Chal' rent basis and 'Muli' rent basis. According to 'Chal' rent system the term of lease is for one crop year. The rent is fixed in terms of rice but payment is made in cash equal to the value of the rice agreed upon. The landlord has the right to cancel the term of lease. In case of 'muli' right, the lessee purchases the right to possess the land though the ownership right rests with the landlord. The rent is fixed in terms of rice, coconuts, fowls etc., but the payment is made in cash equal to the value of the items agreed upon. Most of the paddy fields are leased on 'chal' rent basis while the coconut groves are leased on 'muli' rent basis.

Table 6.4 : - Caste-wise distribution of pure tenants -

Caste	Total No. of cultivators,	No. of pure tenants	Ratio of Pure tenants to total cultivators.
Brahmin	34	1	.0294
G.S. Brahmin	7	4	.5714
Maratha	2	2	1.0000
Bant	41	3	.0732
Billav	81	53	.6543
Beljad	12	9	.7500
V.K. Brahmin	3	2	.6667
Ganig	5	4	.8000
Mogavir	46	29	.6304
Koosa	27	1	.0370
Sayyad Muslim	20	3	.1500
Navayat Muslim	98	44	.5510
Christian	127	58	.6433
TOTAL	503	213	.5765

Table 6.4, 6.5, and 6.6 give caste-wise distribution of the pure tenants, owner cultivators and pure landlords respectively. Pure tenants are those who do not own any land but cultivate only leased-in land. Of the total cultivators, about 40 per cent are, according to the definition, pure tenants. They mainly belong to Catholic Christian, Billava, Navayat Muslim and Mogavir castes. Owner cultivators are those who own land and cultivate the whole or part of it and may also cultivate leased-in land. 53 per cent of the total cultivators are owner cultivators. They mainly belong to Brahmins, Bants, Billavas, Mogavirs, Koosas, Sayyad and Navayat Muslims and Catholic Christians. Pure landlords are those who own land but do not cultivate it. There were only four families one each belonging to Brahmin, Sayyad Muslim,

Navayat Muslim and Catholic Christian castes. They owned about 22 acres of land and did not cultivate on their own account. Of the total 22 acres, the Brahmin family alone owned 16 acres of land and the other three families owned less than 3 acres each.

Table 6.5 : - Castewise distribution of Owner Cultivators

Caste	Total No. of land-owners families.	Total No. of culti-vators fami-lies.	No. of owner culti-vators	Ratio of owner culti-vators to total land owning families.	Ratio of owner cultivators to total cultivator families.
Brahmin	34	34	33	.9706	.9706
G.S. Brahmin	3	7	3	1.0000	.4286
Bant	38	41	38	1.0000	.9268
Billava	27	81	28	1.0000	.3457
Beljad	3	12	3	1.0000	.2500
V.K. Brahmin	1	3	1	1.0000	.3333
Bhandari	1	1	1	1.0000	1.0000
Devadiga	1	1	1	1.0000	1.0000
Ganiga	2	5	2	1.0000	.4000
Mogavir	17	46	17	1.0000	.3696
Koosa	23	27	26	1.0000	.9630
Sayyad-Muslim	18	20	17	.9444	.8500
Navayat-Muslim	55	98	54	.9818	.5511
Byari-Muslim	1	1	1	1.0000	1.0000
Christian	70	127	69	.9857	.5433
TOTAL	298	504	294	.9866	.5833

Table 6.6 : Castewise distribution of pure landlords

Caste	Total No. of land-owning families.	No. of pure land-lords.	Ratio of Pure landlords to total land owners.
Brahmin	34	1	.0294
Sayyad Muslim	18	1	.0556
Navayat Muslim	56	1	.0179
Christian	70	1	.0143
TOTAL	178	4	.0225

In table 6.7 data are given in respect of the land owned and land cultivated in the village according to different castes, while table 6.8 gives the distribution of land owned and land cultivated in and outside the village. There were 298 land owners in the village as against 503 land cultivators. Land owned in the village was 533.90 acres while land cultivated was 752.01 acres. The difference of 218.11 acres is owned by outmigrant families of the village, who are not covered by the General Family Enquiry. The total cultivated land in the village is 866 acres and the cultivated land is reported as 752.01 acres. The difference of 114 acres is partly due to reportation of error and partly due to that land cultivated by the outsiders.

Both table 6.7 and 6.8 reveal that almost all the resident owners of land, irrespective of belonging to any caste, cultivate the land owned by them. It is only the non-resident owners of land and some Brahmans who are resident owners that lease out land for cultivation.

6.3 : Ownership of livestock :

Most of the cattles were owned by the cultivators because (i) they required cattle for cultivation purposes,

Table 6.7 : Distribution of land owned and land cultivated in the village according to castes

CASTE	OWNED LAND					CULTIVATED LAND				
	No. of land-owners No.	%	Owned land Area	%	Average land owned per report- ing family.	No. of Cultivators NO.	%	Cultivated land Area	%	Average land cultivated per reporting family.
Brahmin	34	11.3	107.78	20.2	3.26	34	6.8	85.98	11.4	2.53
G.S. Brahmin	3	0.7	2.10	0.4	1.05	7	1.4	4.36	0.6	0.62
Maratha	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.2	0.30	-	0.30
Bant	38	12.8	129.70	24.3	3.51	41	8.2	149.63	19.9	3.65
Billava	28	9.2	23.78	4.5	0.88	81	16.1	101.33	13.5	1.25
Belijada	3	1.0	0.61	0.1	0.20	12	2.4	15.39	2.0	1.28
V.K. Brahmin	1	0.3	1.00	0.2	1.00	3	0.6	2.00	0.3	0.67
Bhandari	1	0.3	0.50	0.1	0.50	1	0.2	0.40	0.1	0.40
Devadiga	1	0.3	0.90	0.2	0.90	1	0.2	5.40	0.7	5.40
Ganiga	2	0.7	1.92	0.4	0.96	5	1.0	9.50	1.3	1.90
Mogavir	17	5.8	11.66	2.2	0.69	46	9.1	28.73	3.8	0.62
Koosa	26	8.9	15.19	2.8	0.58	27	5.4	16.09	2.1	0.60
Sayyad Muslim	18	6.2	32.00	6.0	1.78	20	4.0	32.53	4.3	1.63
Navayat Muslim	55	18.8	78.63	14.7	1.43	98	19.4	89.17	11.9	0.91
Byari Muslim	1	0.3	0.48	0.1	0.48	1	0.2	0.48	0.1	1.48
Christian	70	23.4	127.65	23.8	1.88	125	24.8	210.72	28.0	1.69
TOTAL	298	100.0	533.90	100.0	1.83	503	100.0	752.01	100.0	1.50

<u>Caste</u>	<u>No. of land owners Owned land</u>					<u>No. of Cultivators Cultivated land</u>				
	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Average land owned per reporting family.</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Average land cultivated per reporting family.</u>
Brahmins	34	11.4	140.07	22.7	4.12	34	6.7	88.88	11.1	2.61
G.S. Brahmins	3	1.0	4.16	0.7	1.39	7	1.4	6.42	0.8	0.92
Maratha	-	-	-	-	-	2	0.4	0.60	0.1	0.30
Bant	38	12.8	154.80	25.1	4.07	41	8.1	160.38	20.0	3.91
Billava	27+1	9.4	25.93	4.1	0.93	81	16.0	103.73	13.0	1.28
Belijada	3	1.0	5.61	0.9	1.87	12	2.4	14.79	1.9	1.23
V.K. Brahmin	1	0.3	1.00	0.2	1.00	3	0.6	2.00	0.3	0.67
Ebandari	1	0.3	0.50	0.1	0.50	1	0.2	0.40	0.1	0.40
Devadiga	1	0.3	0.90	0.1	0.90	1	0.2	5.40	0.7	5.40
Ganiga	2	0.7	1.92	0.3	0.96	5	1.0	9.50	1.2	1.90
Mogavir	17	5.7	11.66	1.9	0.69	46	9.1	28.33	3.5	0.62
Koosa	26	8.7	15.19	2.5	0.58	27	5.3	16.09	2.0	0.60
Sayyad Muslim	18	6.0	39.92	6.5	2.22	20	4.0	62.53	7.8	3.13
Navayat Muslim	55	18.4	89.66	14.5	1.63	98	19.4	97.33	12.2	0.99
Byari Muslim	1	0.3	0.48	0.1	0.48	1	0.2	0.48	0.1	0.48
Christian	70	23.6	126.04	20.3	1.80	127	25.0	202.39	25.2	1.59
TOTAL	297+1	100.0	617.84	100.0	2.07	506	100.0	799.25	100.0	1.59

(ii) they could provide fodder which was self-produced and (iii) they could provide place to the cattle in their own field for accommodation purpose. We have classified the cattle into (i) plough cattle, (ii) milch cattle and (iii) the young stock. There were 112 plough cattle of which 104 were he-buffaloes and the remaining 8 were bullocks. All the he-buffaloes were used for cultivation, while 4 of the bullocks were exclusively used for transport and two were studbulls. Milch cattle consisted of she-buffaloes and cows which numbered 64 and 277 respectively. There were no goats or sheep in the village as the coastal climate is not congenial for their growth. The young stock numbered 280, of which 252 were calves and 28 were buffalo calves. As many as 69.5 per cent of the families in the village owned fowls which mainly consisted of cocks and hens and in a very small number, ducks also. Four Catholic Christian families reported owning 11 pigs.

Table 6.9 : - Reported Values of Plough c-attle -

Size of cultivated holding (acres)	No. of families	Cattle Owned	Reported value in Rs	Percentage.
Upto 0.25	-	-	-	
0.26- 0.50	-	-	-	
0.51- 1.00	3	6	310	3.2
1.1 - 2.00	6	12	740	7.5
2.1 - 3.00	6	12	1090	11.1
3.1 - 5.00	15	30	2840	28.9
5.1 - 7.50	14	28	2730	27.8
7.51-10.00	2	4	300	3.1
10.1-15.00	7	14	1310	13.4
Above 15.1	3	6	490	5.0
TOTAL	56	112	9810	

Table 6.9 gives data about the number of families owning plough cattle, the number of cattle owned and the reported value according to the size of cultivated holdings. None of the cultivators who cultivated land upto 0.50 acre were owning any plough cattle. A large number of the cultivators who owned plough cattle were concentrated in the cultivated holdings of 3 to 5 acres and 5 to 7.50 acres. It is significant to note that no single family owned more than a pair of plough cattle. The practice of hiring the bullocks was prevalent. Cultivators with smaller holdings generally hired the bullocks during the ploughing time. Even some bigger holders reported the hiring of bullocks.

The total value of the plough cattle was Rs.9,810/. On an average, a pair of plough cattle is valued at Rs.175. All the he-buffaloes and the bullocks were of the local breed and their quality was much inferior.

Table 6.10 : Cultivators owning plough cattle

	He-buffaloes	Bullocks	Total
No. of families owning plough cattle.	52	4	56
No. of families not owning plough cattle.	451	409	447
Total	503	503	503
No. of plough cattle owned.	104	8	112
No. of plough cattle exclusively used for non-cultivation purpose.	-	6	6

Table 6.10 gives the number of cultivators owning and not-owning the plough cattle. Of the total 503 cultivators only 56 reported the ownership of plough cattle. Three of the 56 families used the bullocks exclusively for non-cultivation purpose. A large number of cultivators did not own bullocks because (i) most of them are exclusively coconut cultivators and they do not require the bullocks in any way;

and (ii) paddy cultivators with small holdings found it uneconomic to own bullocks.

Table 6.11 : - Reported Values of Milch Cattle -

Size of cultivated holding (acres)	No. of families	Cattle owned	Reported value Rs	Percentage.
Upto 0.25	21	29	2130	9.0
0.26-0.50	37	48	2700	11.4
0.51-1.0	46	58	2870	12.1
1.1 -2.0	46	59	3820	16.1
2.1 -3.0	30	42	2550	10.7
3.1 -5.0	29	38	3690	15.5
5.1 -7.50	17	26	2300	9.7
7.51-10.0	3	5	1100	4.6
10.1-15.0	7	16	1430	6.0
Above 15.1	4	9	640	2.7
Cultivating families -	271	330	23230	97.8
Non-Cultivating families	10	11	520	2.2
Total	281	341	23750	100.0

Table 6.11 gives data about the number of families owning the milch cattle and the number and reported value of the milch cattle owned according to the size of the cultivated holding. The figures reveal that 281 families owned 341 milch cattle which was worked out at 1.2 milch cattle per milch cattle owning family. As much as 97.8 per cent of the owners of the milch cattle were cultivators and the number of the non-cultivator owners of milch cattle was very negligible. The total value of the milch cattle was reported as Rs.23,750. Per milch cattle value was worked out as Rs.70/. Like the plough cattle, milch cattle is also of the local breed and its milk yield is very low.

Table 6.12 : - Ownership of Milch Cattle -

	No. owned	Percentage to total milch cattle
Cows	277	81.2
She-buffaloes	64	18.8
Total	341	100.0

Table 6.12 gives the percentage distribution of the milch cattle, namely, cows and she-buffaloes. Of the 341 milch cattle 277 or 81.2 per cent of the total were cows and the remaining were she-buffaloes. Many families preferred keeping a cow than to keeping a buffalo because the former consumed less fodder. Some of our observations revealed that the milk yield and consumption of fodder ratio was higher in case of the cows.

Table 6.13 : - Reported values of young stock -

Size of cultivated holding (acres)	No. of families	Calves owned	Reported value Rs	Percentage
Upto 0.25	20	28	230	8.8
0.26-0.50	32	45	340	12.9
0.51-1.0	39	56	410	15.5
1.1- 2.0	36	49	440	16.6
2.1- 3.0	25	34	280	10.8
3.1-5.0	29	41	420	15.4
5.1-7.50	11	18	130	4.9
7.51-10.0	2	2	30	1.1
10.1-15.0	6	9	110	4.2
Above 15.1	3	4	90	3.4
Total cultivating families	220	286	2480	93.6
Total non-cultivating families	12	14	170	6.4
Grand Total	232	300	2650	100.0

Table 6.13 gives the number of the families owning the young stock and the number and the reported value of the calves owned according to the size of cultivated holding. 232 families reported owning 300 calves valued at Rs.2650. Per calf value was calculated at Rs.9. Of the 281 families reporting the ownership of the milch cattle, 83 per cent owned the young stock. There were 23 calves per 100 milch cattle.

About 69 per cent of the families in the village reported the ownership of the fowls. In all they owned 1,806 birds valued at Rs.3,636. On an average a family reporting the ownership of the fowls owned about three birds. Of the total families reporting the ownership of the fowls, 71.7 per cent were cultivators and 28.3 were non-cultivators (see table 6.14).

Table 6.14: - Reported values of fowls -

खतिनाम	No. of families	Birds owned	Reported value	%
Cultivating families	385	1251	2,608	71.7%
Non-cultivating families	283	555	1,208	28.3
Total	668	1806	3,636	100.0

Table 6.15 gives data about the births, deaths, purchases and sales of livestock during the previous year of the survey. As regards the bullocks, there were 12 purchases as against 8 sales. The total number reported at the beginning of the survey year was 8, which shows that the number of the bullocks was increased by 4 during the previous year of the survey. In case of the he-buffaloes, 80 were purchased as against the sale of 82. The large percentage of sales and purchases of the he-buffaloes was reported as the usual phenomena of the village, sales

taking place in the month of February and the purchases in May. This was only to adjust with the scarce fodder supply in the village. It is important to note that no deaths were reported either in case of the bullocks or the he-buffaloes.

As regards the milch cattle, the previous year of the survey year was significant from the point of view of the purchases. As many as 105 calves and 30 buffaloes were purchased as against the sale of 35 and 16 respectively. This large scale addition of milch cattle might have been brought about by the increasing demand for milk in the village in the recent years.

In respect of the young stock, there was a net addition of 100 calves and 20 buffalo calves during the previous year of the survey. It is important to note that the sales and purchases of the young stock took place within the village.

About the fowls, there were 1,771 births as against 1063 deaths which were mainly due to the yellow fevers. A large number of birds were purchased from outside the village at the time of the Mari festival when a large majority of the Hindu low caste people sacrificed those birds to the 'Goddess Mari'.

Table 6.15: Births, deaths, purchases and sales of livestock.

Live Stock	Total No. reported.	Births + No.	Purchases + No.	Deaths - No.	Sales - No.	Domestic use - No.
Bullocks	8	-	12	-	8	-
He-buffaloes	104	-	60	-	82	-
Cows	277	-	105	10	35	-
She-buffaloes	64	-	30	7	16	-
Calves	252	135	14	36	13	-
Buffaloe-calves	28	39	2	20	1	-
Fowls	1086	1771	1690	1063	43	2874

Table 6.16: Agricultural Implements

Name of the Implement	Number	Number of reporting families	Average number per reporting family
Iron plough	2	2	1.0
Wooden plough	156	58	2.7
Levelling bar	34	34	1.0
Yoke	73	48	1.5
Water lift	73	55	1.3
Crowbar	106	57	1.9
Hook with a handle	25	18	1.4
Sickle	160	48	3.3
Pickaxe	3	3	1.0
Threshing board	49	47	1.0
Bullock carts	2	2	1.0
Boats	16	9	1.8
Electric pumpsets	13	10	1.3

6.4 : Ownership of agricultural implements :

Table 6.16 gives the data in respect of different agricultural implements. Most of the implements were of use for paddy cultivation only. Only crowbar, pickaxe and sickle were practically used for coconut cultivation. Though there were two bullock carts in the village, they were not used for cultivation purpose in any way. They were used for transport of the laterite stone from a nearby quarry. Sixteen boats were reported to be owned by nine cultivators, but they were not used for transport of any farm product or farm inputs like manure etc. They were mainly used by the members of the reported families for crossing the river during the rainy season.

All the 58 families who reported the cultivation of the paddy fields owned the wooden ploughs. On an average,

each paddy cultivating family owned 2.7 wooden ploughs. Usually a spare plough was always maintained by each paddy cultivating family. Iron plough was owned by only two families whose cultivated holding was above 5.1 acre. As deep ploughing is not necessary for paddy cultivation the owners of the iron ploughs have not gained anything in the form of increased yield. In fact, the iron ploughs are too heavy for the local he-buffaloes to operate. Hence there was no trend of the other cultivators purchasing the iron ploughs during the coming five years. The present owners of the iron ploughs were thinking of disposing off their ploughs.

Only 34 farmers out of 58 paddy cultivators owned the levelling bar while as many as 48 farmers owned the yoke. The analysis of the data according to the size of the cultivated holding did not suggest the concentrated possession of these implements with the bigger holders. In fact, most of the smaller holders, cultivating from 1.1 acre to 3 acres were possessing more than 50 per cent of these implements. The further analysis according to the type of cultivators revealed that all the owner cultivators possessed these implements while a few among the tenant cultivators owned them. The rest of the tenant cultivators used to these implements from the owner cultivators without making any payments.

Waterlifts were owned by 55 families and they numbered 73. Most of the waterlifts were made of iron while fan were made of copper and three were wooden. Ten farmers reported the possession of the electric pump sets. Threshing boards for paddy were 49 in number and were owned by 47 farmers.

Table 6.17 gives the data regarding the ownership of the wooden ploughs, waterlifts and the electric pump sets according to the size of the cultivated holding.

Table 6.17: Ownership of Wooden ploughs, Waterlifts and Electric pump sets.

	<u>Wooden ploughs</u>		<u>Waterlifts</u>		<u>Electric pumpsets</u>	
	<u>No. of fami- lies.</u>	<u>No. of ploughs owned.</u>	<u>No. of fami- lies.</u>	<u>No. of lifts.</u>	<u>No. of fami- lies.</u>	<u>No. of Sets</u>
Upto 0.25 - -	-	-	-	-	-	-
0.26-0.50 - -	-	-	-	-	-	-
0.51-1.0 - 3	6	3	3	3	-	-
1.1-2.0 - 6	11	8	6	6	1	1
2.1-3.0 - 8	14	8	8	8	1	1
3.1-5.0 - 16	41	16	24	24	-	-
5.1-7.50 - 14	39	13	19	19	3	8
7.51-10.0 - 2	8	1	1	1	-	-
10.1-15.0 - 6	24	6	9	9	3	3
Above 15.1- 3	13	3	3	3	2	3
TOTAL	58	153	55	73	10	13

Of the total 153 wooden ploughs, more than 50 per cent were possessed by the farmers cultivating land from 3.1 acres to 7.50 acres. About 25 per cent were owned by the farmers cultivating land above 10.1 acres. About 52 per cent of the waterlifts were owned by the farmers cultivating of land from 3.1 acres to 7.50 acres. Electric pumpsets were mainly owned by the bigger cultivators.

Table 6.18 gives the present value of the agricultural implements according to the size of the cultivated holding. The total value of the agricultural implements at the beginning of the survey year was reported as Rs.21,390. The farmers cultivating 5.1 to 7.50 acres, 10.1 to 15.0 acres and above 15.1 acres reported more than 70 per cent of the total value of the implements.

Table 6.18 : Reported values of agricultural implements
according to the size of the cultivated holding.

Size of the cultivated holding.	No. of families owning agricultural implements.	Value of implements.	Percentage.
Upto 0.25	-	-	-
0.26-0.50	-	-	-
0.51-1.00	4	130	0.6
1.1 -2.00	7	1630	7.6
2.1 -3.00	10	1760	8.2
3.1 -5.00	20	2770	13.0
5.1 -7.50	15	5250	24.5
7.51-10.0	2	110	0.5
10.1-15.0	6	5040	23.6
Above 15.1	3	4570	21.4
Non-cultivators	2	130	0.6
Total	69	21390	100.0

Table 6.19 : Value of land

Size of cultivated holding (acre)	No. of families owning land	Value in Rs	Percentage.	Value per reporting family.
Upto 0.25	33	19,190	1.5	582
0.26 -0.50	64	1,02,350	8.2	1,599
0.51 -1.00	57	1,13,200	9.1	1,985
1.1 -2.00	54	1,72,800	13.8	3,200
2.1 -3.00	30	1,54,700	12.4	5,157
3.1 -5.00	34	2,37,900	19.0	6,997
5.1 -7.50	12	1,91,250	15.3	15,937
7.51 -10.0	2	31,000	2.5	15,500
10.1 -15.0	7	1,61,200	12.9	23,028
Above 15.1	4	65,400	5.2	16,350
Non-cultivators	1	1,000	0.1	1,000
Total	298	12,49,990	100.0	4,194

6.5 : Value of Land :

Table 6.19 gives the data in respect of the value of land owned according to the size of the cultivated holding. There were in all 298 families reporting the ownership of land. In table 6.7 we have seen that the total land owned by these families was 833.90 acres. The value of the land owned was reported as Rs.12,49,990. The value of land included the value of land improvements such as bunds, drainage, ponds etc., and also the value of the perennial trees on the land. Value of land per reporting family generally shows an increase as the size of cultivated holding increases.

6.6 : Value of houses :

Table 6.20 gives the data in respect of the value of the residential and non-residential houses owned. There were 451 families or 46.9 per cent reporting the ownership of the houses. Most of them were cultivators of land and only 8 were non-cultivators. The percentage of the families reporting the ownership of the houses generally increases as the size of the cultivated holding increases. It is significant to note that only 1.8 per cent of the non-cultivators reported the ownership of the houses. The total value of the houses owned was Rs.10,55,500 and the average value per reporting family was worked out at Rs.2,340. The average value of the houses per reporting family generally shows an increase as the size of cultivated holding increases.

6.7 : Value of Gold and Silver ornaments Owned :

A large number of the families reported the ownership of gold and silver ornaments. Table 6.21 gives the data in respect of the value of the ornaments owned. There were 618 families or 61.3 per cent of the total number of families in the village reporting the ownership of gold and silver ornaments. The total value of the ornaments owned was Rs.1,70,070 and the average value per reporting family

Table 6.20 :

Value of Houses etc

Size of cultivated holding (acre)	Reporting No. of families	Percentage	Value Rs.	Percentage	Proportion of reporting families to total families.	Value of houses per reporting family.
Upto 0.25	74	16.4	44,880	4.3	85.0	606
0.26 - 0.50	112	24.7	1,19,420	11.3	82.4	1,066
0.51 - 1.00	92	20.4	2,02,130	19.1	89.3	2,197
1.1 - 2.00	69	15.3	2,08,530	19.8	89.6	3,022
2.1 - 3.00	31	6.9	78,360	7.4	83.8	2,527
3.1 - 5.00	36	8.0	1,48,500	14.1	90.0	4,125
5.1 - 7.50	15	3.3	66,100	6.3	88.2	4,406
7.51 - 10.00	3	0.7	50,250	4.8	100.0	16,750
10.1 - 15.00	7	1.6	94,600	8.9	100.0	13,514
Above 15.1	4	0.9	40,000	3.7	100.0	10,000
Non-cultivators	8	1.8	2,730	0.3	1.8	341
TOTAL	451	100.0	10,55,500	100.0	46.9	2,340

was worked out at Rs.275. It can be seen that the percentage of reporting families to total number of families shows an increase as the size of the cultivated holding increases. It is important to note that even among non-cultivators of land who mostly belonged to the poor class, 43.8 per cent reported the ownership of the gold and silver ornaments.

Table 6.21 : Value of Gold and Silver Ornaments owned :

Size of cultivated holding (acre)	No. of reporting families.	Value in Rs.	Value per reporting family Rs.	Percentage of reporting families to total No. of families.
Upto 0.25	58	11,020	190	66.7
0.26 - 0.50	106	22,900	216	77.9
0.51 - 1.00	88	28,710	326	85.4
1.1 - 2.00	66	27,320	414	85.7
2.1 - 3.00	35	15,600	446	91.6
3.1 - 5.00	38	24,170	636	95.0
5.1 - 7.50	16	10,590	662	94.1
7.51- 10.00	3	1,450	483	100.0
10.1- 15.00	7	11,360	1,621	100.0
Above 15.1	4	9,000	2,250	100.0
Non-cultivators	197	16,950	86	43.8
TOTAL	618	1,70,070	275	64.3

6.8: Other Investments :

Table 6.22 gives data about the investments in insurance, postal savings, bank deposits and shares in the co-operatives. 63 families reported the investment in the form of premiums paid to the Life Insurance Corporation of India. The total amount of the premiums paid up to the survey year was reported as Rs.1,11,530. 70 families reported the deposits in the Savings Bank of the post office at Kemmannu. The deposits amounted to Rs.41,100 at the time

TABLE 6.22 :

- Investment in Insurance etc. -

Size of Cultivated holding (acre)	INSURANCE			Postal Savings etc.			Bank Deposits			Co-operatives Shares		
	No. of reporting families.	Value in Rs.	%	No. of reporting families.	Value in Rs.	%	No. of reporting families.	Value in Rs.	%	No. of reporting families.	Value in Rs.	%
Upto 0.25	8	10,930	9.8	10	3,500	8.8	14	1,800	0.5	6	920	7.8
0.26 - 0.50	5	5,420	4.9	-	-	-	11	1,100	0.3	4	180	1.5
0.51 - 1.00	10	14,080	12.6	10	20,000	48.7	17	31,900	8.2	7	470	4.0
1. 1 - 2.00	12	17,590	15.8	30	12,400	30.2	24	1,15,800	29.8	6	240	2.0
2. 1 - 3.00	3	8,200	7.4	-	-	-	13	32,000	8.3	2	40	0.3
3. 1 - 5.00	10	30,620	27.4	10	5,000	12.2	13	54,400	14.0	12	8,940	75.4
5. 1 - 7.50	2	1,300	1.2	-	-	-	13	54,100	13.9	2	40	0.3
7.51 -10.00	2	2,440	2.2	-	-	-	11	20,000	5.2	-	-	-
10.1 -15.00	6	19,000	17.0	10	200	0.4	13	6,100	1.6	2	20	0.2
Above 15.1	3	1,800	1.6	-	-	-	12	60,700	15.6	3	190	1.6
Non-cultivators	2	150	0.1	-	-	-	5	10,000	2.6	15	820	6.9
TOTAL	63	1,11,530	100.0	70	41,100	100.0	146	3,87,900	100.0	59	11,860	100.0

of the survey. It is significant to note that 50 per cent of the depositors were small cultivators holding 87 per cent of the deposits. There were 146 families reporting the deposits of various kind like fixed deposits, savings deposits etc at the local branch of the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd. The bank deposits held by the residents of the village amounted to Rs.3,87,900. 59 families reported the shares in the co-operative societies which amounted to Rs.11,860.

Table 23 : Investment in the Fishing Equipments.

Item	Number	Value in Rs.
Boats (Big)	21	21,650
Boats (Small)	48	11,200
Total	73	32,850
Net pieces	4,084	1,00,163
Hooks	12,932	648
Line	42,000'	1,968
Knives	68	96
Angal vessels	19	633
		Total 1,69,208

6.9 : Investment in Fishing of implements :

Table 6.23 gives the data in respect of the value of the fishing equipments. These equipments were jointly owned by the fishermen who operated them. There were a large number of non-resident fishermen who operated the nets on the village coast. Hence the value of the fishing equipments should not be taken as the investment done by the residents of the village.

6.10 : Investment in equipments used in non-agricultural production and processing activities :

Table 6.24 gives the data in respect of the value of the equipments used in various non-agricultural production

Table 6.24: Reported values of equipments used in non-agricultural production and processing activities.

Occupations	Value-in-₹.	Percentage
Quarrying	350	2.90
Line-kiln	91	0.76
Aerated Water factories	3,505	29.08
Beedi manufacturing	309	2.56
Tailors	4,061	33.70
Oil pressing	30	0.25
Flour Mill	940	7.80
Black Smith	92	0.76
Copper Smith	1,150	9.54
Copper utensils manufacturing unit	300	2.50
Gold Smith	90	0.75
Carpenters	190	1.58
Sawyers	60	0.50
Furniture making unit	75	0.62
Basket making	3	0.03
Masons	60	0.50
Barbers	550	4.56
Washerman	50	0.42
Repairing the old umbrellas	10	0.08
Stitching the grain bags	3	0.03
Coir preparations	68	0.56
Palmyra jaggery and 'neera'	63	0.53
Total	12,050	100.00

activities. The value of the equipments amounted to ₹.12,050 of which 30 per cent was that of the equipments used in the aerated water manufacturing units and 34 per cent in tailoring in the form of sewing machinery and so forth. In other instances, barring a few cases of copper smiths and a flour mill, the value of the equipments was very small.

In many cases, the investment was in the form of furnitures and fixtures.

Table 6.25 : Reported values of equipments used in Trading.

Occupations	Value in Rs.	Percentage
Grocers	2,130	16.92
Cloth-merchants	1,586	12.60
Stationery shops	2,030	16.12
Pan-Bira-Biri merchants	145	1.15
Hotel-keepers	6,700	53.21
TOTAL	12,591	100.00

Table 6.26 : Reported values of equipments used in Transport.

Equipments	Number	Value in Rs	Percentage
Machava	4	25,000	51.51
Boats for transport	44	5,542	11.42
Bullock-carts	2	250	0.52
Lorry	1	12,000	24.72
Scooter	1	2,800	5.77
Bi-cycles	18	2,940	6.03
Total		48,532	100.00

6.11 : Investment in equipments used in trading :

Table 6.25 gives the data about the value of the equipments used in various trading establishments. As the whole sale dealers in coconuts, fish, coir etc., did not report any equipments used in their respective businesses, they are not covered here. The whole sale dealers mainly invested in the transport equipments data for which are presented in table 6.26 . Only retailers like grocers, cloth-merchants, stationery shop-keepers, Pan-Bira-Biri merchants and hotel-keepers reported the equipments mainly

in the form of furnitures and fixtures. The value of the equipments amounted to Rs.12,591 of which 53.21 per cent was reported by the hotel-keepers.

6.12 : Investment in the equipments used in transport :

Table 6.26 gives the data in respect of the number and value of the different transport equipments reported by the residents of the village. The total investment in the transport equipments was Rs.48,522 of which about 52 per cent was in four 'machavas' owned by a single individual who was engaged 'in machava' transport. There were 44 boats used for transport valued at Rs.5,512 making 11.42 per cent of the total investment. It is important to note that there were only two bullock-carts in the village, one being used for transport of the laterite stones and the other one for the transport of the merchandise from Udipi. A local paddy merchant owned a lorry whose value was reported as Rs.12,000 constituting 24.72 per cent of the total investment in transport. A scooter was owned by a Brahmin landlord for his personal use. Most of the bi-cycles were owned by two stationary merchants for hiring purpose.

Table 6.27 : Investment and dis-investment during last twelve months.

	I	II	III	IV	V
	Total invest- ment Rs.	Investment during 12 months Rs.	II as per cent of I %	Dis- invest- ment in 12months	IV as per cent of I %
Land	12,49,990	16,910	1.35	-	-
Houses	10,55,500	29,780	2.82	-	-
Agri. Imple- ments.	21,390	3,100	1.44	-	-
Livestock	39,846	17,392	43.64	15,460	38.79
Fishing - implements	1,26,332	19,133	14.04	-	-
Gold & Silver	1,70,070	21,230	12.48	-	-
Insurance	1,11,530	9,318	8.35	-	-
Postal - savings	41,100	-	-	11,200	27.25
Bank deposits	3,87,900	1,34,500	34.67	45,450	11.72
Co-operative shares	1,18,600	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	32,32,258	3,81,686	11.45	72,110	2.16

6.13 : Investment and dis-investment during last twelve months

Table 6.27 gives the data in respect of the investment and disinvestment during the last twelve months of the enquiry. In the case of the transport equipments, neither investment nor disinvestment was reported during the last twelve months. In respect of the traders and the non-agricultural production activities the investment and disinvestment figures were not collected. Disinvestments were reported only in the case of the Livestock, the Postal Savings and the Bank Deposits. Most of the draught buffaloes were sold after the ploughing of the summer paddy crop and again purchased at the beginning of the rainy season. Hence the large percentages of investment and disinvestment are reported in the case of the livestock. It is significant to note that the reported figures reveal a large percentage of investment in the Bank deposits while the investment in the Postal Savings, was absolutely nil. On the other hand, large percentage of the postal savings are withdrawn. In all during the course of twelve months investment was 11.45 per cent of the total investment while disinvestment was only 2.16 per cent.

CHAPTER V II.LAND UTILIZATION7.1: Introductions

In Chapter VI we examined the data regarding the ownership of land in the village. In the present chapter, our main purpose is to present the details about the salient aspects of land utilization. Our other purpose is to annex the information on land utilization with short notes on allied topics like 'manure economy', 'fodder economy' and so forth. The data for the topics on land utilization were collected by a special enquiry conducted for the selected 'plots', in the village hereinafter called 'plotwise survey' or P.S. Enquiry. The data for the allied topics such as 'manure economy' and 'fodder economy' were collected in the G.F.S. Enquiry. In the forthcoming section, we shall furnish some significant details about the conduct of a P.S. Enquiry in the Paduthouse village. In the present section we give the major land uses in the village as recorded by the village records.

In table 7.1, we give the percentage distribution of the major land uses of the village. We find therein that 19.1 per cent of the village land is under paddy fields.

Table 7.1

Major land uses according to village records

Major land use	Percentage
Paddy fields	19.1
Coconut groves	30.7
Forest land	7.2
Uncultivable rocky land	9.3
Under Public use (river, roads etc)	33.7
Total (Actual in acres)	100.0 (1610.53)

While 30.7 per cent is under the coconut groves. Both these constitute the total cultivated area in the village. Thus only 49.8% of the total land is under plough, which distributed among the paddy fields and coconut groves roughly at a ratio of 2:3. It is important to note that 33.7% or one third of the village land is under river, roads and other

public uses while 9.3 per cent is under uncultivable rocky land and 7.2 per cent is under the casurina and some other fuel and 'manure' trees. The leaves of the 'karnal' trees, for example, are used in preparing the dung manure.

7.2: Plotwise Survey:

The P.S. was conducted in the Paduthouse centre to get information in respect of (i) nature and extent of ownership/tenancy types of cultivation, (ii) description of soil; (iii) intensity of land utilization; (iv) cropping pattern; (v) cultivation practices for major and minor crops; (vi) farm inputs, human and bullock labour input as well as material inputs; (vii) farm outputs; and finally (viii) employment in agriculture. The P.S. Enquiry, provides data to estimate the extent of human and bullock labour requirements quantity of manure required etc for the village agricultural sector. Secondly, it helps to estimate the extent of 'self sufficiency' and 'dependence' in regard to input factors. Thirdly, it reveals the extent of cash and kind payments towards the hired labour and purchased materials. Fourthly monthwise employment conditions in the agricultural sector may be assessed. And finally, it is possible to arrive at a rough estimation figure in respect of farm output figure as well.

The selection of the plots for the P.S. Enquiry was made on Stratified Random Sample Method. At the outset, it was decided to take the samples from paddy fields and coconut groves only. Hence, land under forest and uncultivable rocky soil is not represented in our sample. There were, in all 957 paddy plots on 306.89 acres of land and 839 coconut plots on 494.27 acres of land. Both the paddy plots and the coconut plots were arranged separately in an ascending order of size and the cumulative total of the area was taken for each plot. In case of paddy fields, when the cumulative number crossed every tenth acre, it was marked and selected. Thus, we had one paddy plot selected for every five acres

of paddy fields while one coconut plot for every ten acres of coconut groves. Thus we had 60 paddy plots and 50 coconut plots selected. However, we could not cover two of the selected paddy plots for our enquiry as those plots were under water since some 20 years. So finally our selection stood at 58 paddy plots and 50 coconut plots, and the total area covered was 38.87 acres (12.7 per cent) in the case of paddy fields and 49.62 acres (10.0 per cent) in the case of coconut groves.

In table 7.2 below, we present the percentage distribution of the total and selected paddy plots and coconut plots according to the size. The figures reveal that 62.3 per cent of the paddy plots and 45.0 per cent of the coconut plots in the village are concentrated below 0.25 acres.

Table 7.2

Distribution of sample plots according to colour of soil.

Type of soil	Paddy plots		Coconut Plots	
	No. of plots	Area %	No. %	Area %
Riverbed clay			22.0	34.9
Pure sand	51.7	40.5	12.0	13.4
Blackish sandy mud	34.5	49.8	42.0	31.3
Reddish sandy mud	13.8	9.7	24.0	22.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(No. of actual plots and acreage)	---	(58) (38.87)	(50)	(49.62)

In case of paddy plots, only 4.4 per cent and in case of coconut plots 16.5 per cent are above one acre. As our selection was based on area and not on the number of the plots, only 29.2 per cent of the paddy plots and 10 % of the coconut plots selected were below 0.25 acre, while, 14.0 per cent of the paddy plots and 40 per cent of the coconut plots selected were above one acre in size. Thus our sample could cover 12.7 per cent of paddy area and 10 per cent of the area under coconut garden by selecting only 6.1 and 6 per cents of the paddy and coconut plots respectively.

7.3 : Description of the Soil.

Table 7.3 presents the percentage distribution of the selected plots and the area according to the colour of the soil. The quality of the soil is classified into (i) river bed clay; (ii) coastal sand; (iii) blackish sandy soil; and (iv) reddish sandy soil. The data reveal that 51.7 per cent of the paddy plots with 40.5 per cent of the area present coastal sand.

Table 7.3

Distribution of sample plots according to size.

Size (in acres)	Paddy Plots		Coconut plots	
	Total %	Sample %	Total %	Sample %
Upto 0.25	62.3	29.2	46.0	10.0
0.26 to 0.50	21.0	25.8	21.8	18.0
0.51 to 1	12.3	31.0	15.7	32.0
1.1 - 2	3.1	7.0	11.4	32.0
Above 2.1	1.3	7.0	5.1	8.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No. of plots	(957)	(58)	(829)	(50)

In case of blackish sandy soil, though only 34.5 per cent of the paddy plots are represented, the area is 49.8 percent. Very low percentage of the paddy plots (13.8 per cent) with 9.7 per cent of area is under reddish sandy soil while there are no paddy fields in the river bed clay. In case of the coconut plots, 22.0 per cent of the plots with an area of 34.9 per cent are under river bed clay and 42.0 per cent of the plots with an area of 3=,3 per cent are under blackish sandy soil. On reddish sandy soil, 24.0 per cent of the plots with an area of 22.4 per cent and on coastal sand 12.0 per cent of the plots with 13.4 per cent of the area are represented.

7.4: Soil Erosion and Bunding

In case of the paddy plots, soil erosion was not reported. As regards the coconut plots, erosion of the area touching sea and river water was reported in five cases. In three cases land was eroded by sea water resulting in total loss of 12 coconut trees with an area of about 0.15 acre of land. In case of river water, no coconut trees were lost, but an area of about 0.2 acre was lost. On the other hand, there were the cases of soil deposition also. Three cases reported the deposition of soil by the river while only one case reported that by the sea. The total land newly created was about 0.3 acre in case of sea deposition and 0.7 acre in case of river deposition.

Bunds were not found in case of paddy fields. However, earthen bunds of about one foot height were found to demarcate the boundaries of some plots. In case of the coconut gardens, bunds were not needed except at the border of the river water where earthen as well as stone bunds were built to prevent the erosion of land. In the P.S. Enquiry, such bunds were reported in two cases built at a total cost of Rs.275/- only.

7.5: Land Values

Table 7.4 gives figures in respect of the percentage distribution of the plots according to the reported value per acre. The figures reveal that in respect of the paddy plots 8.6 per cent of the plots were valued below Rs.1000 per acre while the corresponding figure for the coconut plots was only 6 per cent. Further, as regards the plots valued between Rs.1001 to Rs.2000, the paddy plots reported 12 per cent while the coconut plots reported 18 per cent and 12.1 per cent of the paddy plots and 23 per cent of the coconut plots were valued between Rs.2001 to Rs.3000. As many as 57 per cent of the paddy plots and 46 per cent of the coconut plots were valued between Rs.3001 to Rs.4000; and above Rs.4001 only 10.3 percent

of the paddy plots and 8 percent of the coconut plots were valued as reported. In both the cases, the concentration was observed between Rs.3001 to Rs.4000.

Table 7.4

Distribution of the plots according to the reported value per acre.

<u>Value per acre</u> In Rs.	<u>Paddy plots</u> %	<u>Coconut plots</u> %
Upto 1000	8.6	6.0
1001- 1500	1.7	4.0
1501- 2000	10.3	14.0
2001- 2500	6.9	10.0
2501- 3000	5.2	12.0
3001- 3500	32.8	26.0
3501- 4000	24.2	20.0
Above 4000	10.3	8.0
Total	100.0	100.0
(Actual No. of plots)	(58)	(50)

7.6 Types of Tenancies :

The P.J. Enquiry revealed that in case of the paddy plots, 28 out of 58 or 48.3 per cent of the plots were leased out; while in case of the coconut plots 26 out of 50, or 52 per cent of the plots were leased out. In table 6.5 data are given in respect of percentage distribution of leased out plots according to size. In case of the paddy plots, concentration is below 1 acre as 92.8 per cent of the plots are reported. On the other hand coconut plots are concentrated between 0.51 acre to 2 acres, as 80.9 per cent of the plots are concentrated in that group. These figures may be compared with the percentage distribution of the sample plots as given in Table 7.2 above. As regards the paddy plots, proportionately more number of plots are leased out below 1 acre, as the leased out percentage is 92.8 per cent as against the

sample percentage of 86 per cent for the same category. In the same way, proportionately more coconut plots are leased out between 0.51 acre to 2 acres. Because, the leased out coconut plots between 0.51 acre to 2 acres are 80.9 per cent as against the sample coconut plots in that group presenting only 64 per cent.

Table 7.5

Distribution of leased out plots according to size.

Size of the plot (in acres)	Paddy plots %	Coconut plots %
Upto 0.25	32.1	3.8
0.26 - 0.50	28.6	3.8
0.51 to 1.00	32.1	42.4
1.1 - 2.00	3.6	38.5
Above 2.1	3.6	11.5
	100.0	100.0
(No. of plots)	(28)	(26)

In table 7.6 below distribution of the leased out plots according to type of tenancy and per acre rent for each type is given.

Table 7.6

Distribution of leased out plots according to type of tenancy and per acre rent for each type.

Type of Tenancy	Paddy plots		Coconut plots	
	Number	Rent per acre Rs.	Number	Rent per acre Rs.
'Muli' right	2	175.12	21	41.35
'Chal' right	26	184.29	5	52.97
Total	28	178.45	26	42.79

There are mainly two types of tenancies prevalent in the village as the data reveal. The first type is known as the 'muli' right in which case the tenant purchases the right to cultivate a piece of land from the owner at the market rate with a fixed annual rent. As the right to cultivate

the land is purchased by the tenant, the land owner ceases to possess the right to dispose off the land by sale or any other means. On the other hand, the tenant possesses the right to sell the cultivation right to anybody he pleases at the market rate. This system seems to be prevalent in the South Kanara district since many centuries. In Paduthonse, the first Muli right was sold by the Udipi Math to a Catholic family in the village some 300 years back. The second tenancy system is known as 'chal right' meaning thereby the current right to cultivate a piece of land at the annual rent fixed according to the market rate for the current year. In case of paddy plots only 2 out of 28 are leased out on 'mulii' right basis while the rest 26 on 'chal' right basis. On the other hand, in case of the coconut plots 21 out of 26 are leased out on 'mulii' right basis while the rest 5 on 'chal' right basis. It is also revealed that per acre rent is less in case of 'mulii' right plots than it is in case of the 'chal' right plots. Per acre rent for paddy plots is 4 to 5 times higher than that for coconut plots. This difference may be due to the fact that per acre cultivation costs are much higher in case of the coconut plots than in case of the paddy plots.

In table 7.7 data are given in respect of the duration of tenancy. In case of the paddy plots, a large majority of the plots viz., 67.9 per cent were leased out during previous ten years, whereas the corresponding figure for the coconut plots during that period was only 7.7 per cent.

Table 7.7

Duration of Tenancy		
Number of years	Paddy plots No.	Coconut plots No.
1-5	39.3	-
6-10	28.6	7.7
11-25	10.7	34.6
26-50	14.3	30.8
Above 50	7.1	26.9
Total (Actual No. of plots)	100.0 (28)	100.0 (26)

On the other hand, 65.4 percent of the coconut plots were leased out between 11 to 50 years previous to our survey. Some 7.1 percent of the paddy plots were leased out more than 50 years ago, while the corresponding figure for the coconut plots was 23.9 per cent. This reveals the fact that tenancy system was more prevalent in case of the coconut plots than in case of paddy plots till recently.

7.7: Building on Farms

We have observed in Chapter II that Paduthonse is a spread out village and the houses are scattered over on the coconut gardens. As the paddy fields are at a low level, no buildings were found constructed on them. In table 7.8 below we give the number of residential and non-residential buildings on the selected coconut plots.

Table 7.8

Buildings on selected coconut plots.

Residential buildings	
For self	35
For tenants on the farm	25
For others	8
	<hr style="width: 50px; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/>
	68
Non-residential buildings	3
	<hr style="width: 50px; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/>
	72
	<hr style="width: 50px; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/>

The residential buildings are further classified as (i) for self use; (ii) for tenants on the farm and (iii) for others. Of the total 71 buildings, 68 were residential and 3 were non-residential. 35 of the residential buildings were used by the owners themselves while 25 were given to the tenants on the farm, free of rent. Only 8 houses were rented. Areawise, one house was reported per every 0.70 acre of coconut plots.

7.8: Water Resources

Water was mainly supplied from big and small ponds for irrigation purposes. Such ponds were mainly owned by the Government and the right to use the water for irrigation was distributed among the cultivators of the adjoining plots. There were in all 44 ponds owned by the Government according to the village records. All these ponds were 1 to 1,1/2 fathom deep and their area varied as the following figures show. Of the 44 ponds, 11 were below 242 sq.yds., 28 were between 243 sq.yds to 484 sq.yds and 5 were between 485 sq.yds to 726 sq.yds. The number of private ponds was not available in the village records. The private ponds were found in the coconut gardens and to a small extent on paddy fields also. They were, however, very small in size, all below 100 sq.yds. in area and hardly 1 fathom deep.

In table 7.9 below, data are given in respect of the percentage distribution of the water resources according to the size of the plots.

Table 7.9

Source of Water	Percentage distribution of the water resources					Total %
	Size of the plots (in acres)					
	Upto 0.25 %	0.25 - 0.50 %	0.51- 1.0 %	1.1- 2.0 %	Above 2.1 %	
<u>Paddy plots</u>						
Govt.ponds	47.0	60.0	42.1	25.0	50.0	47.5
Private ponds	11.8	13.3	15.8	25.0	50.0	17.0
No water source	41.2	26.7	42.1	50.0	-	35.5
<u>Total</u>	100.0 (17)	100.0 (15)	100.0 (19)	100.0 (4)	100.0 (4)	100.0 (59)
<u>Coconut plots</u>						
Govt.ponds	20.0	-	-	-	-	0.8
Private ponds	60.0	80.0	98.0	100.0	100.0	95.2
No water source	20.0	20.0	2.0	-	-	3.0
<u>Total</u>	100.0 (5)	100.0 (10)	100.0 (51)	100.0 (38)	100.0 (26)	100.0 (130)

In case of the paddy plots below 0.25 acre, 41.2 per cent of the plots had no source of water. In the second size group, viz., between 0.26 to 0.50 acre, only 26.7 per cent of the ponds were without any water sources. This trend takes the reverse when we come to size groups three and four, viz., those between 0.51 to 1 acre and 1.1 to 2 acres respectively. In the third size group 42.1 per cent and in the fourth size group 50 per cent of the plots were with no water resources. However, about 2.1 acres, no cases were reported without water resources. On the other hand, in case of the coconut plots, on an average, only 3 per cent of the plot were without water. The percentage distribution of the plots without water supply in different size groups was 20 per cent below 0.50 acre, 2 per cent between 0.51 to 1 acre and none above 1.1 acre.

