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# Census of India, 1931

VOLUME XXVIII

## TRAVANCORE

## PART I—REPORT

By

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# INTRODUCTION

Census-taking is a very ancient institution. About 4,000 years before Christ the Introductory. Babylonians had instituted a system of revenue returns which was developed in course of time into an efficient machinery for the estimation of the country's wealth. The Egyptians had started the collection of statistics of labour about 3,000 B. C. in connection with the construction of the pyramids, and the Chinese also had collected statistics of agriculture, industry and commerce from about that time. The Hebrews took regular censuses to ascertain the man-power available for military purposes. The ancient Greeks and Romans had undertaken the census periodically for the purpose of registering the rights of citizenship. With the expansion of the Roman Empire census-taking became a world-wide institution, but it disappeared with the disintegration of that Empire. In India too census-taking was a well-established practice in ancient times. The Edicts of Asōka, the great Mauryan Emperor of the third century B. C., refer to the census as a permanent institution. It "included not only the total number of all the four castes in each village, but an account of the exact number of cultivators, cowherds, merchants, artizans, labourers and slaves as well as an account of biped and quadruped animals." (J. N. Saaddar, *The Glories of Magadha*, pp. 88-89.)

As regards Travancore, the first census about which detailed information is available is the one taken by Ward and Conner in the years 1816-1820 A. D. But there are grounds to believe that frequent attempts were made by the earlier rulers of the State to collect statistics of the population and the resources of the country. Bartolomeo mentions one such instance which took place in 1787 when the king of Travancore was about to impose a poll-tax on the Christians of St. Thomas on the coast of Malabar. The State records show that a regular census was taken in Travancore in 1836 and another in 1854. Very little reliance could be placed on the results of these earlier censuses. The first systematic census which might claim a certain degree of accuracy was the one conducted in 1875. The next census was taken in 1881 and since then there was one regularly at the end of every ten years. The census of 1931 is, therefore, the seventh systematic census and the sixth in the series of decennial censuses taken in this State.

2. The first step in connection with the taking of the census is the appointment of Appointment of the Census Commissioner. the officer to be in charge of the operations. I was appointed Census Commissioner in November 1929 which gave me one year and three months to make the necessary arrangements and get through the preliminary stages.

3. The final census was taken in Travancore on the morning of the 27th February Date and time of the census. 1931. In British India it took place on the previous night. Owing to peculiar physical features of the country and the scattered distribution of houses a night enumeration is impracticable in this State, and it has, therefore, always been the practice to make the final count during daytime. At all the censuses previous to 1921 the final census was taken in this State synchronously with that in Cochin State and British Malabar on the day following the night on which the British Indian census took place. In 1921 a deviation was made by Travancore alone taking the census on the morning of the day on which it was taken in British India, while Cochin State and British Malabar continued the previous practice of having it on the following morning. I changed the procedure with the permission of the Census Commissioner for India and the sanction of the Government of Travancore and, following suit with Cochin and Malabar, took the final census between 7 A. M. and 9 A. M. on the 27th February 1931.

4. The Administrative Volume of the Census Report gives a detailed description Preliminary operations. of the machinery employed for taking the census and of the procedure followed in tabulating the results. That volume is intended for the guidance of the future Census Commissioners and other officers who will have to collaborate with him. A brief sketch of the procedure adopted in the various stages of the operations is given here for the information of the general reader who may not have access to the Administrative Volume and who may not be interested, even if it be accessible, in the detailed account contained therein. For purposes of the census the State was divided into urban and rural areas. The municipal towns, together with certain other places which were treated as towns under the Police Regulation and were provided with conservancy arrangements, constituted the urban area

and the rest of the country was treated as rural. The number of municipal towns was 19 as in 1921, but the number of other towns was increased from 19 to 27. The ordinary revenue village (*pakuthi*) being too large for statistical comparisons the residential village known as *kaṛa* or *muri* was adopted as the territorial unit in rural area as in the previous censuses. In municipal towns the ward was taken as the unit.

5. Regulation III of 1105 legalising all proceedings connected with the census was passed in May 1930. A general plan of the census operations, together with a calendar showing the dates of commencement and termination of the different stages, was published in June 1930. The Census Code, Part I, dealing with the procedure in enumeration and containing instructions to various census officers, was published in September 1930. Part II of the Code which described the methods of tabulation and compilation was published by the end of January 1931. Immediately after I assumed charge of my appointment the Tahsildars and Municipal Presidents were requested to prepare lists of *kaṛas* in taluks and of wards in towns. The lists received from them were consolidated into a *kaṛa* register for the whole State. The buildings in each *kaṛa* or ward were listed in prescribed forms and were afterwards numbered serially for each *kaṛa* in taluks and for each ward in the municipal towns. The *kaṛa* register was ready by the 15th June 1930. The preparation of the house lists which was the next operation was commenced on the 30th June and completed by the 15th August and the numbering of houses was finished in September. Both these works were attended to by the village staff in rural areas, by the municipal subordinates in municipal towns and by the conservancy staff in census towns. The agencies employed were not paid any remuneration except in a few places where suitable hands were not available otherwise. The abstracts of house lists received from all the taluks and municipal towns were verified to make sure that there was no omission of *kaṛas* on the one hand or overlapping on the other. The next item of work, *viz.*, the formation of census divisions and the appointment of census officers, was then taken up. The *kaṛas* and wards were divided into blocks, each consisting of about 30 houses on an average in rural parts and 50 in the towns, the size of the block being fixed with reference to the number of houses that could conveniently be visited by an enumerator on the census morning. The blocks were grouped into circles each containing about 10 blocks. The circles in a taluk including those in the census towns constituted a charge, while those in a municipal town were grouped into a separate charge. On the whole, there were 49 charges consisting of 30 taluks and 19 municipal towns. The Tahsildars were the Charge Superintendents for their respective taluks and the Municipal Presidents for the towns. The Divisional Forest Officers were appointed as Charge Superintendents for the forest areas within their jurisdictions and were instructed to communicate the total figures of the preliminary and final enumerations to the Tahsildars concerned for incorporation in the taluk figures. Similarly, the Sanitary Circle Officers were appointed as Charge Superintendents for the census towns in their districts for purposes of inspection only, all administrative control being vested in the Tahsildars of the taluks in which those towns were situated. The heads of certain departments, the employes of which had to be engaged for census work, were appointed as District Census Officers to supervise the work of their subordinates.

The British Indian schedule was adopted in its entirety in this State, together with six additional columns to record particulars of emigrants from the State.

**Preliminary  
enumeration.**

6. By the end of October 1930 the charge and circle registers were prepared and the agency for the preliminary enumeration was selected. The experiment of employing the teachers in vernacular schools as enumerators and supervisors for the preliminary enumeration, which was first tried in 1921 and was found to be successful, was repeated this time also. In a few charges the revenue and municipal subordinates were also engaged for this purpose. As the enumerators had to collect on separate schedules additional information for the purpose of the special economic enquiry ordered by the Government, the period of the preliminary enumeration was fixed at two months from the 15th November 1930, and in order to enable the Tahsildars to cope with the additional work of supervision involved, particularly on account of the economic enquiry, each Tahsildar Charge Superintendent was given an assistant selected from among competent undergraduate teachers in departmental English schools for the whole period of the preliminary enumeration. Weekly reports on the progress of the preliminary enumeration were received from the Charge Superintendents, and as soon as the operations were completed summaries of the results were sent to the Census Office, where they were scrutinized and abnormal variations, if any, were duly corrected in consultation with the Charge Superintendents. Altogether 3,588 enumerators and 793 supervisors were employed for the preliminary enumeration. For

the final counting on the census day each enumerator had to do only one block and each supervisor had about 10 blocks under him. But for the preliminary enumeration which was conducted in the course of two months about 9 to 10 blocks were assigned to each enumerator and 40 to 45 blocks to each supervisor.

7. In pursuance of a circular issued by the Government the heads of departments and offices had furnished to the Division Peishkars and the Commissioner, Devikulam, by the 15th December 1930, lists of employes under them drawing Rs. 100 and below per mensem for recruitment as enumerators and supervisors for the final census. Persons available for the different charges were selected from these lists and their names communicated to the Charge Superintendents by the 1st January 1931. In places where the requisite numbers of Government employes were not available, the Charge Superintendents indented upon the services of private persons. The final enumeration in the forest areas was conducted by the employes of the Forest Department, and that of the inmates of jails, police lock-ups, reformatories, hospitals and asylums by the officers in charge of those institutions. With the co-operation of the railway authorities suitable arrangements were made for platform and train enumeration. Final enumeration.

