



# CENSUS OF INDIA 1951

VOLUME X

RAJASTHAN AND AJMER

PART I A

REPORT

*By*

Pt. YAMUNA LAL DASHORA B. A., LL. B.,  
Superintendent of Census Operations,  
Rajasthan and Ajmer

---

JODHPUR:

PRINTED AT THE GOVERNMENT PRESS,

1953.

# CONTENTS

SECTION.	PARTICULARS	PAGES.
<b>CHAPTER I</b>		
<b>General Population</b>		
1	Preliminary Remarks .. .. .	1-4
-	The territory dealt with—(a) Its composition (1), (b) Situation and boundary (2), (c) Natural Divisions (3), (d) Administrative Divisions (4-5), Physiography (6), Territorial changes (7-11), Statistical Data (12).	
2	General Distribution and Density .. .. .	5-24
	Scope of this section (1), Area (2-4) (a) Distribution in Natural Divisions (5), (b) District-wise distribution (6), East Rajasthan Plain Division (7), Rajasthan Dry Area Division (8), Rajasthan Hills Division (9), Rajasthan Plateau Division (10), (c) Tehsilwise Distribution (11-12), Population (13-14)—(a) Its distribution in Natural Divisions (15), (b) Districtwise distribution (16), East Rajasthan Plain Division (17), Rajasthan Dry Area Division (18) Rajasthan Hills Division (19), Rajasthan Plateau Division (20), (c) Tehsilwise Distribution (21-22), (d) Factors governing the size of an Administrative Unit (23-24), Density of Population—Its significance (25), Its utility (26), Density in Rajasthan and Ajmer States (27-28), Regional Concentration (29-30), Density in Natural Divisions (31), Density in districts (32-37), Density in Tehsils (38-46), Density in Cities, Towns and Villages (47), Distribution of area under density groups (48), Distribution of population under density groups (49-51), In Natural Divisions (52-53), In districts (54), Density of villages per 100 square miles (55-57), Density on Cultivated Land (58-60), Factors governing density of Population (61-64), Conclusion (65-66), Are Rajasthan and Ajmer States over-populated? (67-73).	
3	Growth .. .. .	24-39
	Scope (1), Reference to tables (2), History of growth (3-4), Comparison with other countries (5), The Slackening in growth of population in Western countries (6), The fallacy of comparing Europe's growth with ours (7), Sporadic Nature of growth (8-11), The mean decennial growth rate of the adjoining States and territories (12-14), Growth rate in Natural Divisions (15-20), Growth rate in Districts—East Rajasthan Plain Division (21-28), Rajasthan Dry Area Division (29-32), Rajasthan Hills Division (33), Rajasthan Plateau Division (34), Ajmer State (35-36), Relation of growth with past density (37-39), Factors influencing the growth (40), Sociological Factors (41-43), Climate (44), Standard of living (45), Caste System (46), Sex Composition (47-48), Looking ahead (49-50), Migration as affecting growth (51), Fertility and mortality (52-54).	
4	Movement .. .. .	40-73
	Scope (1-3), Accuracy of returns (4), Reference to tables (5), Utility of the birth place figures (6), Non-comparability with past Census Figures (7), Immobility of our population (8-10), Different types of migration (11-14), The extent of Immigration in Rajasthan and Ajmer States (15-16), Fluctuation in the volume of immigration from decade to decade (17), Wherefrom these immigrants have been coming in the	



SECTION.	PARTICULARS	PAGES.
4.	<i>Movement (Concl'd.)</i>	
	past and the present and in what number (18-20), Significance of Data on Nationality (21), Non-Indian Nationals (22-27), Movement from adjacent and other states (28-29), Inter District and Inter-State migration in the States as a whole (30-32), States in India from which Rajasthan and Ajmer attract immigrants (33-45), Variation in the balance of extra-statal migration between 1931 and 1951 (46), Extra Statal immigration in Natural Divisions East Rajasthan Plain Division (47), Dry Area Division (48), Hills Division (49), Plateau Division (50), Extra Statal Immigration in Districts (51-76) Jaipur (51), Tonk (52), Sawai Madhopur (53), Bharatpur (54), Alwar (55), Jhunjhunu (56), Sikar (57), Bhilwara (58), Bikaner (59), Churu (60), Ganganagar (61), Jodhpur (62), Barmer (63), Jalore (64), Pali (65), Nagaur (66), Jaisalmer (67), Udaipur (68), Dungarpur (69), Banswara (70), Sirohi (71), Chittorgarh (72), Bundi (73), Kotah (74), Jhalawar (75), Intra Statal Migration in Natural Divisions and Districts, (77-78), Immigration into the backward parts of the State (79), Daily migration (80), Immigration of Anglo-Indians (81), Extent of Emigration from Rajasthan and Ajmer (82), Fluctuation in the volume of emigration from decade to decade (83), Movement and counter-movement (84-86), Where do People from Rajasthan and Ajmer move and why? (87-102), What do Rajasthanis do outside—(a) In Bombay (89—90), (b) In Madhya Bharat (91-92), (c) In Uttar Pradesh (93—94), (d) In Ajmer (95), (e) In Punjab (96), (f) In Bengal (97), What do people from Ajmer do outside? (a) In Rajasthan (98), (b) In Madhya Bharat (99), (c) In Bombay (100), (d) In Uttar Pradesh (101), What compels the people to leave their homes (103), Net migration (104), Natural population (105), Conclusion (106—110).	
5.	<i>Natural Increase—Births and Deaths</i> .. .. .	73—104
	Scope (1-2), The trend of Birth Rate (3), Vital Statistics (4—5), Birth rate (6—7), Contradictory nature of Birth and Growth rates (8), Causes of variation in the Birth Rates (9), Effect of famines and Pestilence on the Age—Structure and the birth rate (10), The Famines of 1897 to 1900 (11), The Great Influenza Epidemic (12—13), The Age Structure during the last five decades (14—15), Fall in birth rate of State explained with reference to History of famines and pestilence (16—18), Fall in Birth Rates explained with reference to the number of married persons (19), Future of the Birth Rate (20—21), Relation to the size of the Reproductive section (22—23), Relation to sex—Ratio (24—25), Female Ratio in reproductive age (26), Ratio of Reproductive Women to total women (27), Age Distribution of women within the Reproductive Period (28), Civil Condition (29—31), Frequency of births (32), Differential Fertility (33), Rural—Urban differentials (34), Class and Caste Differential (35), Occupation differential (36—38), Communal differential (39), Probable trend of birth rate during the decade 1951—60 (40—45), The mean age (46), Other Factors likely to affect the trend of future Birth Rates (47—53), Effect of Industrialization on the future Birth Rate (54—55), Evidence of the Declining Death Rate (56), The Death Rate Statistic's (57—61), Infant Mortality (62- 63) The proportion of widows (64), Causes of the Declining Death Rate (65), Elimination of War and Banditry (66), The control of Famines (67—74), The control of Epidemic Disease (75—76), Malaria (77—79), Tuberculosis (80—83), New Diseases (84), The Vital resources of the people (85-86), The future Death Rate (87), The Natural Increase and the Migration-cum-Registration Error (88-89), Significance of the Natural Increase (90-91), The registration Error (92), The growth of Population in the area under Registration (93—98), The Migration-cum-Registration Error for the Natural Divisions (99), Conclusion (100), Population Pressure and its bearing on Development (101-102).	
6.	<i>Livelihood Pattern</i> .. .. .	104—115
	Importance of definitions and terms used (2), Accuracy of Economic Data (3—4), The Livelihood classes (5), Distribution of Population according to livelihood classes (6)	

SECTION.	PARTICULARS	PAGES.
	<b>Livelihood Pattern (Concl.)</b>	
	Agricultural classes (7), Cultivator defined (8), Position of Jagirdars and Muafidars (9), The non-agricultural classes (10), Low percentage of people under transport (11), The Livelihood Pattern of the general population in the Natural Divisions (12-13), Industry (14), Commerce (15), Transport (16), Miscellaneous sources (17), Livelihood Pattern in Districts (18-19), Livelihood pattern in Tehsils (20), Comparison of Economic data collected at different Censuses (21-24), Fluctuations in the Agricultural Livelihood classes (25-27), Fluctuations in Non-agricultural classes (28), Livelihood pattern of Rajasthan compared with other states of India (29), History of Agricultural Labourers (30).	
	<b>Concluding Remarks</b> .. .. .	116—124
	A Retrospect (1-3), The future of population in these States (4-10), Two angles of vision (11-17), Economically desirable population (18-19), The consequences of the present trend of population (20), Disadvantages of growing numbers (21), Counter-balancing advantages (22—24), Emigration and the Population Problem (25-33), Conclusion (34).	
<b>CHAPTER II</b>		
<b>Rural Population</b>		
	<b>Preliminary Remarks</b> .. .. .	125—129
	Utility of Rural and Urban Statistics (2-3), Definitions (4), Standard Definition of a village (5), Definition of Rural and Urban Areas (6), Definition of Town (7), Reference to Statistics (8-12), A Glimpse into rural areas (13).	
	<b>General Distribution and Distribution amongst Villages classified by size of Rural Population.</b> .. .. .	129—135
	Distribution of rural units (1-6), Distribution of rural area (7-8), Distribution of rural population (9), Number of Villages and average population (10-11), Distribution of Population by size of village (12-16), Comparison of rural population ratio in other States (17), The pace of Urbanisation (18-19), Distribution of rural population in the Natural Divisions (20-23).	
	<b>Growth of Rural Population.</b> .. .. .	135—137
	The growth rates of the rural population in the Natural Divisions (4-8), Ajmer (9-10).	
	<b>Movement.</b> .. .. .	138—142
	Immigration (1-3), Immigration into the Natural Divisions (4-8), Emigration from the rural areas (9-11), Emigration from the rural areas of Ajmer (12-13), Emigration into other States (14).	
	<b>Natural Increase—Births and Deaths.</b> .. .. .	142—143
	Scope (1), The Birth Rates (2-3), Mean Decennial Birth Rate in Rajasthan and its Natural Divisions (4), Conclusion about birth rates (5), The death rates (6), The Natural increase of population in the rural areas of Ajmer (7)	
	<b>Livelihood Pattern</b> .. .. .	143—146
	Agricultural classes (2-3), Non-agricultural classes (4-5), In Natural Divisions (6), Agricultural Classes (7-8) The non-agricultural classes (9), High percentage of people	

SECTION	PARTICULARS	PAGES.
6	<b>Livelihood Pattern (Concl.)</b> belonging to Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) in rural areas explained. (10-13), Examination of individual districts with high percentage of people in Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) (14), Commercial activities in the rural areas of the Natural Divisions (15), Transport activities (16-17), Other services and miscellaneous sources (18).	
7	<b>Concluding Remarks</b> .. .. . Distribution of rural population (1-2), Growth of rural population (3-4), Future growth of the rural population (5), The Economic out-look (6-10), Conclusion (11).	147—149

### CHAPTER III

#### Urban Population.

1	<b>Preliminary Remarks</b> .. .. . The significance of cities (1-4), Urban characteristics (5), Reference to Statistics (6-15)	151—154
2	<b>General Distribution and Distribution among Towns Classified by size of Urban Population</b> .. .. . Distribution of Urban Units (1-5), Urban Area (6-9), Urban Population (10-17), Density within Cities and Towns (18-21), Density in Wards (22-24), Housing (25-27), Distribution of Urban Population among towns classified by size of Urban population (28), Distribution of Urban population in the Natural Divisions and Districts (29), East Rajasthan Plain Division (30-31), Rajasthan Dry Area Division (32-33), Rajasthan Hills Division (34-35), Rajasthan Plateau Division (36-37).	154—166
3	<b>Growth</b> .. .. . The mean decennial growth rates (2-3), Growth of towns of different classes (4-7), The growth of individual towns and cities (8), The East Rajasthan Plain Division (9-13), Rajasthan Dry Area Division (14), The Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions (15-18), Growth of Urbanization in Districts (19), Growth of cities (20-22), The working population of Jaipur City (23-24) Causes of City Growth (25-26).	166—173
4	<b>Movement</b> .. .. . Rural Urban Migration (1), Extent of Migration (2): The extent of rural-urban migration in cities (3-4), Analysis of the immigrants into the urban parts of the State and the natural Divisions (5), Large number of migrants in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (6-7), Migration from Rural to Urban areas and the nature of Urban immigration (8-10), Emigration from Urban Areas (11—12), The motive of Rural Urban Migration (13-17), The Effects of Rural Urban Migration (18-21), Conclusion (22).	174—180
5	<b>Natural Increase—Births and Deaths</b> .. .. . Ajmer State—The Birth rates (2), High birth rates in Urban Areas (3), Causes of High Birth rates in the Urban Areas (4-6), Variation in birth rates (7), Rajasthan State—Analysis of factors affecting Birth rate and the conclusion (8-10), Family Planning (11), The Death rate (12), The Natural Increase of Population in the Urban Areas (13), Significance of the Natural Increase (14-15).	180—184

SECTION	PARTICULARS	PAGES
6	Livelihood Pattern .. .. .	185—195
	Agricultural Classes (2), The owner cultivators in Urban Areas (3-4), The Cultivators of unowned land in Urban Areas (5-6), The non-cultivating owners of land (7-8), The non-agricultural classes (9), People engaged in Production other than cultivation (10), The Commercial Classes (11), Transport (12), Other services and miscellaneous sources (13-14), Urbanization and development of Industries and services (15), Urban preference of certain occupations (16-20), Comparison with other States (21). Urbanisation correlated with commercial and Industrial Development (22-26), The Rural-Urban Occupational Structure with special reference to Cities (27-28), Percentage engaged in Agriculture (in Cities) (29), Percentage engaged in Industry (in Cities) (30-31).	
7	Concluding Remarks .. .. .	195—199
	Distribution of Population (1-2), The urgent need of controlled development (3-4), The birth rate (5), Effect of birth Control propagandas in Urban Areas (6), The death rates (7), Migration from villages (8), Communications between Urban and Rural Areas (9), The Economic outlook (10-12), Urban Age Structure (13-14), The Future of the City (15-16).	

## CHAPTER IV

### Agricultural Classes

1	Preliminary Remarks .. .. .	201—204
	The Classification of Agricultural Classes (3), Comparison with 1931 Classification (4-7), Reference to Statistics (8-19), Reliability of the Statistics reviewed (20).	
2	Agricultural Population Ratios; Self-supporting persons and dependants; Secondary means of Livelihood of agricultural Classes .. .. .	204—214
	Proportion of Agricultural Classes (1-2), Dependency amongst Agricultural Classes (3-4), Dependency in Natural Divisions and Districts (5-11), Secondary means of Livelihood of Agricultural Classes (12—17), Secondary means of Livelihood of the working agricultural population (18-20).	
3	Relative Proportion of different Agricultural Classes correlated to distribution of land in agricultural holdings of different sizes. .. .. .	214—218
	Relative proportion of different Agricultural classes (1-3), The Cultivators of unowned land (4-5), Size of holdings (6-7), The Greatest of our agricultural problems (8-16).	
4	Cultivators of Land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants .. .. .	218—220
	The workers and dependants (2), Definition of Earning Dependants (3-5), Secondary means of Livelihood (6-7). Almost complete dependants on agriculture (8) Sources of Secondary Income (9-10).	
5	Cultivators of Land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants .. .. .	220—221
	Workers and Dependants (2-3), Secondary Source of Income (4-6),	
6	Cultivating Labourers and their dependants .. .. .	222—224
	Working condition of agricultural labourers (6), Secondary means of Livelihood (7-11)	

SECTION	PARTICULARS	PAGES
7.	Non-Cultivating owners of cultivable land, Agricultural rent receivers and dependants .. .. . Workers and dependants (2-4). Secondary means of Livelihood (5), The status of the non-cultivating owners of land (6-14).	224—227
8.	Active and Semi-Active workers in Cultivation. .. .. . Total number of effective active workers in agriculture (4-6), Efforts of effective workers in Agriculture in different parts compared with Export and Import of foodgrains from these parts (7).	228—230
9.	Progress of cultivation correlated to the growth of general population. .. .. . Net area sown (2), Net area irrigated (3-4), Rainfall (5-6), The double cropped area (7-9); Rate of increase of cultivation out-stripped by the rate of growth of population (10-13), Pressure of population since 1921 (14), Yield Rate (15-16), Effect of the fall in the grain production capacity per Capita (17-21), Requirements of cereals for Rajasthan calculated on the basis of the 1951 population (22-26).	230—242
10.	Concluding Remarks .. .. . Abnormal dependence on agriculture (1-4), The surplus agricultural Population (5-7), Occupational distribution in 1891 (8-9), Distribution amongst Livelihood Classes and the uneconomic holdings (10). Dependency (11). Progress of Cultivation (12-17), The gravity of the situation (18), History of Cultivation per capita (19), The future out-look (20-21), Intensive cultivation (22-24), Protective foods (25), The need of controlling population growth (26-28).	242—250

## CHAPTER V.

### Non-Agricultural Classes

1.	Preliminary Remarks .. .. . Significance of Data on economic characteristics (1), Reference to Statistics (2-7), Reliability of the Data (8-11), Comparability of the Statistics with previous censuses (12).	251—253
2.	Non-agricultural Population Ratios, Self-supporting persons and dependants, Secondary Means of Livelihood of Non-agricultural classes. .. .. . Ratios in the Natural Divisions (3), Dependency (4), Dependency in the Natural Divisions (5), Dependency in urban and Rural Areas (6-7), Distribution in Livelihood Classes (8-9), Distribution by Livelihood Classes in Natural Division (10-12), Distribution of Non-agricultural classes into Livelihood Classes V to VIII in rural areas (13-14), Distribution of Livelihood Class V in Rural Areas (15), Distribution of Livelihood Class VIII in Rural Areas (16-17), Distribution of Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) and VII (Transport) in Rural Areas (18-20), Distribution of Non-agricultural Classes in Livelihood Class V to VIII in Urban Areas (21), Distribution of Livelihood Class V in Urban Areas (22), Distribution in the Urban Areas of Livelihood Class VI (23-26), Distribution of Livelihood Classes VII and VIII in Urban Areas (27), Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation), Economic Analysis (28-32), Livelihood Class VI Economic Analysis (33-40), Livelihood Class VII Economic Analysis (41-51), Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) Economic Analysis (52-59).	253—276

SECTION	PARTICULARS	PAGES
3.	Employers, Employees and Independent Workers and Employment (in Factories and Small Scale Industries).  Definitions (2-3), Proportion of Employers, Employees and Independent Workers amongst the non-agricultural Classes in general (4-5), Examination of the ratio of Independent Workers and employees (6), The unproductive Self-supporting persons (7-8) Employers, Employees and Independent Workers in rural and Urban areas (9-10), Employers, Employees and Independent Workers in Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) (11-12), Employers, Employees and Independent Workers in Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) (13-14), Employers, Employees and Independent Workers in Livelihood Class VII (Transport) (15-16), Employers, Employees, Independent Workers and others in Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) (17-18).	276—282
4.	Primary Industries other than Cultivation not elsewhere specified .. .. .  Stock-raising (3-5). Causes of poor-milk yield (6-7), Rearing of small animals and insects (8), Plantation industry (9), Forestry and Collection of Forest Products (10-15), The Lac Industry (16-17).	283—289
5.	Mining and Quarrying .. .. .  Non-metallic mining and Quarrying not otherwise Classified (11-12), Coal mining (13), Iron-ore mining (14), Metal mining except iron ore mining (15), Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas (16), Stone quarrying Clays and Sand pits (17), Mica (18), Salt, Saltpetre and Saline substances (19).	289—294
6.	Processing and Manufacture—Foodstuffs, Textiles, Leather and Products thereof .. .. .  Foodstuffs (3-5), Vegetable oils (6), Sugar Industries and Beverages (7-8), Tobacco (9), Cotton textiles (10—12), Wearing Apparels (13-14), Textile Industries otherwise unclassified (15-16), Leather Products and Footwear (17-20).	294—300
7.	Processing and Manufacture—Metals Chemicals and Products thereof .. .. .  Carpentry and Smithy (3-5), Manufacture of Metal Products otherwise unclassified (6-10), Iron and Steel (Basic Manufacture) (11), Non-Ferrous metals (Basic Manufacture) (12), Transport equipment (13-15), Electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and Supplies (16-17), Machinery (other than electrical) including Engineering Workshops (18-20), Basic Industrial Chemical and Fertiliser and Power Alcohol (21-23), Medical and Pharmaceutical Preparations (24), Manufacture of Chemical Products otherwise unclassified (25-26).	300—308
8.	Processing and Manufacture not elsewhere specified .. .. .  Unclassified manufacturing Industries (3-5), Products of Petroleum and Coal (6), Clay Products (7-8), Cement Products (9-11), Non-metallic mineral Products (12-16), Rubber Products (17), Wood and Wood Products (18-20), Furniture etc. (21-22), Paper and Paper Products Handmade Paper (23-24), Papier Mache (25), Printing (26-27)	308—316
9.	Construction and Utilities .. .. .  Unclassified construction and maintenance of works (2), Constructions and maintenance of Buildings (3-5), Construction of Roads etc. (6-7), Telegraph and Telephone (8), Irrigation and Agricultural Works (9), Electric Power and Gas etc. (10-11) Water supply etc. (12-13), Sanitary Works (14—15).	316—321

SECTION	PARTICULAR	PAGES
10	Commerce .. .. .	321—328
	Hawkers, Vendors etc. (2-4), Retail Trade in Foodstuffs (5-8), Retail trade in Fuel (9-10), Retail trade in textile and leather goods (11-13), Wholesale trade in Food-stuffs (14-17), Other Wholesale traders (18-19), Real Estate (20), Insurance (21), Moneylending, Banking etc. (22-24).	
11	Transport, Storage and Communications .. .. .	328—333
	Unclassified Transport Services (6), Transport by road (7-8), Transport by Water (9), Transport by Air (10), Railway Transport (11-13), Storage and Warehousing (14), Postal Services (15), Telegraphs, Telephones and Wireless Services (16).	
12	Health, Education and Public Administration Services .. .. .	333—338
	Medical and Health Services (4-6), Education Services (7-8), Employees of the Union Government (9), Police other than village Watchman (10-12), Village officers and servants (13-14), Municipalities and Local Boards (15-17), State Government (18-20).	
13	Services not elsewhere specified and miscellaneous Means of Livelihood .. .. .	338—345
	Services otherwise unclassified (2-3), Domestic Services (4-5), Barbers and Beauty shops (6-8), Laundry Services (9-10), Hotels etc. (11-12), Recreation Services (13-15), Legal and Business Services (16-17), Arts, Letters and Journalism (18-20) Religious, Charitable and Welfare Services (21-23)	
14	Concluding Remarks .. .. .	345—350
	The Proportion of non-agricultural population (1), Dependency amongst non-agricultural classes (2), Employers, Employees and Independent Workers (3), Proportion in different Industries (4), Other Services and Miscellaneous Sources (5), Commerce (6), Transport (7), Undeveloped nature of the State (8), Causes of Industrial under-development (9), The unbalanced Economy and need of Industrial development (10), Population and Economic Activity (11-24), Conclusion (25).	

## CHAPTER VI

### Families, Sexes and Principal Age Groups.

1	Preliminary Remarks .. .. .	351—354
	Definitions of the House and the Family (2-3), Definition adopted at the 1951 Census (4), Age (5), Accuracy of the returns (6-9), Reference to Statistics (10-11), Comparability with previous Censuses (12).	
2	Territorial Distribution of Houses and Households .. .. .	354—359
	Increase in overall congestion in the State and Natural Divisions (1), Houses per 100 square miles (2-5), Persons per 1000 houses (6-8), Congestion in Rural Houses (9-12), Congestion in Houses in Urban areas (13-17), Congestion in the cities (18-20), Housing accommodation in other towns (21).	
3	Size and composition of Family Households .. .. .	360—366
	Predominance of small and medium size families in Urban areas (1), Size of family in the rural areas of Natural Divisions (2), Size of family in urban areas of Natural Divisions (3), Size of family in Cities (4), Conclusion (5), Composition of House-	

SECTIONS	PARTICULARS.	PAGES.
3.	Size and Composition of Family Household—( <i>Concl'd.</i> ) hold population (6), Composition of Household Population in the Natural Divisions (7), Composition of Households (8-9), Joint Family System (10-11), Economic position of the family (12).	
4.	Sex Ratio .. .. . Significance of Sex Statistics (1), Paucity of females (2-3), A rise in the female ratio from decade to decade (4-8), Sex Ratio in Rural-Urban areas (9-11), Sex Ratio in the Urban Areas (12), Masculinity in Urban Areas (13-18), Sex Ratio in Agricultural and non-agricultural Classes (19-24), Sex ratio among economically active population (25-27), Sex ratio among economically semi-active population (28-29), Sex Ratio of economically in-active persons (30-31), Sex ratio in self-supporting persons of Agricultural Classes (32-33), Sex ratio of earning dependants in agricultural Classes (34-35), Sex ratio of non-earning dependants in Agricultural Classes (36-37), Sex ratio of self-supporting persons in Non-Agricultural classes (38-45), Sex ratio of earning dependants in Non-Agricultural Classes (46-51), Sex ratio of Non-earning dependants in Non-Agricultural Classes (52-57), Sex ratio by religions (58-62).	367—389
5.	Marital Status Ratio .. .. . Significance of marital Status statistics (1), Scope of the Section (2), Meaning of the figures (3-4), Statistical data on marital Status (5-8), Variation in marital ratio from decade to decade (9), Unmarried persons (10-12), Married persons (13-17), Widowed and divorced persons (18-21), Age Distribution (22), Married persons (23-27), The early age of marriages (28), Effects of marriage legislation and the Influenza Epidemic (29-30), Main features of the Statistics regarding marital Status (31-40).	389—403
6.	Infants (Aged '0') .. .. . Increase in infants (2), Comparison with other States (3), In Natural Divisions (4), In Rural and Urban Population (5-8).	403—406
7.	Young Children (Aged 1-4) .. .. .	406—408
8.	Boys and Girls (Aged 5-14) .. .. . Distribution of boys and girls (1-5), Sex Ratio (6).	409—411
9.	Young Men and Women (Aged 15-24) .. .. . Distribution of Young Men and Women (1-5).	411—413
10.	Middle aged Persons (Aged 35-54) .. .. . Distribution of middle-aged persons (1-7), Excess of males over females in the middle-aged group (8).	413—415
11.	Elderly Persons (Aged 55 and over) .. .. . Distribution of elderly persons (1-6), The male female ratio amongst the elderly persons (7).	415—418
12.	Concluding Remarks .. .. . Housing accommodation (1-2), Size of the family (3-4), Sex Ratio (5), Economic activities and sexes (6), Early marriage (7), Age Structure (8-11), Strength of Voters (12), The Probable future population trends (13-14), Conclusion (15).	418—422

N. B.—The figures shown in brackets indicate paragraph numbers.



## INTRODUCTION

1. This Report pertains to the eighth census held in the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer, simultaneously with the rest of India, in February and March 1951 with reference to the central point of time the sunrise of March 1, 1951.

2. Census has been known to us for the last several decades and was also not unknown to our ancestors for the last several centuries. We find accounts of that institution in books as old as the times of the Mughal Emperors and even the reign of Vikramaditya and Ashok. But its exact concept has not been uniform throughout the above period.

3. For the Census of 1951, it can correctly be said that it is not only the counting of heads, as some are inclined to think, nor is it a muster roll of all the inhabitants present in a particular locality at a particular point of time, as others believe it to be. It is, so to say, an attempt to take an exact photo of every aspect of the Nation's life so far as it can be done by the enumerators, by extracting replies from a vast majority of illiterate, and uninterested citizens and villagers, to the questionnaire drafted scientifically and prescribed by the Central Government. Within the focus of the cameras of these photographers came all those persons who were normal residents of the area concerned, irrespective of their presence or absence at the actual time of taking the photo. By normal residents we mean people who had actually lived in the locality concerned any time during the Census period (February 9, 1951 to sunrise of March 1, 1951). A snap-shot of houseless persons and tourists etc. who remained moving about throughout the above period was taken on March 1, at the places where they had slept on the previous night.

4. There are two ways of referring to the population of an area, one depending upon the actual location of the persons and the other upon their normal residence. The former is known as the present-in-area or "de facto" population, according to which people are counted at the place at which they are found on the date of the census, regardless of their usual residence. The latter is called the resident or "de jure" population in which people are assigned to their usual residence on the date of the census.

5. Upto the year 1931, the census of the population was taken on a purely *de facto* basis, which aimed at obtaining a photographic impression of the population as it stood, distributed all over the State on the census night. Although for purposes of international comparability, the *de facto* system of enumeration is recommended, it had to be modified to a certain extent to make the enumeration present a more 'normal' picture of the population *i.e.*, to show it according to "place of usual residence". The 1941 procedure contemplated that every person was to be enumerated at his usual residence subject to a criterion for the enumeration of casual visitors and absentees. The criterion adopted for the enumeration of a person at a place other than his usual residence was the period of absence exceeding one month on the 1st of March from that residence. The simultaneous counting was confined to only the floating population consisting of beggars, vagrants, foreign tourists, etc. The actual count in 1941 was with reference to the central date, 1st March, but the work commenced from 22nd February in most of the places and even earlier in some places, according to the volume of the work with the enumerator and the condition of the area dealt with by him.

6. In 1951, the modified '*de facto*' system was based on a prescribed enumeration period of twenty days before the reference point of time, namely, the sunrise of 1st March 1951, followed by three days of final check-up of births and deaths and visitors, who might not have been enumerated at their normal places of residence, if they stayed there at any time during the enumeration period. They were to be enumerated elsewhere only if they were away from their normal places of residence throughout the period and also if they were houseless persons.

7. Captain A.W.T. Webb, my predecessor, had rightly prophesied in his Administration Report of 1941 that "Ere he (his successor) enters upon that office, there will have been, it is certain, many political changes in India. The Census, however, will probably not be seriously affected by them". His words came out to be literally true. The most prominent of these changes were, (1) the Independence of India, (2) the transfer of administrative powers of the States from the rulers to the people, (3) the formation of the Indian Union, (4) the partition of the country and the consequent exchange of population, (5) the merger of former States of Rajputana to form a consolidated Rajasthan State, (6) the re-organisation of administrative units, that is to say, the demarcation of divisions, districts, sub-divisions and tehsils, whereby the territories of the former States were redistributed on the basis of geographical and other considerations, irrespective of the boundaries of former States and (7) the abolition of revenue and administrative powers of the Thikanas (Jagirs). These changes created special administrative problems for me and increased the complicacy and volume of my work. For the success of the operations, I had to rely upon the District Collectors, who had their own various burdensome and intricate problems to deal with, *e.g.* the famine, the procurement of grain, the locusts, the displaced persons, the election, the integration of services, and the general re-organisation of their districts on modern lines, which left to them very little time for census affairs. But I must confess, that inspite of all these handicaps, the District Officers played their part very enthusiastically in making the operation a success.

8. The question how far the enumeration is accurate is always at the tip of the tongue of every layman as well as people interested in demographical studies. The answer, so far as the correctness of the entries made in the census schedules is concerned, will be given in the course of the chapters which follow. Here it is only necessary to estimate how far it is complete. A synchronous census—that is to say, a simultaneous counting of all the people could only be absolutely complete if a universal parade were ordered and enforced for the purpose—the method probably followed by David and other early Census Superintendents. It cannot obviate omissions and double enumeration when every one is left free to go his own way and to follow his pursuits, and has to be run to ground by the enumerator wherever he may be and whatever he may be doing. Such chances were reduced to a minimum by adopting the system of counting everybody at his normal place of residence irrespective of his presence at the time when the enumerator visits his residence. I believe that the present enumeration has been as complete as it is humanly possible to make it, because with the mass of previous experience which is now at his disposal and with an enumerating staff of which a large part is already familiar with the process of census taking, a Census Superintendent finds the method of overcoming old difficulties already tested and approved, and has plenty of time to deal with new difficulties as they arise. Moreover the system of checking and supervision has been perfected in previous censuses, and makes it hard for any one to escape the census net. The citizens are also beginning to realise the utility of census and are keener now than before to see that their names find place in the National Register. Human weakness, no doubt, has always existed and does exist everywhere. This consideration makes our results absolutely reliable for all practical purposes and for all comparative purposes. It will be hiding the truth if I do not mention here that from the time when the enumerator fills in the slips or National Register of Citizens, upto the presentation of figures in the form of published reports, various operations have to be undergone with the figures. These operations are performed by workers, whose number comes to thousands in a State, all of whom do not possess the same degree of intelligence, ability and sense of integrity. Mistakes on this account are but natural; but their dimension is so inconsiderable that it does not vitiate the utility of the figures for purposes for which they are meant.

9. It would be very satisfying, if some means could be contrived to procure absolutely correct figures, but since this is impossible, the utmost that can be done is to subject the returns to analysis and to investigate the probabilities of the case. In any such examination the greatest

assistance is forthcoming from the figures of previous census returns and from the fact that in Census Operations, given the application of similar methods, the percentage of error is likely to be a constant factor. It is the presence of this latter feature that permits of the safe employment of census figures as a measuring rod, whereby the growth of a people can be ascertained and the progress made in varying directions calculated. A census aims, as observed above, not only (1) at the counting of people and (2) at its classification into its component parts, but also (3) at the collection of statistics relating to the social conduct and the principal activities of the people. Speaking generally the highest percentage of accuracy is obtained in regard to point (1), above, and Rajasthan is no exception. In fact so far as the Census of 1951, in Rajasthan and Ajmer, is concerned it can be stated without hesitation that the numbers recorded represent an approach to absolute accuracy not inferior to the degree of exactitude previously attained.

10. To make assurance doubly sure, an attempt was made for the first time in the present census under instructions from the Registrar General, India, to test the accuracy of census returns by a thoroughly honest and independent agency, namely the Magistrates, on sample basis. The verification reports received from them disclose that the net result in Rajasthan is an under-enumeration of 78,364 persons in the whole of Rajasthan and 7,123 persons in Ajmer State a very negligible proportion indeed.

11. Another attempt to scrutinize the transcribing errors was made by comparing the National Register of Citizens with the Primary Census Abstracts which were prepared by sorting the slips, to find out the extent of discrepancies between the slips and the National Register of Citizens. The report of the scrutiny has disclosed that in Rajasthan as a whole the difference is +0.035 per cent. and in Ajmer State —0.1 per cent. *i.e.* to say in Rajasthan three out of ten thousand persons escaped entry in the National Register, although their slips were prepared, while in Ajmer, one person out of a thousand escaped entries in the slips although they were entered in the National Register of Citizens. Fresh slips were, therefore, prepared in the Tabulation Office from the National Register of Citizens. They have been included in all tables prepared by sorting the slips. This is also not intolerable.

12. The only obstacle in the way of comparing the 1951 Census figures, with those of of the past censuses published in previous reports, is the change in the formation of units during the inter census period. The past Census Reports supply figures for the individual States of Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara separately as they were composed then, and also details for each of the then existing States. In the present census, the formation of present Rajasthan is different from old Rajputana and the unit of abstraction is the district instead of the State. Therefore, a comparison is possible only in cases of such of the present districts which consist of a complete State or States of the past census *e.g.* Dungarpur, Banswara and Jaisalmer, or such of the Natural Divisions as are composed of one or more complete former States. Districts which include parts of several former States do not permit such comparability. But figures pertaining to past censuses wherever published in any of the tables have been adjusted according to the Unit as composed on 1-3-1951. The figures of Ajmer State are no doubt comparable.

13. The following publications have been compiled for Rajasthan and Ajmer:—  
The Reports.

1. Report Part I-A Narrative (combined for Rajasthan and Ajmer).
2. Report Part I-B Subsidiary Tables and Index of Non-agricultural Occupations.
3. Report Part I-C Appendices.
4. Report Part II-A General Population Tables, Household and Age sample Tables, Social and Cultural Tables, Summary Table and Infirmity Table.

5. Report Part II-B Economic Tables.  
 6. District Census Hand- One for each district in Rajasthan and one for Ajmer State, books. containing District Tables, Primary Census Abstracts, and District Index of Non-agricultural Occupation, etc.

14. These States are a portion of India where the rains usually come late, and the rainfall varies from moderately good to scanty and deficient. There are, therefore, considerable contrasts as regards demography within the area now under consideration. Population density will be found usually to depend largely on the amount of timely rain that falls during the south-west monsoon. Unfortunately rainfall and other climatic statistics for the State are very inadequate and it is impossible, in consequence, to correlate in any satisfactory way the census statistics with climatic records. Vital statistics similar to those prevailing in the adjoining parts of India have not been maintained in this State; there is, therefore, no means of knowing the natural increase in population over the last decade or any previous decade. Until such statistics are maintained it will be impossible to compare the census population with the natural population or to use the census statistics relating to age, sex and civil condition for the purpose for which they are intended. The study of the supreme problem of population and sustenance depends upon the statistics relating to land per capita, trend of cultivation per capita, the area under food crops and the yield during the past decades, as also figures of cultivable land, fallow land, land under forests and size and number of holdings. And it is here that we find this State the most lacking in statistics because ere now this portion consisted of a large number of States of every size composed partly of Khalsa and partly of Jagir areas where there was no system of keeping any kind of record. Similarly figures of exports, imports, wages and prices all of which have a close relation with the demographic conditions and which are essential for a proper study of the population problem are conspicuous by their absence.

15. In the absence of such data the Census Reports relating to this State cannot be so informative as those relating to other parts of India where adequate statistics are maintained. After the formation of the present Rajasthan, the Government has realized the necessity of such data and it is expected that active steps will be taken for their regular collection and compilation and it is to be hoped that before another Census occurs some improvement in this important branch of public information will have been made so that adequate comparison may be possible between the State and other parts of India.

16. The object which I have kept continually before me in writing the report has been to confine attention to the statistics and to limit comment to what is necessary to explain the facts revealed by them and what may be reasonably held to be conclusions deducible from them. I have throughout resisted all temptations to use the Census Report for the purpose of general discussion on demographic, ethnological and sociological questions, except where it was absolutely necessary for a proper understanding of the census figures or for furnishing their background. I have striven throughout to emphasize the correct way in which the census statistics should be used and the many pitfalls which exist if the census statistics are employed uncritically and unscientifically. All readers of this report are, therefore, requested that the best way to study the results of the 1951 Census is first to read the report and then to study the figures in the State Tables and Subsidiary Tables. These tables have all been compiled with great trouble and difficulty to serve very specific purposes. These purposes cannot be fulfilled unless the report is studied with the statistics in the volumes of tables, and unless difficulties in the tables are checked against the commentary in the report. Special attention has been given to an elucidation of the occupational and economic statistics, which are the most voluminous of all the census figures and which are all the more important for a proper understanding of the economy of our country; and an attempt has been made in the report to bring out in a practical way the salient features which the figures reveal. The volumes

of Census Report have been provided with tables of contents to enable readers to trace without difficulty the numerous subjects treated in the discussion or in the statistical tables. A table of contents is of course not so satisfactory as a subject index. But it will be readily understood that a Census Office has continually to work at high pressure and is always fighting against time. The preparation of adequate indices to volumes of the size and complexity of the Census Report would be a task beyond the capacity of the small census staff. This is the only reason why indices have not been provided.

17. It is also well to state, in view of misapprehensions which have arisen on similar occasions in the past, and may arise again, that the statements made and conclusions drawn in this report are wholly the responsibility of the author alone in his personal capacity and do not necessarily represent the views of Government. It should also be emphasized at the beginning that the writer is a layman and not an expert statistician, and that he only claims for his conclusions the value which this remark implies. The reader (if any) may well ask "Since you are no expert, why attempt to draw any conclusions at all?" My excuse can only be—if I do not content myself with setting up precedent as a defence—that the qualified statisticians who pounce upon all census matter will find it easier to attack a propounded thesis than to deal merely with the uninterpreted figures.

18. But in spite of the above defects, I have some confidence that the remarks of Shri S.V. Mukerjee my colleague in Baroda in the 1941 Census will not apply to this Report, because the subject is now attracting the attention of the scholars as well as the administrators and the politicians, everywhere. He has observed that "My experience has been that a Census Report, although intended for the general benefit of students and officers, is rarely read. Officers and publicists like to get a complimentary copy for it is the thing to do so, look at its opening pages and then relegate it to their shelves, resorting to it most occasionally as an inducement to sleep, when all the "drowsy syrups" of the doctors have failed. What destiny is reserved for these humble pages, their author will be the last person to know".

19. Before closing the introduction I find it incumbent on me to express my keen sense of gratitude first of all, as it is fit, to the people of Rajasthan themselves whose good sense, good citizenship and general co-operation made the taking of the census possible; but most of all perhaps to that great body of some thirty thousand unpaid enumerators by whom the census was actually taken and without whom it could not have been taken, many of whom were out of pocket by the taking, and many of whom carried out their work under circumstances of opposition, interference and general unpopularity, some of whom had to stay away from their homes for days or even weeks crossing the desert on foot, and carrying all their equipment including drinking water on their backs. The greatest credit is due to them.

20. Acknowledgments are due likewise to the other links in the chain of census organisation. Supervisors, Inspectors, Charge Superintendents, Sub-Divisional Census Officers, District Census Officers and Divisional Commissioners, are all parts of the Census machinery and no whit less essential than the enumerator, and in their case the census came as an extra piece of gratuitous and troublesome overtime work, added to their usual duties, in many places already onerous and trying above the ordinary.

21. My warmest thanks are due to all Heads of Departments including Military and Railway Census Officers of the Rajasthan and Ajmer Governments, but for whose prompt and personal co-operation in the matter of sparing their staff for census work at my request even to the detriment of their own office work, this census would have been an impossibility; specially the Director of Education whose quota was the greatest and who was kind enough to close primary schools for the census period to enable the teachers to attend to census work. The Rajasthan and Ajmer Governments realised the whole responsibility; and their Secretaries specially

Shri Adige and Shri Surendra Singh took so keen an interest in the work that whenever I went to discuss my difficulties, they put aside all their table work and attended to my problems.

22. I should not forget my own office staff including Deputy Census Superintendents and the Assistant Census Superintendent, who worked day and night in the cause of this Department; not because they were paid for it; but because they thought it their duty to render this bit of service to the Nation. In fact they realised that just as employees of other departments were helping the census cause in the over time, so should they do in addition to what they were paid for, and they realised the truth of the motto of Socrates "The Proper Study of Mankind is Man." For the success of the operation in Ajmer, the credit goes solely to Shri D.D. Upadhya, Additional Assistant Commissioner and Ex-Officio Census Officer, State of Ajmer. Shri D. Natarajan, Assistant Census Commissioner and Shri P.N. Kaul, Central Tabulation Officer of the Office of the Registrar General, India, spared no pains in scrutinising my drafts and statistical tables and correcting them and in giving valuable instructions, without which the Report could not have been what it is. They, therefore, deserve my most cordial gratitude.

23. Shri R.A. Gopaldaswami the fountain head of all energy and enthusiasm in census work who infused life and spirit in the machinery by his untiring zeal, clear perception and vivid elucidation of all details and prompt action in solving our problems, is the one personality to whom the success of these operations is attributable and my pen is finding it beyond its power to transcribe in words the real feeling of gratitude which my heart alone is experiencing.

UDAIPUR,  
March, 1953.

Y. L. DASHORA,  
Superintendent,  
Census Operations,  
Rajasthan & Ajmer.

---



CHAPTER I  

---

**GENERAL POPULATION.**

**SECTION I.**

**Preliminary Remarks**

1. The notion of population always refers to a definite area. So too do geographical and political entities. Therefore, the population of these States cannot be described until something is known of the physical and political geography of the region.

**The territory dealt with—**  
(a) **Its composition.**

The appellation "Rajasthan", with its present concept, was given to this part of the country on 30th March, 1949, when the late Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel, one of the makers and consolidators of Free India inaugurated this new State and drew a curtain over a long Act in some of the oldest and most glorious of Indian States. The consolidated State represents the whole of what was called Rajputana in previous Census Reports, minus the British District of Abu, the States of Palanpur and Danta and Tehsil Abu Road and a portion of Tehsil Delwara of Sirohi State. It also includes a number of villages transferred from other States due to the "Removal of Enclaves Order" and excludes certain villages transferred from Rajputana to other States. A list of villages so transferred is given in Appendix I (A Description of Rajasthan and Ajmer States) given in Report Part I-C.

2. Rajasthan lies between 23°3' and 30°12' North latitudes and 69°30' and 78°17' East longitudes. It is roughly rhombic in shape. If a man started at the extreme southern tip of Rajasthan in Kushalgarh Sub-division of Banswara District and walked in a straight line to the Northern extremity of Ganganagar District, he would cover 510 miles, nearly one-fourth of the length of India from Cape-Comorin to Kashmir. If he crossed the region the other way, starting at the western border of the Jaisalmer District and going to the Eastern border of Dholpur Sub-Division, he would cover nearly 540 miles, or nearly one-fourth of the breadth of India and Pakistan from the Western border of Baluchistan to the Eastern boundary of Assam. If he intended to walk along its borders, his journey will extend to nearly 3,700 miles. Rajasthan is bounded on the West and North-West by Pakistan. Thence its Northern and North-Eastern frontier marches with the Punjab, P.E.P.S.U. and the Uttar Pradesh until it touches the river Chambal where it turns South-Eastwards. The Eastern boundary is formed by the Chambal for about two hundred miles dividing the Jaipur and Kotah Divisions from Gwalior. The Southern boundary runs in an irregular zigzag line across the central region of India, dividing Rajasthan from Madhya Bharat and Bombay.

(b) **Situation and Boundary.**

3. In the past censuses Rajputana used to be divided into three Natural Divisions *viz.* the Eastern, the Southern and the Western. In the present Census the Registrar General, India, has divided Rajasthan and Ajmer into the following five Natural Divisions possessing more or less homogeneous physical features, rainfall, climatic conditions, etc. *viz.*, (1) East Rajasthan Plain Division, (2) Ajmer Division, (3) Rajasthan Dry Area Division, (4) Rajasthan Hills Division and (5) Rajasthan Plateau Division. A detailed note showing Population Zones, the Natural Regions, Sub-regions and

(c) **Natural Divisions.**

the Natural Divisions of India as also the places occupied by the above named Natural Divisions of Rajasthan in them can be seen in Appendix I (A Description of Rajasthan and Ajmer States). In the demarcation of these Natural Divisions the whole district was treated as belonging to that particular Natural Division with which a major portion of it bore resemblance, without caring to split up its tehsils, if any one or more of them bore a greater resemblance with any other Natural Division. This procedure facilitated the publication of figures by administrative units as well as Natural Divisions but to some extent vitiated the classification of Natural Divisions.

4. From the time of first Census 1881 till April 1941, this part of the country consisted of (a) the States of Rajputana, each having its own administrative machinery and (b) the British District of Ajmer Merwara. For the purpose of political supervision, it was divided into 9 political charges, subordinate to the Agent to the Governor-General who had his headquarters at Mt. Abu. A new District Abu came into existence about 1921, being made up of a small area of 6 sq. miles, leased from Sirohi Darbar. With the declaration of the Independence of India and the merger of individual States the administrative set up has been remodelled. At present in March 1951 for administrative purposes all the former States have been grouped into 5 Divisions, namely, Jaipur, Bikaner, Jodhpur, Udaipur and Kotah, each under a Commissioner, 25 Districts each under a Collector, 79 Sub-Divisions, each under a Sub-Divisional Officer and 207 Tehsils, each under a Tehsildar. Annexure III of Appendix I (A Description of Rajasthan and Ajmer States) gives the details. The various Thikanas in every State which used to be treated as separate census charges at previous censuses and which used to create complications on account of their being non-contiguous, have now all been treated as parts of the tehsils within whose geographical limits their villages are situated. The villages transferred to Rajasthan as a result of Removal of Enclaves Order have been placed under the tehsils within whose geographical limits they are situated.

(d) **Administrative Division.**

5. Ajmer is an isolated mono-district, centrally administered State situated in the heart of Rajasthan with its Head-quarters at Ajmer and lies between  $25^{\circ}24'$  and  $26^{\circ}42'$  North latitudes and  $73^{\circ}45'$  and  $75^{\circ}24'$  East longitudes. The State derives its importance from its central position. The State is surrounded on all sides by the State of Rajasthan. On the North and West by Jodhpur Division, on the South by Udaipur Division and on the East by Jaipur Division. The State is triangular in shape. The maximum length from North-East to South-West is 90 miles while from East to West it is only 45 miles and has an area of 2416 square miles. The State is composed of 3 Sub-Divisions (1) Ajmer (2) Beawar (Merwara) and (3) Kekri which in all include 1 City 6 towns and 714 villages. The Ajmer Sub-Division forms the northern portion of the State. It is more or less triangular in shape and is compact in formation with the exception of a few villages. Three of its villages are isolated in the North amidst the Sub-Division Kishangarh of Jaipur District in Rajasthan and three in the South East. It is generally a level plain interspersed with low hills which run practically in the North-Westerly direction in the upper part of the Sub-Division. The Beawar Sub-Division is an irregular country lying in the South-West of the State and is composed of two detached blocks lying lengthwise with a breadth varying between 4 to 12 miles and intersected by a narrow strip of Udaipur District of Rajasthan. This tract is generally hilly. The Kekri Sub-Division forms the South-Eastern portion of the State. It is a compact area composed of two blocks separated by Rajasthan (Kishangarh and Jaipur) territory. This tract is generally a level plain.

6. The Physiography of Rajasthan and the Natural Divisions has been given in Appendix I (A Description of Rajasthan and Ajmer States) in Part I-C. In short **Physiography.** Rajasthan is a tropical region consisting mostly of dry sandy desert but to some extent of fertile plains and equally fertile plateaus as well as forest clad hills rising as high as nearly 4000 ft. from the sea level, but perilously dependent on the caprices of the fickle monsoon. It is a cultural region of a sort, made unique by its long isolation but showing great variation from one locale to another between one group and another.



Till recently it was a split personality, divided and yet somehow not divided between States, races and castes, religions and localities. It is a comparatively healthy region but poor and conflictful. During several decades it was kept together by the British Raj which maintained the internal differences. It has now been united as a consolidated State forming an integral part of the Indian Republic and the internal differences are gradually but steadily vanishing.

7. The area and population of Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara as printed in the Reports of the past censuses and the variations from decade to decade have been shown in the Table No. 1 below.—  
Territorial changes.

TABLE No. 1.

## Area and Population past and present.

Year	Area in sq. miles	Variation	Population	Variation
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan.				
1891	129,065	..	12,401,478	..
1901	127,541	-1,524	9,841,765	-2,559,713
1911	128,987	+1,446	10,530,432	+ 688,667
1921	128,987	Nil	9,844,384	-- 686,048
1931	129,059	+ 72	11,225,712	+1,381,328
1941	132,559	+3,500	13,670,208	+ 2,444,496
1951	130,207	-2,352	15,290,797	+ 1,620,589
Ajmer State.				
1891	..	..	542,358	..
1901	..	..	476,912	- 65,446
1911	2,711	..	501,395	+ 24,483
1921	2,711	..	495,271	- 6,124
1931	2,711	..	560,292	+ 65,021
1941	2,400	-311	583,693	+ 23,401
1951	2,417	+ 17	693,372	+ 109,679

The reasons for the variation during each decade are explained below as copied from those reports.

8. In the decade 1891-1900 the areas of the States of Bikaner, Alwar, and Dholpur as obtained by the Darbars from their revenue records, differed from the figures of 1891, and were therefore, re-calculated in the Surveyor General's Office by planimeter from the standard topographical sheets. The figures given in the table for 1901 are those which were furnished by the Survey of India Department. The figures relating to the detached Parganas of the Tonk State Sironj, Chhabra and Pidawa situated in the Central India Agency comprising an area of 1439 sq. miles containing a population of 129,871 persons were excluded. Conversely the figures of the detached tracts of Nandwas of Indore and Gangapur of Gwalior situated in Mewar containing a population of 11,407 persons, were included. The Bhils of the States in Mewar Residency and the Grassias of Sirohi were in this decade enumerated for the first time. In the decade 1901-1910 the Sironj, Chhabra and Pidawa Parganas of Tonk State were transferred from Central India Agency to the Rajputana Agency and were therefore included in the Tonk figures. The 21 inhabited villages belonging to the Marwar Darbar, and the 92 belonging to the Mewar Darbar, all situated in the Merwara District of Ajmer-Merwara and administered on certain conditions by the British Government, were excluded from the Ajmer-Merwara figures in the Provincial tables and included in the statistics of the two States, in question. At previous censuses they were incorporated in the Ajmer-Merwara figures. The increase of 1446 sq. miles in area of Rajputana compared with 1901 is due to the fact that (1) in Bikaner there was an increase of 4 sq. miles due to transfer of two villages Ratakhera and Bulawas from the Punjab, (2) Mewar gained 3 sq. miles from Idar State as a result of boundary settlement, (3) in Tonk the transfer of Chhabra, Pidawa and Sironj parganas from the Central India to the Rajputana Agency led to an increase of 1439 sq. miles. There was no change in the decade 1911-1920.

9. In the decade 1921-1930 the apparent increase in the area of 72 sq. miles as compared with the figures quoted in 1921 was due to a portion of the agency having been re-surveyed and former figures adjusted and to the addition of 2 uninhabited sq. miles to Bikaner from the Punjab. The population of the two isolated parganas of Nandwas and Gangapur, situated within the boundaries of Mewar, were included in those of Indore and Gwalior to which States they respectively belonged and not in that of this agency. In Ajmer Merwara there was no change in area.

10. In decade 1931-1940 the apparent increase in the area of 3500 sq. miles as compared with the figures quoted in 1931 was due to (i) the extension of modern surveys with consequent adjustments (ii) to the addition of the States of Palanpur and Danta to the Rajputana agency and (iii) to the transfer of 343 sq. miles of Ajmer-Merwara to the Mewar and Marwar States.

11. In the decade 1941-1950 the two States of Palanpur and Danta with an area of 1794 and 347 sq. miles and a population of 3,15,855 and 31,110 persons respectively were amalgamated with the Bombay Presidency. The two tehsils from Sirohi District namely Abu Road and a part of Delwara with an approximate area of 317 sq. miles and a population of 36,588 persons have also been handed over to the Bombay State. The hill station of Abu, the former Abu District, with an area of 6 sq. miles and a population of 4,680 persons has also been transferred to the said State. Under the Removal of Enclaves Order, 67 villages have been transferred from Rajasthan to various States while 111 villages from other States have been transferred to Rajasthan. The net gain of area and population to Rajasthan on this account is 111.7 sq. miles and 24,257 Persons respectively.

12. The observations contained in this chapter are based on the statistical data displayed in the Subsidiary Tables of series 1 (1.1 to 1.8) and on certain related statistics received from other departments which are all published in Part I-B of the Report. The main census tables prepared at the 1951 Census are contained in the Report Part II-A and II-B.

## SECTION 2.

## General Distribution and Density.

1. The distribution of population can be viewed from various angles of vision, *e. g.* territorial distribution, communal distribution, sex distribution, rural and urban distribution, age distribution, occupational and economic distribution, social distribution, linguistic distribution, etc. In this section **Scope of this section.** we are going to study its territorial distribution only, other aspects of distribution will be dealt with in the sections which follow. But the distribution of population will be better appreciated if it is preceded by a review of the territorial distribution of the area of Rajasthan.

2. The area of Rajasthan as supplied by the Surveyor General of India is 130,206.7 square miles and that of the Ajmer State 2,416.6 square miles. Rajasthan is thus the largest State in India with the exception of Madhya Pradesh, which is bigger only by 65 square miles. Rajasthan occupies about 10.26 per cent. of the total area of the territory of the Indian Union. It exceeds the combined area of 14 out of the 28, or half the number of States in India, namely, Vindhya Pradesh, Saurashtra, Cutch, Himachal Pradesh, P.E.P.S.U, Travancore-Cochin, Manipur, Bhopal, Tripura, Ajmer, Coorg, Delhi, Bilaspur and Sikkim. Its area is more than double that of Orissa, a little less than three times that of Madhya Bharat more than four times that of Mysore and Bengal each, and three and a half times that of the Punjab. It is a little less than the combined area of Madhya Bharat, Punjab, West Bengal and Cutch. **Area.**

3. Compared with some of the countries outside India which are nearest in size, we find that Rajasthan is larger than Hungary, Norway, the United Kingdom, Transval, Austria or Italy. The Rajasthan Dry Area Division alone is more than a quarter as large as England and Wales. The East Rajasthan Plain Division is nearly equal to either Scotland or Ireland. The Hills Division, the smallest of all, is larger than Belgium and nearly equal to Holland or Egypt. These comparisons give some idea of the immense tracts which the Indian Census deals with even in one State alone.

4. The very size of the territory creates administrative and political difficulties. It has often been remarked that a small citizenry, is more manageable than a large one. Common agreement is somehow reached more easily and plans are carried out more efficiently. Any administrative measure, for whatever purpose, must reckon with the tremendous task of merely communicating with, not to mention controlling a people scattered over such a vast area. On the other hand there are certain advantages of sheer size. One of these is the prospects for a further expansion of the population by increasing the productive capacity of the country with the aid of science and machinery. Another is a vast and ready market for trade, unimpeded by political barriers. In the past, in Rajasthan the disadvantages of size were more evident than the advantages, because poverty, existence of numerous States, and political barriers prevented the potential advantages from being realized. But since the formation of the bigger union, the position has decidedly improved. Sheer size alone is certainly not the most important variable in national efficiency, but taken in conjunction with other conditions, it is apparently a significant one. It is one of the features that must always be kept in mind with reference to Rajasthan.

5. The above area is distributed into Natural Divisions as given in the Table No. 2 below which shows that the Rajasthan Dry Area Division is the most prominent extending over 57.8 per cent of the whole State. **(a) Distribution in Natural Divisions.** The East Rajasthan Plain Division comes next covering 23 per cent. of the State while Rajasthan Hills and Rajasthan Plateau Divisions comprise an area below 10 per cent. each, both together forming a little less than one-fifth of the State.

TABLE No. 2

## Area of Natural Divisions

Natural Division	Area in sq. miles	Percent to total
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	75,309.5	57.8
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	30,362.6	23.3
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	12,465.9	9.6
Rajasthan Hills Division.	12,048.7	9.3

6. The above Divisions consist of 25 districts. The biggest in area is the District of Jaisalmer extending over 15,967.5 sq. miles, *i.e.*, nearly one-eighth of the area of Rajasthan; it is bigger even than the Plateau Division or the Hills Division. It is also the biggest district in the whole of India. The smallest district is Dungarpur with an area of 1,466.3 sq. miles only. Table A-I in Report Part II-A, gives the area of each district in Rajasthan. The average area of a district in Rajasthan comes to 5,208 sq. miles. The Districts of Jalore, Kotah, Pali, Bhilwara and Sawai Madhopur are about the average though a little less than the average. Those of Tonk, Alwar, Chittorgarh and Bharatpur are below the average and Sikar, Jhalawar, Jhunjhunu, Bundi, Banswara, Sirohi and Dungarpur are much below the average. The Districts of Bikaner Ganganagar, Udaipur, Nagaur, Churu and Jaipur are above the average and those of Jaisalmer, Barmer and Jodhpur are much above the average. The only State in India in which the average area per district is higher than that of Rajasthan is Madhya Pradesh; Hyderabad and Madras come next to Rajasthan. The compact population of West Bengal and U.P. naturally reduces the average area of a district in those States. The average area of a district in Rajasthan Dry Area Division is 8,367.7 sq. miles. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is less than half, that is, 3,797.8 sq. miles. It is 3,116.5 sq. miles in the Plateau Division and only 3,012.2 sq. miles in the Hills Division.

TABLE No. 3.

## Area of Districts in the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

District	Area in sq. miles	Position in Rajasthan regarding area.
Jaipur	6,295.4	IX
Tonk	3,581.6	XV
Sawai Madhopur	4,203.8	XIV
Bharatpur	3,132.6	XVIII
Alwar	3,245.3	XVI
Jhunjhunu	2,310.5	XXI
Sikar	2,941.9	XIX
Bhilwara	4,671.5	XIII

7. Among the districts comprising the East Rajasthan Plain Division the biggest in area is Jaipur which is the ninth in this respect in Rajasthan and the smallest is Jhunjhunu as seen in the inset Table No. 3. The average area of a district in this division is 3,797.8 sq. miles. The Districts Jaipur, Sawai Madhopur and Bhilwara are above the average. Tonk, Bharatpur, Alwar, Sikar and Jhunjhunu are below it. The position in Rajasthan of each district is shown in the inset table.