Among the plots which reported water resources paddy plots reported water supply from as many as 28 Govt. ponds while the coconut plots reported a single such case. On the other hand, as many as 125 private ponds were reported on the coconut plots whereas the corresponding figure for the paddy plots was only 10. As far as the paddy plots are concerned, water supply is necessarily required from the Government ponds, which are sufficiently larger in size than the private ponds. The other problem is that the water from the Government ponds is shared by different adjoining plots as the following figures reveal. Of the 28 cases reporting the availability of water supply from Government ponds, 3 reported that the water was shared by two plots, 2 by three plots, 13 by four plots and 10 by more than four plots.

- PADDY FIELDS -

7.9: Intensity of Land Utilization :

The term intensity of land utilization is used to mean the ratio of the total cropped area during the course of an agricultural year to the actual area available for

cultivation. The actual area excludes (i) the uncultivable waste; (ii) permanent fallow; (iii) the area under perennial crops. As we are considering the paddy plots only, we do not come across any perennial crops. The actual area available for cultivation for the 58 sample paddy plots comes to 38.38 acres when 0.49 acre is excluded for the reason (i) and (ii) stated above.

The data collected during the P.S. Enquiry permit us to relate the intensity of land utilization to different size groups of the plots and the irrigation facilities available. Table 7.10 presents the data in respect of intensity of land utilization for selected paddy plots according to the different size groups of the plots.

Table 7.10

Intensity of Land Utilization for selected paddy plots

Size groups in acres	Proportion of cultivated area to total area			Intensity of Land Utilisation %
	Monsoon Crop	Winter Crop	Summer Crop	
Upto 0.25	100.0	74.7	8.4	183.1
0.26-0.50	100.0	80.1	44.7	224.8
0.51-1.0	100.0	74.7	23.1	197.8
1.1 - 2.0	100.0	76.0	-	176.0
Above 2.1	100.0	97.0	38.0	235.0
Total	100.0	82.6	27.4	210.0

It is revealed therein that (i) the intensity is 100 percent for all the size groups during the Monsoon; (ii) During the Winter season, the intensity varies from 74.7 percent in respect of I group to 97 per cent in respect of V group. Nearer the average intensities are recorded by II and IV groups. A sharp decline in respect of IV group (74.7 per cent) and a sharp rise in respect of V Group (97 per cent) are worth noting; (iii) During the Summer season, the intensities for different groups are wider

than they are during the Winter season. It is important to note that the intensity takes a sharp jump from 8.4 per cent in the I group to 44.7 per cent in the II group. Then it climbs down suddenly to 23.1 per cent in the third group and in the IV group, it absolutely disappears in the floor. Again in the V group, it suddenly appears and almost restores the intensity recorded in II group (38 per cent).

We shall conclude that the intensity of land utilization is governed by the extent of irrigation facilities. This conclusion we shall draw after relating the information given in table 7.9 for paddy plots with that in table 7.10. The figures reveal that the proportions of cultivated area to total area during winter and summer seasons is in accordance with the extent of water facilities available. For example, intensity increases from I group to II group, because in case of I group, only 58.8 per cent of the plots had water facilities while in case of II group, the corresponding figure was 73.3 per cent. Intensity suddenly declined in III group with the plots having water sources dropping down to 57.9 per cent. In case of IV group, the intensity was the lowest, because the plots with water facilities were only 50 percent, the lowest in that category. In V group, the intensity suddenly jumps up because all the plots in that group are facilitated with water sources.

7.10 : Cropping Pattern.

Table 7.11 reveals the pattern of cropping for the sample paddy plots during 1958-59. Except sweet potato and sugarcane, all the crops reported by the village records are covered by the P.S. Enquiry. Sweet potato and sugarcane register only 4 per cent of the total cropped area in the village records. That provides sufficient reason for us to ignore these minor crops while discussing the crop pattern of the selected plots. The total area allotted to

paddy for the selected plots comes to 71.0 per cent, while the area allotted to different pulses records 28.1 per cent. Other minor crops like green chillies and vegetables constitute only 0.9 per cent. During the Monsoon season the entire area was allotted paddy exclusively. We have seen in section 6.9 above that the intensity of land utilization during the Monsoon season was 100 per cent. So, paddy could cover 47.6 percent of the total cropped area during the Monsoon season only. During the winter and summer season, paddy was grown nearer the water sources and where water is scarcely available, pulses, chilly and vegetables were grown near the water sources during the winter season only.

Table 7.11

Percentage distribution of the area under different crops in respect of 58 paddy plots (1953-59)

<u>Crop</u>	<u>Area</u> <u>(acres)</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Paddy (Monsoon)	38.38	47.6
Paddy (Winter)	13.60	16.9
Paddy (Summer)	5.29	6.5
Black Gram	8.85	11.0
Green Gram	4.59	5.7
Horse Gram	3.29	4.1
Cow peas	5.87	7.3
Chilly	0.37	0.5
Vegetables	0.35	0.4
	<u>80.59</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Paddy could further cover 16.9 per cent and 6.5 per cent of the total cropped area during winter and summer seasons respectively. Whereas pulses registered 21.6 per cent during winter and 6.5 per cent during summer seasons. Chilly and vegetables were allotted only 0.9 percent of the total cropped area.

We shall supplement the P.S. Enquiry data with the data collected from the Village Records as presented in

Table 7.12 :

Percentage distribution of the area under seasonal crops
as shown in the village records in Paduthonse (1954-55 to 1957-58)

Crop	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58
Paddy (Monsoon)	48.17	47.89	47.43	46.69
Paddy (Winter)	22.55	23.37	23.15	23.71
Paddy (Summer)	14.45	14.38	14.23	13.78
Black Gram	1.93	00.95	1.90	2.76
Green Gram	0.96	0.93	0.95	2.76
Horse Gram	1.93	1.91	1.90	0.92
Cow Peas	1.93	1.91	1.90	1.84
Chilly	0.93	0.95	0.95	1.84
Vegetables	3.85	4.79	4.74	2.76
Sweet Potato	0.96	0.96	0.95	1.84
Sugar cane	2.31	1.91	1.90	2.20
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.0
(Actual Acres)	(519)	(522)	(527)	(514)

table 7.12. In doing so, our interest is two-fold : (i) Comparing the P.S. Enquiry data with the village record data which are available for 4 years from 1954-53 to 1957-58; and (ii) Observing the trend of change in the cropping pattern from 1954-53 to 1957-58. In the first place, general pattern observed in the P.S. Enquiry data was also seen in the village records data. But the percentage of area under pulses in respect of the former was less than that in respect of the latter. It is probably due to the fact that the increasing area coming under the pulses due to intensification of land utilization was not brought forth in the village records where figures are roughly estimated. In the second place, taking into consideration the fact that the intensity of land utilization has increased by 6.6 per cent during 1954-53 to 1957-58 it is possible to observe that the 'weight' of the pulses has registered an increase of 1.5 per cent by 1957-58, while that of paddy is brought down by about 1 per cent. This reveals the fact that the percentage of area under the pulses is increasing with the intensification of land utilization.

It is seen in table 7.13 that the crop pattern is influenced by the irrigation facilities available. Irrigation facilities are classified as (i) plots having share of water in Government ponds; (ii) plots having their own ponds or wells; and (iii) plots with no irrigation source. The figures reveal that 42.9 per cent of the plots with water supply from the Government ponds grow Monsoon paddy plus winter paddy plus summer paddy, while the corresponding figures for plots having their own ponds and with no irrigation facilities are 11.1 per cent and zero per cent respectively. This suggests that the water supply from own ponds (as described above, they are small

enough) is not sufficient to grow three paddy crops.

Table 7.13

Crop Pattern according to Irrigation facilities.

Crop Pattern	Plots with no irrigation source %	Having share of water in Govt.ponds %	Having their own ponds or wells %
Monsoon paddy plus winter paddy plus summer paddy	-	42.9	11.1
Monsoon paddy plus winter paddy or vegetables	-	17.8	22.2
Monsoon paddy plus winter pulses plus summer pulses	4.8	10.7	-
Monsoon paddy plus winter pulses only	71.4	21.5	55.5
Monsoon paddy only	23.8	7.1	11.1
Total	100.0 (21)	100.0 (28)	100.0 (9)

However, two paddy crops were grown on 22.2 per cent of the plots with own ponds while the corresponding figure for plots with Government ponds is 17.8 per cent. On plots without any water sources, only one paddy crop and another crop of pulses are taken in 71.4 per cent of the cases. The corresponding figures for plots with own ponds and those with Government ponds are 55.5 per cent showing a decreasing tendency to grow pulses as the water resources expand. The same tendency is observed, further, in case of those plots which took one paddy crop and none else, as plots with no irrigation source were 23.8 per cent while the corresponding figures for plots with own ponds and those with Government ponds were 11.1 per cent and 7.1 per cent respectively.

In short, adequacy or inadequacy of water supply has influenced the pattern of cropping. During

the Monsoon season, the whole cultivable area was allotted to paddy as the rain water supply was abundant. When the supply of water become scarce during the winter and summer seasons, the area with inadequate water supply was allotted to different pulses. Further trend in cropping pattern, we can believe, may be reflected in the higher 'weight' given to the pulses, assuming (a) the existing water supply remains the same; and (b) the intensification of land utilization continues to take place.

7.11 : Cultivation Practices : Paddy.

Paddy is grown on all the plots during the Monsoon season. During winter and summer it is grown only on such plots where water supply is abundant. The cultivation practices for paddy differ from season to season. It is because of two reasons: The first reason is that the climate changes from season to season demanding slightly varying practices. The second reason is that the type of seeds used are different for different seasons. In the following paragraphs, we shall summarise the different cultivation practices for paddy followed in different seasons.

(a) Broadcasting :

Seeds are broadcasted on a very fertile piece of land for preparing seedlings. In a majority of the cases seeds are preserved by the cultivator from the previous year's yield. The piece of land is ploughed eight times, four times horizontally and four times vertically. Then the whole piece of land is irrigated and levelled with a levelling bar. On contract basis, the whole operation of ploughing, watering and levelling costs about Rs.5/- per 0.10 acre of land. After preparing the ground, the seeds are broadcasted by hand. Usually those who take the contract of preparing the ground broadcast the seeds without any extra charges. On an average, 28 seers of seeds are required for 0.10 acre

of land.

For Monsoon crop, broadcasting is done by the last week of April or the first week of May. It requires five weeks to grow to a height of 1' to 1½'. In case of winter crop, broadcasting is done in the first week of October. By the end of October, the seedlings are of ½' to 1' height and are ready for transplantation. For summer crop, broadcasting is done in the first week of February and the seedlings are above ½' to ¾' by the end of the month, ready for transplantation. Watering is not required for preparation of ground for broadcasting in case of Monsoon and winter crops. While in case of summer crop, not only that watering is essentially required for preparing the ground, but the seedlings need at least two more waterings at an interval of 12 to 15 days.

(b) Ploughing

Ploughing is done with a wooden plough. Iron ploughs are not in use. Ploughing is done both vertically and horizontally. If ploughing is done once vertically and once horizontally, it is known as ploughing for two times. If it is done two time vertically and two time horizontally it is known as four times ploughing. Similarly there are instances of 'six times ploughing' and 'eight times ploughing'. The usual rate of ploughing on contract basis is Re.1 per 0.10 acre, or 'two times ploughing'. The rate increases proportionately according to the 'number of ploughings'. We show here below how many times the plots are ploughed for each crop.

	Two times Ploughing	Four times Ploughing	Six times Ploughing	Eight times Ploughing
Monsoon crop	6	17	27	8
Winter crop	4	9	8	-
Summer crop	1	3	9	-

(c) Levelling :

After ploughing, the ground is watered and levelled with a levelling bar. Meanwhile manure is also spread. In case of Monsoon crop, watering is not required while winter and summer crops require watering. For spreading the manure, watering and levelling the ground, wage rates on contract basis vary from season to season. In case of Monsoon crop, it is only 0.75Rs or equivalent rice while in case of winter and summer crops it is Rs.1.00 and Rs.1.25 or equivalent rice respectively for 0.10 acre of land.

(d) Transplantation :

After the ground is prepared the seedlings are transplanted. The distance between two rows is about one foot and it varies little from plot to plot. The distance between two seedlings in a row is $\frac{1}{2}$ ' to 1'. The wage rate on contract basis is 2 seers of rice per 0.10 acre. Usually, wages are not paid cash for transplantation. Only female labour is engaged.

(e) Weeding :

Weeding is done just by the time when the ear takes shape. In case of Monsoon crop, weeding is done by the third week of July in respect of winter and summer crops. It is done during the last week of November and the first week of April respectively. Only female labour is engaged for weeding operation on a time wage rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ seer of rice or its money equivalent for half a day's work from 8 a.m. to 12 noon.

(f) Watering :

Monsoon crop does not require watering because rain water supply is more than adequate. Winter crop does not require water while transplanting. Afterwards it needs water at least five times at an interval of 15 days each. Some cultivators with abundant water sources preferred giving water from 12 to 15 times at

an interval of 7 to 5 days respectively. In case of summer crop, watering is done daily during the first week of transplantation. During the second week, water is given on every alternate day. From third week onwards, until March end, water is given at an interval of 4 days each. From March end to the end of the first week of April, for about 8 to 10 days, a method known as 'drying up' method is followed. During that period, water is not given and the field is allowed to get dry. This drying up method is followed during the Mari festival at Kapu near Udipi. After that, water is given regularly at an interval of 5 days each until the crop is harvested. On contract basis, wage rates for watering are as follows: For winter crop, the wage rate for watering 0.10 acre of land is 2 seers of rice or its money equivalent. In case of summer crop, watering contracts are given for the whole season. The usual wage rate, in such cases, is 28 seers of rice for watering 0.10 acre of land for the whole season.

(g) Harvesting :

The Monsoon crop is reaped in the first week of October while winter and summer crops are harvested during the first week of February and the second week of May respectively. The wage rates on contract basis for harvesting operations are fixed. For all the harvesting operations combined, wages are paid at the rate of 4 seers of paddy (unhusked rice) for harvesting 0.10 acre of cropped land.

Pulses :

Cow peas, black gram, horse gram and green gram are the main pulses grown in the village. Among them, cow peas are important from the point of view of yield. Except green gram and some time black gram, usually pulses are grown during the winter season. Green gram and in some cases blackgram are grown during the summer

season. We briefly summarise below the cultivation practices for pulses in general.

Usually ploughing is done for four times, two times horizontally and two times vertically. Manure is spread after the second ploughing. Then the seeds are broadcasted by hand and the ground is levelled, with the levelling bar. For all the operations upto broadcasting the seeds and levelling the ground, the wage rate per 0.10 acre of land is Rs.2/-.

Weeding operation is not done in case of the pulses.

Water is given from 2 to 3 times according to the requirement. The wage rates are similar as they are in case of paddy.

For harvesting, time wages are paid. Usually female labour is engaged for harvesting and the wage rate varies from $\frac{1}{4}$ seer of rice to $\frac{1}{2}$ seer of rice, depending upon the demand for labour, for half a day's work from 7 a.m. to 11 a.m.

7.12 : Analysis of Input Data :

In table 7.14 data are given in respect of the average inputs per acre for paddy sown during the Monsoon season. Per acre inputs of male days, female days and bullock days are calculated for different operations like ploughing, manuring etc. Further, value of the manure input per acre and the value of the seedlings required per acre are also given. In tables 7.15 and 7.16 similar data are given for paddy grown during winter and summer seasons respectively. In table 7.17, the proportions of hired labour to total labour inputs are given for different operations separately for the Monsoon, Winter and Summer paddy crops. We describe below in brief the distribution of the male labour, female labour and bullock labour for different operations during the three seasons separately.

Table 7.14:

- Average Inputs Per Acre for Paddy (Monsoon) -

Operations	Area	Male-days	Female-days	Bullock-days	Payment to Labour		Dung	Other	Seedlings
					in cash	in kind	Manure	Manure	
					Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
Ploughing	38.38	6.6	-	12.9	10.86	0.26	-	-	-
Manuring	38.38	1.9	3.0	-	2.89	0.39	22.00	11.78	-
Levelling	38.38	2.7	-	6.1	1.38	0.29	-	-	-
Broadcasting & Transplantation	38.38	2.9	11.9	-	2.85	13.65	-	-	15.75
Weeding	38.38	0.2	5.8	-	0.49	2.21	-	-	-
Watering	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Harvesting	38.38	1.7	10.7	-	2.81	12.87	-	-	-
Total Average per acre	38.38	16.0	31.4	19.0	21.28	29.67	22.00	11.78	15.75

Table 7.15 :

- Average Inputs Per Acre for Paddy (Winter) -

Operations	Area	Male-days	Female-days	Bullock-days	Payment to Labour		Dung Manure ₹	Other Manure ₹	Seedlings ₹
					in cash ₹	in kind ₹			
Ploughing	13.60	8.4	-	19.3	14.81	-	-	-	-
Manuring	13.60	2.1	4.5	-	3.45	0.84	24.20	16.09	-
Levelling	13.60	5.8	-	9.3	1.87	-	-	-	-
Broadcasting & Transplantation	13.60	4.3	14.2	-	4.51	13.68	-	-	15.75
Weeding	13.60	-	2.4	-	1.50	0.75	-	-	-
Watering	13.60	24.2	-	-	9.62	17.51	-	-	-
Harvesting	13.60	0.9	12.4	-	0.75	11.57	-	-	-
Total average per acre	13.60	46.0	33.5	28.6	36.51	44.35	24.20	16.09	15.75

Table 7.1 6 :

- Average Inputs Per Acre Paddy (Summer) -

Operations	Area	Male-days	Female-days	Bullock-days	Payment to Labour In cash ₹	Labour In kind ₹	Dung Manure ₹	Other Manure ₹	Seedlings ₹
Ploughing	5.29	6.6	-	13.2	6.63	-	-	-	-
Manuring	5.29	1.3	5.1	-	2.26	0.94	27.20	32.30	-
Levelling	5.29	5.5	-	9.5	4.15	0.56	-	-	-
Broadcasting & Trans- plantation	5.29	2.6	11.2	-	2.83	9.64	-	-	18.25
Weeding	5.29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Watering	5.29	71.1	-	-	12.28	34.78	-	-	-
Harvesting	5.29	0.2	5.6	-	0.20	8.82	-	-	-
Total Average per a cre	5.29	87.3	25.9	22.7	28.35	55.74	27.20	32.30	18.25

Table 7.17 :

- Proportion of hired labour to total labour input for different operations -

Operations	Monsoon Crop			Winter Crop			Summer Crop		
	Man days	Woman days	Bullock days	Man days	Woman days	Bullock days	Man days	Woman days	Bullock days
Ploughing	43.7	-	17.2	46.2	-	34.5	54.2	-	28.5
Manuring	70.6	78.9	-	59.3	73.3	-	57.1	59.2	-
Levelling	25.0	-	12.9	15.5	-	7.9	48.2	-	31.5
Broadcasting & transplant- -ing.	74.3	94.1	-	78.9	96.2	-	73.5	89.8	-
Weeding	71.4	84.1	-	-	62.5	-	-	-	-
Watering	-	-	-	64.3	-	-	80.0	-	-
Harvesting	75.3	89.1	-	66.7	93.3	-	-	88.2	-
Total	52.0	89.3	15.8	55.8	91.9	26.2	75.7	83.2	29.6

Male Labour :

Per acre male labour input is 16.0 man-days in case of Monsoon crop and it is as high as 45.0 man-days and 87.3 man days in case of winter and summer crops respectively. In respect of the Monsoon crop, the highest number of man days i.e. 6.6 man days, are put in for ploughing operation and the input of labour days for other operations is less than 3.0 man days. A significant fact is that there is no labour input for watering operation for the Monsoon crop as it does not need any water. On the other hand, watering operation is very important for winter and summer crops as the per acre labour input is 21.2 man days and 71.1 mandays respectively. Except for harvesting operation for all other operations per acre male labour input for winter and summer crops is definitely higher than that for Monsoon crop.

Female Labour :

Female labour is used for manuring, broadcasting and transplantation, weeding and harvesting operations. Per acre female labour input is 31.4 woman days for Monsoon crop and 25.9 woman days for summer crop. The female labour input is highest for the operations of broadcasting and transplantation in case of all the three crops. It is 11.9 woman days in respect of Monsoon crop, 14.2 and 11.2 woman days for winter and summer crops respectively. Next in importance comes the input of female labour for harvesting operation. For Monsoon crop it is 10.7 woman days per acre for winter and summer crops, it is 12.4 and 9.6 woman days respectively. Weeding is done for Monsoon and winter crops only. Per acre female labour input is 5.8 woman days for Monsoon crop while for winter crop it is only 2.4 woman days. For spreading the manure, the woman days used are 3.0 in respect of Monsoon crop while the

corresponding figures for winter and summer crops are 4.5 and 5.1 respectively.

Bullock Labour :

Bullock labour is used for ploughing and levelling operations only. The total bullock labour input per acre is 19.0 bullock days for Monsoon crop and the corresponding figures for winter and summer crops are 28.8 and 22.7 bullock days respectively. For ploughing operation, the bullock labour input is 12.9 bullock days for Monsoon crop, 19.3 bullock days for winter crop and 13.2 bullock days for summer crop. While the bullock labour input per acre for levelling operation is 6.1 bullock days for Monsoon crop and the corresponding figures for winter and summer crops are 9.3 and 9.5 bullock days respectively.

Materials :

Materials used are (i) manures, classified as dung manure and other manure, and (ii) the seedlings. The value of the seedlings includes the value of the seeds and the cultivation costs of the seedlings. Per acre input of the dung manure is valued at Rs.22/ for monsoon crop and the corresponding figures for winter and summer crops are Rs.24.20 and Rs.27.20 respectively. In case of other manures, the value of the quantity put in per acre is Rs.11.78 for monsoon crop, Rs.16.09 for winter crop and Rs.32.30 for the summer crop. The value of the seedlings used per acre varies from Rs.15.75 in case of Monsoon and winter crops to Rs.18.25 in case of summer crop.

Wage Payments :

It is necessary for each farmer to engage hired labour for certain operations like broadcasting, transplanting, weeding and harvesting. To the hired labour, payment is paid either in cash or in kind. The total cash payment to the labour hired for all

the operations is Rs.21.28 for Monsoon crop and Rs.26.51 for winter and summer crops respectively. The corresponding figures for kind payments are Rs.23.67, Rs.44.35 and Rs.53.74 for Monsoon, winter and summer crops respectively. For ploughing, manuring and levelling operations, cash payment is predominant while for broadcasting, transplantation, weeding, watering and harvesting operations, kind payment is in practice. For the first three operations, namely, ploughing, manuring and levelling, the payment in cash per acre is Rs.15.13 while that in kind is Rs.0.94 for the Monsoon crop; and the corresponding figures for winter and summer crops are Rs.20.13 and Rs.13.04 in cash and Rs.0.84 and Rs.1.50 in kind respectively. For the rest of the operations where payment in kind is predominant, per acre cash payment and kind payments for Monsoon crop are Rs.6.15 and Rs.28.73 respectively while the corresponding figures for winter and summer crops are Rs.16.38 and Rs.15.31 as cash payment and Rs.43.51 and Rs.54.24 as kind payment respectively.

7.13 : Dispersion of Bullock Labour Inputs :

In table 7.1 8 , dispersion estimates for bullock labour inputs are given for the two operations, viz., ploughing and levelling, where only the bullock labour is used. Per acre bullock labour input is worked out for different size groups of the plots for each operation.

Ploughing :

Per acre bullock labour input is 12.9 bullock days for Monsoon paddy and 20.6 and 13.2 bullock days for winter and summer crops as we have already observed in the previous section. Per acre bullock labour input is highest for 0.26 - 0.50 size group during all the seasons. In case of Monsoon paddy,

Table 7.18

- Dispersion Estimates (Bullock Labour Inputs) -

Operation	Size of the Plots (Acres)	Monsoon Paddy		Winter Paddy		Summer Paddy	
		Area Sown (Acres)	Bullock Labour Input per Acre	Area Sown (Acres)	Bullock Labour Input per Acre	Area Sown (Acres)	Bullock Labour Input per Acre
Ploughing	Upto 0.25 -	2.36	15.7	0.54	29.6	0.34	11.7
	0.26 -0.50 -	5.52	19.9	3.51	24.5	3.65	14.2
	0.51 -1 -	13.15	11.9	3.75	17.6	-	-
	1.1 -2 -	5.38	5.2	-	-	1.30	10.7
	Above 2.1 -	11.97	14.4	5.80	19.3	-	-
	<u>Total</u> -	38.38	12.9	13.60	20.6	5.29	13.2
Levelling	Upto 0.25 -	2.36	8.1	0.54	13.0	0.34	11.8
	0.26- 0.50 -	5.52	9.6	3.51	11.1	3.65	9.3
	0.51- 1 -	13.15	4.9	3.75	10.7	-	-
	1.1 - 2 -	5.38	4.5	-	-	-	-
	Above 2.1 -	11.97	6.0	5.80	6.9	-	-
	<u>Total</u> -	38.38	6.1	13.60	9.3	3.99	9.5

per acre bullock labour input varied from 5.2 bullock days to 19.9 bullock days for different size groups of the plots. While the corresponding variation figures for winter and summer crops are 17.6 bullock days to 29.6 bullock days, and 10.7 bullock days to 14.2 bullock days respectively.

Levelling :

Levelling is another operation where bullock labour is used. Per acre bullock labour input is 6.1 bullock days for Monsoon paddy and 9.3 and 9.5 bullock days for winter and summer crops respectively as we have observed in the previous section. In case of the Monsoon paddy, highest number of bullock days are used by 0.25 - 0.50 size group of the plots while in case of the winter and summer paddies, highest number of bullock days are used by 'upto 0.25' size group of the plots. The variations of bullock labour input per acre for different size groups is 4.9 bullock days for Monsoon paddy, 6.9 bullock days to 13.0 bullock days for Winter paddy and 9.3 bullock days to 13.2 bullock days for Summer paddy. It is, however, feared that the number of the plots represented in each size group is too small to reflect any special cause for the variations mentioned above.

7.14: Analysis of Output Data: Paddy :

In table 7.19 data are given in respect of per acre out of paddy for different size groups of the plots. Average per acre output of paddy varies from 15.2 maunds for Monsoon crop to 12.6 maunds and 18.3 maunds for Winter and Summer crops respectively. Highest per acre output is recorded by the plots above 2.1 acres during Monsoon (19.6 maunds per acre) and Winter (18.1 maunds per acre) seasons. In case of Summer season, highest per acre output (19.7 maunds)

Table 7.19 :

- Average Per Acre Output for Paddy -

Size of Group (Acres)	Monsoon Paddy			Winter Paddy			Summer Paddy			Paddy (total)		
	Area Sown (Acres)	Average per acre Output		Area Sown (Acres)	Average per acre Output		Area Sown Acres	Average per acre output		Area Sown	Average per acre output	
		Paddy (Mts)	Straw No. of bundles		Paddy (Mts)	Straw No. of Bundles		Paddy Mts	Straw bundles		Paddy Mts	Straw Bdls.
Upto 0.25	2.36	14.4	970	0.54	5.5	550	0.34	14.7	1130	3.24	13.0	930
0.26- 0.50	5.52	11.9	870	3.51	6.3	570	3.65	19.7	1320	12.68	12.6	910
0.51- 1	13.15	12.1	930	3.75	10.9	720	-	-	-	16.90	11.8	920
1.1 - 2	5.38	16.9	820	-	-	-	1.30	15.4	1540	6.68	16.6	960
Above 2.1	11.97	19.6	1000	5.80	18.1	1030	-	-	-	17.77	19.1	1010
Total	38.38	15.2	930	13.60	12.6	810	5.29	18.3	1360	57.27	14.9	940

is recorded by plots coming under 0.26 to 0.50 acre size group.

Per acre output of paddy straw is 930 bundles for Monsoon paddy, 810 bundles for Winter paddy and 1360 bundles for Summer paddy. Highest per acre output of straw, in case of Monsoon paddy, is 1000 bundles and it occurs in case of plots above 2.1 acres in size. The corresponding figures for Winter and Summer paddies are 1030 and 1540 occurring in above 2.1 acres size group and 1.1 to 2.0 acres size group respectively.

- COCONUT PLOTS -

7.15 : Age-wise distribution of the Coconut Trees.

Table 7.20

Type of Soil	No. of trees per acre		Ratio of non-fielding trees to fielding trees
	Fielding trees	Non-fielding trees.	
River bed clay	98	33	33.6
Pure sand	49	51	104.1
Blackish sand	68	42	61.7
Reddish sand	61	28	45.9
Total	88	40	45.4

In table 7.20 data are given in respect of per acre distribution of the yielding and non-yielding trees according to colour of the soil for the sample plots. On river bed clay, the highest number of yielding trees per acre, i.e. 98 per acre, were reported while on coastal sand the corresponding number was only 49. In case of blackish sand the reported number of yielding trees was 68 and in case of reddish sand, the corresponding figure was 61. On an average, there were 88 yielding trees per acre for the sample coconut plots.

On the other hand, the number of non-yielding trees per acre was only 33 in case of river bed clay,

the ratio of non-yielding trees to yielding trees being 33.6 per cent. However, on coastal sand the non-yielding trees figured 104.1 per cent of the yielding trees. The corresponding ratios for blackish sand and reddish sand are 61.7 per cent and 45.9 per cent respectively. Hence it is revealed that the number of new trees planted in recent years on plots with pure sand and blackish sand is larger than the corresponding number for river bed clay and reddish sand.

In table 7.21 figures are given in respect of the distribution of the yielding trees according to age groups. The figures reveal that 74.5 per cent of the

Table 7.21

Distribution of the yielding trees according to age groups:

Age groups	No. of yielding trees.	Percentage distribution
Upto 15 years	488	12.5
16-25 years	485	13.0
26-40 years	1379	37.0
Above 41 years	1336	37.5
Total	3725	100.0

trees are above 26 years old while only 25.5 per cent upto 25 years old. The agewise distribution of the trees is important because it is believed that the yield of the coconut trees varies according to the age. According to the local belief, the high yielding period of the coconut trees is between 15 to 40 years. In that group 50 per cent of the trees are reported. Here our purpose may be to see whether in the long run, any change in the proportions of yielding trees in the high yielding age group to those in the low yielding age group will influence the average yield per acre.

7.16 Cultivation Practices :

Coconut plantation requires mainly four operations during an agricultural year. The first operation, digging and preparation of ring, is carried on some time during September to December. There are some exceptional cases. Our enquiry reveals that about 16 per cent of the cases carried on the above operation during January to March. The second operation is that of transporting the manure and spreading it on the rings. It immediately follows the first operation. The third is irrigation. Coconut requires watering from January to May. The fourth is plucking the nuts which is done almost every month.

The rings are of three types. First, it is entirely like abasiu and found on coastal sand. Second a typical ring type circumferenced by earthen embankment mainly seen on black sand and red sand. The third is a sort of raised bed, round in shape, observed in the river bed clay. These types are determined by the physical conditions existing on different soil conditions. Only male labour is engaged for preparing the rings. The wage rates vary for different types of rings. Even for the same type of ring, the wage rate may vary from garden to garden depending upon physical conditions present. Normally, the work is done on contract basis. If it is on contract basis, wage rates are Re.1 for preparing 12 basins on coastal sand, or 20 rings on black sand or red sand, or 8 raised beds and river bed clay. If it is on daily wages, the rate is Rs.1.50 per day.

Manure is transported to the spot on head loads and is spread in rings. This operation, in case of basias and rings, follows immediately after the preparation of the rings while for the raised beds, it is done along with the preparation of the rings.

The rates, which are many a time mixed up with the contract rates for preparation of the rings, vary widely. For the raised beds in the river bed clay, it is as high as Re.1 for 8 beds. That of course includes the cost of bringing the manure to the spot on boats. For rings and basins, the contract rates of spreading the manure are Re.1 for 15 rings and 12 basins respectively.

Watering of the coconut trees is an important operation. Female labour is engaged for the work. It is always done on contract basis. For watering 100 trees every alternate day one pitcherful of water each for five months from January to May, the contract rate varies from Rs.12 to Rs.20. Some time special watering is also given during summer months for which separate contract is given.

Plucking the nuts is done by male labour on contract basis. The wage rate is fixed and it is in terms of nuts. For plucking 100 nuts, three nuts are paid as wages. Apart from that, a green coconut is given as a gift.

7.17: Analysis of Input Data : Coconut :

Table 7.22 gives data about average male labour input, female labour input, input of materials and payment to hired labour for different operations in different soil conditions for the selected coconut plots. It is observed that the labour and material inputs for given operation vary for different soil conditions. For example, for the operation of digging and preparation of the ring, per acre input of man-days are 26.6 in case of river bed clay, 21.6 for coastal sand, 10.4 and 16.3 for blackish sand and reddish sand respectively. The rate of male labour input varies because the intensity of digging and type of ring prepared varies for different soil condition. Hence the importance of analysing the input data for coconut

Table 7.22

- Average Input Per Acre for Coconut -

Type of Soil	Operations	Area acres	Man days	Woman days	Payment to lab-	Manure Input
					OUR	Rs
Riverbed Clay	Digging and preparation of ring	16.34	36.6	-	59.73	-
	Spreading manure	16.34	15.2	8.1	29.86	32.98
	Watering	16.34	-	19.3	18.05	-
	Plucking	16.34	14.8	-	17.01	-
	<u>Total</u>	16.34	66.3	27.4	124.65	32.98
Coastal Sand	Digging and preparation of ring	6.65	21.6	0.8	23.30	-
	Spreading manure	6.65	4.1	4.2	9.77	52.17
	Watering	6.65	3.6	108.7	86.76	-
	Plucking	6.65	12.2	-	14.28	-
	<u>Total</u>	6.65	41.5	113.7	134.11	52.17
Blackish Sand	Digging and preparation of ring	15.53	10.4	-	15.26	-
	Spreading manure	15.53	11.6	8.5	23.11	33.29
	Watering	15.53	-	55.3	55.12	-
	Plucking	15.53	7.9	-	9.78	-
	<u>Total</u>	15.53	29.9	63.8	103.27	33.29
Reddish Sand	Digging and preparation of ring	11.10	16.3	-	23.33	-
	Spreading manure	11.10	2.1	0.4	2.00	32.43
	Watering	11.10	3.6	17.3	16.31	-
	Plucking	11.10	17.0	-	19.54	-
	<u>Total</u>	11.10	39.0	17.7	61.18	32.43
Total	Digging and preparation of ring	49.62	21.8	0.1	32.78	-
	Spreading manure	49.62	9.6	6.0	18.83	35.53
	Watering	49.62	1.3	42.1	37.84	-
	Plucking	49.62	13.5	-	14.95	-
	<u>Total</u>	49.62	46.2	48.2	104.39	35.53

plots according to soil conditions. In the paragraphs below, the data on male labour input, female labour input, material input and wage payments are analysed.

Male Labour :

Male labour is used for digging and preparation of rings, spreading manure and plucking operations. The rate of input varies for different soil conditions. Per acre male labour input is 66.3 man days for river bed clay, 41.5 man days for coastal sand and 29.0 and 29.0 man days for blackish sand and reddish sand respectively. On an average, per acre male labour input is 45.2 man days for the sample coconut plots. Wide variations in male labour input exist for different soil conditions because the labour requirement for the operations like digging and preparation of ring and spreading manure varies for different soil conditions. Labour requirement for plucking operation is determined by the size of the yield which also varies for different soil conditions.

Female Labour :

Female labour is mainly used for watering operation. Sometimes, it is also used for spreading the manure. Very rarely it is used for digging and preparation of ring. Female labour input also varies for different soil conditions. Per acre labour input for river bed clay is 27.4 woman-days, 113.7 woman days for coastal sand, 63.8 woman days for blackish sand and 17.7 days for reddish sand. On an average, per acre female labour input for selected coconut plots is 48.2 woman days. The wide variations of female labour input for different soil conditions exist mainly because of the differing labour requirement of female labour for watering operation for different soil conditions. Per acre labour requirement for watering operation is 108.7 woman-days for coastal sand while the corresponding figure for

reddish sand is only 17.3 woman-days. River bed clay does not require much watering and the per acre labour input in that case is 19.3 woman-days while blackish sand requires 55.3 woman-days for the same operation. In case of coastal sand, high labour requirement for watering operation may be due to two reasons : (a) water depths are more intense and fetching the water from the ponds requires more time; and (b) coastal sand requires special watering on an intensive scale during the summer months. On the other hand, low labour requirement for reddish sand is due to installing the electric pump sets. Of the total 7.07 acres of the reddish sand land, 5.37 acres are irrigated by installing the electric pump sets.

Material Input :

The only material used is manure of different types. Per acre value of the manure input varies for different soil conditions. It varies from Rs. 32.43 in case of reddish sand, Rs. 52.17 for coastal sand. On an average, per acre manure input for sample coconut plots comes to Rs. 35.53.

Wage Payment :

Per acre total wages paid for hired labour for all the operations varies from Rs. 61.18 in case of reddish sand to Rs. 134.11 for coastal sand. The divergences are mainly due to variations in wage payments for a given operation for different soil conditions. For example, labour charges for digging and ring preparation are the highest (Rs. 59.73) for river bed clay and the lowest (Rs. 15.26) for blackish sand. Per acre wages paid for hired labour for spreading the manure varies from Rs. 2.00 in case of reddish sand to Rs. 29.86 in case of river bed clay. For watering, the labour cost is Rs. 86.76 for coastal sand while it is only Rs. 16.21 in case of reddish sand. For plucking per acre wage payment

varies according to per acre yield as the operation is undertaken on contract basis.

7.18: Analysis of Manure Input for Coconut.

Table 7.23

Percentage distribution of manures used on different soils for sample coconut plots.

Type of Manures	Description of Soil				Total %
	River bed clay %	Coastal sand %	Blackish sand %	Reddish sand %	
Cow dung	-	-	16.4	20.8	9.2
Ash	8.3	7.0	4.3	30.3	11.3
Fish meal	14.8	57.6	22.6	-	22.5
Alluvium	64.0	-	56.7	2.8	36.7
Lime	9.3	-	-	5.3	3.9
Salt	-	21.6	-	20.3	8.4
Green manure	3.6	-	-	11.1	3.3
Groundnut cakes	-	13.8	-	9.4	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(Value in Rs.)	(539)	(317)	(517)	(360)	(1763)

Table 7.23 gives the percentage distribution of the types of manures used on different soils for sample coconut plots. Manures used are of eight types as mentioned in the table. Figures in the table reveal that different soil conditions require varying proportions of a particular type of manure. Riverbed clay requires 8.3 per cent of ash, 14.8 per cent of fish meal, 64 per cent of alluvium, 9.3 per cent of lime and only 3.6 per cent of green manure, while cowdung manure, salt and groundnut cake are not used at all. On coastal sand, 7.0 per cent of ash, 57.6 per cent of fish meal, 21.6 per cent of salt and 13.8 per cent of ground nut cake are used. It is important to note that cowdung, alluvium, lime

and green manure are not used on coastal sand. On blackish sand, 16.4 per cent of cowdung, 4.3 per cent of ash, 22.6 per cent of fish meal and 53.7 per cent of alluvium are used while lime, salt, green manure and ground nut cake are not used. Lastly, on reddish sand, 20.8 per cent of cowdung, 30.3 per cent of ash, 2.8 per cent of alluvium, 5.3 per cent of lime, 20.3 per cent of salt, 11.1 per cent of green manure and 9.4 per cent of groundnut cakes are used. Fish meal is not used on reddish sand. On an average, 9.2 per cent of cowdung, 11.3 per cent of ash, 22.5 per cent of fish meal, 33.7 per cent of alluvium, 3.9 per cent of lime, 8.4 per cent of salt, 3.3 per cent of green manure, and 4.7 per cent of ground nut cakes are used for the sample coconut plots.

7.19: Analysis of Output Data : Coconuts

Table 7.24

Average per acre output for coconut plots

Type of soil	Size group (acres)	Average per acre output		Average per tree output	
		Area in acres	No. of nuts	No. of trees	No. of nuts
Riverbed clay	Upto 1	1.91	3764	292	37.6
	Above 1.1	14.43	3075	1407	31.5
	Total	16.34	3388	1699	32.6
Coastal Sand	Upto 1	2.34	1857	133	33.4
	Above 1.1	4.31	1566	170	39.7
	Total	6.65	16702	300	37.0
Blackish sand	Upto 1	8.42	1125	578	16.4
	Above 1.1	7.11	1561	472	23.5
	Total	15.53	1319	1050	19.5
Reddish sand	Upto 1	4.03	1214	246	19.9
	Above 1.1	7.07	3709	430	60.9
	Total	11.10	2803	676	46.0
Total	Upto 1	16.70	1779	1246	23.8
	Above 1.1	32.92	2684	2479	35.6
	Total	49.62	2333	3725	30.0

In table 7.24 we give figures in respect of per tree coconut yield on different soil conditions. On river bed clay, per acre output is 3764 nuts and 3075 nuts for upto 1 acre and above 1.1 acre size groups respectively. The corresponding figures for per tree output is 37.6 nuts and 31.5 nuts respectively. On coastal sand, per acre output is 1857 nuts for plots below 1 acre in size and 1566 nuts for plots which are above 1.1 acre in size. Per tree output for those size groups are 33.4 nuts and 39.7 nuts respectively. On blackish sand, per acre output varies from 1125 nuts in case of plots below 1 acre in size to 1561 nuts for plots above 1.1 acre, while per tree output figures vary from 16.4 nuts to 23.5 nuts respectively for the respective size groups. On reddish sand per acre output is 1214 nuts for plots below 1 acre and as high as 3702 nuts for plots above 1.1 acre. The corresponding figures for per tree output are 19.9 nuts and 60.9 nuts respectively. Of the total 7.07 acres of reddish sand land above 1.1 acre in size, 5.37 acres are irrigated by installing the electric pump sets. Hence the increase in yield for that size group. On an average, per acre output for plots below 1 acre in size is 1779 nuts and the corresponding figure for plots above 1.1 acre in size is 2684 nuts. Per acre output, in that case, varies from 23.8 nuts for plots below 1 acre to 35.6 nuts for plots above 1.1 acre. It may be, therefore, concluded that per acre output is determined by (i) the number of yielding trees per acre on a given soil condition; (ii) size of the plot, and (iii) irrigation through installing the electric pump sets.

7.20 : Employment in Agriculture :

In this section, we shall try to estimate the employment potentiality in the agricultural sector.

Our estimates are based on the data collected at the plotwise survey enquiry. The P.S. Enquiry reveals that, in case of paddy plots, per acre labour inputs is 54.1 man-days and 62.7 woman-days. When these figures are inflated for 306.89 acres of paddy land of the village, the employment potentiality for paddy cultivation is worked out at 16509 man-days and 19249 woman-days. In the same way, per acre human labour input is 112.3 man-days and 62.7 woman-days for the sample coconut plots. When these figures are inflated for 494.27 acres of coconut groves in the village, the employment potentiality for paddy cultivation is estimated at 55476 man-days and 23317 woman-days. Hence the total employment potentiality for village agricultural sector is estimated at 72085 man-days and 42566 woman-days.

In table 7.25 we give the monthwise percentage distribution of the human labour inputs for sample paddy plots and coconut plots. In case of the paddy plots, June, November, January and February are the months when there is a greater demand for the man labour because ploughing and levelling operations, where exclusively man labour is used, are done during those months. In the month of February, summer paddy is intensively watered by male labour. Hence 78.4 per cent of the total man days are used during these four months only. The rest of the man-days are used during the months of April, May, August, October, December and March. In the months of July and September male labour is not used. In case of female labour, June, October, November and January are the months when the demand for labour is more. Female labour is mainly required for transplantation and harvesting operation. For spreading the manure and weeding operations also female labour is used exclusively. The months of June, October, November and January are the months when the female

Table 7.25

- Monthwise Distribution of the Human Labour Inputs -

	<u>PADDY PLOTS</u>			<u>COCONUT PLOTS</u>		
	Man-days %	Woman-days %	Total %	Man-days %	Woman-days %	Total %
April -	6.8	3.5	5.1	11.3	25.2	15.4
May -	6.5	1.6	3.9	15.2	23.0	19.0
June -	22.7	29.0	26.1	11.5	-	8.1
July -	-	2.7	1.3	9.1	-	6.4
August -	0.3	6.6	3.7	8.6	-	6.1
September	-	-	-	3.4	5.6	4.1
October -	2.3	10.2	6.5	5.8	5.2	5.6
November -	23.4	22.0	22.7	11.1	-	7.8
December -	4.4	3.4	3.9	1.3	-	0.9
January -	13.1	14.4	13.8	7.4	12.0	8.7
February -	19.2	4.6	11.4	7.3	11.7	8.6
March -	1.3	2.2	1.6	8.0	12.3	9.3
Total	100.0 (2078)	100.0 (2408)	100.0 (4486)	100.0 (5573)	100.0 (2343)	100.0 (7916)

labour is required for transplantation and harvesting operations. It is seen from the table that 74.6 percent of the woman-days are used during those four months. The rest of the woman-days are used in the months of April, May, July, August, December, February and March. Female labour is not used during the month of September.

In case of the coconut plots, male labour is used through out the year. However, in the months of April, May, June and November more than 10 percent of the man-days are used because these are the months when the operations of digging and preparation of ring are undertaken where exclusively male labour is required. Percentages of man-days used for the months of January, February, March, July and August vary from 7.3 percent to 9.1 per cent. September, October and December are the months when male labour is less in demand. It varies from 1.3 per cent to 5.8 per cent. As regards the female labour, it is used during the months of January, February, March, April, May, September and October. Female labour is used for watering operation. Sometimes it is also used for mixing the manure in the coconut beds. That is the reason why female labour is more used during the hot months from January to May. 89.2 per cent of the woman-days are used during those five months.

In table 7.2 6 we observe the data on monthwise distribution of the proportions of the hired labour to total labour inputs in the sample plots. The figures reveal that in case of the paddy fields the proportion of the male labour hired to total male labour is worked out at 50 per cent. while the corresponding figure for female labour is 85 per cent. As regards the coconut plots, the proportion of the male labour hired to total male labour is 99.1 per cent while the corresponding figure for female labour is 99.2 per cent. These

Table 7.26

Monthwise distribution of the Proportions
of the hired labour to Family Labour Inputs
in the Sample Plots.

<u>Month</u>	<u>Paddy Plots</u>		<u>Coconut Plots</u>	
	Male Labour %	Female Labour %	Male Labour %	Female Labour%
April -	70.2	73.6	99.0	100.0
May -	88.2	89.4	99.5	100.0
June -	45.3	89.1	93.4	-
July -	-	73.4	99.2	-
August -	83.3	85.5	98.9	-
September -	-	-	100.0	100.0
October -	78.7	97.5	99.7	90.0
November -	39.6	82.0	100.0	-
December -	58.6	80.2	100.0	-
January -	54.2	77.8	98.0	100.0
February -	41.7	86.5	100.0	100.0
March -	46.1	81.2	97.7	97.9
Total -	50.0	85.0	99.1	99.2

percentages suggest that proportion of the family labour engaged in paddy cultivation is definitely more than that engaged in coconut cultivation. The table also reveals the monthwise distribution of the proportions of the hired labour to the total labour. In case of paddy plots, the proportions vary from 39.6 per cent in the month of November to 88.2 per cent in the month of May. These proportions seem to vary mainly according to the demand for and the supply of labour at a given point of time. They also seem to vary according to the operations for which labour is required. If the operation is a strenuous one, the family prefers to engage outside labour. In case of the female labour, the proportions of the hired labour to total labour vary from 73.4 in the month of June to 97.5 in the month of October. About the coconut plots, monthwise variations of the proportions of the hired labour to total labour are very little. In case of the male labour, the proportions vary from 97.7 in the month of March to 100 per cent in the months of September, November and December. In case of the female labour, the corresponding proportions are 100 per cent during the months of January, February, April, May and September. During March and October the corresponding figures are 97.9 per cent and 90 per cent respectively.

CHAPTER VIII

Production, Sale and Purchase of Agricultural Commodities.

Production of agricultural commodities like cereals, pulses, coconuts may change as an effect of (a) bringing more area under a particular crop; and/or (b) by resorting to better irrigation facilities and use of fertilisers. Hence the importance of production data for agricultural commodities. If the production is in excess of the self-requirements of the producer units, then naturally it is sold out. If it is in short of the requirements, it is purchased from other producer units. The purpose of this chapter is to study these three aspects of production and sale-purchase transaction of the agricultural commodities by producer and consumer units in the village. For the analysis of the data the units are broadly divided as cultivators and non-cultivators and the cultivator families are further divided according to the size of cultivated holding. Apart from the agricultural commodities like coconut, paddy and pulses other productions like milk, fodder and manure are also covered.