8. Every precaution was taken to ensure a correct enumeration of the floating population. Printed instructions for the purpose were distributed among the enumerators and supervisors. By means of a notification the public were requested to be in their houses on the census morning and to abstain as far as possible from celebrating marriages and other ceremonies on that forenoon. All shops, bazaars and markets were closed and motor traffic was stopped for a few hours on the morning of the census. Special enumerators were appointed for landing ghats in rivers and backwaters, frontier chowkeys, convenient road stations and places where crowds of people were likely to congregate in connection with fairs and social or religious festivals.

9. 3,618 supervisors and 35,981 enumerators were engaged for the final census, of whom only 17,994 or 45.4 per cent. were Government servants. In most of the taluks the services of private gentlemen, such as vakils, landlords, merchants and even grown-up students, had to be utilized, the total number of private persons thus employed being 21,605 as against 15,679 in 1921. The instructions issued by the Government were faithfully observed everywhere and the public willingly and heartily co-operated with the Government officers in making the census a complete success.

10. As soon as the final enumeration was over, the Charge Superintendents prepared the totals for their charges and communicated the same by telegram to the Census Office. Proper arrangements had been made by the Charge Superintendents to obtain the figures from the outlying parts of their charges in time to be able to despatch the telegram on the same evening. The first telegram was received from the Kulithura Municipal Town at 2.8 P. M. on the 27th February and that was soon followed by others which continued to arrive till 10.33 P. M. on the same night. The figures received from the different charges were immediately consolidated in the Census Office. The provisional totals for the State could have been communicated to the Census Commissioner for India on the same night but for the much regretted delay in getting the figures for the Ampalapurā and Minachil taluks. The express telegrams despatched by the Tahsildars of these two taluks on the evening of the 27th February were unfortunately delayed in transmission owing to some disorder in the telegraph line. These two telegrams were received at about 7 A. M. on the 28th February and the provisional totals were communicated to Government by messenger and to the Census Commissioner for India by telegram at 8.30 A. M. The difference between the provisional totals telegraphed and the actual figures obtained after slip-copying was only 0.2 per cent.

11. In the meantime, the Tabulation Office with the requisite copying and controlling staff was organized at the central office. It was divided into four sections, one for each of the Southern, Central, and Northern administrative divisions of the State and another for the High Range Division and the municipal towns together. As the enumeration books arrived from each charge they were checked with the charge and circle summaries to make sure that there was a book for every block enumerated. Slip-copying, i. e., copying the entries in the schedules on slips, which was the first process in the chain of post-census operations, was started on the 14th March 1931 and completed by the 6th June. Slips of different colours with the prescribed conventional symbols to denote sex and civil conditions were used for this purpose. Sorting for the different tables which was taken up next was begun on the 23rd June 1931 and finished by the 16th September. The establishment in the Tabulation.



sorting stage consisted of four sections, of which three were engaged in sorting and one in compilation. By the time sorting was finished nine out of 20 Imperial Tables had been compiled and printed, and the compilation of two other tables had been completed. Compilation for the remaining tables continued for about three months more and the whole work was finished by the 12th January 1932. The compilation of the Provincial Tables and the preparation of the Subsidiary Tables for the Report were done in the Census Office.

A special circumstance deserving mention in this census is that a number of qualified women were employed in copying, sorting and compilation. The work turned out by them compared very favourably, both in quality and quantity, with that of some of the ablest of men workers.

**Special enquiries.**

12. A unique feature of the 1931 census is the large number of special enquiries conducted along with it. The State Government ordered that certain statistics relating to the economic condition of the people should be collected along with the population census. It was decided to utilize the services of the enumerators employed for the preliminary enumeration to collect this additional information. A special schedule was printed for the purpose. As it was apprehended that, on account of the novelty of the enquiry and the variety of information that was proposed to be collected, the people might naturally hesitate to furnish correct returns, regular propaganda was undertaken through the Press and by the publication of leaflets, explaining the object and utility of the enquiry. The filled-up schedules were returned to the Census Office where the results were tabulated by a special staff. As per orders of the Government a census of the wages of agricultural and industrial labourers was also undertaken. A census of unemployment among literates in English as suggested by the Census Commissioner for India was taken on a special schedule. This opportunity was also availed of to collect similar information regarding literates in the vernaculars of the State. The schedules were distributed and collected by the enumerators employed for the preliminary enumeration and the results are embodied in Imperial Table XII, Parts I and II. A somewhat detailed enquiry was conducted about the Primitive Tribes, with special reference to the effect on their condition and customs of their contact with civilization, and also about some of the chief declining industries of the State. Another enquiry that was undertaken in this State was the one regarding fertility and mortality. Particulars of more than 100,000 married women were recorded on a schedule specially prepared for the purpose. The results were tabulated and certain interesting inferences deduced therefrom have been incorporated in the chapter on Sex in the Report. As was done in the last two censuses, a census of agricultural live-stock and implements was taken this time also. The work was done by the agencies employed for house-numbering.

**The Report.**

13. The drafting of the Report was taken in hand as soon as the Imperial Tables were compiled and the Subsidiary Tables for the first few chapters were prepared. The Report which forms Volume XXVIII of the series of Reports on the Census of India consists, as usual, of four parts. Part I is the Report proper and contains twelve chapters as prescribed by the Census Commissioner for India and five appendices. Appendix I deals with the Primitive Tribes, Appendix II with the Depressed and the Backward Classes, Appendix III with the declining industries, Appendix IV with the economic condition of the people and Appendix V with the cattle census. In preparing the Report I have followed as closely as possible the instructions issued by the Census Commissioner for India and modelled it mainly on the lines of the India Report of 1921. I have attempted, as best as I could, to explain the significance of the statistics presented. To elucidate the figures I have included a large number of maps and diagrams, much more than were used in the previous census reports of Travancore, and this may be regarded as a characteristic feature of the present Report. Part II of the Report contains all the Imperial Tables (20 in number) and seven State Tables. In the Imperial Tables figures are given for the State as a whole and for the different administrative and natural divisions. Part III which is mainly intended for local use contains the Provincial Tables giving figures by taluk corresponding to the figures by division contained in Imperial Tables, as well as the Pakuthi Register showing the population of the pakuthis by religion and literacy, and the Kata Register giving the number of occupied houses and population by kata. Part IV is the Administrative Volume which describes fully the methods followed in the taking of the census and in the tabulation of the results, the defects discovered in these methods and the suggestions to avoid them in future censuses.

It may be noted that in regard to the spelling of local names used in the Report and Tables I have made a deviation from the ordinary method and tried to secure uniformity by making the transliteration conform to the sounds intended to be conveyed. I give below the key to the pronunciation of certain vowels and consonants for which I have used special symbols.

ā = आ, आ०	ṅa = ञ, ञ०
ī = ई, ई०	rā = र, र०
ū = ऊ, ऊ०	śa = श, श०
ē = ए, ए०	ḷa = ळ, ळ०
ō = ओ, ओ०	ḷa = ल, ल०

14. The total cost of the present census is estimated to stand at about Rs. 1,50,800 including the sum of Rs. 11,000 put down for the printing of schedules, forms, the Report and the Tables, for which actual figures have not yet been received, as well as the probable expenditure that may have to be incurred hereafter. From the total expenditure a sum of Rs. 1,000 has to be deducted, being the amount which has been realised and which may hereafter be realised by the sale of waste paper and furniture, so that the net expenditure may be taken to be Rs. 1,49,800. This includes a sum of Rs. 28,440 incurred on account of the economic census specially taken in this State alone. For comparison with the cost of census in other parts of India the latter should be excluded from the total expenditure. If this is done, the net expenditure on account of the population census and the special enquiries conducted as per the instructions of the Census Commissioner for India will be Rs. 1,21,360, which will work out to Rs. 23-12 annas per 1,000 of the population. The corresponding cost of the present census in Baroda, Ajmer-Merwara, and Rajputana States, for which alone figures have been received so far, is Rs. 43-11-0, Rs. 35-6-11, and Rs. 25-2-10 respectively. To institute a comparison between the cost of the present and the previous census in Travancore certain deductions have to be made from the net expenditure of Rs. 1,21,360 mentioned above. The pay of the Census Commissioner is a variable item depending upon the status of the officer selected for the appointment. There is an excess of Rs. 3,948 under this head for the present census over that of the previous. At the last census a Government building was available to hold the Census Office; but now a private building had to be hired for which a sum of Rs. 2,460 had to be paid towards rent. The special enquiries conducted at the instance of the Census Commissioner for India, which necessitated the appointment of an Ethnographer for a period of nine months and of an officer of the Department of Industries on special duty for six months, had cost Rs. 5,730. There was no such expenditure at the last census. Deducting these three items from the total, the expenditure for the present census which could be compared with that of the previous one in this State would amount to Rs. 1,09,222 as against Rs. 89,459 for the 1921 census. The cost per mille of the population on the basis of the above figures works out to Rs. 21-7 annas for the present census and Rs. 22-5 annas for the last.