TABLE No. 4.

## Area of districts in the Dry Area Division.

District	Area in sq. miles.	Position in Rajasthan regarding area.
Bikaner	.. 8,446.6	IV
Churu	.. 6,512.4	VIII
Ganganagar	.. 8,225.0	V
Jodhpur	.. 9,434.4	III
Barmer	.. 10,150.5	II
Jalore	.. 4,923.6	X
Pali	.. 4,750.7	XII
Nagaur	.. 6,898.8	VII
Jaisalmer	.. 15,967.5	I

TABLE No. 5.

## Area of districts in the Rajasthan Hills Division.

District	Area in sq. miles.	Position in Rajasthan regarding area.
Udaipur	.. 6,957.5	VI
Dungarpur	.. 1,466.3	XXV
Banswara	.. 1,953.8	XXIII
Sirohi	.. 1,671.1	XXIV

TABLE No. 6.

## Area of districts in Rajasthan Plateau Division.

District	Area in sq. miles.	Position in Rajasthan regarding area.
Chittorgarh	.. 3,231.2	XVII
Kotah	.. 4,781.6	XI
Bundi	.. 2,138.9	XXII
Jhalawar	.. 2,311.2	XX

8. Among the districts of the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, the biggest in area is Jaisalmer and the smallest is Pali as seen in the inset Table No. 4. The average area of a district in this division is 8,367.7 sq. miles. The districts Jaisalmer, Bikaner, Jodhpur and Barmer are above the average. Churu, Ganganagar, Jalore, Pali and Nagaur are below it. Jaisalmer is the biggest district in this division as well as in Rajasthan and the whole of India as observed above, while Barmer and Jodhpur rank II and III and they also occupy the II and III position among the districts of Rajasthan as shown in the inset table. The position in Rajasthan of each district is shown in the marginal table.

9. Among the districts comprised in Rajasthan Hills Division the biggest in area is Udaipur which is the sixth in Rajasthan, while smallest is Dungarpur which is also the smallest in Rajasthan, as seen in the inset Table No. 5. The average area of a district in this division is 3,012.2 sq. miles. Udaipur is the only district above the average. Dungarpur, Banswara and Sirohi are below it. The position in Rajasthan of each district is shown in inset Table No. 5.

10. Among the districts of this division the Rajasthan Plateau Division. biggest in area is Kotah which stands eleventh in Rajasthan and the smallest is Bundi as seen in the inset Table No. 6. The average area of a district in this division is 3,116.5 sq. miles. The Districts of Kotah and Chittorgarh are above the average and Bundi and Jhalawar are below it. The position in Rajasthan of each district is shown in the inset table.

11. Table "E" in Report Part II-A also gives the area of various tehsils in Rajasthan. The biggest tehsil is Barmer, in District Barmer, with an area of 5,670 sq. miles. It is bigger in area than an average district. The smallest is Tehsil Kot Kasim in Alwar District with an area of 67 sq. miles only. The average area per tehsil in Rajasthan comes to 629 sq. miles according to the figures of area supplied by the Surveyor General of India.

12. Ajmer is a mono-district State with three sub-divisions. Ajmer Sub-Division has an area of 688.6 sq. miles, Kekri 611.6 sq. miles and Beawar 938.34 sq. miles.

13. The population of Rajasthan is 15,290,797 and that of Ajmer is 693,372 persons (but by taking into account the net omissions in the census count revealed as a result of the sample verification by the Magistrates, the actual population of Rajasthan comes to 15,363,804 and that of Ajmer to 699,808 persons. Rajasthan contains nearly 4.3 per cent. of the population of the Indian Union.

14. Compared with the other States of India, the figures are eloquent of Rajasthan's scanty population, a striking contrast to the high position it holds in area. But even in respect of population it stands eighth among 28 States of India. It is smaller in population when compared with Uttar Pradesh, Madras, Bihar, Bombay, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, and Hyderabad, but larger than the remaining States. It nearly equals the combined population of 12 out of 28 States of India, viz. Bilaspur, Tripura, Manipur, Coorg, Sikkim, Himachal Pradesh, Cutch, Ajmer, Vindhya Pradesh, Delhi, P.E.P.S.U. and Bhopal. It is nearly double in this respect when compared with Madhya Bharat and has more than three times the population of Saurashtra, more than four times that of Vindhya Pradesh and P.E.P.S.U. each. Even the smallest division, the Plateau Division has more than twice the population of Himachal Pradesh and the biggest, East Rajasthan Plain Division is bigger than Saurashtra, Vindhya Pradesh and P.E.P.S.U. each. On the other hand the number of well-known countries which have a far smaller population once more illustrates the vast numbers with which the Indian Census authorities have to deal. Even the smallest division, the Plateau Division has a larger population than any of the Australian or African colonies—Portuguese Guinea, Moroccan Protectorate, Northern Rhodesia, Sierre Leone, Southern Rhodesia, Somali Land, Eritrea, Papua or New Zealand.

TABLE No. 7.

Population of Natural Divisions

Natural Division	Population	Percentage to total
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	6,585,367	43
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	4,603,784	30
Rajasthan Hills Division.	2,093,396	14
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	2,008,250	13

15. This population is distributed amongst the Natural Divisions as given in the inset Table No. 7. East Rajasthan Plain Division contains 43 per cent. of the total population. The Dry Area contains 30 per cent while 27 per cent of the population is divided between Rajasthan Hills Division and Plateau Division, nearly half and half. It is interesting to note that the Dry Area Division which stands first in respect of area, stands second in respect of population, its place being occupied by the East Rajasthan Plain Division. The Hills and Plateau Divisions also have to exchange their position although by a few numbers only.

16. Table A-I in Report Part II-A also gives the population of districts. It will be seen that Jaipur is the biggest district having greater population than either of the two Divisions of Bikaner and Kotah. Udaipur stands next followed closely by Bharatpur. The smallest district in respect of population is Jaisalmer, although it is the biggest in area.

The average population of a district in Rajasthan is 611,632. The Districts of Jhunjhunu, Chittorgarh and Churu are about the average, though a little less than the average. Those of Jalore, Barmer and Tonk are below the average and Jhalawar, Banswara, Bikaner, Dungarpur, Bundi, Sirohi and Jaisalmer are much below the average. The Districts of Alwar, Kotah, Sawai Madhopur, Nagaur, Bhilwara, Ganganagar, Pali, Sikar and Jodhpur are above the average, and those of Jaipur, Udaipur and Bharatpur are much above the average. When compared with other Part "B" States of India, we find that the average population of a district in Madhya Bharat is 497,135 while in Hyderabad it is 1,165,944. As regards district population of Part "A" States, Rajasthan does not stand any comparison. The average population per district is the minimum in Madhya Pradesh which is 965,797. It is the maximum in Bihar where it is over 22 lacs.

TABLE No. 8.

Population of districts in the East Rajasthan Plain Division		
District	Population	Position in Rajasthan regarding population.
Jaipur	.. 1,656,097	I
Tonk	.. 400,947	XVIII
Sawai Madhopur.	765,172	VI
Bharatpur	.. 907,399	III
Alwar	.. 861,993	IV
Sikar	.. 677,782	X
Bhilwara	.. 727,356	VIII
Jhunjhunu	.. 588,621	XIII

17. Among the districts of East Rajasthan Plain Division the biggest, East Rajasthan - which is also the largest district in Rajasthan in respect of population, is Jaipur and smallest is Tonk as we see in the inset Table No. 8. The average population of a district in this division is 823,171. The Districts of Jaipur, Bharatpur, and Alwar are above the average. Tonk, Sawai Madhopur, Jhunjhunu, Sikar and Bhilwara are below it. Position in Rajasthan of each district is shown in the Table No. 8.

TABLE No. 9.

Population of districts in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division.		
District	Population	Position in Rajasthan regarding population.
Bikaner	.. 330,329	XXI
Churu	.. 523,276	XV
Ganganagar	.. 630,130	XII
Jodhpur	.. 691,786	IX
Barmer	.. 441,368	XVII
Jalore	.. 459,467	XVI
Pali ..	.. 660,856	XI
Nagaur	.. 763,829	VII
Jaisalmer	.. 102,743	XXV

18. Among the districts of the Dry Area Rajasthan Dry Division the biggest in population is Nagaur and smallest is Jaisalmer, as we see in the inset Table No. 9. The average population of a district in this division is 511,532. The Districts of Churu, Jodhpur, Pali and Nagaur are above the average. Bikaner Barmer, Jalore and Jaisalmer are below it. The details regarding each district are shown in the marginal table.

TABLE No. 10.

## Population of districts in Rajasthan Hills Division.

District	Population	Position in Rajasthan regarding population.
Udaipur	1,191,232	II
Dungarpur	308,243	XXII
Banswara	356,559	XX
Sirohi	237,362	XXIV

19. Among the districts of Hills Division the biggest in respect of population is Udaipur, which is second in Rajasthan, and smallest is Sirohi which is also the second smallest in Rajasthan. The average population of a district in this division is 523,349. The only district which is above the average is Udaipur and the rest are below it. The position in Rajasthan of each district is shown in the inset Table No. 10.

TABLE No. 11.

## Population of districts in Rajasthan Plateau Division

District	Population	Position in Rajasthan regarding population
Chittorgarh	587,724	XIV
Kotah	766,198	V
Bundi	280,518	XXIII
Jhalawar	373,810	XIX

20. Among the districts of Rajasthan Plateau Division the biggest in respect of population is Kotah, which is the fifth in Rajasthan and smallest is Bundi. The average population of a district in this division is 502,062.5. The Districts of Kotah and Chittorgarh are above the average. Bundi and Jhalawar are below it. The position in Rajasthan of each district is shown in the inset Table No. 11.

21. Table 'E' in Report Part II-A also gives the population of tehsils. Next to Jaipur and Jodhpur the biggest tehsil is Jhunjhunu with a population of 362,896 persons which is bigger even than each of the Districts of (c) Tehsil-wise Distri- 362,896 persons which is bigger even than each of the Districts of  
bution. Dungarpur, Banswara, Sirohi, Bundi, Bikaner and Jaisalmer. The smallest tehsil is Kanera with a population of 7,152 souls only. The average population of a tehsil in Rajasthan is 73,868.

22. Of the administrative sub-divisions of Ajmer State the biggest in respect of population is Ajmer Sub-Division having 382,227 persons or 55.12 per cent. of the whole State. This is solely due to Ajmer City which alone supports a population of 196,633 persons or 51.44 per cent of the sub-division. Next comes Beawar Sub-Division with a population of 177,411 or 25.59 per cent of the State. Kekri stands last which supports a population of 133,734 persons forming 19.29 per cent of the Ajmer State.

23. Administration, in its real sense of the term, means administering to the needs of the people; as such, normally speaking, one should expect the size of (d) Factors governing the size of an Administrative Unit an administrative unit to depend upon the strength of its population. But various other factors combine to disturb this normality viz., (a) area, (b) configuration, (c) other physical features e.g., hills and hill ranges, rivers etc. affecting the accessibility of the various parts of the unit, (d) means of communication (e) the amount of revenue, (f) the nature of the populace (g) historical background and lastly (h) sentimental elements. It cannot be said with any amount of certainty that the present demarcation of the boundaries of tehsils, districts and divisions is based on any scientific appraisal of the various factors mentioned above. Leaving



aside Jaisalmer, which is an exception in itself, due to its enormous size, the desert conditions etc., historical and sentimental grounds have played an effective part. The Districts of Jhalawar, Banswara, Dungarpur, Bundi and Sirohi are near the average neither in respect of area nor in respect of population, but as they were independent States in premerger period, where people were accustomed to get all facilities of administration which can be given now by the High Court and the Secretariat only, they could not be reduced to the level of tehsils or sub-divisions, to respect the sentiments of the people and to lighten their shock of having to travel to a great distance to obtain these facilities, as a sequence of the independence of India. In the case of other districts also all the above factors have operated to a greater or lesser extent.

24. The present Rajasthan State is only a baby of three years. There is an apprehension that demarcation of administrative units will in near future undergo a radical change. In fact at the time of writing this paragraph, I am informed that the 5 tehsils constituting the Jaisalmer District have now been clubbed together into two. If this process continues, the greater the change the more difficult will be the task of adjusting population data according to the changed conditions and the utility of the present published data will be correspondingly reduced. The only safeguard which has been kept in the present census is that a village has been treated as a unit of abstraction for the basic population figures which are published in the District Census Hand Books, and, so long as it is not split up in the process of a further reorganization of districts, the basic population figures will be adjustable to changed units.

25. Density is the co-relation of population with area. It means the number of persons per sq. mile. This is of course based on the hypothesis of a uniform distribution of persons over the total area dealt with. It is only a theoretical assumption without any existence. No where in the world does it give a true picture of the living conditions of the people occupying the region, but still it affords a comparison between various parts of the world. It is just possible that a thinly populated country may not be capable of accommodating more persons than the number actually residing in it. At the same time, the possibility of an increase in population in a particularly thickly populated area and its capacity to support an increased population, cannot altogether be ruled out. However, the collection of statistical data on the basis of density is not only interesting in itself but can be quite helpful in determining the further possible expansion of the population to a very great extent.

**Density of population.**

**Its significance.**

26. The figures of density are useful to the scholar as well as the administrator for the following among various other purposes.

**Its utility.**

(a) for examining the possibility of a further expansion, into the thinly populated areas, of the surplus population from those which are more thickly populated,

(b) for making a comparison of those characteristics of the denser with those of the sparser areas which have had a prominent bearing on determining their present density, and exploring the possibility of effecting a remarkable change in the characteristics of the sparser areas, with the aid of science and machinery, and thereby improving their present capacity of supporting population.

(c) for ascertaining, with the aid of the figures of growth of population, how far the capacity of the dense areas to support population has been exhausted and to what extent can they support a further growth of population, under the existing circumstances, or by improving any of the factors which have till now been significant in determining their existing density; or whether the denser areas have already reached the point of saturation and a further growth will prove dangerous, thereby revealing the necessity of taking active steps either for arranging migration out of the State or stopping the growth, and

(d) for enabling them to judge whether the people residing in the sparser areas are much better off than their brethren in the more thickly populated ones, because the former are in a position to make a freer use of the free gifts of nature *e.g.*, fresh air, pure water and natural products like fuel, fodder and minerals; and whether they are, therefore, healthier and richer. For this last purpose they will have to study the density figures for much smaller units than tehsils, because, although the mean density of a tehsil may not be high, yet within the tehsil, there may be areas much denser than other parts of the tehsil.

27. The aggregate area of Rajasthan and Ajmer is 132,624 (Rajasthan 130,207 and Ajmer 2,417). The total population on the date of census was 15,984,169 (Rajasthan 15,290,797 and Ajmer 693,372). Assuming the population to be evenly distributed over the entire area, each square mile would have been occupied by 121 persons (in Rajasthan by 117 persons and in Ajmer by 287).

28. The variation in the density of population at each successive census, is shown in the Table No. 12 below:—

TABLE No. 12.

## Variation of density in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Census years	Rajasthan.			Ajmer.		
	Persons per sq. mile	Acres per inhabitant	Proximity in yards	Persons per sq. mile	Acres per inhabitant	Proximity in yards
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1881	80	8.0	196	170	3.8	136
1891	96	6.7	180	200	3.2	124
1901	76	8.4	202	176	3.6	132
1911	81	7.9	196	186	3.4	129
1921	76	8.4	202	185	3.5	130
1931	87	7.4	189	210	3.0	122
1941	102	6.3	175	242	2.6	112
1951	117	5.5	163	287	2.2	103

Columns 4 and 7 of the table signify the distance which would separate each individual person from his nearest neighbour, if all were distributed at an equal distance over the whole surface of the State. The figures reveal a steady increase in density since 1931 and it will be interesting to note that if the whole surface area of Rajasthan be divided equally amongst its inhabitants each will get only 5.5 acres. The inhabitants of Ajmer will get still less, *i. e.* 2.2 acres only. This is the condition of density in Rajasthan which is commonly known as the most sparsely populated State in India except Assam, Manipur, Sikkim, Cutch and Himachal Pradesh. Ajmer stands 10th among the States of India in respect of density and Rajasthan 23rd.

29. The truth is, however, that average density means very little. The larger and more diversified the country, the less it means. In the case of Rajasthan, with almost a tenth of India's area but only approximately 1/23rd of its population, it signifies simply, arithmetically at all events, that the land must support more than its proportion of humanity. But sheer density says nothing about the adequacy of this land for such support, or the capacity of the region to draw sustenance

from other parts of the world. To talk more realistically, then, one must speak of the land and its regions, of the richness of the land, and of the distribution of population in relation to regional capacities.

30. The economy of Rajasthan, as every one knows, is primarily agricultural. About 70 per cent of the people are directly dependent on farming for a livelihood. During normal years, which are unfortunately not frequent, the region raises nearly all of its own food, about 82 per cent of its crops being food crops. Its place in the world economy is based mainly on the export of agricultural products *e.g.*, oil-seeds, cotton, or livestock products *e.g.*, wool, hides and skins, ghee, etc., for which it gets, in return, manufactured goods. Its cities are disproportionately few and small in comparison to its total population; its people remain over-whelmingly rural. All this being true, the location and concentration of the population is easy to deduce. - The people will not be found in huge industrial and metropolitan agglomerations, as in an industrial country. They will be found rather in good farming areas, *i.e.* where the terrain is level, the soil rich, the rainfall (or irrigation) adequate, and the climate livable. In other areas, where these optimum agricultural conditions are absent, there will be correspondingly fewer people. In spite of the fact that Rajasthan is a sparse territory, the degree of concentration of the region's population in certain limited areas is startling as we shall see in the pages that follow.

31. The mean density of the East Rajasthan Plain Division is much above the average density of Rajasthan, being 217 as against 117. Here an individual's share will come to only 2.9 acres of land. His brother in the Hills Division will get 3.7 acres because the mean density there is 174 persons per square mile. The resident of the Plateau Division is luckier still as he gets 3.9 acres, the density in his division being 161 persons per square mile. The most fortunate in this respect will be the inhabitant of the Dry Area who will get 10.5 acres, as there are only 61 persons to a square mile in his division. The Table No. 13 below shows the variation in density of the Natural Divisions from decade to decade.

TABLE No. 13.

## Variation in the density of the States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Mean density per square mile.					
	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
Rajasthan State .. .. .	117	102	87	76	81	76
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	217	189	165	149	166	168
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	61	52	42	34	38	35
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	174	148	126	109	100	80
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	161	148	129	116	118	99
Ajmer State .. .. .	287	242	210	185	186	176

It shows that density is steadily increasing in each division since 1921, and at present the East Rajasthan Plain Division has got a density a little less than double the mean density of the State while the Dry Area Division has got only a little more than a half the mean density of the State. The ratio of the density of the Plain Division to that of the Dry Area Division is nearly 7:2. Rajasthan Dry Area Division, which ranks first in respect of area, stands last in respect of density; and Ajmer State, which stands last in respect of area, stands first in respect of density. The East Rajasthan Plain Division is second in respect of area and also second in respect of density although it is first in respect of population. The Rajasthan Hills Division is fourth in respect of area but third in respect of density and the Plateau Division which is third in respect of area stands fourth in respect of density.

32. Within each Natural Division also the conditions are not uniform. Out of the districts comprised in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, Bharatpur is the densest, having 290 persons per square mile and Tonk is the sparsest having only 112. Alwar stands second, with 266 and Jaipur, inspite of its having the capital of the State and possessing many big towns, stands third with a density of 263 only. Jhunjhunu and Sikar are also above the mean density line of the division having 255 and 230 persons per sq. mile respectively and those below it are Tonk, as observed above, Bhilwara with a density of 156 and Sawai Madhopur with 182. The Table No. 14 below shows the variation in the density of the districts comprised in this Division from decade to decade. The figures show the same trend, namely a regular increase in density since 1921 in each of the districts of East Rajasthan Plain Division.

TABLE No. 14.

Variation in the density of districts in the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

District	Mean density per square mile					
	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
Jaipur .. ..	263	205	180	161	197	209
Tonk .. ..	112	91	82	70	76	72
Sawai Madhopur .. ..	182	162	144	131	145	146
Bharatpur .. ..	290	275	236	232	262	286
Alwar .. ..	266	260	237	222	251	263
Jhunjhunu .. ..	255	212	175	153	160	148
Sikar .. ..	230	209	178	158	160	159
Bhilwara .. ..	156	135	113	99	93	76

33. In the Dry Area Division, Pali District is the densest having 139 persons per square mile, even above the mean density of Rajasthan, Nagaur stands next with 111 and Jaisalmer is the last with only 6 souls to a square mile. Other districts above the mean density line of this Division are Jalore (93), Churu (80), Ganganagar (77) and Jodhpur (73). Those below the line in ascending order, in addition to Jaisalmer are Bikaner (39) and Barmer (43). The Table No. 15 below shows the variation in density of the districts comprised in the Dry Area Division from decade to decade. Here also a steady increase in density since 1921 is noticeable in each district, but it is the most significant in the case of Ganganagar, where density has more than quadrupled in the last 50 years.

TABLE No. 15.

Variation in density of districts in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division.

District	Mean density per square mile					
	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
Bikaner .. ..	39	36	27	23	23	21
Churu .. ..	80	70	56	46	46	40
Ganganagar .. ..	77	65	42	21	25	17
Jodhpur .. ..	73	61	48	42	47	46
Barmer .. ..	43	36	28	25	27	29
Jalore .. ..	93	81	71	61	66	60
Pali .. ..	139	117	100	85	96	83
Nagaur .. ..	111	95	82	71	81	76
Jaisalmer .. ..	6	6	5	4	6	5

34. In the Hills Division, Dungarpur is the densest district with 210 persons per square mile and Sirohi is the sparsest with 142. Between the two extremes are Banswara above the mean density line having 182 and Udaipur below it with 171. The Table No. 16 shows the variation in density of districts comprised in this Division from decade to decade.

TABLE No. 16.

Variation in density of districts in the Hills Division.

District	Mean density per square mile					
	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
Udaipur .. ..	171	146	122	107	100	81
Dungarpur .. ..	210	187	155	129	109	68
Banswara .. ..	182	154	133	112	96	85
Sirohi .. ..	142	118	110	94	96	79

The same trend is noticed in these districts also.

35. In the Plateau Division, Chittorgarh is the densest with 182 persons per square mile and

TABLE No. 17.

Variation in density of districts in the Plateau Division.

District	Mean density per square mile					
	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
Chittorgarh ..	182	161	136	119	112	90
Kotah .. ..	160	152	134	125	128	110
Bundi .. ..	131	117	101	87	102	80
Jhalawar ..	162	150	132	120	120	102

Bundi the sparsest with only 131. Jhalawar is just above the mean density line having 162 souls per square mile, and Kotah just below it (160). The inset Table No. 17 shows the variation in density of districts comprised in this Division from decade to decade. Here also there is a steady increase in the density of each district since 1921.

36. The densest district in Rajasthan is Bharatpur having 290 persons per square mile and the sparsest is Jaisalmer with 6 persons only. As is to be expected, the density of these smaller units coincides very closely with that of the Divisions, the most densely populated one, Bharatpur, being in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, and the most thinly populated one, Jaisalmer in the Dry Area Division. But there are patches of different density even in the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

37. The Table No. 18 below gives a comparison of the districts of maximum and minimum density in Rajasthan and neighbouring States. The figures reveal a glaring contrast.

TABLE No. 18.

Districts of maximum and minimum density in Rajasthan and neighbouring States.

State 1	District of maximum density		District of minimum density	
	Name 2	Density 3	Name 4	Density 5
Rajasthan ..	Bharatpur ..	290	Jaisalmer ..	6
Punjab ..	Simla ..	5,429	Kangra ..	94
Uttar Pradesh ..	Lakhimpur Khedi ..	1,155	Tehri Garhwal ..	91
Bombay ..	Bombay ..	13,462	Kangas ..	72
Madhya Bharat ..	Indore ..	382	Ujjain ..	24
Madhya Pradesh ..	Nagpur ..	321	Sarguja ..	95

38. The above is also not a complete picture. If we look into the conditions of the tehsils we find that density ranges from 3 Persons per Sq. mile in Tehsil Sam, in Jaisalmer District, to 769 in Jaipur Tehsil in Jaipur District. Out of the 207 tehsils of Rajasthan, 158 are above the mean density line of the State and only 49 below it.

39. To facilitate the study of density figures Subsidiary Table 1.1 has been prepared in which density has been divided into 8 groups:—

- (1) Under 100, (2) 100-150, (3) 150-200, (4) 200-300, (5) 300-450, (6) 450-600 (7) 600-750, (8) 750 and over.

I give them the following nomenclature:—

- (1) Under 100 sparse, (2) 100-150 below medium, (3) 150-200 and 200-300 medium, (4) 300-450 dense, and (5) the rest, above 450, abnormally dense.

TABLE No. 19.

Density of Tehsils with Division Headquarters excluding cities.

Tehsil 1	Gross density 2	Density after excluding the area and population of the headquarter cities 3
Jaipur ..	769	254
Jodhpur ..	133	71
Udaipur ..	406	218
Bikaner ..	50	41
Kotah ..	213	99

40. According to this criterion we find that the only tehsil which comes under the abnormally dense category is Jaipur, with a density of 769, and the reason is not far to seek. It contains the capital of Rajasthan with a population of nearly three lakhs in an area of 25 sq. miles only. If we deduct the area and population of Jaipur City the density of the remaining portion of Jaipur Tehsil comes as low as 254 which puts the tehsil nearly 39th in the order of density. On a similar treatment all the tehsils with divisional headquarters will be found to be not so densely populated as they at first sight seem to be. The inset Table No. 19 clears the position.

41. There is not a single tehsil in the density groups 600-750 and 450-600. The dense Tehsils (300-450), number only 20 of which as many as 17 are in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, viz. 7 in Bharatpur District, 3 in Alwar, 3 in Jaipur, 3 in Sawai Madhopur and 1 in Bhilwara. Hills Division has got two viz. Udaipur and Khamnor and the Plateau Division only one viz. Kapasin. There is not a single tehsil belonging to this density group in the Dry Area Division.

42. The medium tehsils are 101 in number. Out of them 54 fall in the density group 200-300, which are distributed in the Natural Divisions as shown in Table No. 20 and those in the group 150-200 are only 47, a large number of which (19) belong to East Rajasthan Plain Division, the remaining ones being distributed among the Natural Divisions as shown in the Table No. 21 given below:

TABLE No. 20: Distribution of Tehsils of density group 200-300 in Natural Divisions. TABLE No. 21: Distribution of Tehsils of density group 150-200 in Natural Divisions.

Distribution of Tehsils of density group 200-300 in Natural Divisions.		Distribution of Tehsils of density group 150-200 in Natural Divisions.	
Natural Division	Number of Tehsils	Natural Division	Number of Tehsils
East Rajasthan Plain Division	29	East Rajasthan Plain Division	19
Rajasthan Hills Division	13	Rajasthan Plateau Division	17
Rajasthan Plateau Division	10	Rajasthan Hills Division	6
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	2	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	5

43. Tehsils of 'below medium density' coming under the group 100-150 are 46 in number, 13 being in East Rajasthan Plain Division, 12 in Rajasthan Dry Area Division, 8 in Rajasthan Hills Division and 13 in Rajasthan Plateau Division.

44. The lowest group of sparse tehsils (below 100) contains 39 tehsils of which more than two-thirds *i. e.*, 28 belong to Dry Area Division, the remaining 11 are distributed in other Natural Divisions, *i. e.* 2 in East Rajasthan Plain Division, 7 in Rajasthan Plateau Division and 2 in Rajasthan Hills Division.

45. For a better appreciation of the sparsest group it has been further sub-divided into 5 sub-groups, (1) below 10, (2) 11-25, (3) 26-50, (4) 51-75, and (5) 76-100. Out of 39 tehsils falling in the sparse group (below 100), four, all belonging to Jaisalmer District fall in sub-group 1; four come under sub-group 2 of which two are in Bikaner and one each in Barmer and Jaisalmer Districts. In sub-group 3 there are 7 tehsils two in Bikaner District, two in Churu and one each in Jodhpur, Ganganagar and Barmer Districts. In sub-group 4 there are eight tehsils one in each of the districts of Ganganagar, Jodhpur, Jalore, Churu, Barmer and Udaipur, and two in Kotah. In sub-group 5 there are 16 tehsils one in each of the Districts of Churu, Barmer, Pali, Nagaur, Bundi and Banswara and two in each of the Districts of Jaipur, Sawai Madhopur, Chittorgarh, Kotah and Ganganagar.

46. It will be noticed that tehsils coming under density sub-groups 1, 2 and 3 are found only in Rajasthan Dry Area Division. Out of 8 tehsils of sub-group 4, one belongs to Rajasthan Hills Division and two to Rajasthan Plateau Division. The rest belong to Rajasthan Dry Area Division and none to East Rajasthan Plain Division. In sub-group 5, two tehsils belong to East Rajasthan Plain Division, six to Rajasthan Dry Area Division and five to Rajasthan Plateau Division. In Rajasthan Hills Division there is only one tehsil of this sub-group.

47. The picture would be more complete if we glance into the density conditions in cities and towns. Here we are handicapped by a paucity of area figures. Density in cities, towns and villages will be reviewed in Chapter III Urban Population. Similarly the question of density in rural units (villages) will be examined in Chapter II Rural Population.



48. While trying to ascertain the proportion of area of Rajasthan falling under each density group or sub-group we see from Subsidiary Table 1.1 that 48.6 per cent of the area of Rajasthan is sparsely populated. 19.7 per cent is below medium, 27.8 per cent. has got a medium density and only 3.5 per cent. of the area of Rajasthan has got a dense population. The abnormally dense area stands no percentage. Out of the 48.6 per cent sparsely populated area 11.7 per cent comes in sub-group 1 (below 10), in sub-group 2 (between 10-25) comes 6.9 per cent. of the area, in sub-group 3 (25-50) 14.3 per cent., in sub-group 4 (50-75) 6.5 per cent and in the last sub-group (75-100) 9.2 per cent.

49. Looking into the population figures we find that 49.2 per cent. or nearly half the people of Rajasthan live in a medium density area (150-300), a little less than one quarter *i.e.* 21.3 per cent. in below medium strata, 16.5 per cent. live in a sparse condition and 10.2 per cent. live densely. The abnormally dense area contains only 2.8 per cent. of the population in group 8 (750 and over) *i.e.* in Jaipur Tehsil as we have seen above.

50. To sum up, it will be interesting to note that only 27.8 per cent. of area is covered by 49.2 per cent of the population in medium range, the below medium and sparse ranges contain 37.8 per cent. of the population in 68.3 per cent. of the area, and the dense portion contains 10.2 per cent. of the population in 3.5 per cent. of area.

51. The highest density of 750 and over is reached in Jaipur Tehsil. Tehsils falling under sub-group 1 (below 10) support only 0.6 per cent. of the total population of Rajasthan, while those in sub-group 2 (11-25) support 0.9 per cent. Population of tehsils falling under sub-group 3 (26-50) forms 2.8 per cent. of the total and that of those in sub-group 4 (51-75) and 5 (76-100) is 6.0 and 6.2 per cent. respectively.

52. Among the Natural Divisions Rajasthan Plain Division has got only 0.9 per cent. of its population living in the sparse area while 47 per cent. of the population of Rajasthan Dry Area Division live under this sparse category. In the Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions only 5 and 10 per cent. of the population respectively live under this category.

53. 18.8 per cent of the population of East Rajasthan Plain Division live in dense area (300-450) and 14 per cent. of the population of the Rajasthan Hills Division also live in the similar area, Rajasthan Plateau Division subscribes 2 per cent. of its population to this category. There is not a single tehsil in Rajasthan Dry Area Division in this density group. The 14 per cent. population of Rajasthan Hills Division lives in this category and this is because of the two comparatively dense tehsils of Udaipur and Khamnor. The medium density area of Rajasthan can be distributed in the Natural Divisions as follows:—

- (1) East Rajasthan Plain Division 64.2 per cent of the total population of the division;
- (2) Dry Area Division 16 per cent.
- (3) Hills Division 63 per cent and
- (4) Plateau Division 60 per cent.

The density conditions in Natural Divisions can also be studied by comparing the percentage of the population occupying the percentage of the surface area in each Natural Division. A perusal of Table No. 21-A given below gives an idea of the percentage of population in each unit which occupies the percentage of area in the same unit.



TABLE No. 21-A.

Percentage of area and population in various density groups in State and its Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Percentage of Area and Population in density group of									
	Under 100		100-150		150-300		300-450		450 & over	
	Area	Population	Area	Population	Area	Population	Area	Population	Area	Population
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Rajasthan State ..	48.6	16.5	19.7	21.3	27.8	49.2	3.5	10.2	0.4	2.8
East Rajasthan Plain Division	2.2	0.9	17.3	9.7	66.1	64.2	12.5	18.8	1.9	6.5
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	77	47	18	37	5	16	..	..	..	..
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	13	5	24	18	56	63	7	14	..	..
Rajasthan Plateau Division .	21	10	31	27	47	60	1	2	..	..
Ajmer State ..	..	..	38	19	25	26	36	55	..	..

It reveals that in Rajasthan about 1/6th of the population lives in about one-half of the area (48.6 per cent), 21.3 per cent of the population live in 19.7 per cent of the area, 49.2 and 10.2 per cent. of the population in 27.8 and 3.5 percentage of area and only 2.8 per cent of the population in 0.4 per cent of the area. In Ajmer State about 2/5ths of the area are inhabited by about 1/5th of the population. More than half (55 per cent) of its population lives on 36 per cent of its area. Only about 1/4th of its population live on approximately 1/4th of area. The variations in the pattern from division to division can be seen in the table above.

54. Coming to the district level it will be seen that the Districts of Jaisalmer, Barmer and Bikaner are cent per cent in sparse category (below 100), (1) while **In districts.** the Districts of Tonk, Bharatpur, Sikar, Alwar, Jhunjhunu, Bhilwara, Dungarpur, Sirohi and Jhalawar have not got any portion which comes under this category. It will also be interesting to see the percentage of the population of various districts which live in tehsils falling in the sparse category as shown below *i.e.*, Sawai Madhopur 8 per cent, Churu 53 per cent, Ganganagar 59 per cent, Jodhpur 29 per cent, Jalore 26 per cent, Pali 14 per cent, Nagaur 27 per cent, Banswara 20 per cent, Kotah 16 per cent, Bundi 14 per cent., and Chittorgarh 6 per cent. The densest category receives its quota from the following districts to the extent mentioned against each—Jaipur contributes 13 per cent. of its population, Sawai Madhopur 30 per cent, Bharatpur 52 per cent, Alwar 50 per cent, Chittorgarh 8 per cent, and Udaipur 24 per cent. In the medium range of density Sikar, Jhunjhunu and Dungarpur Districts figure significant. 100 per cent of their population live in this category. Jhalawar with 90 per cent, and Bhilwara with 86 per cent each come next. The minimum contribution of Sirohi District is 14 per cent of its population while the Districts of Bikaner, Churu, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, Barmer and Jalore make no contribution. In the below medium range of density the minimum percentage of contribution is from Sawai Madhopur being 7 per cent of its population while the important contributions are from Sirohi 86 per cent, Jalore 74 per cent, Jodhpur 71 per cent, and Tonk 69 per cent of their population. The details for other districts can be seen in Subsidiary Table 1.5 given in Part I-B of the Report.

TABLE No. 22.

Villages per 100 square miles in State and Natural Divisions.	
State and Natural Division	Villages per 100 sq. miles
1	2
Rajasthan State .. .. .	24
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	39
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	10
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	46
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	51
Ajmer State .. .. .	25

55. The density of districts can also be viewed from another angle of vision, namely, number of inhabited villages per hundred square miles. In this respect, the average density of Rajasthan is 24 villages per 100 sq. miles. The inset Table No. 22 explains the position of the Natural Divisions. Thus we see that Rajasthan Dry Area Division alone is much below the State average and all others are above it. In Ajmer State, the number of villages per 100 sq. miles is 25 in number.

56. Amongst the districts, Chittorgarh tops the list having 65 villages per 100 sq. miles followed closely by Jhalawar (63), Banswara (62), Alwar (59), Bharatpur (59) and Dungarpur (56) in close succession. The districts with low density, *i.e.*, fewer number of villages per hundred square miles, are the same as could be expected, namely, Jaisalmer (3), Bikaner (5), Barmer (8), Jodhpur (8) and Churu (13) arranged in ascending order.

57. Coming to the tehsil level, it is surprising to see that Tehsil Sendra of Pali District tops the list having 216 villages per 100 sq. miles. It is followed by Bagidora (District Banswara) with 114, Garhi (District Banswara) with 109, and Tijara (District Alwar) with 108. No clear conclusion can be arrived at from this feature (villages per 100 sq. miles) because their number per 100 sq. miles may be greater on account of two reasons, one, the land being fertile, several villages grow up and second, the land being hilly, separate villages grow up wherever agricultural land is available. Similarly, in deserts, villages grow up in an oasis where there is water. In the last mentioned two cases, the size of villages is generally small though their number is great. The Tehsil Ramgarh (District Jaisalmer) occupies the other end of the list having one village per 100 sq. miles, Jaisalmer and Bap (District Jaisalmer), Jaitaran (District Pali) and Sheo (District Barmer) stand next to it, having 3 villages per 100 sq. miles.

58. The figures of density can more usefully be studied by co-relating them with cultivated land; because it is the cultivated land from which the population derives its means of subsistence and the pressure upon it can better be appreciated by the above method.

59. The figures of cultivated area for Rajasthan and each of its districts have been supplied by the Director of Agriculture and the Food Commissioner, Rajasthan which are reproduced in Subsidiary Table 4-11 in Part I-B of the Report. But these figures are only estimates as a large area in Rajasthan is non-reporting for which no figures regarding crops are available and the Government cannot commit itself to the accuracy of these figures. In most of the districts area which is described as cultivated is also not regularly brought under cultivation because of the uncertainty of monsoons, for example, in Barmer District 53.2% of the total area is reported to be cultivated but it is cultivated only when there is sufficient rainfall which is normally once in three years only. This factor vitiates the comparative utility of these figures because this sort of condition prevails in the Dry Area Division only and not in others. We find from the data available that in Rajasthan as a whole the density on cultivated land is 326 persons per square mile and the position is different in the different Natural Divisions as shown in the Table No. 23 below

TABLE No. 23.

Density on cultivated land in Rajasthan and its Natural Divisions

It is as high as 1,094 in the Rajasthan Hills Division and as low as 176 in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division.

State and Natural Division	Persons per sq. mile of cultivated area
Rajasthan State ..	326
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	468
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	176
Rajasthan Hills Division.	1,094
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	422

60. Crude density is not, however, the best measure of crowding. A better one at least in the Agricultural countries, is the number of persons dependent on agriculture per square mile of cultivated land. This we shall examine in Chapter IV—Agricultural Classes.

61. This topic has been the subject of study and observation by most of the Superintendents of Census Operations in this Province as well as in other parts of India during the past censuses who have in their reports dwelt at a great length upon it. The sum and substance of it interjected by my own observations is that the predominant density factors in this country are by no means those which count foremost in Western countries, where the variations in population depend mainly on the progress made in commercial and industrial developments. Our conditions are quite different because more than 2/3rds of the population directly depend upon agriculture as compared with less than 7 per cent in England. Manufactures and trades which are found to exist mostly in cities and big towns do not affect the density of large areas such as Natural Divisions to any significant extent. They do not even affect the density of most of the districts because the number of individual districts whose density can greatly be affected by the existence of trading and industrial centres is still next to nil.

62. This unequal distribution of the population of Rajasthan is due to a variety of causes. In order to increase and multiply man must have certain essential conditions—water, food, clothing and shelter, a climate not fatally unhealthy and sufficient security of life and property to make it possible for him to settle and abide. All these factors interact on one another and the absence of any one of them may counteract the influence of the others. In these States, where the economic conditions are closely connected with the cultivation of the soil, the physical configuration of the area must form a primary factor, as continuous cultivation is impossible in a rocky or mountainous country. We shall expect to find the larger aggregation of population in the level tracts of the country.

63. Within such tracts the principal factor must usually be the rainfall which supplies the water necessary for the crops, and subject to definite modifications caused by other influences, there is a distinct general correlation between the density of the population and the quantity of the rainfall. Thus the sharp contrast between the extremes of density in Bharatpur and Alwar on the one hand and the sparsely inhabited areas in the desert of Jaisalmer on the other hand is largely due to the difference between unfailing abundance and permanent deficiency of rain. In Bharatpur and Alwar where the density of population rises as high as over 385 persons per square mile in certain tracts, every factor favourable to the growth of an agricultural population reinforces the dominant influence of an abundant and stable supply of water from the

heavens. On the other hand, the complete absence of rain in large portions of the Jaisalmer district renders this tract uncultivable and consequently uninhabitable, except where water is supplied by artificial irrigation. Between these extremes the density figures range in every variety of gradation. In the Plateau Division the physical aspects of the country change and the lower ranges of density which prevail in this portion of the State, namely in Tehsils Shahabad, Kishanganj, Lateri and Kanwas of Kotah District and Bhensroargarh and Kanera of Chittorgarh District are primarily due to the less favourable configuration of the surface. The undulating plateaus of Kotah and Chittorgarh Districts are broken by ranges of mountains, sometimes bare and stony and sometimes forest clad, and are intersected by rivers and streams which flow for the most part through deep-cut valleys. There is little scope for large continuous stretches of cultivation, communications are often difficult, while occasional failure of the rainfall intermittently checks the growth of the population even where there is ordinarily room for it to expand.

64. The case of Dungarpur District in the Rajasthan Hills Division deserves further scrutiny. Captain Webb mentioned it in the 1941 Census Report as a "Case of Surprise." He explains the fact by saying "That the population of Dungarpur over the last half-century has relatively been showing a more steady increase than Mewar and many of the States. And since its area has not increased, its density must necessarily do so." But this explanation gives rise to a further question, why the population is showing a more steady increase in Dungarpur than in the neighbouring parts. I am inclined to think that rainfall to some extent and the standard of living of the people to a great extent are responsible for this increase. It is populated mostly by Bhils and Minas who form 57 per cent of the total population and 61 per cent of its rural population. Their standard of living is much lower than that of other agricultural communities. They have very few wants, a loin cloth measuring a yard and a half of Khadi would last a Bhil for half an year. The hill slopes and the valleys produce sufficient maize to feed him, and the forest products—the fuel and the fodder which he sells—bring him money to meet his limited necessities of life. Thus a larger number of mouths can be fed and clothed from the same area of land than in the other parts where the standard of living of the people is higher. Illiteracy and the backwardness of the people resulting in their immobility and attachment to home are other factors which prevent them from migrating to the neighbouring districts of Bombay State like Ahmedabad where they can get better living even by working as labourers in the factories. The birth rate amongst them is also believed to be higher and as regards death rate, although not blessed with modern medical facilities, they are in a way exempted from the diseases which are the necessary paraphernalia of the civilised society arising out of artificial ways of life. Consequently, they live longer.

65. The above discussion has shown that any of the factors rainfall, cultivable or irrigated area, or area under food crops taken singly, is apt to be a misleading test of density. It is a well-known economical maxim that population centers round fertile tracts. Unless any particular cause prevents it, the best lands of a village are those situated near the village side. It is a matter of common experience that hamlets spring up with improvement of soil, by irrigation or otherwise, should such lands happen to be far away from the village proper. Fertility of soil is, therefore, the primary element which affects density.

66. The conclusion drawn by Mr. Kealy, that "the main factors producing density are good and well distributed rainfall, fertile soil, absence of excessively large tracts of forest, hills and desert", still holds good to a very great extent. I wish to modify his conclusion by saying that the density in Rajasthan is determined by the combined influence of all the factors mentioned above; the density group depending upon the comparative strength of each factor. Generally speaking these factors are arranged below in the descending order of their influence: (1) Configuration; (2) Fertility of soil; (3) Rainfall and irrigation facilities; (4) Cultivated area; (5) Standard of living of the people; and lastly (6) Industrial and Commercial developments.

67. My predecessor in office Captain A.W.T. Webb had applied his brain to this point as early as 1941 and has left on record his sound opinion after a thorough discussion of the various relevant factors. I wish to carry the discussion further and implement it on the basis of the 1951 Census results and my own experience, and express my own opinion on the subject. But I wish to make it clear that it is only an opinion, although based on scientific principles, and should not be taken as an unflinching truth.

68. It is generally agreed that where rising birth and death-rates, unemployment and decreasing standard of living are to be found, there it can be assumed that the population has increased beyond the country's ability to nourish it. But the birth rates as far as records exist (and it has to be admitted that they are most unsatisfactory) show no sign of increase. Death rates again judged by the very inadequate vital statistics available, have no marked trend up or down. Even the available figures of births and deaths in Ajmer show a slight fall in each. Although statistics on the subject of unemployment are not available it is commonly known that unemployment in these States, if at all, is almost wholly an urban problem and hardly exists in rural areas. Figures to support this belief cannot be produced, but there are good reasons for believing that among urban families, members of which cannot find employment, the standard of living is decreasingly low. Concerning the villages, the simple truth is that, barring famine times, there are no "starving millions." Even in famine times cases of starvation are becoming rare due to better and more readily available famine relief schemes made possible by better communications. Farmers in respect of their own diets, are not much affected by high or low prices. They grow their own food, and the farmer, who sells or barter his own crop without keeping an adequate supply for his annual family nourishment is rare, to say the least. The people in rural Rajasthan live on a very simple diet ( Bajra, Moth, Gujji and little ghee or curds). The only question that arises is, whether this gives them sufficient strength and nourishment for work they have to perform. Considering that most of them work only some four months out of twelve, and that their hardest work is a few days' plough a year, which they can do with one hand as compared with 365 days' labour per annum, dawn to dusk, and ploughing with both hands till the shoulders are nearly wrenched out, which is the lot of farmers in most other lands, the answer is, of course, that their diet is sufficient for the work they have to perform.

69. As for signs of a decreasing standard of living there are none, at any rate in rural area. The people eat—the works of early writers attest this, precisely what they ate five hundred, perhaps a thousand years ago, both as regards quality and quantity. If they lack anything that their ancestors enjoyed in dim past it is milk. It is said of ancient India that it was blessed with rivers of milk; all the cows in Rajasthan today could not fill one small brook. It may be argued that, if the peasants had more to eat, they could work harder and earn more. But this argument ignores two tremendous factors, the limits imposed by nature, and the effect of climate upon the people.

70. In Rajasthan and Ajmer the busy agricultural time is the monsoon season and the few months that follow it. But the monsoon season follows immediately after the hot weather, when stores of energy are depleted to their lowest level. Then comes the cold weather, which over most of the country fails dismally to serve its purpose of vitalising and energising (and incidentally provides the exception to the generally accepted theory that frost and enervation are mutually repellent) because the people have long ago lost the stamina to enable them to stand up to its rigours. All their energy goes in keeping themselves alive, and if any is left over, the hot weather sets in to sap it. So it follows that as far as the human element here is concerned, we must accept, in all things where physical energy is concerned, the present pace of Rajasthan will continue much as now, and that what in other countries would be regarded as chronic under-employment will remain as a normal feature. In short, most of the people of Rajasthan have become steeped in an indifferentism, which is rooted in a physical fact—the climate. Theirs is not a working life, in fact, but rather an existence moving sometimes hopefully, sometimes doubtfully through the years.

71. No one, it is thought, is likely to quarrel with the statement that Rajasthan, compared with most other parts of India, is healthy. In the cities and towns, of course, can be found all those diseases associated with over-crowding and bad sanitary conditions. In the rural areas, however, there are, broadly speaking, only two common forms of sickness which afflict the people. They are malaria and guinea-worm, and both are usually widespread after the monsoon breaks and when everyone is busiest. Without any great effort or outlay, both these scourges could be abolished in a few years.

72. The answer to the question, therefore, is that till now in the rural areas none of the accepted signs of over-population are visible, unless it be the excess of emigration over immigration, a condition which may point to the existence of over-population yet contains in itself a remedy for that ill. In urban areas signs of over-population are already pushing up their ugly heads, and unless something is done and done quickly the situation is certain to deteriorate even further. A scheme for industrialisation could presumably meet this, but even then the expectation, that industry would absorb those now unemployed in towns, would have few chances of success unless and until educated youths give up the ridiculous notion that the proper reward, for matriculating or for getting a degree, is quill-driving in an office. The imbecility of this idea is obvious, one would think but if it is not, we might invoke the aid of propaganda, "the most powerful instrument yet devised by man, and one that properly (and even improperly) used can work miracles."

73. Shri N. S. Chowdhry, Statistician, Agriculture Department, Rajasthan has in his note on the subject-whether the amount of net consumable food grain is keeping pace with growth of population-concludes on the basis of available figures for the year 1950-51 that allowing for a net consumable food grain per capita amounting to 4 maunds per annum, the produce in Rajasthan in a normal year is just sufficient to support its present population. The slightest change in the seasonal conditions may necessitate the import of food grains. And we have, however, good reason for assuming that famines and epidemics in future, will never again reap the ghastly harvest they did previously. This as well as the expected increase in the next decade will form part of our discussion in Section 3 on Growth of Population.

### SECTION 3.

#### Growth.

1. In the previous section we have seen that density of population is increasing since 1921. The growth of density depends upon the growth of population. In this section, therefore, we shall try to examine the variation in population from decade to decade in these States and their component parts.

2. The variation in the population of the States during the last 50 years is given in Main Table A-II in Part II-A of the Census Report. Subsidiary Table 1.2 in Part I-B of the Report gives variation and density of the general population of the State, the Natural Divisions and the districts during the last three decades. Similarly Subsidiary Table 1.3 in the same volume gives the mean decennial growth rate for the State and its different units, which is not the ordinary rate of percentage variation, which expresses the growth of population, from what it was at the beginning of the decade. For a comparison of the growth rates of different States, the usual method is to compare the mean decennial growth rate. These rates are arrived at by expressing the difference between the general population totals of two successive censuses as a percentage of the arithmetical mean of these totals. In short "percentage variation" is based on the population of the earlier of the two censuses concerned, the "mean decennial growth rate" is based on the mean population of the two censuses. The difference involved is small, but is nevertheless considered necessary in order to ensure comparability of growth rates over long periods.



3. The population of Rajasthan in March, 1951 was 15,290,797 and that of Ajmer 693,372 as we have already seen. This is the highest figure ever recorded. But it has not risen to this number in a day. In fact it is the result of a growth extending over several decades, or even centuries. There is no authentic record about the population figures of Rajasthan, prior to census period. The earliest census of which the figures of Rajasthan and Ajmer States are available was that held in 1881 and from that period our knowledge of growth of population in these States rests on a surer ground. Yet the actual census figures cannot be taken at their face value. They vitiate the increase for two reasons: first changes in areas took place in each decade: and second, improvements in enumeration methods were made each time. In all the tables prepared at this census, therefore, figures of past censuses, as published in those reports, have been adjusted to represent the population of the units as comprised on March 1, 1951. But we have no means to measure the extent of variation due to improved methods. However, from whatever knowledge we have, it can be said with some amount of certainty that variation due to this reason is negligible so far as Rajasthan and Ajmer States are concerned.

4. The adjusted figures are given in the inset Table No. 24 which shows that the population now recorded is the highest since the Census of 1891 when a considerable portion of Bhil population was estimated and not enumerated.

TABLE No. 24.

## Variation in Population since 1881

Year	Adjusted Population	Variation from decade to decade.
<b>Rajasthan</b>		
1881	9,941,578	..
1891	11,967,571	+2,025,993
1901	9,886,629	-2,080,942
1911	10,559,282	+ 672,653
1921	9,868,088	- 691,194
1931	11,264,300	+1,396,212
1941	13,306,232	+2,041,932
1951	15,290,797	+1,984,565
<b>Ajmer</b>		
1881	460,722	..
1891	482,246	+ 21,524
1901	426,127	- 56,119
1911	449,232	+ 23,105
1921	446,842	- 2,390
1931	506,964	+ 60,122
1941	583,693	+ 76,729
1951	693,372	+ 109,679

It is unfortunate that in the first really accurate census, that of 1901, the population was considerably reduced on account of a series of years of scanty rainfall, culminating in the severe famine of 1899-1900 with its attendant lower birth-rate and increased emigration. The power of recovery among our people is however shown by the figures for 1911, which would have been higher, had it not been for an epidemic of plague and, in some parts, of cholera and small pox. The decade ending in 1921 saw the population at its lowest recorded limit as a result of a very severe outbreak of influenza in 1918. The variations from census to census resemble "mighty swings of nature's pendulum" and the present population of Rajasthan is only 3,780,237 more than the average of the past 70 years and that of Ajmer is 187,222. On the basis of these figures it can be said with some confidence that the average percentage of increase of population since 1881 in Rajasthan was 0.77 per year and in Ajmer 0.72 per year. This was slightly more than the estimated rate for the whole world "(0.69) from 1850 to 1940 and that of India as a whole (0.60) from 1871 to 1941".\* The growth in Rajasthan is, therefore, not exceptional either way but close to average. It is, however, less than that found in Europe, in North America and in good many particular countries.

\* Population of India and Pakistan by Kingsley Davis pp. 26-27



5. The total increase in Rajasthan during 1881-1950 was 53·8 per cent. "It was 52 per cent. in India as a whole during 1871-1940. The British Isles during the period 1871 to 1940 increased 57 per cent; similarly Japan during the 70 years period from 1871 to 1940 experienced a growth of approximately 120 per cent. and the United States a growth of 230 per cent".\*

**Comparison with other countries.** Clearly Rajasthan's past increase has not been rapid when compared with that of countries farther along in the Industrial Revolution. The popular notion that it has been faster than in most modern countries: a notion derived from the massiveness, density and poverty of the population is obviously unwarranted. Nevertheless, the 53·8 per cent. increase in 70 years is abnormal when compared with the growth in India and in any other country prior to 18th century. During the last three centuries the population of the whole world has been growing at a phenomenally fast rate, the fastest ever known. India's and consequently Rajasthan's increase is simply part of this world movement.

6. In recent decades, broadly speaking since about 1910—the growth of population has slackened considerably in Great Britain and other West European countries as reported by the Royal Commission on population (page 8 para 28th Report). The rate of population growth has also been declining in most of the overseas countries which are now inhabited mainly by people of European descent, *e. g.*, the United States, Australia, New-Zealand and Canada. Indeed, the period of fastest expansion took place longer ago in these countries than in North West Europe. On the other hand, the slackening of their rate of growth has been more gradual and their populations are still increasing fairly rapidly. In the U.S.S.R. and in most countries of Southern and Eastern Europe, population growth has not so far declined substantially (periods of war omitted) from the high level reached in the 19th century, and this is true also of Japan.

7. Many of our country-men, therefore, say that there is no reason why we should be afraid of the growth of population as we have such vast resources. According to them, you can increase in number indefinitely and yet have a higher standard of life, and the latest slogan is that if we only have a trained enterprise, everybody will be happy in this world. Experience of the Europeans during the period of 200 years—certainly during a period of 150 years—lends powerful support to this illusion that if only you develop industries you can increase population indefinitely and give it an increased higher standard of life. For, undoubtedly, Europe did increase about four times during the last two centuries and it is quite un-disputed that the standard of living of all Europeans has gone up during these 200 years tremendously. They have been given better services and have been made comfortable in every way. But the illusion is there. Is it the greater number of industries which did this miracle? The most significant point to be remembered is that this growth rate was sustained not by factories and industrialisation of Europe, as is the common belief, but by the expanding cultivation in America and Oceania. This fundamental fact must be clearly understood though, unfortunately, very few appreciate it at present. Iron and Steel, or Cement have their uses; but they cannot replace food, and except for fishing, food-stuffs must come directly or indirectly from the soil. The Westerners established and improved their standard of life because cultivation was progressing at such a terrific speed that they could get food cheaply to any extent they needed; besides they had the vacant continents to spread out. Our fight for food, on the other hand, is becoming more and more acute and we are increasingly depending on uncertain imports to feed our people. In Chapter IV we will discuss how our food production has failed to keep pace with our growth of population during the last three decades and in the concluding section of this Chapter we will point out how emigration as a remedy to solve our population problem even temporarily, is not available to us and how only a supreme effort to control the population growth and an all-out endeavour to develop our food resources can alone save us from catastrophic consequences.

\*Population of India and Pakistan by Kingsley Davis Page 27.

TABLE No. 25.

Mean Decennial Growth Rate since 1891.

Years.	Rajasthan	Ajmer.
1891	+ 18.5	+ 4.6
1901	- 19.0	- 12.4
1911	+ 6.6	+ 5.3
1921	- 6.8	- 0.5
1931	+ 13.2	+ 12.6
1941	+ 16.6	+ 14.1
1951	+ 13.9	+ 17.2

8. Another feature of Rajasthan's population growth since 1881 has been its extreme sporadic nature. This can be seen by examining the variation in each decade as shown in the inset Table No. 25. These figures show that upto 1921, the decades of marked increase have regularly alternated with decades of decrease. The greater part of census period thus conforms to the pattern of sporadic growth believed to have existed in earlier times: the net effect of which was one of long range fixity rather than growth of numbers. The Superintendent, Census Operations in Rajputana

and Ajmer-Merwara has in his Report of 1931, in fact, remarked that "The oscillations in the population of the Province with almost mathematical exactitude, from decade to decade, lead to remind one of the phenomenon of Nature, that events are repeated at intervals so as to keep things at par." In the decades of decrease, the trouble lay in one or other of the catastrophes *viz.*, war, famine and diseases. War as a determinant factor has now dropped out of the picture, leaving only famine and disease. During the 1891-1901 decade, there occurred the notorious Chhapania famine and during the 1911-21 decennium, the great influenza epidemic of 1918. We know that these calamities were largely responsible for the decrease in population in the decades when they occurred. During the other decades called "Normal", no wide-spread catastrophes occurred and the population grew rapidly.

9. In the decade 1941-51, a major factor contributing to population growth, is the relative better health and prosperity of the people. On the negative side, no nation-wide or even province-wide epidemic or any similar catastrophe laid waste the country. Nor was there any famine comparable in intensity to those of earlier decades. There has been some improvement in public health measures in these States. While improved public health policies have a delayed effect on the quantity and quality of the people, they have an immediate effect in keeping alive persons who otherwise would have died and many of these reach the stage of reproduction in the course of a decade. If a girl or young woman is saved from premature death by cholera, it means not only that one life has been saved, but also that she is going to add to the population on reaching the period of reproduction. The marked reduction in epidemic mortality in Rajasthan for the decade 1941-51 is in sharp contrast to the decade 1911-21, which suffered seriously from the influenza epidemic of 1918-20. This factor partly accounts for the growth of our population in this decade.

10. The second reason, though not a very important one, is the increasing improvement in the census operations which represent a triumph in organisation. The 1941 census year was a "peaceful" year despite the fact that India was technically a belligerent country. The last Census of 1951 was also significant for the cooperation offered on the part of the people to the census authorities. The lack of national or people's government at the centre in the past had prevented close cooperation between the people and the government to the extent that under-enumeration had been a common feature of the census. The Government of India Act 1935 enfranchised millions of people and those who had thus become politically conscious thought that getting registered on the census schedule was equivalent to finding a permanent place on the electoral roll. Therefore, every body made an effort to get into the census schedule. With the achievement of political freedom and the adoption of adult suffrage, the enumeration and registration has been more complete.

11. On the other hand although no unusual mortality took place in these States on account of famine or other causes as happened in Bengal during the decade 1941-50, it was by no means a period free from grave anxieties which have to be borne in mind to appreciate the background in which the growth of population took place during the decade which actually opened under

an unprecedented gloom. Scarcity conditions in these States gave cause for concern. The development in the War, the loss of Burma, and Bengal famine had their severe impact. Prices shot up in an unprecedented manner. The political atmosphere was by no means calm. Men's minds were disturbed with different ideologies. The struggle for freedom seemed to be the watch-word of the day. These years have witnessed epoch-making events and grim human tragedies, almost unprecedented in human history. The passing away of an Empire, the partition of India followed by the horrors of communal blood-bath, the uprooting of millions, the murder of Gandhijee, the Father of our Nation, and the consequent darkness and gloom that enveloped the entire country, were events of magnitude in the past decade. As a result of vague uncertainties caused by events in other places, a large number of Muslims began to migrate from these States specially from Ajmer. The rush of displaced persons from Pakistan into India is a history by itself. The movement meant the arrival of 297,066 people in Rajasthan and 71,351 in Ajmer. The aftermath of the famine of 1940, the floods of 1943, the food shortage of 1946 which necessitated the introduction, for the first time in the history of these States, of the food grain rationing, the independence movement and the formation of popular Government were other important features of the decade. The back-ground in which the growth of population has taken place in the State during the last decade is, therefore, unusually complicated.