8.1: Coconut Production -

The total area under coconut as reported in the General Family Enquiry was 420.32 acres. Total production of coconuts was 663,300 nuts during the previous year of the enquiry. Per acre production of coconuts is worked out as 1578 nuts. (Table 8.1). According to the plotwise survey, per acre production of coconuts was reported as 2339 nuts. Plotwise survey information further revealed that the coconut yield was mainly influenced by the colour of the soil, irrigation facilities and input of manures and not by the size of the cultivated holding. Per acre production of coconuts according to size of cultivated holdings as

Table 2.1

- AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION -

Size of cultivated holdings (Acres)	Area under Coconut	Production of Coconuts No.	Production of Coconuts per acre No.	Area under Paddy and Pulses (Acres)	Production of Paddy & Pulses			Production of Paddy & Pulses per Acre (Kis)
					Paddy (Mds)	Pulses (Mds)	Total (Mds)	
.1 - .25	13.20	28300	2144	2.15	11	-	11	5.1
.26 - .50	43.62	62500	1433	0.28	2	-	2	7.1
.51 - 1.0	59.71	87400	1464	19.51	156	13	169	8.7
1.1 - 2.0	82.08	133900	1631	28.29	362	65	427	15.1
2.1 - 3.0	52.49	69700	1328	50.47	400	9	409	8.1
3.1 - 5.0	82.10	142600	1737	105.42	747	47	794	7.5
5.1 - 7.50	30.85	44900	1455	112.68	744	102	846	7.5
7.51- 10.0	5.79	5100	881	12.88	107	1	108	8.4
10.1 - 15.0	34.92	48900	1400	48.64	321	118	439	9.0
15.1 & above	15.55	40000	2571	10.47	208	9	217	20.7
<u>Total</u>	420.32	668300	1578	390.79	3058	364	3422	8.8

presented in table 8.1 confirms that size of holding is not an important factor influencing the yield. Area under coconut is well distributed among all the categories of the cultivators as against the area under paddy and pulses which is concentrated in the size groups of 3.1 acres to 7.50 acres.

8.2: Sale of Coconuts :

There were 9 coconuts dealers in the village who mainly purchased the surplus from the producer units. There were instances of non-cultivator consumers purchasing their requirements of coconuts directly from the producers, but the general family enquiry did not give any such cases. However, Family Budget Enquiry revealed that most of the non-cultivators purchased coconuts from the producers. The fact that village grocers did not stock coconuts for retail sale confirms this practice. Family Budget Enquiry revealed that per family expenditure on coconut was, on an average, Rs. 19.48 per annum. On the basis of this figure, we can estimate the retail sale of coconuts by the producers as 74820 nuts per year, taking into account the normal retail price per coconut as 25 nPs.

Table 8.2 gives the data about the sale of coconuts by the producers to the wholesale dealers. It is revealed that 67.29 per cent of the total production is sold to the wholesale dealers. The bigger cultivators, especially those who cultivate more than 2 acres of land, report higher percentages of sales to productions than the smaller cultivators. The wholesale dealers reported exporting the coconuts to distant places in and outside the district.

8.3 : Production of Paddy and Pulses :

We did not get separate figures for area under paddy and different pulses from the General Family Enquiry. Combined figures for area under paddy and

Table 8.2
- SALE OF COCONUTS -

Size of Cultivated holding (Acres)	Production of Coconuts No.	Sale of Coconuts No.	Percentage of Sale to Production	Sale Value Rs
.1 - .25	28300	15300	55.12	3110
.26- .50	62500	24900	39.84	4930
.51- 1.0	87400	47500	54.34	9380
1.1-2.0	133900	83000	61.98	13350
2.1-3.0	69700	52400	75.17	10500
3.1-5.0	142600	109400	76.71	21500
5.1-7.50	41900	28600	68.69	5700
7.51-10.0	5100	38500	68.62	6690
10.1-15.0	48900	43100	88.13	8460
15.1-above	40000	38400	96.00	7680
<u>Total</u>	663300	446400	67.29	88300

pulses could be derived at . We could get, however, separate production figures for paddy and pulses in standard maunds. The total area under paddy and pulses was 390.79 acres as reported by the General Family Enquiry and the same enquiry put the production figures of paddy and pulse as 3058 maunds and 364 maunds respectively for the previous year of the survey. Per acre production of the paddy and pulses was 8.8 maunds which did not vary much except for those holdings of 1.1 to 2.0 acres and above 15.1 acres. In the case of the former, per acre production was 15.1 maunds, because a major portion of the production included cow-peas which found a good harvest during the previous year of the survey. In the case of the latter, yield of paddy from Winter and Summer crops was extra-ordinarily good as irrigation was done, in majority of the cases, by electric pumps. Per acre production was reported as 20.7 maunds which is about two and half times more than the average. Input of manure in large quantities might have also resulted in the high yield.

According to plotwise survey information, per acre production of paddy was estimated at 14.9 maunds. Per acre production of paddy varied from season to season. For the Monsoon crop, it was 15.2 maunds per acre while for the Winter and the Summer crops, the corresponding figures were 12.6 maunds and 18.3 maunds respectively. On the basis of area under paddy during different seasons total paddy production was estimated at 6783 maunds. Total production of pulses was accounted for 421 maunds calculated on the basis of area under different pulses and the respective per acre production figures. The large difference in the production of paddy estimated on the basis of the plotwise data and that

reported in the General Family Enquiry is due to bad Monsoon harvest in 1957 for which the General Family Enquiry was conducted.

8.4 : Sale of Paddy and Pulses :

For a population of 5450, the production of 3058 maunds of Paddy was roughly short by 9500 maunds of rice which was imported by three big grocers and one wholesale paddy dealer in the village. Usually the cultivators did not part with the Paddy produced by them. The rent of the land though fixed in terms of Paddy was actually paid in cash equal to the market value of the Paddy decided by the taluka office. Except in case of big cultivators, labourers were also paid in cash. However, on the part of those cultivators who produced paddy in excess to their consumption requirements, sale of paddy was reported on a very small scale. Of the total production of paddy, only 176 maunds at the value of Rs.3490 were sold to the individual consumers in the village. On the other hand, of the total production of ~~364~~ maunds of production, 111 maunds were sold to the village grocers at the value of Rs.1740.

8.5 : Dung Manure :

Excluding the young stocks, the total number of livestock in the village was 453. Calves and buffalo calves together numbered 280. The negligible quantity of manure produced by the youngstock was usually included with that produced by the milch cattle. Hence we have excluded the young stock while calculating per cattle manure production. As it is usually practised in interior Mysore villages manure was never carried in bullock carts in this village. Normally, it was carried on head loads in the baskets. Wherever boat transport facilities were available, it was carried on boat. The quantity of production of manure was reported in terms of boat loads.

Table 8.3

- PRODUCTION, SALE AND PURCHASE OF DUNG MANURE -

Size of Cultivated holding (acres)	Production		Sale			Purchase			Cowdung manure utilised Qty. in Cartloads	Percentage
	No. of families reported	Qty. in Cart-loads	No. of families reported	Qty. in Cart-loads	Value in Rs	No. of families reported	Qty. in Cart-loads	Value in Rs		
.1-.25	21	92	19	82	350	-	-	-	10	1.2
.26-.50	34	114	28	101	330	-	-	-	13	1.5
.51-1.0	45	111	35	93	320	1	1	5	19	2.3
1.1-2.0	47	168	24	89	370	9	28	167	107	12.7
2.1 - 3.0	25	91	13	55	240	5	12	74	48	5.7
3.1 - 5.0	32	249	5	29	220	6	21	135	241	31.5
5.1 - 7.50	14	140	1	7	80	6	30	191	163	19.4
7.51- 10.0	2	23	-	-	-	3	23	143	46	5.5
10.1 - 15.0	7	110	1	5	20	3	11	72	116	13.8
15.1 - above	4	44	-	-	-	2	10	58	54	6.4
Total Cultivators	231	1142	126	461	1930	35	136	845	817	100.0
Non-Cultivators	9	15	9	15	90	-	-	-	-	-
Total	240	1157	135	476	2020	35	136	845	817	100.0

A boat-load is roughly equal to two cart-loads. For uniformity sake, production of manure is given in terms of cart-loads.

Table 8.3 gives the production, sale and purchase of dung manure for cultivators with different size of cultivated holdings and for non-cultivators. Of the 240 families reporting production of dung manure, as many as 231 were cultivators and only 9 were non-cultivators. All the cow dung produced was used as manure. The practice of making dung cakes for fuel was not known in this village. That must be due to abundant supply of fuels of different kinds like dry coconut leaves, dry casaurina leaves, other fuel wood in the village itself. The total production of dung manure was 1157 cart-loads. Per cattle production of dung manure is roughly worked out as 2½ cart-loads. It is significant to note that those holding land upto 0.50 acre disposed off a major portion of their manure production while none of them reported purchase of manure. Those cultivating land from 0.51 acre to 1 acre, a large number of families reported sale of manure while only one family reported purchase of a single cart load of manure. For holdings above 1 acre, the number of families reporting sale of manure and the quantity of manure sold gradually came down while the corresponding numbers for purchase of manure increased. The purchase of manure was reported within the village while the sales were done to cultivators outside the village also. Out of 1157 cartloads of dung manure produced in the village only 817 cart-loads were used in the village. The rest were mainly sold to the cultivators in Badanidiyur and Mudthonse villages. The percentage of manure used in the village to total production of manure in the village was worked out as 70.6%. With the increase in

Table 8.4

- PRODUCTION, SALE AND PURCHASE OF FODDER -

Size of Cultivated holding (in acres)	Area under Paddy and Pulses (in acres)	Production		Sale			Purchase			Paddy stalks used No. of bundles
		Paddy stalks No. of bundles	Husk No. of bags	Paddy stalks No. of bundles	Husk No. of bags	Value in Rs	Paddy stalks No. of bundles	Husk No. of bags	Value in Rs	
.1 - .25	2.15	1,050	-	-	-	-	25750	-	758	26800
.26- .50	0.28	250	-	-	-	-	28150	-	851	28400
.51- 1.0	19.51	14,900	27	1150	-	35	25950	-	778	39700
1.1- 2.0	28.29	37,150	142	3470	-	105	33650	-	1020	67340
2.1- 3.0	50.47	39,870	21	2180	-	65	23950	-	791	61640
3.1- 5.0	105.42	76,910	101	9410	-	282	33730	-	1031	101230
5.1- 7.50	112.68	73,190	210	12150	-	365	6250	-	169	67290
7.51-10.0	12.83	9,910	2	1290	-	39	200	-	30	8820
10.1- 15.0	48.64	32,860	258	16730	-	491	250	-	75	16380
15.1- above	10.47	21,740	23	13140	-	408	400	-	96	9000
Total Cultivators	390.79	307,830	784	59520	-	1791	178290	-	5599	426600
Non-Cultivators	-	-	-	-	-	-	9300	-	253	9300
TOTAL	390.79	307,830	784	59520	-	1791	187590	-	5852	435900

2008

the use of electric pumpsets for irrigation, we may expect an increase in the area under Winter and Summer Paddy crops in the coming years which may lead to an increase in the demand for dung manure in the village itself. We may also expect an increase in the production of manure as the number of milch cattle may increase in the coming years in accordance with the increase in demand for milk due to steady rise in population.

8.6 : Fodder :

Total area under paddy and pulses, as reported by the General Family Enquiry, was worked out as 390.79 acres. Production of paddy stalks was 307830 bundles and that of husk was 784 bags. Per acre production of Paddy Stalks was roughly 600 to 800 bundles in case of Monsoon paddy, 700 to 1000 bundles for Winter paddy and 1200 to 1500 bundles for Summer paddy. On an average, per acre production of paddy stalks was worked out as 830 bundles.

Those families cultivating upto 0.50 acre of land did not report sale of paddy stalk. It can be seen from table 8.4 that fodder was sold by the bigger cultivators and was purchased by the smaller cultivators. The actual requirement of fodder in the village was in excess of production of fodder. Hence it was purchased from the neighbouring villages, mainly from the villages across the river at the northern boundary. The percentage of village fodder production to the total fodder requirement was 70.6 per cent. We may expect more import of fodder in the coming years as the demand for fodder may increase with a rise in the number of milch cattle and the increase in the local production of paddy stalks due to more area brought under Winter and Summer paddy crops may not go sufficient.

8.7 : Production, Sale and Purchase of Milk :

There were 277 cows and 64 she-buffaloes in the village. Goats and Sheep were not reported because the climate is not congenial for their survival. Both cows and buffaloes were of the native breed. They were very dwarf in stature and their milk yield was also comparatively very less.

Table 8.5 gives the number of families reporting (i) production of milk only; (ii) production and sale of milk only; (iii) production and purchase of milk only; (iv) production, sale and purchase of milk only; and (v) purchase of milk only. All the families reporting under (i) to (iv) produced and consumed milk while families reporting under (v) only consumed. The total number of families reporting consuming milk was 756 (78.7 per cent of the total number of families in the village) of which 229 families reported production of milk. There were only 9 families among the non-cultivators reporting production of milk. Of the 527 families reporting purchase of milk only 281 were non-cultivators and 246 were cultivators.

Table 8.5

Families reporting production, sale and purchase of milk.

Size of cultivated holding (in acres)	Production only.	Production & Sale only	Production & Purchase only.	Production, Sale & Purchase only.	Purchase only.	Total
Upto 1.0	41	19	21	10	193	284
1.1- 5.0	42	21	36	1	53	152
5.1-above	16	10	3	2	1	32
Total cultivators	99	50	60	13	246	468
Non Cultivators	3	3	1	-	281	288
Total	102	53	61	13	527	756

Many families reporting production of milk did not report either purchase or sale of milk. Such families numbered 102 or 43.6 percent of the total milk producing families. 53 families reported production and sale only, 61 families production and purchase only and 13 families reported production, sale and purchase also.

A majority of the milk producing families reported production of milk for more than five months during the previous year of the survey as the following data reveal :

Number of months milk produced	Number of families
1-2	6
3-4	12
5-6	53
7-8	57
9-12	101
	229

Table 8.6 gives the value of production, sale and purchase of milk during the previous year of the survey.

Table 8.6

-Production, Sale and Purchase of Milk -

(Value in Rs)

Size of Cultivated holding (in acres)	Production	Sale	Purchase
Upto 1.0	16,360	8,337	9,297
1.1- 5.0	33,307	21,112	4,402
5.1-above	13,524	8,509	248
Total culti- vators	63,191	37,958	13,947
Non cultiva- tors	1,000	124	8,872
Hotels	-	-	16,768
Total	64,221	38,082	39,587

The total value of milk produced was calculated at Rs. 64,221. The value of milk produced per milch cattle is calculated at Rs. 183. The total value of milk sold was Rs. 39,082 which was calculated at about 62 percent of the production value of milk. In a majority of the cases, both sale and purchase of milk took place in the village itself. 42.3 per cent of the total milk purchased was reported by the hotels.

- CHAPTER-IX -

- FISHING OCCUPATION -

(I) INTRODUCTION :

9.1 Fishing Community in Paduthonse :

Fishing community in Paduthonse is a caste-cum-occupation group. Two caste groups, Mogavirs and Karvis follow this occupation. However, Mogavirs constitute an important group as their strength is much higher (122 families) compared to that of the Karvis (13 families). It was reported that the Mogavirs were formerly settled in the interior part of the district and they migrated and settled on this coast in the second and third decade of this century. The Karvis were reported to have migrated down from the North Kanara district. They still speak Konkani at home and know Kannad (the regional language of the North Kanara district) better than Tulu (the local language of the South Kanara district). Socially, Karvis are supposed to be inferior to the Mogavirs. These two communities have very little social or occupational contact, because, in the first instance, they follow entirely different social customs and secondly their techniques of fishing are entirely different.

We have seen the occupational pattern of the families belonging to these two fishing castes in Chapter IV, Section 15. We have observed therein that the families belonging to the fishing castes are rarely engaged in non-fishing occupations. For example 85.4 per cent of the Mogavir families were engaged in fishing, 9.6 per cent in trade and only 1.6 per cent in Agriculture. It is important to note that those who are engaged in Trade were dealing with the salted fish with the wholesalers at Malpe or Mangalore. In the case of the Karvis, they were solely engaged in

Fishing occupation.

An occupation group getting some status in the village society is always influenced by the size of the land the group holds. Although the nature of the occupation the group follows does not require the holding of land, it seems to be an indisputed fact that the ownership of land provides security to the life of the members of a group. Hence the importance of studying the ownership of land by the fishing castes. There were only 17 Mogavir families reporting the ownership of land. The land owned by these families was only 11.66 acres or 1.9 per cent of the total land owned by the residents of the village. On the other hand, Karvis did not own any land.

According to the information available to us the Mogavirs have started getting on this coast by the beginning of this century. The fact that during five decades they could possess very little land proves the following observations : (i) the personal savings of the members of the occupation group were very meagre; (ii) land was not available as it was scarce due to the pressure of the cultivating classes; (iii) the fishermen found it relatively advantageous to invest their funds in fishing equipments like nets and boats, or (iv) the fishermen were traditionally not inclined towards cultivation and they did not require land for that purpose. For residential purpose, they could manage to get place on the uncultivable land along the coast. However, it is interesting to note that the fish dealers and the master fishermen could hold large area of land because (i) their individual savings from the occupation were large, and (ii) they could get loans from the private money lenders on the security of the land property. They usually owned land along the coast and the working fishermen and the fish curing labourers could be accommodated on such land in their self-built

hancements.

9.2 : Scope and Purpose of the Present Study :

The scope of the present study is limited to the different economic aspect of the fishing occupations such as (a) different fishing techniques and their efficiency, (b) fishing organisations, (c) capital structure in fishing industry, (d) employment in fishing, (e) fish yield from different techniques, (f) disposal of fish and price system; (g) Income-expenditure analysis of fishing occupation; and lastly (h) different aspects of fish curing business. The study covers all the fishing organisations operative on the village coast irrespective of the resident fishermen representing such organisations. As the settlement of the fishermen on the coast is spread out continuously, it is not important from the point of view of the occupation to separate the resident fishermen from their non-resident fellow-workers of the operative units on the village coast. Rather, such adventure may be mis-leading. However, when a problem like employment pattern is concerned, we have provided particular attention to the resident fishermen and we have tried to treat them separately.

9.3 : Sources of Data :

Data were collected from three sources: (i) Special schedules canvassed to elicit information about the employment, production and disposal of fish from Big Ranpani Groups. The data were collected by "account method"; (ii) Preparing detailed case studies of the different techniques of fishing and conducting useful interviews with the fish dealers; (iii) Information collected in the General Family Enquiry for the fishermen families.

(II) FISHING TECHNIQUES :9.4: Physical Setting :

The village Paduthonse lies 3 miles north to the Malpe port and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile south of the Warna river mouth. The coast line of the village measures $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles approximately. So, the distance from the Malpe port to the Swarna river mouth is about 6 miles. This 6 mile coast line was the main operational field for on-shore fishing organisations belonging to (i) Bengre (ii) Paduthonse and (iii) Malpe villages. The following observations were made in respect of the operational field described above :

1. The movements of the operative units belonging to this coast are usually limited to this line for the natural reasons. The Swarna river mouth in the north restricts the movement of the operational units further northward while the estuary of the Udiyavar and Malki rivers near Malpe impedes the movement southward.

2. What is said in (1) in respect of the operative units belonging to this coast is equally true of the operative units belonging to the other coasts for the same reason. Their movements are usually limited to their own coasts and,

3. It was reliably learnt that any spot on this coast line is equally favourable to any other spot on the same line for operative purpose. The reason given was that within a range of 7 miles towards the sea on this line, there is an absence of any disturbing factors like elevated rocks. If there are any, they are already spotted by the fishermen of the operative units on this coast.

It is believed that in this coast the sea deepens gradually at the rate of 1 fathom per mile. Sudden depths of the sea near the coast were reported to exist near the river estuary at Malpe. It is also reported

that sudden depths and mounted rocks exist round about the islands of Badragar and St. Mary's Isle which lie some 4 miles to the west of Malpe.

The sea deepens considerably at a distance of 12 to 15 miles from the shore. At some spots, rocks are supposed to exist under the deep water serving as the spawning grounds for the sharks and whales and other bigger varieties in the fish. The expert committee appointed by FAO to study the fish sources near the west coast of India have reported that there is a huge spawning ground stretching from Malpe to Mahe on the southwest coast of India. It is important to note here that the coast of Paduthonse village lies in the vicinity of the vast nursery ground for the mackerel fish.

The northern border of the village Paduthonse touches the back water of the river Swarna which extends upto Mabukalia in the north and meets the water of the Sita river. The estuary at Hangarkatte is only at a distance of $\frac{1}{2}$ mile from the northern border of the Adda Bengre locality of the Paduthonse village. The vast area of this backwater has provided surface for river fishing to the residents of the Paduthonse village.

9.5 : Operational Fields for Different Techniques of Fishing I

In the first instance, we divide the ground for sea fishing into three different operational fields mainly governed by their distance from the shore. The first operational field is on the shore itself. The fishermen mainly operate the net standing on the shore. The operational field lies along the shore extending into the sea to a distance of about 1 mile. The distance, in this case, is guided by the area the net covers from the shore. Secondly, we come across the near shore operation field at a distance of about 5 miles from the shore. This distance, in any case, will not extend

beyond 7 miles from the shore. The operating units in this case put themselves at a convenient position to return to the place of origin with no delay. Thirdly the operating unit moves to the deep sea at a distance of 15 to 20 miles from the shore. The operational field for deep sea fishing is guided by (i) the availability of the fish of bigger variety like sharks and whales; and (ii) the time element. In short, for sea fishing we have three operational fields: (i) On shore fishing, (ii) Near shore fishing; and (iii) Deep sea fishing.

In the second instance, we have two operational fields for river fishing. Firstly, the backwater of the river Swarna provides a ground for fishing. In this case we do not make any difference between on-the-bank operations or operation right in the deep water. So, the first type of operational field for the river fishing is the whole surface of the backwater. Secondly, the river estuary serves as a unique type of operational field, especially while operating the Jaggunet. We have separated estuary operational field from the rest of the backwater operational field for the former is hereditarily owned by some fishermen families as the private property while the latter is not. To summarise, we have two operational fields in river fishing: (i) the backwaters and (ii) the river estuary. Table 9.1 gives information about different techniques of fishing.

9.6 : On shore fishing techniques :

On shore fishing techniques are two in number. The first one is "the Big Rampani" or "Mari Bale" and the second is "the Kairampani" or "the small rampani". Both belong to the seine type of drag nets and they vary in size only. A short description of both the techniques is given below :

(I) Big Rampani or Mari Bale

It is a huge seine net with 640 net pieces attached to each other and measures 6920 in length. When ropes

Table 9.1

Information about different techniques of
- Fishing in Paduthose -

Operating Field	Technique of Fishing	Season	No. of units operating.	Average No. of persons engaged per unit.	No. of boats per unit		Net pieces	
					Big	Small	No.	Total size sq.ft.
<u>SEA FISHING</u>	Big Rampani	October to April	5	78	1	4	640	100,580
I On shore	Small Rampani	June to September	4	32	1	-	152	23,332
II Near shore	Patta Bale	September to May	4	12	2	1	18	20,736
	Beedu Bale	September to November	4	4	-	1	20	5,760
	Torke Bale	October to November	4	3	-	1	9	3,024
	Kantu Bale	" "	1	2	-	1	6	1,728
III Deep Sea	Bepu(Big)	Sept. to March	4	4	1	-	300 hooks	Line 10,500'
	Bepu(Small)	" "	7	2	-	1	1500 hooks	Line 4,500'
<u>RIVER FISHING</u>								
IV Back water	Thrownet	June to Sept.	59	1	-	1	1	-
	Hand Hook	Whole year	13	1	-	1	2hooks	Line 36'
	Bepu(river)	Sept. to March	7	1	-	1	150hooks	Line 750'
V Estuary	Jaggu Bale	Oct. to Feb.	5	1	-	-	1	-

measuring 300 yards are attached to each side, the seine stretches into the sea to a distance of 1148 yards, covering an area of 2,070,427 s q.yds. The whole net is operated by about 80 persons, half of them standing on the shore and the rest engaged at the sea equipped with 5 boats.

Normally the net pieces are prepared by the fishermen themselves during the rainy season when they do not have much work to do. A person takes some 50 days to prepare a net piece with small meshes and 40 days to prepare one with big meshes. The thread used for this purpose is mill spun and of 20 counts in thickness. 12 threads are twisted to make the yarn strong enough to be used for preparing a net piece.

The instruments used in twisting the yarn or knitting are very crude. In case of twisting the yarn, "takalis" are used while two long iron needles and a wooden shaft, suffice for knitting.

After the net is prepared, it is dipped in decoction of the bark of the 'matti' tree and then dried in the sun. The process is repeated for the second time to make the yarn waterproof. The net pieces are tied breadthwise and are supported by floaters at the top and the sinkers at the bottom.

A Big Rampani is equipped with 5 boats. Four of them are small and one is big. The big boat measures $18\frac{1}{2}$ yards long, $2\frac{1}{2}$ yards broad and $4\frac{1}{2}$ yards high. Its loading capacity is about 4 tons. Whenever required, the boats of this size are built at the village site by the carpenters of the Paduthonse village. Such instances are very rare. After 1940, only two such boats were built at the village site.

The other four boats are comparatively smaller in size and each measures $8\frac{1}{2}$ yds. long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ yds broad and $3\frac{1}{2}$ yards high. These boats are also manufactured at the village site by the carpenters of the

Paduthonse village . After 1940, only five such boats were manufactured at the village site.

The boats are given a coat of oil extracted from the outer skin of the cashew nut is used alongwith fish oil for this purpose. Small repairs are undertaken every year to avoid leakages.

The bigger boat is meant for carrying the rampani net as well as about 30 persons for casting operation. The four small boats are meant for the experts who go earlier in search of the fish.

The operation of the Big Rampani may be divided into four parts : (i) Search for the fish shoals; (ii) casting the net; (iii) dragging the net; and (iv) harvesting the yield. These different parts of the operation are described below in brief.

(i) Search for the Fish Shoals :

Search for the fish shoal starts in the early dawn after the 'lampman' puts off the three lamps lighted on the coast. Each group arranges for commissioning of four small boats at its disposal for this purpose.

As soon as a shoal is detected, the experts in the boat signal to their men of the shore by hoisting a flag. If the size of the shoal is big, they hoist two flags. The operation of casting the net starts in that direction. Time : 6 A.M. to 9A.M.

(ii) Casting the Net :

The unit which casts the net consists of 28 to 30 persons. All of them board the big boat carrying the piles of the net pieces of the whole seine. Nearly half of them are engaged in rowing the boat to the direction of the shoal while the casting men are engaged in attaching the net pieces and throwing them in a line with the sinkers down. Meanwhile the men on the shore at the starting point hold one end of the rope and adjust the point in accordance with the direction the

boat takes. Time 9A.M. to 11 A.M.

(iii) Dragging the net :

The third operation is that of pulling the two ends of the seine at the two points on the shore. There are about 68 persons, divided into two equal groups to pull the two ends. Gradually the seine is hauled in with utmost accuracy, because a slight haste with carelessness may lead to the escape of a large portion of the shoal caught. As the seine is hauled in, it is seen that the distance between the two points of the seine is narrowed so that the semi-circular shape of the seine is not disturbed. The shrinkage of the area covered by the seine at some stage results in congestion of fish and the dragging operation stops. Usually the dragging operation stops when the area covered by the seine shrinks to a very negligible size. Sometimes when the shoal caught is sufficiently big, congestion takes place at an earlier stage. The fishermen know that there is a saturation point for this congestion. After that point is reached, the fish may not find it easy to survive. Hence the significance of the harvesting operation as soon as the saturation point is reached. Time : 11 A.M. to 5 P.M.

(iv) Harvesting the Yield :

There are two ways of harvesting the yield which are guided by the size of the area covered by the seine at the saturation point. In the first instance, if the size of the area is negligible, as it is the usual case, the fish is harvested by small hand nets and carried to the shore. In the second instance, if the area is vast enough for the operation of the hand net, a small Rampani net is used to harvest the yield in parts. Whatever portion the small Rampani covers is harvested, in the first instance, by the small hand nets and when that area is exhausted, the small Rampani is taken out.

The consequent sparsity is brought to the old saturation point by hauling in the bigger seine. The small Rampani is operated as long as a need is there for its operation and finally the size of the area of the seine sufficiently narrows down. Further operations by small rampani cease to take place. A final hand net operation suffices for reaping the remnant portion of the crop. Time 5P.M. to 6-30 P.M.

(II) Small Rampani or Kai-Rampani :

The technique of the small Rampani is similar to that of the Big Rampani. The main difference between the two is in size. A brief description of (a) the net pieces, (b) the boat, and (c) the operational part the net is presented.

The Net Pieces of Small Rampani :

(a) The net pieces are prepared by the fishermen themselves during the rainy season. A person requires about 26 days to prepare a big meshed net piece and about 42 days to prepare that with small meshes. Similar process followed in case of the Big Rampani is followed to make the net pieces waterproof.

(b) The Boats :

The Small Rampani is equipped with one boat only. The boat is 12 yards long, 1- $\frac{1}{2}$ yards broad and 1- $\frac{1}{2}$ yards high, and its capacity is 2 tons, equal to a lorry load. Such boats are usually not manufactured at the village site. Whenever required they are purchased from Mangalore. The boat is used for casting the net.

(c) The Operation of the Small Rampani :

The Small Rampani is operated in the same way as the Big Rampani except that in case of the latter the "search for fish" is an essential part of the operation while in case of the former, it is not. Hence there are only three parts of the operation, namely, (i) casting the net, (ii) dragging the net and (iii) harvesting the yield. Qualitatively the three operations do not

differ from those of the Big Rampani. Quantitatively there is much difference especially in respect of the time of operation, and the employment. A brief description of different parts operation is presented below:

(i) Casting the net :

About 15 to 18 persons cast the net after the "experts" on the shore take decision to do so. The decision in this regard is mainly guided by the colour of the water revealing the presence or absence of the fish in the water. The casting operation takes place in the same way as it is done in case of the Big Rampani. After the seine is casted, only 8 to 10 persons go in the boat to operate it from the central point and about 15 persons are engaged in the dragging operation from each side. The time required for casting the net is approximately 45 minutes.

(ii) Dragging the Net :

The seine is dragged to the shores by about 15 persons at each side. The operation takes about $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 hours. The care is taken, as it is taken in case of the Big Rampani, to keep the semi-circular shape of the seine undisturbed. It is hauled in until the congestion of fish takes place.

(iii) Harvesting :

Harvesting is done by the hand nets for that crop which is outside the fold of the small meshed nets. For that portion of the crop which is caught in the fold of the small meshed nets, it is seen that the net is rolled to hold all that is in its fold and then it is dragged on to the shore. The harvesting operation requires about 45 minutes.

An operation thus requires some 3 to 4 hours and it is possible, therefore, to operate the small Rampani for 2 to 3 times in a day. It is, however, technically impossible to operate a Big Rampani net for more than

once in a day.

9.7 : Near-Shore Fishing Techniques :

Near-shore fishing techniques practised in Paduthonse are four in number. They are fishing by (1) Patta Bale, (2) Beedu Bale, (3) Torke Bale and (4) Kantu Bale. Of these the first one is much important from the point of view of employment and yield. These are all different varieties of the drift nets operated at a distance of about 5 miles from the shore. A short description of the above techniques is presented here below :

(1) Patta Bale or Drift Net for Indian Mackerel :

The Patta Bale is operated from September to May on all days except when there is stormy weather or a religious holiday. It is operated by about 12 persons equipped with one big and two small boats. It is specially meant for catching Indian mackerel which appear near the West Coast of India from September to early May. We present here below some details as regards the operational technique of the Patta Bale.

The Patta Bale operation may be divided into three parts: (i) Searching for the fish, (ii) Casting the net and harvesting and (iii) Transporting the catch to the shore. Presented below is a short description of the above parts of the operations.

(i) Searching for the fish :

The unit equipped with two big and one small boats starts from the shore at about 6 A.M. and goes in search of the mackerel shoals. The big boats carry equal number of persons and net pieces and go side by side. The small boat follows the big boats with two on board.

(ii) Casting the net and Harvesting :

When the big boats come across any mackerel shoal, they join their respective net pieces and taking a circular turn, go on casting the net so that a part of that shoal is covered by the net. Then some 7-8 persons manage to

get aboard the smaller boat and move the boat to the middle point of the circle formed by the net. At that point, they create a very disturbing sound with the kerosene tins and other crude instruments, so that the fish imprisoned in the circle get escaping through the net walls of the circumference where they are caught in the meshes. The net is then slowly lifted and the catch is collected in the smaller boat. Normally there will be some three catches in a day. The first catch is collected at about 10-30 A.M., the second at about 1 P.M. and the third at about 3 P.M. These timings, though arbitrary, are important from the point of view of transport of the catch to the shore.

(iii) Transporting the Catch to the Shore :

The first catch is transported immediately to the shore as soon as it is collected in the small boat. The boat moves to the shore on sail and reaches the shore by about 1 P.M. so that the early afternoon demand by the bicyclamen from interior markets is meted out. The second and the third catches are collected in the big boats and are brought to the shore by about 5-30 P.M. If the second catch is big enough, they normally do not try for a third catch and come to the shore as early as 3-30 P.M.

The whole operation thus requires 9 to 12 hours.

(2) Beedu Bale or Drif net for Surmai Fish :

The Beedu Bale is operated during the waning days of the moon during September and November when 'Surmai' and other bigger variety of fish appear near the shore. Though the net is meant for catching the 'Surmai' fish, other bigger varieties like Halage, Kagushede, C hate, Maggu, Mullu Bale, Manji, Goli, K okkare, Shede, Torke and other unnamed varieties are caught in plenty.

The Beedu Bale is operated only when the nights are not lit with the moon light. Hence, first few days of

the waning moon and the last few days of the waning moon are congenial for Beedu fishing. It is believed that the fish avoid their trapping during the moon light nights as the meshes of the net are visible when there is light. For Beedu fishing, the fishermen start at about 3 P.M. in the boat and carry with them adequate provisions for two meals each. They reach the operational field by sunset and get ready for casting the net after taking the evening meals. The net is cast in a straight line so that it stands erect with the floaters at the top and sinkers at the bottom. One end of the net is attached to the anchor hook of the boat. By about 1 A.M. they collect whatever catch there is and cast the net again. The second collection is made at about 5 A.M. After the sunrise, they start towards the shore. They take their morning tiffin in the boat itself. By about 10 A.M. they reach the shore.

(3) Torke Bale or Drift net for Catching the Whale Fish.

This net is operated mainly during October and November with profitable catches. But there are instances when it is operated throughout the year except during the monsoon.

A short description of the operation of the Torke Bale is given below: The fishermen start from the shore at about 4 P.M. which is only at a distance of 2 miles from the shore. The operating field for the Torke Bale fishing must be nearer the spawning grounds of the whale fish, that is, at such spots where the bottom of the sea is rocky. The fishermen join the net pieces depthwise and cast such net in the water with a heavy stone sinker at the bottom and wooden floaters attached to the top. They also tie a big dried coconut to the floaters for recognising the net. After casting the net, the fishermen return home by about 8 P.M. Again they go to the spot next morning at about 6 A.M. and collect the whale fish trapped.

(4) Kantu Bale or Drift Net for Small Shark Fish :

Normally the operational field for the Torke Bale and the Kantu Bale are side by side, because the Shark fish also use the rocky bottom of the sea as the spawning ground.

The Kantu Bale fishermen start from the shore at about 4 P.M. and cast the net near the spawning grounds of the shark fish. Such grounds are identified by the fishermen with their long experience with the occupation. The net is cast in the same way as the Torke Bale is cast, and the next morning the fish trapped are collected.

9.8 : Deep Sea Fishing Techniques :

In this study, we define deep sea as that part of the surface of the sea water which lies between 10th and 20th miles distances from the shore, because, in the first place, we have observed that the near shore fishing units are operated at the most to the 10th mile distance and secondly, the units of the deep sea technique rarely go beyond 20th mile distance and are mostly functioning at a distance of about 15 miles from the shore. The technique used in the deep sea is that of the "long line and hooks" locally known as 'Bepu'. The 'Bepu' is of two variety only differing in the size. The smaller Bepu is operated not beyond 12th mile from the shore. It functions mostly on 10th mile from the shore. The Bigger Bepu functions between 15th and 20th miles distances from the shore. Both the Bepus are operated from September to March. We present below some details about the equipments and operation of both type of Bepus.

1. Bepu(Big) :

The Big Bepu is operated by 4 crewmen with one boat and a long line measuring 10,500 feet with 300 hooks. The boat measures 14 yds. long, 2 yds broad and $1\frac{1}{2}$ yds high. Its capacity is believed to be equal to that of two lorries or 4 tons. Of the four boats in the village, only one is

manuf-actured at the village site some 10 years back and rest are all purchased from Mangalore.

The line measures about 10,500 feet and is made of cotton thread. The quality of the thread used is of 20 counts. The twining of the threads is done by the fishermen during rainy season. The process of the twining of the threads is $1 \times 10 \times 3 = 180$. The first twining is anticlockwise, the second is clockwise and the third is again anti-clockwise. The line is coated with the 'matti' bark decoction and is dried in the sun. The dyeing is repeated for the second time after a fortnight.

The hooks used for the Big Bepu are about 300 in number and they are purchased from Udipi or Malpe. They are the biggest in size used on this coast. The hooks are valued at Rs. 30/- per 300. The hooks are attached at a distance of 35 feet on the line.

The Bepu crewmen start from the shore at about 1 A.M. and reach their destination by about 6 A.M. They cast the line with the hooks baited (usually with mackerel) in a long row. The casting operation takes about half an hour after which the crewmen take their morning tiffin and relax. After 8 A.M. they start collecting the fish with the help of the shafthook and the spears.

The line is hauled in by about 12 noon and the crewmen start moving to the shore with the day's catch. Meanwhile they finish their midday lunch. They reach the shore by about 5 P.M. and relax for the next 8 hours.

Every Friday is observed as holiday, because most of the crewmen are Byari Muslims.

2. Bepu (Small)

The small Bepu is operated by 3 crewmen. The technique of the Small Bepu is same as that of the Big Bepu except that the hooks are of smaller size and the line is operated nearer the shore, that is, not beyond a distance of 10 miles from the shore. The line measures 4500 feet

and is prepared of 20 count cotton thread twined into 1 x 10 x 3 twists. The boat is comparatively smaller than that used for Big Bepu and it measures 5 yds long, 1½ yds broad and 1½ yds high. The hooks used are smaller in size and they are also purchased from either Malpe or Udipi. About 1500 hooks are used at a distance of 3 feet each on the line which approximately measures about 4500 feet.

The small Bepu crewmen start from the shore at about 6 A.M. and reach their destination by about 9 A.M. Meanwhile they see that all the hooks are baited with small pieces of mackerel fish or prawns. After casting the line, they finish their mid-day lunch and keep a constant watch over the line. No sooner a fish is caught than the crewmen rush up to the spot and collect the catch with their shaft hook and spears. By about 3 P.M. they pull in the whole line and collect the final catch. They reach the shore at about 6 P.M. and relax.

As far as the small Bepu units of the Paduthonse coast are concerned, no holidays are observed except on Deepavali and Shivaratri.

9.9: Techniques of River Fishing :

Four different techniques are followed in Paduthonse as far as river fishing is concerned. The operational field for the first three, namely, throw net fishing, hand hook fishing and Biuer Bepu, is the backwater of the river Swarna, while that for the fourth technique, Jaggu Bale fishing, it is the river estuary. A short description of these different techniques of fishing in the river is given below :

1. Throw Net Fishing :

Throw net fishing is widely practised from June to September, when the river fish are abundant in the backwater immediately after the first Monsoon flood. Throw net fishing requires a small boat and two throw

nets. The throw net used in Paduthouse is a circular casting net with lead ball weights. The fisherman who operates it swings it in an artistic motion and throws it heavily on the surface of the water. The net covers a portion of the shoal which is collected into the boat. While one person is busy collecting the fish from one net, the other person casts the second net. So both the nets and the men are alternatively engaged.

The boat is a very small one in size and it costs about Rs. 75 to Rs. 100. Many a time the fishermen do not own the boat. They merely rent it for the season concerned at the usual rate of annas 4 per day or Rs. 7 per month. The net is prepared by the fishermen themselves. As reported, a person requires some two months to prepare a net. A net costs about Rs. 50 and is durable for two seasons.

2. Hand Hook :

A hand hook is a short line measuring about 25 yds only with a hook at the end. It is operated by hand from a boat. Usually a person operates two such lines at a time using his both hands. The boat is very small costing about Rs. 40 and many a time two fishermen share one boat. Some manage even without a boat. They stand on the bank of the river and operate the lines. There are also instances of hiring a boat for this purpose.

Usually river prawns are used for baiting the hooks. Sometime shell worms are also used for that purpose.

3. River Bepu :

River Bepu is a diminutive pigmy version of the sea Bepu adopted to the back water fishing conditions. It requires a small boat costing about Rs. 50/- and the line measures about 250 yds with 250 hooks. It is a one man unit and is operated from September to March. The thread used for the line is of 20 counts. It is twined into $1 \times 5 \times 3 = 15$ twists and is dyed with gun-nut decoction.

The technique of operating the River Bepu is very simple. The Bepu is cast in the river with hooks baited. The fisherman never stays at the operational spot. He visits the spot for two times in a day and collects the catch and rebaits the hooks. Continuously for about 15 days the line remains on the surface of the water attended by the fisherman twice a day in a day. During the days of bumper catches, the fisherman visits the spot for more often than two times a day and even some time during night. After a fortnight, the line is brought to the bank of the river and is sun dried. The next day it is dyed with the gun nut decoction and dried in the sun. The third day, it is taken to the surface of the back water and is cast there for another fortnight.

4. Jaggu Bale or Trap Net :

Jaggu Bale is a type of trap net operated at the river estuary. The transport is made of cotton thread with different twists and different sizes of the mesh. The length of the net is about 15 yds. and it is built of 8 sections of the nets differing mainly in their length and size of the meshes. The length of these sections vary from 2 yds to $\frac{1}{2}$ yd and the meshes vary from 6" x 6" to $\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{2}$ ". The hollow of the net is wider at the mouth where the bigger meshed sections are attached and it narrows down at its tail where the smaller meshed sections are attached. The mouth of the trap is tied to two poles erected at the river estuary and the tail is stretched back. The bigger sized fish which comes along with the sea waves during high tides are trapped in the net. When the low tides start, the trap is taken out with the catch.

The trap fishing units are operative only for six months during a year, i.e. from October to March.

III. FISHING ORGANISATIONS :

9.10: A Changing Pattern of the Fishing Organisations :

During the last few decades, a remarkable change was observed in the organisational pattern of the fishing industry on the coast of the Paduthonse village in South Kanara district. An inquiry made by the Research Assistant revealed that the change was in its first phase (i) from self-employed type to that of large scale fishing organised and financed by a master fisherman; and in its second phase (ii) from master fisherman organisation to fisherman's own organisation - a sort of spontaneous cooperative producers' group, organised and financed by the fishermen themselves. The non-functional group of master fisherman hence forth ceased to have any operational significance. The change took place during the period 1910-1950.

The information given below was collected by (i) preparing detailed case studies of (a) the fishing organisations in the village, (b) 8 out of 22 big and small fish dealers and (c) interviewing an ex-masterfisherman, the only man of his kind surviving, so as to know the qualitative merits of the change in its first and the second phases.

9.11: Conditions prior to the First Phase of Change :

Traditionally, small scale fishing on individual's own account was carried on by the Mogavirs, the native fishermen caste people. Before 1912, the population of fishermen on the Paduthonse coast, most of the Mogavirs were located in the interior part of the district, mostly on the banks of the rivers, engaged in river fishing. They were mainly using (i) throw nets (ii) River Bepu and (iii) hand hooks) There was a local demand for the river fish which was meted out easily by the traditional river fishing.

Fishing in sea was very rare. The recollections

of the masterfisherman who was interviewed for our purpose, reveal that by the year 1910 there were (i) half a dozen individuals engaged in throw net fishing in sea, (ii) one sea Bepu owned by a master fisherman, and (iii) eight 'Patta Bale' nets in the Adda Bengre area, which were owned by half a dozen masterfishermen. It is not that the 'Torke Bale' 'Beedu Bale' which are in vogue at present were unknown to the fishermen by that time. But nobody ventured to try those types of techniques before 1925 (approximate). Sea fish was cured in the traditional way and was sent to the distant markets, through the dealers who were concentrated in Mangalore and Malpe. No records are available for that period in respect of an average annual catch of fish from both river and sea. But the fact that the employment in river fishing and quantity of river catch were many a time more than the employment in sea fishing and quantity of sea catch respectively was confirmed by the ex-masterfisherman, who was a witness for that period. In short, (i) river fishing was predominant and (ii) large majority of the fishermen were self-employed.

9.12: The First Phase of Change :

It seems that by the year 1912, a Muslim fish dealer from Goa migrated to this village for a short period and introduced 'Rampani' fishing, a type of onshore fishing using a huge seine. From October to the end of March, the sardine and mackeril shoals were coming to the shore which would have been easily covered by casting a big seine and hauling it into the shore. The Muslim fish dealer from Goa introduced the 'Kai-rampani' net, for a trial, employing 32 'khalashi' on cash payment. The khalashis to operate the net were recruited from the local Mogavir families.

This technological change had its important repercussions on the organisation in fishing in the

following respect : (i) Large scale investment of capital by the masterfisherman in Rampani nets and boats. (ii) An enormous increase in the fish yield from the sea catch and the promotion of the export trade of cured fish. (iii) Cash wages paid by the masterfisherman were attractive to the self employed fisherman engaged in river fishing. Example : A fisherman with a boat and a throw net could have earned annas 2½ per day, while, when he was engaged by a masterfisherman for rampani fishing during the season, he was earning annas 4 per day in cash.

The change in the first phase could be summarised as below :- (i) During fishing season from October to March, fishermen gave up their self employment in river fishing and accepted wage employment in sea fishing under a master. During rainy season from June to September, they undertook self employed river fishing as their subsidiary occupation. (ii) After the introduction of the rampani fishing, the master, who was previously engaged in 'Patta Bale' fishing employing 12-16 persons per unit, had to increase the size of his capital and the labour employed. In the first phase of change, the master could exercise his command over the working fisherman class, as he controlled the capital requirements of the industry. (Table 9.2).

9.13: What happened during the Interim Period :

Table 9.2 shows that the master fisherman had supreme command over the capital invested in 'rampani' as well as over fishing units between 1911-1930. In this period, the role of the master fisherman was to (i) supply the required capital in form of nets and boats, (ii) organise the labour and demonstrate the work, and (iii) bargain in selling the yield to the fish dealers. The master entrusted the second task to a selected working fisherman, in the course of time. The selected

Table 9.2 :

- Changing Pattern of Ownership of Different Fishing Organisations -

	Big Rampani			Small Rampani			Bepu(Big)			Patta Bale		
	M.F.	F.G.	Total	M.F.	F.G.	Total	M.F.	F.G.	Total	M.F.	F.G.	Total
First Phase												
1911-1920	1	-	1	1	-	1	1	-	1	8	-	8
1921-1930	2	-	2	4	-	4	1	-	1	8	-	8
Interim Period												
1931-1940	4	1	5	3	1	4	2	-	2	4	-	4
Second Phase												
1941-1950	1	3	4	1	3	4	2	-	2	3	-	3
1951-1959	-	5	5	-	4	4	4	-	4	2	2	4

M.F. - Masterfisherman Groups

F.G. - Fishermen's own co-operative groups

man was named as 'tandel' meaning thereby, the leader of the fishing group. His duties were to organise the 'khalasis' and demonstrate the fishing operation. He was naturally kept in a more congenial contact with the 'khalasis' than the master. Meanwhile, ^{he} established his personal influence over the working fishermen.

During 1933, a 'tandel' instigated the 'khalasis' working under him to discard the master and convinced them that they are meagerly paid in spite of the good catches fetching excellent money returns. Under the instructions of the tandel, about 80 fishermen joined together and organised their own group, with no master at the head.

9.14 : Second Phase of Change I

The second phase of change started by about 1933 when the first fisherman's own rampani group was established. This new organisation was a sort of co-operative producers' group with limited liabilities. Each member was instructed to bring eight pieces of nets and contribute equally towards the capital requirement of the boats. The working fishermen did not find it difficult to share the capital requirements of the net group.

By the way, some rules of the group, the authorship of which goes to the 'tandel' were established. These rules were recognised by the Mogavir caste Panchayats and any member indulging in breach of the established rules was punished by communal boycott. The rules were of equalitarian nature, avoiding inequalities in respect of ownership of capital, conditions of work and sharing the income. In the first place only those who contribute towards the capital requirements for nets and boats were eligible for membership. Each member was to contribute towards (supposing there were in all 80 members) one - -eightieth part of the total capital requirement. Secondly each member was expected to be an actual working fisherman

and had to present himself as an active worker of the 'net group'. Though there were slight differences in the types of work each member was entrusted with, no gradations were made as skilled or unskilled labour and there was complete absence of class inequality among the workers. Thirdly, the net income of the group was equally divided into eighty shares and distributed among the members who were normally numbered 80. Even the superior members like 'tandel', the leader of the group, and the 'shambhogue' the account keeper of the group, were not exempted from the above equalitarian rules.

9.15 : Trends of Change :

It can be seen from Table 7.2 that the phases of change described above, however, are applicable only to small and big Rampani organisations. In Patta Bale fishing, for example, change from master fisherman organisation to fishermen's own co-operative groups partially came about during 1951-59. Bepu organisations are still run by the master fishermen. This difference in the degree of change in the different types of organisations, it seems, is mainly due to (i) the nature of the organisations and (ii) the size of the organisation.