Cost of the  
Census.

15. My first duty is to express my deep indebtedness to the Government of His Highness the Maha Rajah for the confidence they placed in me and for the generous support they extended to me throughout my work. To Dr. J. H. Hutton, C. I. E., Census Commissioner for India, I tender my warmest thanks for his valuable advice and many useful suggestions which made my task lighter than it would otherwise have been. He paid a visit to Travancore in September 1931 and inspected the local Census Office, which no previous India Commissioner did. My personal discussion with him on that occasion and my participation in the Conference of Census Officers convened by him at Delhi in January 1931 enabled me to avoid many pitfalls common in census operations.

Acknowledg-  
ments.

No Census Commissioner would be able to bring his work to a successful close without the hearty co-operation of his brother officers and the general public. I am glad to acknowledge with gratitude that I received such co-operation in abundance. Foremost among the officers who helped me in one form or other are the Commandant, Nayyar Brigade, the Land Revenue and Income-Tax Commissioner, the Chief Engineer, the Director of Public Instruction, the Commissioner of Police, the Inspecting Medical Officer, the Conservator of Forests, the Excise Commissioner, the Sanitary Commissioner, the Dewan Peishkars, the Commissioner, Devikulam, and the Principal Port Officer. To all of them I offer my best thanks. My thanks are also due to the Presidents of Municipal Councils, the Tahsildars, the Divisional Forest Officers, and the Sanitary Circle Officers

who, as Charge Superintendents, had to bear the brunt of the work in connection with the preliminary arrangements and the supervision of the actual enumeration. The schoolmasters and other Government and municipal employes who carried out the difficult task of preliminary enumeration, and the official and non-official gentlemen who acted as enumerators and supervisors for the final census are entitled to my special thanks.

Among the gentlemen who assisted me with material for the preparation of the Report, I must mention Mr. K. Padmanabhan Tampi, B. A., B. L., retired District Superintendent of Police, whose valuable contribution on "Hinduism in Travancore" is printed as an appendix to the Chapter on Religion. Mr. K. R. Krishna Pillai, B. A., B. L., retired Assistant Secretary to Government, furnished some interesting matter for the Chapter on Language. From Mr. T. Lakshmanan Pillai, B. A., retired Divisional Treasury Officer, and Dr. L. A. Ravi Varma, Deputy Surgeon, I received useful hints on the origin of caste in Kēraḷa. I am greatly indebted to all these gentlemen for the services they have ungrudgingly rendered. The Appendix on Primitive Tribes is based mainly on the notes supplied by Mr. L. A. Krishna Iyer, M. A., whom at my request the Government placed on special duty for a period of nine months to enquire into the condition and customs of these tribes. The material for the Appendix on Declining Industries was collected by Mr. M. P. G. Nair, Textile Expert in the Department of Industries, who was also specially deputed for the purpose by the Government. I am much obliged to both these officers for the valuable work they have done.

Coming to my own staff, I have great pleasure in recording my genuine appreciation of the highly satisfactory manner in which every one of them discharged his duties. Mr. R. Sankara Iyer, B. A., B. L., my Personal Assistant, was in charge of the office from start to finish. His faithful devotion to duty, immense capacity for work, and scrupulous attention to details enabled me to leave the entire management of the office safely in his hands. He is not only an indefatigable worker himself, but knows the art of making others work like himself. I am highly grateful to him for his loyal co-operation and valuable assistance. Next to him I must acknowledge the services of Mr. N. Parameswaran Pillai, M. A., Statistical Superintendent. His proficiency in statistical methods and his clear grasp of complicated mathematical problems were of great help to me in explaining the large increase of population in the last decade. He was in sole charge of the tabulation of the results of the enquiry regarding fertility and mortality and of the economic census. Mr. R. Govinda Pillai, B. A., the head clerk, was an able lieutenant to the Personal Assistant, and he spared no pains in the efficient discharge of his duties. The other members of the staff also (Messrs. S. Thandaveswara Iyer, P. K. Subramonia Iyer, N. Subbiah Chettiar and M. Thanu Pillai, B. A.,) did their part equally well. The work of the draftsman, Mr. K. Rama Iyengar, deserves special mention. The maps and diagrams included in the Report are all his productions, and they bear ample testimony to his ability and taste in drawing. I am grateful to Mr. A. Padmanabha Iyer for the assistance he has rendered in the preparation of the index which, I hope, is a useful addition to the Report.

The maps were printed at the Trivandrum Art Printing Works whose excellence in lithography is seen in every one of them. The half-tone blocks reproduced in the appendices were made at the Bangalore Press, and they testify to the excellent workmanship of this leading press in Bangalore.

I have reserved to the last my acknowledgments to the Travancore Government Press, where all the printing in connection with the census in this State was done. It is creditable that this institution was able to cope with the tremendous work it had to do at the early stages in printing the schedules, forms and slips, of which there were several series, each running into many thousands. The printing of the Report and the Tables was a more difficult task; but the Government Press proved equal to the occasion. Mr. T. Nilakanta Pillai, the Superintendent, took special interest in the printing of these volumes, and to his close supervision as much as to the efficiency of his staff is due their excellent finish, for which I express my deep personal obligations to the Superintendent.

N. KUNJAN PILLAI

## CORRIGENDA

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- PAGE 11, marginal table, column 6, line 2, *read 1,087 for 1,087.*
- .. 22, first marginal table, column heading, *read Year for Decade.*
- .. 24, line 14, *read 11,40,76,495 for 11,40,76,496.*
- .. 30, line 47, *read 39,857 for 39,880.*
- .. 59, marginal table, combined heading of columns 4 and 5, *read Variation for Increase.*
- .. 62, marginal table, column 4, line 2, *read 35.5 for 35.6.*
- .. 127, line 42, *read 3,783 for 4,783.*
- .. 132, against Krishnanvaka, in column 2 of the table, *read 969 for 889.*
- .. 185, line 40, *read 1,163 for 1,152.*
- .. 140, line 39, *read 1,131 for 1,132.*
- .. 147, first table, column 2, line 1, *read 18,456 for 18,476.*
- .. 147, last table, column 5, line 5, *read 47 for 74.*
- .. 154, Note to Subsidiary Table I, line 1, *read at for for.*
- .. 160, column 13, line 2, *read 789 for 879.*
- .. 168, line 38, *read II of 1100 for I of 1088.*
- .. 181, column 6 of table, line 8, *read 413 for 449.*
- .. 183, second table, column 13, line 6, *read 136 for 138.*
- .. 187, first table, column 2, line 4, *read 30 for 80.*
- .. 194, column 3, against Hindu males of 5-10 years, *read 999 for 997.*
- .. 217, line 20, *read III for II.*
- .. 237, line 1, *read over thrice for nearly twice.*
- .. 239, line 17, *read 49 for 48.*
- .. 251, marginal table, column 3, line 5, *read 14,426 for 14,428.*
- .. 252, line 4, *read 46 for 48.*
- .. 252, marginal heading of paragraph 338, *read Sub-class for Sub-clause.*
- .. 265, column 4, against group 98, *read 9,532 for 9,932.*
- .. 269, column 3 against Domestic service under Brahman, *read 402 for 202.*
- .. 387, line 45, *read 257 for 227.*
- .. 398, foot-note, *read 28 for 23.*
- .. 426, para 116, sub-para 1, line 1, *read areas for are as.*
- .. 483, last column against Central Division in table, *read 1,260 for 1,206.*
- .. 504, line 21, *read 10 for 5.*
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# SUMMARY

The Report consists of twelve chapters and five appendices. The first chapter deals with the distribution and movement of the population of the State as a whole; its administrative and natural divisions and taluks.

Chapter I  
Distribution  
and movement  
of population.

There has been no change in the area of the State or in the number of divisions or taluks, though the boundaries of the natural divisions have been suitably altered at the present census. The *de facto* population of Travancore, according to the present census, is 5,095,973. The State holds the 19th place in size and the third in population among the Indian States, the only ones having a larger population being Hyderabad and Mysore. Travancore has a mean density of 668 persons per square mile which, when calculated on the cultivable land and the land actually cultivated, rises to 1,072 and 1,482 respectively, each person having three-fifths of an acre of cultivable land and two-fifths of an acre of cultivated land. In India Cochin alone, and outside India only Java and Madura, England and Wales, and Belgium, have slightly higher densities than Travancore.

The recorded increase in the population in the last decade is 27·2 per cent. But it has been proved that there was under-enumeration in the census of 1921 and if allowance is made for this under-enumeration, the increase in the actual population would drop to 24·8 per cent. Of this increase, 1·1 per cent. has been caused by the balance of migration so that the increase in the natural population may be taken to be 23·7 per cent. In the adjoining State of Cochin the increase is 23·1 per cent. The decennial growth of the population has always been greater in Travancore than in India as a whole and in most Provinces and States, the peculiar physical and economic conditions of this State naturally favouring a high birth-rate and a low death-rate.