TABLE No. 26.

The mean Decennial Growth Rates of Rajasthan and some of the adjacent States.

State	Growth rate during		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
Rajasthan ..	13.2	16.6	13.9
Ajmer ..	12.6	14.1	17.2
Madhya Pradesh ..	11.9	9.8	7.9
Madhya Bharat ..	11.2	13.0	10.4
Bihar ..	10.9	11.5	9.6
Madras ..	9.4	11.0	13.4
Bombay ..	12.4	15.3	20.8
Travancore Cochin	23.31	17.27	21.22
Vindhya Pradesh	8.77	12.60	5.99
Orissa ..	11.3	9.7	6.2

12. The inset Table No. 26 shows the mean decennial growth rate of Rajasthan and some of the other States of India. The figures show that the mean decennial growth rate has increased in Rajasthan, Ajmer, Madras and Bombay, while it has fallen in all other States given in the table.

13. The mean decennial growth rates of India as a whole and its main divisions are given in Table No. 27 (The figures exclude the population of Jammu and Kashmir and Part 'B' of the tribal areas of Assam).

TABLE No. 27.

The mean Decennial Growth Rates of India and its main Divisions. \*

Name of territory	Mean decennial growth rate		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
India ..	10.5	13.3	12.5
North India ..	6.5	12.7	11.5
North-East India ..	10.8	14.4	10.7
South India ..	10.9	11.7	15.2
West & South Central India ..	13.1	13.9	17.5
North Central India ..	11.2	10.8	7.8
North-West India ..	11.3	16.9	9.6

\* The figures are based on Preliminary analysis of the growth of general population by the Registrar General.

14. The figures show that the mean decennial growth rate of the general population of Rajasthan rose by 3·4 per cent between the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 and has fallen between the decades 1931-40 and 1941-50 by 2·7 per cent., while that of Ajmer has continuously increased, by 1·5 per cent between the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 and by 3·1 per cent. in the past decade. The trend in Rajasthan resembles, to some extent, the trend observed in India in general and North India in particular and the States of Madhya Bharat, Bihar and Vindhya Pradesh, that is to say, a rise in the middle decade and a fall in the last. It is different from that observable in Ajmer, Bombay and Madras where there is a steady rise. Orissa and Madhya Pradesh on the contrary show a steady fall and Travancore Cochin a fall in the middle and a rise again in the end. The census records show that the figures of the censuses under review for Rajasthan and Ajmer are reliable and further that the accuracy of the censuses has been gradually improving, thus reducing the chances of under enumeration; therefore, the figures indicating an overall rise in the growth rate in Rajasthan as well as Ajmer mean that the rise is real.

15. But before trying to form any idea about the future growth rate on the basis of the above figures let us see how this growth rate varies from one Natural Division to another and from one district to another. Subsidiary Table 1·3 in Part I-B of the Report gives the mean decennial growth rate in the Natural Divisions and districts of Rajasthan and Ajmer from decade to decade. The Table No. 28 shows the figures for the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan.

TABLE No. 28.  
Mean decennial growth rate in Natural Divisions.

Natural Divisions.	Mean decennial growth rate		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	9·6	13·9	13·7
Rajasthan Dry Area Division. ..	19·9	22·4	15·7
Rajasthan Hills Division. ..	15·0	16·0	15·9
Rajasthan Plateau Division. ..	10·4	13·9	8·5

16. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division the rise in the growth rate is of 4·1% during the period 1921-30 and 1941-50. There is a rise of 4·3% in the growth rate between decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 and a slight fall of 0·2% in the last decade between 1931-40 and 1941-50. On a comparison with the Rajasthan State as a whole it will be noticed that the rate in this Division does follow the same pattern more or less, in the sense, that the increase in the growth rate between the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 in this Division roughly corresponds to the increase in Rajasthan as a whole namely 4·3 per cent. in this division and 3·4 in the Rajasthan State. But the fall in the growth rate between the decade 1931-40 and 1941-50 is less in this division when compared to Rajasthan as a whole namely in this division the fall is only by 0·2 per cent. while in Rajasthan it is 2·7 per cent. This indicates that in this division the growth is more or less steady since 1921.

17. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the picture is quite different so far as the growth between the decades 1931-40 and 1941-50 is concerned. Here there is a conspicuous fall in the growth rate by 6·7 per cent. This fall is the greatest here when compared with other Divisions of Rajasthan. The growth between the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 more or less follows the pattern of Rajasthan as well as that of the Plain and Plateau Divisions. On the whole this Division shows a fall in the growth rate by 4·2 per cent. since 1921.

18. In the Rajasthan Hills Division, neither is there a conspicuous rise in the growth rate between the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 nor a significant fall in the rate between the decades 1931-40 and 1941-50. It shows a slight overall increase in the growth rate since 1921 viz. 0·9 per cent.

19. In the Rajasthan Plateau Division there is on the whole a fall in the growth rate by 1.9 per cent since 1921. The growth rate between the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 is of the same nature as observed in the case of Rajasthan State as a whole and East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Dry Area Division. The fall in the growth rate in the decades 1931-40 and 1941-50 is 5.4 per cent. This fall is nearly twice as great as that observed in the case of Rajasthan as a whole.

20. To sum up, the growth rate is falling at a rapid pace in Rajasthan Dry Area Division and next to it in the Rajasthan Plateau Division. The reasons so far as Rajasthan Dry Area is concerned can be found only in the inhospitable nature of the soil, cultivation of which depends solely on the vagaries of the monsoon, where famine is the rule and good year is an exception. Leaving aside famine years, even during normal times a considerable number of people of this area live abroad for their livelihood. The richer community carry on their trade and business outside and are commonly known as Marwaris in those places. Those in less affluent circumstances engage themselves as servants to businessmen or domestic servants mostly in the towns of Bombay State. Unhappily we have not got figures of persons born in Rajasthan enumerated elsewhere by districts of their birth, therefore, it is not easy to support the above opinion by means of statistics. In the case of Rajasthan Plateau Division no definite reasons could be ascertained. Here the density in 1941 and in 1931 being above the mean density of Rajasthan as a whole may have showed its reaction. But without a further research this phenomenon cannot be satisfactorily explained.

21. Out of the eight districts of this Division four namely, Jaipur (24.8 per cent.), Tonk (21.0 per cent.), Jhunjhunu (18.8 per cent.) and Bhilwara (14.2 per cent.) show a mean decennial growth in the decade 1941-50 higher than that of Rajasthan as a whole (13.9 per cent.) and the remaining four show a growth rate lower namely, Sawai Madhopur 11.47 per cent., Bharatpur 5.2 per cent., Alwar 1.9 per cent. and Sikar 9.6 per cent. The growth rate in Jaipur District is the highest when compared with all other districts of Rajasthan and that of Alwar is the lowest.

22. *Jaipur District*:—This district shows a steady increase in the growth rate since 1921. The reason for the high growth rate during the decade 1941-50 is evident. It was in this decade that Jaipur City has been made the capital of the newly formed Rajasthan State resulting in an inflow of Government Departments, including Military, Police, etc., their staff and dependants, from all parts of the State as well as of businessmen, industrialists etc. for whom fresh field for their enterprise has been created. The growth in the Jaipur City alone during the decade 1941-50 (from 175,810 in 1941 to 291,130 in 1951) would testify to the truth of the above statement. This district shows a steady rise in growth rate from decade to decade. In the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 its trend is more or less similar to that observed in East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan State in general, the growth rate in this district having increased by 2.1 per cent.,

TABLE No. 29.

## Variation in Growth rate in Jaipur District

Decade	Mean decennial growth rate
1	2
1921-30	10.9
1931-40	13.0
1941-50	24.8

although this increase is lower than that of East Rajasthan Plain Division by nearly half. It has shown an overall rise in growth rate by 13.9 per cent. since 1921 as shown in the inset Table No.29. The increase in 1921-30 is partially ascribed to the many improvements in the condition of the people brought about by the minority administration in the shape of increased facilities for employment, improved communications and a stimulus to trade and industry. The same can be said to be true of the next decade.

23. *Tonk District*:—The figures of Tonk District tell a different tale as seen in the inset Table No. 30. Here we notice a sudden fall in the growth rate in the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40

TABLE No. 30.

Variation in growth rate in Tonk District.

Decade	Mean decennial growth rate
1921-30	15.3
1931-40	10.3
1941-50	21.0

and almost a double rise in the rate during the last decade. In the absence of vital statistics or statistics of casualties due to major epidemics no definite reasons can be attributed for the fall in the middle period. The general impression is that the heavy mortality due to influenza amongst people of reproductive age groups in the year 1918 is to some extent responsible. The rise in the growth rate has been 5.7 per cent. since 1921.

24. *Alwar District*:—This district stands prominent for its lowest growth rate in the whole State in the decade 1941-50 and almost lowest in the previous two decades and an overall fall in the rate by 4.7 per cent. The reasons for the low growth in the last decade are said to be emigration of Meos (Muslims) to Pakistan due to partition and the reasons for the previous decades are given below as quoted from the previous census reports.

25. "A good deal of the drop in the decade 1901-10 seems due to emigration which is probably to a great extent temporary, due to outbreaks of plague between September 1910 and March 1911 in many parts of the State, but especially in Alwar City and Rajgarh Town, which drove many people out of the State. But the scarcities of 1903-05 and 1906-07 and famine of 1905-06, no doubt, have left their effects on the population. The decade seems to have been more disastrous to children under 10 years than to others." "The decrease in 1911-20 also seems to be due to emigration and the ravages of epidemics. The slight rise in age-group 5-10, coupled with the loss in all the groups and reduction in the proportion of married females aged 15-40 to hundred females of all ages, forebodes an inauspicious future." "The all round increase in 1921-30 is attributed to the absence of scarcity and epidemics and to the reclamation of waste lands which has attracted immigrants from neighbouring States. The 1921 Census Report foreboded an inauspicious future for the progress of the population and based the gloomy prediction on the loss occasioned by a decrease in immigration and a greater number of emigrants combined with a reduced proportion of married females of child bearing ages."

26. The inset Table No. 31 shows the mean decennial growth rate of this district from decade to decade. The trend of growth rate is similar to that of the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan as a whole, namely, a rise in the rate between the decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 and a fall in the last decade.

TABLE No. 31.

Variation in growth rate in Alwar District.

Decade	Mean decennial growth rate
1921-30	6.6
1931-40	9.3
1941-50	1.9



27. *Bharatpur District*:—This district comes next from the point of view of low growth rate. The inset Table No. 32 gives the figures. The net increase in the growth rate since 1921 is 3·1 per cent. The general pattern from decade to decade is similar to Alwar District.

TABLE No. 32.

Variation in growth rate in Bharatpur District.

Decade	Mean decennial growth rate
1921-30	2·1
1931-40	15·0
1941-50	5·2

The reasons for very low growth rate in the first decade can be attributed to the same cause as has been seen in the Alwar District. The reasons for the comparatively low growth rate during the previous decades have been discussed in detail in the reports of the past censuses from which one will be shocked to find that the old Bharatpur State which is now Bharatpur Sub-Division of the Bharatpur District (other Sub-Division being the old Dholpur State) had been noted for a steady decline in population since 1881. It is only in the last decade that the decrease has stopped. The reasons of this can be summarised as epidemics, and emigration due to want of industrial development in the district and attractions in the neighbouring towns of Uttar Pradesh *viz.* Mathura and Agra.

TABLE No. 33

Variation in growth rate of other districts in East Rajasthan Plain Division

District	Mean decennial growth rate in decades		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
Sawai Madhopur.	9·6	12·2	11·4
Jhunjhunu ..	13·8	19·1	18·1
Sikar ..	11·9	16·5	9·6
Bhilwara ..	13·5	17·6	14·2

28. The inset Table No. 33 shows the growth rate of the remaining districts of this division, all of which follow the growth rate pattern of East Rajasthan Plain Division. But growth rate in Sikar District has fallen by 2·3 per cent. since 1921 while in Jhunjhunu the rate has increased by 4·3 per cent. In Sawai Madhopur the overall increase has been by 1·8 per cent. and that in Bhilwara has been by 0·7 per cent. only.

29. Of the districts comprised in this Division Churu, Ganganagar, Jodhpur, Jalore, Pali and Nagaur are typical of this Division and show a growth rate more or less similar to that observed in this Division so far as the last decade is concerned. The inset Table No. 34 shows the figures from which we see that in the previous decades they show wide differences. Let us examine each of the districts in detail. The Districts Jodhpur, Churu and Pali follow the same pattern as the Dry Area division. The instance of Ganganagar is well-known. The canal colonisation is responsible for high growth rate in 1921-30 and some what lower, though still higher than the rest of the districts, in the decade 1931-40. The present decade has brought the growth rate something near the average of the Division. A slight upward step is due to the canal colonisation. The effect of migration on this growth rate has been discussed in Section 4 from which we find that in the last decade the movement of population due to partition of the country resulted in a net gain of 17,211 persons in this district only. The fluctuations observable in the figures of Jalore and Nagaur are too minor to deserve minute examination. They show a more or less steady growth rate during the

TABLE No. 34.

Variation in growth rate of some Districts in Rajasthan Dry Area Division.

District	Mean decennial growth rate during the decade		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
Churu ..	20·0	21·9	13·9
Ganganagar ..	67·8	42·8	16·5
Jodhpur ..	14·9	23·0	18·7
Jalore ..	14·5	13·2	13·9
Nagaur ..	15·3	14·4	15·1
Pali ..	15·9	16·0	17·3

last three decades with a slight tendency towards a fall.



TABLE No. 35.

Variation in growth rate of other districts in Rajasthan Dry Area Division.

District	Mean decennial growth rate during the decade		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
Barmer ..	8.6	25.6	19.4
Bikaner ..	16.9	29.6	8.4
Jaisalmer ..	12.0	20.0	9.7

30. The remaining districts of this Division namely Barmer, Bikaner and Jaisalmer of which the figures are given in the inset Table No. 35 stand on the opposite extremes, Barmer on the one and Bikaner and Jaisalmer on the other. Jaisalmer is too well-known to deserve any special comments. Its people remain moving about according to the nature of the agricultural condition from year to year. Figures of the decade 1931—40 follow the general trend of the rest of the districts of the Division.

31. The reasons for the rise in Bikaner in the decade 1921—30 as given in the Rajputana Agency Report are "(1) an absence of epidemics, (2) normal rainfall (3) opening of the Gang Canal and an increase of more than 300,000 acres of irrigated land, (4) the extension of Railway Mileage from 509 to 796, (5) the separation of the State Railway from joint working with the Jodhpur State Railway and consequent erection of workshop at the Capital, (6) the opening of new Mandis especially in the Gang Canal area, (7) the impetus given to industry by irrigation and extension of Railways and lastly, (8) the return to their homes of persons who had emigrated especially from the northern tehsils on account of scarcity prior to the Census of 1921". About the decade 1931—40, Capt. Webb, Superintendent of Census Operations, Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara 1941, writes, "And when one speaks of Bikaner, one's thoughts travel immediately to one man, who has been the embodiment of all that Bikaner stands for during the last half century. That man is His Highness the Maharaja Sir Ganga Singhji Bahadur. It seems indeed that in this outstanding personality we find an answer to our riddle." The significant fall in the last decade is believed by the Collector to be due to the famine conditions obtaining for the last two years resulting in a temporary migration of the people.

32. The slight high growth rate in Barmer in the last decade is attributable mainly to the immigration of displaced persons who are 6,698 in number, because Barmer is the first town in India on the way from Pakistan to India. The reason of very high growth in 1931—40, and very low one in 1921—30 could not be ascertained.

33. The districts of Udaipur and Banswara more or less show a growth rate nearer to the growth rate of the Division in the decade 1941—50 but the trend from Rajasthan Hills Division. decade to decade is slightly different as we see in the inset Table No. 36 that in Banswara the growth rate has not risen during the decade

TABLE No. 36.

Variation in growth of districts in Rajasthan Hills Division.

Mean decennial growth rate during the decades.

District	Mean decennial growth rate during the decades.		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
1	2	3	4
Udaipur ..	13.5	17.6	16.2
Dungarpur ..	18.4	18.6	11.7
Banswara ..	17.1	14.0	17.3
Sirohi ..	14.9	7.4	18.4

in the subsequent decade. One of the reasons may be its higher density and the hilly nature

1931—40 but shows a decline, while in the case of Udaipur District the trend follows the pattern of the Division. The districts of Dungarpur and Sirohi stand on opposite extremes, so far as the growth rate for the decade 1941—50 is concerned, that of Sirohi being highest viz. 18.4 per cent and that of Dungarpur being the lowest viz. 11.7 per cent. The aforesaid growth rates are also the highest and the lowest respectively for this Division during the last decade. It is worth noticing that Dungarpur has been showing for the half century before 1941 a relatively more steady increase than many of its neighbouring districts. This accelerated growth rate has begun to decline since the decade 1931—40 and the decline has been marked

of the country with very little scope for cultivation. The rate since 1921 has increased by 3.5 per cent in Sirohi, 2.7 per cent in Udaipur District and 0.2 per cent in Banswara District while it has decreased by 6.7 per cent in Dungarpur.

TABLE No. 37.

Variation in the growth of districts in Rajasthan Plateau Division.

District	Mean decennial growth rate during the decades		
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50
I	2	3	4
Chittorgarh..	13.4	16.9	12.1
Kotah ..	7.2	12.4	5.2
Bundi ..	14.7	14.0	11.8
Jhalawar ..	9.7	12.7	7.4

35. Ajmer State shows quite a different trend of growth from that of Rajasthan or even the East Rajasthan Plain Division to which it is more akin. It is showing a steady rise, the rise being 1.5 per cent between decades 1921-30 and 1931-40 and 3.1 per cent during the last decade. There has been an over all increase in the growth rate by 4.6 per cent.

36. The above review of the rate of growth of the population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions and Districts remains incomplete without a review of the causes of the differences and the fluctuations. But without accurate and adequate data on the subject it is no use grouping about in the dark in pursuit of such reasons. It is safe to leave the topic here for those interested in the subject to carry on further research in this important aspect of the demography of our State. But it would no doubt be worth while applying our mind to the relation of present growth with the density at the end of the past decade.

TABLE No. 38.

Density and Growth of certain districts

Districts	Growth in 1941-50	Density in 1941
Barmer ..	19.4	36
Jodhpur ..	18.7	61

34. All the Districts of this Division except Rajasthan Plateau Division. Bundi roughly correspond to the trend of the growth rate of the Division showing a rise in the middle decade and a fall again in the last decade. In Bundi there is no rise in the middle decade, on the contrary it shows a steady fall. The inset Table No. 37 shows that there has been a fall in the growth rate of all the districts of this Division throughout, varying from 2.9 per cent in Bundi to 1.3 per cent in Chittorgarh. Districts of Kotah and Jhalawar occupy an intermediate position, their growth rate having fallen by 2.0 per cent and 2.3 per cent respectively. The highest growth rate in this decade in the Division has been in Chittorgarh District being 12.1 per cent and the lowest in Kotah being 5.2 per cent.

37. The density in Rajasthan is so variable that it is impossible to consider the question of movement or growth of the population without going into the question of the distribution and variation of density, for, as we have seen, density of population here depends not on industry, as in the United Kingdom, but on agriculture, and is greatest of course in the most fertile areas. In the Census of 1921 the Superintendent Census Operations Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara, had, on the basis of statistics, come to the conclusion that "There is no direct relation between the variation in population and

its density. The country is, on the whole, very thinly peopled and there cannot be any marked tendency on account of pressure of population on the soil for people to move from one part to another. People are much disinclined to leave their native place to change one master for another. The most densely populated States, *viz.*, Bharatpur, Dholpur and Alwar still show a decline, as in the previous decade. Of the 7 States those which show an increase in population this time, were lowest in density in 1911." At this census, also, leaving aside Jaipur the greatest increase is in the districts of Tonk, Barmer and Jodhpur where generally speaking the density in 1941 was lowest as shown in the table No. 38 and therefore the increase in the population shown by the figures of this census appears at first sight indicative of pressure upon the margin of cultivation. The greatest increase has been in Jaipur 28·3 per cent, this must be put down largely to the increase due to its being made the capital of the State and to the consequent immigration from outside. Obviously the greatest increase in population is to be expected in areas such as Tonk where the rainfall is above the mean and the density of the population below it. Where the rainfall and the density are at balance, that is, where the population is dense and the rainfall is just adequate irrigation has abated the liability to complete loss of crop, and improved communication have made it possible to prevent heavy loss of life in times of scarcity, thus enabling the population to increase on the margin of subsistence. How high a population can be supported by agriculture when conditions are favourable is shown by Ganganagar with areas here and there carrying over 200 persons to the sq. mile while the density of a Tehsil with similar soil and climatic conditions is only 6 persons to a square mile in Jaisalmer. In such areas, the increase in the population has been higher than in the sparsely populated areas like Jaisalmer or Bikaner or Sikar District where there is no general extension of irrigation, although there would appear to be more scope for an extension of cultivation. On the other hand when the thickly populated areas are examined in detail it appears that the actual rate of increase in population is greatest in less populated, and less fertile areas. Where, therefore, there is a population already dense, there is a clearly perceptible spread towards the less profitable land. The low rate of growth in Kotah and Jhalawar may lead us to believe that the present density is just sufficient and that in spite of the fertility of soil and good rainfall the cultivated land is not capable of supporting any extra population.

TABLE No. 39.

Growth rate and density of densest districts.

District	Density	Mean decennial growth 1941—50
Bharatpur	275	5·2
Alwar	260	1·9
Jhunjhunu	212	18·1
Sikar	209	9·6
Jaipur	205	24·8
Dungarpur	187	11·7
Sawai Madhopur	162	11·4
Chittorgarh	161	12·1
Banswara	154	17·3
Kotah	152	5·2
Jhalawar	150	7·4

38. The inset Table No. 39 shows the densest districts of Rajasthan, (*i.e.* those with a density more than 150 persons per square mile in 1941) and their mean decennial growth rate, from which it is evident that eight out of the eleven districts show a growth below the State average. The only three districts in which the growth has become comparatively higher are (1) Jaipur (which is an exception in itself), (2) Jhunjhunu, and (3) Banswara. The density in the districts of Bharatpur and Alwar was already high in 1941 (being 275 and 260 respectively). These districts possess a larger number of persons per sq. mile than any of the districts in the State, and therefore, increase in the population in such localities cannot be expected to be so high as is possible in tracts where the pressure of the population on the land is appreciably less.

39. The following Table No. 40 compares the districts of Rajasthan including Ajmer State with each other in this respect.

TABLE : o. 40.

Districts of Rajasthan and Ajmer compared with respect to relation of density with growth rate.

District	Mean decennial growth rate 1941-50	Density in 1941	Actual increase in number of persons per sq. mile 1941-50	Position in order in Rajasthan & Ajmer combined in			
				Growth in population	Increase in persons per sq. mile	Area	Population
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Jaipur ..	24.8	205	58	1	1	9	1
2 Tonk ..	21.0	91	21	2	8	15	19
3 Barmer ..	19.4	36	7	3	16	2	18
4 Jodhpur ..	18.7	61	12	4	13	3	10
5 Sirohi ..	18.4	118	24	5	5	25	25
6 Jhunjhunu ..	18.1	212	43	6	2	22	14
7 Pali ..	17.3	117	22	9	7	12	12
8 Banswara ..	17.3	154	28	7	3	24	21
9 Ajmer ..	17.2	242	45	8	1	20	9
10 Ganganagar ..	16.5	65	12	10	13	5	13
11 Udaipur ..	16.2	146	25	11	4	6	2
12 Nagaur ..	15.1	95	16	12	10	7	7
13 Bhilwara ..	14.2	135	21	13	8	13	8
14 Jalore ..	13.9	81	12	14	13	10	17
15 Churu ..	13.9	70	10	15	14	8	16
16 Chittorgarh ..	12.1	161	21	16	8	17	15
17 Bundi ..	11.8	117	14	17	12	23	24
18 Dungarpur ..	11.7	187	23	18	6	26	23
19 Sawai Madhopur ..	11.4	162	20	19	9	14	6
20 Jaisalmer ..	9.7	6	0	20	19	1	26
21 Sikar ..	9.8	209	21	21	8	19	11
22 Bikaner ..	8.4	36	3	22	18	4	22
23 Jhalawar ..	7.4	150	12	23	13	21	20
24 Kotah ..	5.2	152	8	24	15	11	5
25 Bharatpur ..	5.2	275	15	25	11	18	3
26 Alwar ..	1.9	260	4	26	17	16	4

40. Let us now review the factors that generally influence the growth of population.

Several factors—sociological, economic, political, and religious—account directly or indirectly for this growth. The first, though not the most important factor, is the comparative peace that these States have been enjoying for nearly a century. Before that time, no part of the country enjoyed any long period of peace. Wars, famine, and epidemics were taking tremendous human toll, though epidemics and famines have not disappeared even today. In fact, these unstable conditions came to an end with the establishment of the British rule and no great portion of her manpower has been lost during the last several decades through wars comparable to what has happened on several battle fronts in the Second World War. The termination of British rule in 1947 has happily not altered the picture; and if the past can be any guide to the future there is no reason why this peace should not continue indefinitely.

41. Besides these, there are certain sociological factors that partly explain this decennial increase in population. Here unlike any country in the West, an overwhelming majority of the population is found to be in the married state. This by itself without a consideration of the age composition of the population does not mean much, except that it is potentially favourable towards increasing the population. Then the common and rather widely prevalent tendency to marry early with a socio-religious sanction behind it, has been an encouraging factor, albeit limited in its scope, in the growth of our population. For the last fifty years, the proportion of the married persons has not changed appreciably, and to-day Rajasthan has the lowest proportion of unmarried in both sexes. In 1951 out of every thousand 472 males and 514 females were married. Taking widowers and widows and ascetics and mendicants into account this means that almost every person of marriageable age was actually married.

42. In Western countries, romance (love as a prerequisite of marriage), economic considerations, prolonged education and training and eagerness for personal and social advancement contribute to a postponement of marriage to a comparatively later date. Religion not only does not condemn celibacy, but has a kind word for it. The current social attitudes do not disapprove of those who never enter the married state. Many, therefore, do not marry just for the sake of marriage. The pressure of these considerations may and often does result in many remaining spinsters or bachelors.

43. But here there is no chance for love to play any significant part in marriage. Marriages, by and large are arranged by the parents and the majority are just herded into the married state, in a routine fashion. Economic stability of the bride-groom has never been an important consideration in contracting a marriage. Of course, the parents-in-law are anxious to see that the son-in-law is well employed, but unemployment is not a positive disqualification, since the resources of the joint family are available for the support of the newly married couple. Religion does not encourage celibacy, for a Hindu, if he is a strict one, must have at least one son. But it is not really the fear of religious ostracism that is behind this urge to get married. It is social disapproval of the unmarried state that explains the universal prevalence of marriage.

44. According to some hypothesis, climate acts as a favourable factor in the growth of a population. Here girls attain puberty between the ages of twelve and fifteen and, though often psychologically and physically immature, they are physiologically ready to bear children; and cases are not wanting where reproduction has begun at the age of thirteen or fourteen. The girls marry as soon as they reach puberty, begin bearing children early, and reduce the period of lactation, thereby shortening the intervals between child births with the disastrous result of premature deaths.

45. The very low level of living, the absence of a prolonged period of education or training, the existing social attitudes that encourage a large family, the Hindu joint family, and above all, the psychological reason that encourages every man to look to his wife and sex intimacy as the only relaxation and recreation in an otherwise dull, drab and unexciting life of relentless struggle to make both ends meet—all these are contributing factors. Economic instability makes one resigned and fatalistic; thought for the morrow and contemplation of the grim prospect of a large family are brushed aside. The thought that one cannot be worse off than one already is, banishes all ideas of foresight and control. Resignation to a lifetime of poverty follows.

46. The disintegrating caste system creating a conflict between family and communal loyalties, also contributes to the high birth rate. An individual's social and material advancement is always conditioned by his place in the family and the communal group to which he belongs, unless the individual is socially courageous and unconventional. A rigid social structure will prevent upward movement in a society and will thus obviate the danger of an individual development becoming so engrossing that the person has no time for the rearing of a family.

47. The sex ratio has several important socio-economic bearings. Women generally have a lower death rate than men because nature has equipped them better to meet diseases. Organically it is man, and not woman, that is the weaker vessel. So if women constitute less than half the total population, the crude death rate of the whole population will be affected unfavourably. The importance of sex ratio to the total population from the point of view of the growth or decline of the country's population is obvious. The immediate increase or decrease of population depends upon the sex ratio of the population in the reproductive period, since on account of old age as well as immaturity a considerable proportion of the population does not count as regards reproduction. A fuller review of sex ratio and their age composition and civil condition is given in Chapter VI-Section 4, from which it is evident that the deficiency of women is declining and the proportion of females of reproductive age groups is rising.

48. To recapitulate, the causes for the remarkable growth of population generally, and particularly in the last three decades are: (i) the relatively peaceful conditions prevailing in the country, (ii) the increasing improvement in the census organisation, (iii) the gradual improvement in health measures as compared to earlier decades (iv) the increased acreage under irrigation, (v) the universality of the married state, (vi) the large percentage of married women to the total number of women in the reproductive groups, (vii) the comparatively early age at which reproduction begins (viii) lack of instruction in modern birth control and (ix) the influence of certain social institutions such as the joint family on the birth rate. The joint family serves as an incentive to higher birth rate because it does not insist on the economic solvency of the husband as a prerequisite to marriage.

49. The rate of growth since 1921 (1.8 per cent per year) has not been phenomenal for modern times. The United Nations population increased 16 per cent during the decade 1921-30, but because of the massiveness of our existing population even a moderate per cent increase means a huge absolute increment. The modest 1.8 per cent annual increase on the population of 1921 during the three decades from 1921 to 1950 added no less than 5,422,709 inhabitants to Rajasthan's population, what is important about our States' recently exhilarated growth is not simply the rate, but the huge absolute increments to which it gives rise and the promise of even greater increment in the future.

50. How long can the region keep up this demographic pace? Can it actually double its 1951 population in the next 60 years? If so, how will she support them? If not, what is going to stop the present trend? These and other questions call for an answer. They cannot, however, be answered without further analysis of the factors responsible for population growth upto now. Demographically speaking the increase of population in Rajasthan as in any other country, has been determined by only three factors: Fertility, Mortality and Migration.

51. One of the most obvious of these factors is migration. If the number of immigrants exceeds that of the emigrants the natural growth of population will, of course, be artificially augmented, while the reverse is the case when emigrants are in excess. It is in the smaller units, such as districts, that the effect of migration is most marked; and even in the case of States, this factor is often of considerable importance. But in these States it plays a very insignificant part as we shall see in Section 4 that the total number of persons born in Rajasthan and enumerated outside are 886,860. They represent 5.8 per cent of the total population and the number of persons born outside Rajasthan and enumerated in it is only 654,380 i.e. 4.3 per cent of the total population. In Ajmer no doubt the number of emigrants is 54,596 i.e. 7.9 per cent of the population and that of immigrants is 129,523 i.e. as high as 18.7 per cent excluding 71,351 displaced persons. These figures show the total amount of migration. They furnish no clue to the amount of migration in the past decade hence no idea can be formed as to how far migration is responsible for the growth of population in the past decade.



52. Since migration has not been numerically important as a factor affecting growth in these States (although important in other ways), the problem really comes down to fertility and mortality. All other factors discussed in paragraphs 40 to 48 above must take effect through these; and these again depend partly on the racial characteristics and social practices of the people and partly on external conditions, such as their material well-being and the state of the public health. It is difficult to distinguish between the influence of race and that of social customs. Some races undoubtedly have a greater fecundity and longevity than others, but it is impossible to say how far these characteristics are inherent and how far they are the outcome of their customs and environment. In India the birth-rate is every where much higher than in Europe, but this is due largely to the universality of marriage. It is higher amongst Moham-madans and tribes than amongst Hindus, but this is because the Hindus have a much larger proportion of widows at the child bearing ages. The high birth-rate again is largely discounted by a heavy mortality, especially amongst infants and women at child-birth. Here again social factors have to be reckoned with, the custom of purdah perhaps exercising its worst effect among the poorer class of Muslims who appear to be more rigid in its observance than the corresponding class of Hindus. But social practices change but slowly, and the periodic fluctuations in the rate at which the population is growing depend almost entirely on the second set of factors, namely those affecting the material condition of the people and the state of the public health, *i.e.* to say famines and epidemics.

53. In a country like ours where more than two-thirds of the inhabitants are dependant on agriculture, the state of the harvest is of primary importance. When the crops are good the people are prosperous, but when they fail famine supervenes. All agricultural countries are liable to this scourge, and our States are peculiarly so, owing partly to the poor fertility of the soil, variability of rainfall and absence of irrigation facilities and partly to the way in which the soil is parcelled out amongst petty farmers, who have no capital and no organized system of credit, and whose millions of field labourers are at once thrown out of work when the crops fail. In former times the effects of famine were far more serious than they are at the present day. There was no organized system of state relief; and in the absence of railways, even local crop failure meant starvation to many. All this has now been changed. A watchful eye is kept on the state of the crops, and the course of prices. Programmes of relief works have been prepared and are carefully kept upto date, and all necessary arrangements have been made for commencing relief operations the moment they are needed. But even so, there are many obstacles in the way of complete success, and whenever a severe famine occurs its effect is immediately seen in a diminished birth-rate and a high mortality. Now-a-days, the mortality is rarely due to actual starvation, but rather to diseases brought on by improper food and epidemics of cholera, which frequently attack the crowded relief camps. The immediate effect of these visitations soon disappears. The persons who die are those at the extremes of life, the very old and the very young, many of whom would in any case have died during the next few years. The number of persons in the prime of life is but little affected. Also, after a period of suspended activity, the reproductive powers of the people reassert themselves. For some years after famine births are thus more numerous than usual and there is an abnormally low death-rate. The result is an unusually rapid growth of population. Thus in the decade 1881-90 which followed the great famine of 1877, Rajasthan had an increase of 18.5 per cent, and after the famines of 1897 and 1900 it gained 6.6 per cent in the decade 1901-1910. That the rebound was not equally great in that decade is due to a continuance of adverse conditions explained above.

54. Rajasthan is peculiarly liable to fatal epidemics also. From time to time cholera breaks out with great virulence and small-pox also at times causes a very heavy mortality. The influenza epidemic of 1918 is well-known and malaria shatters the aged in most parts of the State. In attempting to explain the Rajasthan's past growth, therefore, the first step is to ascertain the relative responsibility of these two variables *viz.* births and deaths and to analyse the conditions affecting them. This will be attempted in Section 5. But before we come to that, let us review some other aspects of the movement of population in the next section.



## SECTION 4.

## Movement.

Movement of population can be said to be of two kinds, (i) Movement in time, *i.e.* variation from decade to decade and (ii) movement in space, or territorial movement *i.e.* migration from one place to another. Movement in time has been dealt with in Section 3, so also migration with respect to its effect on the growth of population. This section is primarily concerned with the statistics of the birth places of the censused population.

2. As laid down in the All India Census Report 1921 "The record of birth place is the only means which the census gives of estimating two features of considerable demographic interest, *viz.* (a) the movements of population from one area to another and (b) the number of foreigners (foreign born) in any population unit." These statistics are utilised in this report in various ways. In the section on growth of population, birth place figures as an indication of migration were utilised in studying the comparative strength of each of the factors affecting growth, namely, birth, death and migration and the extent of natural increase in the population. In Chapter III, while discussing the variation in urban areas, the migration in certain cities specially in Jaipur and Ajmer will be referred to. In Chapter VI in the section relating to age the question how far the normal age distribution of the population is disturbed by the factor of migration will be dealt with. In this section, we are going to study the broad aspects of the following inter-related questions: whether the population moves, how much of it moves, how far does it move and why it moves at all, that is to say, the trend, the nature, extent, distance, direction and causes of migration. In the absence of any organisation for the registration of migrants, the birth place is the only clue for finding out whether a person is an immigrant or not.

3. But the Census, it may be here premised, does not profess to investigate the answer to these questions directly. The enumerator does not ask the individual how long he has been resident in a particular locality and the character and purpose of his residence. But the entry against question No. 5 of the enumeration slip, which gives particulars of his birth place is utilised as a clue to the question whether he is an immigrant or native born. But this test, obviously artificial in its application leads to many undoubted anomalies. A normal resident, who has according to the custom of the country, taken a wife from another village belonging to an adjoining district has a son whose birth takes place as usually happens in such cases, in the house of his father-in-law. This son will appear as an "immigrant". On the other hand, a true immigrant having settled at a place has a child born to him there, this child is shown as native born. Even in case of genuine immigrants, the mere record of their birth place is no guide to their real domicile. Thus a soldier born in Malta and counted in Rajasthan is compiled as a native of Malta, although he is a genuine native of England. A Japanese may have been born in Rajasthan and returning to his native country soon after, may have come back later in life to his place of birth on business and counted on the census date. He thus becomes a Rajasthani and part of the State's Natural population. The birth place return is full of these anomalies. An attempt has been made in the present census to remove some of such anomalies by recording the Nationality also, whereby figures of Non-Indian Nationals are available apart from the birth place record. In view of the defectiveness of these returns of birth place, it is usual not to examine them in conjunction with any other factors. The above named anomalies convict the immigration and emigration figures separately of inaccuracy. But taken, together, the net difference between them is a valuable and accurate indication of the trend of movement of people from one place to another. The reason for this circumstance is obvious, as the anomalies pointed out above, are true not only of immigrants but also of emigrants; and these suprious '*va et vient*' tend to balance each other. Birth place statistics also fail to reflect migration exactly because the local units dealt with are arbitrary. A farmer having land in two adjacent villages lying on either side of a district border may leave one to reside in the other, and will then be returned as

a migrant. A labourer may leave his village for a town fifty miles distant, but in the same district and will not be returned as a migrant. Such instances will not cancel each other, but will tend to make migration appear less than it really is.

4. The instructions to the enumerators were not to give more details about birth place beyond the district of birth if the person was born within the state.

**Accuracy of returns.** If he was born in any other State in India, he was to write the name of the State only and not the district. If he was born out of India, the name of the country only was to be entered. The enumerators were cautioned particularly not to enter the name of the village or tehsil. To aid their geographical knowledge, a standard list of districts and States of India together with the names of foreign countries was printed and circulated. In the oral lectures, they were all given very detailed instructions and as in respect of other columns, test schedules were prepared in their presence. These instructions were generally understood but still at the time of tabulation, many difficulties had to be overcome. One salient feature of the present census was that it took place at a time when the formation of the districts of the newly constructed State had just been completed and very few people, even in official circles, not to speak of a lay man, exactly began to know the name of the district in which their village was kept under the new administrative set up. This difficulty was observed at the time of enumeration and timely steps were taken by asking the enumerators to find out the name of the former merging State or its tehsil or Hukumat or even the village of birth, and then, by asking other-side-questions as to where he pays the revenue or where is his nearest railway station, etc., the enumerator was asked to find out the district in which that village was situated; in cases in which even this method did not help him, he was allowed to enter the name of the village only and in the tabulation stage, attempts were made to locate the district in which that village was situated. The sorters were cautioned not to let any doubtful case pass by without orders of the head supervisors and Assistant Superintendent. Every care was taken to rectify the mistakes. Most of these were errors of compilation. These were tallied with original slips wherever possible and finally corrected after local enquiries.

5. State Table D-IV printed in Part II-A of the Report and Subsidiary Tables 1.4, 1.4a, 1.4b, 1.4c, 1.5, 1.5a, 1.5b, 1.6 and 1.7 printed in Part I-B of the **Reference to Tables.** Report contain figures about birth place and State Table D-VI gives the figures of Non-Indian Nationals. As regards persons born in the States but enumerated elsewhere, the figures are necessarily not based on the returns of the census of these States but on data furnished by the Census Superintendents of the other States of India.

6. The usefulness of birth-place statistics, for various purposes lies largely in its cross-classification with other population characteristics. Important **Utility of the birth place figures.** characteristics used for this purpose are sex, age, marital status, economic characteristics, urban and rural residence, language and citizenship. For example, cross-classification by sex and age for native population makes it possible to observe the change from one census to another in the number of people of corresponding sex-age classes, which may be attributed partly to mortality at different age levels and partly to emigration. In the same manner, the data for the foreign-born in corresponding sex-age classes at successive census dates can be used to estimate the number of male and female immigrants of various ages entering the country during the intercensal period, and the number of deaths during the interval. These data are especially valuable for places like Rajasthan where there are no registers of immigration and emigration for providing statistics on the numbers and characteristics of persons entering and leaving the State, and where the registration of births and deaths is also deficient. In addition, the statistics on sex and age of the native and foreign-born population are valuable for studying the impact of immigration on the structure and potential future growth of the population as a whole, the potential contribution of the immigrants to the labour force, and their influence on the ratio between breadwinners and dependants. The data are also relevant to the study of problems of

assimilation, since immigrant men of working age and children of school age are likely to come into closer contact with the native population and thus to be assimilated more quickly than women who are occupied chiefly with home duties. For all of these purposes, data by country of birth, are more valuable than those compiled by a simple motive of foreign born classification (nativity). Other cross-tabulations are similarly useful for a variety of purposes.

7. One chief reason of the non-comparability of the migration figures of the present census with those of the past ones, lies in the change in the census method introduced since 1941 namely the abolition of the practice of one night count and the application of the extended *de facto* system referred to in the introduction. The exact significance of the terms "Immigration" and "Emigration" as applied to the figures of the Census of 1931 can be explained in the following way on the line of their definition clarified in the Census Report of 1931 of Bombay. "Immigration" means the residence in these States, on the night of the Census, of a person who was born outside these States. "Emigration" means the residence outside these States, on the night of the Census, of a person who was born inside these States. "Migration" means the movement of a person between the place of his birth and the places where he was enumerated on the night of the Census. This is not wholly true in the present census. In attempting therefore, to compare the figures of foreign born or those born outside the place of enumeration obtained at the present census with those published in the census reports prior to 1941, it must be kept in mind that the figures of the past censuses contain those of casual visitors also, who, in the present census, have been counted at their usual place of residence. Apart from this it is also clear that the meaning of these terms for Census purposes is very different from that in which these words would be understood and used by customs and immigration authorities, or as they are defined in most dictionaries. Actually a Census can give in itself very little direct information about immigration, emigration and migration of the population. The information which it does give on these matters is almost entirely an inference from phenomena observed otherwise and from local knowledge of social conditions in the areas where the Census was held. Some of the information which throws light on movements of the population is obtained from a study of the types of migration which are known to prevail in particular areas.

8. In no country is the population so immobile as in India, there are two main causes—the one social and the other economic which account for the reluctance of the native of India to leave his ancestral home. The social cause, which affects chiefly the Hindus, is the caste system. The restrictions which that system involves make a man's life very uncomfortable when he is separated from the members of his own social circle. Not only is he unable to marry beyond its limits; he may not even eat or drink with members of other groups, nor may he smoke from their Huqqa. He often finds it difficult to get any one to cook his food, and if he dies, there will be no one to perform his obsequies, and his body may have to be removed by scavengers. Nor is it only a question of the inconveniences to which a Hindu is exposed during his absence. A man who is long away from home is often looked at askance on his return as he is suspected of having broken the rules of his caste, and he may find it hard to regain his old position. The penalties which a journey across the ocean involved until recently are well-known. The social fabric including the joint family system and the system of early marriages has also encouraged the home keeping habit; while lack of education, diversity of languages and culture too, have been impediments in the flow of population from one part to the other to some extent.

9. The economic hindrance to migration is to be found in the fact that the people of this place are mainly dependant for their support on a single calling, *i.e.* on agriculture. They are so to say wedded to an agricultural life; and, since land is the chief source of sustenance, the average Indian cannot possibly leave the farm on which he was born and wherein he works. It is not that agriculture in India is such a paying proposition that it renders emigration to urban.

areas impossible, but that there is absence of better calling elsewhere to take its place. In India agriculture is not just an occupation; it is a way of life. Again, till recently was there an incredibly large rural indebtedness that chained the peasants in the past to their mortgaged homesteads. Even if the average agriculturist is ready to forsake his traditional calling, there is no guarantee that he can make a living otherwise. Availability of, as well as adaptation to, a new vocation is neither easy nor smooth.

10. However, during lean years a migration from villages to towns does take place. It is not a voluntary and willing migration. Only economic pressure of the worst kind forces the agriculturist into the city in search of a job—any job—to earn livelihood. He hopes that it is only temporary and longs to return to the village. Hence he leaves behind his wife and children and goes to the cities. The rural hovel is exchanged for a tenement in a city slum. The temporary nature of this exodus has been responsible for the unfavourable sex ratio of industrial cities. When, owing to some change, such as the extension of irrigation facilities, land previously unculturable becomes fit for the plough, there is a general movement towards it, but ordinarily there is no sufficient incentive to lead a man to leave his home in order to take up land elsewhere. At the present time, however, great changes are in progress. In the old days the difficulties and dangers attendant on long journeys helped to keep people at home, but these have now been removed, and a journey of a thousand miles is easier than one of a hundred miles a century ago. With the growth of large industries the cultivation of commercial products, the exploitation of minerals and the construction of railways and canals a new demand for labour has arisen which is leading many of the landless classes to seek a livelihood in the big centres of industry, where the pay offered is far better than that for field work. The caste system is losing its rigour steadily. The new irrigation projects when finalized will render more new land cultivable. The demand will no doubt continue to grow for extra hands and the volume of migration is likely to increase accordingly.

11. At the outset of the discussion of the figures it is usual to discuss the different types of migration. In the past censuses five types of migration have been mentioned. These categories, would seem to envisage clear-cut, distinct divisions. But as a matter of fact, the boundaries between them shade into one another imperceptibly.

**Different types of migration.**

(1) *Casual Migration*:—In the classification pursued in the last census, the casual migrants included the cases of wives born in one place but married in another and also of their return to their parents' houses on the occasion of their first confinements. As Pandit Harkishen Kaul pointed out in his Punjab Report of 1911, the former of these cases is really one of permanent, not casual, migration. The wife's coming to her new home is really in the nature of permanent change of residence, although her life in her new home may be varied occasionally by visits to her father's house. Such a change of residence cannot be, therefore, classed as casual. The second case of the wife returning to her father's for delivery after her confinement is really in the form of casual emigration from her permanent home, and wrongly reduces the volume of permanent migration. With some communities it is considered objectionable for the mother to visit her daughter on the occasion of her first confinement. Here the daughter has to visit more as a matter of etiquette than otherwise. At any rate in whatever way we look at it the fact remains that the sex proportion in such movements is preponderatingly in favour of the females.

(2) *Temporary Migration*:—This type of migration comes within the perview of the census on account of the movement of business-men, pilgrims, marriage parties and temporary demand for labour in different places or students in colleges. In this type of migration males preponderate. "This of course is really not migration at all", as remarked by the Superintendent Census Operation, U.P. in his report of 1921 but "little more than travel, an accident disturbing the statistics of migration." On account of the extended *de facto* system of enumeration adopted at the 1951 Census with the specified period of twenty days for enumeration, (explained

in Introduction) this type of migration would be less noticeable than in the previous censuses, because a person was to be enumerated in a place other than his usual residence only if he was away from his house for the entire enumeration period.

(3) *Periodic Migration*:—This is the usual harvest time migration, when people from different places go to distant villages for harvesting the crops. It also includes seasonal movement of people accompanying herds of cattle which is specially visible in lean years when people, mostly from Dry Area Division, migrate to Madhya Bharat and other places. For reasons given in the case of temporary migration, periodic migration was also not of much significance during the 1951 Census.

(4) *Semi-permanent Migration*:—This is confined to people, who go out for earning their living and return to their homes after a fairly long time, specially in old age when they retire from their work. This type of migration is represented in Rajasthan by the so-called Marwari Seths, for instance, their dependants and servants who stay in distant places outside Rajasthan for business for a greater part of their lives but do not sever their attachment from their native land to which they pay occasional visits and ultimately revert on retirement. Such migration is noticeable in industrial places like Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Ahmedabad, etc., where people from different places come and reside to earn a living.

(5) *Permanent Migration*:—As the term suggests, it is the permanent shifting of the residence of the people. In Rajasthan this type of migration is to be found not only in the industrial centres, where the semi-permanent migration is also noticed, but also in the industrially backward tracts like Ganganagar Canal Colony where there is scope for expansion of agriculture. The migration of the displaced persons can also be said to fall in this category.

12. In the 1921 Census Report for the United Provinces, page 42, Mr. Edye has remarked that "There are only three types of migration, periodic, semi-permanent and permanent. The so-called casual type has no content; and the so-called temporary type is not migration at all, but needs to be eliminated so far as possible from the statistics before the true extent of migration can be gauged." This I think, is a true statement of the case. But the use of the words, "casual" and "temporary" has none-the-less a certain value as explaining certain features of unusual distribution of the population in particular places at particular times. For instance the casual type of migration is usually exemplified by the minor movements between adjacent villages, the most common instance of which is the habit of Hindus taking wives from villages, nearby, a phenomenon which often results in a deficiency or excess of women in certain population units. Temporary migration used to be recorded in the past Censuses and was found in pilgrimages and visits to holy cities where, during fairs, the population was very differently constituted from what it is at normal times. Such types of migration do not come in the record of the present Census and are also for Census purposes of very little value and it might be wise if all migration were considered as being periodic, semi-permanent and permanent only.

13. The Census figures cannot distinguish between the different types of migration from the data relating to the birth place; but nevertheless some idea can be had from the proportion of the sexes in the figures. Thus, as mentioned above, the casual migration connected with the marriages and the relevant social customs can be easily noticed if there is a preponderance of women among the migrants. Similarly, the preponderance of the male sex would indicate semi-permanent or periodic migration, because in such cases the men leave behind their families during their movements.

14. The distinctions outlined in the last paragraph are distinctions in terms of duration. Migration must obviously also be distinguished in terms of direction. In this sense it is of three forms:—

1. Internal migration or movement between different parts of the State;
2. Immigration, into the State, and
3. Emigration from the States.

Each of these forms may, if not merely temporary and therefore unreal, be either periodic, semi-permanent or permanent. Migration can also be classified according to its purpose as social, economic or political. Instances of social migration are the same as laid down under the heading "Casual" e. g. married women going to their husbands' abodes or daughters returning to their fathers' houses for delivery. Instances of economic migration are: persons going to industrial or commercial centres for trade, industry or service, also, government or other servants migrating to their places of posting, as well as the movement of cattle breeders in lean years with herds of cattle in search of fodder and grazing facilities. The glaring instance of political migration is that of the displaced persons. Migration can be classed exactly, on the basis of the census returns, in terms of direction. In terms of duration or purpose it can only be classed approximately by general inference.

15. The total population of 15,290,797 enumerated in Rajasthan in the recent Census comprises 14,636,417 persons, or 957 per 1,000 born within the State and 654,380 or 43 per 1,000 born outside it. Of the population born in Rajasthan and Ajmer within the State and enumerated in it 13,980,899 or 955 per 1,000 were enumerated in their districts of births, 655,518, or 45 per 1,000 in other districts of the State. Of the persons enumerated in Rajasthan and born outside it, 330,131 or 505 per 1,000 come from the contiguous States namely, Uttar Pradesh, Bombay, Saurashtra, Madhya Bharat, Punjab, P.E.P.S.U. and Ajmer, 20,380 or 31 per 1,000, from distant places in India and 303,869 or 464 per 1,000 from places outside India (302,541 or 462 per thousand from Pakistan, 1,250 from other parts of Asia and 78 from outside Asia.)

16. The total population of 693,372 persons enumerated in Ajmer in the recent Census comprises 492,498 persons or 710 per 1,000 born within the State, 200,874 or 290 per 1,000 born outside it. Of the persons enumerated in Ajmer and born outside it, 93,494 or 465 per 1,000 come from the contiguous State namely Rajasthan, 36,427 or 181 per 1,000 from distant places in India, 70,953 or 354 per 1,000 from places outside India. (70,296 or 351 per thousand from Pakistan, 447 from other parts of Asia and 210 from outside Asia). As laid down in the Rajputana Census Report 1931, "The absence of industrialism on any large scale; a scanty rainfall and a lack of irrigation are all factors that combine to prevent immigration to any large extent of a periodic, Semi-permanent or permanent nature, to these States from States beyond their borders."

TABLE No. 41.

Number of persons born outside the State and enumerated in it, per thousand of the total population.

Year	Rajasthan		Ajmer	
	No.	Variation	No.	Variation
1	2	3	4	5
1881 ..	..	..	..	..
1891 ..	34	..	..	..
1901 ..	24	-10	197	..
1911 ..	29	+ 5	193	- 4
1921 ..	25	- 4	222	+ 29
1931 ..	29	+ 4	190	- 32
1941 ..	27	- 2	174	- 16
1951 ..	43	+16	290	+116

17. The marginal Table No. 41 shows the volume of immigration from decade to decade. In Rajasthan the lowest figures are in 1901 and the second lowest are in 1921. The figures of 1951 are the highest in which there has been an influx of displaced persons. In Ajmer the figures of 1941 are the lowest and the influx of displaced persons is clearly visible in the figures of 1951 of that place which are the highest since 1901.



18. The Table No. 42 below shows the distribution of the total enumerated population of Rajasthan and Ajmer per thousand by birth places. Wherefrom these immigrants have been coming in the past and the present and in what number.

TABLE No. 42

## The Immigration Pattern of Rajasthan and Ajmer State.

Place of birth	Number of persons per 1,000 of total population enumerated in										
	Rajasthan					Ajmer					
	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	
1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	
Born in State	--	971	975	971	973	957	807	778	810	826	710
Rest of India	..	29	25	29	27	23	189	219	187	173	188
Rest of Asia	...	(636)	..	..	(763)	20	1	} 3	} 3	1	102
Europe	..	(561)	..	..	(265)	(57)	3			(195)	(160)
Africa	..	(16)	..	..	(133)	(13)	(9)			(35)	(26)
America	..	(16)	..	..	(21)	(8)	(9)			(20)	(23)
Australia	..	(4)	..	..	(9)	..	(12)			(2)	(1)

N. B.:—Figures shown in brackets are actual figures, and figures of Rajasthan upto 1941 are of old Rajputana.

19. These figures show how during the last 40 years the immigration pattern of Rajasthan State has hardly changed except during the 1951 Census. Pakistan, which was a part of India formerly, is now treated as a foreign country and the figure under the head "Rest of India", therefore, shows a remarkable fall. For the same reason, and due to the arrival of the displaced persons, the figure under the head "Rest of Asia" shows a considerable increase. Similarly, with the withdrawal of the European officers and their families after the attainment of Independence, the European population has dwindled down to 57 in 1951 from 265 in 1941 in Rajasthan and from 195 to 160 in Ajmer.



TABLE No. 43.

## Persons of foreign birth

Name of the country where born	Number of persons of foreign birth enumerated in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
1. Pakistan ..	302,541	70,296
2. Baluchistan ..	4	..
3. Afghanistan ..	10	4
4. Burma ..	61	1
5. Ceylon ..	..	2
6. China ..	2	..
7. Nepal ..	1,140	437
8. Thyland ..	1	..
9. Malaya Land ..	5	..
10. Goa ..	27	3
11. France ..	11	43
12. England ..	42	116
13. Portugal ..	1	..
14. Italy ..	2	..
15. Scotland ..	1	..
16. Africa ..	13	26
17. U. S. A. ..	6	23
18. Canada ..	2	..
19. New Zealand ..	..	1
20. Switzerland ..	..	1

20. The total number of persons of foreign birth enumerated in Rajasthan is 303,869 and in Ajmer 70,953 of whom 302,541 in Rajasthan and 70,296 in Ajmer are from Pakistan including the displaced persons, the Pakistan Nationals and persons who had migrated from the area now known as Pakistan before the partition of the country. The details of the persons of foreign birth are given in the inset Table No. 43. The figures which stand out prominent are of those born in Pakistan most of whom came as displaced persons. Nepalis are also substantial in number, a large number of them being employees of the army. In Ajmer the persons born in England are also visible in a larger number than in Rajasthan. People from other countries are numerically very few.

21. Data on legal Nationality are especially valuable in connection with problems relating to the legal status and civil rights of immigrants, and for purposes of official records relating to individuals. These data may also be used for the study of ethnic groups and of migration. The classification of Nationality according to geographical areas of residence indicates the regional patterns of the settlement of aliens, and throws light on the problems of their social and economical assimilation. The usefulness of Nationality statistics for the various analysis is greatly improved by cross-tabulating the data with other demographic characteristics. For example classification of Nationality by age and sex may be used for studying the impact of immigration on the structure and growth of the population as a whole and on the trends of the labour force and dependent groups. It also gives a basis for calculating the natural changes in the size of various national elements in the population such as death, exclusive of changes caused by migration.

22. Main Table D-VI in Part II-A of the Report relates to Nationality. A look at it shows that the number of Non-Indian Nationals in Rajasthan on the census date *viz.*, 1st March 1951 was only 413 (297 males and 116 females). In Ajmer their number is 153 (77 males and 76 females). **Non-Indian Nationals.** By Non-Indian Nationals is meant all persons who are citizens of countries other than India. Citizens of Pakistan also are therefore Non-Indian Nationals. Out of the 413 Non-Indian Nationals, 209 (more than half) were in Dry Area Division, 142 in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, Hills Division contained 36 and the Plateau Division 26.

23. According to district figures in column 2 of Main Table D-VI, the District of Ganganagar shows the highest figure (89) of Non-Indian Nationals. This high figure is due to the fact that 47 or more than half of them have returned themselves as Pakistan Nationals and 40 are Gurkhas from Nepal and 2 are from Malaya. The district with the next highest figure is Churu in which there are 58 Non-Indian Nationals of whom 30 are Gurkhas from Nepal and 23 females have returned their nationality as Burmese, (this entry seems a little bit doubtful), 4 are British and one is Pakistani. The next highest number is found in Alwar where 46 are Nepalese, 3 Americans, 1 British and 1 Burmese. The details for other districts can be seen in Main Table D-VI. in Part II-A of the Report.

24. According to columns (5) and (6) of Main Table D-VI as many as 110 persons in Rajasthan (87 males and 23 females) returned themselves as Nationals of Pakistan and in Ajmer 6 males. It is doubtful if the enumeration of these persons as Nationals of Pakistan was correct. Under the instructions the enumerators could treat as Displaced persons only those who had left their homes in West Pakistan or East Pakistan, as the case may be, on or after 1st March 1947 and 15th October 1946, respectively, on account of civil disturbances, or the fear of such disturbances or on account of the setting up of the Dominions of India and Pakistan. It is possible that persons who had come over to India before these dates and who did not claim to be Indian citizens were correctly enumerated as Nationals of Pakistan, but I am not sure that there has been no mistake in the enumeration. Fortunately, the number involved is very insignificant and the error cannot be anything serious.

25. Among the Non-Asiatic Nationals, the British of course, lead, including the figures for Scots, as they should have been under British. In Rajasthan the figures under British are 43 (25 males and 18 females) and in Ajmer 35 (males 21 and females 14). Next come the French with 11 (7 males and 4 females) in Rajasthan and 23 in Ajmer (10 males and 13 females). Under the Americans, British and other European Nationals, we have a number of missionaries, including those employed in mission hospitals and educational institutions. Out of these only 4 are in rural areas *i.e.*, 3 French males and 1 American lady, the rest are in urban areas.

26. The figures under Burmese, Nepalese and Africans cannot be taken at their face value. Except perhaps in respect of a very small number, these figures are, I am afraid, wrong, and really relate to Indian Nationals, who were either born in those outside countries or have stayed there for long periods, and whom the enumerators have wrongly classified as Non-Indian Nationals, in spite of clear instructions that nationality should not be deduced either from the birth place or from race, that it means exactly citizenship status and that each person should be enumerated as the National of the country of which he is a citizen and claims to be a citizen. These incorrect figures account for 230 persons in Rajasthan. If allowance is made for this error, the number of Non-Indian Nationals will go down to 183 in Rajasthan. If we deduct the figures of Pakistan Nationals also being doubtful as referred to above the net number comes to only 73 in Rajasthan.