In the first instance, Patta Bale and Bepu organisations had their firm roots in the tradition of the native fishing community. While the big and the small Rampani organisations were of a imported character with no bindings of the tradition. It seems that the imported organisations are more susceptible to change than the traditional organisations.

Secondly, when the size of the labour requirement is taken into account, Patta Bale and Bepu organisations need less labour than the Rampani organisations and hence they are comparatively smaller in size. The Patta Bale and Bepu organisations still bear the characteristics of traditional self-employed fishing. The case studies

prepared by the Research Assistant revealed that in a majority of the Patta Bale organisations, the persons engaged were either the members of the family or the relatives. In Bepu organisations, it was reported that the skilled labour was employed from outside the village. In many instances, the outsiders are treated as the members of the master's family, dining with him, and sharing his home as in a joint family. While, in case of the Rampani groups, the master lost his contact with his employees. This might have been due to the fact that the number of workers in the Rampani organisations was larger than that in the Patta Bale or Bepu organisations. It is also due to the master's disengagement with the fishing operations, the personal contact was lost. This gave an unique opportunity for the workers to unite under the tandel and discard the master.

Whether the organisational change has led to an increase in total production and thereby improved the living conditions of the fishermen, may be a point for discussion. It is not possible to prove any change in the total production, or family income, with data available for one point of time. However, the fishermen themselves claim that they are now better off than before. It is not wrong to conclude that the change has created a sense of responsibility among the workers. Further it resulted in (a) greater efficiency in operating the net and (b) better catches. In short, the change had its salutary effect on operative efficiency and productivity.

9.16: Fishermen's Own Organisations of the Rampani Groups:

In this and the following two sub-sections, we discuss how the fishermen engaged in different techniques of fishing are organised. In the foregoing sub-sections we have observed the changing pattern of the fishing organisations, in the first instance, from self-employed small unit to large scale fishing organised by the master

and in the second instance, from master fisherman organisations to fishermen's own organisations. We also observed that the second type of change as a matter of fact reached the consummation point in case of Big and Small Rampani groups, partially effective in case of Patta Bale groups and in-effective in case of the Big Bepu units. Hence the importance of a detailed investigation into the structure of different organisations functioning in Paduthonse by the time of the survey. In this sub-section, we limit our scope of discussion to the Rampani organisations, both Big and Small types.

The Big Rampani units operating on the Paduthonse coast were 5 in number and all of them were owned and organised by the working fishermen. The small Rampanis numbered only 4 and were, in all cases, owned and operated by the working fishermen constituting the Big Rampani groups. In two cases, the 'tandels' of the Big Rampani groups held the corresponding posts in the small rampani groups also, while in two other instances, entirely new persons were holding such jobs. It should be noted that while there are five big Rampani groups, the small rampani groups number only four. The fact that a Big Rampani group owns a small Rampani is not always true; One of the Big Rampanis in the village does not own a Small Rampani as a majority of the members of that group prefer river fishing during that period to Small Rampani fishing.

In tables 9.3 and 9.4 we present facts about the leadership of the big and small rampani groups. We find therein that in majority of the cases, the previous tandel is succeeded by another member of the same group. A single case of a tandel being dismissed was reported by a Big Rampani group. Usually, the strongest man of the team assumes the post of the tandel. Though no democratic procedures are followed in case of his selection, the

Table 9.3

- Facts about the leadership of the Big Rampani Groups -

Net Group	Year of Establish- ment	Name of the pre- sent Tandel	Age	Previous experience of the present tandel	Name of the pre- vious Tandel	Duration of Leadership	Reason for leaving the office	Stability of the present leadership
Thottam Hale	1933	Jabba	40	was a member of this group and succeeded his father as a Tandel in 1950.	Koraga	(1933-50)	Died	Not stable Internal rivalry exists
Thottam Hosa	1943	Koosa	45	was a member of this group and succeeded the previous tandel in 1949	Giriya	(1943-49)	Dismissed	Stable leader has full co-operation
Hoode	1944	Bogga	50	was a tandel in a masterfisherman's group of Malpe from 1950-55 succeed the previous tandel in 1955	Challa	(1944-55)	Died	Stable leader has good experience He is respected
Kalyanpur	1949	Baaba	50	Was a member of masterfisherman's group of this village. Organised this group in 1949.	-	-	-	Stable leader is respected
Darbar	1952	Aitha	48	was a member of a masterfisherman's group of this village. Organised this group in 1952	-	-	-	Stable leader is respected

Table 9.4

- Facts about the Leadership of the Kairampani net-groups -

Net Group	Year of establishment	Name of the present tandel-age	Previous experience of the present tandel	Name of the previous tandel	Duration of leadership	Reason for leaving the office	Stability of the present leadership
Hooode	1919	Bogga 50	Was a tandel in a masterfisherman's group of Malpe from 1950-55. Succeeded the previous tandel in 1955.	Challa	1919-1953	Died	Stable. The leader has good experience. .
Kolanbe	1938	Tanya 38	Was a member of this group and succeed the previous tandel in 1956.	Kariya	1938-1956	Retired	Stable. Leader has Co-operation.
Thottan	1940	Jabba 40	Was a tandel of a Big Rampani group Started this in 1940	-	-	-	Not stable. Internal rivalry exists
Mayadi	1955	Sheena 32	Started this group in 1955	-	-	-	Stable. There is Co-operation.

fact that he should continue to command the respect and get the confidence of more than 50 percent of the members if he desires to hold his office proves that the tandel's position is governed by the collective wills and actions of the group.

A minute observation of the various operations of the group reveals that the tandel is no more a dictator. He simply executes certain routine operations and sees that no clashes occur in decision taking. If a majority of the members of the group feel that a particular decision taken by the tandel is not in the interest of the group, the tandel must surrender to the grant will.

The duties of the tandel, as far as the Big Rampani groups are concerned, seem to be the following: (i) Getting loans from the fish dealers to arrange for preparing the nets and repairs of the boats and the old nets, (ii) Organising the crewmen, (iii) Operation of the net during the season, (iv) Auctioning the fish catch and (v) distribution of the income among the members. In performing all the above functions, his decisions are supported by his friends and relatives who usually constitute a major part of the group. That is why, it is said among the crewmen that there is not one tandel for the group; there are eighty tandels. The acting tandel performs his functions on behalf of the whole group with the full consent of the group. The important post, next to tandel's, is that of the Shanbhogue or the Account Keeper of the group. The position of the Shanbhogue is not greater than any other working member of the group except that he does a little manual work and during the rest of the time he keeps the account of group in details. Both the tandel and the Shanbhogue, though assigned with special types of jobs, equally share the income of the group with the rest of the working members of the group.

The duties of the tandel of the small rampani group are similar except that he never takes any loans from the fish dealers, for the purposes mentioned above in case of the Big Rampani groups. In fact the Small Rampani group does not require any funds as the net pieces are individually owned and the group does not hold any responsibility for its loss, repairs etc. In case of the Big Rampani group, the net pieces are held by the group and the group should make arrangements for its repairs, new preparations etc. for which, funds are required in the beginning of the season. Secondly, the responsibilities of the Small Rampani tandel are reduced to some routine matters of organisation of the group and operation of the net, because the unit is very small. Many a time, the unit functions effectively in the absence of the tandel. The third contrast between the Big and Small Rampanis is with reference to the liquidation of the capital by the individual members. In case of the Big Rampani groups, an individual member has no right to liquidate the capital of his share unless the demand for liquidation comes from more than 50 per cent of the members. In case of the small rampani group, an individual can liquidate his capital (investment in net) at any time after the clearance of his dues to the group.

We have mentioned previously that the Rampani organisations were re-organised on a co-operative basis after the master was discarded. The co-operation was both in the form of capital and labour. The co-operation seemed to be wholly successful as the members belonged to the same caste-cum-occupation group. The so-called 'one-ness' of the group should be attributed to the feeling of the members of the group belonging to one caste. The rules and regulations established by the groups are customary in character and they are smoothly workable because finally they are executed by the 'Caste Panchayats'.

The origin of the authorised rules of the Rampani organisations is not traceable. Still we may attribute it to the process of introduction of new customs in primitive caste cum occupation group which has accepted a technological change. The rules were significant from the point of view of the operation of the net, in group interests and disputes and inter group interests and disputes. The guiding principle of the rules is a fair and just living for all those members of the caste group who are engaged in the fishing occupation. Providing all incentives for the groups to increase their yield to the maximum limit possible, the rules of the caste panchayat will see that a particular group is not depriving of another group's interests while achieving its own object of maximising its yield. In the similar way, individual member's interests are also guarded. We think that a detailed list of the regulations of the groups as well as individual, which is given below, will be much interesting.

Rules which Regulate the Interests of the Groups :

1. As regards the Time of Operation :

(i) Rampanis should not be operated when three lamps on the coast are burning.

(ii) The crewmen of the boat who make the signal first should be supposed to have seen shoal first. Only that group whose men have made the signal first is entitled to operate at that particular spot.

(iii) The crewmen of the boat who make the signal next are entitled for the next place by the side of the first group, without, however, intervening in the operational field of the first group.

(iv) On holidays and days of worship, no group should operate.

2. As regards the Space of Operation :

(i) The crewmen have right to search for fish at any spot in the operational field.

(ii) They should not search for that shoal which is already claimed to have been seen by some other group.

(iii) Any search boat of a group should not follow any other search boat of the other group while searching for a shoal.

(iv) As long as a particular group is operating at a particular spot, that spot should be considered as the property of that group and no other group or individual has any right to trespass that area.

3. As regards the internal-group Interests and Disputes:

(i) No individual has any right to disclose any facts or figures about the group he belongs to without the consent of the group.

(ii) No individual should complain the group to which he belongs in front of any outsider about the shortcomings of the group like low yield, internal-group clashes, insufficient number of net pieces, etc.

(iii) Individual has no right to remain absent from work when others are working.

(iv) Individual should not indulge in clash with another individual when both of them are at work.

(v) Liability of an individual member of the group is limited to ?

(vi) Individual has freedom to leave one group and join another group. But while leaving, he should clear his dues. Meanwhile he has no claim over the part of his investment in boats and capital.

(vii) If more than 40 members of a group desire to split away from the group, then the group dissolves. The assets will be sold in the open market and the cash will be equally shared.

4. As regards the Inter-group Interests and Disputes

(i) Common worship should be arranged whenever there is low yield for a majority of the groups.

(ii) The inter-group disputes should be brought

to the Caste Panchayat tribunal and the verdiction should be accepted final.

The above list seems at the outset to be elaborate. However, we have ignored many minor points which guide both the individual and the group in their occupational behaviour. But we have a feeling that the above points are sufficient to give an idea of the smooth working of these co-operative institutions.

IV. CAPITAL STRUCTURE :

9.17 : Introduction :

In Chapter VI we discussed the general features of the capital structure in Fishing. The conclusions we arrived at were with reference to the fishing occupation in general. In this section, it is intended to present information about (i) differing volume of investment in boats, nets and other equipments for different techniques of fishing. (ii) inter-unit variations in total investment; (iii) credit system ; and (iv) capital formation. Our observations in Chapter V have revealed mainly two things. In the first place, per capita investment in Fishing is much less than that in agriculture. Secondly, percentage of investment in boats and nets is very large. In this section we start with a detailed analysis of the investment in different techniques of fishing and further give the relevant accounts of the requirements of credit and credit supply. Finally, the problems of capital formation in fishing industry are probed into.

9.18 : Differing Volume of Investment in Different Techniques of Fishing :

In table 9.5, data are given in respect of the value of the boats, net pieces, hooks and other equipments for different techniques of fishing. In case of Big Rampani fishing, the total value of investment for all the operative units in the village was calculated at Rs.90,628/ of which Rs.76,250 or 84.1 per cent are invested in the form of net pieces and Rs.14,050 or 15.5 per cent

Details of Capital Investment in Different Techniques of Fishing -

Techniques of Fishing	Boats			Net Pieces		Hooks		Line		Knives		Aqual Vessels		Total Investment Value in Rs		
	Big No.	Value in Rs	Small No.	Value in Rs	Total Value in Rs	No.	Value in Rs	No.	Value in Rs	Length in feet	Value in Rs	No.	Value in Rs		No.	Value in Rs
Big Rampani	5	8,200	20	15,850	14,050	3200	76,250	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	328	90,628
Small Rampani	4	-	-	-	-	560	13,582	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	13,582
Patta Bale	12	11,050	-	-	11,050	66	4,950	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	140	16,140
Beedu Bale	-	-	4	2,000	2,000	80	2,400	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	90	4,490
Torke Bale	-	-	1	250	250	42	544	-	-	-	-	12	16	1	35	845
Kantu Bale	-	-	-	-	-	36	360	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	360
Bepu (Big)	4	2,400	-	-	2,400	-	-	1200	120	42000	1020	24	48	2	40	3,628
Bepu (Small)	-	-	7	1,550	1,550	-	-	10,300	440	-	920	32	32	-	-	2,942
Thrownet	-	-	15	1,515	1,515	96	1,577	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,002
Hand Hook	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32	32	-	-	-	-	-	-	32
Bepu (river)	-	-	1	35	35	-	-	1,400	56	-	28	-	-	-	-	119
Jaggu Bale	-	-	-	-	-	4	500	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	500

in the form of boats. Investment on aungal vessels is only Rs.328. In case of the Small Rampani fishing, the total investment is Rs.13,582. It is only on the net pieces that the investment is made and it is reported that the same boats used in case of the Big Rampani fishing are utilised by the Small Rampani groups also. In case of the Patta Bale, Rs.4,950 or 30.5 per cent are invested in net pieces and the investment in boats amounted to Rs.11,050 or 68 per cent of the total investment. It is but natural that the ratios of investments in net pieces and boats vary widely in case of Rampani Fishing and Patta Bale Fishing, because the former is an on-shore technique demanding of less investment in form of boats while the latter is a near-shore technique requiring comparatively more investment in boats. In the similar way, we shall find that, in case of the Big Bepu technique, 66.9 per cent of the investment is on boats while only 28.4 per cent is on the line. However, Beedu Bale, Torke Bale and Kantu Bale (all are near shore techniques) require less investment on boats than on net pieces, because in these cases the boats apart from being used for catching the fish, are not used for operational purpose but, are also used as a means of transport to the operational ground. In case of the throw nets used in the back water, the ratio of the investment on boats and net pieces is almost equal.

9.19 : Inter-Unit Variations in Total Investment :

In this sub-section, our purpose is to see whether inter-unit variations in investments on different investment heads for a given technique of fishing are reported, and if so to what extent they vary. Inter-unit variations in investments are important because they are reflected in the inter-unit divergences in yield for the given technique during the given fishing season. In the following paragraphs the attempt is to see such variations for important techniques of fishing.

Table 9.6 :

- Equipments of the Five Big Ranpani Groups -

Net Group	Nets		Boats		Rope		Sinkers		Floaters		Total value Rs
	No. Pcs.	Value Rs	No.	Value Rs	Yds.	Value Rs	No.	Value Rs	No.	Value Rs	
(1)Thottam Hale	640	15,100	5	3200	1800	1500	500	-	2500	375	2,0175
(2)Thottam Hosa	640	15,250	5	3000	1800	1500	500	-	2500	375	2,0125
(3)Hoode	640	15,200	5	3000	1800	1500	500	-	2500	375	2,0075
(4)Kalyanpur	640	15,000	5	2700	1800	1500	500	-	2500	375	1,9775
(5)Darbar	640	15,100	5	3000	1800	1500	500	-	2500	375	1,9975

Table 9.7 :

Equipments of the Kai-rempani Net-groups.

Net Group	Net Pieces		Boats		Rope		Sinkers		Floaters		Total Value Rs
	No.	Value Rs	No.	Value Rs	Yds	Value Rs	No.	Value Rs	No.	Value Rs	
Hoode	128	3072	1	1500	960	450	256	128	450	55	5205
Kolambe	152	3660	1	1800	960	450	304	152	500	60	6122
Thottam	152	3500	1	1800	960	450	304	152	500	60	5962
Mayadi	128	3200	1	1500	960	450	256	128	450	55	5333

Table 9.8 :

Equipments of the Patta Bale Groups.

Patta Bale Groups	Net Pieces		Boats		Sinkers		Floaters		Total Value
	No.	Value in Rs	No.	Value in Rs	No.	Value in Rs	No.	Value in Rs	
Dasappa Saliyan	14	1,050	3	2,500	70	35	70	17	3,602
H. Soma Markal	16	1,200	3	2,650	80	40	80	20	3,910
U. Mada Tandel	20	1,500	3	3,200	100	50	100	25	4,775
Jogi Markal	16	1,200	3	2,700	80	40	80	20	3,960

In table 9.6 figures are given in respect of the investments on net pieces, boats, ropes, sinkers and floaters for five Big Rampani units operative on the Paduthonse coast. In case of the number of net pieces, it is same for all the five groups while the value in Rs. of the net pieces varies from Rs.15000 to Rs.15250. On the other hand, number of boats remaining equal for all the groups, value of boats varies from Rs.2700 to Rs.3200. In case of ropes, sinkers, floaters etc there is no variation in investment at all. We may safely conclude that the volume of inter-unit investment in case of Big Rampani groups varies very little.

In table 9.7 data are presented in respect of the inter-unit investments in boats, net pieces etc for four Small Rampani groups, which are operative on the Paduthonse coast. In case of the two groups, the number of net pieces was only 128 while in case of the rest two, it was 152. The value of the net pieces varied from Rs.3072 to Rs.3660. Each Small Rampani group used one big boat, but we may not take into account the investment on boats because they are not actually owned by the groups. Instead, they belong to the Big Rampani groups of which the crewmen of the respective units are the members. In respect of the ropes, the investment does not vary from unit to unit. In case of sinkers and floaters, the variations are from Rs.128 to Rs.152 and from Rs.55 to Rs.60 respectively. Total investment, it may be seen varies from Rs.5205 to Rs.6122.

Table 9.8 gives data about the investment in net pieces, boats etc of four Patta Bale units belonging to Paduthonse. The number of net pieces varies from 14 to 20 and the value of the net pieces from Rs.1050 to Rs.1500. The number of the boats owned is equal for all the four units while the value of the boats varies from Rs.2500 to Rs.3200. The number of sinkers and that of floaters in each case varies from 70 to 100 and the value in respect

Table 9.9 :

Equipments of the Bepu (Big) Establishments.

Bepu(Big) Establishments	No. of Units	Boats		Hooks		Line Length in feet	Value in Rs	Knives		Total value of equipments Rs
		No.	Value in Rs	No.	Value in Rs			No.	Value in Rs	
Giriya Tandel	2	2	1,300	600	60	21,000	510	11	22	1,892
Kadri Byari	2	2	1,100	600	60	21,000	510	13	26	1,696
Total	4	4	2,400	1200	120	42,000	1,020	24	48	3,588

of sinkers varies from Rs. 35 to Rs. 50 and that in respect of floaters from Rs. 17 to Rs. 25. Lastly, the variation in total investment is from Rs. 3602 to Rs. 4775.

There are two Bepu (big) establishments in Paduthonse and each establishment owns two Bepu units. Table 7.9 gives information about the volume of investment on boats, hooks, line, etc of the two Bepu (big) establishments. The figure reveal that the investment on boats varies from Rs. 1100 to Rs. 1300. On the other hand, investment on hooks and lines do not vary. One establishment owns 11 knives while the other one owns 13. The variation in the total investment is from Rs. 1696 to Rs. 1892.

V. EMPLOYMENT PATTERN :

9.22 Employment in Big Rampani Fishing :

The purpose of this section is two fold. In the first instance, an account of the persons engaged, in different units of the techniques of fishing prevalent in Paduthonse will be presented. It is tried to see how many actual fishermen are engaged in a particular technique of fishing. They are classified as belonging to the village and not belonging to the village. Further, it is tried to note how many of them are actual members owning the share in capital and how many work as Khalasis or non-members worker working as wage basis. The second purpose is to see how different combinations of techniques followed by individual fishermen during different period of the year have influenced their employment and income. The idea is to see which combination yields the maximum income to an individual and what is the general response of the individual fishermen to that combination. Meanwhile we also examine the possible competitive and complementary nature of different techniques of fishing.

While considering the employment pattern of the fishing occupation, we have taken into account the following facts about the individuals engaged in a

Table 9.10 :

Facts about the membership of the residents of the Paduthonse village in the Big Rampani Groups.

Table 9.10:A

Facts about the Rampani Workers from the Village.

Rampani Workers	Working as members	Working as khalasis*	Total
Working in the village groups	87	-	87
Working in the outside groups	28	13	41
Total Rampani workers of the village.	115	13	128

Table 9.10:B:

Facts about the membership of the village Rampani Groups

Name of the Rampani Group	Total workers	Of whom mem-bers	Of whom kha-lasis*	Workers from the village	Of whom mem-bers	Of whom Kha-lasis*
Thottam Hale	78	72	6	18	18	-
Thottam Eosa	75	75	-	15	15	-
Hoode	78	74	4	26	26	-
Kalyanpur	72	68	4	7	7	-
Darbar	78	78	-	21	21	-
<u>Total</u>	<u>381</u>	<u>357</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>-</u>

* Khalasi = A non-member worker working on wage basis.

particular technique of fishing: (i) whether the person is a resident of the village or non-resident in case he is working in a unit operating on the Paduthonse coast. (ii) A resident of the village working in the units belonging to other villages, and (iii) whether the individual is working as a member of the group owning the share in the capital or a non-member working on wage basis. In table 9.10A we have presented data about the big Rampani workers from the village and have classified them as working in the village groups or working in the outside groups. We have also further classified the workers as members and Khalasis. We see that of the total 128 Big Rampani workers of the village, 87 are working in the village groups while 41 are working in the outside groups. Only 13 are working as Khalasis while 115 are the members of different R-ampani groups. All the Khalasis are working in the outside groups and it may be explained that the master owned groups are non-prevalent on the village coast.

In table 9.10B we have presented data about the total number of workers in different Big Rampani units operating on the Paduthonse coast. Such workers are further classified as belonging to the Paduthonse village or not, and members and Khalasis. In the first instance, it is important to note that a large majority of the workers of different Big Rampani units operating on the Paduthonse coast come from other neighbouring villages. Of the total 381 working fishermen, only 87 belong to the Paduthonse village and the rest are taken from other villages. However, it is seen that the proportion of the resident workers to the outsiders varies from group to group. For example, in Hoode group, the residents are better represented and in Kalyanpur group, the representation is very poor. Secondly, the proportion of the Khalasis to the member worker is insignificant as all the five groups operating are self-owned by the actual fishermen.

9.23 : Employment in Small Rampani Fishing :

In table 9.11 A, we have presented the facts about the Kairampani workers belonging to the village. The figures reveal that the proportion of the resident workers working in village groups to those working in outside groups will not compare in degree to similar figures about the Big Rampani groups. Of the total 78 resident workers, only 8 are working in the outside groups. In case of the resident workers working in Kai-Rampani groups, no Khalasis were reported.

Facts about the membership of the residents of the Paduthonse village in the Kai-rampani groups.

Table 9.11 A

Facts about the Kai-rampani workers from the village.

Kai-rampani workers	Working as members	Working as Khalasis	Total
Working in the village groups	70	-	70
Working in the outside groups	8	-	8
Total Kai-rampani workers of the village	78	-	78

Table 9.11 B

Facts about the membership of the village Kai-rampani Groups.

Name of the Kai-rampani Group	Total Workers	Of Whom members	Of Whom Khalasis	Workers from the village	Of Whom Members	Of Whom Khalasis
Hooode	36	32	4	27	27	-
Kolambe	38	38	-	14	14	-
Thottam	38	38	-	14	14	-
Mayadi	32	32	-	15	15	-
Total	144	140	4	70	70	-

Table 9.12

Facts about the membership of the residents of the Paduthonse village in the Patta Bale Organisations.

Table 9.12:A:

Facts about the Patta Bale workers from the village.

<u>Patta Bale Workers</u>	<u>Working as members</u>	<u>Working as khalasis</u>	<u>Total</u>
Working in the village groups	8	12	20
Working in the Outside groups	12	8	20
Total Patta Bale workers of the village.	20	20	40

Table 9.12:B:

Facts about the membership of the village Patta Bale Groups.

<u>Name of the Patta Bale Groups Operating on the village coast.</u>	<u>Total workers</u>	<u>Of Whom Men- bers.</u>	<u>Kha- lasis.</u>	<u>Workers from the village.</u>	<u>Of Whom Men- bers.</u>	<u>Kha- lasis.</u>
Dasappa Saliyan	14	14	-	8	8	-
H. Sona Markal	16	-	16	8	-	8
U. Mada Tandel	20	20	-	-	-	-
Jogi Markal	16	-	16	4	-	4
Total	66	34	32	20	8	12

In table 9.11B data about the membership of the village Kairampani groups are presented. The classification of the members is done in the same way as it is done in case of the workers of the Big Rampani groups. The figures reveal that of the total 144 Kai-Rampani workers of the village units, 70 belong to the village and rest are outsiders. This proportion is bigger when it is compared to that of the Big Rampani workers. It can also be seen that inter-unit proportions vary to some extent. The proportion of the Khalasis to the member workers is very insignificant in the same way as it is in case of the Big Rampani workers.

9.24 : Employment in Patta Bale Fishing :

Facts about the Patta Bale workers from the village are presented in table 9.12A and the workers are classified as (i) working in the village groups and outside groups and (ii) working as a member and as a Khalasi. Of the total 40 workers, 20 are working in the village groups and 20 in the outside groups. Similarly 20 are working as Khalasis and 20 as members. A large proportion of the Khalasis to the member workers is due to the fact that the Patta Bale organisations are partly controlled by the master fisherman.

In table 9.12 B we have presented data about the workers of the Patta Bale groups operating on the Paduthonse coast. The workers are classified as (i) belonging to the village and not belonging to the village, and (ii) members and khalasis. Of the total 66 workers, only 20 belong to the village and the rest are outsiders. The member workers and khalasis are almost equal in strength. In the first case, it is significant to note that one unit is not at all represented by the residents of the Paduthonse village though it is operating on the village coast throughout the season.

The above analysis of the workers engaged in Big Rampani, Small Rampani and Patta Bale units reveals the

following facts (i) A large majority of the working fishermen are mobilised from the neighbouring villages; (ii) A significant number of the residents fishermen are employed in the units belong to the other villages, and (iii) in large majority of the cases, capital is owned by the working fishermen.

The question at the outset may arise, why a section of the resident fishermen were deprived of the employment opportunities in the units belonging to the village and operating on the village coast? And why outsiders are preferred? The answers to such questions will be complicated because it involves a delicate sociological problem like the kinship and blood relation which is an important factor for co-operation in a primitive society. A sociological study investigating the factor of kinship and blood relations among the members of the group may reveal very important results. As the scope of our present study was limited, we did not go deep into that matter. However, our general observations reveal an important fact which may be found true after an intensive enquiry. What we observed was that many of the members of an operative unit are near or distant relatives spread over in the neighbouring villages.

9.25 : Employment in other Techniques of Fishing :

In tables 9.13 and 9.14 we present information about the employment and income from other techniques of sea fishing and river fishing respectively. As these are the minor techniques and the operative units are small, information for individual units of a particular technique are not given. The figures supply information about the number of persons engaged in each technique, total man-days employed in a particular technique of fishing, number of mandays per person engaged, total income and income per man day. In this context, we define a man-day as a day when a person engages himself in a

particular technique of fishing without any consideration for the number of hours. It should be noted, therefore, that these man days serve a rough means of calculating the employment conditions of the fishermen.

Table 9.13

Employment and Income from other techniques of Sea Fishing.

Techniques of Fishing	No. of Persons engaged	Man-days	No. of mandays per person engaged	Income Rs	Income per manday
Beedubale	16	192	12	1,890	9.84
Torkebale	12	675	56	800	1.18
Kantubale	4	60	15	215	3.58
Bepu (small)	18	3300	183	3680	1.12

Table 9.14

Employment and Income from different techniques of River Fishing

Techniques of Fishing	No. of persons engaged	Man days	No. of mandays per person engaged	Income Rs	Income per manday Rs
Thrownet	84	6445	68	6275	1.15
Handhook	13	1715	114	2320	1.35
Bepu (River)	7	320	46	310	0.96
Jaggu	5	110	22	650	5.90

The information presented in table 9.13 reveals that among the minor techniques of sea fishing, per capita employment in case of Bepu (Small) is the highest while its income per manday is the lowest. As the minor techniques are of seasonal importance, per manday income is high in case of those techniques which are operated on supply conditions in periods of scarcity; hence higher prices for fresh and particular varieties of fish.

In case of the techniques of river fishing, hand line or more commonly known as hand hook technique provided better employment for an individual than any other technique

could provide. (See table 9.14). Still a large majority of the persons are engaged in throw net fishing, because it provides a complementary source of income during rainy season for those who are mainly engaged in Big Rampani or Patta Bale fishing.

Availability of fish in the sea is a seasonal matter. The fisherman hence keeps himself prepared to catch any type of fish when other varieties are not available. Hence the different techniques. The entire occupation is geared to this fact and as such is spread over the year into different techniques.

(VI) FISH YIELD :

9.26: Yield divergences in Big Rampani Fishing :

In fishing, yield is rather uncertain. Yields are unstable during a season and from season to season. This section has two purposes: (1) To analyse the microsetting of the Big Rampani fishing based on the data given from Section III to Section V. (2) To show the occurrence of yield divergences for individual net group during the season under review.

The season for Big Rampani operation starts in late October and will be over by early April. During the survey year, the season started in early November and lasted till middle April. Usually Mackerel and Sardine are the two main varieties of fish caught during the season. The usual Sardine crop did not appear during the season under review. Mackerel which constituted 91 percent of the total yield was the single major crop harvested throughout the season. Other minor variety of fish constituted the rest 9 per cent of the total yield.

It was learnt that the season takes different phases which are governed by the frequency and size of the crop. A phase is distinguishable from the subsequent phases in the following respects :

(1) A phase starts with a short period of non-operative days for the reasons (a) fish not found and (b) rough sea .

Percentage distribution of yield from different techniques of fishing in Paduthose (1958-59)

Technique of Fishing		Yield in kilograms	Percentage of total
SEA-FISHING :			
I. On shore.	Big Rampani	727,558	69.7
	Small Rampani	55,242	5.3
II. Near - shore.	Patta Bale	101,284	9.7
	Beedu Bale	7,340*	0.7
	Torke Bale	6,720	0.6
	Kantu Bale	358*	-
III. Deep sea	Bepu(Big)	109,200	10.5
	Bepu(Small)	15,456*	1.5
RIVER-FISHING:			
IV. Backwater	Thrownet	12,550	1.2
	Handhook	4,640	0.4
	Bepu(river)	620	-
V. Estuary	Jaggu Bale	2,744	0.3
TOTAL		1,043,712	100.0

* Yield is estimated on the basis of gross income in Rupees.

Table 9.16 :

Employment during different phases of Rampeni Season (1958-59)

<u>Time-span of the phase</u>	<u>No. of net days</u>		<u>Percentage harvest yield of total yield</u>
		Percentage	
First Harvest - 1st Nov. '58 - 18th Nov. '58 -	23	(11.7)	23.2
Second Harvest-19th Nov. '58 - 26th Dec. '58 -	47	(24.0)	41.2
Third Harvest -27th Dec. '58 - 7th Jan. '59 -	18	(9.2)	16.7
Fourth Harvest- 8th Jan. '59 - 30th Jan. '59 -	29	(14.8)	5.2
Fifth Harvest -31st Jan. '59 - 3rd March '59-	44	(22.4)	9.8
Sixth Harvest - 4th March '59- 17th April '59-	35	(17.9)	3.9
	<u>196</u>	(100.0)	(100.0)

(2) The shoal appears in small size. One or two net groups are operative.

(3) The shoal appears in big size . Most of the net groups are operative.

(4) The shoal ceases to be big because it is (a) scattered, (b) taken other direction or (c) exhausted. One or two net groups are operative.

(5) Again a short period of non-operative days for the reasons mentioned in (1). Then the subsequent phase follows.

The season under review took as many as six different phases as distinguished above . Operative period of each such phase is called as a 'harvest' throughout our further discussion. The time span of each harvest and the percentage harvest yield is given in table 9.15.

The present data permit us to relate divergences in yields to 5 Big Rampani Groups of Paduthonse coast. All the eleven groups operative on the coast between Malpe Port and Swarna river mouth are free to move to any spot on the six mile coast line following an appearance of a shoal. But, usually their movements are limited to their own spots for (i) lack of knowledge of a particular shoal, and (ii) other difficulties relating to mobility. Here we are guided by our observation to assume that the groups are operative on their own spots and their appearance on other spots is unusual and negligible.

Among the known factors in general, divergences in (i) equipments and (ii) quality of the leadership are the main factors influencing yield. In the first place, value of the equipments of the five Big Rampani Groups in Paduthonse is given in table 9.6. It is revealed that the Groups are almost homogeneously equipped. So, the possibility of the divergences in equipments influencing yield is ruled out.

Secondly information collected in table 9.3 gives

some idea about the quality of the leadership which might have been a factor influencing the divergences in yield. Though it is concluded that there exists some inequality in the quality of the leadership for the five groups, it is difficult to say to what extent this factor will be responsible for the yield divergences.

9.27 : Yield divergences under classified operative days :

An operative day is defined as a day when one or more groups are operative. Out of 168 days available during the season, only 99 days were operative. The rest, 69 days were not operative due to (i) rough sea (ii) fish not found (iii) festival day and so forth. The operative days are classified in respect of the number of net groups operating. The number of operative days under each category and the percentage of total yield is shown in table 9.17. The present data permit us to relate yield divergences for five Big Rampani groups to (i) classified operative days and (ii) different harvests.

Table 9.17

Category	No. of operative days	Percentage of total yield
I One group operative days	41	8.5
II Two groups operative days	37	30.6
III Three groups operative days	7	5.1
IV Four groups operative days	10	26.0
V Five groups operative days	4	29.8
	99	100.0

The data presented in Table 9.18 reveal that there exists wide variation in yield for the five Big Rampani groups under each category of operative days. The yield of a net group under each category is dependent on

Table 9.16 :

Yield variations for 5 Big Rampani Groups under classified Operative days during the season (1958 - 1959) .

NET GROUPS:	One Group operative days (I)			Two Groups Operative days (II)			Three Groups Operative days (III)			Four Groups Operative days (IV)			Five Groups Operative days (V)			Total Operative days		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Thottam Hale	5	205 (5.4)	41	16	2222 (16.2)	139	5	238 (10.4)	48	10	3305 (28.3)	330	4	540 (4.0)	135	40	6510 (14.8)	163
Thottam Hosa	6	395 (10.3)	66	14	2427 (17.7)	173	2	915 (39.8)	458	9	1653 (16.2)	184	4	7410 (55.3)	1852	35	1,2800 (28.5)	366
Hoode	8	904 (23.7)	113	20	5635 (41.0)	282	7	530 (23.1)	76	8	2383 (20.4)	298	4	1030 (7.7)	257	47	1,0482 (23.3)	223
Kalyanpur	8	510 (13.4)	64	13	1416 (10.3)	109	4	240 (10.4)	60	6	1349 (11.5)	225	4	2730 (20.4)	682	35	6245 (13.9)	178
Darbar	14	1800 (47.2)	129	11	2029 (14.8)	183	3	375 (16.3)	125	7	2990 (25.6)	426	4	1680 (12.6)	420	39	8874 (19.8)	227
<u>TOTAL</u>	41	3814 (100)	93	37	13729 (100)	185	7	2298 (100)	109	10	11680 (100)	292	4	13390 (100)	669	196	4,4911 (100)	229

- 1 = No. of operative days
 2 = Yield (No. of baskets)*
 3 = Yield per Operative day (No. of baskets)*
 * = A basketful of fresh fish weighs about 16.20 kilograms

(i) number of net-catches and (ii) quantity of yield per net-catch. And it is also revealed that both (i) and (ii) vary for each net group under each category on a wide scale for which no explanation can be given. Perhaps the only factor that may be mentioned here is that the yield is guided by the uncontrollable element of 'fisherman's luck!

We have already seen that II, IV and V are the 'high yield' categories of the operative days, altogether constituting about 85 per cent of the total yield. While the I and III are the 'low yield' categories constituting only 14 per cent of the total yield. The following conclusions may be drawn in this respect :

(i) The net groups which have caught a major portion of the yield of one or more 'high yield' categories, despite their poor performance in rest of the categories, have established a good record. Example: "Thottam Hosa" shared 55.3 per cent of the V category yield. Its performance was very poor in I, II and IV categories. Despite that, after totalling the yields of all the categories, it was first in rank.

(ii) Very good (above average and first in rank) and very bad (below average and last in rank) performances in two of the high yield categories respectively have a tendency to cancel out the opposing influences. Example : "Hooche" has a very good record (41.0 per cent) in II category, while its poor performance (7.7 per cent) in Vth category has levelled down that figure. However, "Hooche" has more than average performance in rest of the categories and it could maintain the second rank.

(iii) Below average performance in most of the categories has brought down the total yield. Example : "Thottam Hale" except in category IV (28.3 per cent) and "Kalyanpur" except in category V (20.4 per cent) have recorded below average yields. They are 4th and 5th in rank.

Table 9.19 :

Yield variations for 5 Big Rampani Groups in different harvests during the season (1958-59)

	First Harvest			Second Harvest			Third Harvest			Fourth Harvest			Fifth Harvest			Sixth Harvest			Total Yield
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
Thottam Hale	3	1780 (17.2)	593	10	1745 (9.4)	174	5	1590 (21.1)	318	5	595 (25.6)	119	12	582 (13.2)	48	5	218 (12.4)	44	6,510 (14.5)
Thottam Hosa	5	5455 (52.5)	1091	10	4901 (26.5)	490	3	900 (11.9)	300	6	340 (14.6)	57	8	1059 (23.9)	132	3	145 (8.2)	48	12,800 (28.5)
Hoode	6	1445 (13.9)	241	8	4100 (22.2)	512	4	1995 (26.6)	499	7	658 (28.2)	94	10	1697 (38.5)	170	12	587 (33.2)	49	10,482 (23.3)
Kalyanpur	4	540 (5.2)	135	9	3963 (21.5)	440	2	820 (10.9)	410	6	137 (5.8)	23	7	237 (5.4)	34	7	548 (31.0)	78	6,245 (13.9)
Darbar	5	1170 (11.2)	234	10	3790 (20.4)	379	4	2206 (29.3)	551	5	600 (25.8)	120	7	840 (19.0)	120	8	268 (15.2)	33	8,874 (19.8)
<u>TOTAL</u>	23	1,0390 (100)	451	47	18499 (100)	393	18	7511 (100)	417	29	2330 (100)	80	44	4415 (100)	100	35	1766 (100)	80	44,911 (100)

- 1 = No. of net catches .
 2 = Yield (No. of baskets)*
 3 = Yield per operative day
 (No. of baskets)*
 * = A basketful of fresh fish
 weighs about 16.20 kilograms.

and 5th in rank.

9.28 : Yield divergences under different harvests :

The 1st, 2nd and the 3rd harvests together constitute 81 percent of the total yield and the 4th, 5th and the 6th constitute only 19 per cent of the yield. The first three are the 'high yield' and the last three are the 'low yield' harvests. Table 9.19 gives the data regarding the yield variations for 5 Big Rampani Groups in different harvests. It is observed that poor yields in some harvests are compensated by good yields in other harvests, taking into consideration the 'high yield' and 'low yield' characteristics of the harvests. Similar conclusions are drawn here also.

(i) Net groups which have caught a major portion of the 'high yield' harvests, despite their poor performance in 'low yield' harvests, have established a good record.

Example : The yield of 'Thottam Hosa' constitutes 52.5 per cent and 26.5 per cent of the first and the second harvests respectively. Its poor performance in 3rd, 4th and 6th harvests is compensated.

(ii) Poor performance in one of the 'high yield' harvests is compensated by good performance in most of the low yield harvests.

Example : Hoode performed very poorly (13.9 percent) in the 1st harvest. Its good performance in 4th, 5th and 6th harvests has compensated.

(iii) Poor performance in most of the 'high yield' as well as 'low yield' harvests has brought down the total yield.

Example : 'Thottam Hale' except in 3rd (21.1 percent) and 4th (25.6 per cent) harvests, 'Kalyanpur' except in 2nd (21.5 per cent) and 6th (31.0 per cent) harvests, have recorded below average yields. Their respective total yields are drastically brought down below average.

9.29 : Yield from Kairampani Groups :

Table 9.20 :

Monthwise yield of the Kairampani net groups					
(No. of Baskets)					
Net groups	July	August	September	October	Total
Hoods	2300 (25.2)	10,920 (46.8)	9,180 (49.4)	7,700 (67.1)	30,100 (48.1)
Kolambe	3420 (37.5)	6,000 (25.7)	4,180 (22.5)	2,300 (20.0)	15,900 (25.4)
Thottam	2500 (27.4)	4,417 (18.9)	4,115 (22.1)	790 (6.9)	11,822 (18.9)
Mayadi	900 (9.9)	2,015 (8.6)	1,120 (6.0)	685 (6.0)	4,720 (7.6)
<u>Total</u>	9120 (100.0)	23,352 (100.0)	18,595 (100.0)	11,475 (100.0)	62,542 (100.0)

9.29 : Yield from Kairampani Groups :

Table 9.20 gives data about the monthwise distribution of the yield from the Kairampani groups belonging to Paduthonse. Kairampani groups are operative from July to October. August and September are the high yielding months for Kairampani recording 37.3 per cent and 29.7 % of the yield respectively. On the other hand July and October are the low yielding months sharing only 14.6% and 18.4% of the total yield respectively. Figures given in table 7.20 reveal the yield divergences for different Kairampani groups during different months. 'Hooode' is first in rank reaping 48.1 per cent of the total yield for the whole season and 'Kolambe' (25.4 per cent) . Thottam (18.9 percent) and 'Mayadi' (7.6 per cent) are in diminishing ranks. Except in the month of July which is a low yielding month, 'Hooode' has reaped the highest yield for all the months during the season. The performance of 'Kolambe' was highest in July (37.5 percent), just above average in August (25.7 percent) and below average in September (22.5 percent) and October (20 percent). Hence 'Kolambe' could maintain average yield of 25.4 percent for the whole season. "Thottam's" performance was below average in all the high yielding months. Only in July, it was 27.4 percent of the total yield. In October it was less than 7 percent . Throughout the season, "Mayadi's" performance was very poor. It was below 10 percent in the months of July and August and was only 6 percent in September and October. Hence the performance of 'Mayadi' was very poor (7.6%).

9.30 : Yield from Patta Bale groups :

There were four Patta Bale groups which were operative for nine months from September to May. Months from October to January were high yielding while September February, March, April and May were low yielding. Monthwise distribution of the yield for high yielding months was 15.6 percent for October , 22.3 percent for

Table 9.21 :

- Monthwise Yield of the Patta Bale Groups -

(No. of Baskets)

Net Groups	Sept.	Octo.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	Total
Dasappa Saliyan	42 (18.9)	360 (36.9)	405 (29.0)	255 (20.5)	186 (21.2)	114 (17.3)	45 (10.9)	60 (18.2)	15 (10.9)	1482 (23.7)
H. Soma Markal	27 (12.2)	195 (20.0)	345 (24.7)	240 (19.3)	165 (18.8)	105 (15.9)	72 (17.5)	45 (13.6)	18 (13.0)	1212 (19.4)
U. Mada Tandel	135 (60.8)	285 (29.2)	315 (22.6)	540 (43.4)	345 (39.5)	315 (47.7)	210 (51.1)	165 (50.0)	75 (54.4)	2385 (38.1)
Jogi Markal	18 (8.1)	135 (13.9)	330 (23.7)	210 (16.8)	180 (20.5)	126 (19.1)	84 (20.5)	60 (18.2)	30 (21.7)	1173 (18.8)
TOTAL	222 (100.0)	975 (100.0)	1395 (100.0)	1245 (100.0)	876 (100.0)	650 (100.0)	411 (100.0)	830 (100.0)	138 (100.0)	6252 (100.0)

November, 19.9 percent for December and 14.0 percent for January. For low yielding months, it was 3.5 percent for September, 10.6 percent for February, 6.6 percent for March, 5.3 percent for April and 2.2 percent for May. In table 9.21 data are given in respect of yield divergences for the Patta Bale groups during different months. The figures reveal that the group lead by U.Mada Tandel was first in rank collecting 38.1 percent of the total yield during the season. The rest of the three groups, namely, Dasappa Saliyan's (23.7 percent), H.Soma Markal's (19.4 percent) and Jogi Markal's (18.8%) have collected each below average yield. U.Mada Tandel's group has very good performance during September (60.8%) December (43.4 percent) , January (39.5 percent), February (47.7 percent), March (51.1 percent), April - (50.0 percent) and May (54.4 percent). Dasappa Saliyan's ranked first in October (36.9 percent) and November - (29.0 percent). Again Dasappa Saliyan's was record in rank during September (18.9 percent), December (20.5 %) January (21.2 percent) and April (18.2 percent). On the other hand, Jogi Markal's was last in rank during September (8.1 percent) , October (13.9 percent) and December (16.8 percent) and third in rank during November - (23.7 percent) and January (20.5 percent).

It may be concluded on the basis of the above analysis that inter group monthly yield variations contribute to the yield divergences during a season.

(VII) DISPOSAL OF FISH AND PRICE SYSTEM :

9.31 : Disposal of the Big Rampani Yield :

A very negligible portion of the Big Rampani Yield is retained for self consumption by the fishermen and almost the whole yield is disposed off (a) in an auction to the wholesale fish dealers for saltings and (b) to the basket women for retail sale in the local and neighbouring markets. Table 9.22 gives the proportions of the quantity

Table 9.22:

- Disposal of the fish by five Big Rampani Groups -
(Quantity in number of baskets)

Harvest	Kind of Fish	Thottam Hale		Thottam Hosa		Hoode		Kalyannur		Darbar		Total		Total
		Whole-sale	Retail sale	Whole-sale	Retail sale	Whole-sale	Retail sale	Whole-sale	Retail sale	Whole-sale	Retail sale	Whole-sale	Retail sale	
First Harvest	Mackerel	1460 (100.0)	-	1697 (99.2)	13 (0.8)	780 (95.1)	40 (4.9)	110 (100.0)	-	900 (98.9)	10 (1.1)	4947 (98.7)	63 (1.3)	5,010
	Other variety	300 (93.7)	20 (6.3)	3690 (98.5)	55 (1.5)	580 (92.8)	45 (7.2)	410 (95.3)	20 (4.7)	230 (88.8)	30 (11.5)	5210 (96.8)	170 (3.2)	5,380
Second Harvest	Mackerel	1430 (86.7)	220 (13.3)	4600 (95.0)	240 (5.0)	3525 (94.7)	195 (5.3)	3500 (94.3)	210 (5.7)	3550 (93.7)	240 (6.3)	16605 (93.7)	1105 (6.3)	17,710
	Other variety	50 (52.6)	45 (47.4)	55 (90.2)	6 (9.8)	340 (89.5)	40 (10.5)	188 (74.3)	65 (25.7)	-	-	633 (80.2)	156 (19.8)	789
Third Harvest	Mackerel	1390 (90.8)	140 (9.2)	760 (84.4)	140 (15.6)	1775 (89.0)	220 (11.0)	680 (82.9)	140 (17.1)	1976 (89.6)	230 (10.4)	6581 (88.3)	870 (11.7)	7,451
	Other variety	-	60 (100.0)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	60 (100.0)	60
Fourth Harvest	Mackerel	400 (86.0)	65 (14.0)	200 (74.1)	70 (25.9)	415 (74.8)	140 (25.2)	-	40 (100.0)	360 (67.3)	175 (32.7)	1375 (73.7)	490 (26.3)	1,865
	Other variety	20 (15.4)	110 (84.6)	-	70 (100.0)	-	103 (100.0)	-	97 (100.0)	-	65 (100.0)	20 (4.3)	445 (95.7)	465
Fifth Harvest	Mackerel	180 (39.0)	282 (61.0)	730 (75.6)	235 (21.4)	1230 (77.6)	355 (22.4)	30 (20.7)	115 (79.3)	600 (78.9)	160 (21.1)	2770 (70.7)	1147 (29.3)	3,917
	Other variety	-	120 (100.0)	-	94 (100.0)	-	112 (100.0)	-	92 (100.0)	-	80 (100.0)	-	498 (100.0)	498
Sixth Harvest	Mackerel	88 (51.8)	82 (48.2)	35 (39.9)	55 (61.1)	170 (70.8)	70 (29.2)	360 (81.8)	80 (18.2)	70 (53.8)	60 (44.2)	723 (67.6)	347 (32.4)	1,070
	Other variety	-	48 (100.0)	-	55 (100.0)	-	347 (100.0)	-	108 (100.0)	-	138 (100.0)	-	696 (100.0)	696
Whole Season	Mackerel	4948 (86.2)	789 (13.8)	8022 (91.4)	753 (9.6)	7895 (88.6)	1020 (11.4)	4680 (88.9)	585 (11.1)	7456 (89.5)	875 (10.5)	33001 (89.2)	6505 (10.8)	37,006
	Other variety	370 (47.9)	403 (52.1)	3745 (93.0)	280 (7.0)	920 (58.7)	647 (41.3)	598 (61.0)	382 (39.0)	230 (42.4)	313 (57.6)	5863 (74.4)	2015 (25.6)	7,888

Note: Figures in brackets are proportions of fish disposed off to fish retained.
One basketful of fresh fish weighs approximately 16.20 kilograms.