Agriculture being the main source of wealth in the State at present, the pressure of population on the means of subsistence is determined by the condition of agriculture and the possibilities of its further development, both extensively and intensively. Under the existing conditions extension of cultivation, though possible to some extent, cannot afford much relief if the present rate of growth of the population continues. The extreme subdivision and fragmentation of agricultural holdings, 95 per cent. of which are already uneconomic, and the chronic indebtedness of the cultivators render progress in revolutionizing the methods of agriculture slow, and even any increase in production that may be brought about by improved methods of cultivation is not likely to keep pace with the growth of the population. 54·3 per cent. of the total population is supported by agriculture, but their standard of life is very low, and to raise this standard what is really necessary is to draw away from agriculture a portion of the population now depending on it. This could only be done by the development of industry and commerce. Over-population is the combined effect of a falling death-rate and a rising birth-rate. The question of controlling the growth of population by prudential or birth-preventing checks deserves consideration.

The number of occupied houses has increased by 22 per cent. during the last decade, the increase being shared by all the divisions. The average number of persons per family is 5·46 and that per house is 5·48. It is noteworthy that as a result of the partition of the matriarchal tarwāds of Nāyars, Ilavas and Nānjanād Vellālas many joint families have been broken up in the latter half of the last decade.

The number of towns separately censused this time is 46 consisting of 19 municipal towns as in 1921 and 27 census towns. If classified according to the chief occupations of their population, their historical associations and other important factors, 23 towns are agricultural and distributive, nine are industrial and commercial, two are market towns, two are historically important and eight are temple towns. Trivandrum, the capital of the State, and Alwaya a health resort, stand by themselves.

Chapter II  
Population of  
towns and  
villages.

The urban population has grown from 404,654 to 551,788 (an increase of 25·1 per cent.) during the last decade, but the proportion of urban to total population has risen only from 10·1 per cent. in 1921 to 10·8 per cent. in 1931. About 74 per cent. of the urban population live in municipal towns, as much as 50 per cent. being congregated in the capital of the State and the nine industrial and commercial towns. The average population of a town (taking all towns together) has increased from 10,648 in 1921 to 11,995 in 1931 and that of a municipal town from 17,098 to 21,498. Barring the capital of the State, the industrial and commercial towns have the largest average population (20,030) and the temple towns the lowest (6,912). The natural growth of the urban population has been less than the increase in the general population of the State, and a more rapid urbanization of Travancore will only follow in the wake of an equally rapid industrialization of the country.

The average density of population in urban area now stands at 3,649 persons per square mile as against 2,952 in 1921. The average density in municipal towns has increased from 3,820 to 4,720 during the decade. Of all the towns, Shenkotta is the most densely populated (17,464 persons per square mile), next to it come Alleppey with a density of 9,656, Nagercoil with 9,586, and Trivandrum with 8,505. The least populous town is Attingal which has only a density of 816 persons per square mile which is less than even the density of the taluk in which it is situated.

A large majority of the population in towns consists of persons born in the taluks in which the towns are situated. The capital contains the highest proportion of persons born in the other taluks of the State and the industrial and commercial towns the highest proportion of persons born outside Travancore. 19 per cent. of the Muslims in the State, 11 per cent. of the Hindus and 8 per cent. of the Christians live in towns.

The *kata* or the residential village, and not the *pakuthi* or the revenue village, has been adopted as the territorial unit for the census. The average population of the *kata* has increased from 929 to 1,155 and that of the *pakuthi* from 8,337 to 10,494 during the decade.

Chapter III  
Birthplace and  
migration.

The volume of external migration during the last decade has not been considerable, the total number of emigrants and immigrants together constituting only 38 per mille of the aggregate population. Internal migration was confined to 18 per mille of the State population of whom 89 per cent. moved only between contiguous divisions. The largest volume of immigration and the smallest volume of emigration are seen in localities of low density. The general proposition that immigration decreases and emigration increases as the density of population increases holds good in Travancore.

The immigrants from outside the State number 135,103 as against 73,591 in 1921. The tea, rubber and cardamom plantations alone contain 79,433 immigrants. About 81 per cent. of the immigrants are from the adjacent State of Cochin and the contiguous districts of the Madras Presidency, about 16 per cent. from the non-contiguous districts of the same Presidency, nearly two per cent. from the other parts of India and only one per cent. from countries outside India. The sexes are almost equal among Hindu immigrants, females preponderate among Christians and males among Muslims. Except in the case of immigrants from outside India the sex ratio is found to decrease as the distance between the place of birth and the place of enumeration increases. The immigrants in the tea, rubber and cardamom estates represent 59 per cent. of the aggregate immigrant population of the State, which shows that most of the immigrants in the State are labourers in the estates and are temporary or semi-permanent sojourners.

The number of emigrants from the State has increased from 30,260 in 1921 to 58,466 in 1931. The balance of external migration has always been in favour of the State. Nearly 86 per cent. of the emigrants are found in other parts of India, the largest numbers in Cochin State and the Madras Presidency. The emigrants to foreign countries number 8,482. If conditions of settlement are congenial, distance and other disadvantages do not deter the educated youth of Travancore from migrating to any country to earn a decent living, though such migration will naturally be of a temporary or semi-permanent type only.

The tea and cardamom plantations in the State employ mostly foreign labour. If they would recruit all their labour from the State itself, more than 75,000 local persons could find work there under the present conditions and to that extent the volume of unemployment in the State would be reduced.

Of the aggregate population more than 17 per cent. are under five years of age, 30 per cent. under ten years, more than 42 per cent. under 15, about 48 per cent. between 15-50 and a little over 9 per cent. above 50 years. There is a remarkable rise in the proportions of children under ten years and of persons over 50 to the total population, coupled with a similar fall in those of persons aged 10-15 and 15-50. The proportion of children is highest in the Midland Division, while that of adults aged 15-40 is highest in the Highland and lowest in the Midland. All the municipal towns generally disclose a higher proportion of adults. The proportion of children is higher among Christians and Muslims than among Hindus. Chapter IV  
Age.

The mean age as well as the median age of the population has been gradually decreasing as a result of the increasing proportion of children. It is highest among Hindus and lowest among Muslims, and Christians occupy an intermediate position. Though there is a decrease in the proportion of adults which may cause a decline in the birth-rate, the increasing proportion of married females at the earlier child-bearing ages and the present high proportion of children will result in an increase in the number of adults in the next generation, probably leading to a rise in the birth-rate. The future growth of the population is, therefore, not likely to be affected so much by the variations of birth and death rates brought about by changes in the age constitution as by the economic and public health conditions. The proportion of children below ten years of age to married females aged 15-40, which under certain conditions indicates fertility, has also increased during the last decade. The average death-rate for females has been lower than that of males throughout the decade, female mortality being higher at the ages 15-35 and male mortality at all other ages. The crude death-rate for the two sexes together is practically 20 per mille per annum.

Although thirty persons have returned their ages as 100 and over, subsequent local enquiries have shown that their number is not more than 15 of whom six are males and nine females. All of them belong to the Depressed or Backward Classes and are illiterate. Chapter V  
Sex.

Though there has always been an excess of males over females in Travancore as a whole, as in other parts of India, females outnumber males in eleven taluks. In seven of these taluks most of which lie at the sea-coast, the preponderance of females has been almost a permanent feature, while in the remaining four taluks it has been observed for the first time only at the present census. The sex ratio, or the proportion of females to 1,000 males, of the actual population is highest in the Southern Division and lowest in the High Range. Hindus show the highest sex ratio and Muslims the least, Christians holding an intermediate position. The marumakkathāyam communities have generally a higher sex ratio than makkathāyis, probably on account of the difference in their social customs.

Female deaths are lower than male deaths in the ages up to 15, they exceed male deaths in the age-periods 15-20 and 20-30, show a steady fall between 30 and 60 and perceptibly increase after 60.

The following are some of the inferences drawn from the special enquiry regarding the fertility of women which was conducted at the present census:—

(i) Masculinity is slightly higher in first births than in subsequent births and it is highest in the Highland Division which is most rural, and lowest in the Lowland which is most urbanized. The proportion of families in which the first-born is a male and which have a preponderance of male children is higher than that of families in which the first-born is a female and which have a preponderance of females.

(ii) The 'mode' or size of family most favoured in Travancore is five for the towns and seven for the State. 14 per cent. of the 18,456 families of completed marriages brought under enquiry have seven children each. A single family has 19 children, a little less than one per cent. have more than 12 children each, about 98 per cent. have one child to 12 children each, 53 per cent. have 5 to 8 children each and a little more than one per cent. have no children at all.