27. Discrepancies between the figures in Main Table D-IV which relate to birth place and those in Main Table D-VI, which relate to Citizenship status, must be expected. People usually have the same citizenship status as their parents, but may have been born in countries to which the parents might have migrated temporarily. The discrepancies found between the figures in the two tables need not therefore cause any surprise.

28. It is also interesting to compare the movement of immigrants into the State from the adjacent States and other States as ascertained at the 1951 Census with the corresponding figures of 1931 and 1921. The following Table 44 gives the comparative figures:—

TABLE No. 44.

Immigration in Rajasthan and Ajmer from decade to decade.

Place of birth	Immigrants in the decades.					
	1921		1931		1951	
	Total number.	Per cent of total population.	Total number.	Per cent of total population.	Total number.	Per cent of total population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rajasthan						
Adjacent States.	201,956	2.1	322,270	2.9	330,131	2.2
Other States and Pakistan.	40,287	0.4	7,643	0.07	322,921	2.1
Ajmer.						
Rajasthan.	59,161	11.9	76,374	13.6	93,494	13.5
Other States and Pakistan.	49,291	10.0	28,564	5.1	106,723	15.4

29. The figures tend to indicate that the immigrants into Rajasthan from the adjacent States vary from nearly 2 per cent. in 1921 rising to nearly 3 per cent. of the total population in 1931 and again falling to 2.2 per cent. in 1951. Of the migrants from distant States and Pakistan, the percentage shows a fall from 0.4 in 1921 to 0.07 in 1931 and a rise to 2.1 in 1951. In the case of Ajmer also the figures show that the immigrants to Ajmer from Rajasthan which is the only adjacent State vary from 11.9 per cent. in 1921 to 13.6 per cent. in 1931 with a slight fall to 13.5 in 1951. The migrants from distant States including Pakistan fell from 10.0 per cent in 1921 to 5.1 in 1931 and suddenly rose to 15.4 in 1951. This clearly reflects the influx of Displaced Persons. In comparing the figures of the previous censuses with the 1951 Census it is to be borne in mind that the method of taking the Census was slightly different in 1951 from that adopted in 1931 and 1921. As previously pointed out during the Census of 1951 visitors to a place were enumerated only if they were away from their normal residence for the whole enumeration period of twenty days and not otherwise; whereas in 1931 and prior to that, everybody present on the Census night at a particular place was recorded where he was found. This change in the enumeration procedure leads to the presumption that a number of persons appearing in the figures of "migrants" noticed in 1931 was such as would not be so treated in 1951. This may perhaps account for the slight fall visible in 1951 in the percentage of migrants from adjacent States in case of Rajasthan and from Rajasthan in case of Ajmer when compared with the figures of 1931. The rush of displaced persons in 1951 is reflected in the Table above very clearly. In fact 297,016 displaced persons from Pakistan came into Rajasthan and 71,351, in Ajmer after the partition of the country.

30. Of the total population of 15,290,797 people in Rajasthan and 693,372 in Ajmer, 13,980,899 and 492,498 respectively were recorded at the Census as having been born in the district of enumeration. It is, therefore, clear that the vast majority of the inhabitants of the State practically live all their life in the district in which they are born. The Census figures also indicate that of the remaining people 468,113 were enumerated in different districts of the same Natural Division in which they were born, while 187,405 people were enumerated in other parts of the State. Again out of the persons enumerated in these States 330,131 in Rajasthan and 93,494 in Ajmer were those who were born in the adjacent States. Similarly in Rajasthan 20,380 and in Ajmer 36,427 people were found to have been born in other parts of Indian Union.

31. Table No. 45 given below gives the proportionate figures per 1,000 of total population and per 1,000 of males and females of home born and immigrants found in Rajasthan and Ajmer during the 1951 Census:—

TABLE No. 45.

## Proportion of Home-born and Immigrants in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Born in	Number per 1,000		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4
<b>Rajasthan</b>			
District of enumeration.	914	915	914
Other districts of the State.	43	41	44
States adjacent to Rajasthan.	22	22	21
Other States of India.	1	2	1
Outside India	20	20	20
(a) Pakistan	20	20	20
(b) Other places	Less than 1	Less than 1	Less than 1
<b>Ajmer</b>			
District of enumeration	710	716	704
Other districts of the State	(There are no other districts in Ajmer).		
Adjacent State <i>i.e.</i> , Rajasthan	135	130	141
Other States of India	53	53	52
Outside India	102	101	103
(a) Pakistan	101	100	102
(b) Other Places	1	1	1

The above figures show at a glance how little migratory movement takes place even within the districts of the State and from other States of the country to these States, although comparatively speaking, immigration from distant States is greater in Ajmer than in Rajasthan.

32. One would expect a large preponderance of women among interstate immigrants and to some extent, among those from adjoining States, on the presumption that the casual migration due to marriage is restricted to the above places. But the figures in the above table fulfil this expectation to some extent, in the case of Rajasthan with respect to migration within the State only and in the case of Ajmer with respect to migration from Rajasthan only. In the case of migration from States adjacent to Rajasthan the lower female ratio leads to an inference that in these States marriage relations are mostly restricted to the districts of birth and do not extend to even their adjoining districts or States. Similarly, the very slight excess of men entering Rajasthan and Ajmer from other States would appear to indicate semi-permanent or periodic migration.

33. Main Table D-IV gives the names of places from which Rajasthan draws its immigrants. The most prominent of them are: 1. Punjab, 2. Madhya States in India from which Bharat, 3. Uttar Pradesh, 4. Ajmer, 5. Bombay, 6. Delhi, Rajasthan and Ajmer 7. P.E.P.S.U. and 8. Madhya Pradesh arranged in descending order attract immigrants. according to the number of persons born in them enumerated in Rajasthan. All of them except Madhya Pradesh are the States by which Rajasthan is surrounded and Ajmer is surrounded by Rajasthan. Madhya Pradesh, though it is not the adjacent State, is comparatively nearer to Rajasthan and Ajmer than other States of India and its quota to these States is also more or less proportionate to the distance. In Ajmer in addition to the above States people have come from Rajasthan, Hyderabad, West Bengal and Madras in substantial numbers.

34. The Punjab has topped the list having sent as many as 124,747 persons 64,927 males and 59,820 females ( or 35.6 per cent. of the total immigrants into the State) to Rajasthan and 2,636 (1,432 males and 1,204 females) to Ajmer (or 2.03 per cent, of the total, immigrants into the State). The reasons are two fold: first it is the adjoining State and second, it adjoins Ganganagar District where canal irrigation has created a new field for cultivation for which immigrants must be attracted mostly from the nearest place. 61.5 per cent. of the total immigrants into Rajasthan from Punjab have been found in Ganganagar District alone as shown in Table No. 46 below.

35. The number of immigrants to Rajasthan from Punjab, including Delhi, increased from 115,817 (or 351 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 146,727 (or 454 per thousand) in 1941 and fell to 132,108 (or 377 per thousand) in 1951. Similarly, the number of immigrants to Ajmer from Punjab including Delhi has risen from 4,293 (or 40.9 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 4,449 (or 44.0 per thousand) in 1941 and fell to 2,636 (or 20.3 per thousand) in 1951. The immigrants from Punjab are mostly found in adjoining districts as seen in the Table No. 46 below, from which we find that nearly 90 per cent.

TABLE No. 46.

## Distribution of immigrants from Punjab in Rajasthan.

Name of district	No. of immigrants from Punjab			Percentage of total immigrants from Punjab in Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
Ganganagar ..	76,730	39,523	37,207	61.5
Bharatpur ..	22,805	11,819	10,986	18.3
Alwar ..	12,825	6,701	6,124	10.3

of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from Punjab have been found in the three districts:

which adjoin the Punjab State *viz.* Ganganagar, Bharatpur and Alwar and that nearly two-thirds are in Ganganagar only. They are almost all agriculturists as shown in the Table No. 47.

TABLE No. 47.

Occupational classification of immigrants from Punjab.

Name of district	Number per 1,000 of immigrants from Punjab in the districts	
	Agriculturists	Non-Agriculturists
Ganganagar .. ..	859	141
Bharatpur .. ..	907	93
Alwar .. ..	776	224

Next to Ganganagar, Alwar and Bharatpur have also got agricultural facilities, fertile soil, irrigation from wells, tanks etc. The fall in the number of immigrants from Punjab in the present census when compared to previous census tends to show that the capacity of the canal area to attract people from outside is being exhausted and there is a possibility of immigration on that account further diminishing in the near future. The normal sex ratio shows that this is a permanent migration.

36. Madhya Bharat comes second. Her quota to Rajasthan being 81,404 persons (41,070 males and 40,334 females) who form 23·2 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan. She has sent only 1,584 persons (862 males 722 females) to Ajmer who form 1·2 per cent. of the total immigrants in Ajmer. The number of immigrants from Madhya Bharat in Rajasthan fell from 72,936 (or 221·1 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 65,135 (or 180 per thousand) in 1941 and rose again to 81,404 (or 232 per thousand) in 1951. The number of immigrants from Madhya Bharat in Ajmer has fallen from 2,443 (or 23·3 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 2,139 (21·2 per thousand) in 1941 and again to 1,584 (or 12 per thousand) in 1951. In Rajasthan they are mostly found in the districts adjacent to Madhya Bharat, given in the Table No. 48.

TABLE No. 48.

Distribution of immigrants from Madhya Bharat in Rajasthan.

Name of district	No. of immigrants from Madhya Bharat			Percentage of total immigrants from Madhya Bharat in Rajasthan.	No. per thousand immigrants from Madhya Bharat.	
	Persons	Males	Females		Agriculturists.	Non-agriculturists.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kotah ..	20,679	10,238	10,441	25·4	585	415
Jhalawar ..	19,712	10,300	9,412	24·2	388	612
Chittorgarh ..	18,217	9,224	8,993	22·4	711	289

These three districts are situated close to Madhya Bharat. In fact Jhalawar is projecting like a promontory into Madhya Bharat as a look at the map will show, and there is nothing extraordinary if we find an immigration of this sort. The normal sex ratio shows, that this is a permanent migration. Agriculturists form a great majority in Chittorgarh. They are slightly in excess of non-agriculturists in Kotah while in Jhalawar it is surprising to see that non-agriculturists are more numerous as seen in the above Table No. 48.

37. Third comes Uttar Pradesh which has sent 57,974 persons to Rajasthan (31,607 males and 26,367 females) who form 16.9 per cent. of the total immigrants. In Ajmer there are 5,169 persons from U.P. (2,663 males and 2,506 females) who form 3.98 per cent. of the total immigrants in Ajmer. The number of immigrants from U.P. in Rajasthan has fallen from 67,539 (or 204.7 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 57,067 or 152 per thousand, in 1941 and has again risen to 57,974 (or 169 per thousand) in 1951. Similarly the number of immigrants from U.P. in Ajmer has slightly fallen from 15,615 (or 148.8 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 15,381 (or 144.5 per thousand) in 1941 and suddenly to only 5,169 (or 39.8 per thousand) in 1951. This furnishes further reason to believe that the capacity of Bharatpur to attract any more migrants is decreasing. In Rajasthan they are mostly found in Bharatpur District (34,851) which is nearest to U.P. where they form 60 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from U.P. In Alwar there are 5,286 of them where they form 9 per cent. of the total immigrants from U.P. 80 per cent. of those who came to Bharatpur and 77 per cent. of those in Alwar are agriculturists. Males are slightly in excess of females which shows it to be a case of semi-permanent migration.

38. Fourth comes Ajmer which has sent 38,753 persons to Rajasthan (22,840 males and 15,913 females) who form 11.1 per cent. of the total immigrants. The number of immigrants from Ajmer in Rajasthan has increased from 21,522 (or 65 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 33,763 (or 98 per thousand) in 1941 and to 38,753 (or 111 per thousand) in 1951. They are mostly found in the districts which surround Ajmer State, as seen in the Table No. 49.

TABLE No. 49.

## Distribution of immigrants from Ajmer in Rajasthan.

Name of District.	Number of immigrants from Ajmer.			Percentage of total immigrants from Ajmer in Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5
Jaipur .. .. .	12,822	7,591	5,231	33.1
Tonk .. .. .	3,539	1,882	1,657	9.1
Sikar .. .. .	2,490	1,906	584	6.4
Pali .. .. .	3,727	1,915	1,812	9.6
Udaipur .. .. .	3,154	1,706	1,448	8.1
Bhilwara .. .. .	6,824	4,198	2,626	17.6

Nearly one-third of the total immigrants from Ajmer are found in Jaipur which touches Ajmer on the one side and about 18 per cent. in Bhilwara which touches it on the other side.



The higher sex ratio in favour of males in all districts and specially in Jaipur, Sikar and Bhilwara, goes to prove that this is a semi-permanent migration.

39. Their occupational distribution is given in Table No. 50 which shows the prominence of agriculturists everywhere except in Pali.

TABLE No. 50.

Occupational classification of immigrants from Ajmer in Rajasthan.

Name of district	Number per 1,000 of immigrants from Ajmer in Rajasthan.	
	Agriculturists	Non-agriculturists
Jaipur .. ..	575	425
Tonk .. ..	715	285
Sikar .. ..	713	287
Pali .. ..	426	574
Udaipur .. ..	686	314
Bhilwara .. ..	662	338

40. Fifth comes Bombay which has sent 18,682 persons to Rajasthan (10,184 males and 8,498 females) who form 5.3 per cent. of the total immigrants; similarly, 3,831 persons (2,122 males and 1,709 females) from Bombay have come to Ajmer who form 3 per cent. of the total immigrants in Ajmer. The number of immigrants from Bombay in Rajasthan has increased from 9,970 (or 30.2 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 18,769 (50.4 per thousand) in 1941 and slightly fallen to 18,682 (or 53 per thousand) in 1951. The number of immigrants from Bombay in Ajmer has risen from 2,067 (or 19.7 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 and 2,191 (or 21.7 per thousand) in 1941 to 3,831 (or 30 per thousand) in 1951. In Rajasthan they are mostly found in the districts given in Table No. 51.

TABLE No. 51.

Distribution of immigrants from Bombay in the districts of Rajasthan.

Name of district	Number of immigrants from Bombay.			Percentage of total immigrants from Bombay in Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5
Barmer .. ..	1,100	564	536	5.9
Jalore .. ..	1,032	623	409	5.5
Sirohi .. ..	1,716	861	855	9.2
Udaipur .. ..	3,774	2,091	1,683	20.2
Banswara .. ..	3,329	1,678	1,651	17.8
Dungarpur .. ..	1,471	800	671	7.9

Their number is significant in Udaipur and Banswara, because portions of these districts touch Bombay. They are not very significant in Sirohi although it adjoins Bombay. Their occupational distribution is given in Table No. 52 from which we find that agriculturists are significant in Banswara and to some extent in Sirohi and non-agriculturists in Ajmer. The higher proportion of males shows it to be a case of semi-permanent migration.

TABLE No. 52.

Occupational classification of immigrants from Bombay in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Name of District	Number per 1,000 of immigrants from Bombay	
	Agriculturists	Non-agriculturists
Barmer	313	687
Jalore	461	539
Sirohi	537	463
Udaipur	387	613
Dungarpur	466	534
Banswara	773	227
Ajmer	8	992

41. Sixth comes Delhi which has sent 7,361 persons to Rajasthan (4,540 males and 2,821 females) who form 2.1 per cent. of the total immigrants. Similarly 1,177 persons (606 males and 571 females) she has sent to Ajmer who form 0.91 per cent. of the total immigrants in Ajmer. In Rajasthan they are mostly found in Bharatpur (3,360) where they form 45.6 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from Delhi and Alwar (3,034 forming 41.6 per cent.) as these districts are nearest to Delhi. Agriculturists are prominent in Alwar (67 per cent.) and non-agriculturists in Bharatpur 98 per cent.) and Ajmer 99.7 per cent.

42. Seventh comes P.E.P.S.U. which has sent 7,216 persons to Rajasthan (3,627 males and 3,589 females) who form 2.1 per cent of the total immigrants. Similarly 460 persons she has sent (258 males and 202 females) to Ajmer who form 0.4 per cent. of the total immigrants in Ajmer. The number of immigrants from P.E.P.S.U. in Rajasthan has fallen from 26,537 (or 80.4 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 19,552 (or 52 per thousand) in 1941 and abruptly to 7,216 (or 21 per thousand) only in 1951. Similarly the number of immigrants from P.E.P.S.U. in Ajmer fell from 830 (or 7.9 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 to 28 or 0.3 per thousand in 1941 and has again risen to 460 (or 4 per thousand in 1951. In Rajasthan they are mostly found in the districts given in Table No. 53 from which we see that their number is more or less symmetrical with the distances of these districts from P.E.P.S.U. and there is nothing peculiar about the sex ratio also.

TABLE No. 53

Distribution of immigrants from P. E. P. S. U. in Rajasthan.

Name of District	No. of immigrants from P. E. P. S. U.			Percentage of total immigrants from P.E.P.S.U. in Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
Jaipur	1,169	561	608	16.2
Bharatpur	1,547	789	758	21.4
Alwar	1,408	663	745	19.5
Jhunjhunu	1,735	902	833	24.0

Their occupational distribution is given in Table No. 54 which shows that agriculturists are prominent everywhere except Ajmer.

TABLE No. 54.

Occupational classification of immigrants from P. E. P. S. U. in Rajasthan and Ajmer

Name of district	Number per 1,000 of immigrants from P.E.P.S.U. in Rajasthan and Ajmer.	
	Agriculturists	Non-agriculturists
Jaipur .. .. .	906	94
Bharatpur .. .. .	1,000	..
Alwar .. .. .	507	493
Jhunjhunu .. .. .	704	296
Ajmer .. .. .	7	993

43. Eighth comes Madhya Pradesh which has sent 5,945 persons to Rajasthan (3,454 males and 2,491 females) who form 1.4 per cent. of the total immigrants. Similarly 4,768 persons it has sent to Ajmer (2,418 males and 2,350 females) who form 3.8 per cent. of the total immigrants in Ajmer. The number of immigrants from Madhya Pradesh in Rajasthan has increased from 2,914 (or 8.8 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 and 4,081 (or 12.6 per thousand) in 1941 to 5,945 (or 14 per thousand) in 1951. Similarly the number of immigrants from Madhya Pradesh in Ajmer has risen from 457 (or 4.4 per thousand of the total immigrants to the State) in 1931 and 953 (or 9.4 per thousand) in 1941 to 4,768 or 38 per thousand in 1951. In Rajasthan they are mostly found in Bharatpur (1,388) where they form 23 per cent. of the total immigrants to the district and two-thirds of them (66 per cent.) are agriculturists. The higher proportion of males indicates it to be a semi-permanent migration.

44. In addition to above States Ajmer attracts immigrants mostly from the States shown in Table No. 55. The most prominent is Rajasthan, as should be expected, because it surrounds Ajmer.

TABLE No. 55.

Other States from which people migrate to Ajmer

Name of State	Number of immigrants			Percentage to total immigrants in Ajmer from other Indian States	
	Persons	Males	Females	1951	1931
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rajasthan ..	93,494	46,607	46,887	72.0	72.9
West Bengal ..	3,047	1,527	1,520	2.3	0.4
Hyderabad ..	5,194	2,792	2,402	4.0	0.3
Madras ..	3,997	2,094	1,903	3.1	0.46

The only distant places from which people have come here are West Bengal, Hyderabad and Madras who are almost all non-agriculturists, among those who come from Rajasthan also non-agriculturists preponderate being 652 per thousand. The total number of immigrants in Ajmer State is 129,921 who form 18.8 per cent. of the total population of the State.

45. The immigrants from the remaining States are numerically insignificant, only 8,329 in Rajasthan and 4,564 in Ajmer. They form 2.4 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from States of India and 3.5 per cent. of the total immigrants to Ajmer from other States of India.

46. Subsidiary Table No. 1·6 shows that in the year 1931 the number of persons enumerated in Rajasthan and born outside it in India was 329,913 while people of Rajasthan enumerated outside it in other States of India were 846,703 in number. The net balance against Rajasthan in 1931 was 516,790 persons. In 1951 the net balance has increased in the two decades to 574,879 against Rajasthan as we see that in 1951 the number of persons enumerated in Rajasthan and born outside it in India is 350,511 while that of persons born in Rajasthan and enumerated in other States of India is 925,390 *i.e.*, to say there has been a net loss to the population of Rajasthan in the last twenty years amounting to 58,089 persons. These figures give an indication of the volume of the pressure of population on the resources of Rajasthan. In the case of Ajmer we see that in the year 1931, the number of persons enumerated in Ajmer and born outside it in India was 104,938 while people of Ajmer enumerated outside it in other States of India were only 60,903 in number. The net balance was in favour of Ajmer in 1931 to the extent of 44,035 persons. In 1951 the net balance has increased in the two decades to 75,244 in favour of Ajmer as the number of persons enumerated in Ajmer and born outside it in India is 129,921 while that of persons born in Ajmer and enumerated in other States of India is 54,677 *i.e.*, to say there has been a net gain to the population of Ajmer in the last 20 years by 31,209 persons. The commital migration of displaced persons is responsible to a great extent for this high number.

47. The total number of immigrants in the East Rajasthan Plain Division from States of India is 150,002 persons who have come mostly from Uttar Pradesh (32 per cent.), Punjab (28 per cent.) and Ajmer (18 per cent.) which are all contiguous to it. They form 2·3 per cent. of the total population of this Division and 42·8 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from States in India. Amongst the immigrants from the above States the males are slightly in excess of females.

**Extra statal immigration in Natural Divisions.**  
**East Rajasthan Plain Division.**

48. Nearly three-fourths of the immigrants to the Dry Area Division have come from Punjab. Those from other States form an insignificant proportion *viz.*, Ajmer (6 per cent.), and Uttar Pradesh (5 per cent.). The sex ratio is normal, thus indicating a permanent migration. The total number of immigrants in this Division from States in India is 108,133 persons who form 2·4 per cent. of the total population of the Division and 30·9 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from other Indian States.

**Dry Area Division.**

49. The Hills Division attracts immigrants mostly from the adjoining States, Bombay (43 per cent.), Madhya Bharat (28 per cent.) and Ajmer (14 per cent.). The total number of immigrants from States in India in this Division is 22,828 who form 1·1 per cent. of the total population of the Division and 6·5 per cent. of the total immigrants from States of India in this Division.

**Hills Division.**

50. The immigrants to the Plateau Division are also mostly from the neighbouring States Madhya Bharat (86 per cent.) and 4 per cent. from Uttar Pradesh. The total number is 69,548 who form 3·5 per cent. of the total population of the Division and 19·8 per cent. of the total immigrants from States in India to Rajasthan.

**Plateau Division.**

51. Jaipur has attracted 21,189 persons from States in India, mostly from Ajmer (60 per cent.), Uttar Pradesh (10 per cent.), and Punjab (10 per cent.) which are nearest to it. Males are in excess of females in the case of immigrants from each of the above States. The immigrants in Jaipur District form 1·3 per cent. of the total population of the district and 6·0 per cent. of the total immigrants into Rajasthan from States in India.

**Extra statal Immigration in Districts.**  
**Jaipur.**

**Tonk.** 52. Tonk draws Indian immigrants mostly from Ajmer (58 per cent.) and Uttar Pradesh (25 per cent.). Males are slightly in excess of females. The total number of outsiders in this district from States of India is only 6,045 who form 1.6 per cent. of the total population of this district and 1.7 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States in India.

**Sawai Madhopur.** 53. In Sawai Madhopur people come mostly from U.P. (32 per cent.) and Madhya Bharat (42 per cent.) both of which States touch this district. The males are in excess in the immigrants from Uttar Pradesh and females in those from Madhya Bharat. The number of immigrants from States in India in this district is 8,401 who form 1.1 per cent. of the total population of the district and 2.4 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States in India.

**Bharatpur.** 54. Bharatpur attracts people mostly from her next door neighbours Uttar Pradesh (52 per cent.) and Punjab (38 per cent.). The total number of immigrants from States in India in this district is 67,528 who form 7.4 per cent. of the total population of the district and 19.3 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States in India. There is nothing abnormal in sex ratio.

**Alwar.** 55. In Alwar people come mostly from Punjab (52 per cent.) and Uttar Pradesh (21 per cent.). Amongst them the males are more numerous. The number of immigrants in the district from States in India is 24,472 who form 2.8 per cent. of the total population of the district and 7.0 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from other States in India.

**Jhunjhunu.** 56. Jhunjhunu invites immigrants mostly from Punjab (46 per cent.) and P.E.P.S.U. (26 per cent.) among whom males are in excess. The total immigrants from States in India in Jhunjhunu are 6,714 who form 1.2 per cent. of the total population of the district and 1.9 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from other States in India.

**Sikar.** 57. The total number of people born in the States of India other than Rajasthan and enumerated in Sikar was 5,553 who form 0.9 per cent. of the total population of this district and 1.6 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States in India. In Sikar people come mostly from Ajmer (45 per cent.) and Madhya Bharat (27 per cent.). Amongst those coming from Ajmer males are nearly double the number of females. But amongst those coming from Madhya Bharat females slightly exceed the males. Madhya Bharat being situated at greater distance from Sikar than Punjab affords an instance of surprise as to what attracts people from a distant place in Sikar. But the sex ratio gives the answer that it is the females who came here by marriage.

**Bhilwara.** 58. Bhilwara finds immigrants mostly from Ajmer (67 per cent.) and Madhya Bharat (15 per cent.). Both these States touch the borders of this district. From Ajmer the males are nearly three and a half times the number of females while from Madhya Bharat the females are slightly in excess. The total number of immigrants from States in India in this district is 10,100 who form 1.4 per cent. of the total population of the district and 2.9 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from States in India.

**Bikaner.** 59. Bikaner District finds a great proportion of immigrants from Punjab (26 per cent.), Uttar Pradesh (16 per cent.) and Madhya Pradesh (10 per cent.). The sex ratio among them is normal. The total number of immigrants in this district from Indian States is only 2,683 who form 0.9 per cent. of the total population of the district and 0.8 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States in India.

60. Churu invites people in a great proportion from Punjab (41 per cent.) and Uttar Pradesh (32 per cent.), among whom the sex ratio is normal. The total number of immigrants in this district from States of India is 6,510 who form 1.3 per cent. of the total population of the district and 1.9 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States in India.

61. It is Ganganagar which has attracted 76,730 persons from the Punjab who form (95 per cent.) of the total immigrants to this district and the normal sex ratio shows the immigration to be permanent. These are settlers on the canal colony. The total number of immigrants in this district from States in India is 80,333 who form 12.8 per cent. of the total population of the district and 22.9 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States of India.

62. In Jodhpur District the number of immigrants from States of India is only 3,991 who form 0.6 per cent. of the total population of the district and 1.1 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from Indian States. They have come in larger proportions from Ajmer (21 per cent.), Uttar Pradesh (17 per cent.), Madhya Bharat (16 per cent.), Bombay (15 per cent.) and Punjab (10 per cent.). There is nothing abnormal in the sex ratio, Ajmer is the nearest place to this district. People from other distant places seem to have come due to Jodhpur City being the capital of a former big State with a huge Railway establishment.

63. Immigrants in Barmer from States in India are only 1,587 in number who form only 0.3 per cent. of the total population of the district and 0.5 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States of India. Nearly 69 per cent. of them came from Bombay which is the adjoining State.

64. Jalore District attracts 75 per cent. of her Indian States immigrants from her next door neighbour Bombay State. Nearly 8 per cent. have come from Punjab and nearly the same percentage from Hyderabad. The total number of immigrants from Indian States in this district is 1,384 who form 0.3 per cent. of the total population and 0.4 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States of India.

65. Pali District finds most of her immigrants from her neighbouring State Ajmer (47 per cent.) and the distant State Madhya Bharat (30 per cent.). The sex ratio is normal. The total number of immigrants from States in India in this district is 7,933 who form 1.2 per cent. of the population of the district and 2.3 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from other States of India.

66. Immigrants in Nagaur mostly come from Ajmer (43 per cent.), Madhya Bharat (18 per cent.), Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh 10 per cent. each. The total number of immigrants from Indian States in this district is 2,889 who form 0.4 per cent. of the total population of the district and 0.8 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from Indian States.

67. The only people in Jaisalmer from other States in India are 823 in number, who form 0.8 per cent. of the total population of this district and 0.2 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States of India. 47 per cent. of these people are from Madhya Pradesh, 16 per cent. from Uttar Pradesh and 14 per cent. from Bombay.

68. Udaipur District attracts immigrants chiefly from Bombay (35 per cent.) and Ajmer (30 per cent.) both of which are adjoining States. The total number of immigrants to this district from States in India is 10,582 who form 0·9 per cent. of the total population of the district and 3·0 per cent. of the total immigrants into Rajasthan from States of India.
- Udaipur.**
69. Dungarpur District invites people from her adjacent States namely, Madhya Bharat 45 per cent. and Bombay 44 per cent. The total number of immigrants to this district from States in India is 3,302 who form 1·1 per cent. of the total population of the district and 1·0 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from States of India.
- Dungarpur.**
70. In Banswara, people come chiefly from the neighbouring States of Bombay (52 per cent.) and Madhya Bharat (46 per cent.). The total number of immigrants to this district from States in India is 6,416 who form 1·8 per cent. of the total population of the district and 1·8 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from States of India.
- Banswara.**
71. Sirohi District finds immigrants mostly from Bombay (68 per cent.) Madhya Bharat (14 per cent.) and Saurashtra (7 per cent.). All of them except Madhya Bharat are adjacent States. The total number of immigrants from States in India in this district is 2,528 who form 1·1 per cent. of the total population of the district and 0·7 per cent. of the total number of immigrants in Rajasthan from Indian States.
- Sirohi.**
72. Chittorgarh District finds 94 per cent. of her immigrants from the adjoining State Madhya Bharat. The total number of immigrants to this district from States in India is 19,202 who form 3·8 per cent. of the total population of the district and 5·5 per cent. of the total immigrants to Rajasthan from States of India.
- Chittorgarh.**
73. Bundi District draws 37 per cent. of her immigrants from Madhya Bharat, 20 per cent. from U. P. and 18 per cent. from Ajmer. The total number of migrants in this district from States in India is 3,314 who form 1·2 per cent. of the total population of the district and 0·9 per cent. of the immigrants in Rajasthan from other States.
- Bundi.**
74. 80 per cent. of the immigrants in Kotah District are from Madhya Bharat, her adjoining State and 5 per cent. from U.P. The total immigrants in this district from States in India are 25,859 who form 3·4 per cent. of the total population of the district and 7·4 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from Indian States.
- Kotah.**
75. 93 per cent. of the immigrants into Jhalawar come from Madhya Bharat with which this district is interwoven. The total immigrants in the district from States in India are 21,173 who form 5·7 per cent. of total population and 6·0 per cent. of the total immigrants in Rajasthan from States of India.
- Jhalawar.**
76. The above review has showed that extra statal migration in Rajasthan is mostly confined to bordering districts and for all practical purposes, it can be classed as nothing but migration to the adjacent districts. It has assumed the extra statal shape because of the situation of the districts on the borders of two different States, as we see in Subsidiary Table 1·4 that the districts in which this sort of migration is the most conspicuous are the bordering districts or those which touch other States namely, Ganganagar (12·8), Bharatpur (7·5), Jhalawar (5·7), Chittorgarh (3·8) and Kotah (3·5).



77. Subsidiary Table 1·4 (a) shows that the greatest intra-statal immigration is found in Rajasthan Dry Area Division where 4·9 per cent. of the population are born in Rajasthan but outside the districts of enumeration. In East Rajasthan Plain Division, the percentage is 4·7 and in the Plateau division it is 3·7. In the Hills Division the migration is found to be the least, the percentage being 1·9 only.

78. Coming to the district level we find that the only districts in which the percentage of persons born in Rajasthan but outside the district of enumeration is more than 5 per cent. are Tonk (12·9), Barmer (10·6), Sikar (8·0), Jhunjhunu (7·5) and Jhalawar (7·2). The districts in which this sort of immigration is the least significant are Udaipur (1·4), Jodhpur (1·5), Dungarpur (1·8) and Banswara (1·8).

79. The districts in which the amount of immigration, both intra-statal and extra-statal combined is the least are Banswara (2·6), Jalore (2·8), Dungarpur (2·9), Udaipur (3·0) and Bhilwara (3·9). These are comparatively the less developed parts of the State. Lack of means of communication in the interior is the main cause of slow pace of immigration into these districts. But these districts contain rich mineral deposits and good forests and there are possibilities for the development of the forest and mining industries and also extension of cultivation if irrigation facilities are developed. They are, therefore, bound to attract a large number of migrants as soon as communications are improved and medical facilities are made available in the interior. A few years back, a railway project connecting Udaipur with Himmatnagar was under consideration. If it will bear fruit the development of this part of the country is sure and it will attract many immigrants.

80. This is a phenomenon, which is gaining importance gradually with urbanisation. These daily movements have considerable importance in handling difficult problems of traffic, transport and housing; and, as many of our towns are rapidly growing, it may soon become necessary to collect statistics about such movements during the census or otherwise by undertaking subsidiary sample enquiries. In big cities, like Jaipur, Ajmer, Jodhpur, Bikaner and Udaipur, people come to attend their work from distant places. Some rough idea of this type of daily movement might be had by considering the average daily passenger traffic by rail and road. But statistics relating to the above are not regularly maintained nor was any attempt made to collect whatever figures were available. Even if we could obtain figures, they would be defective due to the fact that most people come on bicycles or on foot every day whose figures it would be difficult to collect. Gradually as our industries develop in big cities, the population picture of the industrial or business centres during the day might be very much different from the residential picture of the population as presented by the usual census data; and for numerous administrative purposes it might become necessary to take account of the working population in such a place as distinguished from the residential population.

81. During the last decade, the number of Anglo-Indians in Rajasthan has fallen short by 60 and in Ajmer by 707, when compared with the figures of 1941. The fly leaf of Table D-II in Report Part II-A gives districts-wise details. Enquiries made through district officers show that "In Ajmer, the abnormal fall, in the population of Anglo-Indians in comparison with the 1941 Census figures, is due to the fact that after the partition of India, many Anglo-Indians left Ajmer for permanent settlement in other countries." The same may be the reason for Rajasthan.

82. The total number of persons born in Rajasthan and enumerated in other parts of India has been found to be 925,390 (males 454,871, females 470,519). They form nearly 6 per cent. of the total population enumerated in Rajasthan. Similarly total number of persons born in Ajmer and enumerated in other parts of India is 54,677 (males 30,745 and females 23,932). They form 11.1 per cent. of the total population enumerated in Ajmer. The details of States where they have been found can be seen in Subsidiary Table 1.5-a. The above figure does not depict the total amount of emigration from the States, because figures of emigrants to places outside India are not available. Emigration from Rajasthan outside India except Pakistan is negligible and is confined to students and public men. A few people go as domestic servants accompanying their masters on their travels and a few have found their way to Africa. Actual figures of the few people of Rajasthan residing in the different foreign countries are not available.

83. The Table No. 56 shows the fluctuations in the volume of emigration. In Rajasthan the highest proportion is seen in 1901 which may be due to "Chhapnia Famine." We have seen in Table 41 in para 16 above that the lowest proportion of immigrants was also in that year. In 1931 it fell down to the same figure as in 1891. The figures of the present Census are the lowest. The reason is not that emigration has decreased but that the emigrants have gone to places outside India of which we could not obtain the names and the figures. In Ajmer the figures of 1901 are the lowest while the highest figure of emigration is visible in 1911. The remarks about the figures of present Census given above in the case of Rajasthan also apply to Ajmer.

TABLE No. 56.

Number of persons born in Rajasthan and Ajmer and enumerated outside, per thousand of the total population.

Year.	Rajasthan		Ajmer	
	Persons born in the State and enumerated outside per 1,000 of total population of the State.	Variation + —	Persons born in the State and enumerated outside per 1,000 of total population of the State.	Variation + —
	2	3	4	5
1891	75	..	..	..
1901	93	+18	53	..
1911	81	—12	168	+115
1921	88	+ 7	86	— 82
1931	75	—13	109	+ 32
1941	N o t A v a i l a b l e		N o t A v a i l a b l e.	
1951	58	— 17	79	— 30

84. The extent of the movement of the people from these States to other States of India and the counter-movement from the other States to Rajasthan and Ajmer is clear from the Tables No. 56—A and 57.

Movement and Counter-movement.

TABLE No. 56-A.

## Migration to and from Rajasthan.

Name of the State	Immigrants to Rajasthan from States in Column 1.	Emigrants from Rajasthan to States in Column 1.	Net gain or loss to Rajasthan
1	2	3	+
			—
			4
1. Uttar Pradesh ..	57,974	128,767	— 70,793
2. Bombay ..	18,682	190,396	— 171,714
3. Punjab ..	124,747	85,131	+ 39,616
4. West Bengal ..	2,117	56,000	— 53,883
5. Orissa ..	476	1,883	— 1,407
6. Assam ..	679	17,280	— 16,601
7. Madras ..	1,008	6,223	— 5,215
8. Madhya Pradesh ..	5,945	36,957	— 31,012
9. Bihar ..	855	11,796	— 10,941
10. Saurashtra ..	1,355	2,326	— 971
11. Madhya Bharat ..	81,404	180,135	— 98,731
12. P.E.P.S.U. ..	7,216	41,299	— 34,083
13. Mysore ..	245	4,277	— 4,032
14. Travancore Cochin ..	11	46	— 35
15. Hyderabad ..	1,251	14,568	— 13,317
16. Jammu & Kashmir ..	184	..	+ 184
17. Bhopal ..	152	3,536	— 3,384
18. Delhi ..	7,361	48,592	— 41,231
19. Bilaspur ..	..	127	— 127
20. Himachal Pradesh ..	58	15	+ 33
21. Vindhya Pradesh ..	38	314	— 276
22. Sikkam ..	..	223	— 223
23. Tripura ..	..	144	— 144
24. Ajmer ..	38,753	93,494	— 54,741
25. Cutch ..	..	1,014	— 1,014
26. Manipur ..	..	203	— 203
27. Coorg ..	..	8	— 8
28. Chandarnagar ..	..	6	— 6
<b>Total</b> ..	<b>350,511</b>	<b>925,390</b>	<b>— 574,879</b>

It is interesting to note that there is not a single State in India in which Rajasthanis have not been found. They are substantial in number i.e. more than 50,000 in U.P., Bombay, Punjab, West Bengal, Madhya Bharat and Ajmer, all of which except West Bengal are the bordering States. The one State which gives more people to Rajasthan than it takes is the Punjab and the reason is the canal colonisation of Ganganagar which is nearest to Punjab and, therefore, attracts people therefrom to which a reference has been made on several occasions. All other States have attracted more people from Rajasthan than they have

given. Leaving aside the neighbouring States, Rajasthan has attracted people from places as distant as Jammu and Kashmir, Hyderabad, Travancore-Cochin, Mysore, Madras, Assam, Orissa and West Bengal.

TABLE No. 57.

## Migration to and from Ajmer.

Name of the State	Immigrants to Ajmer from States in column 1	Emigrants from Ajmer to States in column 1	Net gain or loss to Ajmer
1	2	3	4
1. Uttar Pradesh .. ..	5,169	2,135	+ 3,034
2. Bombay .. ..	3,831	2,910	+ 921
3. Punjab .. ..	2,636	301	+ 2,335
4. West Bengal .. ..	3,047	95	+ 2,952
5. Orissa .. ..	591	141	+ 450
6. Assam .. ..	466	1	+ 465
7. Madras .. ..	3,997	114	+ 3,883
8. Madhya Pradesh .. ..	4,768	304	+ 4,464
9. Bihar .. ..	1,235	22	+ 1,213
10. Saurashtra .. ..	1,756	1	+ 1,755
11. Madhya Bharat .. ..	1,584	7,445	- 5,861
12. P.E.P.S.U. ... ..	460	73	+ 387
13. Mysore .. ..	5	1	+ 4
14. Travancore Cochin .. ..	..	4	- 4
15. Hyderabad .. ..	5,194	579	+ 4,615
16. Jammu and Kashmir .. ..	375	..	+ 375
17. Rajasthan .. ..	93,494	38,753	+ 54,741
18. Bhopal .. ..	81	284	- 203
19. Delhi .. ..	1,117	1,499	- 322
20. Bilaspur .. ..	..	..	..
21. Himachal Pradesh .. ..	27	1	+ 26
22. Vindhya Pradesh .. ..	28	14	+ 14
<b>Total .. ..</b>	<b>129,921</b>	<b>54,677</b>	<b>+ 75,244</b>

85. The only States the emigrants to which from Ajmer exceed immigrants are Delhi, Bhopal, Madhya Bharat and Travancore-Cochin to a very little extent. The number of emigrants to Bhopal and Travancore-Cochin is inconsiderable but that of those to Madhya Bharat is striking and Delhi also attracts a substantial number. All other States give more people to Ajmer than they take. Apart from the neighbouring States Ajmer attracts people from places as distant as West Bengal, Orissa, Assam, Madras, Bihar, Mysore, Hyderabad, Jammu and Kashmir. Leaving aside Rajasthan and Madhya Bharat the people from Ajmer are found in substantial numbers in U.P. and Bombay only; in all other places the number is insignificant. The overall position in respect of migration is shown in Subsidiary Table 1-6 in Part I-B of the Report. It shows that the figure of immigrants into Ajmer State exceeds that of emigrants by 75,244 persons in 1951 as compared to 44,035 in 1931 and in Rajasthan the case is reverse. Here the emigrants exceed by 574,879 in 1951 as compared to 516,790 in 1931 as noticed in para 46 above.

86. It is easy to understand why there was relatively little movement into Rajasthan. The standard of living was comparatively low, the population already dense. Industry was not developed on a scale that would require much outside labour, whether skilled or unskilled, and political security prevented immigration by conquest. Those who did migrate to Rajasthan came from a diversity of motives. Some found new advantages like the Madrasis and the Uttar Pradesh people in administrative and other services; some became highly prized soldiers *e. g.* Sikhs from the Punjab, and the Gurkhas from Nepal, others came to worship (Gujratis in Nathdwara and Rikhabdev). Others again to colonise in the canal area of Ganganagar which adjoins the Punjab. Conditions discouraging immigration are likely to continue in the future; hence there is little prospect that Rajasthan will become an area of net immigration, but every likelihood that it will continue to be area of net emigration.

87. The names of States to which the people of Rajasthan and Ajmer mostly migrate are given in Subsidiary Table 1-5-a. The Table No. 58 below shows the names of such of them to which people of Rajasthan mostly migrated. It shows that more than half the number of emigrants from Rajasthan are found in Bombay, Madhya Bharat and U.P. combined, Ajmer and Punjab come next. The reason is obvious. Rajasthan is surrounded on all sides by these States. The sex ratio apparent from a look at columns 3 and 4 clearly indicates a very high proportion of females in Madhya Bharat, U.P. and Punjab from which it can be inferred that this is what has been called the casual or social migration. The only distant State to which the people from this State flow is Bengal. The City of Calcutta alone excluding Howrah absorbs 4.5 per cent. of the total emigrants from Rajasthan and nearly three-fourths of the emigrants of Rajasthan to Bengal. These are the well-known Marwari Seths and their dependants and followers who generally leave their ladies at home. This is why the ratio of males to females in them is as high as 9:5. The almost equal sex ratio among the emigrants from Rajasthan to Delhi and Ajmer proves it to be a case of permanent migration while the high proportion of males in the emigrants from Rajasthan to Bombay and Bengal gives an indication of the migration being semi-permanent.

TABLE No. 58.

## States to which people of Rajasthan mostly migrated.

Name of State	Total No. of emigrants from Rajasthan			P. C. of total emigrants from Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5
Bombay .. .. .	190,396	120,129	70,267	20.6
Madhya Bharat .. .. .	180,135	77,450	102,685	19.5
Uttar Pradesh .. .. .	128,767	48,793	79,974	13.9
Ajmer .. .. .	93,494	46,607	46,887	10.1
Punjab .. .. .	85,131	29,660	55,471	9.2
Bengal (excluding Calcutta) .. .. .	14,610	..	..	1.6
Calcutta .. .. .	41,390	..	..	4.5
Total Bengal .. .. .	56,000	36,303	19,697	6.1
Delhi .. .. .	48,592	24,171	24,421	5.3

88. The people from Ajmer are mostly found in the States shown in the following Table No. 59 which shows that a vast majority of them *i.e.* nearly 71 per cent. are in Rajasthan which surrounds Ajmer. Their number in the other States is insignificant except Madhya Bharat where nearly 1/7th of the emigrants from Ajmer are found.

TABLE No. 59

States to which people of Ajmer mostly migrated.

Name of State	Total No. of emigrants from Ajmer			P. C. of total emigrants from Ajmer
	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan .. .. .	38,753	22,840	15,913	70·8
Madhya Bharat .. .. .	7,445	3,859	3,586	13·6
Bombay .. .. .	2,910	1,761	1,149	5·3
U. P. .. .. .	2,135	1,014	1,121	4·9

89. The following Table No. 60 shows the means of livelihood of emigrants to Bombay from Rajasthan. It shows that a little less than one-third of the Rajasthanis in Bombay are engaged in Industry. Those depending upon services do outside (a) in Bombay and miscellaneous sources also form the same ratio. Nearly one-fourth are traders. Those following other occupations are numerically insignificant. The sex ratio reveals facts which cannot be said to be beyond expectation; namely, that among the service class as well as traders and industrialists, the males preponderate; so also in agricultural labourers and followers of transport industry indicating it to be a semi-permanent migration. Among the owner cultivators and cultivators of unowned land and rent receivers the females are in the majority. These latter seem to contain in them ladies who went to the adjoining districts of Bombay by marriage.

TABLE No. 60

Livelihood Classes of emigrants from Rajasthan in Bombay.

Livelihood Classes	Total persons			P.C. of total emigrants to Bombay from Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
I Cultivators of owned land .. .. .	12,917	3,303	9,614	6·8
II Cultivators of unowned land .. .. .	2,152	544	1,608	1·1
III Cultivating labourers .. .. .	1,533	1,046	487	·8
IV Rent on agricultural land .. .. .	1,104	473	631	·6
V Production other than cultivation .. .. .	55,817	36,678	19,139	29·3
VI Commerce .. .. .	48,493	32,372	16,121	25·5
VII Transport .. .. .	10,599	6,672	3,927	5·6
VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources	57,781	39,041	18,740	30·3

90. Persons born in Rajasthan and enumerated in Bombay are distributed in districts of Bombay as shown in the following Table No. 61. From this table it is clear that the District of

TABLE No. 61.

District-wise distribution of emigrants from Rajasthan in Bombay.

Name of district	Emigrants from Rajasthan	P.C. of total emigrants from Rajasthan to Bombay	Number belonging to each Livelihood Class							
			Cultivators of owned land	Cultivators of unowned land	Cultivating labourers	Rent on agricultural land	Production other than cultivation	Commerce	Transport	Other Services and miscellaneous sources
I	2	3	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Ahmedabad ..	55,931	29.4	126	77	107	41	28,088	10,506	5,023	11,963
Greater Bombay	39,496	20.7	19	4	8	33	5,829	17,548	560	15,495
Banaskantha ..	21,245	11.2	4,396	1,381	231	203	5,025	2,120	1,551	6,338
Sabarkantha ..	10,139	5.3	4,549	32	283	101	1,992	427	468	2,287

Ahmedabad attracts a little less than a third of the emigrants from Rajasthan to Bombay State and Greater Bombay almost one-fifth. In other districts they are comparatively fewer. This table also shows, what was just expected, that in both the above named places the Rajasthanis are, almost all, following non-agricultural pursuits. Industry keeps engaged nearly half the number of Rajasthanis in Ahmedabad; nearly one-fifth are engaged in service and practically the same is the proportion of traders. Nearly one-tenth of them earn their livelihood by transport industry. Those going from Rajasthan to Greater Bombay are mostly traders, (a little less than one-half); service keeps engaged almost the same number, (slightly less). Industry occupies the third position and transport is not significant. Agriculturists are found in the Districts of Banaskantha and Sabarkantha though their number is less than that of the non-agriculturists. Allurements of city life, better opportunities of industrial employment and commercial activities and big network of railways seem to be the main attraction for the people of these States which induce them to migrate to Bombay city while to the districts of Bombay State, adjoining Rajasthan, the ordinary casual type of migration is found.

TABLE No. 62.

Livelihood Classes of emigrants from Rajasthan in Madhya Bharat.

Livelihood Classes.	Total immigrants from Rajasthan to Madhya Bharat.			P. C. of total emigrants to Madhya Bharat from Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5
Agricultural.	80,699	26,311	54,388	44.8
Non-Agricultural.	99,436	51,139	48,297	55.2

91. People from Rajasthan in Madhya Bharat are almost equally divided between agricultural and non-agricultural classes. The latter being slightly more numerous as seen in the inset Table 62.



92. Persons born in Rajasthan, enumerated in Madhya Bharat, are distributed in the district of Madhya Bharat as shown in the following Table No. 63. It shows that nearly one-half of them are found in Mandsoor and Indore Districts combined which are nearest to Rajasthan. In the remote districts they are less numerous. Non-agriculturists are in the majority in Indore, Ujjain and Ratlam and the agriculturists in the rest of the districts of Madhya Bharat.

TABLE No. 63.

District-wise distribution of emigrants from Rajasthan in Madhya Bharat.

Name of District	Emigrants from Rajasthan to Madhya Bharat.		Number belonging to Livelihood classes.	
	Actual	Percentage of total emigrants from Rajasthan to Madhya Bharat	Agricultural	Non-Agricultural
1	2	3	4	5
Mandsaur .. .. .	59,570	33.1	37,271	22,299
Indore .. .. .	29,566	16.4	2,434	27,132
Ujjain .. .. .	15,743	8.7	3,048	12,695
Morena .. .. .	13,485	7.5	8,111	5,374
Ratlam .. .. .	12,289	6.8	4,938	7,351
Goona .. .. .	10,573	5.9	7,351	3,222

93. The following Table No. 64 shows the distribution by means of livelihood classes of emigrants from Rajasthan in Uttar Pradesh. It shows that more than one-third of the number of emigrants from Rajasthan to Uttar Pradesh are owner cultivators and their dependants and nearly one-fourth depend on services and miscellaneous sources. *Prima facie* this gives a hint why the population of Bharatpur District which adjoins U. P. is falling or growing at a less rapid pace. Most of the people from Bharatpur seem to have left their original home due to increased pressure of population on cultivated land and obtained land in the adjacent State of U. P. But this is not absolutely correct, for the above number also consists of an appreciable number of ladies who have migrated to U.P. by being married there, or who may have gone there for delivery as revealed by the high proportion of women, nearly five times the number of males, in the owner cultivators and nearly double in the cultivating tenants and agricultural labourers.

TABLE No. 64.

Livelihood classes of emigrants from Rajasthan in Uttar Pradesh.

Livelihood Classes	Immigrants from Rajasthan to U. P.			P. C. of total emigrants to U. P. from Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5
I Cultivators of owned land ..	43,961	7,384	36,577	34.1
II Cultivators of unowned land ..	7,475	2,583	4,892	5.8
III Cultivating labourers ..	4,317	1,523	2,794	3.4

TABLE No. 64 (Contd.)

Livelihood Classes	Immigrants from Rajasthan to U. P.			P. C. of total emigrants to U. P. from Rajasthan
	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5
IV Rent on agricultural land ..	1,243	356	887	1.0
V Production other than cultivation	19,161	9,777	9,384	14.9
VI Commerce .. ..	16,910	7,810	9,100	13.1
VII Transport .. ..	4,546	2,633	1,913	3.5
VIII Other services and Misc. sources,	31,154	16,727	14,427	24.2
<b>TOTAL</b> ..	<b>128,767</b>	<b>48,793</b>	<b>79,974</b>	<b>100</b>

94. The distribution of emigrants from Rajasthan in the districts of U.P. can be seen in Sub-Table 1.5-b in Part I-B of the Report. The following Table No. 65 shows that it is the districts of Uttar Pradesh nearest to Bharatpur namely Agra and Mathura to which the people of

TABLE No. 65.

Occupational distribution of emigrants from Rajasthan to U. P.

Name of District	Emigrants from Rajasthan to Uttar Pradesh		Number belonging to Livelihood Class								
	Actual.	P. C. to total emigrants from Rajasthan to U. P.	Cultivators of owned land	Cultivators of unowned land	Cultivating labourers	Rent on agricultural land	Production other than cultivation	Commerce	Transport	Other services and miscellaneous sources.	
1	2	3	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	
Agra ..	48,119	37.4	23,464	3,501	2,799	320	5,954	3,155	1,385	7,541	
Mathura ..	37,166	28.9	16,362	3,456	750	292	3,767	3,592	935	8,012	
Meerut ..	6,297	4.9	167	76	129	34	1,307	642	354	3,588	
Kanpur ..	4,708	3.7	80	29	8	24	1,415	1,801	128	1,223	

Bharatpur migrate in a large number. In the remote districts the proportion is insignificant. In the neighbouring districts the agriculturists are in substantial numbers, while in the remote ones, non-agricultural classes are more numerous.

95. Nearly two-thirds of Rajasthanis who go to Ajmer are non-agriculturists (60,948) and the rest agriculturists (32,546).

(d) In Ajmer

96. Amongst those who have gone to Punjab nearly two-thirds are agriculturists (54,110) and the rest non-agriculturists (31,021). In the Punjab they are mostly found in Gurgaon and Hissar Districts, the two districts nearest to Rajasthan. In both the places the agriculturists are prominent as seen in the following Table No. 66.

TABLE No. 66.

Districts of Punjab to which people of Rajasthan mostly migrated.

Name of District	Emigrants from Rajasthan to Punjab		Agriculturists	Non-Agriculturists
	Actual	P. C. to total immigrants from Rajasthan to Punjab		
1	2	3	4	5
Gurgaon .. ..	32,529	38.2	23,287	9,242
Hissar .. ..	21,967	25.8	16,166	5,801

97. Our people in Bengal are mostly found in the Cities of Calcutta and Howrah (41,390 plus 1,012) where these are mostly traders (64.7 per cent.) next to them are those belonging to service class (23 per cent.) and industrialists (10 per cent). Some of them are also found in other districts where also they follow mostly the same pursuits, namely, traders (43 per cent.), service class (19 per cent.) and industrialists (24 per cent.). In the districts of Jalpaiguri and Bardwan they are more numerous than in other districts.

98. As we have seen above in Table No. 49 persons born in Ajmer, enumerated in Rajasthan, are mostly found in the districts of Rajasthan nearer to Ajmer namely Jaipur (33.1), Bhilwara (17.6), Pali (9.6) and Tonk (9.1). They are also found in other districts in comparatively small numbers. Agriculturists are in prominence in Jaipur, Bhilwara and Tonk while in Pali non-agriculturists are more numerous.

99. Out of those who have gone from Ajmer to Madhya Bharat, 77 per cent. are non-agriculturists and the rest agriculturists. They are mostly found in Mandsaur (42 per cent.), Indore (24 per cent.) and Ratlam (13 per cent.).

100. Out of the people from Ajmer found in Bombay nearly 39 per cent. are industrialists, 25 per cent belong to service class, traders form 21.6 per cent. and transport supports 13 per cent. of the total emigrants from Ajmer to Bombay. They are mostly found in Greater Bombay 41 per cent, Banaskantha 24 per cent. and in Panch Mahals 23 per cent. In the other districts they are less numerous.

101. The number of persons from Ajmer, enumerated in Uttar Pradesh, is insignificant as we have seen (2,135 only). They are mostly found in the Districts of Agra (600) and Lucknow (219) and in small numbers in other districts. 44 per cent of them belong to service class, 22 per cent. are industrialists, traders form 13 per cent. transport supports 7 per cent. and 8 per cent. of them are owner cultivators.

102. In the foregoing paragraphs we have seen the degree of immobility of the people of Rajasthan and Ajmer. A vast majority of people born in Rajasthan (*i.e.* 89.9 per cent.) live all their life in the districts where they are born. Those who move out of the districts of births are only 10.1 per cent. Of them 3.0 per cent do not move beyond their Natural Division and 1.2 per cent. do not move beyond this State. Those who go out of the State are only 5.9 per cent. Even among them 4.6 per cent. are such as do not go beyond the adjacent State. Only 1.3 per cent. dare go to distant States in India. It is the non-agriculturists who move to a greater distance. Bombay, Ahmedabad and Calcutta are the chief places which provide occupation for such persons. In an area as large, diverse, and transitional as ours, the movements of people are necessarily large in numbers but, in this case at least, small in proportion to the total population. The people of the Indian region have long been famous for their attachment to their native locale, and the statistics confirm this reputation.

103. In the above paragraphs we have considered the attractions in the adjoining States which have drawn the migrants. It is also interesting to review the factors at home which have encouraged the outward movement. In this connection a perusal of Subsidiary Table 4.9 (Land Area per capita in 1951 and trend of cultivation during the three decades) is of considerable interest. The following table No. 67 shows that the area of cultivation per capita in cents has fallen in the State as a whole and in some of the Natural Divisions as follows:—

TABLE No. 67.

Trend of cultivation during three decades.

State and Natural Division	Area of cultivation per capita (in cents.)			
	1951	1941	1931	1921
Rajasthan State .. .. .	79.2	74.2	79.6	80.5
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	43.0	55.0	56.6	65.1
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	73.9	66.8	79.0	67.8
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	Non-reporting area.			
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	114.3	110.6	123.4	108.3
Ajmer State .. .. .	59.7	52.7	67.1	73.2

The figures show that there is a steady fall of about 22.1 cents in the per capita cultivated land in the East Rajasthan Plain Division since 1921. There is a corresponding fall of 13.5 cents in Ajmer State. In other Divisions the cultivated land per capita has not decreased but as we have seen in Section 2, para 59, agricultural crowding is significant in those Divisions also which compel the people to leave their homes in search of land in the nearest district of the adjoining States. The districtwise figures showing birth districts of emigrants from Rajasthan are not available but the probability is that the people from Bharatpur, where number of agricultural population per square mile is as high as 513, must be migrating to the adjoining Districts of Agra and Mathura of U. P. Similarly people from Alwar migrate to the Gurgaon District of the Punjab State.

104. This is the difference between the immigration into the State and emigration from the State during the decade. On a perusal of Subsidiary Tables 1.6 and 1.7 it is found that during the decade 1921-30 the population of the State decreased by 109,873 persons in Rajasthan and 21,990 in Ajmer on account of the net loss due to migration. Similarly during the period 1931-1950 the population decreased by 58,089 persons on account of migration in Rajasthan and increased by 31,209 persons in Ajmer. It is not possible to get similar figures for the decade 1931-40 because figures for the migrants at the 1941 Census were not tabulated and are not available. Similarly, detailed calculations in respect of the net migration into the Natural Divisions or districts is not practicable for want of the figures of emigrants.

105. This means the persons born in Rajasthan and Ajmer, wherever they were found at the time of enumeration, whether in these States or elsewhere. It has been worked out in Subsidiary Table No. 1.5 by deducting from the total population of these States, the number of persons born outside the States and adding the number of persons born in the States and enumerated in other parts of India. The number comes to 15,561,807 in Rajasthan and 547,175 in Ajmer. In 1931, the natural population of Rajasthan was 11,741,476 and that of Ajmer 461,423. During the two decades, there has been an increase by 32.6 p.c. in case of Rajasthan and by 18.6 in case of Ajmer as shown in Subsidiary Table 1.7. But the above figures are defective in this respect that they do not contain the number of persons born in these States and enumerated outside India. It is more than the enumerated population in case of Rajasthan and less in case of Ajmer. The net balance of migration in the 1951 Census in favour of Ajmer is 99,545 persons and against Rajasthan Rs. 610,499 persons.

106. The chief features of birth-place figures reviewed in this section are: (i) they prove the extent to which the population of these States is home-born and continues to reside near the places of birth; (ii) they prove that of immigrants by far the largest number come from localities contiguous to the place of birth; (iii) the comparative unimportance of extra-Indian immigration except that of the displaced persons is very clearly demonstrated; (iv) they indicate that these States draw their Indian immigrants, other than those from contiguous areas, mostly from certain definite areas and that immigration of this kind follows particular currents which are fairly constant; (v) the emigration figures are naturally incomplete as compared with the immigration figures and it is not very easy drawing conclusions of value from them; and (vi) as regards emigration from these States to foreign countries the statistics are not available at all and no really valuable results are possible in respect of them till some international system of census comparison can be evolved by international agreement. In the circumstances the discussion of emigration from these States to foreign countries had to be left untouched.