Table 9.23 :

- Price variations for the yield disposed off in different harvests -

(auction price per basket*)

Net Group	Kind of Fish	First Harvest Rs. NP	Second Harvest Rs. NP	Third Harvest Rs. NP	Fourth Harvest Rs. NP	Fifth Harvest Rs. NP	Sixth Harvest Rs. NP	For the Whole Season Rs. NP
Thottam Hale	Mackerel	3.59	2.94	2.17	6.00	4.88	6.00	3.29
	Other- variety	2.33	3.20	-	7.50	-	-	2.73
Thottam Hosa	Mackerel	4.02	2.90	1.87	3.00	4.16	6.47	3.17
	Other- variety	2.63	5.00	-	-	-	-	2.63
Hoode	Mackerel	3.35	2.03	2.40	2.59	4.55	4.94	3.00
	Other- variety	1.99	3.23	-	-	-	-	2.45
Kalyanpur	Mackerel	3.27	2.93	2.50	-	4.66	6.59	3.17
	Other - variety	1.62	2.42	-	-	-	-	1.87
Darbar	Mackerel	3.55	2.94	2.56	2.70	3.20	3.78	2.93
	Other - variety	1.30	-	-	-	-	-	1.30
On an average	Mackerel	3.69	2.83	2.35	3.67	4.18	5.85	3.09
	Other - variety	2.40	3.14	-	7.50	-	-	2.49

* One basketful of fresh fish weighs approximately 16.20 kilograms.

of fish disposed off between the wholesale dealers and the retailers by the five Big Rampani groups during different harvests. Separate figures are given for 'Mackerel's and 'other variety' of the total fish yield. In the case of the mackerel fish, 89.2 percent of the total fish disposed off was sold to the wholesale fish dealers in the auction. Only 10.8 percent was sold to the basket women. On the other hand, 23.6 percent of the other variety of fish was sold to the basket women. It should be however noted that the mackerel yield was nearly four times more than that of the other variety of fish.

The data presented in table 9.22 reveal that larger the quantity of fish disposed off during a given harvest, the proportion of the disposal on wholesale has increased. This is due to the fact that the market for the fresh fish is limited.

Table 9.23 presents the data in respect of the price variations for the fish sold to the wholesale dealers during different seasons. The average price of the market fish came down to Rs.2.86 per basket during the second harvest when the yield was the highest and that price trend continued during the third harvest even the yield came down. During the fourth, fifth and sixth harvests, however, the prices improved a lot with the reduced yields. It was as high as Rs.5.85 per basket during the sixth harvest when the mackerel yield was the lowest.

The other variety of fish was sold to the wholesalers only during the first, second and the fourth harvests. During the fourth harvest only one group reported the sale of the 'Surmai' fish which fetched the highest price of Rs.57.50 per basket. In the case of the sales during the first and the second harvests, price of the other variety of fish was determined by the quantity of fish classified as 'other variety' sold to the wholesale dealers.

Table 9.24 : Monthwise disposal of the yield from the Patta Bale groups (Quantity in number of baskets)

Month	Auction sale to the wholesale dealers	Retail sale to the bicycle men and basket women	Retained for self consumption	Total yield
September	-	186 (83.8)	36 (16.2)	222 (100.0)
October	225 (23.1)	660 (67.7)	90 (9.2)	975 (100.0)
November	900 (64.5)	400 (28.7)	95 (6.8)	1395 (100.0)
December	750 (60.2)	405 (32.5)	90 (7.3)	1245 (100.0)
January	411 (46.9)	370 (42.2)	95 (10.9)	876 (100.0)
February	234 (35.5)	340 (51.5)	86 (13.0)	660 (100.0)
March	90 (21.9)	261 (63.5)	60 (14.6)	411 (100.0)
April	-	276 (83.6)	54 (16.4)	330 (100.0)
May	-	110 (79.7)	28 (20.3)	138 (100.0)
Total	2610 (41.7)	3008 (48.1)	634 (10.2)	6252 (100.0)

NOTE:- Figures in brackets are percentages of total yield per respective month.

Table 9.25 : Average price variations for the yield disposed off by the Patta Bale Groups.

Months	Auction sale price to the wholesaler per basket in Rs. +	Retail sale price to the bicycle men and basket women per basket in Rs.
September	-	7.77
October	2.66	7.20
November	2.66	4.32
December	2.73	6.67
January	2.79	7.36
February	2.90	7.45
March	3.00	8.33
April	-	8.33
May	-	9.63
On an average	2.73	7.10

Note:- + One basketful of fresh fish weighs approx. 1620 kilos.

9.32 : Disposal of the Yield from the Patta Bale Groups I

Table 9.24 presents the month wise figures in respect of the disposal of the Patta Bale yield. The figures show that 29.8 percent of the total Patta Bale yield was disposed off and 10.2 percent was retained for self consumption. As the Patta Bale catch is brought to the shore in the late afternoon retailers of fresh fish like bicyclemen and basket women prefer to purchase it than waiting for the Big Rampani catch in the evening. 48.1 percent of the total Patta Bale Yield was sold to the retailers while 41.7 percent was sold to the wholesalers in the auctions. The monthwise figures reveal that the percentage of the yield purchased by the wholesale dealers increases as the total yield increases. During the months of November and December when the yield was the highest during the year, the wholesale dealers purchased 64.5 percent and 60.2 percent of the total yield respectively. On the other hand, during September in the beginning of the season, and also during April and May at the end of the season, wholesale dealers did not figure at all as the yield was the lowest during the year.

Table 9.25 gives the data in respect of the average price variations during different months for the yield disposed off by the Patta Bale groups. Prices of the fish sold to the wholesale dealers did not vary much. They varied from Rs.2.65 per basket during October and November to Rs.3 per basket during December. On an average the whole sale dealers paid only Rs.2.73 per basketful of fish (mackerel) which was less by 0.36 nPs of the price paid by them to the mackerel fish purchased from the Big Rampani Groups. On the other hand, the average price paid by the retailers was as much as Rs.7.10 per basketful of mackerel fish. The prices were the lowest during the month of November and highest in the month of

Ma-y. Among other factors, size of the Patta Bale yield in different months was an important factor influencing the price of the fish to the retailers.

VIII ANALYSIS OF INCOME AND EXPENDITURE :

9.33: Income and Expenditure Analysis of Big Rampani Groups :

In table 9.26 data are given in respect of the income and expenditure of the five Big Rampani Groups operating on the village coast. On the income side, value of the fish sold to the wholesale dealers and also that sold to the retailers is taken into account. That portion of the fish which was retained by the members of the groups for self consumption is included in the sales to the retailers. Usually the female folk of the households of the members of the groups are the purchasers of the fish on small scale for the local market. On the expenditure side repair charges for boats, yarn purchased, purchase of fuel etc., expenses on religious ceremonies and other expenses were the main heads of expenditure. Repair charges for boats and yarn purchased for mending as well as new manufacturing of nets constituted 43.3 percent and 40.6 percent of the total expenditure respectively. Expenses over other expenditure heads were less than about 7 percent of the total expenditure in each case.

9.34 : Income and Expenditure analysis of Small Rampani Groups :

Table 9.27 gives the income and expenditure figures for the four Small Rampani or Kai-rampani groups which were operative on the village coast. Both the income and expenditure heads are similar as in the case of the Big Rampani groups. On an average, repair charges on boats and yarn purchased constitute 32.4 percent and 45.1 percent of the total expenditure.

9.35 : Income and Expenditure of the Patta Bale Groups :

Table 9.28 presents data in respect of the income and expenditure of the Patta Bale groups. Auction

Table 9.26 :

- Income and Expenditure of Big Rampani Groups -

Name of the Rampani Group.	INCOME			EXPENDITURE						Net Income in
	Sold to the Wholesale dealers	Sold to the Retailers	Total Gross Income	Repair charges for boat in	Yarn Purchased value	Purchase of fuel etc value in	Expenses on religious ceremonies	Other expenses	Total expenses in	
	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
Thottam Hale	17,292 (67.6)	8,287 (32.4)	25,579 (100.0)	525 (47.2)	425 (38.0)	70 (6.3)	35 (3.1)	60 (5.4)	1,115 (100.0)	24,464
Thottam Hosa	35,450 (83.4)	7,035 (16.6)	42,485 (100.0)	300 (40.4)	300 (40.4)	65 (8.7)	28 (3.8)	50 (6.7)	743 (100.0)	41,742
Hoode	36,305 (74.8)	12,243 (25.2)	48,548 (100.0)	425 (40.5)	450 (42.8)	70 (6.7)	30 (2.9)	75 (7.1)	1,050 (100.0)	47,498
Kalianpur	15,975 (71.1)	6,493 (28.9)	22,468 (100.0)	400 (43.0)	400 (43.0)	50 (5.4)	30 (3.2)	50 (5.4)	930 (100.0)	21,538
Darbar	20,640 (71.3)	8,284 (28.7)	28,924 (100.0)	400 (44.3)	350 (38.6)	60 (6.6)	35 (3.9)	60 (6.6)	905 (100.0)	28,019
TOTAL	1,25,662 (74.8)	42,342 (25.2)	1,68,004 (100.0)	2,050 (43.3)	1,925 (40.6)	315 (6.6)	158 (3.3)	295 (6.2)	4,743 (100.0)	1,63,261

Table 9.27 :

- Income and Expenditure of the Kai-ramani Groups -

Name of the Kai-ramani Group.	I N C O M E			E X P E N D I T U R E						Net Income
	Auction value of the fish sold	Value of the fresh fish shared	Total Gross Income	Repair charges for boat	Yarn purchased value	Purchase of fuel etc	Expenses on religious ceremonies.	Other expenses	Total expenses	
	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
Hoode	10,000 (68.9)	4,500 (30.1)	14,500 (100.0)	86 (40.7)	80 (37.9)	20 (9.5)	25 (11.9)	-	211 (100.0)	14,289
Kolambe	4,200 (45.6)	5,000 (54.4)	9,200 (100.0)	60 (31.1)	90 (46.6)	18 (9.3)	25 (13.0)	-	193 (100.0)	9,007
Thottan	3,600 (47.4)	4,000 (52.6)	7,600 (100.0)	45 (25.0)	85 (47.2)	25 (13.9)	25 (13.9)	-	180 (100.0)	7,420
Mayadi	1,200 (42.8)	1,600 (57.2)	2,800 (100.0)	72 (31.4)	120 (52.4)	12 (5.3)	25 (10.9)	-	229 (100.0)	2,571
TOTAL	19,000 (55.7)	15,100 (44.3)	34,100 (100.0)	263 (32.4)	375 (46.1)	75 (9.2)	100 (12.3)	-	813 (100.0)	33,287

* Value is reported.

Table 9.28 :

- Income and Expenditure of the Patta Bale Groups -

Patta Bale Groups	INCOME				EXPENDITURE					Net Income in Rs
	Auction value of the fish sold Rs	Fish sold to the retailers value in Rs	Value of the fresh fish self consumed Rs	Total Gross Income in Rs	Repair charges for boat Rs	Yarn purchased value Rs	Purchase of fuel etc. value in Rs	Other expenses Rs	Total expenses Rs	
Dasappa Saliyan	2,008 (24.7)	5,700 (70.1)	425 (5.2)	8,133 (100.0)	35 (12.9)	192 (70.6)	15 (5.5)	30 (11.0)	272 (100.0)	7,831
H. Soma Markal	1,810 (30.2)	3,800 (63.4)	380 (6.4)	5,990 (100.0)	48 (13.0)	263 (71.3)	18 (4.9)	40 (10.8)	339 (100.0)	5,621
U. Mada Tandel	1,520 (12.1)	10,000 (79.7)	1,025 (8.2)	12,545 (100.0)	45 (12.5)	250 (69.4)	35 (9.7)	30 (8.4)	360 (100.0)	12,185
Jogi Markal	1,810 (33.1)	3,400 (62.3)	250 (4.6)	5,460 (100.0)	35 (15.5)	150 (66.7)	15 (6.7)	25 (11.1)	225 (100.0)	5,235
TOTAL	7,148 (22.2)	22,900 (71.3)	2,080 (6.5)	32,128 (100.0)	163 (13.3)	855 (69.7)	83 (6.8)	125 (10.2)	1,226 (100.0)	30,872

Table 9.29 :

- Income and Expenditure of the Bepu Organisations -

Bepu(Big) Organisations.	I N C O M E			E X P E N D I T U R E							NET INCOME
	Sale of cured fish value in Rs	Sale of fins value in Rs	Gross total income	Wages to the fishermen	Salt	Other purchases	Wages for fish curing labour	Trans-port	Repairs of equipments etc	Total expenses	
Giriya Tandel	10,200 (97.9)	222 (2.1)	10,422 (100.0)	3,250 (71.9)	456 (10.1)	171 (3.8)	570 (12.6)	69 (1.5)	5 (0.1)	4,521 (100.0)	5,901
Kadri Byari	13,720 (97.8)	314 (2.2)	14,034 (100.0)	4,050 (71.2)	584 (10.3)	219 (3.9)	730 (12.8)	90 (1.6)	9 (0.2)	5,682 (100.0)	8,352
TOTAL	23,920 (97.8)	536 (2.2)	24,456 (100.0)	7,300 (71.6)	1,040 (10.2)	390 (3.8)	1,300 (12.7)	159 (1.6)	14 (0.1)	10,203 (100.0)	14,253

value of the fish sold to the wholesale dealers for salting, fish sold to the retailers for the local market and the value of the fresh fish self-consumed constitute the sources of income. On expenditure side, repair charges for boat, yarn purchased for mending and new manufacture of the net pieces, purchase of fuel etc., for making the decoction of the barks of the 'matti' tree and other expenses including expenses on religious ceremonies are the important expenditure heads. Repair charges for the boats constitute only 13 per cent while the purchase of yarn makes 69.7 per cent of the total expenditure.

9.36 : Income and Expenditure of the Bepu Organisations

In table 9.29 data are given in respect of the two Bepu(big) organisations in the village. Unlike in the cases of the Rampani and the Patta Bale organisations, the fish was cured by the curers of the organisations and was sold directly to the big dealers in Mangalore. Therefore, the expenditure heads include the expenses on salt, transport charges etc. As the Bepus were operated by the paid fishermen, the expenditure on 'wages to the fishermen' constituted 71.6 per cent of the total expenditure. 'Wages for fish curing labour' and 'expenditure on sale' record 12.7 per cent and 10.2 per cent respectively.

IX FISH CURING :

Local method of curing fish -

Large fish such as pomfrets, eat fish, small sharks etc., are split through the dorsal line from the root of the tail to the tip of the snout and the guts and the gills are removed. The fish is washed and salt is applied to the scores and well rubbed all over the cutsurface. They are then arranged in layers in salting receptacles such as tubs or small dugouts and kept usually for a night. Next day they are washed in the

self-brine formed in the salting vessels and put out in the sun on coir mats or coconut thatches spread on the sand. It takes at least two full days to dry the fish. In the case of thinner fish such as ribbon fish, mackerel, small pomfrets, etc., only the first dorsal cut is made. Mackerel are also slit in the abdomen and salted after the removal of the guts and gills. Sardines are cured by either cutting off the head and the abdomen with a single diagonal cut or by simply slitting and removing the guts and gills. Large sharks are cut into pieces of convenient size and filleted. Smaller fish of various kinds are gutted by pulling off the gullet or simply roused with salt or put in brine and sun-dried. Some very small fish such as small sardines, prawns etc., are simply sun-dried without salt by spreading them on the beach. All cut up fish are washed usually in the sea water before they are salted, but when they are taken out of the salting tubs they are cleaned only in the self-brine and very rarely in sea water. A second washing in sea water will make the fish look neat and give it good colour but the washed fish would weigh less than the unwashed fish.

Ordinary proportion of salt -

Large fish	:	one pound of salt for	5lbs of fish
Mackerel	"	"	"
Sardines	"	"	"
			6lbs of fish
			7lbs of fish

Dryage -

Large fish	19 to 24 per cent
Mackerel	31 to 37 per cent
Small fish	45 to 61 per cent

Colombo method of curing :

Mostly mackerel are cured in this manner. Fish are slit on the ventral side from gullet to the vent by passing the blade of a knife and the guts and gills are pulled out. The women and girls who do this are

in the sea and salt with a small piece of tamarind is thrust in the abdomen of the fish. They are then arranged in layers in a tub with sprinkling of salt and tamarind between each layer and some weight placed on the top. The tub is then closed temporarily and kept for three or four days at the end of which period the brine that is formed in the tub is drawn off through a small hole made at its bottom. The fish is pressed down with the hands or by the weight of a man standing on them. The tub is then filled with more fish from other tubs and this operation is repeated till the tub is filled to the very top. It is filled in a barrel and closed getting ready for shipment. The proportion of salt required is 30 lbs per maund (82 lbs) of fish.

Patnagiri method of curing :

Generally large fish such as pomfrets, sharks etc., are treated in this manner. The fish are split, gutted and cleaned as in the ordinary local method of curing. One pound of salt is required for 3 pounds of fish. Half the quantity of salt is rubbed on the surface of the fish, and they are then stacked on the floor of the curing shed to a height of 3 or 4 feet. On the second day, half the remaining salt is rubbed in and the fish so restacked that the top fish become the bottom ones; On the third day, the remaining fish is rubbed and the fish re-stacked again. It is allowed to remain in this condition for another eight days when the fish are sufficiently dry and are then removed. They are not sun-dried afterwards.

Proportion of salts -

Large fish : one pound of salt for 3 lb fish
(in three instalments)
Small fish : one pound of salt for 4 lb fish
(in two instalments)

Dryage -

Large fish : 19 to 24 per cent
Mackerel : 31 to 37 per cent
Small fish : 45 to 61 per cent

-: CHAPTER X : -PRODUCTION SYSTEM FOR NON-AGRICULTURAL
OCCUPATION.**10.1 Introduction:**

In this Chapter, case studies of various non-agricultural (other than fishing) production and processing activities are presented. The case studies were made by the Research Assistant on the basis of a general synopsis worked out by the Institute. Besides the data collected in the General Family Enquiry about use of raw material, quantity of production, capital invested, number of hired persons etc. were generously made use of. Especially while studying a cottage type of industry like coir thread spinning where a very large number of families were engaged, it was physically impossible for the Research Assistant to cover all the families by preparing the case studies. Only 30 families (about 10% of the total) engaged in coir thread preparation and all the families engaged in ropemaking were covered by the case studies. However, data collected in the General Family enquiry were fully made use of for those families which were not covered by the case studies.

In table 8.1 we give a complete list of the non-agricultural production and processing activities followed in the village. Care was taken to include all the activities which may be non-agricultural in character however unimportant their contribution was to the total economy. The various non-agricultural production and processing activities as mentioned in table 8.1 may be of three types: (i) Those activities where physical production for final consumption takes place. examples: products of limekiln, furniture making units and so forth. (ii) Those activities where physical production for further processing takes place. example: sawyers, (iii) Those activities where the raw material is owned by the consumer while the services rendered by the producer will transform it to the consumption.

requirement. examples: Tailors, carpenters, washermen etc.

A majority of the non-agricultural production and processing activities prevalent in the village come under (i) and (iii). In the forthcoming paragraphs we shall describe the various non-agricultural production and processing activities with special emphasis on (i) past history if possible to know; (ii) structure size and equipments owned; (iii) cost structure and (iv) production and marketing problems. At the end we shall present a summary picture of the production system for non-agricultural activities.

TABLE 10.1: Types of Non-agricultural production.

Name of occupation	No. of families engaged		
	Main	Subsidiary	Total
Quarrying	-	1	1
Lime-kiln	1	2	3
Aerated water	2	2	4
Beedi Manufacturing	1	3	4
Tailoring	12	2	14
Oil pressing	-	2	2
Flour mill	-	1	1
Black smith	1	-	1
Copper smiths	14	4	18
Gold smiths	2	-	2
Carpenters	3	-	3
Sawyers	4	-	4
The Furniture making unit.	1	-	1
Masons	7	-	7
Barbers	4	-	4
Washerman	1	-	1
Removing the skin of the dead cattle	-	1	1

10.2 Quarrying:

Laterite stones are quarried at Nejar of Badanidiyur village, 2 miles south to Kemmannu. These stones are used for construction of residential and other buildings, fish curing tanks, wells, bunds etc. It seems that in recent years, the increased building construction activity in Kemmannu has influenced the demand for laterite stones.

As reported, a solitary Bant family from the village is engaged in quarrying as its subsidiary occupation.

It is reported that the "bullock cart transport" is the main occupation and "cultivation of paddy fields wholly unowned" is the other subsidiary occupation of the family. As the bullock cart is solely engaged in transporting the stone blocks quarried, we can as well say that the family mainly depends upon the 'quarrying' for its livelihood.

The family has leased in an area of 30 cents of quarry field from the Government. The rent is fixed at Rs. 51.75 per annum. On an average, 10 workers (all from Badanidiyur) were employed daily for digging out as well as sizing the stones. They are paid piece wages. To dig out and size 100 blocks of different sizes, the wages are fixed as given below in Table 10.2.

TABLE 10.2: Wage rates for digging and sizing of different sizes of stone blocks.

Uses	Measurements	Wage paid for 100 slabs.
Wall Stones	1½' x 9" x 9"	Rs. 10/00
Well Stones	1' x 1' x 1'	Rs. 10/00
Pillar Stones	1½' x 10" x 10"	Rs. 10/50

It was learnt that on an average an individual worker can dig out and size as many as 15-20 blocks per day of any variety mentioned above. It was reported that during 1958-59, the number of stones quarried was about 25000. The expenses incurred on digging out and sizing 25000 stones was estimated at Rs. 2500.

All the stones quarried were sold at Paduthouse for building or construction purpose. The sales rates varied from Rs. 17 to 20 for 100 blocks in case of "wall stones" and were found normally fixed at Rs. 18 for 100 blocks in respect of 'well stones' and 'pillar stones'. The sales receipts were approximately estimated at Rs. 4500/- which included the transport charges from the quarry field to the buyer's site. In short Rs. 1945/- were earned by the reported

family from the quarry field. This of course included the earnings from the bullock cart which was solely engaged in transporting the stone blocks.

It must be remembered here that the building construction activity in Kemmannu is expanding in recent years. During the coming years it may be interesting to watch this business expanding in relation to the increased demand.

10.3 Lime-kilns

The number of families reporting 'lime-kiln' as an occupation were 3. Out of which 1 family reported the 'lime-kiln' as its main and the only occupation, while the rest 2 reported it as subsidiary to fish labour. The first one is a Catholic family which migrated to this village 5 years back for 'lime-trade'. Since then it has found interest in production aspect and has established its own kiln. The other 2 families belong to the depressed caste. 1 kiln was located in Kemmannu and 2 were located at Padukudru. However, all the three kilns were located on the bank of the river, to facilitate the supply of the raw material. Marine shells collected from the back water of the Swarna river were used as raw material. 3 one depressed caste families were found engaged in gathering the shells, as a subsidiary occupation to the 'fish labour'. It was reported that 1 mura of shells were sold at Rs.0-62 nps. One family reported the cost of transport of the shells to the site of the kiln, at Rs.1-25 for 18 muras of shells. The other 2 families incurred no transport costs. However, their purchase-rates of the shells seemed to be slightly higher.

The capacity of the kiln differed in relation to the size of the kiln. It varied from 10 muras of shells to 20 muras of shells per kiln at a time. Usually there were 2 turn-overs during a week. The first kiln reported working for 10 months during the year and the 2nd and 3rd reported working for 5 and 2 months respectively.

In the first and the second cases charcoal was used

as the main fuel. In the 3rd case, fuel wood was used. It was reported that the charcoal was imported from Udipi. Fuel wood was obtained from the local sources.

Only family labour was used in attending of the kiln. For all the 3 kilns, 2 male adults and 4 female adults were reported working. It was observed that in one case school going children of the family were attending the kiln at off school hours.

The balance sheet for the preparation of lime in respect of the 3 kilns is given below in Table 10.3

TABLE 10.3:

I Expenditure	1st Kiln	2nd Kiln	3rd Kiln	Total
1 Marine shells (including transport costs)	Rs. 370	225	75	670
2 Charcoal	360	240	-	600
3 Firewood	-	-	48	48
Total	730	465	123	1318
=====				
II Receipts	1735	600	210	2535
Sale of Lime				
III Profits	995	135	87	1217

In all 1080 muras of marine shells valued at Rs.670 were required by the industry. The total expenditure on fuel was calculated at Rs.648 for the year. The three units together produced 1840 muras of lime valued at Rs.2535. The first unit reported 50% of its sales to urban centres like Udipi and Mangalore. The rest 50% was sold in the village. In case of the 2nd and the 3rd units, the entire production was disposed off in the village.

Like quarrying, lime kilns are also worth watching in the coming years in relation to the expanding building construction activity at Kemmannu.

10.4 Aerated Water Factories:

Of the five aerated water manufacturing units 4 were located in Kemmannu and 1 in Adda Bengre. One of the units in Kemmannu was closed for want of working capital. The unit which is closed is the oldest, established in 1945. The other units were established in Kemmannu during 1948, 1952, and 1959 respectively. The Adda Bengre factory started during 1959. Distributing the owners of the units caste-wise, 2 are Muslims, 2 are Billavas and 1 is a Christian Catholic. Three of them have studied upto V Standard, the other two upto IV standard and I standard respectively. As regards the occupational change from previous generation to the present generation, it is found that the change is from agriculture in 3 cases from bullock cart transport and hotel worker in Bombay in rest of the 2 cases each. In respect of the present occupations followed, aerated water manufacturing is the main occupation of the families in 2 cases, subsidiary occupation in 1 case and an 'individual's' occupation in 1 case. As one establishment has closed working, we are taking into account only 4 establishments.

Brief history of the evolution and present position of the establishments: The first unit was established by a Billava toddy shop owner at his residential-cum-toddy shop premises at Kemmannu during 1945. After 1947, due to the enforcement of the Prohibition Law, the toddy shop was closed. Then it was reported that he started a hotel in the same premises. Upto 1952, the aerated manufacturing unit could flourish, side by side with the hotel business. By the time 2 more units had started operating in Kemmannu in more decent premises which attracted the customers. Both of them were started by Muslims of Timmankudru who are well known for their refined manners and business acumen. It was reported that one of these two was working as a Laboratory Assistant in Bombay from 1942 to 1950. He had saved about Rs.900/- when he was in Bombay and after coming here, he started fish dealing. As he incurred loss in

fish dealing, he took to aerated water manufacturing in 1952. The other one who had bequeathed a 'beeda-Beedi' shop from his father, purchased an aerated water manufacturing unit in 1948 out of his savings which amounted to about Rs.500/-. It was reported that as these two units started flourishing side by side, the pioneer unit of the Billava toddy shopkeeper declined. Hence it ceased to operate during 1955. During 1959, two more units were established, in Kemmannu and Adda Bengre respectively. In the first instance, it was reported that the establishment owner had previous contact with Bombay from his boyhood, as his father was working there as a butler in a hotel. By about 1950, his father gave him about Rs.1000/- from his savings to engage in some business at home place. In 1952, he came back to Kemmannu and established a stationery shop. However, he found that the earnings from his stationery shop were short of his expected income. Hence he started an aerated water manufacturing unit during 1959 as a subsidiary occupation. In the case of the Adda Bengre unit, it was reported that the establishment was opened to provide employment for one of the 15 members of the family. As the Adda Bengre area is thickly populated and is located at a distance of nearly 2 miles from Kemmannu, it was estimated that an attempt to start a unit nearer this location, would be a success.

Three of the shop premises in Kemmannu are rented for a monthly rent amounting to Rs.8x/-, Rs.12/-, and Rs.15/- respectively. In respect of the Adda Bengre unit, the shop premise was owned. The two Muslim owners of the unit in Kemmannu were reported employing 3 boys between 20 - 25 age group of their own caste and distantly related. It was reported that they were not paid any salary, but were fed and looked after. All the 3 boys were educated upto IV standard. The Christian Catholic owner of the unit has employed a Billava boy on temporary basis for Rs.12/- per month. The Adda Bengre unit has not employed any outsiders. Almost all the three shops are furnished with

1 or 2 chairs, 2 benches each. The Adda Bengre unit is ill-furnished with one crude type of bench only. All the three shops in Kemmannu are equipped with electric lights while the Adda Bengre unit lights petromax during busy late evenings. Otherwise it closes early.

The value of the equipments of each unit is given below in Table 10.4

TABLE 10.4:

	1st Unit value in Rs.	2nd Unit value in Rs.	3rd Unit value in Rs.	4th Unit value in Rs.	Total value in Rs.
Machinery	223	250	210	150	733
Gas- Cylinders	100	140	200	180	620
Bottles	450	400	183	400	1433
Racks	115	220	93	90	518
Furnitures	30	42	24	3	99
Total	920	1052	710	823	3505

The values in respect of the machinery and gas cylinder are varying because they were purchased new or second hand. The values of the bottles vary in relation to the number of bottles maintained by the unit. The values of the racks, and furnitures are guided by the number, size, quality of wood used and workmanship.

Only one unit reported repair charges of Rs.10/- during the survey year. The charges incurred on the refilling of the gas cylinder were reported Rs.105/-, Rs.210/-, Rs.30/-, Rs.30/- in respect of the 4 units. The average rate of refilling the gas cylinder was calculated at Rs.14/- per time. The first two units refilled their cylinders 7 times and 14 times respectively while the last two refilled 2 times only. It should be remembered that the last two units were established during 1959 and started operating in the month of March.

Virtually their refilling should be related to the month of March and April only.

The aerated water manufactured was mainly of two types. In the first instance the 'gas' is aerated in the bottles containing pure water. It is locally known as 'soda water'. In the second instance, lemon juice and sugar are mixed with pure water and then the mixture is aerated. It is known as 'sharbat'. Sometime in the first type of aerated water essences of orange, giner etc. are mixed and served. As the essences are costly, the price of the aerated water increases in relation to the price of the essence so mixed. It was reported by all the three operating units of Kemmannu that the stock of various essences valuing about Rs.50/- is always maintained. The Adda Bengre, unit, however, did not use any essences, hence did not maintain any stock of it. The rates charged for different types of aerated waters is similar in case of Kemmannu units or Adda Bengre unit. The rate list was as given below in Table 10.5

TABLE 10.5:

Item	Rate per bottle Rs- pPs
1 Pure aerated water or 'soda water'	0 - 06
2 Aerated water mixed with lemon juice & sugar 'sharbat'	0 - 09
3 Orange	0 - 12
4 Giner	0 - 31

An average quantity of aerated water produced per day in different months, as reported while preparing the case studies is given below in Table 10.6. However, it was not possible to get figures for different types of aerated waters in this case. We could collect the consolidated figures.

TABLE 10.6: Average per day production (No. of bottles in dozen).

<u>Months</u>	<u>1st Unit</u>	<u>Kemmannu 2nd Unit</u>	<u>3rd Unit</u>	<u>Adda Bengre 4th Unit</u>
January	4	6	-	-
February	6	9	4	8
March	9	20	8	10
April	12	30	10	14
May	12	30	12	18
June	2	6	-	-
July	1	4	-	-
August	1	2	-	-
September	2	6	-	-
October	2	8	-	-
November	3	8	-	-
December	3	8	-	-

It is seen above that the per day production varied from month to month. For each unit, it is maximum during April and May. However, in respect of 3rd and 4th establishments we have covered only 4 months, i.e. from February to May. These two units were established during the survey year, both during February 1959. If we take into account the 1st and 2nd units only, we can say that the production varied in relation to the climate; that is, during summer season, (from February to May) the average daily production is the highest. While during the rainy season (from June to September) it is lowest. It is also interesting to note the divergences in production capacity of the 1st and 2nd units. The reason given was that the 2nd unit had expanded its sales by catering its production to retail sales units like hotels, beera-beeri shops, the weekly market at Kemmannu and Cinema House; while in respect of the other units, it was found the sales were limited to the shop premises only. It was reported that the wholesale price charged in respect of the hotels and other agencies was 31 % less than the retail price.

The total income for the aerated water manufacturing units which are operative was worked out to be Rs.3950/-The total income from other sources for the above families was accounted

for Rs.3404, according to the G.F.S. data. The other occupations were coconut garde, fish trade, stationery shop, flour mill, hiring the bicycle and the petromax etc.

10.5 Beedi Manufacturing:

There was a small beedi manufacturing unit in Kemmannu employing 5 workers. The establishment was owned by a Muslim businessman from Timmankudru as the main occupation. The stationery-cum-medical store and coconut gardening were the other occupation. Three more families from Paduthonse reported manufacturing beedis on their own account, employing family labour. All the three individual units were located at Kemmannu, two owned by Muslims and the rest one owned by a Beljad belonging to Paduthonse. The factory unit was started during 1950 while the other individual units were established during 1929, 1953, and 1957 respectively.

'Lucky Star' Beedi Manufacturing unit, Kemmannu:

The owner of the establishment was 54 years old and had studied upto VIII class. He went to Bombay during 1947 and was there upto 1950 doing various jobs. He came back to the village during 1950 and started a Beedi manufacturing unit at Kemmannu investing about Rs.300/- which he managed to save from his earnings in Bombay,. The establishment owner reported his father's occupation was coconut gardening.

Five workers were employed by the unit, four of them being Muslims and the rest one a Catholic Christian. Three of them reported beedi manufacturing as the main occupation of the family while two reported it as subsidiary to fish dealing and hotel service in Bombay. All the workers were males and were educated from 3rd to 8th standards.

One of the workers was employed on a monthly salary of Rs.30/- to 'head the beedis'. The rest were employed on a contract basis. The usual wages paid comes to Rs.1.50 per 1000 beedis. Some time the rate was as high as Rs.1.62 per 1000 beedis.

The raw material required was purchased from Udipi. The labels to cover the bundles were also printed in Udipi. The cost accounting of the factory for the year 1957-58 was as given below in Table 10.7.

TABLE 10.7:

Cost heads	Value in Rs.
Tobacco 1032 pounds	2300
Leaves 15 bags	1350
Thread 40 bundles (rose colour)	40
Labels 175000	500
Fuel	25
Transport & Miscellaneous	50
Rent	96
Wages paid	2985
Total	7296
Receipts:	
Total sales in '000 beedis	
1750	8750

The net profit for the factory was accounted for Rs.1456/- However the G.F.S. reports the figure as low as Rs.705 only. The outlay on labour charges comes to Rs.2985 while the G.F.S. reports that figure as low as Rs.1884/-.

The three individual units had produced 1463 thousands of beedis during 1957-58. The cost accounting for those units is done below which excludes the labour charges as it employed family labour only.

Cost heads	Value in Rs.
Tobacco 238 pounds	563
Leaves	256
Thread	13
Total	872

Retail sale of the beedis at the rate of Rs.5/- per 1000:

<u>Total sales in '000 beedis</u>	<u>Value in Rs</u>
624 ----	3120 ----

The net profit for the three individual establishments from manufacturing beedis was Rs.2243/-The General Family Schedule data has put the same figure at Rs.1230/- The difference occurs because the General Family Schedule separates the profit from manufacturing thebeedis and sales profits of the beedis. Virtually those who manufactured the beedis had their own 'beeda beedi stalls' where the product was sold out.

It is important to note that female labour, either family or outside, was never employed to manufacture beedis. The second point is that the whole production was disposed off in the village. Thirdly the raw material required for the industry was imported from Udipi.

During the survey year, a barber's wife reported learning the art of beedi making. However no income was reported from beedi making by that family. During the re-survey we may expect some more females entering the field of beedi making.

10.6 Tailoring:

Tailors establishments were exclusively found in Kemmannu area. There were 14 establishments in Kemmannu of which only 6 were owned by Paduthonse residents, and 8 by the residents of Mudthonse. The general information was collected for the 6 establishments belonging to Paduthonse by General Family Schedule and for detailed information of the occupation, case studies were prepared. In respect of the establishments belonging to Mudthonse, General Family Schedules were not filled in. However those establishments were covered by detailed case studies.

Distributing the owners of the establishments castewise, in respect of Paduthonse establishments, 3 are owned by Bants, 1 By a Christian Catholics, 1 each by a Bant and a Mogvir. Except 1 Christian Catholic belonging to Mudthonse who is by birth

deaf and dumb, all are educated. In respect of Paduthonse establishment owners, 1 had studied upto IV standard, 3 upto V standard, 1 each upto VII and VIII/standard respectively. In case of the Mudhonse establishment owners, 1 is illiterate, 1 has studied upto I standard, 4 upto IV standard. 1 each upto V standard and VII standard respectively. The father of the present owner of the establishment of the family was an agriculturist, in respect of 5 establishments of Paduthonse, 3 establishments in respect of Mudthonse. Toddy tapping was the main occupation of the father in respect of 1 establishment of Paduthonse. In respect of the rest 5 establishments of Mudhonse the father's occupation was reported as (i) police head constable, (ii) Teacher, (iii) Fishing in river, (iv) supplying marine shells to the lime kilns and (v) Butler in a Bombay hotel.

Brief History of the Evolution and the Present Position:

The first tailor's establishment in Kemmannu was started by a Christian Catholic of Mudthonse during 1923. The establishment owner learnt tailoring at Kalyanpur, by the time a developed market place in Mudthonse, and established in Kalyanpur from 1915 to 1923. By the time he found that the Kemmannu locality in Paduthonse was slowly developing into a market place and there was not a single establishment so far started in that locality. Hence he shifted his shop premises to Kemmannu during 1923. During 1926, three more establishments were started in Kemmannu, two of them by the Mudthonse residents and one by the Paduthonse resident. One of these reported that he had previously 20 years tailoring experience in Hangarkatte and Kokkarne, developing market places on the other side of the Swarna river estuary. The other man who was working under a 'master tailor' in Udipi, came back to his native residential place in the Mudthonse part of Kemmannu and established his firm. The third man, a resident of Paduthonse entered the field as an apprentice to the pioneer tailor. He hailed from a Bant's family which was mainly engaged in agriculture and, as a

subsidiary occupation, one member of the family owned a small cloth shop in Kemmannu. By 1923, one more resident of Paduthonse, a Billava, took to tailoring, but that establishment ceased to survive by the year 1950, as the owner of the establishment was seriously affected by mental shock. During 1941 and 1942 two more Catholic Christians from Mudthonse entered the field as apprentices to two different tailors who were already established. One of these two, after completing his course, went to Badanidiur, a nearby village, and established for 5 years. After that he shifted his shop premise to Kemmannu. His father was a paddy cultivator and the present owner of the establishment was also helping his father in cultivation. The second man who entered tailoring, was by birth a deaf and dumb and was not found suitable for his father's occupation of gathering the marine shells from the river and supplying them to the lime-kiln. After completing the course, he established at Kemmannu in the premise of a cloth shop. During 1949, a Christian Catholic from Paduthonse, who was all these days in Bombay working in a big tailoring firm, came back to the village and established. During 1953, two more establishments came into existence one of a Mogavir of Mudthonse, the other one of a Billava of Paduthonse. The Mogavir establishment owner reported river fishing as the main occupation of his father, while the Billava establishment owner reported cultivation as his father's occupation. The former was an apprentice at a tailor in Brahmavar and after completing his course had established in Kalyanpur for 1 year. Then he shifted to Bengre and opened a small cloth shop along with his tailoring. When his shop premise was washed away into the sea during 1952, he came to Kemmannu and established. The latter was an apprentice at the local tailor and after completing his course established at Kemmannu. During 1955, two more units were established. The owners of both the establishments were Bants, who reported their father's occupation as cultivation. One of them was a resident of Paduthonse and the other was a

resident of Mudthonse. The former reported his history as follows:- He was an apprentice at a Master Tailor in Udipi during 1933-39. In 1940, he went to Bombay for further training and was an apprentice at Lad Company, Colaba. During 1946, he came to Malpe, and was employed by the 'Q' cloth merchant on monthly salary. During 1951, he left his job, gave up tailoring, and went to Hubli to assist his brother in the hotel business. During 1955, he came to Kemmannu, purchased a sewing machine and established as a tailor. The latter reported that he went to Bombay during 1953, and was an apprentice at a master tailor for 2 years. During 1955, he came to Kemmannu and established. From 1956 to 1958 three more establishments came into existence in Kemmannu. Two were owned by the Paduthonse residents and one by a Mudthonse resident. The owners of these establishments reported their respective father's occupation as (i) cultivation, (ii) tapping the toddy tree, (iii) butler in a Bombay hotel. The three owners of these establishments were in Bombay as apprentices to some master tailors. After getting experience and saving some money from their respective earnings they came back to Kammannu and established.

It is tried here below to summarise the trends of the evolution from the facts narrated above. In the first place, half of the present establishments were started after 1953. Only after 1949, we see that the majority of the establishment owners, that is 6 out of 8, were trained in Bombay and while coming back, they reported sufficient savings from their respective earnings in Bombay to purchase a sewing machine and other equipments. Secondly, an interesting feature is that, there was conspicuous absence of a 'tailor's caste' as there was such in the social structure of the village which resulted in other caste people following this occupation. Except, Brahmin, Muslims and depressed caste people, all the caste people were found engaged in this occupation. Thirdly, most of the establishments are owned by the Mudthonse residents. The reason may be that, among other things, the pioneer of the

occupation hailed from Mudthonse. It may be due to that the pioneer being a Catholic Christian, the majority of the owners of the establishments belonging to Mudthonse were too Catholic Christians.

12 of the 14 establishments reported working in non-rented premises of four cloth shops in Kemmannu. Of the rest two establishments, 1 was operating in the front part of the residential house and the other was operating in a rented building, at a monthly rent of Rs.7/-. As all the four cloth shops where the majority of the establishments are operating, are electrified and there is no need for the tailor's establishments to incur lighting expenses. Of the rest two, are reported that he never works after dusk and the other reported expenses on lighting varying from Rs.3 to Rs.7 per month. He has hired in a petromax for which he pays Re.1 per month.

In Table 10.8 data regarding number and value of equipments owned by the Paduthonse and Mudthonse establishments are presented separately.

TABLE 10.8:

Description of the Equipments	Paduthonse Establishments		Mudthonse Establishments		Total	
	No.	Value in Rs.	No.	Value in Rs.	No.	Value in Rs.
1 Sewing Machine	7	1723	9	2077	16	3802
2 Pair of Scissors	6	44	10	53	16	97
3 Cutting Board	-	-	3	26	3	26
4 Needles	30	11	36	13	66	24
5 Measuring Tape	5	5	11	14	16	19
6 Iron	-	-	-	-	-	-
7 Almaryah	-	-	3	60	3	60
8 Stool	6	13	9	21	15	34
Total Value		1797		2264		4061

As regards the agewise distribution of the machine, 3 were between 36-40 years old, 3 between 16-20 years, 2 between 11-15 years, 3 between 6-10 years and 5 are less than 5 years old. Of course, the age is considered from the date of purchase ignoring its previous use. As reported, only 4 machines are purchased second hand. In respect of the pairs of scissors, 2 were between 31 to 35 years, 3 between 16-20 years, 2 between 11-15 years, 2 between 6-10 years and 4 were below 5 years old. The other equipments mentioned above were mostly purchased during 1957-58. It is interesting to note that no tailor owns the iron.

Of the 16 sewing machines, 1 was reported kept idle as it was in want of repairs. One establishment owned 2 machines employing an apprentice belonging to Vishwakarma Brahmin caste. In another instance, it was reported that after employing an apprentice boy belonging to Kogavir caste, the owner of the establishment has disengaged himself from tailoring and is fully engaged in running the cloth shop. However, he guides the apprentice boy in the operational aspect. The rest of the establishments owned 1 machine each and the machines were operated by the owners of the establishments.

Except 1 establishment, all the establishments reported repair charges on the machine. The repair charges included from minor maintenance charges like cleaning and overhauling to the major repairs like replacing the parts of the machines. It was reported that the minor repairs were done by the establishment owner himself and in case of major repairs, the machine was taken to Udipi and got repaired. The repair expenses for all the establishments were accounted for Rs.230/-.

The working capital required was very minor one and was usually meted out by the current earnings of the establishment owner. The money was required to purchase the accessories like sewing thread, coloured and ordinary pencils and to mete out the repair and maintenance charges. The sewing thread, coloured and ordinary pencils were usually purchased at the local

stationery shops. As estimated, about 1700 sewing thread reels were purchased by all the tailoring establishments together at a cost of about Rs.450/-. Each tailor reported he required 2-3 coloured pencils and half a dozen lead pencils per year. The total expenses on the pencils can be estimated at Rs.30/- per year. As reported these requirements were invariably supplied by the stationery shops in Kemmannu.

In Table 10.9 a list of the stitching charges for different garments is given. It was observed that the charges varied from establishment to establishment. The lowest rate, the normal rate, the highest rate for stitching different garments is given below with the numbers of the cases reporting those rates.

TABLE 10.9: A list of the stitching charges per piece and an estimate of production of different garments.

Item	The Average Rate- Rs-nPs	An estimate of Production No.
1 Shirts for adults full	1.00	1564
2 Shirts for children full	0.37	614
3 Shirts for adults half	0.62	560
4 Shirts for children half	0.31	1786
5 Full pants	2.50	10
6 Half pants for adults	0.88	288
7 Half pants for children	0.50	2016
8 Pyjamas	0.88	220
9 Under wears	0.25	2316
10 Baniyans	0.31	1760
11 White caps	0.12	26
12 Bush coats	2.00	8
13 Bush shirts for adults	1.50	624
14 Bush shifts for children	0.62	456
15 Blouses	0.37	5126
16 Brassiers	0.19	2364
17 Frocks	0.44	2064
18 Lungadi	0.37	1452

The rates for stitching different garments vary from establishment to establishment in relation to the workmanship shown in preparing the particular type of garment. It is observed that there was a tendency for a particular establishment to specialise in preparing a particular type of garment.

However, it should be ruled out that the establishment specialised in preparing the blouses was not undertaking the manufacture of shifts. The tendency observed was that the proportion of different garments manufactured varied for different establishments.

An estimate of the number of different garments made for all the 14 establishments in Kemmannu is given in table 10.9.

10.7. Oil Pressing:

It was reported that oil pressing was the caste occupation of the Ganigs. Of the 20 Ganig households, twelve reported the oil pressing as the main occupation of the father of the present owner of the household. Most of them have given up oil expelling during this generation and have undertaken other occupations. Presently only two Ganig families reported oil pressing as a subsidiary occupation. It was followed on a very small scale, that too occasionally, to continue the tradition. The first family reported coir thread spinning as the main, agricultural labour as the subsidiary occupation, while the second family reported Hotel business as the main occupation. Both the families together have earned Rs.65/- only as the income from oil pressing. The income from other occupations was accounted for Rs.1926/- when the two families were taken together.

The oil was extracted from the dry coconut kernel. The expellers were made of wood, very crude in type, and were bequeathed by the present owners by their predecessors. It was reported that the present value of each expeller comes to Rs.30/- only including the oil-pot to collect the oil. It was interesting to note that only manual labour was used to operate the expeller. 100 coconuts were extracted within 8 hours. In both the case, it was reported that the oil was expelled in respect to the customer order only. The raw material was to be brought by the customer and the oil was expelled on a contract basis. The rate of expelling 100

coconuts was reported as Rs.2/-. The customer was at a choice to make the payment in cash or leave the cake to the owner of the expeller. The value of the cake so produced by expelling 100 coconuts was also equal to Rs.2/-,. While preparing the case studies information was collected to note the relationship between the coconuts-input and the oil and cake output. It is as given below:

Input	Output	
100 coconuts	Oil 1/2 mand	Cake 3/8 mand
Value Rs.20/-	Rs.19-8-0 (Market rate)	Rs. 2-0-0

So, there was a loss of Re-0-8-0 on the customer's side. But some preferred the indigenously expelled oil to the mill oil as they thought that the former was more pure and fresh. As coconut oil was the only edible oil used, preference to purity and freshness should not be ignored. But unfortunately very few had shown that preference as it was revealed in the fact that only 16 maunds of oil was extracted by both the expellers together during 1958-59.

As many of the coconut growers were feeling that it was very uneconomic to get their coconuts expelled indigenously for their household needs, very few, it seems, felt so seriously about the purity and freshness of the oil so extracted. The mill extracted oil found in the market, according to the majority view point, was not so bad. Hence, the survival of this occupation in coming years is doubtful.

10.8 Flour Mill:

An electric flour mill-cum-coffee grinder was installed by a Paduthonse resident in Kemmannu during 1956, for the first time. As the population of the village was accustomed to rice eating, there was no reason why they should have needed a flour mill. However, the present mill was introduced by a Muslim businessman of the village, who owned a Soda Factory and a small stationery shop, to supplement his income, from those occupations. His pre-history tells us that he was a man of multiple talents who some ten years back was a laboratory

assistant in Bombay.

The machinery and other equipments were purchased from Madras at Rs.840/-. The other expenses incurred in transport, installation, etc. amounted to about Rs.100/-. The capital requirement for that was meted out partly by his previous savings in Bombay and partly by his current savings from the 'Soda Factory' (aerated water manufacturing unit) and the stationery shop.

No outsiders were engaged. Either the owner himself or his assistant in the 'Soda Factory' was managing the whole affair. It was observed that the flour mill was not operating for most of the time due to lack of demand for that type of service. Unless there is no drastic change in the food habits of the people, one finds it difficult to expect employment for a flour mill in this village. It was reported that some catholic christians, due to their contact with Bombay, were accustomed to eat 'chapatis'. They got their wheat grinded by the flour mill. During festivals other caste people also used to get their wheat grinded by the mill. But the main profit from the mill, as the owner reported, seems to be from grinding the coffee seeds for the household customers and hotel keepers.