(iii) The most favoured combination of children is that of three males and two females in towns as against four males and three females in the State. The proportion of female children tends to increase with the increase in the number of children born, the highest proportion being reached in families having 13 children of both sexes.

(iv) Based on the occupation of the husband, the agriculturists have the largest families and the Government officers the smallest, but, unlike in Western countries, the industrialists and unskilled labourers have smaller families than the small cultivators and petty merchants. Of the different communities, Brahmans have the smallest families, and of the other communities, Indian Christians, particularly Syrians, show the highest fertility as well as the largest survival ratio. Iḷavas come next, then Nāyars and lastly Muslims.

(v) The age of marriage is lowest among Brahmans and highest among Nāyars. The majority of the women in the State marry between the ages of 15 and 20 and the mean effective fertility for all ages is 4.9.

(vi) Irrespective of the duration of marriage Brahmans have the lowest fertility, Iḷavas have a slightly higher fertility than Nāyars throughout their married life, and Christians have a lower fertility than Nāyars, Muslims and Iḷavas during the first ten years of married life, more or less the same fertility as these latter in the next ten years and the highest fertility after that. The rate of increase in the size of the family in Travancore shows a rhythmic variation during the first 15 years of marriage and a sudden fall thereafter as in Scotland, while in Baroda there is a continuous fall.

(vii) There is a tendency for the interval between the date of marriage and the date of first confinement to decrease as the age of marriage advances. The proportion of sterile to fertile marriages decreases as the duration of marriage increases. There is no difference in the proportion of still-born to quick-born children in the case of women marrying up to the age of 25, but there is perceptible increase in the case of women married at later ages.

(viii) The net reproduction rate in Travancore is higher than that in most European countries. The net fertility of 1,000 women is found to be 3,867 children, of whom the number of girls who will be future mothers and who thus represent the net reproduction rate is 1,815. The population will hold its own if 1,000 girls born now live up to the end of the child-bearing period and give birth to 1,000 future mothers and it will increase or die out according as the number is above or below 1,000. Tested by this method the population of Travancore is a highly progressive one.

#### Chapter VI

##### Civil Condition.

Marriage by capture is practically extinct in Travancore, though a relic of the custom is seen among Muthuvans and Mannāns in the High Range Division. Marriage by purchase, with its earlier form of marriage by service, and exchange marriage prevail among the Primitive Tribes found in the State. Dowry marriage which is universal among Brahmans also prevails among Christians and is becoming prevalent among Nāyars, Iḷavas and Nānjanād Vellālas as well. Of the two forms of marriage, *Thalikkettukalyānam* and *Sambandham*, which prevailed among the major matumakkathāyam communities, the former has degenerated into a mock marriage and has been practically given up or is being combined with the latter which is the true wedlock now. Polygamy which is a sign of plenty has been allowed and indulged in by the hill-tribes and a few other communities, wherever economic conditions permitted it, but with the spread of education among all classes of people it is practically dying out. Polyandry is tabooed by all communities in the State and hypergamy or the system of securing husbands from higher castes is dying out and may probably become altogether extinct before long. Cousin marriage between the children of brothers and sisters is common both among civilized matumakkathāyam communities like Nāyars and among most of the Primitive Tribes found in the State.

In Travancore, the matumakkathāyam system has always recognized the supremacy of the woman, though in recent times her influence has waned on account of the unauthorised assertion of authority by the man and the mismanagement of the common properties by the *kāranavan* of the tarwād. While these disintegrating causes are contributing to the break-up of the matumakkathāyam system, the woman, especially of the educated communities, is gaining her economic independence as in the West. The high degree of education attained by the women of Travancore and the liberal policy pursued by the Government in the matter of appointments to State service and representation in political institutions without distinction of sex, have made women self-reliant and self-dependent. Many educated young women have already begun to disclose a desire to avoid the matrimonial bondage and, if the future progress is as rapid as in the immediate past, the next census is likely to record a shrinkage in the number of marriages contracted.

The bulk of the population being Dravidian, marriage is not so universal in the State as in other parts of India, although it is more common than in Western countries. The proportion of women of the child-bearing period is greater in Travancore than in



Western countries, but it is distinctly less than in India as a whole. The smallest proportions of unmarried males and females are found among Primitive Tribes, the largest proportion of unmarried males among Muslims and of unmarried females among Christians. The highest proportion of married women in the early ages of 5-15 is found among Brahmans and the Primitive Tribes and next to them among Christians, particularly Syrian Christians. Early marriage prevails least among Hindus as a whole and Muslims.

Among adult men town life in Travancore, as in the West, discourages marriage.

The proportion of the widowed to the population of each sex in Travancore is much less than that in India, but the proportion of widows to widowers is much higher, thereby showing that the remarriage of widowers is more common than that of widows in this State. The smallest proportions of widows to the female population in all ages taken together and at different age-periods are seen among Christians. The rate of marriage of widowers after the 45th year is lowest among Syrian Christians. Except in the case of Muslim widows in 1931, all the religions show a decrease in the proportions of widows between the ages of 15 and 40 from census to census, and the fall in this proportion, combined with a rise in that of married women of the child-bearing ages, mainly accounts for the high rate of increase of the population in the last decade.

Child marriage is not a serious problem in this State, the numbers getting married up to the age of 15 being considerably less than in India. Comparatively, it is more common among the Primitive Tribes than among civilized communities, Christians are more addicted to the practice than Muslims or Hindus and it is least common among Hindus taken as a whole. Early marriage of boys is most common among Syrian Christians and that of girls among Brahmans and next to them among Syrian Christians, though both these communities are educationally more advanced than the others.

As in the previous censuses separate statistics were collected for five infirmities, namely, insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness, leprosy and elephantiasis, the first four only being included in the enquiry in other parts of India. For every 100 persons afflicted with each infirmity in 1901 there are, according to the present census, 411 persons suffering from insanity, 356 from deaf-mutism, 306 from blindness, 197 from leprosy and 248 from elephantiasis. The total number of all the afflicted persons has increased by more than 2½ times during the last 30 years. During the decade 1921-1930 the insane have increased by 62·7 per cent., the deaf-mutes by 32·9 per cent., the blind by 89·9 per cent., the lepers by 35·5 per cent. and the persons afflicted with elephantiasis by 26·4 per cent. Insanity and leprosy appear to be more prevalent in Travancore than in India as a whole, while in deaf-mutism and blindness India beats Travancore. Elephantiasis is essentially a disease of the lowlands, especially of the coastal tract, but all the other infirmities are fairly well distributed in the plains divisions. Males more than females are subject to the attack of these infirmities and the grown-ups more than young persons. The incidence of these infirmities is generally slightly less in municipal towns than in the other parts of the State. The number of persons afflicted with more than one infirmity is only 63, the combination of leprosy and elephantiasis affecting the largest number and that of deaf-mutism and blindness the next largest.

Chapter VII  
Infirmities.

The net increase in the number of insane persons during the last fifty years is 424·9 per cent. and that of persons afflicted with elephantiasis during the last thirty years is 148·3 per cent. A much larger proportion of children is afflicted with deaf-mutism than with any other infirmity. The number of blind persons has been increasing from census to census and this infirmity is spreading faster among females than among males.

Of the total population, 29 per cent. have been returned as earners, 18·2 per cent. as working dependants and 52·8 per cent. as non-working dependants. The earners and working dependants form the working population and their proportion is 47·2 per cent. of the total population. In 1921 the proportion was 37 per cent. only. The increase in 1931 is mainly due to the inclusion of women doing manual work at house-keeping among working dependants which was not the case in 1921. The largest proportion of the working population, viz., 39 per cent., is engaged in agriculture and allied occupations. Taking the earners and working dependants separately, 55·5 per cent. of the former are engaged in agriculture and allied occupations, 18·6 per cent. in industry and only 1·1 per cent. in public administration, while of the working dependants 75 per cent. are engaged in domestic service, 13 per cent. in agriculture, 8 per cent. in industry and the remaining four per cent. in other occupations. Of the total number of earners with a subsidiary occupation, 54 per cent. have agriculture as a subsidiary field of employment, the next most favoured subsidiary occupation being domestic service in which there are roughly 41 women for every man.

Chapter VIII  
Occupation.

Unemployment both among males and females appears to be greater in Travancore than in other Indian States and Provinces except Bengal. The rapid growth of the population which has strained to the utmost the resources of agriculture, the chief occupation of the people, is the primary cause of unemployment in this State. Leaving aside children below 15 years, all women engaged in house-keeping and all boys and girls at school or college, it is seen that roughly 179,000 males and 321,000 females or in all 500,000 persons of 15 years and over are entirely unemployed, of whom 152,000 are literate and 348,000 illiterate. Generally, unemployment increases with literacy, though there are some exceptions, and it is lowest among the labourer classes who have the least number of literates among them.