107. The above review has showed that migration plays a very limited part in affecting the growth of population in Ajmer. It has added only 31,209 persons to the population of Ajmer as it was in 1931 and on the contrary in Rajasthan, migration has adversely affected its population to the extent of 58,089 persons in these twenty years. This fact corroborates the presumption that Rajasthan is populated to its full capacity and that the increase in population is exciting emigration.

108. Some conditions in these States have favoured migration in the past. Religious festivals, commercial fairs, dire famines, general wars, and ruthless taxation have in the past stimulated movement. Some of these no longer exist, but other changes have come about that favour migration *e. g.*, the development of better transportation and communication, more education, a decline of caste and family solidarity, the growth of large scale industry, the development of cities, the expansion of irrigation, and the increase in security. Looking at these changes, one might conclude that an increase in internal migration must have occurred. But the statistics

fail to prove such an increase. Apparently the number of 'migrants' has not increased any faster than the population. This result may not mean that genuine internal migration has remained stationary. It is possible that casual movement across State boundaries for purposes of marriage and child-birth has declined, while migration for economic purposes has increased, though this seems unlikely.

109. Emigration from Rajasthan in the future is not likely to be large, and it certainly is not likely to have much effect in lessening the pressure of population in the homeland itself. In the first place, the total volume of migration has never been large in proportion to the total population. It has been sufficient to place Rajasthanis (Marwaries as they are called) in various parts of India as well as abroad, but it has not been sufficient to lessen seriously the rate of population growth in Rajasthan. In the second place, the current of migration has lessened in the last two decades. It has tended to become seasonal migration, which is not true emigration at all. In the third place, the factors that have led to this decline show no real sign of slackening in the future. Certainly it seems unlikely that emigration will constitute a release—a solution, for the population problem of this region.

110. Let us now proceed to consider the question of births and deaths and natural increase of the population.

### SECTION 5.

#### Natural Increase—Births and Deaths.

Natural increase in the population is the excess of births over deaths. The population of a country may grow either by natural increase or by receiving immigrants; and a reduction in the rate of growth may arise from causes operating either on the side of natural increase or on that of migration.

**Scope.** The increase in population growth rate between 1931 and 1941 and the slackening between 1941-51 in Rajasthan and rise in Ajmer, have been due to causes operating on natural increase. Although we have not got adequate vital statistics to support the above view but the figures of migration do give some clue to it as shown in the inset Table No. 68.

TABLE No. 68.

Period	Actual increase	Net gain or loss by migration	Estimated natural increase (excess of births over deaths)
<b>RAJASTHAN</b>			
1921-30	1,396	-110	1,506
1931-40	2,042	- 58	4,086
1941-50	1,984		
<b>AJMER.</b>			
1921-30	60	- 21	81
1931-40	76	+ 31	154
1941-50	-109		

It is clear from these figures that migration has not played a part of any importance in the recent population history of these States. It is also clear that the increase in the growth rate as well as slackening has been due not to a great increase or decrease in the volume of migration but to a great increase or decrease in the excess of births over deaths. The natural increase in Rajasthan which amounted to 1,506,085 in the decade 1921-30 was as high as 4,085,586 in the two decades 1931-50, and in Ajmer the natural increase has risen from 81,000 in the decade 1921-30 to as much 154,000 in the two decades 1931-50.

2. Since natural increase is the balance of births over deaths, the causes of its movement must be sought in the separate trends of births and deaths over the period. In this section we will study the birth and death rates in the State and will also consider the question of their reliability and use. The extent to which famines and pestilence of the past have influenced

these rates from time to time, and their effect on the growth of population will also be reviewed with reference to the conclusions arrived at in the previous section on the problems of movement with a view to present as complete a picture as practicable of the population trends in the State.

3. If death in these States is still tragically prevalent as we shall see later in this section and its reduction to date is dangerously tenuous and possibly temporary, a fundamental reason of the growth of population lies in the continuing high fertility. It is this high fertility, moreover, which along with the decline in mortality explains the rapid growth of the population during the last thirty years. Since migration affords no possible solution to the population problem of this region and since economic development cannot indefinitely provide for increasing numbers, the alternative to a calamitous rise in the death rate is a decline in fertility. Consequently an understanding of the demographic situation requires especially on its remedial side, an understanding of fertility. What, for example, has been the actual trend in the birth rate? What are the factors responsible for the trend and for the absolute magnitude of the rate? What are they in rural-urban class? And above all, what are the prospects for an early decline?

4. As vital statistics similar to those prevailing in other States of India have not been maintained in these States there is no means of knowing the natural increase in population over the last decade or any previous decade. Until such statistics are maintained it will be impossible to compare the Census population with the natural population or to use the Census statistics relating to age, sex and civil condition for the purpose for which they are intended. The need for hesitation in placing reliance on the available figures of births and deaths is due mainly to the fact that in rural areas births are probably recorded with greater accuracy than deaths, while the converse applies in urban area. Birth entries are subjected to a check by the vaccinators who perambulate the district from month to month and from year to year, while the decease of an individual in rural areas is the concern of none but his nearest relations. In urban areas congestion renders the task of the registrar and vaccinator more difficult, but funeral processions can be easily checked by the Municipal authorities, as they pass through the city gates on their way to the burial grounds or burning ghats which are always located at some distance from the inhabited quarters. On the other hand the birth-rate recorded in rural areas is disproportionate because of the general practice of the settlers in a city to despatch their woman-kind to their village homes for child birth.

5. Nevertheless it is probably not untrue to say that the working of the system of registration of births and deaths shows improvement from year to year and that the disparity between the actual facts and the figures available as representative of the facts is small. Though we have practically no vital statistics for Rajasthan we have some available for the Ajmer State but as conditions in the two States are not similar the figures for Ajmer cannot be used for drawing inferences for both States. Yet since these statistics can be used for certain purposes, it does not pay to dismiss them entirely. Indeed, their strengths and weaknesses must be clearly understood. To this end the major defects of the reported birth-rates are given below. Some of these defects are more serious than others, but they are all worth bearing in mind.

(i) Published rates until 1932, were calculated on the wrong population. Until 1932, in order to evade the problem of post-censal population estimates, birth and death rates were calculated simply on the basis of the population under registration at the last census. In other words, it kept the same population base throughout the ten years until the next census. This had the effect of artificially inflating the rates towards the end of each decade, especially in those decades when the population grew rapidly. This process was abandoned after the 1931 Census. From that date mid-year population on the basis of natural increase began to be estimated, though another method was substituted about 1935.



(ii) No age-specific rates were published. Since birth statistics have ordinarily not been published according to age of mother, substitute methods must be used if refined rates are to be calculated.

(iii) Birth reporting is incomplete. Even though an area may be under registration this does not mean that its reporting of births is complete. On the contrary we have reasons to believe that in Ajmer State also the number of births reported was, on the average, 44 per cent. below the actual number as explained later in para. 98 of this section. To understand why this deficiency existed and still exists, we have simply to recall the illiterate, rural character of the populace and the man, the village Patwari, who usually serves as registrar. The area under Jagir and Istimrari tenure is the most defective in this respect where there is no satisfactory arrangement for the reporting and recording of these events. But whatever its cause the huge under-registration of births throws a heavy obstacle in the way of using the official returns.

(iv) The figures for one region cannot be compared with those of another, because the adequacy of births registration varies significantly from district to district and town to town. Nowhere can the official figures be accepted as a representative of the total number of births but it is wise to recognize that the registered statistics prove useful in one way. They help to reveal the trend or lack of trend in fertility. Since the adequacy of registration has apparently changed very little during several decades, any pronounced increase or decrease in the registered birth rate should indicate a similar trend in the actual rate.

6. Subsidiary Table 1·3 in Part I-B of the Report gives the available figures for Ajmer State and the reporting area of Rajasthan *viz.*, former Bharatpur State. The officially reported births and the calculated rates for Ajmer and British India since 1911 are given in Table No. 69. Figures of British India have been taken from "Population of India and Pakistan" by Kingsley Davis Page 68 and those of Ajmer Merwara from the previous Census Reports.

TABLE No. 69.

Birth Rates in British India and Ajmer per 1,000.

Year	British India		Ajmer-Merwara	
	Annual Rate	5 Year average	Annual Rate	5 Year average
1	2	3	4	5
1911	38·8		48·0	
1912	39·2		47·0	
1913	39·5	39·0	43·0	45·8
1914	39·6		47·0	
1915	37·7		44·0	
1916	37·0		39·0	
1917	39·1		37·0	
1918	35·1	34·7	26·0	32·0
1919	30·0		30·0	
1920	32·8		28·0	
1921	32·1		31·1	
1922	31·6		30·3	
1923	34·7	33·0	32·6	32·1
1924	33·8		33·3	
1925	32·8		33·2	

TABLE No. 69 (Contd.)

Year	British India		Ajmer-Merwara	
	Annual Rate	5 Year average	Annual Rate	5 Year average
1	2	3	4	5
1926	33·5		31·4	
1927	33·8		30·4	
1928	34·9	33·8	33·3	32·6
1929	33·3		34·4	
1930	34·8		33·6	
1931	34·8		35·0	
1932	33·9		36·0	
1933	35·7	34·6	40·0	37·2
1934	33·7		36·0	
1935	34·7		39·0	
1936	35·2		43·0	
1937	34·0		43·0	
1938	33·6	33·5	38·0	38·4
1939	33·0		33·0	
1940	32·0		33·0	
1941	32·2		28·0	
1942	29·5		32·0	
1943	26·1	28·3	24·0	
1944	25·8		27·0	27·8
1945	27·9		28·0	
1946			32·0	
1947			33·0	30·2
1948			26·0	
1949			28·0	
1950			32·0	

7. The table, deficient as its figures may be, does suggest three conclusions: First, fertility is high in Ajmer even when compared with British India, the rate even with very defective registration has, in India as a whole, only since 1941 dropped below 30 and has generally remained above 33 per thousand. In case of Ajmer the rate has been falling from 48·0 in 1911 to 24·0 in 1943. The decennial average has fallen in the last decade to 29·0. Second, the range of variation is not so great or so rapid as that exhibited by urban industrial nations; the lowest annual rate was 25·8 in 1944, the highest 39·6 in 1914, in India in general, and in the case of Ajmer the lowest was 24 in 1943 and the highest 48·0 in 1911. Third and most important, there is slight suggestion of a long-run downward trend, although it rests so heavily on the beginning and ending periods that due caution should be exercised in giving it emphasis. In India between 1918 and 1941, a period embracing five-sevenths of the entire series, there was almost a dead level of fertility. It is possible that there has been a real drop since 1941, but it is also possible that registration declined during the war years. The official data are therefore not conclusive but they do suggest a slight tendency towards decline in the extremely high birth rate. The figures of Ajmer do not show the same pattern. Here ups and downs are noticeable.

8. The growth rate in these States has been reviewed in Section 3 above. A significant point to note at this stage is the contradictory character of the birth and growth rates in these States. In Ajmer although there is a fall in birth rate by 9.0 p.c. in the last decade there is a rise in the growth rate by 3.7 p.c. The unusual behaviour of growth rate is due to the unusual phenomenon of migration in the State, discussed in Section 4 of this Chapter.

9. We will now proceed to study the causes of the typical behaviour of the birth rates and for this purpose we shall have to study the position in the past decades. The available figures for Ajmer State are given in the following Table No. 70.

TABLE No. 70.

Years.	Birth rates in Ajmer State.			Birth Rate.
1911	..	..	..	48.0
1911-20	..	..	..	38.9
1921-30	..	..	..	32.3
1931-40	..	..	..	38.0
1941-50	..	..	..	29.0

There is a drop in the decade 1911-20 a further drop in 1921-30, a rise in the next decade 1931-40 followed by a drop again in 1941-50.

10. The number of births taking place at a particular time in a particular community obviously depends upon the proportion of females of child-bearing age. Consequently, if this group of females happens to be depleted at a particular time, the birth rate would be low and similarly, if it happens to be an inflated group, the birth rate would be high. Thus, for example, a famine usually affects the children and old people very much and, therefore, the relative proportion of the young people including women of child-bearing age is unduly increased in the population, with the result that after the famine the birth rate goes up, but it gradually comes down as the depleted age-groups of young children reach the fertility period. It is, therefore, necessary for a proper understanding of the behaviour of the birth rates to appreciate the history of the famines and epidemics in the State and their effect on the age-structure of the population; "The age structure indicates the nature, not only of the present rates of fertility and mortality, but of the fertility schedules that have influenced the population for generations. The age structure of a population is the living record of its biological history."<sup>1</sup> The history of the famines and scarcities from earliest times is briefly reviewed in Section 3 and here we shall confine ourselves to the effects of these calamities on the age structure and the birth rate.

11. The effects of the famines of 1897 to 1900 on the age distribution in Rajasthan and Ajmer States show that the mortality was heaviest on the population at the two extremes of life. The children and the old people were left depleted while the reproductive ages were least affected. The variation

1. Notestein and other, 'The Future population of Europe and the Soviet Union 1944, Page 109, (League of Nations, Geneva).

in the population in the different age-groups as ascertained at the Census of 1901 for Rajputana Agency was found to be as given in Table No. 71 below.

TABLE No. 71.

Percentage Variation of population in the different Age Groups at the 1901 Census.

(Rajputana Agency).

(Copied from All India Census Report 1901 Page 488).

	Age Groups				
	0-10	10-15	15-40	40-60	60 and over
Variation .. ..	-37.8	-2.8	-11.3	-13.4	-27.3

The above table clearly shows that nearly two-thirds of the loss of population occurred amongst people who had passed the reproductive time of life, or who had not yet reached it. The result was that recuperation was rapid and the birth rate in Ajmer was as high as 48 in 1911. During the next decade 1911-1920 the people who were in the age group 0-10 in 1901 came in the reproductive age group 20-30 and as they were depleted the birth rate consequently fell to 38.9 as shown in Table No. 70 above, although the process of recovery was in progress. At the Census of 1911, when the population had increased by about 6.8%, the variation in population at the different age periods was as given in Table No. 72 below.

TABLE No. 72.

Percentage variation in the different age-groups at the 1911 Census (copied from All India Census Report 1911 page 198) (Rajputana Agency).

	Age Groups				
	0-10	10-15	15-40	40-60	60 and over
Variation .. ..	+34.7	-23.5	+6.0	+4.0	+10.0

The effect of the famine is visible here in the age group 10-25 which shows a decrease by 23.5 per cent.

12. The above was the legacy of the famines and when this already depleted age-group reached the reproductive period during the next decade, the State was again overwhelmed with the Influenza epidemic of unprecedented virulence. "It shook the entire Province and wrought havoc surpassing all previous records. Complete statistics of mortality resulting therefrom are not available, but the loss is estimated at a high total. The lingering effects of the fell disease must yet be felt for years to come, not only because it has devastated no meagre proportion of the population of child producing age, but because it has wrenched away vitality from those who managed to escape from it. The Primary effect of the epidemic is the large increase in the death-rate, then follows the decreased birth rate due to miscarriages, decrease in the age period 15-40, increase in the number of widows, and the general lowering of the vitality of the population which is evident from enhanced death-rate at every age-period in the year 1919. The deterioration in age constitution must be followed by an increased death-rate

owing to the large proportion of old persons. The effect of the low birth rate will of course be further felt 15 years afterwards as fewer women of child-bearing age grow up from child-hood. The only favourable feature is the comparative large number of survivors from 5-15 years of age."\*

13. After the last influenza epidemic, the States have been lucky and have not been visited by any serious famine or epidemic and during the last thirty years the population has been growing at rates already discussed in Section 3 above. These growth rates are governed by birth-rates to a considerable extent, which in turn are affected by the distortion of the age structure mentioned above.

14. We will now proceed to consider the disturbances in the age structure from 1901 to 1950. The Table No. 73 given below shows the percentage variation of population in the different age groups during the last 5 decades in Rajasthan and Ajmer copied from previous Census Reports.

TABLE No. 73.

Percentage variation of population in the different Age-groups at the last five Censuses in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Years	Age Groups						
	0-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20-40	40-60	60 & over
Rajasthan.							
1901-10	+71.2	+ 7.2	-23.2	-11.7	+11.6	+ 4.6	+10.0
1911-20	-18.1	+19.1	+26.6	-15.4	-16.9	- 8.8	+ 1.2
1921-30	+39.2	- 2.1	+15.1	+39.0	+14.0	+ 5.0	-11.6
1931-40	+15.1	+35.8	+19.6	+22.1	+20.7	+16.5	+37.1
1941-50	+ 9.4	+ 0.7	+14.5	+ 6.3	+ 9.5	+18.1	+54.5
Ajmer.							
1901-10	+127.8	+ 7.7	-39.6	-23.3	Not available		+20.0
1911-20	- 24.0	+21.7	+57.5	- 3.0	12.5	+ 1.4	+ 7.2
1921-30	+ 51.6	+ .1	+ 7.6	+38.8	+10.1	+ 3.6	-14.4
1931-40	- 13.2	+18.4	+ 7.8	+ 2.7	+ 6.6	+ .3	+19.7
1941-50	+ 42.7	+ 3.6	+23.1	+18.4	+ 7.8	+19.3	+64.9

15. In considering the above table, it is to be remembered that in 1931 a smoothing formula was applied to the age returns, while no such formula has been made use of at the other Censuses. The figures for the previous Censuses were obtained from the respective Reports, which are based on total count, while those for 1931 are based on the 10 per cent. sample age tables given in Part II-A of the Report. Prior to 1931, age '0' was written in the case of infants aged less than 12 months and in the case of others, the completed number of years were noted as the age. In 1931, however, the instructions were, "Enter the number of years to the nearest birth-day or the nearest age (in years) known. For infants less than six months enter '0'".

\* Census Report 1921 Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara.

and for infants over six months enter '1'. The instructions in the 1941 Census were to enter the age in years and months on the 1st day of March 1941; if precise date of birth was unknown, to state approximate age in years only. In the case of infants of less than one year old, to write '0' for years and to give the number of months. Corresponding instructions at the 1951 Census were, "write age on last birthday, that is the actual number of completed years. Write '0' for infants below '1'."

16. A study of table 73 given above shows that during the decade 1921-30, the best fertility age-groups 30 to 35 (corresponding to 20-25 of 1911-20, or 10-15 of 1901-10 or 0-5 of 1891-1900) and 35 to 40 (corresponding to age-group 25-30 of 1911-20 or 15-20 of 1901-10, or 5-10 of 1891-1900) as well as the late fertility age-group 40-45 (corresponding to age-group 30-35 of 1911-20, or 20-25 of 1901-10 or 10-15 of 1891-1900 or 0-5 of 1881-1890) were all those age-groups which were seriously depleted both in Rajasthan and in Ajmer during the influenza epidemic as well as during the previous famines. These circumstances clearly explain the sharp fall in Ajmer in the birth rate from 38.9 in 1911-20 to 32.3 in 1921-30 as shown in Table 70 above. The fall might have been greater but for the better history of the age-groups of the early fertility period. (The birth-rate figures for Rajasthan are not available as previously observed.)

**Fall in Birth Rate of State explained with reference to history of famines and pestilence.**

17. Similar study of Table 73 above shows that during 1931-40 the age-groups with history highly favourable to good birth-rate, were 25-30 and 30-35, which is the most fertile period of life. The age-group 35-40 had poor history while the age-group 40-45 was definitely of the depleted nature with a very bad previous history. But these last two groups are comparatively less fertile. The net result of this age-structure was that the birth rate which was 32.3 in 1921-30 rose to 38 in 1931-40. (See Table 70 above).

18. During 1941-50, the main fertility period 25-35 was dominated by the highly depleted age-groups of the Influenza epidemic and the birth rate was bound to fall very sharply, but it was to a certain extent counter-balanced by the age-group at the two extremities of the fertility period. The age-group 35-45 had received good increments in the previous decades, it was at the end of the reproductive period. The age-group 15 to 25, on the other hand, was in the early fertility period it was also depleted as we see in the Table 73 above that the influenza took away as its victims people of age group 0-5 to the same extent as the youthful ones the variation being -18. These circumstances go a great way to explain the significant fall in the birth rate during the decade 1941-50 shown in Table 70, when it came down to 29 from 38 per cent. in 1931-40.

19. The birth-rate must naturally depend upon the number of married persons per thousand of population at a given time. In Chapter VI, detailed explanation is given of how the number of married persons was affected by the Marriage Legislation, the Sarda Act (Act No. XIX of 1929)—as well as by the Influenza epidemic. The trend in the number of married women is significantly brought out in Subsidiary Table 6.7 given in Part I-B of the Report and discussed in Chapter VI, which shows that the number of married females per thousand of the total number of women in 1921 was 457 and on account of the marriage legislation it went up to 496 in the following decade, but was slightly reduced to 491 in 1941 and rose to 514 in 1951. It is significant to note that as the number of married females during 1941-50 was much higher than that in 1921 this circumstance should have resulted in a rise in the birth-rate during 1941-50. But, as observed in Chapter VI while discussing Subsidiary Table 6.8, the proportion of married women within the fertility period of 15 to 44 years came down from 763 in 1941 to 761 in 1951. This circumstance furnishes additional evidence to confirm the fall in the birth-rate during 1941-50.

**Fall in Birth Rates explained with reference to the number of married persons in the population**

20. What we should now like to know is the future of fertility in these States. What **Future of the Birth Rate.** is the trend going to be for the next few decades, and how will this affect population growth?

21. It would not do to extrapolate the past trend, partly because of possible errors in the figures and partly because there is hardly any "trend" observable. Some other kind of prognostication must be found but such a task is any thing but easy. The best way of proceeding, it would seem, is to investigate as thoroughly as possible the nature and causes of our high fertility. From this investigation perhaps some thing can be deduced concerning future possibilities.

22. Crude birth rate is, however, an imperfect index of the reproductive performance of a people. It relates the number of births in a year to the total **Relation to the size of population,** while obviously only a section of that population is the reproductive section. responsible for the inflow of the new lives. To appreciate the strength of the reproductive activity of a people, therefore, we should consider the total number of births that take place within it in relation to the size of its reproductive section. Only women in child-bearing ages contribute to the growth of population, and a reproduction rate much more satisfactory than the ordinary birth rate is given by the relation between total births and the number of child-bearing women in a community. In 1931 this rate, known as the general fertility rate, was 177 in India. A still more refined rate relates births to married women only in the reproductive ages. In 1931 married (Gross) fertility rate in India in general was 222.

23. The proportion of married women in the reproductive period, which is the denominator of the fraction that expresses the married (gross) fertility rate, is, however, made up of three other ratios *viz.* the proportion of all women to total population, the proportion of women in the child-bearing period to all women, and finally the proportion of married among women in the reproductive ages. The significance of these ratios may be briefly considered. In the first place, we consider women only. This does not mean that the role of man in the birth of new generation is unimportant; it implies simply that under monogamy, which is the prevalent form of marital relationship, the number of children to whom a man becomes father is equal to that to whom his wife is mother, and we need count only one of the two partners in the joint enterprise of child-bearing. There is, moreover, a definite advantage in choosing the female partner; for certain physiological changes make the upper limit of the reproductive period much more precise for women than for men. Secondly, we take into account only women in the child-bearing ages. Whether a population has few or many women in ages prior to the commencement of child-bearing or in the years that succeed it, makes no difference to its current reproductive activity. For the purpose of our study we have assumed the reproductive period of women in Rajasthan and Ajmer to range from age 15 to age 45. These are not quite correct limits; but they are broadly correct and extremely convenient. Finally, we consider married women alone. Probably all except a very small number of births in our State take place within wedlock. In any event, we have no data on illegitimate births in our population.

24. In 1951 our Sex Ratio was 921 women for every 1,000 men in our population in Rajasthan and 925 in Ajmer. Various explanations have been **Relation to Sex Ratio.** given of this phenomenon of sex deficiency of our population which will be reviewed in Chapter VI, Section 4, on Sex Composition. For the purpose of coming to a decision about the future trend of the sex ratio an examination of the variation in sex ratio from decade to decade would be interesting and useful. The Table No. 74 gives the figures.



TABLE No. 74.

Variation in sex ratio from decade to decade in Rajasthan and Ajmer.  
No. of females per 1,000 males

Year	Rajasthan		Ajmer	
	No.	Variation	No.	Variation
1881 .. .. .	850		851	
1891 .. .. .	891	+41	881	+30
1901 .. .. .	905	+14	900	+19
1911 .. .. .	909	+4	884	-16
1921 .. .. .	899	-10	827	-57
1931 .. .. .	908	+9	889	+62
1941 .. .. .	906	-2	900	+11
1951 .. .. .	921	+15	925	+25

25. They show a striking deficiency of women which tends to decline. In Rajasthan there is a regular increase in the ratio of females except for a minor decrease in 1921 and 1941 when compared to that in 1911 and 1931 respectively, which was soon counter-balanced by a rise in the next decades. In Ajmer the decades 1911 and 1921 show a decrease but it is recouped immediately. The female ratio rose in Rajasthan from 850 to 921 and in Ajmer from 851 to 925 in the 70 years and it is expected that with the advance of education, sanitation and healthy mode of living, the female ratio may continue to increase in near future. This factor, other things being equal, tends to a further rise in the birth-rate.

26. Since reproduction is a joint enterprise of men and women, a deficiency of females may plausibly affect its volume. But evidently it is not the deficit of women in all ages taken together that matters, but the deficit, if any, in the reproductive period. We should, therefore, compare women in the reproductive ages to men in the same period. We have assumed the reproductive period of our women to be from 15 to 45. There is, however, a good case for putting the lower limit of the period at age 13; the 1931 Census enquiry into fertility showed a large number of women bearing children in ages 13-14. On the other hand, the majority of our women probably cease to reproduce some years before they reach the age of 45, and the upper limit of the child bearing period may be put justifiably at below age 45. It is not, however, possible to make these desirable corrections; for the only age statistics we have, are in five year periods. Our single year age data are wildly erratic and can be used only after they have been reduced to five year figures by a series of actuarial tricks that are supposed to bring them into semblance with reality. The productive period for men has been presumed for these States to be 20 to 55. In 1951 there are in Rajasthan 957 women in ages 15 to 45 for every one thousand men in the age group 20-55, females fall short of males by 43 per thousand. In Ajmer the difference is still greater where there are 935 females per 1,000 males in the reproductive period. Thus our sex ratio in

TABLE No. 75.

Proportion of females of age 15-45 to 1,000 males in age 20-55.		Rajasthan	Ajmer
Year			
1911 .. .. .		916	863
1921 .. .. .		888	801
1931 .. .. .		934	897
1941 .. .. .		938	911
1951 .. .. .		957	935

the reproductive ages is somewhat unfavourable and this fact should tend to lower our general fertility rate. But we see in inset Table No. 75 that both in Rajasthan and in Ajmer the ratio declined in 1921 (proving that the influenza acted more severely upon the females) but it rose again in 1931 to a much higher level and since then there is a steady rise or rather an abrupt one in the decade 1941-50, which may prove to be a factor for increasing the birth rate.

27. The next factor which affects birth rate is the proportion of women in the child bearing ages. In 1951 women in ages 15 to 45 were 44.9 per cent. of all women in Rajasthan and 45.1 per cent. in Ajmer. This high ratio is also an index of large capacity to bear children in the future.

28. The frequency of child-bearing among women varies considerably from age to age within the reproductive period and the distribution by age of reproductive women is as important as the proportion which they, in the aggregate, bear to the total population. The following table No. 76 gives the age distribution of women in these States within the reproductive period in 1951.

TABLE No. 76.

Women in five year age periods, as percentage of all women in ages 15 to 45.

	Age Period					
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44
India .. .. .	20.3	21.2	18.8	16.4	12.7	10.6
Rajasthan .. .. .	17.2		16.3		11.4	
Ajmer .. .. .	19.2		15.5		10.3	

We had a much lower percentage of child-bearing women in the earlier periods both in Rajasthan and Ajmer States than the Indian average. This fact acquires significance when we note that in almost all populations the fertility of women is much greater in the first half than in the second half of their child-bearing career. Thus as we have a smaller proportion of women in the earlier reproductive ages than the average Indian population; there is a likelihood of adverse effect of this on our fertility rate.

29. A more important factor than the age composition of our women is their Civil condition. In 1951 as many as 51.4 per cent. of all women in Rajasthan and 52.7 per cent. in Ajmer were recorded as married that is to say a large proportion of our women who could bear children had acquired the opportunity to do so through matrimony. This is the result of early and universal marriage. We are a much marrying people, we marry early, and we marry in large numbers. Both these features of our matrimonial enterprise can be seen in the following Table No. 77.

TABLE No. 77.

Females unmarried, per 1,000 females, in each age group in Rajasthan and Ajmer in 1951.

Rajasthan		Ajmer	
Age period	Unmarried per 1,000 females	Age period	Unmarried per 1,000 females
0 to 4 ..	1,000	0 to 4 ..	1,000
5-14 ..	820	5-14 ..	726
15-24 ..	107	15-24 ..	85
25-34 ..	20	25-34 ..	9
35-44 ..	8	35-44 ..	3
45-54 ..	4	45-54 ..	2
55-64 ..	9	55-64 ..	3
65-74 ..	5	65-74 ..	2
75 - and Over ..	7	75 - and Over ..	0

30. First by the time the age period 35-44 is reached, only 0.8 per cent. of survivors remain unmarried in Rajasthan and 0.3 in Ajmer. These probably consist of the unmarriageable residue, for the percentage falls by 0.4 per cent. in Rajasthan and 0.1 per cent. in Ajmer only in the next age period. Secondly, the ratio of spinsters declines rapidly with the advance of age. In the age-group 5-14, 82.0 per cent. are spinsters, but in the next age group the proportion falls to 10.7 and by the time the age period 25-34 is attained 98 per cent. or almost every woman who can possibly marry has married. In Ajmer the decline is still more rapid. In the age group 5-14 the percentage of spinsters is 72.6. In the next age group it falls to 8.5 and by the age period 25-34 more than 99 per cent. are married.

31. The influence of marital condition on our birth rate becomes evident when we turn to the proportion of married among women in the child-bearing ages only. In Rajasthan 87 per cent. of those in ages 15 to 45 were recorded as married in 1951, in Ajmer 88 per cent. Of the married women in these ages, 89 per cent. were in age-group 15 to 34 in which fertility is high. Thus the effect of the age composition of our women on their total fertility is reinforced by the distribution of married state among them. We have not only a high percentage of married among our women, but the married women are also favourably distributed by age from the point of view of reproduction.

32. The final factor that governs birth rate in a community is the frequency of births among women in each period. We have already noted that 1,000 women in every age group or single year of age do not bear the same number of children. They are more prolific at certain ages than at others, and hence the total number of children that will be born to a collection of women in the reproductive phase of their lives is governed as much by the frequency of births among them at every age period as by their specific age structure. We possess no information regarding Rajasthan and Ajmer on this very important aspect of our population; hence we cannot scrutinize this aspect.

**Frequency of Births.**

33. Differential fertility is another factor which must be kept in view before making any forecast.

**Differential Fertility.**

34. The cities manifest a lower fertility than the country. Further more, the larger the city the lower its fertility becomes, so that there is an inter city as well as a rural-urban differential. The differentials, though significant are not so large and because such a small part of our masses are as yet urbanized, the lower fertility of the cities does not at present have much effect in reducing the general birth rate or depressing population growth. It is quite possible that, because the labouring classes in the cities are attached to their village homes, pregnant women, or women with one or more small children are often sent back to the country. In so far, then, as urbanization continues it will have some slight effect in decreasing total fertility, but there is apparently no extra diffusion, no multiplier effect, that intensifies the influence of cities beyond their natural growth as time goes by. In short the rural, urban and intra-urban differentials do not indicate an imminent decline of general fertility. On the contrary the reported figures for Ajmer State show a higher fertility in urban when compared with the rural areas.

**Rural-Urban differentials.**

35. The Brahmans have long been regarded as less fertile than the rest of the population. It appears that the primary, though not the sole, cause of the lower fertility of the upper castes is the fact that a greater proportion of their women of reproductive age are withdrawn from motherhood by the taboo on widow remarriage.

**Class and Caste Differentials.**

36. An attempt was also made in 1931 to discover fertility differentials by grouping castes according to occupation. It was found that the trading and professional castes, along with owners and tenants on farms, had the lowest general ratios, while artisans and the group embracing field labourers, woodcutters, raisers of livestock, fishermen and hunters had the highest general ratios.

37. Again the explanation seems to lie in the widow ratio. The latter is high for those occupational groups having a low general fertility, so that as in the case of social status, it appears that occupational groups having a low fertility accomplish this result, at least in part, by refusing to let their widows remarry. In fact, the widow ratio seems to have more of an effect, on the differentials between occupational groups than on those between status groups.

38. Though not so sharp as one might anticipate the occupational differentials run along the lines that could be expected. The agricultural peoples apparently have a higher fertility than the trading and professional classes and within the agricultural category there is a sharp distinction between the owners and tenants, who have a low fertility and the field labourers etc., who have a high fertility.

39. Muslims and Tribes have a higher birth rate than the upper class Hindus. Here again the taboo on widow remarriage is responsible.

40. The age distribution of the population at the 1951 and 1941 Censuses is given in Table 78 below :

Probable trend of birth rate during the decade 1951-60.

TABLE No. 78.

Age distribution of the population of Rajasthan and Ajmer in 1951 and 1941.

Age Groups	Number per 100 in each group in	
	1951	1941
Rajasthan		
Infants	3.6	1.5
Young children (1 to 4)	10.7	13.1
Boys and girls (5 to 14)	25.4	26.6
Young men and women (15 to 34)	32.5	33.7
Middle aged persons (35 to 54)	19.7	17.8
Elderly persons (55 and over)	8.1	7.3
Ajmer		
Infants	4.8	1.4
Young children (1 to 4)	10.4	11.3
Boys and girls (5 to 14)	24.3	25.6
Young men and women (15 to 34)	33.9	36.3
Middle aged persons (35 to 54)	19.0	18.5
Elderly persons (55 and over)	7.6	6.9

The above figures show that the combined percentage of young men and women and middle-aged persons has slightly risen in Rajasthan from 51.5 in 1941 to 52.2 in 1951 and in Ajmer it has fallen from 54.8 to 52.9. The fall amongst young men and women is insignificant being nearly 1.2 per cent. in Rajasthan and 2.4 in Ajmer. The indications for 1961 are that this percentage will further fall a little because the group of boys and girls, who will become young men and women during the next decade is already depleted by about 1.2 per cent. in Rajasthan and 2.4 in Ajmer. In other words, the percentage of people in the fertile age-group will further fall a little resulting in a corresponding fall in the birth rate. The figures for Ajmer also show the same trend where the fall is likely to be greater than in Rajasthan.

41. The birth rate is also likely to be further damped a little on account of the increased percentage of elderly people and children. The effect of the rise in the number of elderly persons and children at a time when the people in the fertile age group is becoming less will be that the calculated birth rate per thousand of population will show a downward trend.

42. Table No. 73 given in para 14 above also helps in studying the future trend of the birth rate. The fertile age group 15-45 of the decade 1951-60 can be divided into six quinquennial age-groups and their history can be traced back as shown in Table No. 79 below:—

TABLE No. 79.

Fertile Quin-quennial age-groups of the decade 1951-60 traced back to 1911-20

Age-groups for 1951-60	Corresponding age-groups for the decades			
	1941-50	1931-40	1921-30	1911-20
15-20	5-10	..	..	..
20-25	10-15	0-5	..	..
25-30	15-20	5-10	..	..
30-35	20-25	10-15	0-5	..
35-40	25-30	15-20	5-10	..
40-45	30-35	20-25	10-15	0-5
45-50	35-40	25-30	15-20	5-10

43. The above table should be studied with Table No. 73. The comparison shows that as a result of the previous history of famine and epidemic certain age-groups were depleted while others received increments as shown in Table No. 80 below:—

TABLE No. 80.

History of the Fertile Quin-quennial age-groups of the decade 1951-60 for Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Age Groups	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (-) during the past decades.	
	Rajasthan.	
15-20	+ 0.7	(in 1941-50)
20-25	+15.1	(in 1931-40)
25-30	+35.8	(in 1931-40)
30-35	+39.2	(in 1921-30)
35-40	- 2.1	(in 1921-30)
40-45	-18.1	(in 1911-20)
45-50	+19.1	(in 1911-20)

TABLE No. 80.—(Contd.)

Age Group Percentage increase (+) or decrease (—) during the past decades.

Ajmer.		
15—20	+ 3.6	(in 1941—50)
20 - 25	—13.3	(in 1931—40)
25—30	+18.4	(in 1931—40)
30—35	+51.6	(in 1921—30)
35—40	+ 0.1	(in 1921 30)
40—45	—24.0	(in 1911—20)
45—50	+21.7	(in 1911—20)

44. It is, therefore, seen that during 1951—60 the age-groups 20—25 and 35—45 will be the age-groups with bad previous history in which they were severely depleted. This is a good part of the fertility period and is bound to affect the birth rate adversely. The upward trend indicated by the previous history of the age-groups 20—25 and 35—45 will, further, be augmented by the age-groups 30—35 and 25—30. Both these age groups have a good history, when they received substantial increments. Similarly, the late fertility age-group 45—50 has also a good past history.

45. The net result of the analysis of the age-structure tends to show that the birth rate is likely to show a slight rise during 1951—60. This conclusion is further confirmed from a perusal of the entries relating to the decade 1941—50 in Table No. 73 which shows the percentage variation of the population in age-group 20—40 during the decade 1941—50. It will be noticed that for Rajasthan as a whole the entire age-group shows a percentage increment of 9.5, and for Ajmer an increment of 7.8 per cent.

46. The mean age of the population actually denotes the average age of the persons who were alive on the date of the Census, the simple formula by which this age is derived from the single year age returns is to multiply each age by the total number of persons recorded in that age and then to divide the sum total by the total number of persons of all ages. The mean age thus arrived at for Rajasthan at the 1951 Census is 24.5 years for males, 24.8 years for females. At the 1931 Census the mean age was calculated from quinquennial age groups with the help of a mathematical formula described in the Census Report. The mean ages at the different censuses from 1901 have been as follows:—

TABLE No. 81.  
Mean Age for Rajasthan.

Census of	Males.	Females.
1901	25.4	25.9
1911	24.8	25.2
1921	24.6	24.8
1931	23.5	23.4
1941	23.7	23.5
1951	24.5	24.8

The mean age depends upon the proportion of the young and the old people. In the population in 1921 the influenza epidemic affected the old people most, thus unduly decreasing the percentage of old people and consequently the mean age. In 1931 the old survivors of the epidemic died their natural deaths and the percentage of children went on increasing with the result that the mean age further went down. In 1941 and 1951 when the above two

groups entered higher age groups the relative number of children again diminished and that of old people increased showing a rise in the mean age. These facts are clear from a perusal of Table No. 82 given below which shows the percentage composition of the population at the different censuses according to age groups. It is derived from Subsidiary Table 1.9 given in Part I-B of the Report.

TABLE No. 82.

Percentage distribution of population by age-groups at the different censuses from 1911.

Age Groups	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
Rajasthan.					
0-19	43.9	47.8	49.9	50.6	49.0
20-39	34.0	30.2	30.2	30.0	29.2
40-59	17.5	17.1	15.7	15.1	15.9
60 and over	4.6	4.9	4.2	4.2	5.9
Ajmer					
0-19	41.7	45.2	48.7	48.1	49.3
20-39	36.9	32.7	31.8	32.5	29.6
40-59	17.2	17.6	16.1	15.5	15.6
60 and over	4.2	4.5	3.4	3.9	5.5

47. *Family Plannings*:—The religious obstacles to a birth control policy are not regarded as serious in India by S. Chandrasekhar, who says, “In India apart from the general rural conservatism of the masses that affects the trend of future Birth rates. affords resistance to any reform, there is no organised resistance to birth-control either by the Government or the church as in some countries. Nor are the Indian religions opposed to planned families.”<sup>1</sup> He believes that it is too late in the day for the little minds to waste time discussing the pros and cons of the desirability of conception control as great minds have deliberated on the question thread-bare long ago and have given a verdict in its favour.

48. But the view does not find favour with many. Thus, for example Shri Vinoba is said to have remarked that “A drive to decrease the population of our country would prove suicidal to the defence of the country. Family planning should come as a natural result of better life.” “The way out is not birth-control. But a new and better way of life. I would not interfere with the growing birth rate directly. But I would insist on an improved way of life which would automatically operate as a check for inordinate growth of population.”<sup>2</sup> Mr. Morarji Desai, Bombay’s Home Minister, declared “The so-called scientific methods are debasing human beings and we should be aware against adopting them blindly. What Mahatma Gandhi said about artificial means of Family planning holds good to-day. The Minister added, ‘Science is no science which encourages the satisfaction of human lust contrary to our ancient philosophy which glorifies virtue and sacrifice.’ Cardinal Valerian Gracias, Archbishop of Bombay, remarks that India’s over-population problem could be met without birth control which he described as “intrinsically evil from the moral point of view.” In his opinion birth control would not have an easy course in India. Apart from morality, “even from the scientific and economic point of view, it was abundantly shown by

1. India’s population—Fact and Policy, By S. Chandrasekhar, Page 129 (Indian Institute for Population studies Chidambaram).

2. ‘The Nagpur Times’ Dewali Special, Nov., 1951 Navsang Press, Nagpur.



many persons that the problem of over-population has been greatly exaggerated." He further holds that various practical suggestions have been advanced, on the other hand, to show how the problem can be met without resorting to practices that are intrinsically evil from the moral point of view. In fact, such a great man as Mahatma Gandhi, Father of the Nation, had made it clear that what actually was needed was self-control and not birth control.

49. As against such opinions of popular leaders, the scholars have a different version to present. That the over growing population in Japan was a sign of catastrophe, was predicted long before the Second World War. "Population authorities predicted the future aggressors years before the Second World War. Japan was the future aggressor named by Harold Cox in 1923 and by Dublin in 1926, five years before the Manchurian incident, Thomson writes in 1929 that Italy is in much the same situation as Japan, that the population problem is urgent and likely to lead to war. He and other population authorities named all three of the aggressors, Japan, Italy and Germany." <sup>1</sup> Again where the over-growing nation is weak and war is ruled out, abject poverty is another curse which brings untold miseries and we need hardly repeat the horrible tales in this connection. In other words where the population problem becomes urgent and is not attended to with vision and foresight, sorrow and suffering in one form or the other must inevitably follow.

50. The Planning Commission set up by the Indian National Congress made the following recommendation in one of their resolution, "In the interest of social economy, family happiness and national planning, family planning and limitation of children are essential and the State should adopt a policy to encourage these. It is desirable to lay stress as well as to spread knowledge on cheap and safe methods of birth control. Birth-control clinics should be established and other necessary measures taken in this behalf and to prevent the advertisement of harmful methods." In Draft Outline of their report, the Indian Planning Commission said, "On the whole it is evident that unless steps are taken deliberately to reduce the birth rate, the upward trend of population will continue since improvement in medical facilities and better control of epidemics, together with measures taken to provide a certain minimum of food for poorer sections of the community should help to lower the death rate further." <sup>2</sup>

51. It will, therefore, be seen that even with the scholarly opinion in the country in favour of family planning the progress in this direction is bound to be slow, because even after being convinced of its necessity there are people who object to the artificial means of birth control and advocate moral restraint while there are yet others who point out instances of Rishies of yore who failed to do so and argue that unless a realistic attitude is taken by the leaders and the Government of the country with regard to family planning, the ever-growing population will bring about serious consequences.

52. The circumstances under which the revolutionary nature of limited families was brought about in the western countries are described by the Royal Commission on Population in Great Britain. They included, "The decay of small scale family handicrafts—and the rise of large scale industry and factory organisation; the loss of security and growth of competitive individualism, the relative decline in agriculture and rise in importance of industry and commerce, and the associated shift of population from rural to urban areas, the growing prestige of science which disturbed traditional religious beliefs, the development of popular education, higher standards of living, the growth of humanitarianism, and the emancipation of woman." <sup>3</sup> These economic, social and cultural forces which are gradually making themselves felt in our country also will take time to gather momentum.

1. Population Pressure War and Poverty by H.R. Himmman & W.L. Battin, Jr. Pages 9-10 (Arthur W. Cross, Inc. New York, New Jersey, 1916).

2. The First Five Years Plan—A Draft out line, page 206 Government of India, Planning Commission July, 1951.

3. Report of Royal Commission on Population, page 38. (London; His Majesty's Stationery Office).

53. The typical cottage agriculture of ours in which women and children join in income-earning activities is another factor which is likely to delay progress in family planning. Similarly our cottage industries plans will also assist in maintaining the present economic and social structure of the villages which encourages larger families. Consequently, while urban and industrial areas are likely to respond early to the family planning schemes, the rural areas are bound to be slow in this respect with their mass illiteracy as another hurdle for them to cross.

54. The industrial development of the State, which is merely a matter of time, will be a very dominating factor in the growth of population affecting both the birth as well as the death rates. Industrial expansion brings about a very rapid rate of population growth followed by a declining rate until stability is reached. In fact there are economists who are of the opinion that once "We achieve some sizable economic progress, the Indian population is likely to assume manageable proportions." † But firstly we are now at a very late stage in history when other highly industrialised nations have captured most of the markets and when even they are not sure for their future export trade. Every increment in numbers will increase much more than proportionately the imports, and consequently the exports, needed to maintain a given standard of life and the difficulty of finding and holding export markets would increase progressively with the dimensions of the export trade we have to do in order to balance our accounts." The second handicap for us is even more serious. When the Europeans increased rapidly during the Industrial Revolution, the growth was made possible mainly because America and Oceania were Virgin soils which were being brought under plough and exploited giving cheap food to them and providing space for the over-flowing population as has been explained in the comparative study of the growth rates discussed in Section 3 above, where we have pointed out the fallacy of comparing the European growth with ours. In our case the situation is entirely different not only we have no empty America or Oceania to spread out to, or to meet our food requirements, but our own food resources are being rapidly out-stripped by our population during the last three decades as we will see in detail in Chapter IV. That industrialization will bring about a millennium is, therefore, an extremely doubtful proposition.

55. In other words, the hope of rapid increase in the standard of living as a result of industrial developments and consequent automatic reduction in fertility might not be easily fulfilled. On the other hand, the fast growth rate would damp all efforts to improve the economic status of the people and, therefore, it might be wise to take a more comprehensive view of the problem and to plan for population control side by side with the industrial and agricultural developments.

56. Throughout the history of these States the rise and fall in the growth of population have been governed not by fluctuations in the birth rate but by wide variation in the death rate. In those years when the population remained fixed or even declined, the reason lay in some great catastrophe—a famine, an epidemic, a war, or a combination of these which took millions of lives. In the so-called normal years when numbers increased, the reason lay in the relative absence of such catastrophes. In such ordinary years the death rate was still high, as a result of poor diet and endemic disease, but since it was surpassed by an even higher birth rate, the population grew moderately. Coming every few years, however, a calamity of one sort or another would suddenly increase the death rate and wipe out the population increment that had been accumulating. During the period for which we have statistics there have been, as we have seen two decades during which the population hardly grew at all, on the contrary it decreased. The first of these are explained by the great famine, occurring in 1898—1900. The second decade is explained by

---

† Indian Population by D. G. Karve in introduction by C. N. Vakil of School of Economic and Sociology, University of Bombay page IV (College of Commerce, Poona. The National Information and Publications Ltd.)

the influenza epidemic of 1918. Since the birth rate shows no sharp fluctuations, and since emigration is a negligible quantity, it seems plain that the factor chiefly responsible for population changes has been mortality. A population grows as the result of its reproductive activity; every moment fresh additions are made to its number by the birth of new lives. On the other hand some people at all ages are dying, including women who could bear children or bear more children than they have done. Thus mortality restrains and modifies the effect of reproduction doubly; it reduces the addition to current number, and lowers future accretions to it by cutting down the supply of potential mothers. The incidence of mortality has to be studied in both these aspects.

57. Subsidiary Table 1.3 in Part I-B of the Report gives the death rates in Ajmer and the reporting areas of Rajasthan, namely, former Bharatpur State. The Death Rate Statistics. officially recorded death rate in India was 23 per thousand of population in 1931-40 and 22.5 in 1941-45 and that in Ajmer was 30 in 1931-40 and nearly 22 in 1941-50. The following Table No. 83 gives the decennial death rates for British India and Ajmer since 1911.

TABLE No. 83.

Death Rates per 1,000 in British India\* and Ajmer-Merwara, 1911-1950 based on Official Returns.

Year	British-India			Ajmer-Merwara		
	Annual Rate	5-Year Average	10-Year Average	Annual Rate	5-Year Average	10-Year Average
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1911	32.3	30.2	34.3	44.0	32.8	47.7
1912	29.8			38.0		
1913	28.8			26.0		
1914	30.2			30.0		
1915	29.9			26.9		
1916	29.2	38.2	47.7	40.0	62.6	47.7
1917	32.9			103.0		
1918	63.1			115.0		
1919	35.8			29.0		
1920	30.8			26.0		
1921	31.0	26.3	25.4	28.4	24.9	26.6
1922	23.9			22.2		
1923	24.7			25.6		
1924	28.0			25.0		
1925	24.1			23.5		
1926	25.8	24.6	26.6	31.7	28.3	26.6
1927	23.7			26.2		
1928	24.1			25.9		
1929	24.2			30.0		
1930	24.9			27.9		

\* Figures of British India taken from Kingsley Davis—Population of India and Pakistan page 33 and those of Ajmer from the previous Census Reports.

TABLE No. 83.—(Contd).

Year 1.	British-India			Ajmer-Merwara		
	Annual Rate 2.	5-Year Average 3.	10-Year Average 4.	Annual Rate 5.	5-Year Average 6.	10-Year Average 7.
1931	25·3	23·6	23·0	31·0	29·2	30·2
1932	21·8			26·0		
1933	22·5			29·0		
1934	25·0			30·0		
1935	23·6			30·0		
1936	22·5	22·3	23·0	26·0	31·2	30·2
1937	22·1			32·0		
1938	23·9			27·0		
1939	21·7			26·0		
1940	21·3			45·0		
1941	21·8	22·5	23·0	22·0	24·04	21·6
1942	21·3			25·0		
1943	23·6			23·0		
1944	24·1			26·5		
1945	21·5			23·3		
1946	18·7	19·06	23·0	20·0	19·06	21·6
1947	19·7			21·0		
1948	17·1			17·5		
1949	..			18·3		
1950	..			18·5		

58. It will be observed that the death rate for Ajmer shows a steady fall since 1931-40, although there are fluctuations in yearly rates and the rate in the decade 1931-40 is in marked contrast with that in the decade 1911-20 in which the effect of mortality due to influenza is clearly reflected, specially in the years 1917 and 1918. The highest rate is seen in 1918 both in India in general and in Ajmer, although the difference is very great, that of India being 63·1, while in Ajmer it was as high as 115·0. The lowest death rate is in 1948 both in India and in Ajmer being 17·1 in India and 17·5 in Ajmer. These rates, are, however, known to be under statements. Shri D. Ghosh in his book 'Pressure of Population and Economic Efficiency' in India has at page 18 assumed a death rate of 30 per thousand for India. He has also estimated a birth-rate of 40 per thousand for India's total population. Applying the same estimate to the population of Rajasthan (13 million in 1941 and 15 million in 1951), it gives us a total of 532,249 births in the first year and 611,632 in the second. Roughly 571,940 new lives came into existence every year in the State during the decade 1941-50; 428,955 persons or three-fourths were removed by death every year. Thus death has been a great solvent of the difficulties which our enormous births might otherwise create, removing the equivalent of three-quarters of those that are born every year. But unfortunately this is not a solution which any civilized people could like. That persons born should die is inevitable and probably desirable in a world in which many people have standing room only. But it is still more desirable that if people are allowed to be born, as small a proportion of them as can be managed should die before their time. Arguing on a purely materialistic plan, if we want to grow at our present rate, we can achieve our objective more decently with both a lower birth rate and a lower death rate. We need not reproduce vigorously in order that we may die profusely.

59. From the biological standpoint too, the volume and the structure of our death rate are highly significant. In the first place, death cuts off a large proportion of our girls in the prime of life before they begin production while of those who enter the child-bearing phase, only a small fraction live through the whole of it. Out of every 1,000 girls only 601 reach the age of 15 at which child-bearing commences for most women, and only 152 in Rajasthan and 150 in Ajmer, live to the age of 45 at which reproduction ceases, as seen in the inset Table No. 84.

TABLE No. 84.

Number of women aged 15 and over and 45 and over per 1,000 of total women in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

	15 and over	45 and over
Rajasthan ..	601	152
Ajmer ..	601	150

That we have high birth and general fertility rates is in spite of our adverse mortality conditions. Secondly, the relatively heavy mortality of our women in child-bearing ages creates a shortage of partners for married life. It is true that many of our men meet this difficulty by marrying girls much below their ages. But given the mean-after-life-time of men and women in our country, this difference in the age at marriage of husband and wife itself contributes to the high proportion of widows among us. In 1951 as shown in Subsidiary Table 6-7 in Part I-B of the Report 10.9 % and 12.1 % of all women were recorded as widows in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively. As the ratio of spinsters diminishes from 64 per 1,000 females in ages 15-34 to 8 in age group 35-44, that of widows shoots up from 4.6 % to 17.7 %. It looks as if we push girls into matrimony only to fill vacancies created by the exit of widows.

60. These are, however, only rough indications of the effect of mortality on the reproductive performance of our women. To get a comprehensive measure which summarizes the influence of both current fertility and mortality conditions we have to construct an index of replacement like the Net Reproduction Rate. The Net Reproduction Rate is simply the gross reproduction rate modified to include the influence of mortality. In estimating the latter we assume that every cohort of 1,000 newly born females reaches the forty-fifth year without any loss of strength. We now give up this assumption and take into account the fact that as the cohort moves up to higher and higher ages, its number is reduced at each successive age by the hand of death with a corresponding effect upon the total number of births that take place. This we cannot attempt for these States for want of data on fertility. But an analysis of forces affecting mortality is valuable not only for understanding the health and longevity of the people but also for understanding the past and future population trends.

61. Mortality figures are also not available for Rajasthan, but from the available figures for Ajmer we can safely conclude that after 1918, the year of last great epidemic the rate of reported deaths in Ajmer declined steadily. In 1918 it stood at 115 per thousand inhabitants, but after that time it was never above 45. The average rate during the 1911-20 decade was 47.7 per thousand as contrasted to 26.6 during the next decade. It rose to 30.2 during the 1931-40 decade but fell again to 21.6 in 1941-50. After 1918 an overall tendency to decline is clear to see, although one would expect, on the possibility that registration may have improved, a slight increase. The decline that appears is probably, therefore, a minimum quantity. The actual decrease in mortality has probably been greater.

62. That there is a real fall in the infant mortality is corroborated from Subsidiary Table 6-9 (infants per 10,000 persons) given in Part I-B of the Report. This table shows that in Rajasthan as well as in Ajmer the 1941 figures for infants are lower than those for 1951 as actually found at the two Censuses.

63. We will refer to this chequered history of infant mortality when we consider the probable future trend of death rate. Here it may be pointed out that the usual causes given in the Public Health Reports about the high infant mortality in the State are premature maternity, mal-nutrition chiefly owing to want of mother's milk, diarrhoea, respiratory causes and fevers. Malaria is one of the principal causes of the infant mortality. It is well-known that the effect of malaria is to increase the death rate and to reduce the birth-rate because it results in weakening of the health of the population.

64. Still another indication of the declining mortality is the proportion of women aged 45 and over who are widowed. If the custom of non-marriage of widows were strictly observed, this would be a good measure of long-run trends in mortality. Actually, however, there is considerable

TABLE No. 85.

Proportion of widows aged 45 and over from decade to decade.

Year	Percentage of women 45 and over who are widowed to total women
1911	69.3
1921	69.4
1931	67.2
1941	60.1
1951	47.9

remarriage of widows, and the possibility that it may be increasing vitiates this datum as a reliable evidence of the mortality trend. Yet authorities agree that the taboo on widow marriage is not being broken down very fast. It is still the practice of lower castes, when they raise their standard of living, to attempt to enforce the rule as a mark of enhanced social prestige. For this reason the steady decline in the proportion of women widowed over age 45, as shown in the inset Table No. 85 probably represents, at least in part a real decline in mortality.

65. It is the marked decline in mortality, plus the maintenance of a high birth rate, that has caused the gigantic upswing in population since 1920. The **Causes of the Declining death rate.** fact would seem to be that the acceleration of population growth in modern times has been due almost solely to improvements in mortality. We should therefore examine the causes of the declining death rate. But the causes of the decline in mortality are harder to establish than the fact itself. One reason is that an adequate explanation embraces not one but several levels of analysis medical, economic, political and sociological. Another reason is that the casual factors are even more poorly measured than mortality itself, so that we are forced to explain the obscure by the still more obscure. Nevertheless, it is possible to discern the major outlines of at least three great gains in the fight against death. The first of these is the reduction of war and banditry. The second is the control of famines. And the third is the control of epidemic diseases. These factors require a further examination and elucidation.

66. Every form of indirect evidence points to the conclusion that the death rate must inevitably have improved when political peace and public security finally came to this land where internecine wars, Governmental **Elimination of War and Banditry.** inefficiency, rapacious taxation, and hereditary banditry were common in the later Moghul period. "The eighteenth century was a period of bloody rivalry between competing warlords, each having autocratic administration that had, of necessity, to milk the people of their sustenance." "The economic life of the country was dominated by the prevailing insecurity, for war might break out almost anywhere, while bands of robbers made the roads unsafe, and harried the villages at their pleasure. To possess visible or tangible wealth was merely to invite stronger men to take it by force. The fierce Marathas, revolting against alien domination, raided and fought from the west to the east coast. All told, this was not a condition of life in which natural disasters could be provided against and in which crises could be successfully met. It was not a condition in which mortality was likely to be low. The



gradual emergence of a new order must have been the first step in lowering mortality and thus providing a new phase of population growth. During the nineteenth century when the effects of peace and order were being felt, there was a general impression that population was growing fairly rapidly a fact which was apparently not true in previous centuries." \*

67. In a country like ours, where more than two-thirds of the inhabitants are dependant on agriculture, the state of the harvests is of primary importance. When the crops are good the people are prosperous, but when they fail famine supervenes. All agricultural countries are liable to this scourge, and Rajasthan is peculiarly so mostly owing to the barrenness of the soil partly to the variability of its rainfall and partly to the way in which the soil is parcelled out amongst petty farmers, who have no capital and no organized system of credit, and millions of field labourers are at once thrown out of work when the crops fail. In former times the effects of famine were far more serious than they are at the present day. There was no organized system of State relief; and in the absence of railways, even local crop failure meant starvation to many. All this has now been changed. A watchful eye is kept on the state of the crops, and the course of prices, and all necessary arrangements have been made for commencing relief operations the moment they are needed. But even so, there are many obstacles in the way of complete success, and whenever a severe famine occurs its effect is immediately seen in a diminished birth rate and a high mortality. In these years the mortality is rarely due to actual starvation but rather to diseases brought on by improper food and epidemics of cholera, which frequently attack the crowded relief camps. The immediate effect of these visitations soon disappears. The persons who die are those at the extremes of life, the very old and the very young, many of whom would in any case have died during the next few years. The number of persons in the prime of life is but little affected. Also, after a period of suspended activity, the reproductive powers of the people reassert themselves. For some years after a famine, births are thus more numerous than usual and there is an abnormally low death-rate. The result is an unusually rapid growth of population.