It was reported that the power consumption for the mill varied from 7 units in the slack months like June, July and August, to 30 units in respect of busy months like November, December and January. The total electric bill for the year 1958-59 in respect of the flour mill was estimated at Rs.50/-. The net profit was estimated at Rs.500/- . The other income from different sources was accounted for Rs.1500/-. that is Rs.500/- from coconut garden, Rs.1000/- for Soda Factory-cum-stationery shop.

10.9 Black Smith:

There was one Black-smith in Kemmannu who belonged to Mudthonse. He established at Kemmannu during 1957. Prior to that year, it was learnt, that no blacksmiths were present in Paduthonse. The residents of Paduthonse were going as far as

Kalyanpur (2 miles distance) to get their work done. The present establishment owner belongs to Vishwa Karma Brahmin caste and is 23 years old. He was apprenticed at a blacksmith of Coondapoor initially, from 1951 to 1952. During 1953 he started working under a black smith in Hangarkatti on daily wages at the rate of annas 10 per day. From 1954 to 1956, he worked in Nejar at a Blacksmith on daily wages at the rate of annas 13 per day. During 1957, he established his smithy in Kemmannu.

It was interesting to note that the initial capital to start the smithy was raised by Chit Fund money started by some workers of Nejar and Mudthonse. There were in all 25 members each contributing Rs.3/- per month. He got Rs.75/- on the third month of his contribution. The initial capital needed was to purchase the equipments valuing about Rs.110/- As reported, apart from the Chit Fund money, an amount of Rs. 35/- was taken as a loan from his relatives for which no interest was charged.

The description of the equipments, their purchase and present values are given below:

TABLE No.10.10:

Description of the equipment.	Purchase value in Rs.	Present value in Rs
Bellow	40	40
Anvil	25	10
Wheel	15	15
Tangs	4	1
Hammer 12 pounds	12	12
" 8 pounds	8	8
" 3 pounds	3	3
" 2 pounds	2	2
" 1 pound	1	1
Total	110	92

Two outsiders were employed in the workshop on daily wage basis. Both of them belonged to the Vishwa Karma Brahmin caste and were residents of Mudthonse. One of them was appointed as an assistant and was paid wages at the rate of

Rs.1-50 per day. The other one was employed at the wheel, and was paid Re0-75 per day. The smithy was operating on all the days of the week. No weekly holiday was observed.

A description of the operations carried on in the smithy is given below:

(I) Manufacturing the spears: Four varieties of spears were manufactured as well as repaired. Those were (1) Grass cutting sickel (2) wood cutting blade (3) Fish cutting knife, (4) Blade for shearing the leaves of the trees.

A detailed account of the manufacturing costs of each type of knife is as given below:

1	<u>Grass cutting</u> Cost heads	Value in Rs.
	Iron 1 seer	0-37
	Fuel 1/2 Dabba	0-25
	Labour	0-50
	Total	<u>1-12</u>

2	<u>Wood cutting blade</u> Cost heads	Value in Rs.
	Iron 3 seers	1-12
	Fuel 1 Dabba	0-50
	Labour	1-50
	Total	<u>3-12</u>

3	<u>Fish cutting knife</u> Cost heads	Value in Rs.
	Iron 1/2 seer	0-19
	Fuel 1/4 Dabba	0-12
	Labour	0-25
	Total	<u>0-56</u>

4	<u>Knife for sheaving the leaves</u> <u>of the trees:</u>	
	Cost heads	Value in Rs.
	Iron 1½ seers	0-56
	Fuel 3/4 Dabba	0-37
	Labour	0-75
	Total	<u>1-69</u>

(II) Manufacturing the axes	Value in Rs.
Cost heads	
Iron 1½ seers	0-56
Fuel 1/2 Dabba	0-25

(III) Nails for the boats: Nails for the boats were manufactured in 3 sizes (i) 1/3" thickness x 9" length (ii) 3/8" thickness x 5" length.

3 man days were required to produce one maund worth of the first type of the nails. In respect of (ii) and (iii) types of nails 4½ man days were required for the same weight. The iron was supplied by the customers. The cost accounting of one maund worth of each type of nails except the value of iron, is given below:

Cost heads	Value in Rs.
(i) Labour 3 man days	6-00
Fuel 1 bag	2-50

Total	8-50
(ii) Labour 4½ man days	8-00
Fuel 1 bag	2-50

Total	10-50
(iii) Labour 4½ man days	8-00
Fuel 1 bag	2-50

Total	10-50

(iv) Keys for the locks. Keys were manufactured to the order. Usually old keys were given shape as needed. Keys for drawers and cupboards were charged Rs.0-75, while those meant for door locks were charged from Re- 0-25 to Re 0-50.

(v) Knives with wooden handle: Small sized knives with wooden handle were manufactured for variety of purposes. They were manufactured in response to the customers order. The knives so manufactured are charged from Re 0-37 to Re 0-50 according to their size.

Iron was purchased from Udipi when needed from a wholesale dealer. Charcoal, the only fuel, was purchased from charcoal dealers who belonged to Mandarte, Kokkarne Barkur, etc. the neighbouring villages.

As reported, the annual income from smithy was Rs.450/- of which about Rs.200/- were paid out in form of wages. The owner of the establishment went to Mandgadde in Shimoga district from March to May where he was employed by his brother to assist him in cert building industry. During that period

he was paid a monthly salary of Rs.75/- per month. As reported his net earnings from cart building amounted to Rs.200/-.

10.10 Copper Smiths:

As many as sixteen families from Paduthonse reported following copper smithy as an occupation. Apart from this number, two families from Mudthonse were established at Kemmannu in 'Copper-smithy', which were covered by case studies. Of the sixteen families belonging to Paduthonse, 13 families followed 'copper smithy', as the main occupation and 3 as the subsidiary occupation. It was interesting to note that of the sixteen families of Paduthonse, 15 were Muslims and 1 was a Catholic Christian. Both the establishments of Mudthonse operating in Kemmannu were owned by Catholic Christians.

It is necessary, to start with, to make some preliminary remarks about the place of operation of these establishments, to avoid any confusion. Of the 16 families of Paduthonse, 14 reported operating in the rural areas of Shimoga district for eight months during a year, i.e. from October to May. Only the working members of the families migrated and the non-working females and children remained at the village. All those working members of the families who migrated had taken the essential things like utensils, clothes and so forth, and they worked in teams consisting of 3 to 4 persons. Younger members who joined such teams were usually asked to cook the food and do other non-smithy work. The elder members were practically engaged in bringing the old vessels and utensils from the villagers to the work site for repair or tinning purpose. As reported, since generations, these families were engaged in this business and they were well known to the villagers. Conventionally, a team visits a village or a group of villages during the fixed period of a year and the villagers were aware of this fact. By that time the villagers keep their old and repairable stock of vessels and utensils ready. As a village

or group of villages are traditionally allotted to a team, another team usually do not interfere by presenting themselves.

The rest of the two families belonging to Paduthonse were reported operating in the village. One of these families was operating on its own account and the other one was working on wage basis in a Copper Utensil manufacturing Unit at Kemmannu which was owned by a Mudthonse resident. In other words, there were in all 3 establishments working in the village, two of them owned by the Mudthonse residents and one by the Paduthonse resident. One of the establishments run by the Mudthonse residents was practically a copper utensil manufacturing unit, so we shall treat it separately. The other two units were just engaged in repair works and tinning.

Of the 16 families of Paduthonse, in 10 cases the father of the present head of the family was following copper smithy as the main occupation. In 3 cases he was a cultivator, in one case each, he was a Khaji, a tailor in Bombay and a village messenger. Again, of those 16 families, it is worth to note that 5 were immigrants from different surrounding villages 8 to 12 years prior to the survey. It is significant to note that all the immigrant families reported copper smithy as the main occupation of the present head of the family and the reason for their migration to this village was that this place was more convenient for them to form a team.

The total number of the persons of the 16 families engaged in copper smithy was worked out at 23 of which 21 were migrated to Shimoga district in different teams. Of the establishments owned by Mudthonse residents in Kemmannu, 3 persons were engaged in copper smithy. In other words, total number of persons engaged in copper smithy operating in the village was accounted for 5.

The equipments required for the business were of the kind ordinarily used by the black smith. The bellow was small in size and was easily portable. The total value of one set of the equipments was worked out between Rs.50 to Rs.75. In all 10 sets of the equipments were owned by six of the sixteen

families of Paduthonse engaged in copper smithy. It was observed that the equipments were owned by the master of a particular team. The total value of the equipments so owned was estimated at Rs.800/- for the 16 families of Paduthonse and Rs.350 for the two establishments of Mudthonse operating in Paduthonse.

Of the 21 persons who migrated seasonally to Shimoga district, 6 were working as masters of the teams and 15 as the wage earners employed by the masters. Of these six masters only 3 reported getting loans for the business and the rest seemed to be self sufficient in respect of working capital. The business loans of the three families amounted to Rs.1250/- during the survey year. The distribution of the loans according to sources revealed that Rs.850 were from money lenders, Rs.200 each from the bank and the relatives. Of the three establishments operating in the village, 2 reported business loans amounting to Rs.850 in total. The sources of loans were bank, private money lender and the relatives. The third establishment did not need any loan as it was very small in size operated on own account by the establishment owner without employing any outside labour.

The income derived from the families operated outside in copper smithy was amounted to Rs.8140/-. This figure, of course, excludes the personal maintenance charges and transport expenditure. The income derived from other occupations in the village for the same families was accounted for Rs.5319. The corresponding figures for the Paduthonse residents operating in the village was put at Rs.510/- and Rs.155. The income earned by the Mudthonse establishments in Paduthonse was put at Rs.2800- This figure is magnified by Rs.2700/- as the income. Of the copper utensil manufacturing unit owned by a Mudthonse resident is included in it.

10.11 Copper Utensils manufacturing Unit:

So far we have dealt with the copper smiths of the type who undertake the work of repairs and tinning of the old utensils. We dealt with those copper smiths who were residents of the village and were seasonally migrating to Shimoga district for their business motive. We also gave account of those copper smiths who were operating in the Paduthonse area irrespective of their residential place. However, we have mentioned in the beginning of the presence of an entirely different type of copper smithy unit in the village which was not covered in our previous discussion. Unlike the other establishments so far dealt, this unit was mainly engaged in manufacturing the copper utensils out of the copper sheets purchased from Udipi. The unit was owned by a Catholic Christian of Mudthonse and was established in 1930. In this section, we give a detailed review of that unit for which data were obtained by preparing a case study.

The present owner of the unit, aged 62, was an apprentice at a copper smith of Karkala, a taluka place in the South Kanara district for 2 years from 1912 to 1914. In 1914, he migrated to a town place in the old Mysore State and worked on wage basis in a copper utensil manufacturing unit. By 1930, he came to Mudthonse, his native place and established a small 'smithy' unit in Kemmannu, manufacturing copper utensils. The capital required for initial investment was calculated at about Rs.1000/- which was obtained by selling the agricultural land owned by him. The size of the unit remained unchanged until 1952 when he borrowed Rs.4000/- from the money lenders and businessmen and expanded the size of the unit. The expansion took place in the sense, the raw material required was purchased wholesale and two more workers were employed. As reported, the unit was to be expanded by about 1942 only. The establishment owner had made all arrangements for the expansion programme. But his scheme was finally given up as he failed to get the raw material (copper sheets) in the open market. Hence he had to postpone his scheme.

From 1952 to 1955, the size of the unit developed very fast. We could get the rough figures of purchase of copper sheets for different years from 1952 to 1958, which revealed the fact that the unit gradually developed its business turnover from 1952 to 1955 and from 1956 onwards its business started waning as the following figures show:

TABLE 10.11:

Year	Purchase of copper sheets(value in Rs)
1952	6000
1953	9000
1954	12000
1955	12000
1956	7000
1957	6000
1958	5000

The main reason for the declining trend observed after 1956, as advanced by the respondent, was that during 1956 for the first time, bus service started between Udipi and Kemmannu and a major part of the local demand for his product was diverted to the "vessels and utensils stalls" at Udipi where the factory made utensils were got at a cheaper rate.

The equipments owned included the bellow, hammers, pair of scissors, iron rods and other implements. The present value of the equipments was estimated at Rs.300/- Charcoal was the only fuel used which was purchased from Udipi. During 1957-58, charcoal worth Rs.300/- was purchased including transport charges. The accessories like chemicals which were required were also purchased from Udipi. During 1957-58, Rs.325 were spent on such accessories.

The copper sheets required for the industry were purchased from Udipi. During 1957-58, it was reported that copper sheets worth Rs.5000 were purchased.

As mentioned earlier, two workers were employed in the workshop, one belonging to Paduthonse and the other belonging to Mudthonse. Both were Catholic Christians and were apprentices in the same workshop. They were paid on piece wage basis at the rate of Rs.7 to 10 per one maund worth of smithy work. The rates vary according to the types of the utensils manufactured. The wages paid during 1957-58 was amounted to Rs.450/-.

The workshop site was owned by the owner of the establishment and as reported, the estimated value of the building was put at Rs.3000/-.

The short term financial needs of the business were meted out by drawing loans from the Canara Industrial and Syndicate Bank, Kemmannu at 10% interest.

10.12 Goldsmiths:

There were two establishments in Kemmannu. None of them were owned by the residents of the Paduthonse village. One of the establishments belonged to a resident of Mudthonse while the other one belonged to a native of Badanidiyur. General Family Schedule information revealed that only one resident of Paduthonse was mainly earning his livelihood from working under a master goldsmith who had his workshop in Kemmannu. As it was felt necessary, both the establishments were covered by preparing the case studies.

The total number of persons engaged in the two establishments was 5, one from the village and the rest from outside the village. It seems that these two establishments were existing in Kemmannu since last 30 years. Both the establishment owners belonged to the Vishwa Karma Brahmin caste. They owned a few cents of land in Mudthonse and Badanidiyur respectively where they had their own residential houses and a few coconut trees.

The shop premises were rented for Rs.8 and Rs.7 per month respectively. They were electrified and furnished with a stool and a bench for the visitors.

The business equipments consisted of hammers of various size pair of scissors, anvil, scale and so forth. The equipments were bequeathed by the present owners from their respective fathers. As reported the present value of the equipments per establishment comes to about Rs.45/-. The business expenses consisted of the fuel, chemicals, rent and business ~~XXXXXX~~ tax, which were accounted for Rs.160/- and Rs.154/- respectively for the two establishments during 1957-58

The earnings of the two establishments were Rs.1800 and Rs.2700 respectively. The earnings of the second establishment included the wages paid to a Paduthonse resident who was engaged by that establishment on wage basis. The wages thus paid was estimated at Rs.800 during 1958-59. No earnings were reported from other occupations.

10.13 Carpenters:

Apart from the furniture manufacturing unit and the sawyers there were three carpenters establishments operating in Kemmannu. Of the three establishments, one was owned by a resident of the Paduthonse village and other two were owned by outsiders. The resident carpenter belonged to the Vishwa Karma Brahmin caste and outsiders belonged to V.K.Brahmin and Billava castes respectively. The outsiders had entered the field recently, that is, both of them had established in Kemmannu during 1958.

The two carpenters belonging to the Vishwa Karma Brahmin caste reported that carpentry was the main occupation of the family while the Billava carpenter reported that cultivation of the paddy fields as the main occupation. The father of the present head of the family, in the former case, was a carpenter and in the latter instant he was an agricultural labourer. It was important to note that the Billava carpenter, aged 53, by the time of survey, had entered the field of carpentry since 1955 only. As regards his previous experience he reported that he learnt the art of carpentry some ten years back when he worked under the head master of the Aided Higher Elementary School, Kemmannu, while manufacturing the

furnitures for the school. He worked as a casual labourer, but was keen on picking up the art. The head master of the Aided Higher Elementary School, who was a good craftsman, instructed him with important hints. Afterwards he learnt preparing ploughs and other agricultural implements. By about 1955 he regularly entered the professional field of carpentry. By 1958, he established at Kemmannu at a rented building. I

The other outsider, a Vishwa Karma Brahmin carpenter was from Brahmavar and he casually shifted his operation from Brahmavar to Kemmannu during 1958. Throughout the survey he was working at Kemmannu in building construction work. The resident carpenter also worked on building construction work throughout the survey year. In all four persons, two from the village and two from outside the village, were engaged in carpentry.

The implements owned by the carpenters included the hammers of different weight, chisels, sawyers, and others. The present value of the implements was estimated at Rs.75 in respect of the resident carpenter and Rs.115/- for the outside carpenters together. As reported, none of the carpenters purchased timber or other logs on their own account. The work was done in response to the order from the customers. Baluta system was not prevalent and the payment was in cash.

As stated earlier, throughout the survey year, the Vishwa Karma Brahmin carpenters were engaged in building construction activity. During the survey year, three new buildings at Kemmannu for shop premises and one residential house at Gudyam were constructed. The carpenters were employed on daily wages of Rs.4/- in three cases and were appointed on contract basis in one case.

The Billava carpenter reported that he manufactured about 250 ploughs during 1953-59. The raw material was given by the customers and the plough was made on contract basis. As reported labour charge on making one plough varied from annas eight to annas ten. Other work done included manufacturing of

residential furnitures, repairs of the furnitures, repairs of the agricultural implements and so forth. The net earnings from carpentry in case of the resident carpenter was calculated at Rs.1800/-. In case of the outsiders it was estimated at Rs.1700/- of which Rs.500 was shared by the Billava carpenter who manufactured and repaired agricultural implements.

One of the members of the resident carpenters family was a teacher in the local elementary school and his total emoluments for the survey year from his individual occupation was put at Rs.804. The female members of the family were engaged in cultivation of the coconut garden worth 0.50 acres owned by the family on Mull-right. No income from the coconut garden was reported as the trees were still non-yielding

10.14 Sawyers:

Two Catholic Christians, one Beljada and one Vishwa Karma Brahmin, the total being four, reported sawing as the main occupation of the family. In case of the three families, the father of the present head of the family was following sawing as the main occupation of his family. In respect of the last family, the father was reported to be an agricultural labourer. The four families have engaged six male adults in the occupation.

Of the four families, three reported owning the saws while one did not own. The present value of the saw owned by the above families was estimated at Rs.60/-.As reported the saws were completely replaced at an interval of two years. One family reported owning the other implements like hammers and chisels, which were handed over by the father of the present head of the family. Presently, however, they were of no use to the present head of the family.

The sawyers were employed by the house builders, boat makers, etc. to saw the wooden logs into different shapes. Even the sawyers from Mudthonse numbering about six were daily coming to Kemmannu to saw the logs for making a boat. Just at the border of the Paduthonse village, in the Kemmannu area, a Mudthonse master carpenter had established a furniture making

unit in which 6 to 10 carpenters from Mudthonse were working on daily wages. As reported, none of the sawyers from the village Paduthonse were engaged in the unit. They were wholly engaged in sawing the logs for the house building purpose inside the village as well as outside. It was estimated that on an average, each sawyer worked for 10 months during a year, of which he was employed by the outsiders for about 3 months and by the residents of the Paduthonse villagers for about 7 months. It must be made clear that this estimation of the employment structure of the sawyers was crudely made by the Research Assistant, who interviewed them while preparing the case studies. As reported, during the survey year, the sawyers were employed in the neighbouring villages like Hangarkatte, Kukkade, Badanidiyur and so forth, for a short period now and then.

Two of the families owned coconut gardens worth 0.70 acres on Mulli-right and had their own houses built. The rest two did not own any landed or house property. The annual income from sawyer's occupation was put at Rs.2560 for the four families of Paduthonse. Of which we can estimate that about Rs. 1792 were earned in the village and Rs.768 were earned outside the village. Two families reported income from other sources like coir thread spinning, sale of milk, coconut garden and so forth. The income from other sources was put at Rs.481.

10.15 The Furniture Making Unit, Kemmannu:

A furniture making unit was established at Kemmannu by a Vishwa Karma Brahmin (Konkani) of Mudthonse by about 1953. The firm was initially established to manufacture the household furnitures. By about 1955, the owner of the establishment took interest in manufacturing the boats. During the survey year a boat with a capacity of 40 muras of rice was manufactured in response to an order by a paddy merchant of Hangarkatte. About a dozen chairs, 4 tables and some benches without backs were also manufactured at the end of the year.

The number of the carpenters employed in the firm was not fixed. The figure varied from 6 to 14 according to the volume of the work at a point of time. It was interesting to note that all the carpenters employed on a daily wage of Rs.2/-8/- were coming from Mudthonse and other neighbouring villages.

A small shed-like workshop was built on the bank of the Swarna river. The implements like saws, chisels and hammers were, in many cases, owned by the wage earner carpenters. The master carpenter owned 3 saws, half a dozen chisels, and hammers of different weight. The value of the equipments owned by the master carpenter was put at Rs.75 only. An annual rent of Rs.60 was paid for the land where the workshop shed was built at a cost of Rs.60 by the owner of the establishment.

The balance sheet of the firm for the year 1957-58 was roughly estimated as below:

TABLE 10.12:

Expenses

Purchase of wooden logs	Rs. 3000
Transport charges	Rs 450
Wages paid	Rs 5000
Other expenses	Rs 500

	8950

Receipts

The sale value of the boats and furnitures manufactured	Rs 11500
---	----------

On the basis of the above balance sheet the net earnings of the establishment owner from the firm was roughly estimated at Rs.2550.

The firm reported the need of finance for purchase of the wooden logs and payment of the wages to the carpenters. Part of the requirement was meted out by the advances made to the customers towards their individual orders put with the firm. The advances so made were non-interest bearing. The rest of the financial needs were met by drawing loans from the Canara

Industrial and Banking Syndicate at 9% interest on business security. During the survey year, by the time of our visit, the establishment owner had received an advance worth Rs.2500 from a paddy dealer for manufacturing a boat. He had also drawn a loan worth Rs.500 from the Syndicate Bank.

The raw materials required were mainly timber and other variety logs and nails and varnish colour and other things. The timber and other logs were purchased from the Ghat side villages and other accessories were purchased from Udipi.

It was difficult to estimate what amount of money was spent by the Paduthonse residents to purchase the products of this firm during the survey year. The customers for boats and furnitures scattered, in different neighbouring villages. The fishermen from Paduthonse village who invested during the survey year on boats, purchased their boats from Mangalore. A big boat and another small boat manufactured by the firm during the survey year were purchased by the residents of the neighbouring villages. It was estimated that furnitures and fixtures worth Rs.300 were purchased by the residents of Paduthonse during the survey year.

10.16 Basket Making:

Two families belonging to Koraga caste (untouchables) reported basket making from Sadarangi twigs, as an occupation. The basket making was the main family occupation in case of one and in another case it was a subsidiary occupation. The two families engaged 3 adults females and 1 adult male in the occupation. The other occupations of the families were public services like street cleaning, drum beating during the Kola ceremony, removing the skin of the dead cattle and other minor work. The two families engaged 3 male adults in another occupations. It is significant to note that this caste is at the bottom rung of the ladder of the Hindu caste system, and even the Koosas (the so-called Harijans) were supposed to be polluted if they came in physical contact with a Koraga. The families did not own any landed property or house.

The basket making was supposed to be a caste occupation. As reported, in the previous generation, basket-making was never followed as the main occupation of the family. It might have been due to the fact that only females were engaged in basket making and the adult males of the families were engaged in coffee plantation labour in Chikmagalur district. However, it is important to note that no member of either of the families was engaged in coffee plantation labour during the survey year. One of the families reported that 3 male adults were earning outside the village, i.e. working under the Public Health Department of the Udipi Municipality on a monthly salary of Rs.40/- each.

Basket making requires implements such as a knife, a big needle of negligible value. Both the families owned each a knife valued at about one rupee and two needles valued at above five annas. Hence the investment in implements was worked out at Rs.3/- for both the families.

The main raw material used for basket making were the tender twigs of the 'sadarangi' trees. The 'sadarangi' trees were present on the embankments of the Keppatodu and also on the out-skirts of the strips of the paddy fields. Only those twigs which were of the regular breadth were cut and bundled and brought to the house site. The family labour was engaged in procuring the raw material. As reported, one person could bring one bundle of the twigs sufficient for making eight baskets. The raw material was procured free of cost.

The twigs so brought were cut into uniform sizes and were smoothened after removing the irregularities. The twigs were then soaked in water for one day. The second day, the twigs were vertically cut in the middle and then they were woven into baskets. The baskets so made were of different sizes, their capacity to hold grains varying from 3 seers to 14 seers. The price of the basket varied in relation to its size. For example, a basket capable of holding 3 seers of grain was priced at annas 4 while a basket holding 14 seers of grain was

sold for annas 12. The total number of baskets made during 1958-59 was estimated at 434, and as reported, the whole production was sold out in the village. The two families reported Rs.217/- as the earnings from basket making. The earnings from other occupation for the two families was put at Rs.425/-.

It seems that the demand for the baskets for different purposes, say, for storing the grain or carrying the fish or for bringing the grocery was not completely meted out by the local production shown above. Even the weekly market survey did not reveal any outside basketmakers bringing their products. Hence an enquiry was made into some fishermen families as regards the place of the purchase of the baskets required for carrying the fish. The enquiry revealed that the required number of baskets were purchased by each family in Kalyanpur at the beginning of the fish season. However, we do not have any figures as regards the number of baskets purchased from outside.

10.17 Mason:

There were seven families with eight working members reporting masonry as an occupation in the village. It was observed that these masons work in team headed by a 'maistry' or a building contractor. Hence it is important to distinguish the 'wage' earner mason, from the maistry. Of the seven families stated above, three reported that they were building contractors and four with five working members reported that they were 'wage earner masons'. Two of the 'maistries' were Koosas (Harijan) in caste and the third one was a Billava. Of the four 'wage earner masons' three were Billavas and one was a Kooasa. One of the 'maistries' was a native of the Paduthonse village and the rest two had migrated to this village some 30 years back to live with the matriarchal family. Of the four 'wage earner masons' families, three reported natives of this village and one was an inmigrant some 20 years back to live with the matriarchal family. The

occupational change from father to son was observed as from agricultural labour to masonry in 4 cases, from toddy tapping and Mridanga player in one case each. Only in one case, masonry was the main occupation of the present head of the family.

The three maistries reported the necessary tools and implements they required for the occupation. The tools and implements required were consisted of a leveller, chisels, hammers and so forth. The present value of the implements was estimated at Rs.60/-.

Usually for constructing a building or a well the contract was given to the 'maistry' after sufficient bargaining. The usual rate varied from Rs.8 to Rs.10 to do 100 stones worth of building. When a contract was given to a maistry the responsibility of making direct payments to the 'wage earning masons' was shifted to the maistry. Some time, the builder employed the masons on daily wage basis. Then the daily wage rates varied from Rs.1.50 to the ordinary worker to Rs.4.50 to the maistry, who was also employed on wage basis. When the quality of the construction work was preferred, the masons were employed on wage basis. It was reported by some of the builders during the survey year that the building costs increased substantially when the masons were employed on wage basis. The reason produced was that there was a tendency to work slow on the part of the masons when employed on the wage basis.

The other occupations followed by the mason families were agricultural labour, fish labour and 'rampani' fishing. Two of the families reported receiving remittances from Bombay from the relatives, either in hotels as serving (3 cases) or in some business concerns as clerks (2 cases). The income from masonry for the seven families was reported as Rs.4360 while the income from other sources were put at Rs.1425 of which remittances from Bombay amounted to Rs.750.

During the survey year 3 shop premises in Kemmannu and one residential house of modern type in Gudyam were constructed. Except for 3 months during the rainy season, the masons were fully employed. Apart from the building construction activity stated above, they were engaged in minor works like building the wells and cattle sheds in different localities of the village. One mason claimed that he had gone to Kukkade, a neighbouring village for construction of a residential building for about a fortnight. It was also observed that 4 to 5 casual workers from Mudthonse were also working in the building construction at Kemmannu.

Building construction activity is such which requires casual labour in a large quantity at a particular stage of the work. Usually unskilled agricultural labourers or fish labourers (both sex) were employed. However, it was not possible to separate the income from building construction activity for those large number of families who reported agricultural labour as the main source of living.

10.18 Barbers:

There were four hair cutting saloons at Kemmannu. Three of them were owned by the residents of Paduthonse and one by a resident of Badanidiyur. However, for the latter, the place of operation was Kemmannu. The owners of the establishments in two cases, belonged to Parel Madiwala caste and in two other cases they were Bhandaris. Barbers occupation was claimed as caste occupation in both the cases. However, the former were supposed to be inferior to the latter in social status because the Parel Madiwala caste barbers were serving the inferior caste people like Billavas and Beljadas while the Bhandaris used to serve the upper Hindu classes, catholics and Muslims. Hence the distinction propped up and the upper Hindu classes ceased

to take services from the Parel Madiwala barbers. However, the Catholic Christians and Muslims continued to take services from the Madival caste barbers as they were not concerned with this class distinction. The Billavas in turn supported the Parel Madiwala barbers and a sort of 'baluta' system was also established with them. As reported each Billava family paid one coconut, 1/2 seer rice and one rupee per year to its barber in connection with his special services at the time of birth, marriage or death which took place at his house. It is important to note that neither the Parel Madiwalas nor the Bhandaris serve the Koozas or Koragas of the untouchable class. The Koozas and Koragas, most of them did not cut their hair and used to tie them in a knot at the back of their head as the ladies in our country do. Even in upper class Hindus the practices of tying the hair in knot was observed only among old generation. However, none of them grew beards, even the Muslims. The Koozas and Koragas got their chin shaved by themselves. The other caste people took the services of the barbers. One of the Bhandari barbers reported that he served 3 baluta households of the upper class Hindus and rendered special services in some religious ceremonies.

As the village was a 'scattered' or 'line' village physically making it difficult for the barbers to move from house to house for hair cutting, it seems that the establishment of the saloons at a central place was a physical necessity. By about 1940, the three original establishments started their saloons at Kemannu. The fourth one was an immigrant, with experience in Bombay and other places and had established during 1957. All the four families reported barbers as the main occupation. One of the three families of Paduthonse reported owning landed property worth 0.50 acres and a residential house. The rest two put up in rented houses.

The saloon premises in all the four cases were rented and the monthly rent varied from Rs.5 to Rs.8. As reported Rs.312 were paid annually towards the rent of the saloon premises. None of the saloons were electrified and they were closed after sunset. In special circumstances, petrolmax was lighted when service was necessary after the sunset. Except one, all the saloons were equipped with furnitures, mirrors and other amenities. The present value of the equipments was estimated at Rs.550/-. One of the respondent reported expenses on scented hair oil and snow which he made use of under special circumstances. Except one Parel Madiwala, all reported expenses on face powder and soap. The expenses on accessories was reported at Rs.140/- per year.

The instruments of the barbers consisted of pairs of scissors, hair cutting machines, combs, etc. Many of the instruments were replaced at an interval of 3 years. The present value of the instruments owned by all the four establishments was worked out at Rs.180/-.

The rates of hair cutting vary from annas 4 in case of children to annas 6 in case of adults. In special cases the rate was annas 8 per head. In all 6 persons were engaged in four saloons. Two persons belonged to Badinidiyur and the rest were from the village. As reported, they were working for about 8 hours per day. Occasionally they were visiting the households of the higher class Hindus as the latter were finding it below their dignity to visit the saloon themselves. The three establishments of Paduthonse reported earning Rs.3150/- per year from this occupation. Of that amount Rs.150 were received in kind payment by the Parel Madiwal barbers, from the baluta households belonging to the Billava caste. One of the families reported income from land which was calculated at Rs.200/- In other cases, no income from other occupations was reported.

During the survey year, a barber's wife reported learning the art of bidi making. However, no income was reported from that occupation. She reported that she was tempted to learn the art as she saw her girl friend at her mother's place making bidis.

10.19. Washermen:

There was one washerman's establishment in Kemmannu which was owned by a Paduthonse resident. The owner belonged to the Madiwal caste that is, the washerman caste. The present owner of the family followed his caste occupation from his boyhood. But it was very recently that is in 1957, that a shop premises as such was opened in Kemmannu. Prior to that, part of the residential house was used as a business premises. The family did not own any landed property.

The shop premises at Kemmannu was rented for Rs.3.50 per month. It was not electrified and was not furnished. However, it was equipped with the essential furnitures like a big table, a stool, and ward robe which the business warranted. Description of the equipments possessed and the value is given below:

TABLE 10.13:

Equipments	No.	Value in Rs.
Iron	1	25.00
Wardrobe	1	15.00
Table	1	5.00
Chair	1	4.00
Earthen pan	1	1.00
Total		Rs. 50.00

The accessories needed for the business included washing soap, washing soda, blue colour and charcoal. An estimate of the expenditure on the above items during the

course of an year is given below:

Items	Value in Rs.
Washing Soap	65.00
Washing soda	40.00
Blue colour	4.00
Charcoal	36.00

Total	145.00

All the three adult members of the family, two male and one female were engaged in the occupation. The female was engaged in washing the clothes at a nearby pond and the two males were engaged in collecting clothes as well as ironing the clothes at the shop premises.

The rate of washing was 8 clothes per rupee for irregular customers and 10 clothes per rupee for regular customers. As reported there were only five customers who were supplying the clothes regularly and were charged at the rate of 10 clothes per rupee. The clothes were also accepted for 'ironing only'. In that case the rate was one anna per piece. The establishment earned a net profit of Rs.700 during 1957-58. No income from other sources was reported.

Baluta system was not observed in this case also. However, a sort of occasional religious services were rendered to some Bant families who paid him in kind for the particular services. For example, when a birth took place in the family, the washerman was called on the 5th day of the birth to sprinkle holy water at the house premises. For this service, he was given a coconut and a good dinner. When the marriage took place, washerman's services were needed in decorating the marriage pendal with a new cloth. He was given a dinner, coconuts and some cash all amounting to Rs.5 to 6. When death took place, washerman was asked to heat water to wash the corpse. On the fifth day of the death, he should go to the cremation ground and erect two poles which was called 'Goodu'. On the 12th day, he should just go

to the spot and come back. For these services he was paid annas four on the first and the fifth day and annas six on the 12th day.

10.20 Removing the skin of the dead cattle:

One Koraga family from Paduthonse reported that removing the skin of the dead cattle was its caste occupation. During the previous year of the survey 6 dead cattle were received. The family was not in any obligation to pay in cash or kind to the owner of the dead cattle. There was no baluta system prevalent in this respect.

The beef was eaten by the families belonging to the Koraga caste. There was no economic transaction. It was the right of a member of the Koraga caste to demand his share in the beef so got free of charge. Of course, in that circumstances, the sharers of the beef voluntarily rendered their services in removing the skin and butchering the dead cattle.

The skin was processed by indigeneous method. 25% of the skin so processed was utilized by the family in replacing the old or worn out skins of their existing drums. The rest of the skin was sold out to the cobblers at Udipi. During the previous year of the survey skin worth Rs.25 was sold out to the Udipi cobblers.

No special instruments were possessed by the family to remove the skin. The ordinary knives of the day to day use were made use of in the above case.

10.21 Repairing the old umbrellas:

Two families, one Billava and the other Muslim, reported umbrella repairing as their subsidiary occupation during the rainy season. The Billava family reported Hamali at a grocer's shop as its main occupation and the Muslim family earned its main income from bidi manufacturing on wage basis. When enquired about the past history, the Billava reported that he was a tailor-cum-cloth merchant in Kemmannu for a period of 24 years, but liquidated his

business as he seriously suffered from some mental set back. The Muslim declared that his father was dealing with second hand household equipments. He was acquainted with the repair work of umbrellas and other old things from his childhood.

The business equipments consist of old and worn out instruments like needles, threads, wire and so forth. The present value of the equipments and accessories was estimated at Rs.5/- in each case.

There was no shop premises as such. The repair work was done at the residential site of the customer. The rates charged for repair work, in both the cases, varied from annas two to annas eight depending upon the type of the work. As reported, Rs.140/- were earned during 1957-58 from repairing the umbrellas. The income from other occupations amounted to Rs.1086 for the same period.

10.22 Stitching the Grain bags:

A Muslim reported stitching the grain bags in Hangarkatte rice mills was his main occupation. The family resided in the Adda Bengre area which is not far off from the Hangarkatte rice mills. For about six months in a year he was employed in this occupation. He was paid a piece wage at the rate of one fourth of an anna per bag and his daily earnings varied from Re.1 to Rs.3 in relation to the quantity of work available.

The jute thread and bags were provided by the owners of the rice mills. The stitching needle of negligible cost was owned by the respondent. His duty was to stitch the mouth of the bag after it is filled with rice. The total earnings from this occupation was reported at Rs.240 per year. The other occupation followed was coir thread spinning from which Rs.204/- were earned.

The father of the present head of the family was a cultivator of the owned land. However, the present head of the family owned only 0.3 cents of land and cultivated 0.10 cents more on muliright. No income was reported from the land.

10.23 Making coconut shell table spoons:

One Koosa was engaged in making table spoons out of coconut shells. The spoons were of crude craftsmanship with half of a coconut shell attached to a bamboo handle. They were mainly used by the Catholic Christians and Billavas to serve curry at dining table. The raw material used for were coconut shells and bamboo shafts which were collected free of cost. As reported, about 1500 spoons were made during 1957-58. They were sold to the residents of Faduthonse and part of Mudthonse. One spoon costed about one anna and the income from sale of spoons was reported at Rs.50/- for the year 1957-58. The main occupation followed by the family was fish labour, from which Rs.800/- were earned during 1957-58.

10.24 Cattle breeding:

A Hindu Brahmin reported that 'cattle breeding' was his subsidiary occupation. The family owned 3 stud-bulls for that purpose. The stud-bulls were home grown and belonged to the local variety.

The maintenance cost of the 3 stud bulls was estimated at about Re 1 per day. The daily receipt of the bulls contained the following items:

Oil seed cake 3/4 seer	Rs 0.37
Horse gram 1/2 seer	0.28
Straw	0.40

	Rs 0.99

Every day two of the bulls were made use of while the third one took rest. The fee charged per cattle was Re.1/-. Hence, the maximum per day earning was put at Rs.2 only. The family reported Rs.300/- as the income from this occupation.

The income from other occupations, namely, land rent received and so forth was accounted for Rs.310/-.

10.25 Coir thread manufacturing and rope making:

Manufacture of coir thread and rope making is an important cottage industry, in the village because the General Family Schedule data reveal that in all 105 families or 11.0 percent of the total number of the village families are engaged in the industry as their main source of livelihood. If the number of those who are engaged in the industry as their subsidiary occupation is taken into account, the total number of the families engaged in the coir manufacturing industry as a source of income comes to 357 or 37.1 percent of the total number of the families in the village. The coir manufacturing is limited to the rope making stage, and in all the stages of the manufacturing, it is undertaken on a cottage scale. So far the weaving of the coir mats is not undertaken, which, after enquiry, was understood to be due to the lack of technical knowledge of weaving aspect by those who are presently engaged in the coir manufacturing industry.

Before analysing any economic aspects of the industry we shall describe different processes of coir manufacturing as they are currently followed in the village. The processes of coir manufacturing may be broadly divided into (i) Husking and retting the husk, (ii) Extracting the fibre and winnowing (iii) Combing and spinning the thread, and (iv) rope making. We give below a brief description of the technical aspect and the employment potentiality of each process mentioned above.

(1) Husking and retting the husk: The characteristic ingenuity of the country process of husking requires an iron spike or a hard wooden stake with a sharpened upper end to be fixed on ground at a certain angle. The worker, sitting on the ground or sometimes standing, strikes the stem end of the coconut on the sharpened point of the stake or spike and

with a careful twist, separates the husk from the nut, generally in three parts. Then the husks are carried to the retting ground on a boat.

Retting facilities and nearness to backwater play an important part. As soon as the husks are collected, they are to be dipped into water, in the form of a heap. Over this heap, old coconut leaves and thatches are spread on which again small mounds of earth and sand are scattered forming a layer. Finally, stones, bricks, planks and such other heavy weights are put over the heap. This is done so that instead of floating up the heap of husks may remain completely submerged.

According to the expert opinion of many in the trade, the water necessary for this purpose should be with saline contents. Backwaters provide almost an ideal medium for soaking the husks. The husks soaked in stagnant ponds, yield the worst types of fibre, and therefore, hardly be used for commercial purposes. The husk is kept under water for a varying period of 6 to 12 months.

Table 10.14 presents the figures in respect of the number of the families engaged in different processes of coir manufacturing. For husking and retting the husk, 7 families reported that they are mainly engaged and 2 reported that they are engaged in the process as a subsidiary source of income. It must be made clear that husking and retting, though different operations, are carried on by the same persons. Husked fibres are taken in a boat and dipped in a pitch in the backwater and heavy logs are placed on them.

Husking and retting the husk was mainly done by the Billava males and they received piece wages of Rs.2.50 per 1000 husks. Extracting the fibre and winnowing was done by the Beljada women and they were paid a piece wage of Rs.3.10 per 1000 husks. Combing and spinning was mainly done on own account and when it was done on wage basis, the wage rate

TABLE 10.14: No. of families engaged in different processes of coir industry.

Processes	As main source of income. No. of families	As subsidiary source of income No. of families	Total No. of families.
Husking and retting the husk	7	2	9
Extracting the fibre and winnowing	8	12	20
Combing & spinning	97	238	335
Rope making	19	-	19
Total number of families engaged in coir industry (adjusted figures)	105	252	357

was annas 2 per 100 yards of the thread. In the case of the families spinning the coir thread on their own account, the following figures show the income and expenditure account.

Value of retted husks per 1000	Rs.30
Wages paid for extracting the fibre and winnowing	Rs. 3
Total costs	Rs.33
Value of 12000 yards of coir thread	Rs.60
Profit	Rs.27

Ropemaking is done mainly on individual's own account.

When the labour was employed for that purpose, the following were the wage rates.

Rope for drawing water	Rs 1 per 100 yards
Rope for bullock carts	Rs 1 per 400 yards
Rope for live stock	Rs 1 per 300 yards
Rope for bundling the paddy straw	Rs 1 per 200 yards

The income earned by the residents of the village from the coir industry are given below.

Removing the coconut husk	Rs 4800
Beating and combing the husk	3330
Coir thread spinning & rope making	48080
Dealers in coir & coir products	15250
Total	71460

10.23 Palmyra Jaggery and Neera:

Licences were given to 36 members of the Palmyra Jaggery Manufacturers' Cooperative Society for tapping the palmyra and the coconut trees. The members belonged to either Billava or the Beljada caste and toddy manufacturing was their traditional occupation. In fact no Neera was sold out and very little jaggery was manufactured as all the juice tapped was converted into toddy and was sold to the local consumers. Hence it was not possible to collect the reliable statistics about the manufacture of jaggery.

X-X-X-X-X-X

-:- CHAPTER XI :-:-

-:- TRADE AND TRANSPORT :-:-

In Chapter X production system for non-agricultural occupations was observed. In this Chapter, an attempt is made to observe the trading and transport systems which are very important from the point of view of indicating the economic change. Trading is divided into (i) whole sale trade; and (ii) retail trade. Fish dealing, coconut and coir dealings and wholesale purchasing of grain are included in the whole sale trade. Grocers, Cloth merchants, hotel owners and other petty traders are treated as retail traders. Transport and trade are mutually dependents for their respective growth. Hence they are treated together in this Chapter. Topics like boat transport, bullock carts, motor vehicles and so forth are treated in the section under Transport. It is felt that a topic like 'working of the village Post Office' is also of some importance to study along with the topics under Trade and Transport. The data collected are mainly based on the case studies.

11.1 Trading:

A list of the trading establishments functioning in the village revenue boundary is given in table 11.1. The trading establishments are classified into wholesale establishments and retail establishments as suggested above. Again, the establishments are classified as belonging to the residents of the village and that to the outsiders. It was learnt that some shops in a row of the Kemmannu main market are situated outside the Paduthonse village boundary. However, those shop establishments are included in the enquiry. Particular attention is also taken to mention the locational distribution of each type of establishment. This is particularly important in view of studying the working of the trading system in a spread out village.

TABLE 11.1: Trading establishments in Paduthonse.

Type of establishments	Belonging to Residents.	Belonging to Non-residents	Total
<u>Whole sale establishments</u>			
Fish dealers	20	2	22
Coir dealers	15	-	15
Coconut dealers	6	3	9
Paddy dealers	1	-	1
<u>Retail sale establishments</u>			
Grocers	17	-	17
Cloth merchants	2	2	4
Stationery shops	4	3	7
Pan-Bira-Biri merchants	17	3	20
Hotel keepers	20	2	22

11.2 Whole sale trading in fish:

Due to instability of price on account of uncertainty of yield, fish dealing involves tremendous risk. Past history of the business in the village reveals that a top most dealer with his yearly turnover amounting to about Rs.1½ lakhs was completely bankrupt during the years from 1948 to 1953 due to bumper crop resulting in the collapse of the whole sale prices. However, fish dealing has attracted as many as 22 families of which 18 have undertaken it as the main source of income. A caste wise distribution of these families shows that 13 were Muslims, 6 were Mogavira and 3 were Billavas. Most of the fish dealing families held land (mostly owned) for the main purpose of establishing the curing yard. All the land held was on the sea shore. The position of land holding was as given below. Three families did not hold any land. 13 families held land upto one acre only and 6 families held land above one acre and upto 5 acres only. It is significant to note that none of them held paddy land. In parts of the land held coconut trees were planted some of which had started yielding by the time of the survey year. Except the three dealers who did not hold any land, all the dealers had built their own curing yards.

Eight of the dealers reported that they advanced credit to the Big Rampani Groups of Paduthonse to an extent of Rs.32000 without interest. While purchasing the fish, these dealers were dictating the prices. In case of other dealers, they did not have that advantage.

The big eight dealers reported that they got credit from the wholesale fish dealers at Mangalore and also from the local branch office of the Canara Industrial Banking and Syndicate Ltd, Udipi.

In the following is presented an estimate of the income and expenditure account of the fish dealers in Paduthonse:

Expenditure heads		Income heads.	
Items	Rs.	Items	Rs.
Purchase of fish	32,425	Sale of fish	79,400
Labour charges	21,010	Sale of fish oil	8,971
Curing yard	1,920	Total	
Salt	5,130	Minus expenditure	67,396
Package	1,280	Net profit	21,975
Transport	3,450		
Interest on money borrowed	1,600		
Other sale costs	581		
Total	67,396		

Expenditure on labour reported by the 22 fish dealers in Paduthonse is only Rs.21,010 while the income of the fish labour families is reported as Rs.52,614. Some labourers might have worked for the non-resident fish dealers. Still the wide margin continues to remain. One can simply assume that the fish dealers have in general under reported both most of the items both under expenditure and income heads

11.3 Coir dealers:

There were 15 coir dealers and all of them belonged to Paduthonse. Of these dealers only 6 persons used to ret the fibre husk and supply it to the coir spinners. The others

used to advance the fibre to the spinners after purchasing it from the big dealers. No interest was charged on the raw material so supplied. But there was a condition that the spinners should supply their yarns to the respective dealer only at the fixed price. On the part of the dealer, it was a way of controlling the size of his business by assuring himself the supply of the finished product. The yarn purchased was sold wholesale to the local ropemakers and also to the wholesale dealers at Mangalore. The coir dealers reported an income of Rs.15250 as the profit.

11.4 Coconut dealers:

There were 9 coconut dealers of which 6 were from Paduthonse and the rest 3 were from the neighbouring villages. They reported the purchase of about 10 lakhs of coconuts from the village and the neighbouring islands. The purchase value of the coconuts varied from Rs.17 to Rs.21 per 100 according to the size of the nut. The total purchase value, the expenditure on removing the husk, transport costs and the sale proceeds were as given below.

Purchase value	Rs.1,73,400
Removing the husk	2,500
Transport	1,750
Total	1,77,650
Sale proceeds	1,87,000
Profit	9,350

An interesting fact is that most of the coconut dealers are themselves the big cultivators of the coconut groves.

11.5 Paddy dealer:

As the paddy grown in the village was not sufficient for the population of 5450, it was necessary to import rice from outside. Rice was imported by the big three grocers as well as one paddy dealer. The paddy dealer, a Muslim by caste, owned a lorry for the transport of rice from the neighbouring Shimoga district. During the previous year of one enquiry,

he reported an import of about Rs.50,000 worth of rice. The imported rice was sold to the grocers of as many as eight villages on this coast including Paduthonse. The income and expenditure accounts of the business were as follow:

Purchase value	Rs. 44,920
Transport costs	2,100
Other costs	870
Total	47,890
Total sale proceeds	50,560
Profit	2,670

11.6 Grocers:

There were 17 grocery shops in three different localities of the village. The bigger shops doing both wholesale and retail business were situated in Kemmannu. In Hoode and Adda Bengre localities, only petty traders in grocery were reported. The distribution of the shops in the three localities was, six in Kemmannu, seven in Hoode, and four in Adda Bengre. Three shops in Kemmannu were doing both wholesale and retail business. Other shops in Kemmannu, as well as in other two localities reported purchasing their goods from these three shops. The wholesale dealers used to import their requirements from the big dealers in Udipi.

All the grocery shops in the village were owned by the residents. Twelve of them followed it as the main source of living and for other five it was a subsidiary occupation. A caste wise distribution of the owners of the shops revealed that six were Muslims, five Billavas, three Gouda Saraswat Brahmins, and one each from Brahmin, Ganig and Catholic Christian. The three big shops at Kemmannu were owned by a Brahmin, a Gouda Saraswat Brahmin and a Ganig respectively. Eight of the grocers reported that they did not hold any land while six held land upto one acre and three, more than one acre.