Under the stress of economic necessity the Hindu castes generally disclose a rapidly growing tendency to give up their traditional occupations, the tendency being more pronounced among the educationally advanced castes, except Nāyars and Nānjanād Vellālas, than among the backward and illiterate castes.

If females below 10 years and above 55 years are excluded as being incapable of work and also those who are house-keepers doing actual manual work, the number of females engaged in other occupations both as earners and working dependants is 280 per 1,000 of the female population of the ages 10-55. The largest number of women is employed in agriculture and the next largest in industries. The proportion of female to male earners in the different castes varies according to their social status. The lower the status, the greater is the number of women working for their livelihood.

The number of persons returned as workers (earners and working dependants) under the various groups constituting agriculture is a little over 893,000. The corresponding number in 1921 was 627,000 and the increase during the decade is 42 per cent. This large increase is due to the natural development of cultivation, particularly of special crops like tea and rubber, and also to the partition of tarwād properties of the matumakkathāyam families of Nāyars, Ilavas and Nānjanād Vellālas. The population supported by agriculture which includes non-working dependants also comes to about 2,768,000 which is equal to 54·3 per cent. of the aggregate population. In 1921 this proportion was 51·7 per cent. only. In spite of this increase in the agricultural population during the decade it has not come to the proportion in India as a whole where it was 71 per cent. in 1921. Twenty per cent. of the land transferred in a year passes from agriculturists to non-agriculturists, naturally leading to an increase in the number of non-cultivating proprietors as well as a proportionate increase in the number of tenant cultivators. The area under cultivation, excluding land under rubber and tea, has not increased proportionately to the growth of the agricultural population and the holdings are, therefore, getting sub-divided into small fragments. Of the total holdings in the State about 6 per cent. are less than 20 cents in extent, about 26 per cent. less than 60 cents, 38 per cent. less than one acre, 62 per cent. less than 2 acres, 87 per cent. less than 5 acres, 95·5 per cent. less than 10 acres and 4·5 per cent. 10 acres and over. If ten acres is considered to be the minimum size of an economic holding, only less than five per cent. of the holdings are economic.

Excepting Madras and the Central Provinces and Berar, Travancore has a higher proportion of agricultural labourers than any other Indian Province, evidently due to even the small cultivators here leaving the cultural operations to the Depressed Classes. The workers in tea and rubber estates have increased from 16,786 in 1921 to 71,159 in 1931. This abnormal increase is due partly to the enormous development of tea and rubber cultivation during the last decade and partly also to under-enumeration in 1921.

Fishing gives employment to over 39,000 persons showing an increase of 17 per cent. over the number in 1921. Fishing has great possibilities of development by the improvement of the methods of catching and curing fish and by the exploitation of the still untouched deep-sea fisheries. So also is the newly organized cashew-nut industry in which more than 8,000 persons are now engaged. Coir yarn industry is the most important cottage industry in the State and more than 126,000 persons are employed in it either as full-time or part-time workers. The number in 1921 was 102,634, the increase in the decade being 23 per cent. Of the workers, more than two-thirds are females. Rice husking is another favourite occupation of the females. Over 18,000 persons have been returned as workers under this occupation and of them more than 17,000 are women. The total number of persons engaged in industries according to the present census is about 351,000 which is equal to 6·9 per cent. of the aggregate population. The industrial population has

increased only by 7 per cent. as against an increase of 27·2 per cent. in the total population during the decade. Of 351,000 workers in industry, as many as 326,500 persons are engaged in cottage industries, and only the remaining 24,500 or 7 per cent. are factory workers.

Transport employs about 38,000 persons now as against 32,000 in 1921. In regard to transport the most noteworthy fact is the rapid development of motor transport. The number of persons employed in this occupation according to the present census is nearly 6,500 as against 925 in 1921. Traders, including earners and working dependants, have increased from about 157,000 in 1921 to 177,000 in 1931, showing an increase of 12 per cent. during the decade. The number of persons engaged in public administration has increased from 12,800 to 16,700, and of these 411 are females, while in 1921 there was no female employé in public administration. Under professions and liberal arts, which include religion, law, medicine, instruction, letters, arts and sciences, the number returned at the present census is 64,270 and at the last it was 56,800, the increase during the decade being 13 per cent. The number engaged in instruction alone has increased by 47 per cent. from 14,400 in 1921 to 21,200 in 1931. The teaching profession now employs 3,272 women as against 1,819 in 1921.

Twenty-nine per cent. of the total population aged five years and over are literate, the percentage of literacy among males being 41 and among females 17. In male literacy Travancore ranks third among the Provinces and States in India, the first place being held by Burma and the second by Cochin State, while in female literacy Cochin stands first and next to it comes Travancore. The literates among males and females of five years and over have increased by 102 per cent. and 318 per cent. respectively during the last twenty years. The literacy figures of 1921 have been left out of consideration because of the patent inaccuracies in them. Of the urban population of five years and over 41 per cent. and of the rural population of the same ages 28 per cent. are literate. The highest proportions of literates are found among the population 15-20 years of age—53 per cent. among males and 27 per cent. among females. Christians have the highest proportion of literates, *viz.*, 36 per cent. of the population of five years and over, Hindus 27 per cent. and Muslims 14 per cent. Literacy is generally greater in places where Syrian Christians preponderate than in other localities and it is least prevalent in taluks where the estate coolies form the bulk of the population. Female literacy is less in localities where the population is predominantly Tamilian than in places where Malayalis preponderate. There has been such a progressive increase in the proportion of female to male literates at the younger ages during the last twenty years that the Hindus and Christians have doubled their proportions of female literates, though the proportion of Muslim female literates has increased by only 57 per cent.

Chapter IX  
Literacy.

If the different castes and communities are divided into three categories, namely, 'Advanced', 'Intermediate' and 'Illiterate', according as they contain more than 50 per cent., 10-50 per cent. or less than ten per cent. of literates in the male population of seven years and over, it is seen that 33·7 per cent. of the Hindu population are 'Advanced', 52·6 per cent. 'Intermediate' and 13·7 per cent. 'Illiterate', while in the case of Christians 59·9 per cent. are 'Advanced' and the rest 'Intermediate', and the Muslims are entirely in the 'Intermediate' class. If female literates are classified on the same basis, 66·0 per cent. of Hindu females are 'Intermediate' and 33·9 per cent. 'Illiterate', and the corresponding percentages among Christian females are 96·3 and 3·7 respectively, while Muslim females are entirely 'Illiterate'. Of the total literate males 91·3 per cent. are literate in Malayalam and 8·7 per cent. in Tamil, while the corresponding proportions of literate females are 93·6 per cent. and 6·4 per cent. respectively.

English literates per mille of the population aged 5 years and over have increased from 15 in 1921 to 19 in 1931. 31 per 1,000 males of 5 years and over and 7 per 1,000 females of the same ages are now able to read and write English. Cochin, Bengal and Bombay alone have a higher proportion of English literacy among males and Cochin alone has a higher proportion among females than Travancore. Of the different religions the Christians have the highest proportions of English literates, 41 per 1,000 males and 15 per 1,000 females of 5 years and over, the corresponding proportions among Hindus being 28 and 4. Among Muslims the male proportion is 11 and among females it is practically nil. Among Christians the Mar Thoma Syrians have the highest proportions, namely, 59 per 1,000 of both sexes, and 87 per 1,000 males.

Excluding the forest regions which are practically uninhabited, the average area and population served by each primary school in 1930 were 1.7 square miles and 1,704 respectively as against 3.7 square miles and 2,393 in 1911. The greatest progress in literacy is seen in the Northern Division and the least in the High Range. Male and female literates of the ages 15-20 have increased by 253 per cent. and 742 per cent. respectively during the last thirty years and the ratio of female to 100 male literates of the same ages has increased from 23 to 54 during the last two decades.

Under the conditions obtaining in Travancore all boys and girls of five to ten years of age may be treated as the population of school-going age that ought to be receiving primary education, and instruction in five classes (four classes in the Vernacular Primary School and Class 5 in the Vernacular Middle School or Preparatory Class in the English School) as the minimum required to acquire permanent literacy. In view of the higher proportion of children in this State than in British India 16 per cent. of the total population may be taken to be the correct proportion of the population of school-going age in Travancore as against 14 per cent. adopted elsewhere in India. On the above basis 26 per cent. of the boys and 50 per cent. of the girls of school-going age do not appear to have been attending school in 1930. It is also seen that only about 31 per cent. of the children of school-going age are likely to acquire literacy, the remaining 69 per cent. either not attending school at all or leaving school before they become effectively literate.

Chapter X  
Language.