68. Writers on this subject, have customarily pointed out that the famines of this region are rooted in its geography. Because of the natural features, the rainfall is highly seasonal and is scanty over large areas. Worst of all, however, it is also quite variable from year to year, and this irregularity, striking large areas that normally lack surplus rainfall, brings severe droughts. Some times an extra large rainfall brings floods that are as damaging to crops as a drought. The uncertainty of the monsoon has, therefore, been characterized as "the biggest single factor influencing life in India in general and Rajasthan in particular." In some years, over either a small or a great portion of these States, the rains almost completely fail to appear. Sometimes they are late in beginning, sometimes they stop abruptly; and sometimes they come in such concentrated outpourings that mighty floods result. It is easy to see, therefore, that from a geographical point of view the stage is set for frequent famine, resulting from unexpected droughts and floods. But the tangibility of geographic facts should not mislead us into exaggerating their importance. The irregularity of rainfall is a factor in the occurrence of famines, but it is not "the cause". Certain other conditions must also prevail if a famine is to occur. What are some of these other conditions? First, the region has always been predominantly agricultural, which means that rainfall is directly connected with the main source of wealth. Second, the population has always been poor and densely settled in relation to developed resources, which means that the people have had no great surplus to tide them over an agricultural disaster. Third, these States have been characterized by poor transportation and local isolation which means that an afflicted region could not get succour from other regions. Fourth, though we had irrigation projects from pre-historic times, we did not have enough to protect us from irregularities

---

\* Population of India and Pakistan by Kingsley Davis Page 38.



of rainfall. These conditions are just as important as geographic factors in explaining our famines. From a strategic standpoint they are even more important, because they are the factors subject to control and hence the objects of attack in any attempt to eliminate famines. They are conditions of long standing, and coupled with the irregularity of rainfall, they have made Rajasthan one of the world's most famine-ridden areas.

69. It is impossible to gauge the exact amount of mortality caused by famines. Many famines occurred before vital statistics were even attempted, and those occurring since that date still fall in a period when vital statistics are deficient. The registration system, furthermore, tends to break down under famine conditions so that an even lesser proportion of deaths are recorded than is ordinarily the case. One very crude measure of the effect of famines is to study the population growth during decades when famines occurred and during those when famines did not occur. The decade of 1891-1900 for example, was distinguished by the occurrence of terrible famine in its closing years, deaths from epidemic disease seem to have been, if anything, fewer than usual, and no other causes of death stand out as of peculiar importance. The fact that the population decreased by 17.9 per cent. during this decade is therefore attributable mainly to the occurrence of famines. How much might the population have grown otherwise? Well, in the previous decade it grew 20.4 per cent. and in the following decade 7.0 per cent. If the 1891-1900 decade had experienced the average rate of growth shown by these two decades, it would have grown by 13.7 per cent. instead of decreasing by 17.9 per cent. The difference is a matter of some four million persons, which may be taken as a rough estimate of loss due to famines in Rajasthan only.

70. It should be borne in mind, however, that relief measures were functioning at this time and that this saved the lives of millions of persons who otherwise would have died. "In ancient times the occurrence of a severe famine was marked by the disappearance of a third or a fourth of the population of the area afflicted. By the decade under consideration the relief measures had reached the point, not of nullifying the effects of famine, but of greatly reducing the mortality resulting from it. After the turn of the century both relief and preventive measures became more effective.

71. The decrease in the number and intensity of famines, most noticeable after 1900, could not have been due to changed geographical conditions. The climate of Rajasthan remained the same, the rainfall being as irregular as ever. What was changing was the set of social conditions that had formerly been implicated in famine phenomena. Rajasthan still remained predominantly agricultural and extremely poor, but certain mitigating changes, both planned and unplanned, had taken place. In the first place, the characteristic local isolation had diminished, and since famines are usually local affairs, this meant amelioration. The production of food crops ceased to have an overwhelmingly subsistence character, but became increasingly commercial, the exports operating as a local reserve of food against seasons of drought. More food was now grown in ordinary years than our people could eat because there was a market for the surplus abroad; in a bad season the rise in prices here put a stop to export for the time, and the entire produce of the region was available for its needs. In times of scarcity the same channels which ordinarily took food out of the country could bring food into it, and the breakdown of isolation inside India enabled areas of surplus to succour areas of deprivation.

72. What was responsible for this breakdown of internal and external isolation? On the technological side it was improved transportation and communication. Some of the railways and hardsurfaced roads were undertaken precisely for the purpose of preventing famines. Telegraph communication was started and an efficient postal system was achieved. The latter half of the nineteenth century, therefore, saw the full development of technology of transport and communication.

73. Another technological advance, made (like the railways) with famine relief partly in mind, was the development of irrigation. Since the geographical cause of famine is always an irregularity—a drought, cyclone, flood, or scourge—which suddenly lowers the food supply below that necessary for a population built up under a different expectation, any counter-measure giving security offers a solution. Irrigation, by over-coming the effects of irregular rainfall eliminated drought produced famine in areas where it was practised. Not only has it assured regular crops in regions of irregular rainfall, but it has increased the total productivity of these areas, so as to give them more of a surplus against periods of drought. Finally, by bringing prosperity and people to regions formerly barren, it has drawn off excess population from denser areas. It has thus reduced famine enormously.

74. The tangibility of roads, railways and irrigation canals should not blind us to the fact that such technological developments are dependent upon parallel changes in social organization. For railroads and canals to be built and maintained, there must be some elements of commercial and industrial economy, some internal security, and some technological and scientific proficiency. In so far, then, as the control of famine rests on modern technology, it also rests on modern social organization. Our country may be expected to continue modernization on all fronts (perhaps faster than before independence), and so famines should be increasingly controlled. Yet, because the present population density has been built up on the expectation of famine control, a breakdown of the technology and social framework supporting that control might cost more lives than even the great famines of the past. The preventive and relief measures have never been adequate to prevent starvation and undernourishment, but they have greatly reduced famine mortality.

75. Rivalling famine as a widespread killer is epidemic disease. Like famine, its frightfulness should not be considered solely in terms of the deaths it causes from year to year, but also in terms of its unexpectedness, its virulence, and its aftermath. Without overpopulation, a death rate that is fairly regular from year to year is perhaps better, socially and economically speaking, than one that jumps suddenly to extremes, even though the average rate is the same. The influenza epidemic of 1918 more than doubled the regular mortality.

76. Among the diseases, which are responsible for heavy toll of human life in Rajasthan and Ajmer might be mentioned Malaria and epidemic diseases including Cholera, Small-pox and Plague. Tuberculosis is also a source of anxiety as the increased contact between the people of the villages and towns is apt to spread this disease. The total number of deaths from principal causes in Rajasthan and Ajmer during the last two decades is not available. The available figures of Ajmer are given in Tables Nos. 86, 87 and 88 below:—

TABLE No. 86.

Mortality from Malaria in Ajmer State.

Years	Total No. of Reported deaths
1941	29,919
1942	34,985
1943	35,990
1944	40,068
1945	33,619
1946	27,744
1947	22,395
1948	26,139
1949	18,029
1950	16,415

77. The heaviest mortality in Rajasthan and Ajmer is due to Malaria. The figures of deaths from Malaria in Ajmer during the last 10 years received from the Civil Surgeon, Ajmer are given in inset Table No. 86.

Apart from the heavy mortality caused by the disease it considerably reduces the resisting power of the population to other diseases and is indirectly responsible probably for much larger percentage of deaths than the reported figures.

78. In most of the integrated States the incidence of Malaria is extremely high. Up to the year 1946 the only steps taken to control this disease consisted in distributing quinine in extremely inadequate quantities and after 1946 some steps were taken to introduce modern methods of controlling malaria by using insecticides like D. D. T. and more potent preventive drugs like paludrine. For Ajmer the Civil Surgeon writes, "Free distribution of quinine and mepacrine tablets has been done in hospitals and dispensaries and other sources. Since September, 1949 the Anti-Malaria Organisation has been working in this State, which has regularly been spraying D. D. T. and doing other anti-malaria work in the State." In the adjoining State, Bombay, more extensive and exemplary work has been done to control Malaria. There is, therefore, little doubt that with public opinion crystallizing in the matter, resources will be found in no distant future to effectively tackle this great health problem of the State and as soon as extensive Anti-Malaria work is undertaken, there is little doubt that the present high death-rate of the State will considerably come down.

79. Cholera and Small-pox are the principal epidemic diseases, which account for the large number of deaths in the areas in which they appear from time to time. The figures of deaths due to these diseases in Ajmer, supplied by the Civil Surgeon are reproduced below in Table No. 87.

TABLE No. 87.

Deaths in Ajmer due to Cholera and Small-pox in the years 1941—50.

Year	Cholera	Small-pox
1941	33	59
1942	23	23
1943	63	133
1944	233	344
1945	26	230
1946	Nil	321
1947	Nil	668
1948	84	199
1949	Nil	520
1950	Nil	1,520

Public Health Department is making appreciable progress in its activities to prevent these epidemic by anti-cholera inoculations at fairs etc. Vaccination centres for small-pox are increasing. Fortunately these States were free from plague for the last more than 10 years. Medical opinion is divided about the causes of rapid decline of plague in India. Some believe that we do not know the cause and that it cannot be said that the disease would not flare up again. Others think that the most important reason is the evolution of a new race of rats immune to the malady.\*

80. On account of difficulties of diagnosis the figures of deaths from tuberculosis are not reliable. Many such deaths are believed to be registered under the head "fevers," "respiratory diseases" or other causes. There is reason to believe that the incidence is higher in urban than in rural areas and that, in both types of areas, infection is spreading and active cases of tuberculosis are increasing. The growth of towns and cities, the development of transport facilities and industrialisation are contributory factors to this increase and there is, therefore, the possibility that their adverse effect may be even more pronounced in the coming years. The reported figures of deaths from

\*The Population of India and Pakistan by Kingsley Davis p. 45.

T. B. of lungs are given by the Civil Surgeon, State of Ajmer as follows:—  
TABLE No. 88.

Deaths from T. B. of Lungs in Ajmer State.

Year	Deaths from T. B. of Lungs
1941	558
1942	533
1943	667
1944	433
1945	298
1946	525
1947	438
1948	546
1949	418
1950	297

It is believed that deaths were in fact high and that they were included among those shown under "fevers," "Respiratory diseases" and other causes.

81. The following extract from circular No. F. 2. (44) GA (A)/52 dated the 12th September, 1952 from the Deputy Secretary to Government of Rajasthan General Administration Department, Jaipur explains the position in Rajasthan with respect to this malady. "A total of approximately 250 beds only are available in Rajasthan for patients suffering from Tuberculosis. The problem of Tuberculosis in Rajasthan is really an acute one and is more serious than that of other epidemic diseases. In Rajasthan alone Tuberculosis takes an annual toll of about 21,000 lives. At any one time, there are more than one lakh of patients suffering from Tuberculosis out of a total population of 15.2 millions in Rajasthan."

82. Rapid urbanisation is taking place in many of the districts of the State as will be pointed out in Chapter III. A perusal of Main Table A-IV in Part II-A of the Report will also show how the towns are developing fast. There has also been large increase in the road transport. These developments bring increasing number of village people into contact with the infected urban areas resulting in an easy infection of rural areas inhabited by people with no acquired immunity and possessing little power of resistance on account of their extremely low standard of living. The prevention of tuberculosis is in effect nothing short of the improvement of education, environmental hygiene, housing, nutrition and the economic standard of the people.

83. Tuberculosis Sanatoria and clinics have recently been established at various places in Rajasthan and Ajmer and the matter is receiving the attention of the Government. The B. C. G. vaccination drive has been started in the State and its sustained use might go a great way in immunizing the people against tuberculosis.

84. Influenza and plague came to us from abroad along with the foreigners and wiped out a part of the population from time to time before we acquired any immunity against them. There are other deadly diseases which have fortunately not yet infested our country. "Yellow fever for instance, despite its presence in Africa and other parts of the world, has never visited the Indian sub-continent; yet the conditions for its spread are ideal if the virus should ever be brought there, the mosquito which carries the virus being indigenous and widespread in the region."\*

85. Apart from the threat of the new or dormant epidemics which will continue to hover over our people till our Public Health and Welfare Services are made really efficient, we have also to face death on the food-front. "Our people are in a continual process of liquidation. Their vital resources of the people."

\* Sir John Mezaraw, "Public Health. The Great Diseases of India" quoted in "Population of India and Pakistan" by Kingsley Davis p. 42.

resources are low. They have to draw upon them for their every day normal existence, and when a contingency arises, and such contingencies must be numerous under the conditions prevailing in these States which require the use of reserve powers, they cannot hold their own. In view of the increasing difficulties in the matter of food supplies associated with the increase in the population and fall in per capita production discussed in Chapter IV, the situation has deteriorated further in acquiring adequate physical resistance to face famine or disease. If, therefore, the food situation were to get out of control on account of political or economic dislocation or due to the worsening of the international situation affecting our food imports and plans, mass starvation would be inevitable. In short, when the people are living on sub-nutritional and barely enough diet resulting in low vitality, if any calamity, be it an epidemic or a famine, whether natural or man-made, were to befall them, it would perhaps surpass the worst scourge of the past and would leave behind a trail of sorrow and suffering never known before.

86. The remarkable thing about both epidemics and famines, however, is the quickness with which a dense population seems to recover from the effects of the disaster. During an epidemic, it is said, "Life goes on as usual in the neighbourhood and funeral processions wending their way almost unnoticed to the burial ground and the burning ghat may be the only indication of the tragedies of the epidemic. During severe epidemics some measure of hardship results from the temporary failure of the food supply, the disruption of trade, the interference with agriculture and the interruption of traffic; but even the most virulent pestilence is short lived and these ill effects disappear with astonishing rapidity and with them all memory of the epidemic". In an over-populated country, a highly irregular death rate (caused by famines, epidemics, etc.) has two effects that may possibly give it an advantage over a steady mortality of the same long-run intensity: (1) The sudden catastrophe wipes away excess population and thereby temporarily relieves the population pressure. If such pressure has been a hinderance to economic advance, as it must have been if there has been "overpopulation," then the relief afforded by the epidemic proves beneficial until the pressure is built up once more. With a steady but high mortality, on the other hand, the pressure is continual; it gets no relief, and stagnation is therefore unvarying. (2) Since the brunt of epidemics is usually borne by children and old people, the survivors of an epidemic, who are mainly breadwinners, have in consequence of the epidemic fewer dependants to support. Epidemics are, therefore, sometimes followed by a temporary rise in the standard of living. In so far as the epidemic or famine affects children and old people more than young adults, the birth rate tends to rise again immediately after the disaster, and it is not long until the regular course of population growth is resumed. The period of relief is, therefore, not long.

87. The problem of food, internal security and international developments are also to be borne in mind while we are considering the question of future death rate. The State is, a deficit area from the point of view of food-supply except during very good years. It is also true that severe famines, internal disorders and wars of the past have receded from our memories and indeed they should remain things of the past if the international situation were not to deteriorate and the country were to continue to get good help from outside till self-sufficiency is reached and again if the rains do not persistently fail. But if any of these premises cease to hold good, the repercussion might be serious and our death rate might go up steeply. The local village still remains unsanitary, the public apathetic to health measures, and the poverty almost as abject it follows that the reduction of the death rate in recent decades is a tenuous thing, it will remain so until basic changes are incorporated into the warp and woof of the society. Viewed in this light, the growth in the region's population during recent times represents a potentially disturbing factor.

88. Upto now we have considered births and deaths separately. We will now proceed to consider their combined effect to ascertain the natural increase of population which is the difference between births and deaths during a particular decade. It is well-known that actual births exceed registered births and actual deaths exceed registered deaths.

**The Natural Increase and the Migration-cum Registration Error:**

and, therefore, if we try to compute the natural increase from the registered births and deaths an element of error is bound to creep in. This is called the registration error. The natural increases can, however, be ascertained if we know the Census Growth and the net migration during the inter-censal period, because the Census growth, which is the difference between the Census population at the beginning and end of the decade, is obviously composed of the excess of actual births over actual deaths (the natural increase) plus the net migration. Or, in other words, this growth is composed of the excess of registered births over registered deaths plus the component representing the net migration and registration error.

89. In Section 4 on 'Movement', we have considered the question of net migration into the States during the periods 1921-30 and 1931-50 and we found that the net migration into Rajasthan during these decades has been approximately -109,873 and -58,089 respectively. In Ajmer net migration in the decade 1921-30 was -21,990 and in 1931-50 it was +31,209. We will proceed to determine the registration error presently, but before we proceed to do so, we will ascertain the natural increase during the above two periods by subtracting the net migration from the corresponding Census growth of population as shown in Table No. 89 below: -

TABLE No. 89.

## Natural Increase in Rajasthan.

	1931-50	1921-30
(i) Census population at the beginning of the period ..	11,264,300	9,868,088
(ii) Census population at the end of the period ..	15,290,797	11,264,300
(iii) Growth of population during the period ..	4,026,497	1,396,212
(iv) { Increase (+) } { Decrease (-) } due to migration .. ..	-58,089	-109,873
(v) Natural increase during the period .. ..	4,084,586	1,506,085

90. The figures given above show that excluding migration, the population of the State has increased by above 1.506 millions during the ten years 1921-30. In other words, the percentage increase of the population in 1931 over the mean population of the decade was about 14.2 or about 1.42, per cent per annum. During the period 1931-50, however, the actual increase of the population is of the order of 4.084 millions showing that the population has increased by 35.8 per cent over the mean population of the period 1931-50. Or, in other words, the annual increase has risen to 1.79 per cent. The reason for this rise of the natural increase is obviously due to the increase in the birth rate as well as a fall in the death rate, the relation of which with the previous history of famines and epidemics in the State, has been fully discussed above.

TABLE No. 90.

## Natural Increase in Ajmer.

	1931-50	1921-30
(i) Census population at the beginning of the period ..	506,964	446,842
(ii) Census population at the end of the period ..	693,372	506,964
(iii) Growth of population during the period ..	186,408	60,122
(iv) { Increase (+) } { Decrease (-) } due to migration .. ..	+31,209	-21,990
(v) Natural increase during the period .. ..	155,199	82,112



91. For Ajmer the figures given above show that excluding migration, the population of this State has increased by 81,112 persons during the ten years, in other words, the percentage increase of the population in 1931 over the mean population of the decade was about 17·0 per cent. or about 1·70 per cent. per annum. During the period 1931—50, however, the actual increase of the population is of 155,199 persons showing that the population has increased by 25·8 per cent. over the mean population of the period 1931—50 or in other words the annual increase has slowed down to 1·29 per cent. The reason for this slowing down of the natural increase is obviously due to the fall in the birth rate which is associated with the previous history of famines and epidemics in the State.

92. The problem of determining the registration error is beset with difficulties. The registration system in the Integrated States was next to nil. What-  
**The Registration Error.** ever does exist is deemed to be defective, therefore, the vital statistics of these areas are unreliable and cannot be made use of for any useful calculations. Reasonably reliable vital statistics figures in case of Rajasthan are available for the former Bharatpur State only. They are, however, available for the Ajmer State. The second difficulty is about ascertaining the net migration for the area for which reliable vital statistics are available. The net migration figures arrived at in Section 4 above, are based on calculations for Rajasthan State as a whole on the basis of figures of the previous Censuses available in the previous Census Reports. Figures of emigration are not available for units smaller than the State (the Integrating States). No attempt can, therefore, be made to work out the registration error in case of Rajasthan. We may no doubt adopt figures of net migration for the Ajmer State for which reliable vital statistics are available. For reasons given above, Subsidiary Table 1·3 contains two sets of population figures. The first set contained in columns 2 to 4 gives the mean population of the entire State as constituted in 1951, while the second set contained in columns 5 to 7 gives the mean population of the decade for area under registration of births and deaths, both of which are the same so far as Ajmer is concerned. Therefore, it is of no use to compare the growth rate of the State as a whole during the last three decades with the growth rate in the area under registration.

93. The growth of population may be split up into its two components: (i) net gain  
**The Growth of Population** or loss due to migration, and (ii) natural increase due to the excess  
**in the area under** of births over deaths. According to the registered births and  
**Registration.** deaths, in Ajmer this excess was of the order of 28,348 in 1921—30,  
 representing the increase of 6·0 per cent. on the relevant mean  
 population. The corresponding increase in 1931—40 was 8 per cent.  
 and in 1941—50 it was 7 per cent. If the registration records were correct, the balance of  
 the growth rate of registration population over the recorded natural increase would be 6·6  
 in 1921—30, 6·0 in 1931—40 and 10·0 in 1941—50. Those figures would represent the rate  
 of increase in population due to migration alone.

94. From the data presented below it is seen that the available information on migration is not equal to this balance. It is, therefore, reasonable to conclude that the balance includes an element due to under-registration of vital events and that the last mentioned set of percentages really indicates what may be called the "migration-cum-registration error" during the three decades. It is composed of what we have described above as the "registration error" and a component representing the net migration.

95. As pointed out before, figures of net migration in the State for the periods 1931—50 and 1921—30 have been arrived at in Section 4 above, where the details of the calculations have been referred to. It is pointed out there, that as the figures of migration for the period 1931—40 and 1941—50 are not available separately, the net migration for the period 1931—50 and for the decade 1921—30 only have been calculated.



96. The Census growth rate of the population of the area under registration in Ajmer during 1931—50 was 32.9 and the corresponding rate of natural increase was 18.6 giving the migration-cum-registration error of 14.3 per cent. Again as we have seen above, the Census growth rate of population of the area under registration during 1921—30 was 12.6 and the corresponding rate of natural increase was 6.6 as given in Subsidiary Table 1.3. Therefore, the migration-cum-registration-error during 1921—30 was 6.0.

97. On the basis of the net migration figures of +31,209 and -21,990 for the Ajmer State as a whole for the periods 1931—50 and 1921—30 respectively arrived at in Section 4 above and by relating these approximate inter-censal gains due to migration to the mean population of the periods 1931—50 and 1921—30 we find that the net gain due to migration comes to 6.0 per cent. during 1931—50 and 4.6 per cent. during 1921—30. It, therefore, appears that during 1931—50 an increase of 18.9 per cent. of the mean population and that during 1921—30 an increase of 11.2 of the mean population is still unaccounted for. It will be interesting to see what this signifies in terms of under-registration of vital events of births and deaths.

98. An analysis based on the actual figures of population, registered births and deaths for Ajmer State and available figures of migration has been made below for the two periods 1931—50 and 1921—30 in the Table No. 91 below:—

TABLE No. 91.

	1931—50	1921—30
(i) Increase in Registration Area population <i>i. e.</i> the whole of Ajmer State .. .. .	186,408	60,122
(ii) Less migration gain .. .. .	+ 31,209	- 21,990
(iii) Natural increase based on census data .. .. .	155,199	82,112
(iv) Excess of actually registered births over deaths .. .. .	89,956	28,348
(v) Difference of (iii) and (iv) .. .. .	68,243	53,764
(vi) Difference as a percentage of natural increase .. .. .	+ 44	+ 65

The significance of the percentages shown against item (vi) in the above table may now be considered as against the expected natural increase derived from the Census data, the registration natural increase was deficient by 65 per cent. in 1921—30. There are omissions in the registration of births as well as deaths and, as is generally believed omissions in the registration of births are more than those in the case of deaths. The registration error referred to here represents the absolute excess of omission in births over those in deaths. If the deficiency in the registration of births and deaths be the same, it would indicate that the percentage of under registration of vital events was of the order of 65 per cent. If, however, the percentage omission in births is higher than that in deaths the figure of 65 per cent. would indicate the lower limit for the deficiency in the registration of births. In practice, the percentages of omission in births and deaths are not very different and, therefore, it would appear safe to conclude that during 1921—30 the deficiency in the registration of vital events was of the order of 65 per cent. and in the decades 1931—50, 44 per cent.

99. It is not possible to give a detailed analysis of the migration-cum-registration-error in the case of the Natural Divisions or districts as has been done above in the case of the State, for the simple reason that the figures required for such analysis are not available. In fact emigration figures are not known for units smaller than the State.

**The Migration-cum-Registration-Error for the Natural Divisions:**

100. The general conclusion to which we come after the above discussion of birth and death rates and their trend as also the nature and extent of migration is (i) that the past as well as the present growth in the population of Rajasthan and Ajmer has been due not so much to net balance of migration but to the net balance of births and deaths; (ii) that it is not the increase in fertility rate but the decline in the mortality rate which has played a more leading part in affecting the balance; (iii) that the probabilities for the future are that the birth rates will show a slight rise; (iv) that the death rate is likely to decline further; and (v) that, therefore, the chances are for a further growth of population at a much higher rate than before.

101. The following remarks of the Planning Commission being relevant to the topic under consideration are quoted below :

**Population Pressure and its Bearing on Development.**

“If, as seems likely, this trend continues, the present rate of growth of population will be maintained for several years to come. It may even go up a little.” “In planning for a progressive improvement in living standards the implications of this rapid growth of population need carefully to be considered. It is clear that, under present conditions an increase in man power “resources” does not strengthen the economy but, in fact, weakens it. Unless measures are initiated at this stage to bring down the birth rate and thereby reduce the rate of population growth, a continuously increasing amount of effort on the part of the community will be used up only in maintaining existing standard of consumption. With all the effort that the First Five Year Plan will represent, it will be possible barely to restore by 1955—56 the pre-war standards of consumption in regard to essentials like food and clothing. Increasing pressure of population on natural resources (which must inevitably be limited) retards economic progress and limits seriously the rate of extension of social services, so essential to civilized existence. A population policy is therefore, essential to planning.” \*

102. Before considering the effect of this growth on the economy of the country we will have to examine the livelihood pattern of our people. This we are going to do in the next section.

## SECTION 6.

### Livelihood Pattern.

1. During the 1951 Census, great emphasis was laid on ascertaining the economic status and means of livelihood of the people in accordance with the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme, 1951, prepared by the Registrar General and reproduced in full in Part II-B (Economic Tables) of the Census Report as pointed out before.

2. The Scheme has several new features and although terms, such as “Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned”, “Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned”, “Non-cultivating owners of land agricultural rent receivers”, “Self-supporting persons”, “Earning dependants”, etc., mentioned in the Scheme, are of very common use, they have a specific meaning attached to them and unless this is very carefully understood, there is every likelihood of

drawing very erroneous conclusion by trying to compare the 1951 Census Economic Data with figures of other economic enquiries made in the country. With a view to clear these points even at the stage of enumeration, exhaustive instructions were issued to the Enumerators, pamphlets containing detailed instructions for citizens as to how the census questions should be answered were printed in Hindi and widely circulated. The school masters and the members of the village Panchayats were made responsible for holding public meetings of the villagers in their villages and explaining them carefully in detail. In all important fairs, these booklets were explained in public speeches. Appendix VI contains the relevant census questionnaire with the instructions issued to the Enumerators. The definitions of the terms used are fully described there. This Appendix should be carefully gone through after studying the original Census Economic Classification Scheme given in Part II-B of the Report before making use of the figures collected at the Census and discussed in this Report. It will be noticed that the difficulties encountered in putting across the economic questions were overcome by (a) dissemination of the true doctrines, and (b) the removal of objections by giving State-wide publicity to the Census Questions and their meaning and by intensive training of the staff.

3. For purposes of ensuring accuracy of the answers obtained from the people, **Accuracy of Economic data.** precautions were taken at all stages. The more important of them are summarised below :

- (a) Intensive training was given to the Supervisors and Enumerators and every Census officer did his best to see that the Enumerators in his charge were clear in their minds about the scope of the questions, the method of asking them and of recording the replies.
- (b) All available means of educating the people and making them familiar with the questions and their object were availed of.
- (c) A special booklet on the duties of citizens was issued with particular emphasis on the economic enquiry and copies were widely distributed throughout the State in Hindi.
- (d) All Officers in charge of Census work made it a point to lay particular stress on the Census Economic enquiry while explaining the importance of the Census to the people during their tours.
- (e) During our extensive tours myself, my deputies and inspectors paid special attention towards the clarification of the economic questions, and, when the National Registers of Citizens and the enumeration slips were being filled in, I checked a certain percentage of entries in respect of the economic questions myself and it was a matter of great satisfaction that the actual number of material errors was negligible. Answers to question No. 10 (Principal means of livelihood) were almost invariably written at length and left little scope for any misunderstanding or misclassification about the principal means of livelihood. Even with regard to question No. 9 (1) I did not find any significant percentage of mistakes and in the vast majority of cases the answers actually recorded were found to be correct. The efforts made by the Enumerators to get the true answers were no doubt strenuous in the case of illiterate joint families. The secondary means of livelihood were as carefully recorded in actual practice as answers to question No. 10. The percentage of mistakes in respect of answers to question No. 9 (2) was comparatively more, but as most of these were noticed in respect of agriculturists they had little significance, as the agriculturists were not classified on the basis of this part of the Census question.

- (f) With a view to minimise errors of classification at the stage of sorting of slips detailed instructions were given to the sorters. These instructions were based on the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme given in Part II-B of the Report. During the sorting of the slips in the tabulation offices it was found that answers to question Nos. 9, 10 and 11 were very carefully written and exhaustive details were given in answers to question Nos. 10 and 11. The nature and extent of misclassification resulting from vague or incorrect entries in slips which may have crept in the tables inspite of above efforts has been explained in the Introduction to Report Part II-B Economic Tables, which should be kept in mind while making use of the relevant figures.

4. The actual economic information collected at Census on the whole gives a good and reliable picture of the condition of the people of the State. The Main Tables prepared from the data collected are contained in Part II-B of the Report, while the Subsidiary Tables are contained in Part I-B. The general explanatory note at the beginning of the Report Part II-B deserves careful study for a proper understanding of the figures in the tables. It shows the relation of this scheme with the one adopted in 1931 and with the International Scheme of Economic Classification. It also lays down the extent of reliability of certain figures. One of the points stressed therein is that in some districts some confusion was noticed regarding the means of livelihood classification of cultivators holding land direct from the Government or the Thikanas. They were treated in most cases, though wrongly as "cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned" although they were really owners of land, what they paid to the Government or the Thikana was revenue. The figures of persons in means of Livelihood Class I and II are therefore, to some extent vitiated due to the above confusion. In this Section we shall review Subsidiary Table 1·8 (Livelihood Pattern of General Population).

5. The eight livelihood classes into which the people of the State are divided according to the Classification Scheme, mentioned above, and which will be referred to frequently hereafter, are as follows :—

**The Livelihood Classes.**

*Agricultural Classes.*

- I Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned; and their dependants.
- II Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned; and their dependants.
- III Cultivating labourers and their dependants.
- IV Non-cultivating owners of land; agricultural rent receivers; and their dependants.

*Non-Agricultural Classes.*

Persons (including dependants) who derive their Principal Means of Livelihood from —

- V Production other than cultivation.
- VI Commerce.
- VII Transport.
- VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources.

6. A fuller and more detailed study of the Agricultural Classes has been reserved for Chapter IV and that of the Non-agricultural classes for Chapter V. In this section we shall review the figures in Subsidiary Table 1·8 which gives the distribution of 10,000 persons of general population amongst the eight livelihood classes mentioned above. A perusal of the Table shows that in Rajasthan 71 per cent. of the people belong to the agricultural classes, and 29 per cent. to the non-agricultural classes.

7. Amongst the four agricultural classes, the owner cultivators represent the largest number. In fact about 43 per cent. of the population of the State is shown to belong to Class I, while about 3 per cent. only belongs to the category of agricultural labourers. The non-cultivating owners of land constitute hardly 1.6 per cent. and cultivators of unowned land are 22.86 per cent. of the population. In this last figure is reflected the misunderstanding of the enumerators in some districts who treated the people paying revenue to the Government or Thikanas as rent paying tenants as referred to in para 4 above and in the Introduction to Report Part II-B Economic Tables. In Ajmer State only 45 per cent. of the population belong to agricultural classes, and 55 per cent. to the non-agricultural classes. The distribution of the population in four agricultural classes in the Ajmer State is shown in the inset Table No. 92.

TABLE No. 92.

Distribution of Agricultural classes  
in livelihood classes in Ajmer State.

Percentage of total population engaged  
in Livelihood class.

I	II	III	IV
37.45	3.14	2.82	2.01

It is to be remembered that the test of ownership is existence of a right to cultivate land which should be heritable, but may or may not be transferable. Therefore, all tenants who hold such tenancy, by whatever designation locally known, and who cultivate the land, have

been regarded as owners of the land.

8. A "cultivator" (Livelihood Class I or II) is distinguished from a "Cultivating Labourer" (Livelihood Class III) as the person who takes the responsible decisions which constitute the direction of the process of cultivation. All cultivating labourers are employees of cultivators. According to this definition, working members of the households of owner cultivators or of cultivators of unowned land should have been classed as agricultural labourers, because they do not direct the process of cultivation but perform the manual work only. In fact most of the Superintendents in the States of India have done so. But rightly or wrongly in Rajasthan and Ajmer such persons were treated as belonging to same Livelihood class to which their head of household belonged. This fact should be kept in mind while trying to compare the figures of these States with those of other States as well as with those of the previous censuses in which also such persons were treated as agricultural labourers.

9. It is on account of the above definition of ownership of land that we find a large number of people under Livelihood Class I and comparatively few under Class IV. The Jagirdars and Muafidars really own estates and not the land in the estates. Lands in the estates are always owned by the innumerable people Livelihood Class I. The income of the Jagirdars and Muafidars consists of rents or rather revenue paid by the people of Livelihood Class I, who are really owners of the land. They are in a way the assignees of Government revenue. The Land Reforms Legislation and the abolition of Jagirs will, therefore, hardly affect the livelihood pattern of the population as given in Subsidiary Table 1.8 except that person belonging to Livelihood Class IV will further dwindle down.

10. Of the 29 per cent. of the people of non-agricultural classes in Rajasthan State, 12.73 per cent. belong to the Miscellaneous category in Class VIII, 8.88 per cent. belong to Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) and of the balance, about 6.58 per cent. to the Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) and 0.94 per cent. belong to the Livelihood Class VII (Transport). In Ajmer State, of the 55 per cent. people of non-agricultural classes, 20 per cent.

belong to Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) about 19 per cent. belong to Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) and of the balance about 12.5 per cent. belong to Livelihood Class VI (Commerce), while about 3.3 per cent. belong to Livelihood Class VII (Transport). It is to be remembered that Livelihood Class V also includes people deriving their principal means of livelihood from such industries as stock raising namely, breeding of camels, cattle, sheep, goats, etc., rearing of small animals and insects, plantation industries (such as orange, banana and other plantations), forestry and wood cutting and hunting and fishing, which are included in division "0" of the Industries and Services classification explained in Part II-B of the Report. In other words, these Industries akin to and associated with agricultural activities are also included in the Livelihood Class V along with the numerous other industries of Divisions 0 to 4. Details of distribution of the people engaged in the industries under these Divisions would be found in Subsidiary Table 5.8 to 5.12 which will be discussed in Chapter V. Livelihood Class VI does not include people who manufacture articles and also sell them, such persons have been classed under Class V.

11. The comparatively small number of people engaged in Livelihood Class VII (Transport) also deserves attention. It is to be noted that under the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme, mentioned above, all railway employees are not classified under Transport. The scheme visualises classification of individuals and not the establishments in which they are employed. Therefore, railway employees, who are employed on manufacture, assembly and repairs of railway equipment and those employed on construction works are shown under Livelihood Classes V and VIII respectively, and all other railway employees are classified under Livelihood Class VII (Transport).

12. The proportion of Agricultural and Non-agricultural classes in the Natural Divisions can be seen in the inset Table No. 93.

**The Livelihood Pattern of the general population in the Natural Divisions.**

TABLE No. 93.

Livelihood Pattern in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division.	Number per 100 of total population belonging to	
	Agricultural Classes	Non-Agricultural Classes
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	69.8	30.2
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	68.7	31.3
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	77.4	22.6
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	72.5	27.5

The figures show that in the Rajasthan Hills Division, which consists of the Districts Udaipur, Dungarpur, Banswara and Sirohi, nearly 77.4 per cent. of the people depend mainly on agriculture, while in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the proportion is only 6.87. In the Dry Area Division 31.3 per cent. of the population depend upon industries and other non-agricultural activities. The reason is well-known. In this Division there is not much scope for cultivation. A substantial number of persons are breeders of camels, cattle and sheep who have been classed under Class V

(Industry). Besides it is in this area that most of the big *seths* carrying on business all over India reside. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division also, which contains the main industrial areas of the State, as well as good agricultural land the proportion of agriculturists is 69.8, and 30.2 per cent. depend upon industrial and other non-agricultural activities. In the Plateau Division the agriculturists form 72.5 per cent. of the general population and non-agriculturists 27.5 per cent.

13. Amongst the agricultural classes the cultivators of owned land belonging to Livelihood Class I are to be found in the largest number in the Rajasthan Hills Division, where the percentage is as high as 67.5 while their number is lowest in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division,

where it is about 24.24. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Plateau Division the percentage is 4.12 and 59.14 respectively. In the case of the cultivating labourers the position is entirely different. The Rajasthan Plateau Division has the highest percentage, 7.65 and the Rajasthan Hills Division the lowest 1.94. The Rajasthan Dry Area and the East Rajasthan Plain Divisions have 3.08 per cent. and 2.11 per cent. respectively of the general population who have returned their principal means of livelihood as cultivating labourers. Cultivators of unowned land are in the largest proportion in the Dry Area Division where they form 40 per cent. They are the least in the Plateau Division being 3.0 per cent. only. In the Plain Division they are 22.0 per cent. and the Hills Division 6.0 per cent. In Ajmer the percentage is 3.0 only. In the figures of cultivators of unowned land is found reflected the confusion referred to in para 4 above. Non-cultivating owners of agricultural land are proportionately the highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (2.70) and the lowest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (1.05). They form 1.58 per cent. of the total population in East Rajasthan Plain Division and 1.78 per cent. in Rajasthan Hills Division.

14. Amongst the Non-agricultural classes also, it is interesting to note that the percentages of people in Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation), which includes all industries, are practically the same in the East Rajasthan Plain and Rajasthan Dry Area Divisions i. e. 9 per cent. In the Hills Division the percentage is 7.24 and in the Plateau Division 9.80.

15. Commercial activity is most prominent in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division and next to it in the East Rajasthan Plain Division while in the Rajasthan Plateau Division it is at the lowest level and the Hills Division occupies a slightly higher position than the Plateau Division as seen in Table No. 94.

TABLE No. 94.

Distribution of persons depending upon Commerce in the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Number of persons depending upon Commerce per 1,000 of the total population.
Rajasthan .. .. .	65.8
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	65.5
Dry Area Division .. .. .	77.3
Hills Division .. .. .	54.7
Plateau Division .. .. .	52.0
Ajmer State .. .. .	12.44

16. People belonging to the Livelihood Class VII (Transport) are noticed in largest number in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the percentage being 1.16. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is 0.89, while in the Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions it is 0.59 and 0.42 respectively. The significant percentage (12.4) in the Ajmer State is natural when it is remembered that it contains some large railway settlements. Besides this, it occupies the central position in the heart of Rajasthan, therefore, motor transport industry is also flourishing to a great extent. The Muslim shrine of Dargah Khwaja Sahib and the Hindu place of pilgrimage at Pushkar also give stimulus to motor and tonga transport. Rajasthan Dry Area Division comes next. In this Division also there is the important railway settlement at Jodhpur. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division also there are Railway colonies at Phulera, Bandikui and Gangapur



City. Apart from the limited motor and railway facilities the vast rural areas have their bullock-carts, buffalo-carts, horse-tongas, pack animals like transport camels, bullocks, donkeys, and even transport by head and shoulder loads exists every where in Rajasthan, specially in certain tracts of the Dry Area Division and the Hills Division which are inaccessible by any other means of transport.

17. The largest percentage of people belonging to Livelihood Class VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources is to be found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division where they form about 13.6 per cent. of the people. This livelihood class contains the members of all the public services, legal profession, health and educational institutions, domestic, religious, charitable, welfare, construction and utility services, etc. The industrial area of Jaipur with the State Capital and the Seat of University, naturally contains the largest percentage of the people belonging to this livelihood class compared to the other Divisions. In Rajasthan Dry Area Division also the percentage is almost the same 13.5. Here we have the High Court and the Additional Accountant General's Office which, together with other industrial concerns, account for this proportion. Besides it is the abode of wealthy Seths and was until 1948 the capital of an important State. The Plateau Division is third in this respect; where the percentage is 11.5 and the Hills Division stands last with a percentage of 9.28.

18. A look at Subsidiary Table 1.8 shows that the proportion of owner cultivators *i. e.* those depending upon Livelihood Class I is the highest in Dungarpur District being 83.4 per cent. and next to it in Banswara 81.9 per cent. and Bhilwara 70.7 per cent. It is the lowest in Barmer *i. e.* 9.1 per cent. and slightly higher than it in Jaisalmer 9.16 and Jalore 13.4 per cent. The proportion of cultivators of un-owned land *i. e.* those depending on Livelihood Class II, is highest in Barmer *i. e.* 66.4 per cent. and next to it in Jalore 54.3 per cent. and Nagaur 51.6 per cent. It is the lowest in Jhalawar *i. e.* 1.4 per cent. and slightly higher in Dungarpur 1.6 and Udaipur 2.8 per cent. The highest proportion of owner cultivators in the hilly Districts of Dungarpur and Banswara and the lowest in other districts reflects, to a certain extent, the effect of fragmentation of holdings and extremely poor standard of living which prevails in these hilly districts. While in other places where the case is reverse it seems that there are more well-to-do cultivators who lease out some of their land to others. The cultivating labourers *i. e.* those belonging to Livelihood Class III are the highest in proportion in Kotah *i. e.* 11 per cent. Next to it in Jhalawar 8.2 per cent. and Ganganagar 7.5 per cent. They are the lowest in Bikaner *i. e.* 0.26 per cent. and slightly higher in Churu 0.6 and Jaisalmer 0.66 per cent. Non-cultivating owners of land, etc., *i. e.* those belonging to Livelihood Class IV are the highest in proportion in Bundi 3.7 per cent. and next to it in Bhilwara 3.0 per cent. and Kotah 2.6 per cent. They are the lowest in proportion in Bharatpur 0.33 per cent. and slightly higher in 0.49 per cent. and Jaisalmer 0.73 per cent.

19. Persons depending upon production other than cultivation *i. e.* those belonging to Livelihood Class V are the highest in proportion in Jaisalmer 42.9 per cent. and next to it in Sirohi 18.6 and Pali 16.4 per cent. They are the lowest in proportion in Banswara 3.3 per cent. and slightly higher in Dungarpur 3.6 per cent. and Ganganagar 3.7 per cent. Those engaged in Trade and Commerce *i. e.* persons depending upon Livelihood Class VI are the highest in proportion in Jaisalmer 12.8 per cent. next to it in Bikaner 12.3 and Churu 9.6 per cent. They are the lowest in Banswara 3.02 per cent. and slightly higher in Dungarpur 3.36 and Bundi 3.89 per cent. The reasons are obvious. In Jaisalmer where cultivation is not possible, a large number of people are engaged in rearing of animals like sheep, cattle, camels, etc., who come under Class V or are sellers of animal products like ghee, wool, hides, etc., who come under Class VI. Bikaner and Churu are the cradle of the well-known Marwari Seths, there should be no wonder therefore, if the proportion of traders is higher there. The hilly Districts of Dungarpur and Banswara naturally permit of no industry or trade due to absence

of means of communication and other facilities. Persons depending upon Transport *i. e.* those belonging to Livelihood Class VII are the highest in proportion in Bikaner *i. e.* 2.9 per cent. next to it in Jodhpur 2.6 per cent and Jaipur 1.6 per cent. They are the lowest in Dungarpur *i. e.* 0.14 per cent and Banswara 0.19 per cent. The hilly districts provide no scope for transport while vast stretches of sandy plains give scope to transport like camels and motors, where motoring is possible. Besides, there is a comparatively larger Railway staff in Bikaner, Jodhpur and Jaipur Districts. Persons depending upon Services and miscellaneous sources *i. e.* those belonging to Livelihood Class VIII are also the highest in proportion in Bikaner *i. e.* 24.7 per cent and next to it in Jaipur, 20.7 per cent and Jodhpur 19.4 per cent. They are the lowest in proportion in Dungarpur *i. e.* 4.2 per cent, Banswara 4.9 per cent and in Bhilwara 7.2 per cent. The hilly districts must naturally be backward in this respect while Jaipur being the Capital of the State must be expected to have a higher proportion of this class. Jodhpur and Bikaner being abodes of rich people provide greater scope for domestic servants also.

20. The livelihood pattern in the Tehsils can be seen in Summary Table "E" printed Liveliness pattern in in report Part II-A of the Report.  
Tehsils.

21. The principal change involved in the 1951—Classification of Economic activities as compared to the 1931 Census is the setting up of a comprehensive economic classification of the people as a whole and not merely of those who are engaged in gainful occupation. Commenting on the inadequate Census classification in the past, Chandrashekhar says, "There are no reliable or complete statistics available regarding the classification of the total population according to occupations. The 1941 Census has omitted such a classification, while the 1931 Census gives classification only for the persons following occupations (*i. e.* earners plus working dependants plus those following callings as subsidiary occupations). The rest of the population which is numerically larger representing mainly non-working dependants, remains unclassified, and there is no way of classifying them in terms of their occupations except by inference, on the precarious assumption that the proportion of non-working dependants to workers is constant throughout".\* The 1951 Classification removes this defect.

22. In 1931, statistics were collected for "earners" and "working dependants". The percentage of earners was 37.5 in Rajasthan and 36.9 in Ajmer, that of working dependants was 15.3 in Rajasthan and 15.4 in Ajmer, and deduced percentage of non-working dependants was 47.2 in Rajasthan and 47.7 in Ajmer. During the 1951 Census, the total figures for self-supporting persons, which correspond to the "earners" of 1931, comes to 37.0 in Rajasthan and 36.6 in Ajmer while that of the earning dependants is 13.4 per cent in Rajasthan and 12.6 per cent in Ajmer and that of the non-earning dependants is 49.6 in Rajasthan and 50.8 per cent in Ajmer. The total percentage for self-supporting persons and earning dependants comes to 50.4 per cent in Rajasthan and 49.2 in Ajmer in 1951, while in 1931 it was 52.8 in Rajasthan and 52.3 in Ajmer. Thus, although the over-all picture of self-supporting persons and earning dependants has not changed much, the separate figures differ appreciably. This is obviously due to the confusion about correctly recording the "earners" and "earning dependants", as pointed out in the 1931 Census Report. The figures also show a slight decrease in the proportion of bread-winners and a corresponding increase in the proportion of non-earning dependants.

23. A detailed comparison of the occupational figures of the 1931 Census with those of the 1951 data is not practicable on account of the change in the method of classification already referred to. Tentative comparison on the basis of approximate livelihood classification is, however, made in Subsidiary Table 5.6 in Part I-B of the Report.

\* S. Chandrasekhar-Indias Population Fact and Policy page 79 (Indian Institute for Population Studies, Annamalai University Chidambaram).

TABLE No. 95.

## Comparison of Livelihood Classification at different Censuses.

Livelihood Class.	Percentage of self-supporting persons and earning dependants in each livelihood class to the total number of self-supporting and earning dependants in the State.		Percentage of population depending on different livelihood classes to the total population.	
	1931 2	1951 3	1921 4	1951 5
<b>Rajasthan</b>				
<b>Agricultural Classes.</b>				
I to IV (all agricultural classes) .. .. .	67.9	77.3	63.38	70.9
<b>Non-Agricultural Classes.</b>				
Persons who derive their principal means of livelihood from—				
V. Production (other than cultivation) .. .. .	12.0	7.9	17.48	8.9
VI. Commerce .. .. .	5.4	4.2	6.58	6.6
VII. Transport .. .. .	0.7	0.6	1.01	0.9
VIII. Other services and miscellaneous sources .. .. .	14.0	10.0	11.55	12.7
<b>Ajmer</b>				
<b>Agricultural Classes.</b>				
I to IV (all agricultural classes) .. .. .	58.8	57.7	50.03	45.4
<b>Non-Agricultural Classes.</b>				
Persons who derive their principal means of livelihood from—				
V. Production (other than cultivation) .. .. .	12.4	16.8	17.99	19.5
VI. Commerce .. .. .	6.5	7.7	8.13	12.5
VII. Transport .. .. .	4.0	2.1	8.63	3.3
VIII. Other services and miscellaneous sources .. .. .	18.3	15.7	15.22	19.5

In the above Table a comparison is made between the percentage of self-supporting persons and earning dependants belonging to each livelihood class to the total number of all self-supporting persons and earning dependants in the entire population at the 1931 and 1951 Censuses, because the figures of non-earning dependants are not available for the 1931 Census. The figures in columns 4 and 5 of Table No. 95 given above make a comparison of the position as it existed in 1921 with that in 1951. Similar comparison with 1931 figures was not possible because the figures of non-earning dependants by means of livelihood class were not tabulated in that census. The figures show how far the assumption is justified that the percentage of workers in a livelihood class represents the percentage of the whole population belonging to the particular class. It will be noticed that the difference, though small, is significant.

24. A comparison of the figures in columns 2 and 3 of Table No. 95 shows that the proportion of bread-winners has increased in the agricultural classes and shows a slight fall in all other livelihood classes, specially Class V. This is mainly due to the fact that the earning dependants amongst agriculturists were better enumerated this time perhaps because the reasons associated with "prestige" in refusing to admit the work done by members of families at the previous Census were not effective to the same extent now due to the change in the social out-look. It is also to be remembered that plantation and other industries included in Division "0" of the 1951 Economic Classification Scheme now fall under Livelihood Class V, while at the previous Censuses they were included in the agricultural category. The comparative figures in Table No. 95 tend to show clearly that the industries in our State have not continued to absorb our increasing population even to the extent of the proportion which existed in 1921 and that the pressure on agriculture is increasing. The fall in the percentage of bread-winners in Livelihood Class VIII also attracts attention. That miscellaneous sources of livelihood have also failed to absorb proportionate share of the increasing population seems to be clear. In Ajmer the case appears to be slightly different. Here we notice a slight fall in the proportion of bread-winners in the Agricultural classes and a significant rise in that of those engaged in Industry. The bread-winners among traders have also increased though in slight proportion. Otherwise the position here also is similar to that in Rajasthan.

25. At the 1921 Census 54.56 per cent of the total population in Rajasthan and 44.38 per cent in Ajmer belonged to the class of cultivators corresponding to Livelihood Classes I and II of the 1951 Census, while the corresponding percentage now has risen to 66.17 in Rajasthan and fallen to 40.6 in Ajmer. Similarly, the "rent receivers" of 1921 constituted 3.61 per cent of the total population in Rajasthan and 1.49 per cent in Ajmer compared to a lower percentage of 1.6 in Rajasthan and a higher of 2.0 in Ajmer in Livelihood Class IV of 1951. The percentage of farm-servants and field-labourers in 1921 was about 5.41 in Rajasthan and 4.16 in Ajmer. It has fallen to 3.11 in Rajasthan and 2.8 in Ajmer at the 1951 Census.

26. Similar comparison with the data of the 1931 Census is not practicable as the entire population was not classified, we can only compare the percentage of 1.92 in Ajmer and 1.76 in Rajasthan of the self-supporting persons and earning dependants taken together to the total population of 1951 with similar percentage of 17.4 in Rajasthan and 18.45 in Ajmer of the principal earners and working dependants of the 1931 Census for the Class III as given in Subsidiary Table 5.6 in Part I-B of the Report. The striking fall in the figures is due to another feature of the 1951 Census referred to in Para 8 above. The percentage of self-supporting persons and earning dependants of Livelihood Classes I and II of the 1951 Census to the total population, which comes to 36.6 in Rajasthan and 25.4 in Ajmer, can also be compared with the corresponding percentage of 17.9 in Rajasthan and 11.8 in Ajmer during the 1931 Census. If we compare similar percentage for Class I and Class II separately we find that the percentages for 1931 and 1951 for Class I are 2.39 in Rajasthan and 6.33 in Ajmer in 1931 and 24.23 in Rajasthan and 23.5 in Ajmer in 1951, and for Class II they are 0.82 and 2.65 respectively (12.24 in Rajasthan and 2.56 in Ajmer for 1951, and 15.5 in Rajasthan and 5.45 in Ajmer for 1931). Similarly, the percentage of 0.56 in Rajasthan and 0.54 in Ajmer of the principal earners and working dependants of the rent receiver class of 1931 to the total population may be compared with the corresponding percentage of 0.65 in Rajasthan and 1 per cent in Ajmer for Livelihood Class IV of the 1951 Census.

27. The significant point to be noted in these comparisons is that while the overall percentage of agricultural classes to the total population has hardly changed, there is significant reduction in the percentage of agricultural labourers and a similar increase amongst the cultivators of Classes I and II. The probable reason for the increase in the number

of cultivators is associated with the Land Reforms Legislation, which aimed at recognising the actual tiller of the soil as the real cultivator. The question of the difficulties of the agricultural labourers and their slender income is discussed in Chapter IV, Section 6, where the economic classification of the agricultural labouring classes is dealt with. It may be interesting to refer to that discussion also, as it might throw light on other probable causes for the fall in the percentage of the agricultural labourers. The observations contained in para 8 above have also a significant bearing on the feature.

28. There is a fall in the percentage of agricultural people in Ajmer and rise in Rajasthan during the period 1921—50. The corresponding rise in Ajmer and fall in Rajasthan is also visible in Class V (Production other than cultivation). The steady industrialisation of Ajmer seems to be responsible for this phenomenon. In case of Rajasthan, growth of industries is not keeping pace with the growth of population. Class VI (Commerce) has shown a very insignificant rise in Rajasthan; but in Ajmer State, it has risen to more than 50 per cent., *i. e.* from 8.12 in 1921 to 12.5 in 1951. The probable reason thereof might be the settlement of displaced persons in the State who belong mostly to commercial class. Class VII (Transport) has shown a slight fall in Rajasthan but in Ajmer, there is a considerable fall from 8.63 to 3.3 per cent, as shown in Table No. 95 above. This might be due to change of classification of Railway employees referred to in para 11 above. The increase in Class VIII during this period both in Rajasthan and Ajmer is but natural because people from rural area are migrating to towns in large number for all sorts of service.

29. Table No. 96 below gives comparative statistics for Rajasthan and some of the Livelihood pattern of other States of India with regard to the livelihood pattern of the Rajasthan compared with general population according to the 1951 Census:—  
other States of India.

TABLE No. 96.

Livelihood pattern of Rajasthan compared with some other States of India.

Name of State	Percentage of population mainly dependant on agriculture	Percentage of population dependant on			
		Production (other than cultivation)	Commerce	Transport	Other services and miscellaneous sources
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rajasthan .. .. .	70.87	8.88	6.58	0.94	12.73
Madhya Pradesh .. .. .	76.00	10.60	4.40	1.50	7.50
Bombay .. .. .	61.46	13.76	7.61	2.23	14.94
Orissa .. .. .	79.29	6.33	2.90	0.53	10.95
Bihar .. .. .	86.03	3.94	3.40	0.72	5.89
Uttar Pradesh .. .. .	74.19	8.38	5.03	1.36	11.04
Madras .. .. .	64.9	12.4	6.7	1.7	14.3
Assam .. .. .	73.34	14.68	3.90	1.28	6.80
Punjab .. .. .	64.52	7.32	9.14	1.05	17.97
P.E.P.S.U. .. .. .	72.55	7.31	7.65	3.98	8.51
Delhi .. .. .	9.87	17.32	22.71	5.46	44.64
Bilaspur .. .. .	90.72	4.39	1.73	0.24	2.92
Himachal Pradesh .. .. .	92.97	2.38	1.67	0.41	2.63
Hyderabad .. .. .	68.16	13.54	5.12	1.30	11.83
Vidhya Pradesh .. .. .	87.12	4.55	2.90	0.43	5.00
Madhya Bharat .. .. .	72.22	9.96	5.61	1.07	11.14
Ajmer .. .. .	45.4	19.3	12.5	3.3	19.5

The figures show that although Rajasthan is not amongst the first few States of India in which over 75 per cent of the people belong to the agricultural classes yet their proportion in this State is high enough. That this is so in spite of the non-availability of cultivated land and want of proper facilities for irrigation, natural or artificial, and the presence of the enormous mineral resources of the State is a significant circumstance, which has considerable importance, when it is remembered that "this overcrowding in agriculture, besides creating occupational unbalance and involving tremendous waste of human labour, has led to the continuous sub-division and fragmentation of holdings which is perhaps the greatest single defect in our agriculture." \* The figures also show that in Rajasthan the dependance on agriculture is greater even when compared with the Punjab which abounds in agricultural land and irrigation facilities. With respect to dependance on Industry it stands on an equal footing with Uttar Pradesh and higher than many other States like Orissa, Bihar, Punjab, P.E.P.S.U. Bilaspur, Himachal Pradesh and Vindhya Pradesh. In respect of Commerce it is not much worse than Bombay, Madras, P.E.P.S.U. and decidedly in a better position than even Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Hyderabad and Madhya Bharat. In respect of other Services and miscellaneous sources it stands below only Delhi, Bombay, Madras and Punjab amongst the States mentioned in the above Table.

30. The proportion of the people belonging to Agricultural Class III in Rajasthan and Ajmer can be traced from the past. Table No. 97 given below is prepared from the available Census figures from 1901. As there was no tabulation for occupations in 1941, the figures for the Census of 1941 are not available. Table No. 97 gives the percentage of field labourers and farm servants to the adjusted population of the different decades. The figures for 1931 are not given in the table because the entire population was not classified at this census and figures of non-earning dependants in each livelihood class are not available.

TABLE No. 97.

Percentage of Field Labourers and Farm Servants in the total population.

S t a t e	Farm Servants and Field Labourers per 100 of total population.			
	1901	1911	1921	1951
Rajasthan State .. .. .	4.6	6.3	5.5	3.11
Ajmer State .. .. .	7.7	6.0	4.2	2.8

The above figures clearly show that the percentage of agricultural labourers and farm servants was higher in Rajasthan in the Decade 1911 and in 1901 in Ajmer. It will also be observed that the percentage of people of Livelihood Class III has distinctly fallen. In 1931, the percentage of earners of the agricultural labour class to the total population was 3.73 in Rajasthan and 4.89 in Ajmer. Similar percentage for the self-supporting persons only at the 1951 Census was 1.33 in Rajasthan and 1.57 in Ajmer, showing a fall of about 2.40 per cent in Rajasthan and 3.32 per cent in Ajmer. In paragraph 25 above we have discussed the fluctuations of the percentage of population amongst the agricultural livelihood classes, where we have noticed how the percentage of cultivators has increased while that of the labourers has come down.

\* 'Indian Agriculture and its Problems' by A. N. Agrawal, (Delhi).

## SECTION 7.

## Concluding Remarks.

1. In this Chapter, we have reviewed the general distribution and growth of population and the factors influencing the growth, as also the livelihood pattern of the population; we have seen: -

## A Retrospect.

- (a) that the population in Rajasthan is unevenly distributed; the density per sq. mile varies from 769 in Jaipur Tehsil to 3 per sq. mile in Tehsil Sam;
- (b) that inspite of its comparative sparsity, Rajasthan is really dense in population because nowhere except in desert area or in the Districts of Tonk and Kotah, do we find more than 2 acres of cultivated land available per head which is the minimum required for the production of articles of necessities per person;
- (c) that agriculture and stock raising are the means of livelihood of a vast majority of our population whose fate depends upon the caprices of the monsoon which is more uncertain here than in the other parts of India;
- (d) that there are vast stretches of unpopulated land in Dry Area Division, which can be populated if water is made available but although this is not improbable, the chances of getting water into these tracts are still remote;
- (e) that although there are no visible signs of over population at present, they are making themselves visible into urban areas and to some extent in the rural areas also, for we have seen that the balance of migration is against us for the last several decades; there is more emigration than immigration and in fact from the densest districts namely Bharatpur and Alwar, the emigration seems to be the greatest and the growth of population there, has been stopped, on the contrary, they have been showing decrease in the previous decades,
- (f) that the growth rate has shown a slight fall during the last decade but this is essentially due to the temporary fall in the birth rate associated with the occurrence of natural calamities in the past resulting in the distortion of the age structure of the population;
- (g) that birth rate which shows a slight decline since 1921 is due to temporary reasons the effect of which is likely to come to an end in the near future and that the birth rate is certainly not likely to fall; on the contrary it may rise because not much can be expected about the success of propaganda towards birth control;
- (h) the net result of our examination of the circumstances likely to affect the death rate tends to show that while we are at present practically at the mercy of Providence to save us from death there are encouraging circumstances at least from the point of view of medical relief which tend to show that if no serious calamity befalls us during the next decade the death rate is likely to show a further fall.