The three wholesale merchants used to import goods from Hangarkatte and Udipi. The other petty grocers reported that they purchased their requirements from the three whole sale merchants at Kemmannu. In table 11.2 data are given in respect of the sales of different commodities to direct consumers and retailers by the three wholesale merchants at Kemmannu. The figures reveal the total turnover of the trade in grocery because the figures in the second column also mean the turnover of the 14 small grocers excluding their profits.

TABLE 11.2: Sales of different commodities by three big grocers in Kemmannu.

Commodity	Retail Sale to own customers Value in Rs.	Wholesale sale to small grocers value in Rs.	Total sales value in Rs.	Percentage
Rice (Parboiled)	1,80,800	1,20,080	3,00,880	56.52
Rice	70,812	5,360	76,172	14.32
Wheat	125	-	125	0.02
Pulses	19,380	6,840	26,220	4.92
Rava	1,120	-	1,120	0.21
Khajur	560	320	880	0.16
Sweet potato.	920	-	920	0.17
Potato	490	-	490	0.09
Onion	1,340	-	1,340	0.25
Sugar	13,230	9,400	22,630	4.25
Jaggery	16,450	11,340	27,790	5.22
Coconut Oil	8,430	6,930	15,360	2.89
Groundnut Oil	320	-	320	0.06
Vanaspati	450	-	450	0.08
Dry chilly	11,270	18,310	29,580	5.56
Pepper	960	-	960	0.18
Tamarind	1,017	1,815	2,832	0.53
Salt	138	168	306	0.06
Kerosene Oil	4,032	2,628	6,660	1.25
Washing soap	1,680	120	1,800	0.34
Others	12,110	3,418	15,528	2.92
TOTAL	3,45,634	1,86,729	5,32,363	100.00
Net Profit(in Rs) (Estimated)	20,738	5,602	26,340	

An important item of the trade in grocery is rice whose sale value registers about 70 percent of the total turnover figure. Other items of importance are pulses, sugar, jaggery, coconut oil dry chilly and kerosene oil. The bigness of the trade is revealed by the total turnover figure of Rs.5,32,363.

The profit earned by the three big grocers was estimated at 6 percent in case of retail sale to own customers and 3 percent in case of wholesale sale to small grocers. The small grocers further earned a profit of about 6 percent. The total net income from trade in grocery hence mounted upto Rs.26,340, in case of three big grocers and Rs.11,204 in case of ~~kkkxk~~ 14 small grocers. In the General Family enquiry the income from grocery is reported as only Rs.14,150 which is due mainly to the underreporting of the income by the big three grocers.

The fixed capital investment was estimated at Rs.2130 in case of the three big grocers and Rs.1560 in case of the small grocers. All the small grocers in Hoode and Adda Bengre had their shop premises and residence in the same building. In 8 cases the buildings were owned, and in three cases they were rented. All the shop premises in Kemmannu were rented. They were connected with electricity. Two of the three big grocers reported that they have maintained separate store houses, especially for storing rice. The third big grocer did not have any storing facilities. A Small grocer on the other hand did not need any storing facilities.

One of the big grocers had employed three persons at monthly salary of Rs.18, Rs.25 and Rs.28 respectively depending upon the service. In all other cases, only members of the family were engaged. In all 26 male adults were engaged in Grocery.

11.7 Cloth merchants:

There were four retail cloth stores in the Kemmannu locality, two owned by the residents and two by the outsiders. The first shop was established in the year 1936 by a Bant landlord. The other three shops were established during the period from 1944 to 1947. One of them was established by a Catholic Christian from Mudthonse who was a tailor. The other two were established by a Goud Saraswat Brahmin and a Sayyad Muslim who claimed a long tradition in the trade at some other

places. All the shop premises were rented. The Muslim merchant, however, had started the construction of his own building in the Kemmannu locality during the survey year. The cost of the building was estimated at Rs.10,000.

The fixed capital investment was in the form of cupboards and other furnitures. All the fan shops were fixed with wooden cabinets. The total amount of fixed capital investment was reported as Rs.1586 or at an average of about Rs.400 per establishment. The other costs included expenditure on electricity, rent, maintenance, and other miscellaneous costs which amounted to Rs.2330 or an average of Rs.720 per establishment.

Expenditure on travel was incurred by all the four establishments. Frequent travels to Udipi and Mangalore were reported by three of the four establishments. One merchant however reported that he directly imports cloth from the textile mills situated in Tirpur, Erode and Bombay. His individual expenditure on travel exceeded Rs.800 during the previous year of the survey. Other three merchants spent an average of Rs.240 on travel. As all the merchants reported that they usually bring the goods along with them, the travel expenditure includes, in majority of the cases, the expenditure incurred on transport of goods.

Cloth of rough and medium quality found a good market. During a group discussion, these merchants estimated the percentage of sale of different quality cloth as under: Rough quality cloth registered about 50 percent, medium quality cloth, about 40 percent, superior quality cloth claimed only 10 percent of the total sales.

The annual turnover of the business was estimated at Rs.80,000. A single merchant reported his annual turnover as Rs.30,000 while the others put it between Rs.15000 to Rs.20,000. The net profit earned was at the rate of 15 naye paise per turnover of one rupee.

In none of the shops, outsiders were employed. Six male adults, all from the family, were engaged in sales operations. One among them was a matriculate while the rest were moderately educated.

11.8 Stationary merchants:

There were seven establishments dealing with stationary and cutlery articles. However, one establishment was specialised as a Drug Store. Four establishments were owned by the residents of Paduthonse while three were owned by the outsiders. A castewise distribution of the owners showed that four were catholic christians while three were Sayyad Muslims. All the shops were in the Kemmannu market locality. The shop premises were rented in all the cases and the monthly rent varied from Rs.8 to Rs.20 depending upon the situation and structure of the building. It is interesting to note that all the stationery shops were established after 1951. In four cases, the owners of the establishments reported that they were working in Bombay for a period of 8 to 15 years prior to the establishment of their respective shops at Kemmannu. In three cases they were engaged as hotel boys, and in one case as alabarotary peon in Bombay.

Fixed capital investment was in the form of furnitures and fixtures. All the seven shops reported owning a couple of chairs, benches and wooden racks and they were all fixed with cabinets. The value of the fixed capital investment was estimated at Rs.2030 or on an average Rs.290 per establishment. Five of the seven shops were connected with electricity. The other two shops used petrolax lamps for lighting.

In all the cases stationaries were purchased from Udipi. Stationaries included the following requirements of the students like papers, pencils, etc, cosmetics, plastic products like combs, buttons etc, confectionaries, toys for children and glasswares. Two shops reported the sale of aluminim wares also. The stationaries were usually purchased once in three months in case of five shops and once in six months in case of the other two shops.

Two of the stationery merchants were also news paper agents. The following were the sale figures of different news papers.

Kannad

Nava Bharat	Daily	47
Prakash	Weekly	17
Raybhari	"	5
Karma Veera	"	2

English

Indian Express	Daily	22
----------------	-------	----

Konkani

Amachi Mai		16
Paynani		18

The annual turnover was estimated at Rs.69,234 or an average of Rs.9897 per shop. The net profit was considerably high. On an average, it was about 25 percent of the total turnover. It was estimated at Rs.17,320 or an average of Rs.2474 per shop.

11.9 Pan-Bida-Bidi merchants:

There were 20 pan-bida-bidi shops in the village. Ten were reported in the Kemmannu licality, six in Hoode and four in Adda Bengre. It is significant to note that the bida-bidi shops in the Adda Bengre licality are seasonal in character coming to existence during the fishing season only. Of the ten shop establishments in the Kemmannu locality, three were owned by the non-residents. In the other two localities, all the bida-bidi shops were owned by the residents. A castewise distribution of the owners of the shops revealed that 11 were Muslims, four Billavas, two Beljadas and three Catholic christians. Five families reported that they earn their main source of living from pan-bida-bidi shops. Other followed it as a subsidiary occupation.

Fixed capital investment was Rs.145 or an average of Rs.14.50 for the shops in the Kemmannu locality, Rs.80 or an average of about Rs.13 per shop in the Hoode locality and Rs.18 or an average of Rs.4.50 in case of shops in the Adda Bengre locality. In a majority of the cases, the initial

capital investment was done with the financial assistance from the relatives. Only two establishments reported that the initial capital investment was done with the previous savings of the respondent. In none of the cases, money was borrowed.

The net profit earned was reported as Rs.5000 or an average of Rs.250 per establishment. The rate of profit varied from locality to locality. In case of the Kemmannu locality it was Rs.280 per establishment while in case of Hoode and Adda Bengre localities, the corresponding figures were Rs.250 and Rs.175 respectively.

Taking into consideration the annual turnover of the business which was estimated at Rs.26000, it seems that the profits are underestimated. The case studies revealed that the net profit in case of pan-bidas was as high as 75 percent of the sale value and in case of bidis and cigarettes, it was not less than 20 percent. The under reporting may be due to the fact that most of the case studies were prepared during the slack month of August. The estimates of the profits by the respondents must have been influenced by the profits earned during the current month of the enquiry. If 37 percent of the total sale value is considered as net profit on the basis of the information gathered in the case studies, the total profit may be estimated at Rs.9620 or an average of Rs.481 per establishment.

Pans and areca nuts were purchased by these merchants in the Kemmannu weekly market. Bananas were purchased from Kallianpur or Udipi. Bidis were mainly purchased from a local producer and only two shops in the Kemmannu locality reported purchase of bidis from Udipi. Cigarettes were purchased from Udipi. All the shops in the Kemmannu locality reported the sale of snuff which was purchased from Udipi. Two shops in the Hoode locality and all the shops in Adda Bengre reported the sale of 'chakkali' and 'ladu'. During fish season, boiled sweet potatoes were sold by one shop in Kemmannu,

three in Hoode, and by all the four in Adda Bengre. All the shops in the village reported the sale of aerated water which was locally produced. It was interesting to note that a Muslim pan-bidi merchant in Kemmannu was also engaged in the retail sale of coir products.

Pan-bida-bidi trade has attracted less educated but talented persons with business acumen from the poorer class, particularly from Muslims. It is due to two factors (i) low rate of initial capital investment which poor entrants in the business can afford. (ii) A very high rate of profits on the turnover the capital.

11.10 Other petty traders:

Other petty traders included two bangle dealers and four hawkers of unclassified type. Both the bangle dealers were Muslims by caste and it was their traditional occupation. One of them had his shop premises in the Kemmannu market. The other one was in the Hoode locality without any shop premises. Their fixed capital investment was negligible. Both reported owning bangle cases costing about Rs.4 in each case. They purchased the bangles from Udipi once in every three months. Yearly turnover was reported as Rs.2000 and net profit was estimated at 25 percent of the total turnover.

The unclassified hawkers mainly consisted of boiled sweet potato sellers and sellers of 'chakkali' and 'ladu'. They were in all four. Two of them were Ganigs, one Gouda Saraswat Brahmin and the last one a Billava. Their total annual turnover was estimated at Rs.4180. The net profit was Rs.1045 or an average of Rs.260 per establishment.

11.11 Hotel Keepers:

There were 22 hotels of different grades situated in Kemmannu, Hoode, Adda Bengre and Gujjarbettu localities. Eight of them were in Kemmannu, seven in Hoode, five in Adda Bengre and two in Gujjarbettu. The hotels situated in Gujjarbettu, Western Hoode, and Adda Bengre were of seasonal type, flourishing during the fish season and closing their business

during the Monsoon. All the hotels in Kemmannu and two out of seven in Hoode were operating throughout the year. Nevertheless their business was influenced by the seasonality. All but two owners of the hotels were residents of the village.

The castewise distribution of the owners of the hotels was as follows: Four were Brahmins, all in Kemmannu locality, one Gouda Saraswat Brahmin in Gujjarbettu locality; two Ganigs both in Kemmannu locality; eight Billavas, one in Kemmannu, three in Hoode and four in Adda Bengre; five Muslims, one in Kemmannu and four in Hoode; and one Catholic Christian in Gujjarbettu. It is significant to note that first grade hotels were concentrated in Hoode locality which was dominated by Muslims. In Adda Bengre area, four out of five hotels were owned by Billavas. A solitary case of a Catholic christian opening his hotel in Mogavir's locality is very significant from the sociological point of view.

The fixed capital investment was in form of furniture, utensils etc. Eight hotels in Kemmannu invested Rs.3950 or an average of Rs.495. Hotels in Hoode owned furniture and utensils worth Rs.1350 or an average of Rs.191 per hotel. The fixed capital investment in Adda Bengre and Gujjarbettu amounted to Rs.1400 or an average of Rs.200 per hotel. Average fixed investment for all the hotels in village was Rs.304.

Figures are given in table 11.3 regarding the yearly requirements of some important commodities by all the hotels in the village.

TABLE 11.3: Yearly requirements of some important commodities by all the hotels in the village.

Items	Value in Rs.	Percentage
Rice	8,470	12.2
Coconut oil	4,623	6.7
Milk	16,768	24.1
Sugar	15,265	22.0
Tea Powder	9,625	13.9
Coffee powder	875	1.3
Fuel	4,860	7.0
Other items	8,910	12.8
TOTAL	69,396	100.0

The figures reveal that milk and sugar are the main expenditure heads. Next in importance are rice and tea power. The case studies revealed that all the hotels in Kemmannu and one hotel in Hoode provided boarding facility also. Two hotels in Kemmannu and the hotel in Hoode served non-vegetarian means, mainly consisting of fish preparations.

The hotel business has shown an expanding tendency only after 1950. With the increase in trade activities in the Kemmannu locality, we may expect the continuous expansion of this business during the coming years.

11.12 Weekly market:

Weekly market is held every Thursday in the Kemmannu locality. A market yard was constructed by the Panchayat Board during 1955-56 with the financial assistance provided by the local Development authorities. There is a special provision for the fish retailers to use the market yard premises daily during the fishing season. Vegetables and fruits sellers, pan-bira-biri shop keepers etc. gather on the weekly market day only. These itinerant sellers belong to different surrounding villages within the radius of about 8 miles. A survey of the itinerant sellers was conducted on a busy market day in the month of November. There were in all 93 sellers coming from different surrounding villages. A large number of them, were retailers in fresh fish who are commonly known as basket women. They numbered 50. Vegetables and fruits sellers were 16. The other itinerant sellers did not number more than 5. Table 11.4 gives the distribution of the sellers according to different castes. We find the traditional relationship between the type of selling and the caste in case of fish pots and palmyra; jaggery. This relationship is not found, however, in case of vegetables. Bangles were sold by traditional bangle dealer caste people while ready made cloths were sold, at least in one instance, by a traditional weaver.

TABLE 11.4: Caste- Type of establishment.
Casewise distribution of the sellers.

Item	Fisher- women	Pott- ers	Vegetable & fruits	Pan-Bira- Biri	Sweet meats	Bangles, Statio- nery etc.	Ready made clothes	Palmyra jaggery	Aerated water	Total
Mogavir	39	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	41
Koosa	11	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	12
Kumbhar	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Ganig	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Catholic	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	4
Pangadigar	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Muslim	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-	1	5
Billeva	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	1	7
Dasaru	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Maratha	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Devalga	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Jogi	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Vaishya	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
Beljad	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3
G.S.B	-	-	-	2	3	-	-	-	-	5
Balegar	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	2	1
Padmasali	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
Mestwa	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
TOTAL	50	5	16	5	5	5	2	3	2	95

Table 11.3 gives the distribution of the sellers according to the place of origin. It is revealed that the sellers belong to 16 villages apart from the surveyed villages. Fish sellers mainly came from coastal villages like Kalpe, Thottam and Bengre. Vegetables and fruits sellers belonged to eastern and south eastern villages. Potters came from two villages from the north across the river. Others mainly came from Udipi or small townships nearby Udipi.

A sex wise distribution of the sellers showed that out of 93 sellers, 56 were females and only 37^{were}/males . A significant fact to note is that all the fish sellers were females. Of therest, two each from vegetable sellers, sweet meat sellers and palmyra jaggery sellers were females. Table 11.6 gives an agewise distribution of the sellers. It is revealed that only fish sellers and vegetable sellers reported the non-adults and the adolescents. Secondly, the proportion of the young persons among the fish sellers was more than that in any other category. It may be due to the fact that fish selling involves the timesome job of head load transport of the fish at running speed. The middle aged and old ladies naturally find it very difficult to do that job. However, there were also some middle aged and old ladies belonging to Paduthonse village. For the resident sellers, it was not difficult to cover a distance of about 6 furlongs. Other type of sellers mainly included the persons belonging to middle aged group. It may be due to the fact that other types of selling require somematurity in salesmanship.

Finally, table 11.7 gives a rough estimate of the value of the commodities brought on the day of enquiry, and the value of those wsold out. The value of all the commodities brought to the market on 27th of Novemberk, 1958 (the day of enquiry) was Rs.1147 only. Fish accounted for 33.8 percent of that figure while vegetables and fruits registered 17.6 percent, Pots, bangles-stationaries etc, pan-bira-biri, sweet meats were other significant commodities. All Palmyra jaggery and acrated

TABLE 11.5: Distribution of the sellers according to place of origin.

Castes	Fisher women	Pott-ers	Vegetables & fruits	Pan-Bira-Biri	Sweet meats	Bangles, Stationery etc.	Ready made clothes	Palmyra jaggery	Aerated water	Total
Paduthonse	24	-	2	-	-	1	-	1	2	30
Malpe	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Bengre	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Tottam	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18
Kunjai	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Kukuehall	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Perur	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Arur	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
K.A.Bettu	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	2
Uppur	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Udipi	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	3
Kembargog	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Mudthonse	-	-	6	1	2	1	-	2	-	12
Puttur	-	-	1	-	2	-	2	-	-	5
Shivalli	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
Parkal	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	2
Udyarar	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
TOTAL	50	5	16	5	5	5	2	3	2	93

water brought to the market were sold out. Small portions of fish, vegetables and fruits, pan-bira-biri and sweet meats remained unsold. Potters, bangle and stationary sellers and sellers of ready made clothes found that a considerable part of their commodities did not get buyers.

TABLE 11.6: Age wise distribution of the sellers.

Item	Non-adults-1-14	Adolescents-15-20	Young persons-21-35	Middle aged-36-55	Old persons-Above 56	Total
Fisherwomen	4	5	23	15	3	50
Potters	-	-	2	2	1	5
Vegetables & fruits	2	2	4	6	2	16
Pan-Bira-Biri	-	-	3	2	-	5
Sweet meats	-	-	2	3	1	5
Bangles, Stationery, etc-	-	-	1	3	1	5
Readymade clothes	-	-	1	1	-	2
Palmyra jaggery-	-	-	-	3	-	3
Aerated water	-	-	-	2	-	2
Total	6	7	36	37	7	93

TABLE 11.7: Commodities brought and sold.
(27-11-1958)

Type of selling	Commodities brought		Commodities sold	
	Value in Rs.	%	Value in Rs	%
Fisherwomen	338	33.8	367	39.1
Potters	166	14.5	93	9.9
Vegetables & fruits	202	17.6	188	20.0
Pan-Bira-Biri	99	8.5	86	9.2
Sweet meat sellers	86	7.5	75	8.0
Bangles, stationery etc.	115	10.0	52	5.5
Ready made clothes	40	3.5	25	2.7
Palmyra jaggery	12	1.1	12	1.3
Aerated water	40	3.5	40	4.3
Total	1147	100.0	938	100.0

11.13 Sub-Post Office, Kemmannu:

It was reported that a Branch Post Office existed in Kemmannu as early as 1925 and was upgraded as a Sub-Post Office on July 1957. Consequently, in place of the part-time B.P.M., a full time S.P.M. was put in by the P and T.D. The runner was replaced by the postman. The Kemmannu Sub-Post Office, since July 1957, retained and extended its jurisdiction to (i) Padu Tonse (ii) Badanidiyur and (iii) some parts of Mud Tonse areas, with a total population of about 6000.

The data collected was of the following nature.

(i) Sale of stamps, post cards, etc. for 3 years from 1956 to 1958 for each calendar month.

(ii) Arrival and dispatch of registered and insured letters for the calendar years 1957 and 1958.

(iii) Arrival and dispatch of parcels for the calendar years 1957 and 1958.

(iv) Arrival and dispatch of Money Orders for the years 1956-57 and 1957-58 for each calendar month.

(v) Deposits in and withdrawals from S.B. Accounts for 6 years from 1952-53 to 1957-58.

(i) Sale of Stamps, etc: It is reported that the stamps, post cards, etc. worth Rs. 3917, Rs. 4755 and Rs. 5609 were sold out during 1956, 1957 and 1958 respectively. The sales during 1957 and 1958 have registered the increases by 21.39 percent and 17.96 percent over the years 1956 and 1957 respectively. The highest sales months are recorded round about June and December of each calendar year observed.

(See table 11.6)

TABLE 11.8: SALE OF stamps and post cards, inland, etc. for calendar years from 1956-1958.

Month	1956 Rs.	1957 Rs.	1958 Rs.
January	315	381	501
February	320	327	433
March	322	348	475
April	311	359	405
May	317	375	542
June	384	447	429
July	319	365	476
August	335	386	464
September	325	421	549
October	322	462	444
November	319	436	401
December	323	448	490
Total	3917	4755	5609

(ii) Registered and Insured Letters: The data was available for the calendar years 1957 and 1958, in case of both registered and insured letters. The arrival of the registered letters during the years 1957 and 1958 was recorded as 1117 and 1283 respectively, that is, the year 1958 has registered an increase of 15.30 percent of the letters over those in 1957. The dispatch of the registered letters for 1957 and 1958 was put at 338 and 441 respectively. The highest arrival and dispatch of the registered letters were recorded round about June and December during the calendar years observed.

In respect of Insured letters, the arrival was 50 and 46 and dispatch was 8 and 5 for 1957 and 1958 respectively. It was observed that both the arrival and dispatch of the insured letters have registered a decreasing trend.

(See table 11.9).

TABLE 11.9: Arrival and Dispatch of Registered and Insured Letters.

Month	REGISTERED LETTERS				INSURED LETTERS			
	1957		1958		1957		1958	
	Arri- val	Dis- patch	Arri- val	Dis- patch	Arri- val	Dis- pat- ch	Arri- val	Dis- pat- ch
January	121	27	114	49	2	-	5	2
February	80	23	91	21	6	-	3	1
March	96	33	135	41	5	3	4	-
April	73	25	82	20	7	2	3	-
May	84	26	98	32	5	-	1	-
June	95	39	102	53	2	-	5	1
July	100	34	103	41	-	-	1	1
August	118	26	110	30	6	-	4	-
September	106	26	103	39	8	-	3	-
October	69	27	107	33	-	1	1	-
November	79	26	107	37	4	2	10	-
December	96	26	136	45	5	-	6	-
Total	1117	333	1288	441	50	8	46	5

(iii) Parcels: During 1957 the arrival of the parcels was 136 and in 1958, it was 120. Dispatch of the parcels for 1957 and 1958 were 31 and 41 respectively. (See table 11.10)

TABLE 11.10: Arrival and Dispatch of parcels.

Month	1957		1958	
	Arri- val	Dis- patch	Arri- val	Dis- patch
January	24	4	9	4
February	13	2	9	4
March	7	2	11	1
April	8	7	8	2
May	5	3	9	3
June	7	1	8	3
July	18	1	5	9
August	4	1	8	3
September	11	1	6	4
October	12	2	9	4
November	15	4	16	2
December	12	3	22	-
Total	136	31	120	41

(iv) Money Orders: In respect of arrival and dispatch of Money Orders, the data was readily available at the Kemmannu sub-post office for the years 1956-57 and 1957-58. A detailed study of the trends in the arrival and dispatch of Money orders was felt necessary, as the family remittances constituted an important part of the village income. The following table shows the number and amount of Money orders arrived and dispatched for each calendar month during 1956-57 and 1957-58. (See table 11.11).

As regards the arrival of Money Orders, both the number and amount have established an increasing trend. The number of Money Orders arrived during 1957-58 have registered 33.09 percent increase over the arrival of 1956-57, while the amount received established an increase of 30.94 percent for the same time. In respect of dispatch of Money Orders, the number has increased by 16.82 percent and the amount by 20.03 percent during 1957-58.

(v) Saving Bank: The data were collected for 6 years from 1952-53 to 1957-58 in respect of the number and amount of deposits in and withdrawals from the savings Bank of the Sub-Post Office. It was observed that in 5 of the 6 years, the amount withdrawn exceeded the amount deposited. Average size of a deposit, in each year, is sufficiently larger than the average size of a withdrawal during that year. The conclusions from the Table 11.12 may be summarised as (i) though the number of deposits are increasing, average amount per deposit is showing a decreasing trend. (ii) During the first 4 years the number of withdrawals show an increasing trend and then suddenly drop down. However, average size of a withdrawal shows an increasing trend. (iii) It seems that the depositors are in a habit of saving in small amounts by depositing frequently and then withdraw a lump sum at a convenient time. There was net dis-investment of Rs.7,262 during the period of six years. (Table 11.12).

TABLE 11.11: Arrival and Dispatch of Money Orders during 1956-57 and 1957-58.

Month	A R R I V A L						D I S P A T C H					
	1956-57			1957-58			1956-57			1957-58		
	No.	Average size of M.O. Rs.nP.	Amount	No.	Average size of M.O. Rs.nP.	Amount	No.	Average size of M.O. Rs.nP	Amount	No.	Average size of M.O. Rs.nP	Amount
April	292	(42.70)	12,469	319	(49.62)	15,511	66	(23.03)	1,850	54	(31.74)	1,714
May	319	(39.89)	12,727	363	(44.54)	16,391	43	(33.29)	1,598	63	(29.04)	1,830
June	334	(39.80)	13,293	350	(41.42)	14,498	38	(18.47)	702	49	(17.55)	860
July	352	(33.63)	11,841	594	(32.22)	19,143	43	(20.27)	872	72	(23.93)	723
August	372	(33.55)	12,494	476	(29.82)	14,196	51	(26.80)	1,367	33	(20.89)	794
September	374	(33.84)	12,658	552	(32.33)	17,874	47	(29.57)	1,390	53	(27.33)	1,449
October	376	(37.47)	14,089	526	(37.17)	19,552	46	(20.34)	936	66	(43.03)	3,170
November	313	(34.92)	10,930	458	(36.30)	16,623	44	(33.09)	1,456	53	(22.96)	1,217
December	332	(35.93)	11,932	509	(33.42)	17,013	58	(26.87)	1,559	63	(23.63)	1,439
January	384	(34.89)	13,393	454	(33.04)	15,001	60	(20.70)	1,242	51	(17.01)	863
February	329	(36.44)	11,991	432	(37.48)	16,193	31	(38.35)	1,189	58	(26.25)	1,523
March	366	(42.59)	15,583	476	(39.43)	18,771	68	(26.48)	1,809	81	(31.27)	2,533
Total	4143	(37.02)	1,53,399	5514	(36.41)	2,00,771	600	(26.61)	15,970	701	(27.34)	19,170

N.B.: Figures in brackets suggest the average size of Money Order for the respective period.

**TABLE 11.12: Number and Amount of Deposits in and Withdrawal from the S.B.Account
In Sub-Post Office- Kemmannu.**

Year	D E P O S I T S				W I T H D R A W A L S		
	No. of Accounts	Number	Amount Rs.	Average Size of a deposit Rs.nP.	Number	Amount Rs.	Average size of a withdrawal Rs.nP
1952-53	188	299	9,225	30.85	54	7,485	138.66
1953-54	197	298	7,457	25.02	60	10,620	177.00
1954-55	209	232	8,531	30.25	63	7,914	125.61
1955-56	226	322	8,050	25.00	69	9,834	142.52
1956-57	236	355	6,991	19.69	48	8,904	185.50
1957-58	246	355	6,511	18.34	46	9,270	201.52

7. Arrival of newspapers, magazines, etc.

It was reported, during the survey year, that the following periodicals were received through this office:

TABLE 11.13:

Name of the Periodical	Language	Period	Number received
Paynari	Kokani	Weekly	15
Anchi Mai	"	"	10
Mitra	"	"	12
Angi	"	"	8
Prakash	Kannad	"	10
Raybhari	"	"	12
Bhavya Vani	"	Monthly	6
Maulvi	Urdu	"	4
Readers' Digest	English	"	4

11.14 Boat transport:

There were 52 families reporting boat transport as an occupation. A castewise break up of the families revealed that 19 were Roman Catholic Christians, 15 Billavas, 13 Muslims and the rest were Ganigs, Beljadas and Mogevars. Only 36 families reported the ownership of the boats while the rest hired boats on a monthly rent of Rs.7-50. The number of the boats owned was 39 valued at Rs.3048. The number of boats taken on hire was 17 and the rent paid during 1957-58 was reported as Rs.1494.

The boats were mainly used for three purposes, viz, (i) transport of the passengers, (ii) transport of the goods, and (iii) collection of the allunium at the river bed and transporting it to the fields. The information given below shows the use of boats for different purposes by the reporting families.

Use of Boats	No. of families
(1) Transport of the passengers only	4
(2) Transport of the goods only	5
(3) Transport of the allurium	5
(4) 1 + 2 only	11
(5) 1 + 3 only	5
(6) 2 + 3 only	17
(7) 1 + 2 + 3 only	9
	<hr/> 56

During the previous year of the survey, income earned from boat transport was reported as Rs.25,640.

11.15 Machava:

A Muslim family reported owning four 'machavas' valued at Rs.25,000. They were used for transporting Mangalore tiles, timber etc. to Bombay and Kerosene oil, salt etc. from Bombay. During the high tides, the machavas were brought up to Hoode, in the other case they were harboured at Hangarkatte at the mouth of the river Swerna.

There were 29 employees of whom only 2 belonged to Paduthonse and the others were mainly from Mangalore. They were employed for 8 months during the year and each worker was paid Rs.250 for the whole period of employment. The Captain of the 'machava', however, was paid double that amount, that is, Rs.500 for the whole period of employment. Apart from the usual salary, the workers were getting a daily allowance of 9 annas per day while they were at sea.

The loading capacity of the machavas and the rate of transport were as mentioned below:

Item	Big machava	Small machava	Rate
Mangalore tiles	30,000	14,000	Rs.25 per 1000
Timber	105 Khandis*	72 Khandis	Rs.5 per Khandi
Salt	600 bags	300 bags	Rs.1 per bag
Kerosene oil	2500 tins	1400 tins	Rs.2-50 per tin
	(1 Khandi= 560 pounds)		

For repairs and other charges, Rs.2000 were spent during the previous year of the survey. The family earned an income of Rs.3000 through the 'machava' transport.

11.16 Lorry:

A Muslim paddy dealer reported owning a lorry. The lorry was purchased for Rs.12000 eight years back. It was mainly used for transporting paddy and rice from the neighbouring district of Shimoga. It was also hired out whenever there was no paddy for transporting. The information given below shows the load capacity for the different items transported and the rates charged.

Items	Load capacity	Rate
Mangalore tiles	1800	Rs 1 per mile.
Coconuts	8000	
Coir ropes	150 Maunds (1 Md= 28 pounds)	
Kerosene Oil	300 tins	
Salt	50 bags	
Dry fish	100 bundles (1 bundle= 70 pounds)	

The income earned from hiring out the lorry was reported as Rs.800 only during the previous year of the survey. The lorry is used for transporting the rice for a large majority of the days, hence the instances of hiring out are very rare.

-: CHAPTER XII :-

- FINANCIAL SYSTEM -

12.1 General Position of indebtedness:

As many as 810 families in the village were in debts during the survey year. The percentage of the indebted families to the total number of families in the village was worked out as 84.3 percent. On the other hand, those families reporting lendings were comparatively smaller in number. There were only 109 families or 13.4 percent of the total indebted families reporting lendings outstanding at the time of enquiry. Fresh borrowers were smaller in number than the repaying families during the last twelve months of the enquiry. During the last twelve months, 62.3 percent of the indebted families reported repayment of loans while those families reporting borrowings were only 55.8 percent. Table 12.1 gives the information in respect of the general position of the indebted families.

TABLE 12.1: General position of indebted families.

Item	
1 Total indebted families	810
2 No.of families reporting lending	109
3 2 as percentage of 1	13.4
4 No.of families reporting repayment in last 12 months	505
5 4 as percentage of 1	62.3
6 No.of families reporting borrowing in last 12 months	452
7 6 as percentage of 1	55.8
8 Indebted families as percentage of total families	84.3

The total amount of debts outstanding at the time of the survey was reported as Rs 606,629. On the other hand, amount lent out was only Rs 145,680 or 24 percent of the debts outstanding. The amount of the loans repaid during the last twelve months was Rs.94,944 or 15.6 percent of the total amount of debts outstanding. The amount borrowed during the last twelve months was however Rs.143,260 or 23.6 percent of the total amount of debts outstanding showing an increase of borrowings over repayments even though the number of the families reporting borrowings was less than the number of families reporting repayments.

The percapita debt was as high as Rs.111-30, while the percapita amount lent out was only Rs.26.73. The percapita amount of repayments during last twelve months was worked out as Rs.17.42 as against Rs.26.23 in respect of the percapita borrowings during the last twelve months. Table 12.2 gives the information about the general position of the indebtedness.

TABLE 12.2: General Position of indebtedness.

Item	
1	Total amount of debt in Rs. 606,629
2	Amount lent out in Rs. 145,680
3	2 as percentage of 1 24.0
4	Amount repaid in last twelve months in Rs. 94,944
5	4 as percentage of 1 15.6
6	Amount borrowed in last twelve months in Rs 143260
7	6 as percentage of 1 23.6
8	Percapita debt in Rs. 111.30
9	Percapita amount lent in Rs. 26.73
10	Percapita repayment during last twelve months in Rs. 17.42
11	Percapita borrowing during last twelve months in Rs. 26.23

12.2 Loans outstanding to date:

Table 12.3 gives the distribution of the indebted families according to the number of loans reported by each family. The figures reveal that 51.7 percent of the indebted families reported only one loan each while the families reporting two and three loans each constituted 26.4 percent and 17.3 percent of the total indebted families respectively.

TABLE 12.3: Percentage of loans outstanding to date.

Number of loans	<u>No. of indebted families</u>	
	No.	Percentage
One	419	51.7
Two	213	26.4
Three	140	17.3
Four	21	2.6
Five	9	1.1
Six and above	8	0.9
Total	810	100.0

Table 12.4 presents the data in respect of the distribution of the families according to the type of loans. The outstanding loans are classified into (i) loans with interest, (ii) loans without interest; and (iii) loans without interest due to purchases. Some families reported the combination of two or more of the types of the loans mentioned above. Families reporting the loans without interest were 358 constituting 44.1 percent of the total indebted families. Families reporting the loans with interest were 179 registering 22.1 percent of the total indebted families. 187 families reported the combination of both the types of the loans. The number of families reporting loans without interest due to purchases at the retailers was 34 or 4.2 percent.

TABLE 12.4 : Type of loans outstanding to date.

Type	No. of families	Percentage
1 With interest	179	22.1
2 Without interest	358	44.1
3 Without interest due to purchases	34	4.2
4 1 + 2	187	23.1
5 2 + 3	15	1.9
6 1 + 3	20	2.5
7 1 + 2 + 3	17	2.0
Total	810	100.0

Table 12.5 gives the percentage distribution of the loans to be paid to date according to the size of the cultivated holding.

TABLE 12.5 : Percentage distribution of loans to be paid to date according to size of cultivated holding.

Size of holding (acres)	Amount
Upto 0.25	6.9
0.26 - 0.50	10.1
0.51 - 1.0	19.9
1.1 - 2.0	14.1
2.1 - 3.0	8.7
3.1 - 5.0	14.6
5.1 - 7.50	3.4
7.51 -10.0	2.6
10.1 -15.0	3.6
Above 15.1	1.0
Total cultivators	85.7
Non-cultivators	14.3
Total	100.0
(Actual amount)	(606,629)

In table 12.6 percentage distribution of the loans to be paid to date according income groups is given. A large percentage of the amount of the outstanding loans is reported by the cultivators with the holdings upto 5 acres. Similarly families with income varying from Rs.251 to Rs.2500 have reported a major portion of the outstanding loans.

TABLE 12.6: Percentage distribution of loans to be paid to date according to income groups.

Income groups Rs.	Amount percentage
Upto 100	1.0
101- 250	5.0
251- 500	11.7
501- 750	14.6
751- 1000	12.9
1001- 1500	20.7
1501- 2500	12.7
2501- 3500	9.5
3501- 5000	6.0
5001-10000	4.7
Above 10000	1.2
Total	100.0
(Actual amount)	(606,629)

Table 12.7 gives the distribution of the amount of outstanding loans according to different credit agencies. Agriculturists rank first as the major credit suppliers to the indebted families. The branch office of the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd., stands next by providing 20 percent of the total amount of the outstanding loans. Next in importance are the traders and the private money lenders supplying 15.2 percent and 12.2 percent of the outstanding credit. It is significant to note that the cooperative societies supplied only 4.5 percent of the total outstanding credit.

TABLE 12.7: Percentage distribution of outstanding loans due to different credit agencies

Credit agencies	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Government	3222	0.5
2 Cooperative society	27131	4.5
3 Bank	121659	20.1
Money Lenders	73813	12.2
5 Agriculturists	123,083	21.1
6 Rampani organisations	20,580	3.4
7 Fish dealers	45,791	7.5
8 Other traders	92,501	15.2
9 Credit due to purchases from traders etc.	10,446	1.7
10 Relatives	54,585	9.0
11 Interest free sources	23,818	4.8
Total	606,629	100.0

12.3 Lendings outstanding todate:

Table 12.8 gives the percentage distribution of the lendings outstanding todate according to the size of the cultivated holding. It is surprising to note that the small cultivators cultivating land upto 5 acres have reported a major portion of the lendings outstanding. Table 12.9 which gives the percentage distribution of the lendings outstanding according to the income groups, reveals on the other hand that the lendings are mainly reported by the families with the income ranging from Rs.751 to Rs.10,000. This shows that the rich cultivators advance loans to the poor cultivators.

table

TABLE 12.8: Percentage distribution of lendings outstanding to date according to size of cultivated holdings.

Size of holding (acres)	Amount percentage
Upto 0.25	3.6
0.26- 0.50	5.0
0.51- 1. 0	13.9
1.1 - 2.0	25.7
2.1 - 3.0	5.9
3.1 - 5.0	22.1
5.1 - 7.50	4.5
7.51-10.0	4.8
10.1 -15.0	6.7
Above 15.1	5.2
Total cultivators	97.4
Non-cultivators	2.6
Total	100.0
(Actual amount)	(145,680)

TABLE 12.9: Percentage distribution of lendings outstanding to date according to income groups.

Income groups Rs.	Amount percentage
Upto 100	4.1
101 - 250	2.1
251 - 500	1.0
501- 750	2.4
751 -1000	8.8
1001 -1500	13.1
1501 -2500	20.9
2501 -3500	15.6
3501 -5000	12.4
5001 -10000	14.8
Above 10001	4.8
Total	100.0
(Actual amount)	(145,630)

12.4 Borrowings during the last twelve months:

Table 12.10 gives the percentage distribution of the loans borrowed during the last twelve months. As reported, the amount of loans borrowed during the last twelve months was Rs.143,260 or 23.6 percent of the debts outstanding. Most of those who borrowed during the last twelve months were the small cultivators with a cultivated holding upto 5 acres. Table 12.11 which gives the percentage distribution of the loans borrowed during the last twelve months according to the income groups reveals that the borrowers are concentrated in the income groups from Rs.251 to Rs.3500.

TABLE 12.10: Percentage distribution of amount borrowed during the last twelve months according to size of cultivated holdings.

Size of holding (acres)	Amount percentage
Upto 0.25	9.1
0.26 - 0.50	15.1
0.51 - 1.0	12.1
1.1 - 2.0	15.8
2.1 - 3.0	9.3
3.1 - 5.0	13.3
5.1 - 7.50	2.8
7.51 - 10.0	-
10.1 - 15.0	0.9
Above 15.1	0.5
Total cultivators	78.9
Non-cultivators	21.1
Total	100.0
(Actual amount)	(143,260)

TABLE 12.11: Percentage distribution of amount of loans borrowed during the last twelve months according to income groups.

Income groups Rs.	Amount percentage
Upto 100	0.2
101 - 250	4.1
251 - 500	10.9
501 - 750	18.1
751 - 1000	10.4
1001 - 2500	14.5
2501 - 2500	17.5
2501 - 3500	17.2
3501 - 5000	0.8
5001 -10000	8.3
Above 10,000	-
Total	100.0
(Actual amount)	(143,260)

Table 12.12 presents the data in respect of the month-wise distribution of the borrowings during the last twelve months. Of the total 673 loans which were borrowed during the last twelve months 410 loans or 60.8 percent of the total number were borrowed during the period from April to July. It is a very critical period for both the cultivators as well as the fishermen. Both require loans for their maintenance during the coming months of the rainy season. That is why nearly 63 percent of the total loans borrowed during the last twelve months were reported as borrowed for the household maintenance purpose.

TABLE 12.12: Monthwise distribution of loans borrowed during last twelve months.

Months	No. of loans	Percentage
January	41	6.1
February	29	4.3
March	7	1.0
April	61	9.1
May	88	13.1
June	167	24.7
July	94	14.0
August	36	5.3
September	17	2.5
October	23	3.4
November	6	0.9
December	4	0.6
Total	673	100.0

Table 12.13 gives the percentage distribution of the loans borrowed during the last twelve months according to the sources of the loans 46.5 percent of the amount of the total loans borrowed was from the individuals while 53.5 percent was from the Institutions. Among the individuals, trading class as a source of credit registered 30.7 percent, while the cultivating class accounted for 11 percent of the loans. Among the institutions the branch office of the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd, accounted for 30.5 percent of the credit while the Rampani Organisations registered 12.6 percent. The Cooperative Societies could meet out only 5.6 percent of the credit needs.

TABLE 12.13: Percentage distribution of loans borrowed during last twelve months according to sources.

Sources	Amount of loans with interest percentage	Amount of loans without interest percentage	Total %
Paddy cultivators	7.5	9.5	8.2
Coconut cultivators	2.6	3.1	2.8
<u>Total cultivators</u>	10.1	12.4	11.0
<u>Non-agricultural production etc.</u>	0.2	0.9	0.6
Grocers	0.7	12.5	5.5
Coconut dealers	1.0	8.7	4.2
Dealers in coir	0.8	7.3	3.5
Fish dealers	10.5	22.5	15.4
Other traders	-	1.8	0.7
Money lenders	2.4	-	1.4
<u>Total trading class</u>	15.4	52.8	30.7
<u>Other services</u>	4.5	1.7	3.2
<u>Rampani Organisations</u>	2.2	27.7	12.6
<u>Cooperative Societies</u>	9.5	-	5.6
<u>Bank</u>	31.5	-	30.5
<u>Sources are not reported</u>	6.6	4.5	5.8
<u>Total</u>	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(84,960)	(58,300)	(143,260)

Of the total borrowings of Rs.1,43,260 during the last twelve months, the borrowings with interest were amounted to Rs.84,960 while those without interest were amounted to Rs.58,300. In the case of the borrowings with interest, the branch office of the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd, registered 31.5 percent while the trading class and the cultivating class reported 15.4 percent and 10.1 percent respectively. The cooperative Societies reported 9.5 percent of the borrowings with interest. Of the borrowings without interest, 52.8 percent were reported by the trading class

and the Rampani Organisations and the cultivating class reported 27.7 percent and 12.4 percent respectively. The rate of interest was 9½ percent in the case of the Bank and 6½ percent in the case of the Cooperative Societies. It was the highest in the case of the money lenders (about 35 percent), while in respect of the others, it varied from 6 percent to 18 percent.

In table 12.14, the loans are distributed according to the occupations of the borrower as well as the lender. The purpose of giving this table is to show that in most of the cases, the occupations of the lenders and the borrowers are related. For example, the occupations of the coir dealer, coconut merchant and the coir spinner are very closely related. In the same way, the occupations of the fish dealer, fishermen and the fish curing labourers are also closely related. The detailed figures in the table reveal that in most of the cases the borrowings and the lendings have taken place among the households with the related occupation groups. It may be our purpose to see that, with an expansion in the institutional credit supply during the coming years, the supply of credit from the individuals in the related occupations (which is free of interest in a large majority of the cases) will be reduced.

12.5 Repayment of the loans during the last twelve months:

Table 12.15 gives the percentage distribution of the amount of the loans repaid during the last twelve months according to the size of cultivated holding. In table 12.16, the data are presented according to the income groups. The repayments of the cultivators constituted 82.9 percent as against their borrowings which recorded 78.9 percent during the last twelve months. In the case of the non-cultivators, the respective percentages were 17.1 and 21.1 respectively. In respect of the income groups, those whose income is above Rs.751 have generally balanced their repayments with the borrowings during the last twelve months.

TABLE 12.14: Distribution of the loans according to the occupation of the lender and the borrower.

Occupation of the lender	Occupation of the borrower													Total
	Paddy cultivation	Coconut cultivation.	Culti- vation labour	Fish- ing	Fish- curing labour	Coir prepa- rations	Other non-ag- ricultu- ral pro- duction	Trade in coir & coconut	Trade in fish	Groce- rs & grains merch- ants	Other trade	Ser- vic- es	Unpro- ducti- ve so- urces	
Paddy cultivation	7	7	18	9	7	2	6	-	5	-	-	9	4	74
Coconut cultivation	1	6	5	-	2	4	1	-	3	-	-	4	1	27
Fishing *	-	2	1	77	6	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	89
Non-agricultural produ- ction, etc.	-	-	1	1	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	7
Trade in coir & coconut	-	2	11	2	-	27	5	1	-	-	1	6	2	57
Trade in fish	2	2	9	28	84	3	-	-	3	-	-	5	1	137
Grocers & Grain merchants	1	5	4	1	11	4	4	-	3	4	2	6	2	47
Other trade	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	3
Services	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	7	1	10
Cooperative Societies	3	1	1	7	-	-	11	1	1	1	2	4	-	32
Bank	6	12	4	3	9	1	1	-	10	2	2	5	6	61
Private Money Lender	-	-	-	3	-	-	4	-	6	-	-	-	-	13
<u>Total</u>	20	37	54	131	119	43	35	3	34	7	9	48	17	557

* 'Fishing' includes the loans advanced by the Rampani Organisations.

TABLE 12.15: Percentage distribution of amount of loan repaid during the last twelve months according to size of cultivated holding.

Size of holding (acres)	Amount	Percentage
Upto 0.25	8.1	
0.26 -0.50	12.1	
0.51 -1.0	11.5	
1.1 -2.0	14.1	
2.1 -3.0	10.6	
3.1 -5.0	15.8	
5.1 -7.50	6.7	
7.51 -10.0	-	
10.1 -15.0	0.6	
Above 15.1	3.4	
Total cultivators	82.9	
Non-cultivators	17.1	
Total	100.0	
(Actual amount)	(94,944)	

TABLE 12.16: Percentage distribution of amount of loan repaid during the last twelve months according to income groups.

Income groups Rs.	Amount	percentage
Upto 100	0.3	
101 - 250	1.5	
251 - 500	8.8	
501 - 750	14.6	
751 - 1000	10.9	
1001 - 1500	16.7	
1501 - 2500	18.0	
2501 - 3500	13.6	
3501 - 5000	3.2	
5001 -10000	12.0	
Above 10001	0.4	
Total	100.0	
(Actual)	(94,944)	

Table 12.17 gives the percentage distribution of the loans repaid to different credit agencies during the last twelve months. Repayments to the trading class accounted for 35.4 percent while those to the agriculturists and the Bank reported 16.7 percent and 10.8 percent respectively.

TABLE 12.17: Percentage distribution of loans repaid to different credit agencies during the last twelve months.

Credit agencies	Amount Rs.	Percentage
Government	1272	1.3
Cooperative Societies	4605	4.9
Bank	10172	10.8
Money lenders	6695	7.2
Agriculturists	15721	16.7
Rampani Organisations	9010	9.5
Fish dealers	16247	17.2
Other traders	17221	18.2
Credit due to purchases from Traders etc.	3700	3.4
Relatives	7223	7.6
Interest free sources	3073	3.2
Total	94944	100.0

12.6 General impressions about the working of the financial system:

On the basis of the data presented in this chapter as well as with the help of the qualitative data collected while preparing the case studies, the following impressions were carried.

i) The money lender cum trader class played an important role at the bottom. Many cultivators were also resorted to money lending. There was no restriction on the private money lending in the absence of any legislative measure on the part of the state.

ii) At the top, there is the Bank, pure money lenders and the Cooperative Societies. Pure money lenders gave lost their importance during last 4-5 years as the Bank rose as a major credit supplier to the trading class. The cooperative Societies are, to some extent, used by the big cultivators, influential fishermen and the trading class.

iii) The predominance of the interest free loans is some what misleading. Rampani Organisations received interest free loans from the fish dealers but the preferential sale of fish to these money lender-cum-traders at the below 'market price' resulted in a sort of indirect way of changing the high rate of interest. The coir spinners, the fish curing labourers and the cultivation labourers similarly received interest free loans at a considerable loss in the wage rate.

12.7 Case study of the branch office of the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate Ltd:

The branch office was established at Kemmannu in 1943, with a view to the expansion of the branch banking system in the rural area of the South Kanara district. The head office of the Bank is at Udipi with its branches spread over through out the South India and in the Southern Maharashtra.