On the whole 29 languages have been returned, of which Malayalam is spoken by 84 per cent. and Tamil by 15 per cent. of the entire population. The increase in the Malayalam-speaking population during the last decade is equal to the recorded increase in the aggregate population, namely, 27.2 per cent., that of the Tamil-speaking population is 26.2 per cent. and that of persons speaking the other languages 48.7 per cent., the difference between the rate of increase of the persons speaking Tamil and other languages and that of the aggregate population being due probably to migration. The hill-tribes in Travancore seem to have no separate language of their own, but the words they use are of Malayalam or Tamil origin, though their endings are different and the pronunciation uncouth. About 80 per cent. of the Malayalam-speaking population are found in the Central and Northern Divisions and about 74 per cent. of the Tamil-speaking population in the Southern Division. The speakers of the other 27 languages constitute only a little below one per cent. in each of the Southern, Central and Northern Divisions and over five per cent. in the High Range. 99.4 per cent. of the aggregate population speak languages of the Dravidian family, those speaking Malayalam and Tamil constituting 99 per cent. and the others, namely, speakers of Kanarese, Tulu and Telugu forming only 0.4 per cent. Nine of the vernacular languages included in the Indo-Aryan Branch of the Indo-European Family are represented in this State and are spoken by 26,683 persons, and nine European languages have been returned by 1,371 persons.

Though there are 185 Tamil speakers for every 1,000 Malayalam speakers, there are only 87 Tamil literates to 1,000 Malayalam literates, the disparity between the proportions of speakers and literates being due to Malayalis taking to education more largely than the Tamilians and to some of the latter learning Malayalam instead of Tamil at school.

Considering bi-lingualism in respect of Malayalam and Tamil, it is seen that where the preponderating mother-tongue is Malayalam, the proportion of Malayalis who could speak Tamil is very small and that the Tamilians who are in the minority acquire the habit of speaking Malayalam in much larger proportions. But where the preponderating mother-tongue is Tamil the reverse order holds good. That is to say, the proportion of Tamilians who speak Malayalam is much smaller than that of Malayalis able to speak Tamil. With regard to other languages, Tulu, Konkani, Marathi, and Western Hindi are combined more largely with Malayalam than with Tamil, Telugu with Tamil more than with Malayalam, and Kanarese more or less equally with either of them.

Chapter XI  
Religion.

Hinduism, Christianity and Islam are the three main religions in Travancore. Of the aggregate population 61.5 per cent. are Hindus, 31.5 per cent. are Christians and 6.9 per cent. are Muslims. Travancore and Cochin differ from other parts of India in having comparatively smaller proportions of Muslims and higher proportions of Christians, and of the two, Travancore contains a smaller proportion of Hindus and a correspondingly higher proportion of Christians than Cochin. More than a fourth of the total Christian population of India is found in this State.

In the case of Muslims who are mostly traders, the proportion in the urban population is about double that in the rural population, while the Christians, who are generally agriculturists, are found in larger proportion in rural than in urban areas.

In the course of a little more than a century the Hindus including Tribal Religions have increased more than four times, the Christians more than fourteen times and the Muslims more than eight times, the largest increase among Christians being due mainly to conversions and to some extent to the high fertility of the Syrian Christians, and the larger increase among Muslims than among Hindus being practically the result of the higher fertility of the former.

The religion of the Primitive Tribes who come in contact with the people of the plains naturally becomes modified by the influence of Hinduism, and this process of Hinduization of the Primitive Tribes, coupled with conversions to Christianity, accounts for the gradual falling-off of the numbers returned under Tribal Religions. In spite of the increase in the actual numbers of Hindus from census to census their proportion to the total population has been steadily falling due to the rapid growth of the other religions. Shenkotta and next to it Devikulam contain the highest proportions of Hindus, and excepting six taluks—all in the Northern Division—the population in the other taluks consists of more than 50 per cent. Hindus.

Christianity has made remarkable progress in Travancore. During the last 30 years Christians have increased by 130 per cent., and the Hindus by 54 per cent. only, and in the last decade the increase has been 36·8 per cent. in the case of Christians and 23·0 per cent. in the case of Hindus. The Syrian Christians who form 59 per cent. of the total Christian population of the State are found in larger numbers in the interior taluks of the Northern Division and in Thiruvella and Pathanamthitta taluks of the Central Division, while Hindus preponderate in the Southern and Central Divisions, in the coastal taluks of the Northern Division and in the High Range. Various missionary bodies are at work in Travancore and are carrying on active proselytization mostly among low-caste Hindus. According to the figures supplied by the missionaries, the converts to Christianity during the last decade total not less than 100,000. From the census returns it is seen that the Nādar, Pulaya, Paraya (Sāmbavar) and Kurava castes have contributed about 70,000 of these converts, and the remaining 30,000 must have come from the Primitive Tribes and other low castes.

Muslims have increased by 30·6 per cent. in the last decade, the rate of increase in natural population being higher than among Hindus or Christians, but in no taluk do they constitute more than 16 per cent. of the population, and in as many as eleven taluks they constitute less than five per cent.

After dealing at length with the origin and development of caste in Northern and Southern India in general, the chapter proceeds to consider the origin and history of the caste system in Kēraḷa in particular.

Chapter XII  
Caste, Tribe  
and Race.

Kēraḷa which once formed part of the ancient Tamiḷakam was originally inhabited by a branch of the Dravidian stock. Being cut off from the rest of the Dravidians by the Western Ghats, the inhabitants of Kēraḷa developed a culture of their own. There was no caste system among them, though there was a priestly class to minister to their religious needs. The early Aryan immigrants to Kēraḷa adopted many of the manners and customs of the local people, imposing on them some of their own in turn. The people were divided into groups on an occupational basis and each group subsequently developed into a distinct caste on the analogy of the Aryan system. Whatever might have been the condition in the early past, Kēraḷa including Travancore is considered to be the most caste-ridden part of India at present. It is probably due to her peculiar geographical position and the comparative freedom she enjoyed from foreign invasions unlike other parts of India, so that the factors which contributed to the levelling up of differences between sections of the people did not operate freely in Kēraḷa. But changes have now set in and are proceeding vigorously and rapidly, and caste barriers are breaking down under the influence of the social reform movement which is now a common feature of all the castes and communities in Travancore. There is hardly any caste or community in the State without an association of its own for self-advancement in social and political spheres, and the fusion of sub-castes is a common creed of all such associations. Almost all the numerous sub-divisions that existed

among the major communities like Nāyars and Ḷavas in 1901 have disappeared. Though long-established social customs die hard and union for political purposes may not immediately lead to union for social purposes also, the fusion of sub-castes may very probably be followed by the fusion of the allied castes as evidenced by the attempts of the Hindu castes of the fishermen communities to unite themselves, perhaps for political purposes, into the Araya caste, and by the move towards the amalgamation of the washermen castes under the common name 'Varnavar.' The time, however, has not yet arrived when the people will be prepared to abolish the caste system altogether and accept an alternative classification either on an occupational or any other basis. Further, it is not feasible to adopt a system of classifying population by occupation, for, if the criterion be traditional occupation there are castes whose traditional occupation cannot be specified and there are others who have discarded it; and if, on the other hand, the classification is to be based on the present occupation, it will, even if it be possible, only create an atmosphere of unreality.

The castes in the lower rungs of the social ladder have begun to manifest a general desire to assume new names, and the motives that actuate them in this, when analysed, seem to be one or other of the following:—(1) The desire to rise in the social ladder. (2) The desire to remove the stigma attached to the old name. (3) The desire to be differentiated from a lower caste which has adopted the name of the higher caste. (4) The desire to restore an ancient name lost in course of time by fortuitous circumstances. Over 4,000 Hindus have refused to return their caste, but the proportion is only 13 in 10,000. With the vast majority of the Hindu caste is still a live question.

Nearly 500 Hindu castes have been returned, of which only 77 have been shown separately, the others being clubbed together and shown under minor castes. Hindus have been broadly divided into three main castes, namely, Brahmans, other Hindus and Depressed Classes, these constituting respectively a little over 2 per cent., 41 per cent. and 57 per cent. of the total Hindu population. Unlike in the previous censuses when Brahmans were classified by their mother-tongue, they have been divided in the present census, as in other parts of India, into two primary classes, namely, Pancha Drāvida and Pancha Gauda. Maharashtra, Āndhra, Drāvida and Karnātika Brahmans are included in the former class and Gauda Sarāswath Brahmans in the latter, while Ārya-pattar, Nampūtīrī, Pōtti and Tuḷu Brahmans who are of doubtful affinity are shown next to Pancha Drāvida but not of it.

The Depressed Classes, according to the definition prescribed by the Census Commissioner for India and accepted by the Indian Franchise Committee, are the untouchables who are denied access to the Hindu temples and who are supposed to cause pollution by touch or within a certain distance. The numbers of the Depressed Classes in Travancore who come under the above category constitute 57 per cent. of the Hindus or 35 per cent. of the aggregate population of the State.