2. Captain Webb had laid down his forecast in 1941 that "Calculations based on comparisons of age-groups in 1941 and expectations taken from the Life Table constructed in 1931, suggested that the increase in 1951 will not exceed 10%. Another calculation based on the Fertility Tables also supports this view. As both these depend on doubtful age returns, their reliability is suspect. On the other hand the conditions which in 1931 gave rise to the 18% increase in 1941 are found to exist again in 1941 and may point to a similar increase in population in 1951." This prophecy has come out to be true and we have seen an increase in our population by 14.9.



3. Migration is also possible to a very little extent because we in this decade are not so lucky as our brethren in Europe were in the last two centuries. There this growth was sustained not by factories or industrialisation of Europe as is the common belief but by expanding cultivation in America and Oceania. They established and improved their standard of life because cultivation was progressing at such a terrific speed that they could get food cheaply and people could be spared for industries and services in much larger numbers; whereas, because our fight for food is growing more and more, we are increasingly pre-occupied in extracting food for ourselves

4. Now we are in a position to form an idea about the future. We have noticed that we have had high death rate in the past due to war, famine and epidemics and with the removal of these catastrophes the death rate in these States is likely to go down. Even now our death rate is high when compared with that in other countries. Probably the most important single factor behind our high death rate is mal-nutrition which is the natural product of poverty.

5. The next important cause of our high death rate is dirt which includes insanitary ways of living as well as immediate agents of infection. Dirt is a product of private ignorance and public inefficiency. We live in over-crowded places, we eat, drink and inhale infection in every conceivable way, and though we may have developed a certain degree of immunity we contact and succumb to infectious diseases in large numbers. We invite infection and disease by our method of living, private and public, while poverty and mal-nutrition seriously undermine our powers of resistance. Add to these general causes, special factors like early and frequent child-bearing and the absence of ante and post natal care, and we have an explanation of our high infant and maternal mortality rates. The chief medical causes of infant mortality in this country are infantile debility and mal-formation including premature birth, diseases of the respiratory system, convulsions, and diarrhoea and enterics. Premature births are probably closely associated with premature maternity, while pneumonia is casually connected with mal-nutrition and over-crowding, which are normal indices of poverty.

6. According to the enquiry carried out by Dr. Neal Edwards in Calcutta in 1936-37 the most important causes of maternal mortality were puerperal sepsis, anaemia, albuminuria, convulsions and haemorrhage. Behind these immediate causes were, however, three ultimate factors: poverty, mal-nutrition and insanitary living, early and frequent child-bearing, and inadequate ante and post natal care. It is difficult on the basis of our present knowledge to assess the relative importance of these factors. But the general impression conveyed by Dr. Neal Edwards' study is that mal-nutrition, insanitary conditions of life and lack of care during child birth are the basic causes, though early and frequent child-bearing contributes significantly to the final result.

7. Almost all of the above causes are controllable and with the advance of medical facilities it is expected that death rate will go down. The improvement of our mortality conditions is likely to be followed by a rise of the birth rate. In the first place, women will gain more than men and the deficiency in the sex ratio of the population will be reduced. Secondly, maternal mortality will fall more than the death rate of women in general, enhancing thereby the proportion of child-bearing women. Thirdly, the benefits of improved circumstances surrounding mother-hood are likely to accrue most to women in the early and more fertile phase of their career which will cause a more than proportionate improvement in total fertility. Fourthly, as the relative numbers of men and women in the middle ages become less unequal, the difference in age at marriage of husband and wife will shorten and the incidence of widowhood among women will decrease. Finally, the death rate will fall precipitously in the early years of life, in infancy, childhood and adolescence. This will, in a few years, inflate the proportion of persons in the child-bearing ages and add to the total numbers of births in the first and succeeding generations.

8. The effect of falling mortality on our birth rate will be reinforced and modified by other factors. On the one hand, there is likely to be a decline of the existing high proportion of widows of child-bearing age and increase of the birth rate. On the other hand, the proportion of unmarried women in the population will some what rise, partly through an increase in the number of confirmed spinsters, but mainly through a general rise of the age at marriage of our girls. There has been some rise of this age in recent years in consequence of legislation, and some further increase will result from a better enforcement of laws and spread of education and enlightenment among the people. This may conceivably lower our birth rate.

9. But this will be more than outweighed by the positive influence of improved mortality conditions on fertility and by the increase in the percentage of people of reproductive age group due to the removal of effect of calamity, beginning from the Chhapnia famine in 1901 and ending with the influenza of 1918, so that the final result is likely to be a rise of the birth rate. There seems to be at least small chance of its falling, and this put along side a fall in mortality, will give us a large increase of our survival rate.

10. Thus the population of this country left to itself will grow faster than it has done upto now and general considerations suggest that the change in the rate of growth may be pretty large. This phase of expansion through reduced death rate may, however, be succeeded by another in which the birth rate begins to decline to the level of the death rate and the population problem assumes a new form. This is what has happened in Europe and is happening in Japan. It may happen to us too. But we start from a different base; we are already pretty large in relation to our resources and the prospects of our being allowed to spill over to other parts of the globe are nil. Hence for us the length of the interval between the two phases is highly important.

11. The population of a country can be regarded from two points of view. We can look upon it as a collection of human beings which grows and expands (or contracts) at a certain rate. We can also consider it as a body of persons engaged in producing various goods and services on which its material welfare depends. Obviously, there should be some sort of balance between these two branches of its activity. If it reproduces itself faster than its wealth and income increase, poverty, misery and suffering ensue. On the other hand, it may pursue wealth and material progress with a measure of attention that interferes with its urge to reproduce and endangers its future existence.

**Two angles of Vision.**

12. We, in this country, are not concerned with problems of the second variety which face the nations of Europe, the U. S. A. and the British Dominions to-day. There are no signs of our productive activity interfering with the scale of our reproduction; on the contrary, our productive efficiency is being seriously affected in every direction by the size and the rate of growth of our number. We should decide whether we can leave it to be determined solely by the development of social forces or deliberately organize our efforts to shorten it as much as possible.

13. Our decision will evidently turn upon the contribution that the further growth of population can make to the expansion of our economy; in the short period, the growth of population may increase employment and out-put by stimulating consumption and investment at the expense of hoarding. But we cannot hope to increase the total supply of land in our country so that with population expanding rapidly, the amount of land per worker and income per head in agriculture will fall quickly. We can, however, try and offset the effect of rising man-land ratio by enhancing the investment of capital in farming. But the extent to which we can do so is circumscribed in several ways. First, the scope for investment will necessarily remain narrow, so long as we stick to the traditional technique of cultivation. Secondly, we can invest capital in our agriculture to facilitate transition to mixed farming. But the

increasing density of our population will seriously hamper our efforts. We shall throw off the land a vast number of workers who can find work in other avenues of employment only at great cost in terms of human misery and suffering. Finally, this problem would be greatly magnified if we attempt to mechanize our farming operations. Indeed, mechanization seems hardly possible in our country in view of the enormous problem of rural unemployment that it will create. Thus the roads to escape from low income in agriculture are either blocked or strewn with huge boulders by the high density of our rural population.

14. From the data at present available it is evident that the progress of cultivation is not keeping pace with the growth of population in these States. The progress of cultivation does not mean only bringing more and more area under cultivation but several other factors have to be considered. What is necessary is that the amount of food grains available should increase in the same proportion as the population. The amount of land available will lead us nowhere. The soils differ and their productivity differs on account of their geological and chemical formation as well as from the availability of the manure, irrigation facilities and several other factors. Coming to the question of manure alone, I must admit it to be an axiomatic truth, although I am not in possession of statistics to support my view, that the farm yard manure which is regarded as the best manure is decreasing by leaps and bounds because our cattle wealth is decreasing, because they do not get enough to graze upon, and because the rain fall is getting uncertain and unevenly distributed of which several reasons have been given by experts namely deforestation etc. Whatever farm yard manure becomes available in the form of cow dung is wasted for burning because the cultivators have not got the purchasing power to purchase fuel which is getting dearer because the forests have been cut down. Whatever forest wood still exists is exported because it was being used in factories to meet the coal deficit and is also used as charcoal for cooking purposes. Chemical fertilizers are not within the easy reach of the village cultivators. The combined result of these factors has been that the productive power of land is decreasing resulting in the corresponding decrease in the yield per acre.

15. However, most people who are complacent about the future of our population, pin their faith on industrialization as a solvent of our difficulties. But we do not want further increase of number to extend our industrial structure; we can easily accomplish it with our present strength. On the side of supply, we have a labour force adequate to the creation of a diversified pattern of large-scale industries. What, however, is lacking is an adequate supply of skilled workers and technically trained persons. But to remove this want, we require more capital to invest in human beings, to feed, educate and train them properly, and not a larger supply of men and women. Indeed, our redundant labour is already a drag on industrial efficiency and an impediment to adequate investment of capital; for it helps to depress the wage rate of the factory worker and weakens the incentive of the employers to employ skilled workers and higher technique of production.

16. On the side of demand, mere number does not define the extent of the market. Potential consumers must have enough income to be effective purchasers, and an increase of number which is not accompanied by growth of purchasing power may restrict rather than widen the market for industrial goods. This is obvious in the case of luxury goods, but it is true of even the common necessities of life in our country. We do not require a larger and growing population to industrialise our economy. Can industrialization, however, solve the problems which our increasing population has created? The existing surplus may be easily trebled. And finally to the above estimates must be added another 2,278,329 workers on account of the growth of population in the next decade.

17. Can we industrialize our country rapidly enough to accommodate this immense working population? We have ample supplies of certain materials to enable us to operate important large scale industries, and whatever our resources, we are not exploiting them as fully as we can, so that there is plenty of room for immediate industrial expansion. On the other

hand, we have an inadequate supply of the second requisite of economic development, *viz.*, the power to convert our resources into consumption goods and services and into instruments of production. We lack the skill, the knowledge, and the capital necessary to rapid industrial progress and only if we can acquire these in sufficient quantity and quickly enough, we can put the ghost of Malthus back into the cupboard. It would be dogmatic to suggest that we cannot, in any circumstances, carry out the programme of economic re-organization which has been outlined above. We may, on very special assumptions regarding the structure of our economic and political society, achieve the feat. But the odds against us are extremely heavy and the cost of success in terms of human happiness will be immense. We shall, in the process of attaining it, further depress the living standard of our people, and in the attempt to improve our material capital we may cause serious damage to its human counterpart. This is a risk which we can hardly permit a rapid increase of numbers to aggravate, for already the quality of human capital is pretty low in this country. In the race of life we are greatly handicapped by widespread poverty, extensive illiteracy, high mortality and pervasive ill-health and infirmity. No people have, therefore, greater reason to be anxious about the quality of its life than we, and granting that we can enlarge our economic resources, we must decide whether we should not use this power to raise our living standard rather than make mere existence possible for increasing numbers. Of course, limitation of numbers alone will not secure us the objective, but if we can reduce the pressure of population, we shall have considerably simplified the task of attaining it. There is, in fact, an optimum level for production. Humanity must limit its numbers before it can live peacefully. We are having hot and cold wars in succession because this progress of growth of population running ahead of cultivation, obviously, runs into a situation into which some body has to come in the way of the standard of living of some body else.

18. Discussing the problem of economic production and growth of population Kingsley

**Economically Desirable  
Population.**

Davis remarks, "Numerous writers have pointed out that if economic production can advance faster than population can grow, over-population need not occur. This is absolutely true. But the conclusion that we can concentrate on economic development and ignore population, does not follow in the least. Since the two variables in question affect each other, economic production cannot permanently be advanced in the face of an ever-increasing population. There must come a point when further population increase in a finite world will bring curtailment per capita production. Quite apart, then, from the feasibility and possibility of economic reforms in a given country, there is the additional consideration that any kind of economic system has its optimum population, beyond which numbers cannot rise without a penalty."\*

19. The penalty visualised in the above enumeration of the economic and demographic law may not be new to us. The horrors of epidemics and famines of the past are proverbial in our country, though the destruction by war has been a thing of the remote past.

20. Britain's Royal Commission of Population has summarised the consequences by saying that "These consequences may be of various kinds: Economic, Social, Psychological, Political and Strategic. The industrial progress, the standard of living and the security of our people may all be affected subtly but powerfully by demographic changes. The trend of numbers is a vital factor in problems of public finance, housing, town and country planning and many others.

**The Consequences of the  
present trend of popu-  
lation.**

21. "(i) The amount of land available per head of the population diminishes as numbers in any country increase.

**Disadvantages of grow-  
ing numbers.**

\* The Population of India and Pakistan by Kingsley Davis, 1951 page 61 (Princeton University Press).

(ii) The growing numbers have to be supplied with capital equipment of every sort (house room public utilities, industrial plant, etc.) and productive resources have to be devoted to this purpose which might otherwise be used to raise standards.

22. On the other hand, increasing numbers—  
Counterbalancing advantages.

(i) facilitate an increase in the scale of production and supply a stimulus to technical improvement;

(ii) if due to a high birth rate, are associated with a low average age of the population;

(iii) make the economic system more flexible and may thus make it easier to avoid a waste of productive resources through obstinate mass unemployment; and

(iv) tend to increase the nation's international influence and so in various ways to strengthen its economic position. The practical importance attaching to these different considerations depends on the surrounding circumstances and may vary greatly from one country to another and from one period to another. This is especially true of the first main disadvantage of increasing numbers *viz.* the decline in the amount of land available per head of the population. In some circumstances as in those of many Oriental and West Indian Communities, this disadvantage may be so great, after the population has reached a certain density as to be decisive by itself. In other circumstances, as in Great Britain during the last half of the nineteenth century, it may scarcely matter."<sup>1</sup>

23. Our own Planning Commission have considered the implication of the rapidly increasing population of India and its weakening effect on the economy of the nation. They have indicated their approach to the problem as follows: "In planning for a progressive improvement in living standards, the implication of this rapid growth of population need carefully to be considered. While it may be difficult to say what the optimum level of population for India should be and while it would also be wrong to underrate the potentialities of modern science and techniques to augment the productive capacity of the country, it is clear that, *under present conditions, an increase in manpower "resources" does not strengthen the economy but, in fact, weakens it.* The population problem is complex and it has several aspects, economic and social. It is necessary in the present context only to stress the fact that unless measures are initiated at this stage to bring down the birth rate and thereby to reduce the rate of population growth, a continuously increasing amount of effort on the part of the community will be used up only in maintaining existing standards of consumption. With all the effort that First Five Year Plan will represent, it will be possible barely to restore by 1955-56 the pre-war standards of consumption in regard to essentials like food and clothing. Increasing pressure of population on natural resources (which must inevitably be limited) retards economic progress and limits seriously the rate of extension of social services, so essential to civilised existence. A population policy is, therefore, essential to planning."<sup>2</sup>

24. Our food problems are becoming increasingly difficult and as we will see in Chapter IV our population has been outstripping cultivation seriously during the last three decades and vast majority of our people are living on subnormal diet. Under the circumstances any addition to our numbers must mean further tightening of their belts. It is, therefore, clear that our population problem is now acute and needs immediate planning. It must also be kept under constant watch.

1. Report of the Royal Commission on Population, pages 101-102, (London; His Majesty's Stationery Office; 1949)

2. The First Five Year Plan—A Draft Outline, Page 16, (Government of India Planning Commission, July, 1951).

25. Emigration as a solution for our rising population can hardly be considered. The plight of our people who have already migrated to less populated parts of the world and the problems of "colour bar" and immigration laws it is quite clear that emigration as a non-catastrophic solution of our population problem may be ruled out. Again in the background of the rapidly increasing world population this remedy can hardly provide a permanent solution or our great problem of the enormous and the recent continuous increase in our numbers.

26. From the discussion given above and the comparative statistics contained in the previous sections, it would appear that although the population in these States is not growing as fast as in some of the other States of India and although the density of population is also at present lower than in some other States (though it is higher than that in some of the Civilised countries), the need of our being alert in respect of the population problem was never so real as it is now when the State as well as the country as a whole are on the threshold of extensive industrial and all round development and when the population position not only in our sub-continent but in Asia as a whole calls for close attention.

27. It may be interesting to point out that widespread practice of family limitation began in England towards the latter part of the nineteenth century when the population of Great Britain had increased  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times in 70 years and was still growing very fast,\* a condition somewhat similar to that prevailing in our State at present. The standard of living, which the European families achieved during the industrial revolution when they had the opportunity of growing fast, is being defended by them now by their levelled off growth. In our own towns and cities, our urban intelligentsia is, no doubt, becoming conscious of the advantages of limited family. Our middle classes and lower middle classes have probably commenced to attempt to limit their families for sheer economic reasons with a view to maintain, if not to improve, their standard of life. In other words, the same process, which over-took first the middle classes and then the working classes of the European countries has, presumably, commenced in our country and it will gather strength in course of time. The only point, however, is that whether the movement will be fast enough to make a difference to the situation? Perhaps not, considering the appalling ignorance of our people on vital population problem, their prejudices and beliefs at the present moment, we would be optimistic in believing that the changes in favour of a non-catastrophic solution of the grave problem are 30 per cent. while those in favour of a catastrophic solution are, perhaps 70 per cent. unless on a governmental scale we make a supreme effort to take people into confidence and convince them that the population problem is real and that it has cropped up in our own life-time and has to be faced and solved by us if we wish to save our country from otherwise inevitable sorrow and suffering.

28. We can hesitate to make up our mind on this issue on three grounds. In the first place, some of us feel that there is no real conflict of the type that has been posed; we can, in future, both multiply unrestrictedly and enjoy an increasing standard of life. Secondly, there is, in this country, an ancient and widely held belief that the quality of the life of a person should be independent of the amount of his material possessions, so that even if we become poorer as a result of growing number, we need not be unhappy or lose our dignity as human beings. The core of ethical truth in this belief cannot be denied; wealth can be and is often pursued at the expense of moral welfare, and we may be easily spoilt by a superfluity of material possessions. But all this has little relation to the life of the common man in these States; he does not enjoy even that modicum of income which is necessary to independence and good life.

29. We have, thirdly, a set of people who are not opposed to restriction of number as such, but who violently disapprove of the methods by which alone, it seems, it can be accomplished. They would like the end to be achieved by moral restraint and not by the

\*Report of the Royal Commission on Population Page 35 (London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1949.)



mechanical and chemical means which are in vogue to-day. The issue between birth control and moral restraint has been debated widely. It is, only necessary to state it briefly here. Moral restraint implies postponement of marriage and continence within married life. But for postponement of marriage to exercise a significant influence on our rate of growth, the average age at marriage of our women should rise from its present level of 15 or 16 years to over 21 years. This would mean that many women will never marry or marry pretty late in life. Such a change does not, however, seem likely in the near future partly for socio-economic and partly for biological reasons. In the circumstances of our social and economic life, there is for the vast majority of our women no avocation which they cannot pursue as well after marriage as before it. Moreover, for the common man in India to whom few sources of enjoyment are open, marriage makes a large ingredient in the cup of happiness. His wife is a help and a solace, and the Indian girl fills her role as well at sixteen as at twenty-two. The biological obstacle is connected with the short span of our life. Married life involves responsibilities, which are often undertaken too early, but which may be entered into too late. With the mean after-life time at 25 being comparatively short few persons can reasonably run the risk of postponing matrimony and rearing up children to late ages. Our cycle of life is shorter, and its different phases must begin earlier than where people live longer. We should not, therefore, expect postponement of marriage except by the few years necessary to maturity of the parties concerned, but this change will not depress our rate of growth.

30. Continence within marriage is advocated mainly on moral grounds. Every act of self-restraint, it is said, strengthens our moral fibre and elevates our nature. Nobody will contradict this general proposition. It may, however, be pointed out that life offers innumerable opportunities of self-control of a reasonable nature, without our having recourse to the almost total abstinence which continence, as an instrument of population control, implies. On the one hand, the sex instinct in the normal man is immensely strong and deep-rooted. On the other, even a single act of sexual congress in a year may fertilize the ovum and keep up an yearly flow of births. In the face of these facts, continence would seem to be an extremely imperfect means of restricting population growth. We need something more effective and also calling for less heroic sacrifice on the part of the normal man than almost complete abstinence, and that is supplied by modern method of birth control.

31. The greater part of the small attention which the question of contraceptives has received in this country has been directed to its moral aspect: there has been little study of the practical difficulties which their use involves. These difficulties proceed from several sources. In the first place we have to deal with a vast population of ignorant and illiterate men and women, and it will be some time before they can be made to realize the significance of the new help that science has brought.

32. A far greater difficulty is presented by the circumstances of their physical existence. The supply of houses in this country is extremely inadequate and only a small fraction of the population enjoy the spaciousness and privacy in living which are essential to the unobtrusive use of contraceptives. Secondly, we do not possess any organization, social or administrative, which can be used to propagate ideas and instruments of control. The medical organization of this country is extremely inadequate and nearly completely dissociated from the birth-control movement. Thirdly, the contraceptives in vogue are still too costly and preparation for their use too elaborate to permit of their wide employment by poor and ignorant peasants and workers.\*

37. This is the situation which we shall have to face if a considered population policy is not thought out and brought into action with all possible haste.

---

\* Pressure of Population and economic efficiency in India by D. Ghosh, page 108.



38. To sum up:—

**Conclusion:**

- (a) It is certain that the population is increasing at an alarming pace;
  - (b) A large scale attempt both on the part of the Government and the people from all points is necessary to obviate the resulting catastrophe which can be diverted into the following channels :
    - (1) Wide spread use of contraceptives by the intelligentsia to secure birth control.
    - (2) A propaganda amongst the less intelligent people by the social and political leaders and the spiritual and religious heads for voluntary abstinence on social as well as religious grounds.
    - (3) Development of small as well as large scale industries resulting in a general increase of the nation's wealth and its standard of living which in its turn will help in reducing the birth rate.
    - (4) A thorough research should be made and accurate figures should be collected regarding the extent of land which can be brought under the plough and which is not still under it, together with its gradation of fertility, nature of soil etc. etc.
    - (5) All projects tending towards irrigation facilities in Rajasthan should be speedily completed whereby all cultivable area may be made irrigated and the largest amount of grain which it is capable of producing may be extracted from it by means of cultivation.
    - (6) In order to encourage cultivation of food-grains as distinct from non-food grains, necessary steps should be taken by prescribing their minimum proportion as well as proper adjustment of Government taxes on income derived from each of the sources.
  - (c) All these efforts combined might result in avoiding the catastrophe, failing which we should be prepared to face it.
-

## CHAPTER II.

### RURAL POPULATION

#### SECTION I.

##### Preliminary Remarks.

1. It is impossible to understand the population of any region without also understanding the social structure. This fact has become abundantly plain in the previous chapter. Naturally then, our discussion turns to an analysis of the social characteristics of the population, and to the social changes that point the way to future demographic developments. Because of its agricultural economy, Rajasthan has always been predominantly rural. It has not been rural however, in precisely the American sense. Instead of a single-farm system with each family dwelling on its land, the region has had a mediaeval-type village system. Beset for centuries by the dangers of political instability *e. g.* organised banditry, confiscatory taxation, military looting and local tariffs, the agricultural population has banded together for mutual protection in compact villages. The surrounding farm land has been cut into strips to equalise for the villagers the advantages and disadvantages of the surrounding terrain. Some land, of course, was left for common pasture, and some for waste. The site is usually near the water-supply but on land sufficiently high to avoid the monsoon floods. In many villages the remains of old forts still exist, the ruins of old walls within which the local headman resided, and within which villagers collected together for safety on the occasion of the recurring ravages of Pindaris and freebooters. The old custom has out-lived its necessity, and during settlement operations the *abadi* site or area in which houses may be constructed, is now separately marked out, defined and recorded. The *abadi* or village site is often congested, and when a village site is completely filled, or where for social reasons any class such as an untouchable caste is required to live apart, small hamlets are sometimes formed, which may be situated at some distance from the main *abadi*. Otherwise the same tiny, self-sufficient rural village has persisted until today. At present, because self-protection is not so necessary as in the past there is a tendency to move closer to the land being tilled. This saves time permits more intensive cultivation, and facilitates the protection of crops, particularly if the village was located on a hill or in some other unfavourable (but protected) spot. But as yet the movement has not gone far. Even when the villagers move closer to the land, they tend to do so in compact hamlets. Rajasthan is still a country of tiny and nearly self-sufficient agricultural villages, and although in the definition of the village as adopted at the Census, the concept of separate habitations is not strictly maintained, for all practical purposes the village actually represents the population living together and therefore, the census figures, on the whole, give a good idea of the distribution of population by size of habitations.

2. Census statistics of the rural and urban population have a variety of uses. They are of considerable help in studying the economic conditions, social and political changes, and demographic trends as indicated by rates of population growth, family characteristics, mobility of population, age structure, size and composition of the economically active population and the like. Their utility in comparing the conditions and characteristics of urban and rural people in the matter of births, deaths, sex composition, sanitation, levels of living etc., for economic planning and development of social welfare work can hardly be overstressed.

3. Discussing the contrast between the rural and the urban life and the necessity of separate classification, S. Chandrasekhar remarks, "Rural life and urban life present sharp contrast all over the world and the contrast is perhaps the sharpest in India. A rural population is predominantly agricultural in its occupation, has a low density per square mile and enjoys a high social and cultural stability arising out of cultural and ethnic continuity and homogeneity. All the traditional mores of a culture are strongly preserved in a rural society, promoting conservatism which offers the most resistance to reform and innovation. For these reasons detailed classification of the population on the basis of residential characteristics becomes necessary in any demographic analysis."<sup>1</sup>

4. In this chapter will be dealt with figures of distribution of population according to the kind (or rather size) of the census unit which they inhabit.

#### Definitions.

These units are broadly either urban or rural. We must begin therefore with definitions. No satisfactory definition of a village or town has been devised, under which anything like a uniformity of interpretation can be achieved from census to census. Again where agreement has been found in the meaning of certain points, the exercise of discretion involved in the definition has led to changes in class from town to village and vice versa, which have vitiated the figures and in some cases rendered comparison well nigh impossible. Of course a complete definition of a town would require, "the exposition of the racial elements and industrial characteristics of the different places, the distribution and density of their inhabitants, their occupational differences, the standard of comfort as shown in their house room, their appreciation of sanitary needs and urban amenities, such as roads, lighting, gardens, municipal conveniences, etc., and finally even a reference to the policy of the State in regard to the encouragement of industries and the growth of industrial or agricultural settlements. "A scientific definition of "Town" as distinct from "Country" or "Village" is a task attended with great difficulties. The passage from "Country" to "Town" may be described in general terms as the change from a condition of status to that of contract."<sup>2</sup> Again a "Country" place leads a more individualistic life, while a town has more of a communal organisation. But as individualistic tendencies belong pre-eminently to agricultural communities, "rural" has come to be associated more with a predominantly agricultural population while "urban" is predominantly otherwise. That is the first distinction of townhood. Secondly the possession of self-governing local institutions such as municipalities distinguishes a town from a rural area. Thirdly the distinctly higher standard in living and comfort as apparent from the availability of house room for each individual person marks off a town from other places.

5. The reader might imagine that having defined a town, there was no need to define a village. By a process of elimination all other places could be treated as villages. But the point is where to set the limit of a village. Should we take each separate collection of houses—each unit of residential area—as a village or should the census boundary of a village coincide with the limits of a revenue village? Before 1921, the census list of villages was not identical with that of revenue mauzas, although the Census Code since 1911 treated all hamlets within the area of a revenue village as parts of that village. In 1901, the definition of a village was different: all hamlets more than a mile away from the parent village were treated as distinct villages. But in 1911 although the revenue village was taken formally as the unit, several hamlets which should have been included as parts of their parent villages were counted as independent villages. Since 1921, the definition has been strictly adhered to; only revenue villages have been taken as the unit, as the boundaries are distinct and well defined and the people themselves recognise the territorial limits of a revenue village as real and significant.

1. S. Chandrasekhar "India's Population-Facts and Policy" page 45 (Indian Institute for population studies: Chidambaram).

2. Baroda Census Report of 1921, page 65.

As the Imperial Census Code 1931 pointed out, there are two difficulties about taking a residential area as the census unit, first because "It is often difficult in practice to say what is a hamlet and what is a village and secondly in the case of a small outlying group of houses, there is always the danger that the enumerators of the villages on the opposite sides of it (especially when they belong to different circles) may omit to deal with it, each thinking it to be his neighbour's business." The hamlets have therefore, been included within the parent village and a village can be defined as "One or more contiguous groups of houses surrounded as islands by a sea of cultivated fields." It is possible that some revenue villages may have no houses at all. In that case it is an uninhabited one, and a note is made of such at the end of the Primary Census Abstracts prepared by the Census. The normal village is the compact type of the central inhabited nucleus situated mostly on a higher level sheltered by trees round which cluster the farms of the peasantry, exceptions to this general rule occur in villages where there is a greater scope for cultivation, as a result of which new settlers from other places come and form new hamlets thereby breaking up the unity of the old village sites. Even now the vast majority of villages have only one central inhabited area, with a self-contained rural organisation.

6. The definition of "Rural" and "Urban" areas presents a real difficulty as is pointed out in the United Nations Demographic Year Book. "One of the most difficult problems in presenting internationally comparable demographic data is that involved in obtaining urban and rural classification of the population. The designation of areas as urban or rural is so closely bound up with historical, political, cultural and administrative considerations that the process of developing uniform definitions and procedures moves very slowly." <sup>1</sup> A convenient way of presenting rural and urban statistics for comparison purposes is, therefore, to show the distribution of population in clusters of agglomerations, classified by the size of the agglomerations. This method was however, not practicable at the census on account of administrative difficulties and, therefore, the administrative unit represented by a revenue village and approximating to the concept of an agglomeration had to be adopted in these States and for purposes of the Census the village was defined as "the area demarcated as a *Mauza* for revenue purposes and which was not treated as a town or city." Hamlets included in the area of a *Mauza* were not treated as separate villages. Hamlets attached to towns or cities have been treated as separate villages. A revenue *Mauza* falling within the limits of a town or city was treated as part of the town or city concerned. Unpopulated revenue mauzas have not been taken into account. The *Mauza* or village was thus theoretically an administrative unit rather than a geographical entity although in actual practice this made little difference as we will presently see.

7. The urban population questions will be discussed in the next chapter, but it is necessary to give the definition of town as adopted at the Census at this stage to appreciate how some of the small places are not treated as villages. The definition of a town was elastic based on the nature of the urban classification made at the previous censuses. All Municipal areas were regarded as towns irrespective of their size and so also all Cantonments; in addition, some other places which had urban characteristics about them were also treated as towns. A city is normally defined as a town with a population of one lac or over, but this definition has been relaxed in Rajasthan, and towns with a population of 50,000 or over have also been treated as cities to bring the definition in uniformity with the one adopted in the Municipal Act. In the past censuses local governments and administrations had discretion to treat other large towns as cities also; all capitals of some of the integrating States were consequently treated as cities upto 1941. The only places which come within the strict definition of a city in these States are Jaipur, Bikaner, Jodhpur and Ajmer. These are the only places which have been so treated in All India Reports. But by relaxing the definition as mentioned above Udaipur, Kotah and Alwar have also been treated as cities in the State Census Report.

1. United Nations Demographic Year Book 1948 page 13.

8. Statistics about the total number of villages, towns and cities in the different Natural Divisions, and districts will be found in the Main Table A-I (Area, houses and population) given in Part II-A of the Report, Table A-III in the same Part contains the classification of the towns and villages by population. The classification adopted in the table recognises the following groups of population:

(a) Less than 500	(b) 500-1,000	(c) 1,000-2,000
(d) 2,000-5,000	(e) 5,000-10,000	(f) 10,000-20,000
(g) 20,000-50,000	(h) 50,000-100,000	(i) above 100,000

This classification is practically in conformity with the recommendations of the United Nations Population Commission, but at the time of making comparisons with the figures of other places the definition of the village and town as given above should be borne in mind. Thus for example the population shown as residing in villages of 2,000-5,000 persons may really be the population of *mauzas* containing some hamlets or separately identifiable agglomerations or clusters of population of less than 500 persons each although such cases may not be many. For the same reason the number of the *Mauzas* as given in the table would be somewhat less than the number of geographically separate units of habitations. Although on the whole the discrepancy of this type might not be very significant in view of the actual conditions of villages already described, it would be desirable to bear the circumstances in mind while comparing the figures of different countries. Fly leaf of Table No. A-IV in Part II-A of the Report gives the names of places newly treated as towns in the present census, as also the names of the places reduced to villages from towns in this census. District Census Handbooks give the code numbers and names of hamlets and unpopulated villages (Revenue *Mauzas*) in each district. With the help of these, the discrepancies noticeable in the number of *Mauzas* mentioned in the Revenue Records with those given in the Census Reports can be reconciled.

9. The following Subsidiary Tables given in Part I-B of the Report are reviewed in this Chapter:

- 2.1—Distribution of population between villages;
- 2.2—Variation and density of rural population;
- 2.3—Mean decennial growth-rate during three decades of rural population;
- 2.4—Livelihood pattern of rural population;
- 2.5—Immigration in rural population;
- 2.6—Ratio of rural immigration;
- 2.7—Livelihood pattern of very large villages (population over 5,000);
- 2.8—Distribution of smallest villages (having population below 20) in Natural Division and Districts.

Subsidiary Table 2.1 corresponds to some of the columns of Subsidiary Table I (Distribution of the population between towns and villages) at the end of Chapter II of the Census Report of 1931. Subsidiary Tables 2.2 to 2.5 are new tables; no corresponding Subsidiary Tables were prepared in 1931.

10. The comparability of the Main Tables with the 1931 statistics has already been referred to in para 12 of Introduction. The figures of these tables are not comparable with those of the past censuses mainly because of the changes in the boundaries of districts and to some extent because of want of uniformity in the definition of a hamlet and village from census to census as observed in paras 4 and 5 above.

11. Certain detailed statistics for every village will be found in the corresponding District Census Handbook of each district, including the area, number of houses and households, total population with break-up for males and females, household and literate population with similar break-up and classification of the population by sex into the eight livelihood classes. The consolidated rural figures for each Main Table for each census tract would also be found in the District Census Handbooks.

12. In both the volumes of Part II of the Census Report rural and urban statistics would be found separately in the case of the more important tables.

13. For a proper understanding of the significant facts brought out by means of census enquiry about our brethren in the rural areas, a brief knowledge of the conditions prevailing there is essential. A few remarks which are based mainly on the author's personal knowledge and are corroborated in salient particulars by the evidence of the officers in a more direct contact with the areas and their people, though not supported by the statistics have, therefore, been given in Appendix I-A Description of Rajasthan and Ajmer States.

## SECTION 2.

### General Distribution and Distribution amongst Villages classified by Size of Rural Population.

1. According to the definition of a village as adopted in Rajasthan and Ajmer in the present Census there are 31,244 villages in Rajasthan and 707 villages in Ajmer as shown in Main Table A-I.

2. But if we stick to the definition based on population basis and treat all villages with a population of 5,000 or over as towns, and those towns—which have population below 5,000 as villages, the number of villages will then come to 31,297 because 12 villages will then be lifted to the rank of towns and 65 towns will be pushed down to the status of a village, thus leaving a net increase in the original number of villages by 53. In Ajmer the number of villages will increase by 1, thus making a total of 708.

3. If we adopt the criterion of preponderance of agricultural population the number of villages will come to 31,261; because 16 towns with a population below 5,000 have preponderance of agricultural livelihood classes and as such they should lose the status of towns; besides 8 more towns with a population over 5,000 should join this rank for similar reasons. But 7 large villages with a population of over 5,000 having non-agricultural livelihood preponderance should be raised to the status of towns *i. e.*  $(31,244 + 16 + 8 - 7) = 31,261$ .

4. If both the tests are made compulsory *i. e.* population being less than 5,000 and preponderance of agriculturists in population, 73 towns will become villages and 7 villages will be raised to the status of towns with the net result of  $(31,244 + 73 - 7) = 31,310$  villages.

5. The corresponding number in the previous censuses can be seen in the inset Table No. 98. These figures naturally invite a question as to why this fluctuation from decade to decade and specially a fall in the number of villages in Rajasthan between 1941 and 1950.

TABLE No. 98.

Number of villages in previous decades		
Years	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1891	30,261	741
1901	30,535	740
1911	32,406	743
1921	32,336	746
1931	33,584	747
1941	31,589	706
1951	31,244	707

The following may be the reasons; (a) Every time new villages may have been founded or hamlets may have been converted into villages which happens mostly in Jagir areas and in some cases in Khalsa areas also when a hamlet is granted by the Darbar as a Jagir or by a Noble as a sub-Jagir. The hamlet so granted assumes the status of a village because its revenue begins to be realised under a separate name. (b) Similarly, in the Dry Area



Division villages become depopulated; although they continue as revenue mauzas but the people leave their original habitation and obtain new residence in some bigger village nearby, for ensuring better security and other facilities. (c) The improvement in the classification of hamlets and villages from census to census more particularly in the present census might have resulted in the omission as separate entities, of places treated as separate villages in the previous census, because in fact they were found to be hamlets of other villages. No general comments will however be justified on these figures as the formation of the villages has been largely a matter of historical accident and the Revenue Department has accepted these accidents.

6. The above villages are distributed in the Natural Divisions as shown in the inset Table

TABLE No. 99.

Distribution of villages in Natural Divisions

Name of Division	Number of villages
East Rajasthan Plain Dn. ..	11,943
Dry Area Division ..	7,385
Hills Division ..	5,521
Plateau Division ..	6,395

Division. Coming to district level we find that the number of villages is the greatest in Udaipur, Jaipur and Kotah being 9.6 per cent, 9.0 per cent and 7.3 per cent respectively of the total number of villages in Rajasthan.

7. The total area of Rajasthan is 130,206.7 and that of Ajmer is 2,416.6 sq. miles according to the Surveyor General of India, as we have already seen in Chapter I, Section 2. Out of this, the rural area consists of nearly 129,800 sq. miles, *i. e.* more than 99 per cent of the total area in Rajasthan and 2,381 or 98.5 per cent in Ajmer. In computing the above figures only such area has been treated as urban which forms part of the municipal limits in case of municipal towns or which is declared in Revenue Records as area under population (under Halka Abadi) in case of non-municipal towns. After deducting the above from the total area we find the total rural area. If the change in the classification of urban rural units is effected in the light of observations contained in paras 2, 3 & 4 of the section, it will also effect the classification of area into rural and urban though to a very little extent.

8. The above area is distributed in Natural Divisions as shown in the inset Table No. 100. The figures of rural area also follow the same pattern as the rural population. East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Dry Area Division stand first and second respectively in respect of the numerical strength of rural population as we shall see in Table No. 106. But their position is reverse in respect of the extent of the total rural area. The Hills and Plateau Divisions stand third and fourth respectively in both the above respects. Looking into the districts we find that the districts containing the highest proportion of rural to total area are Jaisalmer, Barmer and Jodhpur which are also the highest in total area.

TABLE No. 100.

Distribution of rural area in Natural Divisions

Name of Division	Total rural area in sq. miles
East Rajasthan Plain Div. ..	30,200
Dry Area Division ..	75,200
Hills Division ..	12,400
Plateau Division ..	12,000



TABLE No. 101.

Distribution of Rural and Urban population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States.

State	Persons	Males	Females
<b>Rajasthan</b>			
Total ..	15,290,797	7,961,673	7,329,124
Rural ..	12,641,430	6,590,413	6,051,017
Urban ..	2,649,367	1,371,260	1,278,107
<b>Ajmer</b>			
Total ..	693,372	360,236	333,136
Rural ..	395,608	202,869	192,739
Urban ..	297,764	157,367	140,397

9. About 82·7 per cent. of the population of Rajasthan and 57·1 per cent. of Ajmer State

live in the villages. The actual distribution of population is summarised in the inset Table No. 101. Details of the distribution of rural and urban population in the Natural Divisions, districts and tehsils of Rajasthan and Ajmer States, would be found in Table 'E' (summary figures by districts and tehsils) in Part II-A of the Report.

10. The large rural population of about 12·64 million souls in Rajasthan is distributed in 31,244 villages giving an average population of about 405 persons per village. In 1941 the territory which is now Rajasthan had 31,589 villages and the average population per village was 360. In Ajmer State, the rural population of about 4 lakhs is distributed in 707 villages giving an average population of about 560 persons per village. The reason of the difference between Ajmer and Merwara in this respect has been laid down in the 1911 Census Report as follows:—

“The great difference between Ajmer and Merwara is probably due to historical reasons. The comparatively open country of Ajmer was swept by the march of armies struggling to win the commanding position of Ajmer City and the fort of Taragarh, and the people were driven to congregate in large villages, while the tide of battle left the hills of Merwara undisturbed.” On the other hand it must be remembered that few of the Merwara villages are situated on the sites where they were in the strenuous times thus described. The district is covered with small deserted villages perched up the sides of the hills, which the inhabitants abandoned for the more open and unprotected plains below, when the district was settled by the British.

11. The average population per village in the previous censuses is shown in the inset Table No. 102.

TABLE No. 102.

Average Population per village from decade to decade.

State	Average population per village			
	1951	1941	1931	1921
Rajasthan ..	405	360	287	264
Ajmer ..	560	524	509	443

N. B.—Figures for Ajmer State for the past censuses have been worked out on the basis of the population and the number of villages in the decade concerned as given in the past Census Reports.

A steady rise in the number of persons per village from decade to decade both in Rajasthan and Ajmer leads to an inference that the formation of new villages is not keeping pace with the growth of population. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the average population per village is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (500) and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (270). In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is 448 and in Rajasthan Hills Division it is only 370. Amongst the districts, Pali District (677) has the highest number of persons per village, next to it Sikar District (654) and Jhunjhunu District (653). The district with the lowest figure is Jaisalmer (192), slightly higher than it are Banswara (242) and Jhalawar Districts (247).

12. For purposes of convenience, villages with a population of 2,000 to 5,000 are termed 'large villages', while those with a population between 500 and 2,000 'as medium', those having population of less than 500 persons as 'small villages' and those with a population more than 5,000 as very large. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 2·1, (Distribution of population by size of village) given in Part I-B of the Report, shows that the largest number of people (48·8 per cent.) reside in the group of medium size villages, while only about 12·2 per cent. of them live in large villages and about 38·3 per cent. in small villages. A very significant point to be noticed in Subsidiary Table 2·1 is that only 6 to 7 per thousand of the population of the State lives in very large villages, with population over 5,000. Normally, places with population over 5,000 are regarded as towns, but these villages have not been so treated in the present Census. It is interesting to observe that the concentration of these very large villages is to be found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division and next to it in East Rajasthan Plain Division. The reasons for this differentiation in the concentration of habitations from Division to Division have been discussed at some length in the 1911 Census Report which can be summarised by saying that "Scanty rainfall, difficulties of water supply, unproductive soil, hilly and forest country, all appear to militate against the formation of large villages; while insecurity of property and life, a feudal basis of society, a water supply easy to obtain, fertile soil, and pressure of population tend towards concentration of the people."

13. Subsidiary Table 2·7 given in Part I-B of the Report gives a complete list of all the villages in Rajasthan with a population of over 5,000 along with an analysis of the distribution of their population in each village according to the eight livelihood classes. From a study of this table it is noticed that in all, there are 12 such villages in Rajasthan with a population of 38,947 persons and in 7 out of them, the percentage of non-agricultural classes is greater than that of the agricultural classes. Most of these very large villages *i. e.* those with a population over 5,000 persons, represent the border line cases in which they could, as well be treated as urban units. On the contrary there are eight towns shown in Subsidiary Table 3·8 each of which has a population over 5,000 but they possess rural characteristics *i. e.* to say a preponderance of agricultural population; their population comes to 52,139.

14. If the classification of villages and towns were to be made on the basis of size of population only, the existing rural population of 12,641,430 of Rajasthan State will increase to 12,791,720. For the population of 65 towns (219,785) which do not come to the standard of towns on the basis of size of population will be added to the existing population; while the population of 12 of the very large villages which fulfil the above criterion of a town shall be subtracted from the existing rural population. The rural urban ratio on the above basis however does not change much. It comes to 83·9 : 16·1.

15. If the classification of villages and towns were to be made on the basis of the livelihood pattern only, the existing figures of rural population will undergo a change due firstly to the addition of the population of 24 towns (which comes to 97,651) now to be reduced to the status of villages based on this criterion and secondly to the subtraction of population of 7 very large villages having been raised to the status of towns on the above criterion. The population of these villages comes to 38,947. The net rural population due to above reasons comes to 12,700,134 and the rural-urban ratio will thus become 83·7 : 16·3

16. In case the classification of villages and towns be based on the combined factors, that is to say, if it becomes necessary that a town should have a population of over 5,000 persons and should also have a preponderance of population with non-agricultural occupations, the existing rural population shall undergo another change. There are 73 towns which either have a population less than 5,000 or have a majority of their population engaged in agricultural pursuits. They shall be reduced to the status of villages. Their population which comes to 271,924 persons should be added to the existing rural population. While there are

7 very large villages which conform with the above standard for being classed as towns and which have population of 38,947 persons. This population should be subtracted from the existing rural population. The net rural population based on the above criterion comes to 12,874,407 persons with a rural/urban ratio of 85:15

17. The highest percentage of rural population is to be found in the States of Orissa and Himachal Pradesh, where 96 per cent. of the population is classified as rural compared to 83 per cent. in Rajasthan. Table No. 103 given below shows the percentage of rural population in States. India and some of the States.

TABLE No. 103.

Percentage of Rural Population in Rajasthan and other States of India.

State	Rural percentage	State	Rural percentage
Rajasthan .. .. .	83	West Bengal .. .. .	75
India .. .. .	83	Hyderabad .. .. .	81
Assam .. .. .	95	Madhya Bharat .. .. .	82
Bihar .. .. .	93	Mysore .. .. .	76
Bombay .. .. .	69	Madhya Pradesh .. .. .	87
Madras .. .. .	80	Saurashtra .. .. .	66
Orissa .. .. .	96	Travancore-Cochin .. .. .	84
Punjab .. .. .	81	Himachal Pradesh .. .. .	96
Uttar Pradesh .. .. .	86	Ajmer .. .. .	57

Among the most urbanised States of India are Ajmer, Saurashtra, Bombay, West Bengal, Mysore and Madras arranged in descending order, where the percentage of urbanisation is 20 or over. Rajasthan follows the pattern of average India.

18. The following Table No. 104 gives the approximate rural-urban ratio for Rajasthan and Ajmer States from 1901 to 1951 as ascertained at the different censuses.

TABLE No. 104.

Percentage of Rural and Urban population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States from 1901.

Year	Percentage to total population			
	Rajasthan		Ajmer	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
1	2	3	4	5
1901	85.9	14.1	89.6	30.4
1911	87.0	13.0	68.7	31.3
1921	86.7	13.3	63.1	36.9
1931	86.3	13.7	64.5	35.5
1941	85.7	14.3	63.3	36.7
1951	82.7	17.3	57.1	42.9

The figures show a steady decline in the rural ratio since 1911 in Rajasthan. The figures of Ajmer show the same trend except for a slight rise in 1931 which is again lowered in the next decade to the same level.

19. It is interesting to observe that while the total population of Rajasthan increased by 5.4 millions from 1901 to 1951, the rural areas absorbed about 4.15 millions or 76.8 per cent. of the increase in contrast to the urban areas which absorbed the remaining 1.25 millions only or 23.2 per cent. of the increase. Moreover, the greater portion 20.4 per cent out of the total urban gain of 23.2 per cent. was added during the last two decades namely 1931-40 (6.5 per cent.) and 1941-50 (13.9 per cent.) In Ajmer State the position is reverse. The total population of Ajmer increased by 267,245 from 1901 to 1950, the rural areas absorbed only 98,892 or 37 per cent. of the increase in contrast to the urban areas which absorbed the remaining 168,353 or 63 per cent. of the increase. The greater portion (44.0 per cent.) of the total urban increase of 63 per cent. was added here also during the last two decades namely 1931-40 (12.7 per cent.) and 1941-50 (31.3 per cent.).

TABLE No. 105.

## Distribution of Rural Population in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Rural population	Percentage to total rural population of Rajasthan	Percentage of rural to total population
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	5,346,072	42.3	81.2
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	3,691,842	29.2	80.2
Rajasthan Hills Division.	1,876,130	14.8	89.6
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	1,727,386	13.7	86.6

20. The distribution of rural population in the Natural Divisions can be seen in the inset Table No. 105.

The figures show that the rural population is the most preponderant in the Hills Division and the least in the Dry Area Division. Coming to district level we find that the percentage of rural to total population is the greatest in District Banswara (94.5 per cent.), Jalore (93.9 per cent.), Barmer (92.6 per cent.) and Jaisalmer (92.2 per cent). It is the lowest in Bikaner (54.9 per cent), Churu (64.6 per cent.) and Jodhpur (67.0 per cent.).

21. A study of Subsidiary Table 2.1 in Part I-B of the Report further shows that in the Plateau Division, only about 6.5 per cent. of the rural population live in large villages. Similarly in the Rajasthan Hills Division only 9.1 per cent. of the rural population live in large villages, while in the Dry Area Division the percentage is highest (14.7) and in the East Rajasthan Plain Division the corresponding percentage is about 13.5. This is also a small percentage, when compared to Ajmer where 20.8 per cent. reside in the large villages. The distribution of population in a State by size of villages in the Natural Divisions should normally be consistent with the general development in the different parts as is noticeable in the case of Ajmer and the East Rajasthan Plain Division. But in the Dry Area Division the formation of villages depends upon the circumstances explained in para 12 above.

22. The proportion of persons living in small villages is the greatest in the Plateau Division which is 58.2 per cent. next to it, in the Hills Division which is 44.1 per cent. The reason in case of Plateau Division is that small villages develop in large numbers around cultivated land which is in abundance in this Division, while in the Hills Division, small villages crop up in the level spaces which may be found in between the hills and valleys where cultivation is possible in the monsoon and to some extent in the winter by irrigating the crops by percolation water from the hills. This Division abounds in tanks constructed by putting dams across streamlets running between two ranges of hills. The land below the bund is thus made irrigable where a small village is eventually formed.

23. For a better understanding of the nature of these groups of habitations the small villages with a population less than 500 were further sub-divided in subgroups. Subsidiary Table 2-8 gives the details from which it is interesting to find that there are as many as 275 villages in Rajasthan which have a population of less than 10 persons. The number of such villages in Ajmer is five which have a total population of 31 persons. The districts where such small villages are found in large numbers are Kotah (32), Jaipur (30), Chittorgarh (30) and Jaisalmer (29).

### SECTION 3.

#### Growth of Rural Population.

1. The main considerations in respect of the growth of population connected with the history of famine and pestilence in the State given in the previous Chapter in respect of the general population apply in the case of the rural population also. There is, however, an additional important circumstance in the case of the growth of the rural populations, which is connected with the problem of urbanisation. The drift towards the urban areas from the rural areas is significant in several parts of the State and this has a direct effect on the growth rate of the rural population. In an agricultural country like ours, which is being slowly industrialised, we should expect a more spectacular growth in the urban population than in the rural population. Not only more villages qualify to be treated as towns, but many of the old towns tend to expand in size and population. These factors have operated in a particularly spectacular manner during the decade 1941-50 for several reasons. Briefly put, the movement into the towns is for urban amenities, educational facilities and for being in a position to secure steady supplies of food and consumer goods when control measures are in operation. The uncertainties of the monsoon also aggravate this drift towards the towns even among persons like agricultural labourers, specially from areas where the pressure of agricultural population on cultivated land is already too high, who would have been quite content to stay on in their own places if they could be assured of a tolerable crop yield and sufficient employment to enable them to make both ends meet. It is, therefore, essential to consider the growth rate of the general, rural and urban population side by side as given in Table 106 below for Rajasthan and Ajmer.

TABLE No. 106.

Mean Decennial growth rates for general, rural and urban population of Rajasthan and Ajmer.

		Mean Decennial Growth Rates.		
		1941-50	1931-40	1921-30
Rajasthan				
General Population	.. ..	13.9	16.6	13.2
Rural Population	.. ..	10.2	16.0	12.8
Urban Population	.. ..	33.1	20.3	16.1
Ajmer.				
General Population	.. ..	17.2	14.1	12.6
Rural Population	.. ..	6.8	12.3	14.7
Urban Population	.. ..	32.6	18.1	9.0

2. It will be noticed that in Rajasthan in the first interval 1921-30 to 1931-40 the growth rate has increased in rural, urban as well as in the general population. In the next interval 1931-40 to 1941-50 the growth rate has fallen in the case of rural as well as general population but has increased by more than 50 per cent. in the case of urban population. The explanation of the fall in the growth rate of rural population between 1931-40 and 1941-50 partly found in the fact of corresponding rise in the growth rate of urban population in the same period to more or less in the same proportion. It is clear that the movement from rural to urban areas combined with the conversion of rural into urban units (*i.e.* from villages to towns), has resulted in the steeper fall in the growth of rural population during this interval when compared to the fall

of growth rate in the general population. Sudden large growths are possible in towns but not, under present conditions, in our rural areas. In Ajmer there is a steady fall since 1921 in the growth rate of rural population and a galloping rise in that of urban population.

3. As we have noticed in the previous section, the pace of urbanization in the State has been the fastest during the last decade. A perusal of Main Table A-IV (towns classified by population with variations since 1901) given in Part II-A of the Report will clearly show how most of the towns of the State have increased very considerably in population during the last decade. This abnormal urban growth, which has adversely affected the growth rate of the rural areas is associated with the development of industrial and commercial activities in the State which is even faster in Ajmer than Rajasthan.

4. The mean decennial growth rate of the rural population as given in Subsidiary Table 2·3 in Part I-B of the Report shows that the trend of these rates is roughly of the same pattern as that of the general population except that the disturbance on account of the migration from the rural areas into the urban areas has slightly altered the picture in some places. Table 107 given below shows the mean decennial growth rates of the general, rural and urban population in the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 107.

The Mean decennial growth rates of general, rural and urban population in Natural Divisions.

	East Rajas- than Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division
1	2	3	4	5
1921-30				
General Population	9·6	19·9	15·0	10·4
Rural Population	8·4	19·3	15·1	9·8
Urban Population	12·2	23·3	13·0	15·4
1931-40				
General Population	13·9	22·4	16·0	13·9
Rural Population	13·9	20·8	15·7	13·2
Urban Population	13·5	30·3	17·9	19·0
1941-50				
General Population	13·7	15·7	15·9	8·5
Rural Population	9·1	12·9	13·2	5·20
Urban Population	35·8	27·5	43·1	32·3

5. The figures show that the growth rate of the rural population in East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Plateau Division indicates the same characteristics as are seen in the case of the general population. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division the rural growth rate has increased between 1921-30 and 1931-40 by 5·5 per cent. and in the second interval between 1931-40 to 1941-50 it has fallen by 4·8 per cent. The corresponding rise and fall in the mean decennial growth rate of the general population in the East Rajasthan Plain Division is 4·3 and 0·2 per cent. respectively. In other words the fall in the mean decennial growth rate of the general population in the East Rajasthan Plain Division during the second interval is very much less than the corresponding fall in the case of the rural population. This is again due to the migration from the rural into urban areas. In fact a study of Table 107 given above will show that the mean decennial growth rate of the urban population in the East Rajasthan Plain Division has gone up from 12·2 in 1921-30 to 13·5 in 1931-40 and as high as 35·8 in 1941-50; it has nearly trebled in the three decades.



6. In the Plateau Division the growth rate of the general population, as well as the rural, has risen in the first interval but it fell abruptly in the second, resulting in an over all fall. The fall in the mean decennial growth rate of the general population during the two intervals 1921-50 is 1.9 per cent. while the corresponding fall in the case of the rural population is 4.6 per cent. It is interesting to notice that the growth in the urban population of the Plateau Division during both the intervals corresponds to the growth of the urban population of the State. It has only nearly doubled in the three decades.

7. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the mean decennial growth rate of the general population increased from 19.9 to 22.4 per cent. between 1921-30 and 1931-40, whereas the rate for the rural population increased from 19.3 to 20.8 per cent. only. This typical behaviour of the growth rate clearly shows the movement towards the towns as will be seen from the above table which shows that the mean decennial growth rate of urban population in the Dry Area Division rose from 23.3 in 1921-30 to 30.3 per cent. in 1931-40. During the second interval between 1931-40 and 1941-50 the growth rate of the both the rural as well as the urban population in the Dry Area Division shows a fall, although the fall is less marked in the urban than in the rural population. In the case of the rural population the fall is of 7.9 per cent., while in the case of the urban population it is only 2.8 per cent.

8. In the case of the Rajasthan Hills Division the mean decennial growth rate of the rural population has increased slightly from 15.1 to 15.7, only during the interval between 1921-30 and 1931-40 and fell to 13.2 in the second interval. This is due to the immigration from other districts into the Rajasthan Hills Division on account of the development of some Mining Industry in the previous interval. The mean decennial growth rate of the urban population of the Rajasthan Hills Division has shown a rise of about 4.9 per cent. between 1921-30 and 1931-40, while it has shown an increase of as high as 25.2 per cent. between 1931-40 and 1941-50, higher even than the East Rajasthan Plain Division. This is due to the fact that many villages were newly declared towns in the present census and also because during the last decade 1941-50, Udaipur City in the Udaipur District has increased in population by nearly 50.2 per cent., due mostly to the industrial and commercial developments during the early years, when several important industrialists from other parts of India settled here, because general conditions here were more peaceful during the war period, and in the later years, due to its having been made the capital of the former United States of Rajasthan and to the influx of displaced persons who contributed to the growth of the city not only by their own numbers but also by attracting people from the neighbouring villages for jobs as labourers in the construction of houses for their rehabilitation. But with the abolition of the practice of the personal attendance of the Nobles and the removal of the capital, there are signs of the falling growth rate since 1948.

9. The fall in the mean decennial growth rate of the rural population in Ajmer is of considerable significance as it further clarifies the apparently contradictory character of the birth and growth rates of the general population. The figures of the decade 1941-50 given in the Table

**Ajmer.**

No. 106 above clearly indicate that the growth rate of the general population during this decade is entirely due to the growth in urban areas and immigration from outside particularly in the City of Ajmer, as will be mentioned in Chapter III. The rural population has shown a fall in the growth rate in 1941-50 as in 1931-40 and is consistent with the birth rate as given in Subsidiary Table 2.3 of the Report Part I-A. The growth of the urban population in the entire Ajmer State is again associated with the growth of the Ajmer city and Beawar town. We will discuss this question in the next chapter in detail.

10. Coming to the district level we find from a perusal of Subsidiary Table 2.2 in Part I-B of the Report that an overall increase in the growth rate of the rural population since 1921 is visible only in eight districts. In all other districts it has fallen. The fall is the most marked in District Ganganagar where the mean decennial growth rate in rural population came down from 68.9 in 1921-30 to 10.4 in 1941-50.



## SECTION 4.

## Movement.

1. The question of migration in general has already been discussed in the previous chapter. Subsidiary Table 2·5 given in Part I-B of the Report shows that of the total rural population of 12,641,430 in the State as many as 11,717,306 were recorded during the Census as having been born in the district of enumeration. The percentage comes to 92·7. It will, therefore, be seen that practically all the people of the villages pass their life in places where they are born. It is also interesting to mention that from amongst 491,047 people born in districts of the State other than the districts of enumeration, as many as 360,661 (or 73·4 per cent) were born in the districts of the same Natural Division. There were only 257,162 persons born in adjacent States of India and 12,229 people born in other parts of the country, who were enumerated in the rural parts of Rajasthan. The percentage of people born in India outside Rajasthan and enumerated in the rural parts of the State, therefore, comes to 2·1 per cent only, among whom are also included the people who were born in the districts of other States which adjoin Rajasthan who, therefore, do not come in the category of extra statal migration in the real sense of the term. They seem so because of the situation of the districts under two different political divisions. People from Pakistan, including the displaced persons and others who were enumerated in the rural areas of Rajasthan, numbered 163,515 (86,000 males and 77,515 females). Only 171 persons (118 males and 53 females) from other territories beyond India were enumerated in the rural parts of the State.

2. In Ajmer as many as 353,129 out of the total rural population of 395,608 were recorded during the census as having been born in the district of enumeration; their percentage comes to 89·3. There were 39,497 persons born in Rajasthan, the only adjacent State of Ajmer and only 1,562 persons born outside the State in other parts of India. The percentage of persons born in other parts of India and enumerated in Ajmer comes to 10·4 per cent. People from Pakistan including the displaced persons and others who were enumerated in the rural areas of Ajmer numbered 1,420 only (895 males and 525 females). Only 26 persons (10 males and 16 females) from other territories beyond India were enumerated in the rural parts of this State.