The Branch office at Kemmannu is housed in a rented building at Kemmannu. There were four employees, the agent, two clerks and one peon. The data regarding the deposits and withdrawals, loans advanced, and the transfer of money from the branch office to the head office and vice versa were supplied, for 1957 and 1958. The data, however, in respect of the distribution of loans according to purposes, number of depositors etc. were not supplied as they were treated as Confidential.

Table 12.18 gives the monthwise data in respect of the deposits and withdrawals during 1957 and 1958. Table 12.19 gives the figures in respect of the short term and the medium term loans while table 12.20 presents data in respect of the transfer of money from the head office to the branch office and vice versa.

table ...

TABLE 12.18: Short term and Long Term Deposits and Withdrawals.

Months	Current Deposits				Short Term Deposits				Fixed Deposits				Cumulative Deposits				Savings Bank a/c		Piggy collections					
	1957		1958		1957		1958		1957		1958		1957		1958		1957	1958	1957	1958	1957	1958		
	Depo- sits Rs.	With- drawals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- drawals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- dra- wals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- dra- wals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- dra- wals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- dra- wals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- dra- wals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- dra- wals Rs.	Depo- sits Rs.	With- dra- wals Rs.	De- po- sit Rs.	Wi- th- dr- aw- als Rs.	De- po- sit Rs.	Wi- th- dr- aw- als Rs.	De- po- sit Rs.	Wi- th- dr- aw- als Rs.
January	60	-	357	-	500	550	20900	22800	2500	2600	8850	1000	5105	-	1580	50	135511	119- 659	730	728- 47	36- 29	16- 10	35- 44	30- 95
February	120	-	1123	1088	600	600	13850	12990	3100	500	18410	2125	1925	65	1580	120	58695	652- 69	737- 06	672- 37	28- 78	10- 25	36- 29	41- 54
March	150	710	304	30	3200	3200	4175	5240	14500	5400	27925	4500	320	30240	1650	20	57884	680- 23	54, 686	60, 488	3, 227	4, 01949	42- 84	17- 84
April	150	-	115	-	2340	190	11100	14750	5585	5285	17650	19585	8160	680	1430	-	63840	55, 510	75, 730	79, 200	36- 10	53- 74	34- 47	624
May	120	-	120	100	8300	2000	2750	3300	18000	5800	17075	16600	9950	13280	1610	350	84790	64, 230	83, 240	69, 340	28- 62	39- 21	32- 87	38- 71
June	107	3	73	803	21700	6200	9164	6040	100	-	12100	-	2290	580	1280	160	62140	58, 440	51, 010	53, 870	29- 94	12- 33	31- 25	17- 68
July	25	1000	253	660	14448	250	29460	33200	-	5000	9730	5000	2660	1400	2070	3060	34240	49, 340	75, 730	70, 040	33- 19	11- 85	46- 26	18- 23
August	-	-	50	-	5340	1000	10100	8450	2100	2100	350	650	2140	15920	1690	600	41980	24, 840	40, 900	39, 700	32- 11	326	38- 92	189
September	80	-	75	-	12150	4000	11650	6285	13500	3500	32920	18800	1580	11450	1655	11200	57460	49, 710	37, 820	51, 390	43- 32	919	46- 30	17- 51
October	60	-	40	-	4300	2340	-	5430	-	9300	22640	-	1650	1200	1570	3000	36880	94, 650	70, 230	63, 750	32- 90	20- 31	39- 28	655
November	175	1	25930	25800	8940	9300	-	2300	1000	4000	6850	650	1530	60	1625	-	72620	76, 630	71, 500	64, 020	32- 04	907	41- 98	35- 56
December	171	3	42657	42532	1000	3000	-	10854	1200	-	10315	-	1815	-	1580	-	78070	72, 940	59, 625	50, 587	42- 64	332	50- 76	11- 73
TOTAL	1218	1717	71160	71013	86818	32620	113149	121870	61585	43485	18215	59910	33125	64975	19420	18830	843410	7,99, 241	7,67, 215	7,42, 539	40, 820	22, 881	47, 630	24, 453

**TABLE 12.19: Short Term and Medium Term Loans
Advanced.**

Months	1957		1958	
	Short Term Rs.	Medium Term Rs.	Short term Rs.	Long term Rs.
January	14,850	19,741	14,800	61,424
February	6,650	9,061	12,750	68,146
March	9,100	19,959	9,600	72,749
April	22,700	74,500	19,450	72,749
May	14,300	28,630	14,650	69,610
June	15,050	51,727	7,560	51,310
July	16,400	34,220	16,200	68,010
August	15,800	19,920	13,300	47,620
September	16,850	32,230	14,260	53,110
October	10,800	23,450	13,950	66,720
November	12,550	29,050	17,175	94,270
December	14,800	29,565	14,600	90,603
Total	169,850	376,103	168,235	816,321

TABLE 12.20: Transfer of Money.

Months	1957			
	From the head office to the branch office (Rs).	From the branch office to the head office (Rs)	From the head office to the branch office (Rs).	From the branch office to the head office (Rs)
January	11,583	31,478	6,246	13,356
February	3,069	11,909	6,195	12,795
March	7,224	4,498	8,103	23,331
April	4,341	12,640	7,669	19,110
May	2,573	18,420	10,812	7,790
June	5,254	14,420	5,699	11,700
July	2,093	8,980	16,414	15,620
August	5,225	8,040	4,406	19,830
September	5,245	13,320	3,162	18,040
October	5,482	33,680	11,614	17,950
November	7,920	25,180	14,509	51,330
December	3,012	26,056	12,212	60,040
Total	63,021	210,621	107,041	270,942

12.8 Cooperative Movement:

Generally speaking the cooperative movement in the field of credit supply was less progressive during the pre-independence days than during post-independence days. The fact that only one cooperative society in an almost stagnant position as regards the operational aspects was surviving since 1923 signifies the local and governmental lethargy towards the cooperation during the pre-independence days. During the war time, when the food supply was controlled, a consumers' Cooperative Store was established during 1943 to supply food grains and cloth and other essential requirements to the people. Ultimately that store was liquidated during 1951 as the result of decontrol.

The history of the cooperative movement during the post-independence period is somewhat encouraging. During 1951, two more societies came into existence, one for the fishermen and the other one to serve the toddy tappers and the jaggery manufacturers. Apart from that efforts were made to regenerate the existing credit society to transforming it into a multipurpose cooperative society to satisfy the various needs of the cultivators. The fishermen's society was established to serve the fishermen community in the field of credit especially during the rainy season. The purposes of the Palmyra Jaggery Manufacturers' Society were manifold, the important among them being, (a) advancing the credit facilities to the members for production of jaggery and (b) arranging the sale of jaggery and neera in their sale depot. In contrast with the pre-independence movement, the new phase of the cooperative movement during the post-independence days has taken an encouraging shape, on account of (i) the governmental encouragement and local enthusiasm, and (ii) the movement has spread to different non-agricultural occupation fields. In the forthcoming paragraphs we give a short description of the working of each cooperative society with brief historical back ground:

(1) Paduthonse Ganapati Multipurpose Cooperative Society:

The society was founded by a Brahmin landlord and 15 others during 1924 and was named 'Paduthonse Ganapati Cooperative Society'. After 1950, the society was rechristened as 'Paduthonse Ganapati Multipurpose Cooperative Society' as the objects were widened. Upto 1950, the only object of the society was to provide credit facilities to the members. After 1950, the objects were 13 as given below:

1. Credit facility to the members.
2. Supply of good quality seeds.
3. Sales of farm produce.
4. Dissemination of the knowledge of the agricultural improvements.
5. Supply of agricultural implements.
6. Maintaining a .. for breeding.
7. Supply of agricultural and domestic requirements.
8. Encouraging subsidiary occupation.
9. Improving the hygienic conditions in the village.
10. Provision of education.
11. Encouraging the cooperation.
12. Opening a reading room, and
13. To encourage the habit of saving among the members.

The society had no rented or owned building for its office. The records and other documents of the society were kept in a wooden box in the residential house of the president of the society. The meeting of the Board of Directors and other members of the society was called at the lecture hall of the Aided Higher Elementary School, Kemmannu. Nobody was employed as the Secretary or the Clerk to keep the accounts of the society. Instead, the president himself carried on that work and he was paid a remuneration at the rate of Rs.3/- per transaction amounting to Rs.1000/-.

The following records were kept and maintained by the society:

- i) Admission Register.
- ii) Minute Book.
- iii) Cash Book.
- iv) Loan Register
- v) Property Statement.
- vi) Liability Register
- vii) F.D. Register.
- viii) Monthly Statement Register.
- ix) Dividend Register.

There were 76 members, a majority of them being Hindus. A castewise distribution of the members gave 30 Brahmins, 29 Non-Brahmin Hindus, 14 Muslims and 3 Catholic Christians. The President of the Society belonged to the Brahmin's caste. Among the Non-Brahmin Hindus, a large majority of the members belonged to the Bant's community. As there was a Catholic Cooperative Society in Mudthonse whose area of operation spread over 13 villages including Paduthonse, many Catholic cultivators reported their membership in that society. The Ganapati Society represented only three members from the Catholics. However, Muslims did not have any such society of their caste, hence their balanced representation in the Ganapati Society.

By the end of 1958, the share capital of the society was Rs.1106/- and the deposits amounted to Rs.1010/- Loans were advanced to the individual members after the Board of Directors scrutinising their respective applications. An individual members could get loan upto Rs.50/-, for each share he or she held. Usually the loans were sanctioned for one year. The purposes of the loans were (i) agricultural requirements (ii) paying the land revenue (iii) trade (iv) education (v) building (vi) religious ceremonies, etc. The rate of interest charged was 8-1/3%, however, a default rate of 9-1/3% was charged in case loan was not repaid before its maturity.

(2) The Palmyra Jaggery Manufacturers' Credit Society:

This society was founded by 23 members belonging to Beljed and Billava communities following tapping and/or jaggery manufacturing as an occupation. The society came into existence in December 1951. The aims and objects of the society were mainly two: (i) to borrow funds from the members to be utilised as loans to members for useful purposes, (ii) to encourage the manufacturing of the jaggery by the members and to arrange for its marketing.

The office of the society was established in the Kemmannu market in a rented building. The rent of the building was Rs.4.50 per month. There was no electricity. The office room was furnished with one chair, one table, one bench. The society had employed a Secretary to assist the president of the society in keeping and maintaining the office records, and management of the Heera shop run by the society. The president as well as the Secretary got remuneration of Rs.3/- per every Rs.1000/- transaction.

The following records were kept by the society:

- i) Cash Book.
- ii) Entrance Book
- iii) Production Record.
- iv) Sales Record.
- v) Stock Book.
- vi) Thrift Account Book.
- vii) Savings Thrift Book.

The membership of the society had an increasing trend from 1951-52 to 1954-55 and then it slowly dropped down, as it is revealed here below:

Year	Number of members.
1951-52	23
1952-53	25
1953-54	31
1954-55	43
1955-56	40
1956-57	36

On the date of the enquiry 57 shares of the value of Rs.5/- each were held by 36 members. The paid up capital thus amounted to Rs.285/-. The saving deposits and the thrift deposits by the members amounted to Rs.722/- and Rs.264/- respectively on the date of enquiry.

Only short term loans ranging from 3 months to 1 year were sanctioned. The purposes of the loans were (i) production loans for the jaggery manufacturers in purchase of equipments, etc. and (ii) consumption loans for the members during the rainy season. The rate of interest charged on such loans was 6½%. Normally the loans were sanctioned by the Board of Directors in their monthly meeting. As the President and the Secretary were the only literate members of the Board, however, the final decision was taken by them.

Storing and Sale facilities:

A neera sales depot was run by the society at a rented premises near the weekly market yard. It was rented for Rs.5/- per month and was furnished with crude types of furnitures, namely, three benches, tables, two chairs. There was one huge earthen vessel for storing the neera and some two dozen of glasses, to serve the neera.

There were no storing facilities for the jaggery and the society, presently, was not taking any responsibility for the sale of the jaggery manufactured by the members,. In 1953, an experiment was made to arrange for the storing and sale of jaggery manufactured by the members, but it was found not practicable. Since then the practice followed was to seal the bundle of the jaggery with the societies trade mark and entrust the sales responsibility on the producer.

Paduthonse Fishermen Credit Society:

The society was founded during 1951 by two prominent fishermen on the advice from the Cooperative supervisor who visited the village in the same year. The purposes of the society were (i) to provide short term loans to the members during the rainy season for maintenance and (ii) to purchase

yarn for preparing nets, etc. The society had no office room, either owned or rented. The records were preserved in a wooden box which was kept in the residential house of the president. Neither a secretary nor a clerk were employed to keep the records. All the accounts of the society were kept by the president with the assistance of another member. A remuneration of Rs.3/- per transaction of Rs.1000/- was paid to the president for that work.

The following records were kept:

- i) Entrance Book.
- ii) Cash Book.
- iii) Loan Register, etc.

The membership of the society was confined to the fishermen caste communities. There were 77 members on the date of the enquiry, holding 82 shares of the value of Rs.5/- each. Thus, the share capital of the society on the date of enquiry was Rs.410/-.

Loans were sanctioned after the Board of Directors sanctioning the applications for the loans each month. An interest of 6½% was charged on such loans.

(4) The Paduthonse Kemmannu cooperative Stores:

The above named cooperative society was in existence from 1943 to 1951. The store was established by the sponsors of the Ganapati Cooperative Credit Society in December 1943. It ceased to function after 1951 due to the decontrol of the essential commodities. The store liquidated its capital assets into money and deposited the sums with the District Central Cooperative Bank.

The main object of the store was to supply the essential commodities to the public at the controlled rates. There were 22 members in 1943. The figure raised to 77 during 1951. The share capital of the store was Rs.1420/- during 1943 and Rs.2680/- during 1951. Rice, other cereals, sugar, kerosene oil and cloth were the main items of sale.

An average annual turnover of the store was Rs.60,000/- and the store earned a profit at the rate of 4% of the total turnover. The store could survive and earn profits at the above rate from 1943 to 1951, because it had monopoly over the supply of certain essential commodities whose supply was controlled by the State. After decontrol measures in 1951-52, the store had to compete with the private merchants who had re-entered the market after the decontrol. The competition was not in favour of the store because (i) the establishment costs of the store were higher and (ii) the private merchants could evade sales tax by showing lesser turnover while the society could not. Hence, it liquidated its business.

.....

- : CHAPTER XIII :-

Consumer Expenditure and Ownership of Household and Luxury Articles.

This Chapter is divided into two parts. The purpose of the first part is to present the pattern of consumer expenditure for a sample of 60 families. The other part accounts for the possession of household and luxury articles according to income groups of the families. Data used in the first section were collected by canvassing a 'Family Budget Expenditure' schedule for 60 selected families. The data regarding the possession of household and other luxury articles were collected in the General Family Schedule.

(I)

13.1 Consumer Expenditure:

The purpose of this section is to present the results of the Family Budget Expenditure enquiry which was conducted for 60 selected families. While selecting the families, Adda Bangre and the island localities of the village were not considered because it was felt very difficult for the fieldman to approach the residents of those localities during the four months of the rainy season. The sample was taken on the stratified random sample method, the strata being made the main occupation of the family. The final list gave 9 cultivators, 5 fishermen, 10 families engaged wholly or simultaneously in cultivation labour and fish curing labour, 20 families engaged in non-agricultural production and processing activities, 6 in trade, 2 in transport and 8 in other miscellaneous activities. The families were so divided into three groups of 20 each that each group roughly contained one third of the families from each occupation group mentioned above. Each group was given a quarterly visit and the family expenditure data were collected for 21 food articles and 16 non-food articles for the previous month of the visit.

Table 13.1 gives the annual consumer expenditure on different items by the sample families. The annual expenditure was calculated by multiplying by three the expenditure reported for each group for four months. Column I of the above table gives the percentage of the families reporting expenditure on a given item to total families. Among the main food items like rice, chilly, onion, spices and coconut oil the percentage of the reported families is more than 95 percent. 60 to 75 percent of the families reported expenditure on pulses, sugar, jaggery, tea, hotel expenses, milk and fish. In case of non-food items, more than 95 percent of the families reported expenditure on items like kerosene oil, match box, soap and cloth. 75 to 85 percent of the families reported expenditure on tobacco and pan-supari.

Column II presents the annual expenditure in Rs. incurred on different items and column III gives the percentages of expenditure on different items to total expenditure. 63.4 percent of the total expenditure is on food items, rice leading with 33.7 percent while hotel expenses accounting for 8.3 percent follow the next. The expenditure on other food items is less than 3.5 percent in each case. Among the non-food items, cloth leads with 10.6 percent and medicine follows next with 6.4 percent.

Column IV gives the per adult male equivalent expenditure in Rs. for different food and non-food items. Adult male equivalents were calculated for all the members of the selected families according to the following method:-

Male adult (above 15 years)	= 8 units	= 1 adult male
Female adult (-" -")	= 7 units	= 7/8 " "
Boys & Girls (5 to 14 years)	= 5 units	= 5/8 " "
Children either sex (upto 4 years)	= 3 units	= 3/8 " "

Peradult male equivalent expenditure on food items was accounted for Rs.196-70 while that on non-food items was Rs. 91-09. Among the food items, rice accounted for Rs.95-89 while the corresponding figures for hotel expenses & fish were Rs.23.94

TABLE 13.1 : Annual consumer Expenditure on different items by 60 selected families.

Items	I Percentage of reporting families to total families.	II Annual Expenditure in Rs.	III Percentage	IV Per adult male-equivalent expenditure in Rs.
1 Rice	90	27137-49	33.7	95-89
2 Other cereals	5	111-93	0.1	0-39
3 Pulses	60	1371-06	1.7	4-84
4 Chilly	95	1954-20	2.4	6-90
5 Onion	100	625-50	0.8	2-21
6 Spices	100	2177-49	2.7	7-69
7 Coconut oil	95	1892-67	2.3	6-69
8 Sugar	75	1678-95	2.1	5-93
9 Jaggery	75	1236-12	1.5	4-37
10 Tea	70	1117-44	1.2	3.95
11 Coffee	30	444-51	0.5	1-58
12 Sweet meats	30	533-22	0.6	1-89
13 Hotel	75	6775-32	8.3	23-94
14 Milk etc.	65	1923-30	2.4	6-80
15 Butter, Ghee	10	252-69	0.3	0-89
16 Eggs	5	12-00	0.1	0-25
17 Meat	20	938-50	1.2	3-49
18 Fish	80	2917-05	3.5	10-31
19 Vegetables	45	962-67	1.2	3-40
20 Fruits	20	329-34	0.4	1-16
21 Coconuts	40	1163-92	1.4	4-13
Total food items		55610-37	68.4	196-70
22 Pan superi	85	1403-58	1.7	4-96
23 Tobacco	75	978-66	1.2	3-46
24 Bidi-cigar	40	975-33	1.2	3-47
25 Snuff	20	250-35	0.3	0-55
26 Kerosene Oil	95	1043-94	1.3	3-69
27 Fuel wood	25	1317-00	1.6	4-65
28 Match box	100	295-29	0.4	1-04
29 Medicine	50	5188-20	6.4	18-33
30 Soap	95	1052-51	1.3	3-65
31 Cloth	95	8647-65	10.6	30-69
32 Foot wears	5	120-75	0.1	0-43
33 News papers	5	54-15	0.1	0-18
34 Education	15	621-36	0.8	2-19
35 Travel	55	2774-97	3.4	9-80
36 Utensils (metal)	5	432-00	0.5	1.53
37 Utensils (earthen)	60	604-05	0.7	2-13
Total non food items		25739-79	31.6	91-09
TOTAL		81350-16	100.0	287-79

and Rs.10-31 respectively. On chilly, spices, coconut oil, sugar and milk, the expenditure varied from Rs.5 to Rs.7. On non-food items cloth was leading with an expenditure of Rs.30-69 followed by medicine which accounted for Rs. 18.33 per adult male equivalent. Travel was also an important head of expenditure as Rs.9-80 per adult male equivalent were spent on that. Expenditure on other non-food items was not more than Rs.5 per adult male equivalent in each case.

Table 13.2 gives the average per family expenditure on regular and occasional items in different months. Regular items are those which are, in most of the cases, purchased every month. All the food items and pan-supari, tobacco, bidi-cigarette, snuff, kerosene oil, fuel, match box and soap among the non-food items were regular items as they were purchased every month in a majority of the cases. Items like medicine, cloth, footwears, education, travel and utensils were occasionally reported in a majority of the cases. Hence they are occasional purchases.

TABLE 13.2 : Average per family expenditure on regular and occasional items in different months.

Month	Regular items Rs.	Occasional items- Rs.	Total Rs.
June 1958	88.33	25.76	114.09
July	81.61	23.84	105.45
August	84.87	16.57	101.44
September	92.23	10.95	103.18
October	112.33	46.84	159.17
November	84.10	22.75	106.85
December	84.91	19.16	104.07
January 1959	83.84	34.92	118.76
February	72.32	13.45	85.77
March	91.15	18.44	109.59
April	83.66	13.96	102.62
May	85.02	25.95	110.97
Total	1049.36	272.60	1321.98

- 5 -

Per family expenditure on regular items varies from Rs.72-32 in February to Rs.112-33 in October. On items of occasional purchase, per family expenditure varied from Rs.10-95 in September to Rs.46-84 in October. In both the cases, festival months of October (Dipawali for Hindus) and January (festival of St.Philomena Church) are the high expenditure months. Summer months of February, March, April are low expenditure months for items of occasional purchase.

- - - - -
(II)

13.2 Household articles:

In noting the economic change in the villages, particular attention need be given to changes in possession of durable consumer goods and luxury articles. In table 13.3 data are presented about the possession of some household articles according to the economic status of the families. In table 13.4 we give the percentages of families reporting the possession of different household articles in different income groups. It will be interesting to note the change in the total number of different articles at the resurvey due to shift of some families from lower income groups to higher income groups or vice versa. Other factors like expansion of the electricity to other parts of the village may influence the possession of luxury articles like radios by the rich families staying in such areas. Percentages of families possessing different articles may register change at the resurvey for the total families as well as for the families in different income groups.

Data were collected in the General Family Schedule in respect of the possession of such household articles as chairs and tables, cupboards, cots, stoves, cups and saucers, lanterns and

TABLE 13.3 : Household and Luxury articles

Income groups Rs.	Tab- les	Cha- irs	Cup- boards	Cots	Stov- es	Glasses for tak- ing Tea or Coffee	Lant- erns	Petro- max	Clocks Alarm time pieces & wrist wat- ches	Ra- dio	Gromo- phone	Sewing machine	Bicycles	Razer
1- 100	-	1	-	1	-	18	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
101- 250	6	10	-	6	1	66	9	-	3	-	-	-	-	-
251- 500	24	51	3	13	6	306	41	1	15	-	-	-	-	9
501- 750	52	103	12	35	4	357	84	8	50	1	1	2	-	12
751- 1000	50	82	11	22	-	277	59	7	40	1	4	1	-	14
1001- 1500	58	111	17	38	4	363	89	9	60	-	2	1	4	23
1501- 2500	43	69	25	29	3	204	39	16	48	-	3	3	3	19
2501- 3500	25	40	29	25	3	133	22	18	31	2	1	2	10	13
3501- 5000	12	21	13	16	1	52	8	3	17	1	1	-	-	8
5001-10000	6	11	14	15	2	53	13	2	16	2	-	1	2	7
Above 10001	5	13	9	3	1	8	1	1	3	1	-	-	1	1
Total	281	512	133	205	25	1837	367	65	285	8	12	10	20	108

TABLE 13.4 : Percentages of families reporting Household and Luxury articles.

Income groups Rs.	Tab- les	Cha- irs	Cup- boards	Cots	Stov- es	Glasses for taking Tea or Coffee	Lant- erns	Petro- max	Clocks, Alarm Time pieces wrist watches	Ra- dio	Gromo- phone	Sewing machine	Bicy- cles	Razors
1 - 100	-	4.3	-	4.3	-	40.6	8.7	-	8.7	-	-	-	-	-
101 - 250	5.2	7.3	-	4.2	1.1	50.5	9.4	-	3.1	-	-	-	-	-
251 - 500	8.4	14.7	1.1	5.1	1.1	54.9	13.9	0.4	4.8	-	-	-	-	3.3
501 - 750	20.1	28.0	4.6	12.6	1.7	66.5	35.1	2.9	17.2	0.4	0.4	0.8	-	5.0
751 - 1000	36.4	43.8	7.4	18.2	-	80.2	47.9	5.8	27.3	0.8	3.3	0.8	-	3.3
1001 - 1500	40.7	53.7	12.2	24.4	2.4	84.6	66.7	7.3	39.0	1.0	1.6	0.8	3.3	18.7
1501 - 2500	72.3	78.7	31.9	42.5	6.4	97.8	72.3	25.5	63.8	-	6.4	6.4	4.3	38.3
2501 - 3500	95.2	90.5	66.7	71.4	14.3	100.0	95.2	33.3	80.9	9.5	4.8	9.5	14.3	52.4
3501 - 5000	100.0	100.0	66.7	100.0	11.1	100.0	77.8	33.3	100.0	11.1	11.1	-	-	77.8
5001 -10000	100.0	100.0	75.0	87.5	25.0	100.0	75.0	12.5	100.0	25.0	25.0	87.5	-	87.5
Above 10000	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	-	-	100.0	100.0
Total	25.2 (242)	32.0 (308)	8.3 (80)	15.9 (153)	2.2 (21)	67.2 (646)	35.5 (341)	5.1 (49)	21.3 (205)	0.8 (8)	1.2 (12)	1.0 (10)	1.2 (12)	9.7 (95)

petromaxes, clocks, alarm time pieces and wrist watches, radios and gramophone, sewing machines, bicycles and razor sets. Most of these are the durable consumer goods and a few of them are luxury articles. As the residents of the village are in good contact with the highly urbanised places like Bombay through their outmigrant relatives there is no wonder if the data show the possession of luxury articles like wrist watches by the families in the lower income groups. According to the observations of our fieldman, relatives of the residents used to bring gifts from Bombay while visiting the village during the vacations. Articles like stoves, clocks, alarm time pieces, wrist watches, and razor sets. We find a large number of families using the furnitures due to two reasons : (i) Good quality wood used for furniture is abundant in the nearby area. Hence its cheapness. (ii) Because of their contact with Bombay, the villagers are in the habit of imitating the urban life. Very few families possess the stoves because the fuel wood is comparatively very cheap. Even in lower income groups, more than 50 percent of the families have reported the possession of glasses for taking tea or coffee. Lanterns are possessed by about one third of the families in the village. While the petromaxes are owned by only 5 percent of the families. Radios, Gramophones and sewing machines are also owned by the families with their incomes between Rs.501 to Rs.1500. During the resurvey, it should be made certain whether they are, in such cases, received as gifts. After enquiry, it was noted that bicycles are owned by those who need easy conveyance to the nearby area because of the occupation they follow. For example, two doctors, three petty merchants, two students, and four areated water manufacturers owned bicycles. There was , however, one cycle renting shop possessing 8 bicycles. Razors are used by about 10 percent of the families.

Lastly, it must be noted that the data reveal an important tendency about the possession of most of the articles mentioned above. Percentages of the families using the durable articles increased directly with the income.

13.3 Use of utensils:

The types of utensils used for different purposes may reveal, to some extent at least, the level of living of a community. In table 13.5 data are presented in respect of the types of utensils used for purposes like bringing water, storing water, heating milk, cooking, taking meals and drinking water. Water was usually brought in a pitcher made of either brass or copper. Poor people used to bring water in the earthen pitchers. For storing water, however, even many rich families were found using earthen vessels. That is mainly due to the climatic reason. Water stored in earthen vessels is preferred to water stored in copper or brass vessels especially during the summer season. In winter also, as the lowest temperature recorded is about 66° F. Storing water in earthen vessels does not cause much nuisance. For heating milk as well as for cooking, many families, irrespective of their economic status, were reported using earthenwares. Even the high caste Brahmins were found using the earthen vessels for cooking purpose. It is believed that the par boiled rice cooked in earthen vessel tastes better than that cooked in brass or copper vessels. In case of heating the milk, use of aluminium wares and brass wares was not uncommon. The few rich families reported using the stainless steel vessels for heating of the milk. Bronze plates are mainly used for taking meals by families belonging to all income groups. However, enamel coated iron plates and plates made of glass or china clay are mainly used by Muslims. Many poor families reported the use of earthen wares for taking meals. Brass cups were mainly used for drinking water by families in most of the income groups. Muslims, however, reported that their religious belief is against using the brass utensils for any purposes. They used glass cups or earthen cups for drinking water.

TABLE 13.5 : Percentage distribution of families according to type of Utensils used for different purposes.

Item	Copper	Brass	Copper & Brass	Bronze	Aluminium	Enamel coated iron wares	Glass wares & China wares,	Stainless Steel	Earthen wares	Other Combinations	Total
1 Bringing water	-	-	654 (68.4)	-	-	-	-	-	300 (31.3)	3 (0.3)	957 (100.0)
2 Sorting water	-	-	154 (17.4)	-	-	-	-	-	726 (82.0)	5 (0.6)	885 (100.0)
3 Heating milk	11 (1.5)	84 (11.4)	-	-	92 (12.5)	-	-	6 (0.8)	538 (73.3)	4 (0.5)	735 (100.0)
4 Cooking	7 (0.7)	46 (4.8)	-	-	-	-	-	-	894 (93.0)	14 (1.5)	961 (100.0)
5 Taking meals	1 (0.1)	33 (3.4)	-	382 (39.8)	40 (4.2)	156 (16.2)	147 (15.3)	15 (1.6)	179 (18.6)	8 (0.8)	961 (100.0)
6 Drinking water	2 (0.2)	410 (42.7)	-	50 (5.2)	17 (1.8)	1 (0.1)	338 (35.2)	7 (0.7)	132 (13.7)	4 (0.4)	961 (100.0)

13.4 Certain Practices:

Certain family practices like flouring and dehusking at mill, using razors, tailoring at home, and proportion of individuals using footwears are also useful to indicate the change in the level of living. Table 13.6 shows that the proportion of families or individuals following certain practices mentioned above very directly with the income. As rice is the main, in many cases only, staple food of the villagers, practice of flouring the grain at home or at mill was very rare. Home grown rice being insufficient for the village population, dehusked rice was imported from outside. As the home grown rice is of 'parboiled' quality, dehusking the paddy at mill is not needed. Only a small proportion of the families, therefore, have reported flouring and dehusking at mill. Using the razors is practised by about 10 percent of the families only. Tailoring at home is more a hobby than a family practice for any economic reason. Most of the sewing machines owned by such families are under utilized and in one case at least, it was reported that the machine was not used since last one year.

The use of footwears on a very small scale by both men and women. Only 15 percent of the men used footwears while the corresponding percentage for women was only 4. As the region is sandy, it is not possible to walk in certain areas with footwears on. Even a large number of rich people were reported not using the footwears.

13.5 Storing grains:

For storing paddy, big cultivators followed the method of making the 'muras'. It is an indigenous method of making a bundle round in shape, of 42 seers of paddy with paddy straw tied with coir twines. 14.6 percent of the families stored their paddy in 'muras'. Others mainly stored their grains in baskets. They constituted 79 percent of the total number of families. Only 2 families reported storing the paddy in Gunny bags and those using the tins for that purpose were 6.

TABLE 13.6 : Certain practices (Using footwear, razor etc.)

Income Group Rs.	Proportion of families			Proportion of individuals using footwears		
	Flouring and dehusking at mill	Using razors	Tailoring at home	Males	Females	Total
1 - 100	-	-	-	6.2	-	1.9
101 - 250	2.1	-	-	2.8	0.6	1.4
251 - 500	6.6	2.9	-	5.1	1.5	2.9
501 - 750	13.8	3.8	-	9.6	1.0	4.9
751 - 1000	19.0	9.1	-	11.3	3.4	7.3
1001 - 1500	19.5	17.9	2.4	18.4	4.5	11.1
1501 - 2500	25.5	34.0	6.4	29.6	9.8	19.1
2501 - 3500	47.6	52.4	4.8	35.0	8.6	21.4
3501 - 5000	55.6	88.9	-	56.4	27.9	41.5
5001 -10000	62.5	67.5	12.5	62.9	38.7	51.5
Above 10001	100.0	100.0	-	37.5	33.3	36.4
Total	13.8 (133)	9.7 (93)	0.8 (8)	14.6 (364)	3.7 (109)	8.7 (473)

54 families or 5.6 percent of the total reported not storing grains.

13.6 Lighting arrangements:

Most of the families (97.4 percent) used kerosene oil for lighting. Only 16 families or 1.7 percent of the total were reported using electricity for lighting purpose. Five families belonging to ganig caste were reported using vegetable oil. Using vegetable oil for lighting purpose was their family tradition. Four Harijan families were not using light at all.

The types of lamps used varied from lantern to small lamps. The number of families using different types of lamps is given below:

Type of lamps	No. of families	Percentage
Lanterns only	15	1.6
Wall lamps only	12	1.3
Small lamps only	549	57.1
Petromaxes only	15	1.6
Electric bulbs only	16	1.7
Lantern and wall lamp	4	0.4
Lantern and small lamp	307	31.9
Lantern and petromax	34	3.5
Lantern Samal	5	0.5
No lamps	<u>4</u>	<u>0.4</u>
Total	961	100.0

It is revealed that the use of small lamps as well as lanterns with small lamps is quite in vogue. Small lamps are mainly used by poorer classes while lanterns are mainly used by those of families whose income is more than Rs.751. Petromaxes are used by those whose income is above Rs.1501. It is interesting to note that most of the families using petromaxes are engaged in trade. The number of families using electricity for lighting is very small. They do not belong to a definite economic group or occupation group. During the resurvey we may expect a sufficiently large number of families using electricity. The Gauig families who traditionally used vegetable oil for lighting reported the possession of 'Kaldeana' or 'Samal' for that purpose.

- CHAPTER-XIV -

- SOCIAL AGGREGATES -

Whatever economic change is taking place in the village, it should, we may expect, be reflected in the aggregate income and production of the village. The purpose of this Chapter is to give a social account of the income distributed according to occupations and an estimation of the physical production in the village. Data about the occupational incomes are taken from the General Family Schedules while the production figures are estimated on the basis of the data collected in different enquiries. As the village is of 'spread out' type, it is not a socio-economic unit in itself. It is therefore of little meaning to calculate the visible and invisible imports and exports to get a balance sheet of the village economy. An account of imports and exports of some important commodities like rice, coconut, fish and coir is however felt to be useful and such accounts are presented at the end of the chapter.

14.1 Village income :

In table 14.1 percentage distribution of the village income is given according to different sources grouped into broad sectors like 'agriculture' 'fishing' etc. The total income of the villagers as reported in the General Family Enquiry is Rs.7,76,688. It is revealed that the income from the agricultural sources is 26.7 percent of the total income. 16 percent of the total income is earned through the sources in the fishing sector. Many sources in the 'processing and manufacture' sector are agricultural oriented. 13.6 percent of the total

TABLE 14.1: Total income

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Agriculture	2,07,694	26.7
2 Fishing	1,24,205	16.0
3 Processing & Manufacture	1,05,365	13.6
4 Trade	90,249	11.6
5 Transport	39,400	5.1
6 Construction	5,010	0.6
7 Public Services	46,892	6.0
8 Other Services	33,104	4.3
9 Unproductive sources	1,24,769	16.1
Total	7,76,688	100.0

income is earned through the sources in 'Processing and Manufacturing' sector. Trade and Transport, on the other hand, are partly 'agricultural' oriented and partly 'fish' oriented. These two sectors earn 11.6 percent and 5.1 percent of the total income respectively. Income from construction is only 0.6 percent. Only the earnings of the masons and the contractors of road construction are calculated in that sector. Earnings in Public services like those of doctors, teachers and the employees of the public bodies accounted for 6 percent of the total income. In respect of Other services like those of barbers, washermen, hotelkeepers etc. the earnings are 4.3 percent. 'Unproductive sources' sector is an important one because it is accounted for 16.1 percent of the total income, slightly more than the income earned in the 'Fishing' sector. It mainly consists of family remittances.

14.2 Income from Agriculture :

Table 14.2 gives data in respect of the percentage distribution of the income earned through different sources in the agricultural sector.

TABLE 14.2 : Income from Agriculture

Sources	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Paddy cultivation mainly owned	27,964	13.4
2 Paddy cultivation mainly unowned	17,423	8.4
<u>Paddy cultivation total</u>	45,387	21.9
3 Coconut cultivation mainly owned	49,826	24.0
4 Coconut cultivation mainly unowned	33,518	16.1
<u>Coconut cultivation total</u>	83,344	40.1
5 Cultivation labour (attached)	1,403	0.7
6 Cultivation labour (casual)	42,378	20.4
<u>Cultivation labour total</u>	43,781	21.1
7 Agricultural rent	35,182	16.9
Grand Total	2,07,694	100.0

There are mainly four sources of income in the Agricultural sector, namely, Paddy cultivation, coconut cultivation, cultivation labour and agricultural rent. The total income from all these sources amounted to Rs.2,07,694. Paddy cultivation and Coconut cultivation are further divided into 'mainly owned' and 'mainly unowned' meaning thereby 'owning more than 50 percent of the cultivated land and less than 50 percent of the cultivated land' respectively. Paddy cultivation mainly owned accounts for 13.4 percent and that mainly unowned only 8.4 percent of the total income in the Agricultural sector.

The total income from Paddy cultivation is 21.9 percent. In case of coconut cultivation 24 percent and 18.1 percent of the total income in the Agricultural sector are established by 'mainly owned' and 'mainly unowned' sources respectively. The total income from coconut cultivation is 40.1 percent, being the highest in the Agricultural sector. Cultivation labour is divided into 'attached' and 'casual'. The income earned by the permanent farm servants comes under 'attached' labour and the rest is treated as 'casual'. As there were only four permanent farm servants in the village, income earned by 'attached' labour amounted to only Rs.1,403 or 0.7 percent of the total income in the Agricultural sector. On the other hand 20.4 percent of the total income is recorded by 'casual' labour. There were a number of Agricultural rent receivers and their income is accounted for 18.9 percent of the total income.

14.3 Income from Fishing :

Table 14.3 presents data about the income in the Fishing sector. The total income from Fishing sector is amounted to Rs.1,24,205. It is more than the income earned by either Paddy cultivation or coconut cultivation. The income in the Fishing sector is earned through four sources, namely, Fishing in sea, Fishing in river, Collecting shell worms, and Fish curing labour. The income from Fishing in sea is about half of the total income earned in the Fishing sector. Fishing in river accounts for 6.5 percent and collection of shell worms only 0.1 percent of the total income. Fish curing labour is an important source of income in the Fishing sector. Income earned through Fish curing labour accounts for 42.4 percent of the total income.

TABLE 14.3: Income from Fishing

Sources	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Fishing in sea	63,334	51.0
2 Fishing in River	8,052	6.5
3 Collecting shell worms	205	0.1
4 Fish curing labour	52,614	42.4
Total	1,24,205	100.0

14.4 Income from Processing and Manufacture:

In table 14.4 incomes from different sources in the Processing and Manufacture sector. The sources of income under this sector are divided into five different categories, viz. 1 Agricultural oriented, 2 Fish oriented, 3 construction oriented, 4 Artisans, and 5 Others. Agricultural oriented processes account for 76.3 percent of the total income in the sector, these processes and manufactures use raw materials produced in the Agricultural sector. Except incomes from 'sale of milk' and 'dehusking of rice by hand' which are 'paddy-oriented', all the processes or manufactures in this sector are 'coconut-oriented' processes and manufactures account for 9.5 percent while 'coconu oriented' processes and manufactures register 66.8 percent of the total sectoral income. Coir thread spinning with two of its preliminary processes alone claims 53.3 percent while Palmyra 'neera' and Jaggery manufacturing, another important 'coconut oriented source, accounts for 8.5 percent of the total sectoral income.

TABLE 14.4 : Income from Processing and Manufacture.

Sources		Amount Rs.	Percentage
1	Income from sale of milk	9749	9.2
2	Removing the coconut husk	4800	4.6
3	Beating and combing the husk	3330	3.2
4	Coir thread spinning and rope making	48080	45.5
<u>Total from 2 to 4</u>		<u>56210</u>	<u>53.5</u>
5	Vegetable oil pressers	465	0.4
6	Palmyra 'neera' and Jaggery	8917	8.5
7	Dehusking of rice by hand	500	0.5
8	Making coconut thatches	4655	4.4
9	Preparing the fish nets on contract basis	105	0.1
10	Fish oil pressers	165	0.2
11	Quarrying	500	0.5
12	Lime kiln	1187	1.1
13	Tailors	3122	3.0
14	Coppersmiths	7985	7.6
15	Goldsmiths	800	0.8
16	Carpenters and Sawyers	4360	4.1
17	Areated waters	2650	2.5
18	Beedi manufacturing	3778	3.6
19	Basket making	217	0.2
Total		105365	100.0
I	Agricultural oriented	1 - 8	76.3
II	Fish oriented	9 -10	0.3
III	Construction oriented	11 -12	1.6
IV	Artisans	13 -16 & 19	15.7
V	Others	17 -18	6.1
Total			100.0

There are two processes which are 'fish oriented'. They are viz. (i) preparing the fishnets on contract basis, and (ii) fish oil pressers. The income earned by the former is only 0.1 percent while the latter accounts for 0.2 percent of the total sectoral income. As most of the fishermen manufacture their nets on their own account, getting nets manufactured on contract basis is less in vogue. The meagre share of the 'fish oil pressers' in the total sectoral income is due to the 'famine' of the saradine fish subsequently during the survey year and its previous year.

Quarrying and limekiln are categorised as 'construction-oriented'. Both of them combinedly account for 1.6 percent of the total sectoral income.

The so called village artisans such as carpenters and sawyers, Goldsmiths, Coppermiths, Tailors and Basket makers earned 15.7 percent of the total sectoral income through their respective occupations. Nearly whole of the income earned by the Coppermith is from outside the village. The income of the Tailors, Carpenters, and Sawyers as well as Goldsmiths accounted here is only for the residents of the village. It is observed in Chapter that most of the Tailors, Carpenters, Goldsmiths etc. with their shop premises in the village market area non-residents of the village.

Manufacture of Areated waters and Beedi manufacturing are categorised as 'Others'. Both of them combinedly account for 6.1 percent of the total sectoral income.

14.5 Income from Trade :

Table 14.5 gives incomes from different sources in Trade sector. Trade sector is divided into (i) Agriculture oriented, (ii) Fish oriented and (iii) General, which account for 32.5 percent, 35 percent and 32.5 percent of the total sectoral income respectively. Dealers in coir, wholesale

TABLE 14.5 : Income from Trade

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Dealers in Coir	15,250	16.9
2 Wholesale trade in coconuts	10,390	11.5
3 Retail dealers in Fuel	3,742	4.1
4 Commission agents for fish dealers	1,866	2.1
5 Wholesale fish dealers	21,975	24.2
6 Retail sale of fresh fish	7,819	8.7
7 General shop keepers (retail)	3,600	4.0
8 Hawkers	1,545	1.7
9 Grocers and Grain merchants	14,870	16.5
10 Tobacco, pan beedi	4,030	4.5
11 Retail trade in textiles	2,400	2.7
12 Money lending	2,762	3.1
Total	90,249	100.0
Agriculture oriented	1 - 3	32.5
Fish-oriented	4 - 6	35.0
General	7 - 12	32.5
Total		100.0

trade in coconut and retail dealers in fuel are classified as Agriculture-oriented traders of whom coir and coconut dealers are important as their respective incomes account for 16.9 percent and 11.5 percent of the total sectoral income. Fish oriented traders are of three types : (i) Commission agents for fish dealers, (ii) Wholesale fish dealers; and (iii) retail sale of fresh fish. Earnings from wholesale fish dealing are accounted for 24.2 percent of the total income, being the highest in the Trade sector. Retail sale of fresh fish and commission agents for fish dealers claim 8.7 percent and 2.1 percent of the total sectoral income respectively. General traders are classified as (i) General shopkeepers (retail); (ii) Hawkers, unclassified; (iii) Grocers and Grain merchants; (iv) Tobacco, pan, beedi shops; (v) Retail trade in textiles; and (vi) Money lending. The total income from the above five types of trade activities is accounted for 32.5 percent of the total sectoral income. About half of that income is accrued to Grocers and Grain merchants. General shop keepers (mainly stationary shops) and Tobacco, pan, beedi merchants earned 4 percent and 4.5 percent respectively of the total income. Earnings from retail trade in textiles are accounted for 2.7 percent. As money lending is an important source of income for at least three of the villages in the village, the earnings from that source are accounted for 3.1 percent.

14.6 Income from Transport :

The sources of income in the Transport sector are four : (i) Bullock carts (ii) Boat transport ; (iii) Transport on head load; & (iv) Bicycle renting. Earnings from bullock carts are only 7.8 percent while those from Boat transport are accounted for as much as 69.9 percent of the total income

in the Transport sector. As the village is of 'spread out' type, transport of good on head loads has earned importance. The income earned by head load transport is accounted for 19.8 percent of the total income 2.5 percent of the income is earned by bicycle renting (see table 14.6)

TABLE 14.6 Income from Transport

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Bullock carts	3060	7.8
2 Boat transport	27540	69.9
3 Transport on head load	7800	19.8
4 Bicycle renting	1000	2.5
Total	39400	100.0

14.27 Income from Construction :

Income from construction is amounted Rs.5010 only. There are only two sources in this sector. Masons earned 93 percent of the total income earned in the construction sector. The rest is earned by 'Public contracts' to build roads etc. (see table 14.7)

TABLE 14.7 : Income from Construction

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Building- Mason	4660	93.0
2 Public contracts	350	7.0
Total	5010	100.0

14.8 Income from Public Services:

Table 14.8 gives sources of income and the income earned in the 'public services' sector. The total income earned by public services like medical service, educational

service etc. is amounted to Rs. 46,892. 65 percent of that amount is accrued to Educational services, while the earnings in the Medical services are accounted for 21.8 percent. Employees of the Panchayat and other public bodies earned 10.5 percent and village Officers earned only 2.3 percent.

TABLE 14.8 : Income from Public services

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Medical services	10218	21.8
2 Educational services	30487	65.0
3 Village officers	1092	2.3
4 Employees of the Panchayat and other public bodies	5095	10.9
Total	46892	100.0

14.9 Income from other services:

The total income from other services like those of barbers, washermen, hoteliers etc. are amounted to Rs.33104 . Earnings from hotels are accounted for 51.8 percent. Earnings from other sources are less than 10 percent (see table 14.9)

TABLE 14.9 : Income from other services.

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Barbers	3150	9.5
2 Laundries	703	2.1
3 Hotels	17132	51.8
4 Recreation(cinema house)	3360	10.2
5 Legal service	1000	3.0
6 Business service	1200	3.6
7 Religious charitable	2462	7.4
8 Domestic services	1840	5.6
9 Other services	2257	6.8
Total	33104	100.0

14.10 Income from Unproductive sources:

The total income from Unproductive sources is as much as Rs.1,24,769 because as many as 312 families in the village getting remittances from their relatives staying outside the village. The family remittances constituted 96.9 percent of the total income from unproductive sources (see table 14.10). The other unproductive sources are non-agricultural rent, pensions and income from begging. There were no prostitutes in the village.

TABLE 14.10: Income from Unproductive sources.

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage
1 Rent receivers(non-agricultural)	2786	2.2
2 Pensions	495	0.4
3 Beggars	589	0.5
4 Family remittances	120899	96.9
Total	124769	100.0

14.11 Gross value of physical production:

Table 14.11 gives the gross value of physical production in the village. In the case of the agricultural products, the value is reported. As regards the fish, the total value of the fish is estimated on the basis of the value of the marketed fish. In respect of other non-agricultural production, value is partly reported and partly estimated on the basis of the market value prevailing during the survey year for the particular commodity.

table

TABLE 14.11: Value of gross physical production.

Item	Value in Rs.	Percentage
1 Rice	61160	9.7
2 Pulses	5705	0.9
3 Coconut	131223	20.8
4 Fish	272323	43.2
5 Coir products	51410	8.1
6 Neera and Jaggery	8917	1.4
7 Fuel wood	3400	0.5
8 Fodder	9200	1.5
9 Fish manure	2500	0.4
10 Dung manure	5310	0.8
11 Riverbed alluvium	13400	2.1
12 Total manure	21210	3.3
13 Milk and milk products	64221	10.2
14 Lime	2535	0.4
Total	631809	100.0

14.12 Imports and Exports of rice, coconut fish & coir:

As the village is deficit of rice, it is imported from the paddy growing villages across the river on the northern border, coconuts, fish and coir products are exported in a major quantity. Coconuts and coir products are exported to the inferior districts of the Mysore State while fish are exported to Mangalore for reexporting. (see table 14.12). Import figures for rice are estimated on the basis of the case studies prepared for all the grocers in the village and one wholesale paddy merchant. Export figures of coconuts, coir products and fish were similarly estimated on the basis of the case studies prepared for the dealers for the respective commodities.

TABLE 14.12 : Imports and exports of rice, fish
coconuts and coir products.

Item	Imports Value in Rs.	Exports Value in Rs.
1 Rice	1,90,000	-
2 Fish	-	2,51,698
3 Coconuts	-	88,300
4 Coir products	-	50,760