The Primitive Tribes are fast losing their primitive religion and customs. The opening of a large number of estates in forest regions has provided facilities for the tribes to come in contact with the men of the plains. Some of them are even deserting their habitations in the forests and are migrating to the plains to earn their livelihood and are thus brought under the influence of the Hindus and the Christian missionaries.

28 per cent. of the Hindu population of the State are makkathāyis, 30 per cent. are marumakkathāyis and 42 per cent. including Ḷavas, Krishnanvaka and Nānjanād Vellālas are followers of mixed or doubtful system of inheritance.

Excluding Europeans and Anglo-Indians who together number 1,377, the population of Indian Christians is 1,603,098 of whom 948,514 are Syrian Christians. About 77 per cent. of the Indian Christians other than Syrians have given their caste or tribe, which shows that the large majority of them desire to have this information recorded.

Though, strictly speaking, there is no caste among the Muslims, there are a number of tribal, occupational or territorial groups who observe certain restrictions on intermarriage. These restrictions are, however, dying out as a result of the propaganda carried on by the educated members of the community.

In Appendix I is given a description of the Primitive Tribes found in Travancore, their social and religious customs, and the effect of their contact with civilization. It first deals with the geographical distribution of the tribes and their peculiar physical characters, such as colour of the skin, stature, head, nose, etc. The manners and customs of the tribes are then described. The various clans found in different tribes and the system of cousin marriage prevalent amongst them are next dealt with. The types of buildings and the materials used in their construction, the weapons used by the tribes, the systems of agriculture followed by them, their village organizations, the various traditions of origin current amongst them, the methods of disposing of the dead, the megalithic monuments erected by their ancestors, their ideas as to the sun, the moon and the natural phenomena, like earthquake, eclipse, thunder, lightning, rainbow, etc., are also described. Lastly, the disintegrating influence of civilization on their primitive life and customs, the causes of their decline in numbers and the possible remedies for depopulation are set forth as briefly as possible.

Appendix I  
The Primitive Tribes.

The Depressed and the Backward Classes are specially treated in Appendix II. The distinguishing features of these two classes and their disabilities, social, educational and political, are dealt with. The early attempts made by the Government of Travancore and the measures adopted by them in recent times to ameliorate the condition of the depressed and the backward communities, the work of the non-official agencies, like the missionaries and the Humanitarian Society, in the same direction and the efforts made by the internal organizations of the communities, such as the S. N. D. P. Yogam, the Sādhu Jana Paripālana Sangham, etc., towards self-advancement are all described briefly.

Appendix II  
The Depressed and the Backward Classes.

In Appendix III are described the processes, the present condition and the economic aspect of some important industries of the State, which are declining chiefly on account of the advent of cheap machine-made articles from the West, and the ignorance, poverty and lack of organization of the local craftsmen. The industries dealt with are silk weaving, bell-metal casting, metal-mirror (Aranmula kaṇṇādi) making, steel industry, screw-pine mat weaving, wood seasoning, palm-leaf umbrella making, preparation of coconut-jaggery and palmyrah sugar-candy.

Appendix III  
The declining industries.

The present census of wealth, the first of its kind conducted in Travancore, and perhaps in India, is not as comprehensive as intensive economic surveys of typical villages. The persons who enumerated the population took also the census of wealth of the principal earners in the State. The census covered a wide range of questions regarding the capital wealth, size of holdings, income and indebtedness. The figures collected and tabulated give only the private wealth, income and indebtedness of the people of the State. All public and socio-private wealth has been excluded from the enquiry. The number of earners in the economic census falls short of that returned at the population census by 8 per cent. The margin of error in the capital wealth is about 8 per cent., while that in income and indebtedness may be about 25 per cent. A detailed analysis by caste, age or sex has not been attempted owing to the want of accurate data. The distribution of wealth among the major communities has, however, been discussed with the help of the figures collected from a random sample of the earners selected on a mathematical basis.

Appendix IV  
The economic condition of the people.

The total value of the possessions of the people of the State, if necessary allowance is made for omissions, is Rs. 193 crores, giving an average *per capita* wealth of Rs. 379. About 79 per cent. of this wealth consist of land, 10 per cent. of houses, 5 per cent. of movable properties and live-stock and 6 per cent. of investments. The distribution of wealth is not so unequal in Travancore as in foreign countries. As regards the ownership of wet and dry lands the highest proportion of earners who own them is found among Nāyars, though the average extent of land owned by them is small owing to the disintegration of tarwād properties. In all the separate items of capital wealth Brahmans occupy the highest and the depressed Hindus the lowest rank. The Syrian Christians and Nāyars form a similar group, and the Īlavas and other Hindus another similar group. The position of the Muslims varies in regard to different items of wealth. Of the administrative divisions, the Northern Division is the richest in point of wealth, and of the taluks Minachil is the richest and Nedumangad the poorest. The average size of agricultural holdings in the State is 2.62 acres. About 38 per cent. of the holdings are below one acre, 87 per cent. below five acres and 95.5 per cent. below 10 acres. Ten acres is the minimum size of an economic holding in this State and more than 95 per cent. of the holdings are, therefore, uneconomic. The proportion of agriculturists to earners is the highest among Nāyars. A very large majority of Brahman land-owners have leased out their lands. Though the

passing of the Nāyar and Iḷava Regulations has led to an excessive sub-division of holdings, it is probable that many, especially minor children of the same parents, still hold their shares together.

The total debt according to the census is Rs. 16 crores and, if allowance is made for omissions, it will stand at Rs. 20 crores. 69·5 per cent. of the debt is secured on land, 26·6 per cent. being mortgages with possession. The average *per capita* debt comes to Rs. 40. It is seen that there is a close correlation between debt and prosperity. The average debt is the highest among Brahmans and least among the depressed Hindus. From the figures furnished by the Registration Department regarding alienation of land, it is seen that Nāyars are losing and the Christians are gaining land steadily.

The total private income per annum according to the census is about Rs. 20·9 crores and, if allowance is made for an error of 25 per cent., the total income will amount to Rs. 26 crores and the *per capita* income will then be Rs. 51. This income is based on the prices current in the year 1931 when the economic depression practically reached the climax, causing a decline of not less than 40 per cent. generally in the prices of commodities. If normal conditions had prevailed, the *per capita* income would have been Rs. 85. The distribution of income among the earners is not as unequal as that of capital. Of the different communities, it is seen that Brahmans, Syrian Christians and Muslims have high incomes, while the depressed Hindus have the lowest, Nāyars, Iḷavas and other Hindus occupying an intermediate position. The proportion of earners following occupations other than agriculture is least among Nāyars. Of the divisions and taluks, places having more wealth generally have higher income with one or two exceptions caused by the presence of large towns.

The average daily wage of an agricultural labourer is 6 annas and the average working period per day varies from 5 to 8 hours. The wages of industrial and skilled labourers are higher than those of agricultural and unskilled labourers.

Appendix V  
The cattle  
census.

The results of the cattle census are set forth in Appendix V. Bovine cattle in the State have increased by 17·5 per cent. during the last twenty years, the whole increase being accounted for by young oxen. Cows have increased by 13·6 per cent., male buffaloes have decreased slightly, but the young stock have increased so that there is very little variation in the total number of buffaloes. Sheep and goats have increased by 22 per cent., ploughs by 9 per cent. and carts by 30 per cent. The number of cattle per 100 acres of net sown area is 48 and the total area on which they are supported is 197 acres as against 67 cattle and 213 acres in British India. More than 70 per cent. of the available grazing land, being reserved forest, is practically out of the reach of the ordinary cattle, and the number of cattle in the State is thus too heavy a stock for the grazing that is available.

The average area of rice land cultivated per yoke is 4·1 acres in Travancore as against 4·8 acres in Tanjore where rice is the principal crop as in this State.

74 per cent. of the cows and 75 per cent. of the she-buffaloes returned were dry at the time of the census, the proportion of dry to milking animals being about three to one. The normal proportion should be one dry to two milking cattle. About 73 per cent. of the cows and 88 per cent. of the she-buffaloes now existing in the State are of such poor milking quality that they do not deserve to be kept at all. The consumption of milk per head of population is hardly one-third of what it is in British India which in itself is much less than that in Western countries. It is only 1·3 gallons per head per annum, though the position is slightly better in towns like Trivandrum.

The number of cows per breeding bull is 132 in this State as against 84 in Madras. The proper ratio being one bull for every 55 cows, Travancore should have 6,500 bulls as against 2,717 which she has. Not only is the number of bulls insufficient but their quality also is very inferior.

On account of natural difficulties, such as a heavy rainfall and the comparative poverty and insufficiency of pasture lands, Travancore is unsuited to the breeding of good cattle, and the task of improving them is consequently not easy. It has nevertheless to be faced, for on cattle depends the prosperity of the agricultural population who forms more than half the inhabitants of the State.





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