3. The Table 108 below summarises the above discussion and shows how immigration is of very little significance in the village life of these States.

TABLE No. 108.

Percentage of Immigrants in Rajasthan and Ajmer based on birth place data.

Percentage of persons enumerated in the rural parts of Rajasthan and Ajmer and born in

District of enumeration.	Other districts of the same Natural Dn.	Other parts of the State.	Adjacent State.	Other parts of India.	Beyond India	
					Pakistan.	Other territories.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92·7	2·9	1·0	Rajasthan 2·0	0·1	1·3	0·001
89·3	..	--	Ajmer 10·0	0·4	0·3	0·006.

4. The immigration picture in the Natural Divisions also does not indicate any considerable inflow of migrants as will be seen from Table No. 109 below, which gives the total figures as well as the percentage in brackets.

TABLE No. 109.

Immigrants, actual and percentage, by Natural Division based on birth place data.

Natural Division.	Persons born in						
	District of enumeration.	Other districts of the same Natural Dn.	Other parts of the State.	Adjacent States.	Other parts of India.	Beyond India	
						Pakistan.	Other territories.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
East Rajasthan Plain Dn.	4,910,234 (91·8%)	204,136 (3·8%)	44,947 (0·8%)	107,103 (2·1%)	9,795 (0·2%)	69,752 (1·3%)	105 (0·002%)
Rajasthan Dry Area Dn.	3,351,115 (90·8%)	125,770 (3·4%)	34,713 (0·9%)	87,119 (2·4%)	1,567 (0·04%)	91,524 (2·5%)	34 (0·0009%)
Rajasthan Hills Dn.	1,829,029 (97·5%)	9,911 (0·50)	20,319 (1·1%)	15,782 (0·8%)	407 (0·02%)	666 (0·04%)	16 (0·001%)
Rajasthan Plateau Dn.	1,626,928 (94·2%)	20,844 (1·2%)	30,407 (1·8%)	47,158 (2·7%)	460 (0·02%)	1,573 (0·09%)	16 (0·001%)

5. It will be seen that it is in the East Rajasthan Plain Division that the largest number of immigrants in the rural areas from outside Rajasthan and from the rest of India have been enumerated although their percentage to the total population of the Division is very little (2·3). The total number of these immigrants in the East Rajasthan Plain Division is 116,898. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, their number is 88,686 although the percentage to the total population is (2·44). In the Rajasthan Hills Division their number is the least being only 16,189 and the percentage to the total population is also least (0·82). In the Plateau Division the number is 47,618 who form 2·72 per cent of the total population.

6. Subsidiary Table 2·5 in Part I-B of the Report gives the figures of males and females in each category of the rural immigrants. It is observed that in the Hills Division and Plateau Division there is a clear preponderance of females over males amongst the migrants from the districts of the same Natural Division, other parts of the State and adjacent States, indicating how the immigration tends to be of the casual type in these divisions. In other divisions males preponderate. The male-female ratio for migrants in Rajasthan as a whole from the other parts of India is higher in favour of males. This shows the semi permanent nature of the migration. People born in the district of enumeration show practically equal male-female ratio in Rajasthan.

7. The largest number of people born in Pakistan and enumerated in the State were found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division. This is due to the fact that the largest number of displaced persons have settled there. Besides, this Division touches Pakistan; hence cases of

marriage migration and of births at the maternal grandfather's house are also not uncommon. Their number is 91,524 (48,195 males and 43,329 females). In the East Rajasthan Plain Division their number is 69,752 (36,515 males and 33,237 females); while in the Rajasthan Hills Division only 666 (males 378 and females 288) were enumerated, and in the Plateau Division 1,573, (912 males and 661 females). It is interesting to observe that in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, as well as in other Divisions of the State, the sex ratio of the people born in Pakistan tends to indicate from the preponderance of males over females that the families have perhaps not yet fully settled in these rural areas.

8. Out of 171 persons of foreign birth (other than those born in Pakistan), enumerated in the State, 105 persons (70 males and 35 females) were enumerated in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, 34 (24 males and 10 females) in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, and in the Hills Division only 16, (12 males and 4 females). The same is the number in Rajasthan Plateau Division. Here again, the sex ratio indicates the temporary nature of these migrants.

9. In the previous section on the growth of population we have referred to the movement of the people from the rural to the urban areas of the State. Subsidiary Emigration from the Table 3·8 (Immigration into urban area) shows the migrants into the rural areas. urban areas from districts other than the district of birth. Unfortunately, no statistics have been collected to show the volume of migration from the rural areas of a district into the urban areas and we can only have a rough idea of the movement from the comparative rate of growth of the general, rural and urban population as indicated briefly in the previous Section. But it is not possible to deduce any reliable estimates of inter district movements by comparing the mean decennial growth rates and the mean decennial rate of natural increase. There is really no need to do so, as the movements of population discussed in chapter I are practically all from rural areas. The emigrants moved either into towns or to places outside the State or even outside India. The towns have been growing in numbers and in size, and there is, as yet, no question of any large movements from them to rural areas. The industrialisation of the State and growth of cities and towns is bound to encourage emigration from the villages into the urban areas. On the other hand, the affinity of the villager to his home has a historic background and has been a damping factor in his economic development. In their Report on Labour Conditions in India, the Royal Commission remarked in 1931 as follows :

“In our opinion the chief cause (of the retention of the village connection) is to be found in the fact that the driving force in migration comes almost entirely from one end of the channel, i.e. the village end. The industrial recruit is not prompted by the lure of the city life or by any great ambition. The city, as such has no attraction for him and, when he leaves the village he has seldom an ambition beyond that of securing the necessities of life. Few Industrial workers would remain in Industry if they could secure sufficient food and clothing in the village; they are pushed, not pulled, to the city.

“A contributory cause is the joint family system, which by linking the emigrant to the village and even to its soil, serves to keep connections alive in many cases. Moreover, the comparative scarcity of employment for women and children in factories encourages the practice of leaving the family in the village, where their maintenance is more simple and less costly. In the perennial factories as a whole more than three quarters of the workers are males over 15 years; and the children form a small proportion of the remainder. On the other hand the village offers at least intermittent work for every one, even for small children. Further, where migration has resulted less from the lack of land than from the precarious character of its yield, there are obvious economic advantages in retaining interests in it. Even where relatives have not been left in the village, the ties of generations are strong. To a large extent Indian life is a community life, and the mere individualistic existence inseparable from a city, is strange and unattractive to the villager.

“Finally, an important cause of the desire of the factory workers to maintain village connections is to be found in the environment in which they must live while in factories. No one who is familiar both with village conditions and with the factory areas can be surprised that so few workers are ready to establish in the later a permanent home. We do not desire to suggest that the village is always, or even generally, an idyllic place; but the average factory worker, contrasting the scenes in which he has to live with his memories of his native place, must welcome every opportunity of returning there and must cherish constantly the hope that, sooner or later he can leave the city finally behind.”

10. Analysing the causes of villager's preference to rural life Kingsley Davis says: “The royt's traditions, associations and habits are all rural in character. The rapidly developing industrial city in this part of the world has recapitulated all of the evils through which the industrial city elsewhere has passed. Housing conditions, working conditions, recreational facilities, and sanitary conveniences have all been incredibly bad, and food has been bad and unwholesome. The development of industrial cities in India, under conditions of economy in an extremely competitive world, has produced some of the worst urban conditions ever known.”

11. A brief description of the style of villages in Rajasthan and an account of the conditions prevailing in rural areas can be seen in Appendix I, Sections XV and XVI. It is probable that with the spread of education, increasing facilities of communication, improvement in housing conditions and labour welfare work, the intrinsic difficulties visualised above might be reduced. The economic necessities will force aside the home-keeping habit and the migration of permanent nature from the villages into the towns will increase. Activities aimed at providing urban facilities to the village people in their homes might be forces working in the opposite direction to a certain extent but they will probably be not enough to prevent the rapidly growing population from seeking employment in the urban industries unless the rural areas are themselves extensively industrialised by developing the vast natural resources of the State or if cottage industries are introduced all over with suitable organization to market the produce.

12. A comparison of the migration-cum-registration error as given in Subsidiary Tables 1-3, 2-3 and 3-3 is of considerable interest. It is noticed that in Ajmer migration-cum-registration error is very high in the case of urban population being 21 per cent and very low in rural being only 2 per cent in the decade 1941-50. The low figure of migration-cum-registration error indicates the trend of emigration from rural areas into the urban. In the case of Ajmer city and Beawar town there is not only migration from the rural to urban areas of Ajmer State but also immigration from the adjoining districts of Rajasthan. The Commercial and Industrial activities in those towns are mainly responsible for this phenomenon. A similar examination of Rajasthan and its Natural Divisions is impossible due to absence of birth and death registration figures.

TABLE No. 110.

Growth of Ajmer and Beawar towns.

Year	Population	
	Ajmer	Beawar
1901	73,839	21,928
1911	86,222	22,800
1921	113,512	22,362
1931	119,524	22,342
1941	147,258	36,720
1951	196,633	51,054

13. A perusal of the development of the Ajmer and Beawar towns as given in Main Table A-IV (Towns classified by population with variations since 1901) shows how these towns have developed, particularly during the last decade. The figures are given in the inset Table No. 110 for convenience of reference.

14. The general question of emigration from the State into the other States of India has been discussed in the previous Chapter. No figures are available to show the extent of this emigration from the rural areas of the State, but from the general considerations given in the previous Chapter it is clear that such movement has taken place from the Rajasthan Plain Division into the adjoining Punjab and Uttar Pradesh and also from parts of the Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions into the adjoining States of Bombay and Madhya Bharat.

#### Emigration into other States.

### SECTION 5.

#### Natural Increase, Births and Deaths:

1. The question of natural increase, births and deaths has been examined at great length in Chapter I Section 5 for the general population of Rajasthan and Ajmer States. This section is meant for a similar discussion regarding rural population. But, as we have already noticed, vital statistics are available for Ajmer only, to which alone therefore our attention in this section will be confined.

#### Scope.

TABLE No. 111.

Mean decennial birth rates of the rural and general population in Ajmer.

Decade	Mean decennial birth-rate	
	Rural	General
1921—30	..	..
1931—40	.. 37.8	.. 38
1941—50	.. 25.7	.. 29

2. The mean decennial birth rates of the rural population of Ajmer differ slightly from those for the general population discussed in the previous Chapter, as is seen from the inset Table No. 111.

3. It is curious to note that while the birth rate in the general population has fallen only by 9 per cent, in the rural population it has fallen by 12 per cent. *Prima facie* expectation should be for a higher birth rate in rural than in urban population, generally, because of the low standard of living prevailing in rural areas and specially because semi permanent migrants generally send their wives to rural homes for delivery.

4. The vital statistics for the integrated States are, as we have seen in the previous chapter, not available and those that are available are unreliable. There are in fact serious physical obstacles in the way of the vital statistics organisation including those connected with the topography, extreme distances, lack of communications and almost universal illiteracy. Again, these factors and extreme poverty are circumstances which encourage unplanned families. In this connection, Chandrasekhar remarks. "The very low level of living, the absence of a prolonged period of education or training, the existing social attitudes that encourage a large family . . . . ., and above all, the psychological reason that encourages every man to look to his wife and the sex intimacy as the only relaxation and recreation in an otherwise dull, drab and unexciting life of relentless struggle to make both ends meet— all these are contributing factors. Economic instability makes one resigned and fatalistic; thought for the morrow and contemplation of the grim prospect of a large family are brushed aside. The thought that one cannot be worse off than one already is, banishes all ideas of foresight and control. Resignation to a life time of poverty follows".\*

\* "India's Population". Fact and Policy by S. Chandrasekhar (Indian Institute for population studies— Annamalai University, Chidambaram, India), page 29.

5. A comparative study of the figures of birth rates for the rural areas and for the general population, as given in Subsidiary Tables 2·3 and 1·3, clearly shows that the trends are, more or less, identical and the reasons given for the fall in the birth rate for the general population hold good in the case of the rural population also.

TABLE No. 112.

Mean decennial death rates of the rural and general population in Ajmer.

Decade	Mean decennial death-rates.	
	Rural	General
1921—30 ..	..	..
1931—40 ..	28·8	30
1941—50 ..	21·1	22

6. Details of the deaths in rural areas in the State of Ajmer are given in Subsidiary Table 2·3 in Part I-B of the Report. The mean decennial death-rates for Ajmer for the rural and general population during the last three decades are given in the inset Table No. 112. It is interesting to observe that the fall in the death rate of general as well as rural population has come down by 8 per cent. during the last 20 years.

TABLE No. 113.

Natural increase in the rural population of Ajmer.

	1941—50	1931—40
	Registered Births ..	98,200
Registered Deaths ..	80,658	100,202
Natural Increase ..	17,542	31,399
Decennial rate of natural increase ..	5	9

7. Subsidiary Table 2·3 in Part I-B of the Report gives the figures of natural increase or excess of births over deaths in Ajmer. They are reproduced in the inset Table No. 113.

They clearly show how abruptly the rate of natural increase of population in the rural areas has fallen during the last two decades. The causes are (a) emigration to urban areas and (b) significant fall in the birth rate. The reasons for the fall in the birth rate have already been discussed in the previous Chapter.

## SECTION 6.

### Livelihood Pattern

1. About 82·34 per cent of the rural population of Rajasthan and 77·37 per cent in Ajmer belongs to the agricultural classes and about 17·66 per cent in Rajasthan and 22·63 per cent in Ajmer to the non-agricultural classes, as is obvious from Subsidiary Table 2·4 given in Part I-B of the Report.

2. The distribution of the rural population amongst the agricultural classes is as follows:—  
Agricultural classes.

TABLE No. 114.

Distribution of rural population among agricultural livelihood classes.

Livelihood Class	Percentage to total population	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Class I Cultivators of owned land ..	50·90	64·31
Class II Cultivators of unowned land ..	26·13	5·08
Class III Cultivating labourers ..	3·56	4·75
Class IV Non-cultivating owners of land etc. ..	1·75	3·23

3. In considering these figures, the definition of "owned land" for purpose of census, as explained in Section 6 of the previous Chapter, should be remembered. As pointed out, the Jagirdars owned the estate and not the land in the estate which was really always owned by the cultivators of Livelihood Class I.

4. Amongst the non-agricultural classes, about 6.66 per cent. (out of the total of about 17.66 per cent.) belong to the Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) and the corresponding number in Ajmer is 10.61 out of 22.63 per cent. of non-agricultural classes to total rural population. This class as we have seen previously, includes the industries of division "0" of the divisions under the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme given in Part II-B of the Report. This division includes industries such as stock raising, rearing of small animals, plantations, forestry, etc. It is also interesting to observe from Subsidiary Table 5.7 in Part I-B of the Report that in the rural areas of both the States nearly 1/9th (11.22 per cent. in Rajasthan and 11.87 per cent. in Ajmer) of the total number of self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services belong to division "0" consisting of the above industries.

5. Commercial people in the rural areas of Rajasthan account for only 3.41 per cent. of the population, while about 7.27 per cent. depend upon Other services and miscellaneous sources. People depending upon transport are hardly one-third per cent. in the rural areas of the State. Commercial people in the rural areas of Ajmer form only 3.78 of the population while about 7.58 per cent. depend upon services and miscellaneous sources. People depending upon transport are hardly more than half per cent. in the rural areas of the State.

6. The livelihood pattern of rural population in the Natural Divisions is summarised in the following Table No. 115. It gives the number of persons per 10,000 of the rural population:—

TABLE No. 115.

Livelihood pattern of the rural population of Rajasthan and its Natural Divisions.

Natural Divisions	Livelihood Classes.								
	Persons whose principal means of livelihood is								
	Cultivators of owned land	Cultivators of unowned land	Cultivating Labourers	Non-Cultivating owners of land and agricultural rent receivers.	Production other than cultivation	Commerce	Transport	Other services and miscellaneous sources	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
East Rajasthan Plain Division	5258	2506	243	173	669	337	34	780	
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	2880	4822	360	119	666	382	38	733	
Rajasthan Hills Division	7435	669	204	183	595	351	20	543	
Rajasthan Plateau Division	6745	330	859	293	738	254	31	751	



7. It will be noticed that in the Rajasthan Hills Division largest number of rural people derive their principal means of livelihood from cultivation of owned land; while the smallest number of such owner cultivators are to be found in the Dry Area Division, which has the typical characteristic of possessing the large percentage of cultivators of unowned land for reasons explained in the previous Chapter.

8. A comparison of Subsidiary Table 2.4 with Table 1.8 given in Part I-B of the Report will show that the rural population has, on the whole, the same characteristics with regard to the agricultural classes in the rural areas as are found in the general population. This is due to overwhelming rural character of the State. About the agricultural livelihood classes the districts which attract attention are, Dungarpur, Banswara and Udaipur in which the owner cultivators claim more than three-fourths of the rural population. In fact, in the Dungarpur District about 88 per cent. of the rural population falls under Livelihood Class I, while in the Banswara District the percentage is 86 and in Udaipur it is 78.

9. The distribution of the non-agricultural classes in the Natural Divisions is of a different pattern amongst the rural population from that in the general population. The largest percentage of people belonging to the Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) is to be found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (7.38). In the East Rajasthan Plain Division, their percentage is 6.69. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division it is 6.66 and in Rajasthan Hills Division it is 5.95 per cent. only.

10. The reasons for the high percentage of people in Livelihood Class V in the Rajasthan Plateau Division are as follows:

(a) A perusal of Subsidiary Tables 5.7 and 5.8 in Part I-B of the Report shows that industries included in Division "0" viz., stock raising, forestry and plantation are important industries of the Rajasthan Plateau Division, which has excellent forests and rivers as well as tanks.

(b) Subsidiary Table 5.10 shows that weaving industry of Kotah and cotton ginning, pressing and textile industry of Kotah and Chittor, the hand weaving and garment making industry in all the Plateau Districts are also very important in this Natural Division.

(c) Mining, and quarrying industries are also very significant as will be seen from Subsidiary Table 5.9. Building stone quarries of Chittorgarh, Kotah and Jhalawar are all well-known industries of the rural areas of the Division.

11. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division, the figures under Livelihood Class V are affected mainly by the District of Jaipur, and to some extent by Sawai Madhopur and Alwar Districts. Excluding these districts, the percentage of the Livelihood Class V is only 5.7 in the other districts of this Natural Division. In Jaipur District, there are several factories and small industries giving means of livelihood to a large number of people. A perusal of Subsidiary Tables 5.7, 5.8 and 5.10 will also show how the industries of hand-loom weaving, leather manufacture and footwear are extensively followed in this district. These tables also show that the industry of stock raising is, also of considerable importance in this Division. Out of 6.6 per cent. self-supporting persons engaged in Livelihood Class V as many as 5.5 per cent. derive their income from "stock-raising" only.

12. In the Dry Area Division, the district which affects the higher percentage of persons of Livelihood Class V is Jaisalmer where 44.48 per cent. of the total rural population are engaged in Production other than cultivation and a perusal of Subsidiary Table 5.8 will show that more than half of them are engaged in stock raising.

13. In the Hills Division, it is Sirohi District which has a higher proportion (18.1 per cent.) of persons of Livelihood Class V, most of whom are engaged in stock raising.

14. A perusal of column 6 of the Subsidiary Table 2.4 relating to Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) shows that more than 10 per cent. of the population belong to this livelihood class in the rural areas in the Districts of Jaisalmer (44.48), Pali (15.59), Sirohi (18.05) and Kotah (10.51). To appreciate these figures we must refer to Subsidiary Tables 5.7 to 5.12 dealing with the distribution of the people engaged in the different industries of Livelihood Class V which will show that it is stock raising which has inflated these figures.

**Examination of individual districts with high percentage of people in Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation).**

15. Commercial activities in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division in the rural areas are practically of the same pattern. In the Rajasthan Plateau Division, the percentage of commercial people is the least, being 2.54 and if the two Districts of Kotah and Chittorgarh were excluded, it further dwindles down to 1.97 as against about 2.76 per cent. for the Chittorgarh and Kotah Districts combined, 3.82 per cent. for the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, and 3.37 per cent. for the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

**Commercial activities in the rural areas of the Natural Divisions.**

16. Transport activities in the rural areas of the Rajasthan Dry Area Division are comparatively more significant than in the other three Divisions. It is to be remembered that this Division is served with Railway communications to a much greater extent than the other Divisions and it has also a large number of persons who depend upon this means of livelihood *e. g.* Camel Drivers, Motor Drivers, Pack-animal Drivers, etc.

**Transport activities.**

17. Improvement of transport and means of communications must receive top priority in our rural development plans as no progress is possible either in the economic field or in the social sphere unless the present difficulties of movement are overcome and easy contact is rendered possible.

18. There is a fairly even distribution of people belonging to the Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Dry Area Division, in both of which about 7.80 and 7.33 per cent. respectively of the rural population belong to this class. In the Rajasthan Hills Division the percentage is as low as 5.43 and the reason is obvious. The Rajasthan Hills Division is the most undeveloped of all Natural Divisions with a comparatively more predominant agricultural economy than the other three Divisions. Rajasthan Plateau Division stands second in this respect, having 7.51 per cent. engaged in this class.

**Other services and miscellaneous sources.**

## SECTION 7.

## Concluding Remarks.

1. We have seen in the previous sections how the vast majority (82.7 per cent.) of the people of Rajasthan live in the rural areas. The process of urbanization has been extremely slow, it is only of late that industrial activities are increasing and there is a noticeable movement of people from the village to the industrial centres. Amongst the people living in the villages, about 48.8 per cent. reside in the villages with a population between 500 and 2,000 and about 38.3 per cent. in villages with a population under 500. 1.8 per thousand live in villages with a population below 20. In other words over 87.1 per cent of the rural population reside in villages of small and medium size, while only about 12.9 per cent. of them live in comparatively larger villages of over 2,000 population. There are 31,244 inhabited villages in the State and the average population per village comes to about 405, with about 80 houses per village and about five persons per house. The average density of the rural population is 97 persons to a square mile while the density of general population is 117.

2. In Ajmer State nearly 57.1 per cent. of the population live in the rural areas. The process of urbanization has been more rapid. Industrial activities have been increasing for the last several years and there is a noticeable movement of people living in villages to the industrial and commercial centres. Among the people living in the villages in Ajmer about 52.8 per cent. reside in villages with a population between 500 to 2,000 and about 26.4 per cent. in villages with population under 500. In other words 79.2 per cent. of rural population reside in small and medium size villages while only about 20.8 per cent. of them live in comparatively larger villages of over 2,000 population. There are 707 villages (inhabited) in the State. Average population per village comes to about 560 with about 97 houses per village and about 6 persons per house. The average density is 124 persons per square mile in rural population as compared to 287 in general population.

3. The mean decennial growth rate of the rural population has been falling after 1931-40. It was 12.8 in 1921-30, rose to 16.0 in 1931-40 and fell to 10.2 in 1941-50. The decade 1921-30 was marked for the rapid recovery after the severe influenza epidemic referred to in the previous Chapter.

The causes for the subsequent reduced growth rate of the rural population are associated with the fall in the birth rate due to the previous history of famines and epidemics and it is also connected with the increasing drift of population towards the urban areas. There is limited immigration into the rural parts of the State, while the movement from the rural areas into the urban parts is noticeable almost in all districts of Rajasthan.

4. The birth statistics of the rural population of Ajmer show that the mean decennial birth rate, which was 38 in 1931-40, has come down to 26 in 1941-50. The mean decennial death rate has also fallen during the last two decades. It was 29 in 1931-40 and was 21 in 1941-50.

5. The difficulties in forecasting the population in future have been enumerated in the previous Chapter. In the case of the rural population the difficulties are further increased on account of the probable future increased outflow of the rural population into the urban areas for reasons discussed in Section 4 on 'Movement' above. Assuming, however, that the death rate is not likely to go down appreciably in the rural areas during the next decade and that the birth rate might remain steady as pointed out in the previous Chapter, it might be stated that the growth rate of the rural population of the State will show a further fall during the next decade. However, when the birth rate begins to rise, as already mentioned, the rural population will present far more difficult problems than those that have ever appeared in the past.

6. 82.34 per cent. of the rural population of Rajasthan belongs to the agricultural livelihood classes. Only about 17.66 per cent. of them depend upon industries, commerce, transport and miscellaneous sources. The nature of the non-agricultural activities, in which they are engaged, can be judged from the distribution of 10,000 self-supporting persons of all industries and services given in Table No. 116 below which is derived from Subsidiary Table 5.7 given in Part I-B of the Report.

TABLE No. 116.

Distribution of 10,000 self-supporting persons in rural areas of all industries and services in the State and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Divisions.

Particulars	Rajasthan	East	Rajasthan	Rajasthan	Rajasthan	Ajmer
	State	Rajasthan	Dry Area	Hills	Plateau	State
	2	3	4	5	6	7
All industries and services ..	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000
Primary industries not elsewhere specified.	1,122	617	1,161	1,295	1,415	1,187
Mining and quarrying ..	129	145	52	148	219	315
Processing and manufacture food stuffs, textile, leather and products thereof	1,635	20	1,277	1,377	1,508	2,124
Processing and manufacture chemicals and products thereof.	160	112	190	253	174	265
Processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified.	1,039	1,147	909	1,056	959	1,099
Construction and utilities ..	571	685	398	402	722	407
Commerce ..	1,769	1,669	1,971	2,193	1,307	1,490
Transport, storage and communication..	195	200	218	146	176	278
Health, Education and Public Administration.	643	576	626	724	806	635
Services not elsewhere specified ..	2,737	286	2,699	2,405	2,714	2,199

7. It will be noticed that nearly 1/9th (11.22 per cent.) of the people engaged in industries and services are occupied in 'Primary industries not elsewhere specified' including stock raising, rearing of small animals and insects, plantation, forestry and collection of forest produce, hunting and fishing. Subsidiary Table 5.8 given in Part I-B of the Report shows that amongst those persons engaged in 'Primary industries not elsewhere specified', more than 3/4 (84.59 per cent.) are engaged in stock raising and about a seventh (14.85 per cent.) in wood cutting, charcoal burning, collection of forest produce and in forest services. Table No. 116 given above further shows that about one sixth (16.35 per cent.) of the people are engaged in 'processing and manufacture of foodstuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof'. Of these one sixth more than a third (36.84 per cent.) are engaged in cotton textiles, while more than one-third (37.01 per cent.) get employment in leather and other leather products and foot wear etc. as will be apparent from a perusal of Subsidiary Table 5.10 in Part I-B of the Report.

8. Table 116 given above also shows that about 10·39 per cent. of the self-supporting persons of the rural population are engaged in 'processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified.' A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·12 in Part I-B of the Report shows that more than two fifths of them are supported by the exploitation of non-metallic minerals (42·80 per cent.) more than one third are engaged in industries connected with wood and wood products other than furniture and fixtures. They include sawyers, basket makers and carpenters, etc. Thus, our traditional "hewers of wood" in the villages are to be found as "Sawyers" under this head "processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified" and as "wood-cutters in forest" under the head "Primary industries not elsewhere specified."

9. Amongst the 17·69 per cent. of commercial people in the rural areas, shown in Table 116 above, a little less than a quarter (about 24·91 per cent.) are engaged in retail trade in food stuffs, as will be seen from a perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·14 in Part I-B of the Report. About 45·46 per cent. are engaged in unclassified retail trade. These are so to say a supplement of the hewers of wood mentioned above as most of them are sellers of wood. About 13·93 per cent. depend upon retail trade of cloth and other textiles. It is interesting to notice that of the people engaged in 'Commerce nearly 8·45 per cent. are also engaged in 'money lending and banking.'

10. The self-supporting persons engaged in 'Service not elsewhere specified' constitute about 27·37 per cent. of the people in the rural classes, as shown in Table No. 116 above. Of these 7·21 per cent. are barbers, 8·66 per cent. are domestic servants, 2·44 per cent. are dhobies (washer-men), 10·49 per cent. are engaged in religious activities, while 64·70 per cent. are engaged in services otherwise unclassified, as will be obvious from a perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·17 given in Part I-B of the Report.

11. It is, therefore, clear that our rural population is almost entirely dependent on agriculture and forest. This confirms the remarks about the overcrowding in agriculture made in the previous Chapter. In fact, this overcrowding in agriculture is, as pointed out, a tremendous waste of human labour and is one of the principal causes of our backwardness. Diversion of the surplus rural population to industrial activities is, therefore one of the pressing necessities of the State vividly brought out by the study of the census figures on economic classification of the rural population.

## CHAPTER III.

### URBAN POPULATION.

#### SECTION I.

##### Preliminary Remarks.

Describing the significance of cities in this country, Kingsley Davis remarks, "The modern city in Asia is of peculiar significance, because it is the diffusion centre for Western traits. The city is where social change begins, where the specialisation, talent, and organization necessary for originating and executing new ideas are available. City development is therefore, a good index of past economic progress and safe augury of new progress to come. In many ways what is happening in the city today is what will be happening to all of India in the future." <sup>1</sup>

2. The cities and towns that arose in Rajasthan were few in number and archaic in type. They suffered from the same unsettled conditions that prevented the single-farm mode of rural settlement. They did not, for example, rest primarily upon industrial and commercial development, but rather on political and religious functions. The Rajput rulers sometimes shifted the seat of Government, and when they did so, the capital city suddenly dwindled to nothing and a new city arose around the next governmental site. Still other cities arose at religious sites, where pilgrimages were made and temples were built. For a long time commerce and industry followed the cities located for non-economic reasons. Only recently has the modern city, based on industry, trade and natural resources, come into prominence. The emergence of this new type of city means that urbanization can go, and is going, much further than it went under the old conditions. It is this new city that is quickening the pulse of social change in this area.

3. Although our rural economy will persist for reasons associated with our history, culture and international economic circumstances, particularly those connected with the world shortage of food in the background of rapidly increasing population, nevertheless the pace of urbanization will be fast, and although Rajasthan might not be transformed into a country of Western type, the demand for urban "comforts and facilities" is bound to increase in the rural areas, and perhaps it might be a sound policy to appreciate these demands in time and to try to keep the cultivators contented and happy in their own homes instead of allowing them to be allured by the cities and towns, leaving agriculture to less efficient hands. Under such condition, only the real surplus rural population would move to the town for employment.

4. With the rapidly increasing urban population, the connected problems are assuming importance and the need of having comprehensive urban statistics was perhaps never greater than it is at the present moment, when planned urban development in the country will pave the way to future prosperity and happiness, avoiding the evils through which industrial cities had to pass elsewhere. Proper housing accommodation, sanitation and public health conveniences, recreational facilities, and arrangements for getting wholesome food and protected water at economical rates might all be provided well in time, so that our future cities might not be the replicas of some of our worst urban area, which developed under conditions of *laissez faire* economy of the past.

5. The significance of urban growth in a country is best shown by the characteristics of urban population as contrasted to the rural. The present Chapter **Urban Characteristics.** covers some of the major characteristics, although it cannot cover them all. Apparently the gulf between city and country is greater in our country than in Western countries. This shows up, for example, in the relative degree of literacy, the occupational structure, the proportion of the persons of foreign birth, the birth and death rates and in the sex ratio. It does not show up in certain other traits such as age composition and housing density but for understandable reasons. In this Chapter an attempt has been made to review conditions in cities and towns in the same way as was done in the case of rural areas in Chapter II.

6. The general population statistics in respect of the towns will be found in the following tables given in Part II-A of the Census Report:

**Reference to statistics.**

- (i) Table A- I Area, Houses and Population.
- (ii) Table A-III Towns and villages Classified by Population.
- (iii) Table A-IV Towns Classified by Population with variations since 1901.
- (iv) Table A- V Towns arranged territorially with population by livelihood classes.
- (v) Table E Summary figures by administrative units.

These tables give a complete picture of the number and growth of the towns in these States and of the broad economic classification of the people in each town.

7. In addition to the above general population tables, statistics about the urban areas in each district in respect of the detailed economic classification, as well as in respect of social and cultural data, would be found in Parts II-A and II-B of the Report.

8. Detailed statistics about the municipal wards of the towns in respect of Livelihood Classes of the people and their literacy would be found in the Primary Census Abstracts given in the District Census Handbooks.

9. In Part I-B of the Report, the following Subsidiary Tables have been given:—

- (i) Subsidiary Table 3·1—Distribution of population between towns.
- (ii) Subsidiary Table 3·2—Variation and density of urban population.
- (iii) Subsidiary Table 3·3—Mean decennial growth rates during three decades, in urban population.
- (iv) Subsidiary Table 3·4—Towns classified by population.
- (v) Subsidiary Table 3·5—Cities-chief figures.
- (vi) Subsidiary Table 3·6—Number per 1,000 of the general population and of each livelihood class who live in towns.
- (vii) Subsidiary Table 3·7—Livelihood pattern of urban population.

10. In addition to the above Subsidiary Tables, which are reviewed in this Chapter, some additional Subsidiary Tables, are also included in Part I-B of the Report namely:—

- (viii) Subsidiary Table 3·8—Immigration into urban areas.
- (ix) Subsidiary Table 3·9 (a)—Distribution into agricultural and non-agricultural classes, of the people living in towns with a population below 5,000 in which the agricultural population exceeds the non-agricultural population.
- (x) Subsidiary Table 3·9 (b)—Distribution into agricultural and non-agricultural classes, of the people living in towns with a population 5,000 and over where the agricultural population exceeds the non-agricultural population.



(xi) Subsidiary Table 3·10—Percentage of immigrants in urban areas.

(xii) Subsidiary Table 3·11— Sex-ratio in each town and in each ward of the cities.

11. The definition of towns and many other matters relating to the urban population and intimately connected with the discussion of rural problems have already been covered in the previous chapter and this Chapter should be read along with it to appreciate the whole problem of population study in the urban areas. The rural urban classification is, of course, of great significance in demographic studies. This is because the growth of population is vitally affected by the physical environment in which the population lives, the means of livelihood available in the different areas, and the facilities available for educational advancement and for the prevention and cure of diseases. In respect of all these matters, there is a significant difference between rural and urban areas. It is the existence of these conditions or their lack that should really determine the demarcation of local areas into villages and towns and not so much an absolute limit of population. According to this view, the limit of 5,000 which has generally been adopted in an arbitrary one, but on the whole it may be said to be a reasonable one, as it is very rarely that one comes across a place with a smaller population which really deserves to be treated as a town. The fundamental criterion for classification of a local area as a town is thus the existence of urban features, which can be judged by the way in which the houses are situated and how they have been built, and the availability of urban amenities such as a bazar where one could buy one's normal requirements throughout the year, and facilities for education, recreation and medical treatment. Naturally enough, in a real town, there will be many persons who provide, so to speak, the urban amenities, and their occupation will thus be largely of a non-agricultural character. It is for this reason that one normally finds in towns a higher proportion of non-agricultural classes.

12. Of the places which have been treated as towns, only 65 in Rajasthan and 1 in Ajmer, have a population less than 5,000, and about 8·3 and 1·4 per cent. of the total urban population of the Rajasthan and Ajmer States respectively, reside in such towns. In Rajasthan there are 24 towns with a total population of 97,651 (including 16 which have a population below 5,000 and 8 with a population above 5,000) in which the number of persons belonging to the agricultural classes exceeds the number belonging to the non-agricultural classes. They have to be treated as towns due to their size of population irrespective of their livelihood classification. Out of these 24 towns it will be seen that 12 towns are the headquarters of their respective tehsils. Other towns have their importance due to the fact that they are administered by municipalities or town boards and some are commercial distribution centres.

13. These towns cover only a small fraction of the urban population in the State. In a State which is still predominantly agricultural, it is not surprising to find that town dwellers in some rural towns are still predominantly agricultural. It is only in places where there has been a more appreciable industrial development or the place is a large trade centre serving a considerable area in the neighbourhood that we can expect the non-agricultural population to exceed the agricultural population.

14. It must be admitted that we have not insisted on any very high standard of urban features or amenities, while deciding the classification of towns, and there may be room for difference of opinion in particular cases. But, generally speaking, the people in the places, which have been classified as towns, live under conditions of greater physical comfort and they are better able to command facilities not only for the prevention and cure of diseases, but also for help in connection with maternity and child welfare. As already explained, this makes a significant difference and justifies the treatment of these places as towns. There are, however, a very few doubtful cases which I think should be looked into, at the next census, and the eligibility of these places to be continued as towns should be looked into thoroughly and settled. For example, there are 16 towns with a population below 5,000 and also having an agricultural

preponderance in population. Their names are given in Subsidiary Table 3·9 (a) together with their population classified into agricultural and non-agricultural classes. They are really villages. But being the head-quarters of tehsils, some of them are treated as towns and 'Sabla' in Dungarpur District having a population of 1,888 persons only, has been treated as a town because it has a Municipality. Even in towns, having a large preponderance of non-agricultural population, it has been found that the people are engaged there in stock raising, forestry and other industries of division "0" which are not the common occupations of the strictly urban people or urban areas but mainly rural activities. There are eight towns (shown in Subsidiary Table 3·9 (b) which have a population above 5,000, yet have agricultural preponderance in the population, they have to be treated as towns due to their size of population irrespective of their livelihood classification.

15. On the other side of the picture we have places not treated as towns so far, but which deserve consideration for treatment as towns, and these cases may also be looked into at the next census. In this connection, I would mention some important names. Others are given in Subsidiary Table 2·7 in Part I-B of the Report. All these places have a population of over 5,000 each.

<i>District.</i>	<i>Tehsil</i>	<i>Name of place.</i>
Jaipur	Jaipur	Bassi
Alwar	Bansur	Rampur
Pali	Bali	Bilaspur.
Bhilwara	Mandal	Mandal
Kotah	Chippa Barod	Chippa Barod.

But on the whole, I think the classification of places as towns has been satisfactory and that there are no errors which are likely to vitiate that classification seriously for purposes of demographic studies.

## SECTION 2.

### General distribution and distribution among towns classified by size of urban population.

According to the definition of a town or a city as adopted in the Census of 1951, in Rajasthan and Ajmer States, there are six cities and 212 towns in Rajasthan and one city and six towns in Ajmer. But if we adopt the standard International definition of a city, the number of cities in Rajasthan is only three. The remaining three cities will be treated as towns only and will thus swell their number by three. It we stick to the size or the population basis, and decide that places with a population below 5,000 have no right to be classed as town and that places with a population of 5,000 or over should be raised to the status of a town, the number of towns will come in Rajasthan to 165 and to 5 in Ajmer, because, the number of places which have now been treated as towns, but whose population is not 5,000 or above whose number is 65 in Rajasthan, will be reduced to the status of a village, and the number of villages with a population of 5,000 or above, which have now been treated as villages only, whose number is 12 will be added to the present number of towns. Thus there will be a net decrease by 53 to the present number of towns in Rajasthan and one in Ajmer. By adopting the criterion about the livelihood classification of population, (*i.e.*, preponderance of non-agricultural population) the number of towns in Rajasthan will come to 195. If both tests are made compulsory the number will come to 146 and in the case of Ajmer 5.

TABLE No. 117.

Number of Urban Units in certain States of India.

Name of State	No. of Cities	No. of towns
Rajasthan .. ..	6	212
Ajmer .. ..	1	6
Uttar Pradesh .. ..	30	437
Madhya Pradesh .. ..	2	138
Madhya Bharat .. ..	3	64
Bhopal .. ..	1	3
Vindhya Pradesh .. ..	1	63
Orissa .. ..	1	38
Madras .. ..	36	437
Travancore-Cochin .. ..	2	96
Bihar .. ..	5	108

2. The comparative position of Rajasthan and some States of India regarding the number of urban units has been shown in the inset Table 117 from which it is interesting to find that Rajasthan has a greater number of urban units than Madhya Bharat, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar.

TABLE No. 118.

Number of Urban Units in past decades.

Year	Rajasthan		Ajmer	
	Cities	Towns	Cities	Towns
1891	8	116	1	3
1901	8	123	1	3
1911	8	125	1	4
1921	10	132	1	4
1931	10	134	1	4
1941	12	138	1	4
1951	6	212	1	6

3. Comparison with previous censuses has been made in the inset Table No. 118. The figures show a fall in the number of cities in the decade 1941-50, which is due to the change of definition explained in Chapter II, Section 1. A comparatively greater increase in the number of towns in Rajasthan in the decade 1941-50 is due to the declaration of 70 villages as towns for the first time in this census, the amalgamation of Bhimganj Mandi town with

Kotah and the reduction of the status of Erinpura in Sirohi District from town to a village, due to the removal of Cantonment, thus giving a net balance of 68 towns including cities.

TABLE No. 119.

Distribution of Urban Units in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	No. of	
	Cities	Towns
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. ..	2	104
Dry Area Division .. ..	2	59
Hills Division .. ..	1	21
Plateau Division .. ..	1	28

4. These urban units are distributed in Natural Divisions as shown in the inset Table No. 119. East Rajasthan Plain Division contains the greatest number of towns and the Hills Division the least. From the 70 newly created towns, 38 towns are in East Rajasthan Plain Division, 15 are in Rajasthan Dry Area Division, 8 are in Hills Division and 9 towns are

in Plateau Division. The figures give a slight indication of the speed of urbanisation in the various Natural Divisions.

5. Coming to district level, we find that the only districts which contain cities are Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner, Udaipur, Kotah and Alwar. Districts having the largest number of towns are Jaipur, Bharatpur and Jhunjhunu in which there are 25, 17 and 15 towns respectively. Districts with the lowest number of urban units are Barmer, Banswara and Jaisalmer where their number is only 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

6. Exact figures of area of each individual city or town were not available, because most of the towns have not been surveyed. Some estimated figures were no doubt obtained from the municipal authorities in case of Municipal towns and the Tehsildars in case of non-municipal towns, but in making the estimates it was found that no uniform procedure was adopted by them. Some confined their attention strictly to the area of the municipal limits only, others extended it also to the cultivated fields etc., which belonged to the towns according to the practice of the Revenue Department. So far as practicable, scrutiny and corrections were made, so that the area figures should represent the area of the municipal limits only, but it is not unlikely that some mistakes might have escaped notice. Besides, even at the time of writing the report, area figures of some towns have not been made available. In their cases estimated figures have been made use of. But on the whole the estimates are near the truth and there is no harm in relying upon the figures for purposes of our discussion.

7. The total urban area in Rajasthan is estimated to be nearly 407 square miles *i.e.* only 0.3 per cent. of the total area and in Ajmer 35 square miles *i.e.* 1.5 per cent. Even, if the criterion of the strength of population or livelihood class of population is applied to urban units, as referred to above, the proportion of the urban area will not undergo much change

8. The distribution of urban area in Natural Divisions can be seen in the inset Table No. 120. It is interesting to note that although in respect of the total area Rajasthan Dry Area Division is the largest yet in respect of the urban area it comes second to the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

TABLE No. 120.

Distribution of urban area in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Urban Area in Sq. miles
East Rajasthan Plain Division	183
Dry Area Division ..	110
Hills Division .. ..	65
Plateau Division ..	49

9. Coming to district level, we find that the ratio of urban to total area of the district is highest in Districts Jaipur (1:114), Churu (1:181) and Kotah (1:184) and it is lowest in the Districts of Jalore, (1:3787), Pali (1:1194) and Sirohi (1:708).

10. The urban population of Rajasthan is 2,649,367 (*i.e.* 17.3 per cent. of the total population) and that of Ajmer is 297,764 (42.9 per cent.). But if the change of definition is adopted as discussed above, the urban population of Rajasthan on the basis of strength of population comes to 2,499,077 and that of Ajmer to 293,743 and on the basis of the livelihood classification of population it comes to 2,590,663 in Rajasthan and 297,764 in Ajmer. By applying both tests combined, the urban population of Rajasthan will come to 2,390,635 and that of Ajmer to 293,743.

TABLE No. 121.

Comparison of Rajasthan with other States of India regarding proportion of urban population.

State	Percentage of urban to total population
Rajasthan	17.3
Ajmer	42.9
Madhya Bharat	18.1
Bhopal	16.3
Vindhya Pradesh	8.6
Madhya Pradesh	13.5
Orissa	4.1
Uttar Pradesh	13.6
Madras	19.6
Bihar	6.7
Travancore-Cochin	16.0

11. A comparison with some States of India in this respect has been made in the inset Table No. 121. It is curious to find that Rajasthan is more urbanized than Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Travancore-Cochin.

12. The variation in urban population from decade to decade has been given in the inset Table No. 122.

TABLE No. 122.

Variation in the proportion of urban population from decade to decade.

Years	Percentage of urban to total population	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1901	14.1	30.4
1911	13.0	31.3
1921	13.3	36.9
1931	13.7	35.5
1941	14.3	36.7
1951	17.3	42.9

The facts of the effect of mortality due to the Chhapnia famine being greater on the rural than on the urban population and also that of the greater migration from rural to urban units to avoid the effect of famine, is reflected in the figures of 1901 in Rajasthan. The figures also show a steady rise in the urban population ratio since 1911, in Rajasthan and since 1901 in Ajmer, the rise being significantly high in the last decade 1941-50 which is mainly due to the declaration of 70 villages as towns for the first time in this census. The increase in the urban population of Natural Divisions due to the newly created towns has been shown in the Table No. 123 below:

TABLE No. 123.

Population of newly created towns in the Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Population of new towns.
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	168,741
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	60,570
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	35,352
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	36,807

TABLE No. 124.

## Distribution of urban population in Natural Division.

Natural Division.	Urban population.	Per cent.	
		to total urban population of Rajasthan.	Per cent. of urban population to total population.
1	2	3	4
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	1,239,295	46.8	18.8
Dry Area Division.	911,942	34.4	19.8
Rajasthan Hills Division.	217,266	8.2	10.4
Plateau Division.	280,864	10.6	14.0

13. The distribution of urban population in Natural Division can be seen in the inset Table No. 124. The Dry Area Division appears to be more urbanized even when compared to the East Rajasthan Plain Division as it contains a higher percentage of urban to general population when compared to other divisions. The Hills Division is the least. The figures in column 3 also show that as many as 46.8 p. c. of the total urban population of Rajasthan live in East Rajasthan Plain Division. Rajasthan Dry Area Division comes next in this respect with a percentage of 34.4 followed by Rajasthan Plateau Division (10.6) and Rajasthan Hills Division with 8.2 per cent. only.

14. To sum up, the urban population of Rajasthan is about 2.650 millions distributed in 218 towns, including the cities of Jaipur, Bikaner, Jodhpur, Alwar, Udaipur and Kotah. It is about 17.3 per cent. of the total population of the State. About one third (30.2 per cent.) of the total urban population resides in the six cities. The urban population of Ajmer is about 297,764 distributed in seven towns including the City of Ajmer and is about 42.9 per cent. of the total population of the State. About two-thirds (66.3) of the urban population of the State reside in Ajmer City only.

15. Coming to district level we find that the proportion of urban to total population is the highest in the Districts of Bikaner, Churu and Jodhpur being 45.1, 35.4 and 33.0 per cent. respectively and it is the lowest in Banswara, Jalore and Dungarpur Districts, the percentage being 5.5, 6.1 and 7.1 respectively.

TABLE No. 125.

## Urban Density.

State and Natural Division.	Average Urban Density
Rajasthan .. .. .	6,512
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	11,691
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	8,290
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	4,434
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	4,321
Ajmer .. .. .	8,507

16. The inset Table No. 125 depicts the relative position of Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions with respect to the average urban density. It will be noticed that the East Rajasthan Plain Division which is the most developed part of the State, has also the highest urban density in Rajasthan. Its total area is not so large as that of Rajasthan Dry Area Division but the urban area in this Division is the largest being 183 square miles. Similarly, although the proportion of urban to total population is not so high here as in the Dry Area Division yet in spite of the larger urban area the average urban density per square mile is as high as 11,691 as compared with 8,290 only, in the Dry Area Division.

This Natural Division contains the Cities of Jaipur and Alwar and almost half the number of towns including cities in the whole State (106 out of 218). The Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands next. Its urban area is 110 square miles which is larger than that

of the remaining two divisions and it contains as many as 61 towns including the Cities of Jodhpur and Bikaner which have a density of 6,951 and 3,778 persons per square mile respectively. The Plateau Division ranks third where the urban area is 65 square miles. It contains 29 towns including the City of Kotah, but the average urban density here is not as high as that in the Rajasthan Hills Division, being only 4,321 in the former against 4,434 in the latter. The Rajasthan Hills Division stands last, where the urban area is only 49 square miles. It contains only 22 towns including the City of Udaipur.

17. Amongst the districts those which have the highest urban density are Bharatpur and Alwar where the average urban density is 11,824 and 10,743 persons per square mile respectively. Those with the lowest urban density are Jaisalmer and Bundi where the density is 1,338 and 2,723 persons of urban population per square mile of urban area respectively.

18. In considering the question of urban density, it is to be remembered that many of the towns have grown up in small areas in a haphazard manner and some of them have extremely congested localities, which accounts for the high density figures in some of the smaller towns. There has been no planned development in the growth of cities, and they are nothing more than a conglomeration of buildings, mere unplanned mechanical extensions to the existing ugly urban centres.

19. "An analysis of census returns throws some light on this problem, though it does not reveal the whole picture. The outstanding facts are these: (1) some of the cities suffer densities scarcely known even in the heavy industrial nations of the world. (2) These densities are achieved despite an absence of tall, efficient apartment buildings, the bulk of the population living in houses of one or two storeys. (3) Most of the tenements contain only one room, with one or more families living huddled in this space. (4) In addition to extreme overcrowding, there is a notable absence of sanitary facilities and other conveniences. (5) The main compensation for such housing conditions lies in the tropical climate, which enables many people to spend most of their time out-of-doors. (6) The urban conditions, bad as they are, are little worse than those in the country; for this region has rural slums scarcely equalled elsewhere. (7) Some effort is being made to alleviate residential overcrowding, though it has not yet progressed far".

20. Cities vary widely in the extent of vacant land included in their boundaries; their densities cannot, therefore, be accurately compared. The figures in Table No. 126 below therefore should not be taken literally. It compares the condition of the cities in Rajasthan and Ajmer as found at the census of 1951 with that in the previous decades in the matter of density. The figures show how in Jaipur City the density fell from 48,060 in 1931 to only 7,032 persons per square mile in 1941 and rose again to 11,645 in 1951. Between 1931 and 1941 the authorities seem to have realised the necessity of extending the area of the city beyond the city walls which resulted in the fall in density figures. But in spite of the extension, the enormous growth in its population between 1941-50 has resulted in raising the density by more than 50 per cent. which is but natural, for, as we shall see in the next section, the population in the city has grown by 65.6 per cent. in the last decade. A similar extension in the area of Jodhpur and Bikaner between 1921-30 has avoided congestion in time. No such steps seem to have been taken in Kotah, where the density now is greater even than that in Jaipur, and the same appears to be the case in Alwar where the density is nearly as high as that in Jaipur. The extremely low figure of density in Alwar City in 1911 (2,950), and a sudden jump in 1921 to 15,761, excites curiosity, but no satisfactory explanation is available. In Ajmer City the density is steadily increasing.



TABLE No. 126.

Variation in density of cities from decade to decade.

Name of City	Persons per square mile				
	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
Jaipur City ..	45,699	40,069	48,060	7,032	11,645
Jodhpur City ..	31,191	27,215	3,644	4,875	6,951
Bikaner City ..	13,957	13,882	2,772	4,104	3,778
Udaipur City ..	4,131	4,314	5,403	7,018	9,434
Kotah City ..	7,798	7,549	9,469	8,865	12,816
Alwar City ..	2,950	15,761	10,912	10,829	11,574
Ajmer City ..	6,677	3,193	7,031	8,662	11,567

21. The question of number of houses in the urban areas, including the cities, will be considered in Chapter VI, but it may be mentioned here that although the average density of urban population in the Jaipur City is smaller than that in Kotah City, the average number of persons per house in the Jaipur City is about 12 compared to about 11 only in Kotah City.

TABLE No. 127.

Density of urban wards of certain cities.

Ward No.	Density per square mile	
	Udaipur City	Alwar City
I ..	22,343	51,842
II ..	117,620	40,685
III ..	134,095	64,699
IV ..	81,588	65,550
V ..	139,033	19,490
VI ..	142,424	14,104
VII ..	43,916	1,723
VIII ..	29,080	14,839
IX ..	16,136	6,630
X ..	..	7,927

square mile. This means that an average person in this Ward gets only 21.7 square yards of land for his accommodation. In Alwar, which is the smallest city in Rajasthan, Ward No. IV has a population of 5,244 persons in an area of 0.08 sq. mile. The density works out at 65,550 persons per square mile.

22. As a refinement on over-all density, the density by Wards in different cities can be compared.

In spite of all efforts, reliable figures of area by Wards of cities could not be made available for any except the Udaipur and Alwar Cities. A comparison has therefore been made in respect of them only in marginal Table No. 127 in which the density on the populated portions only has been worked out leaving the area under big lakes and gardens etc. out of consideration. The figures show alarming results. Nobody would ever have imagined that Ward No. VI of Udaipur City will be denser even than what London was in 1931. Ward No. VI has got a population of 9,400 persons in an area of 0.066 sq. mile only. It brings the density to 142,424 persons per

23. Lest it be assumed that crowded living is confined to the cities, it must be stated that many rural villages exhibit an almost equal closeness of settlement. Although exact figures are hard to find, the general view is that the occupied land in villages possesses high density. Even in tiny hamlets, "The houses are as closely packed together as in the main (village) site. If village densities were calculated on the area of the inhabited site or sites, and not on that of the site plus the village lands, they would in many cases be greater than those of any town. Only in the heart of the larger cities, where two and three-storeyed houses may be found, are human beings herded together on a scale which is not general all over the country"<sup>1</sup>

24. To check this last statement, the figures of area, of the inhabited sites in villages

TABLE No. 128.

Density in typical villages.

Name of District	Name of Tehsil	Name of village	Persons per Acre
Bharatpur	Deeg	Sinsini	328
Sirohi	Bhawari	Bhawari	297
Jhalawar	Bakani	Bakani	266
Bhilwara	Jahazpur	Ropan <sup>1</sup>	245
Chittorgarh	Gangrar	Basi	224
Udaipur	Rajsamand	Rajnagar	141
Kotah	Chippa	Chippa	134
	Barod	Barod	
Jaipur	Kot Putli	Dantil	120

acre is the equivalent of 64,000 persons per square mile, one can see that the rural density of habitation sites is amazing. Not all of the villages, and certainly not all towns, conform to this pattern of high residential density, but many of them do.

25. The relatively high crowding in the towns and villages would be partly ameliorated

TABLE No. 129.

Average number of persons per house from decade to decade.

Year	Persons per house in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1921	4.3	4.2
1931	4.6	4.5
1941	5.8	5.9
1951	6.0	5.8

Table No. 129. Since the change of definition would be toward regarding a smaller unit as the "house" limited more and more to one family (which itself is becoming smaller), the conclusion may be drawn that the number of houses is not increasing as fast as the number of people.

26. Connected with such housing conditions, both as cause and as effect is the floating, or homeless, population of the cities. The mild climate that characterizes most of this region combined with the meagre standard of living, makes it possible for many individuals to avoid the inconvenience of a crowded house and confiscatory rent altogether. "These persons are not all tramps by any means; the majority indeed are ordinary citizens in the possession of everything but a roof. Such a possession has no great inducement for a population of floating labour in a mild and pleasant climate in a city where houses are scarce and rents often exorbitant."<sup>1</sup>

believed to be densely populated in certain representative tehsils, were collected and their densities worked out. The results are given in the marginal Table No. 128. The average density of the most thickly settled villages is less than that of the city wards, but particular villages equal or even exceed the urban ward densities. The range is greater in the city than in the village. In Western eyes the village densities must seem phenomenal. Deeg Tehsil of Bharatpur District produces one village-site of 9.34 acres on which 3,064 people are packed, equivalent to 328 per acre. That is to say, an average man gets less than 15 square yards of land for his accommodation. Another village Bhawari, in the Tehsil of the same name of Sirohi District, has 2,377 people on 8 acres, or 297 persons per acre. When it is realised that a density of 100 persons per

**Housing.** if housing were different. If houses were tall and efficiently arranged the inconvenience of large numbers per acre would be largely overcome. But the residential buildings are nearly all one or two storeyed. The large numbers per acre therefore mean extremely crowded housing. We shall review in Chapter VI the figures on average number of persons per house. Although they are not strictly comparable from one census to another, because of changing definitions, they are roughly comparable since 1921 and they reveal a tendency for the number of persons per house to rise, as shown in the marginal

27. The urban housing situation cannot be due to the speed of urbanization, or to the inevitable influence of economic progress, rather, like many other characteristics of this region, it is due to the social structure combined with the politico-economic situation. Our economy has been predominantly rural and the social structure reflects this fact. The city and its industry, science, and finance, are alien to the regions folkways and mores. As a result the city wears an aspect of impermanence, and there are few standards that are accepted as fundamental necessities of existence. The poverty of the masses has made good housing impossible as an investment. The increasing population has deterred a rise in the standard of living, which in turn has prevented any tendency towards a decrease in the rate of population increase. The housing situation is thus a part of the vicious circle. Industrialisation and urbanization in a situation of this sort are extremely costly.

28. Towns have been divided into six classes according to their population, as shown in Table No. 130 below, which gives the population (actual and percentage) residing in each class of towns:

**Distribution of urban population among towns classified by size of Urban population.**

TABLE No. 130.

**Distribution of Urban population (actual and percentage) residing in different classes of town.**

Class of town	No. of towns		Percentage of total urban population		Actual population of towns of each class	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer	Rajasthan	Ajmer	Rajasthan	Ajmer
I	2	3	4	5	6	7
I (100,000 and over) ..	3	1	22.2	66.0	588,690	196,636
II (50,000 to 100,000) ..	3	1	8.0	17.2	212,596	51,054
III (20,000 to 50,000) ..	19	1	20.4	8.2	540,197	24,504
IV (10,000 to 20,000) ..	36	..	17.9	..	473,180	..
V (5,000 to 10,000) ..	92	3	23.2	7.2	614,649	21,552
VI (under 5,000) ..	65	1	8.3	1.4	219,785	4,021
Total ..	218	7	100.0	100.0	2,649,367	297,764

The figures show the concentration of urban population in the larger categories of towns in the State. In Rajasthan the six towns of Classes I and II contain 30.2 per cent of the entire urban population. Towns of Classes III and IV contain about 20.4 per cent and 17.9 per cent of the population respectively, although the number of towns in Class IV is nearly double the number in class III. The figures of Ajmer show a still higher concentration in bigger towns. The two towns of Classes I and II contain 83.1 per cent of the entire urban population. Towns of Classes III and V contain only about 8.2 and 7.2 per cent of the population respectively, although the number of towns in Class V is three times the number in Class III. There is no town in Ajmer in Class IV. The average population per town in each of these six classes is as specified below in Table No. 131.

TABLE No. 131.

Average population per town of each class.

Class	Average population per town in the class in column 1.	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
I 100,000 and over .. ..	196,320	196,633
II 50,000 to 100,000 .. ..	70,865	51,054
III 20,000 to 50,000 .. ..	28,431	24,504
IV 10,000 to 20,000 .. ..	13,144	Nil
V 5,000 to 10,000 .. ..	6,681	7,184
VI under 5,000 .. ..	3,381	4,021

29. Subsidiary Table 3·1 in Part I-B of the Report gives the distribution of the urban population in the State and its different parts by the size of towns. Distribution of urban population in the Natural Divisions and Districts. and we will now proceed to study this distribution by Natural Divisions and Districts.

30. In this Division about 188 people per thousand of general population live in towns.

TABLE No. 132.

Number per thousand of urban population living in towns of different classes in East Rajasthan Plain Division

Class of Towns	Number of towns of each class	Number per thousand of urban population
20,000 and over ..	11	503
10,000 to 20,000 ..	15	161
5,000 to 10,000 ..	44	236
Under 5,000 ..	36	100

East Rajasthan Plain Division.

The distribution of the population per thousand of urban population in

the towns of different classes is given in Table No. 132. More than half of the urban population of this Division live in the bigger towns (20,000 and over). There are 106 towns in the Division including two cities of which Jaipur City is the largest and the most important. It has a density of 11,645 persons per square mile as observed above. Subsidiary Table 6·15 in Part I-B of the Report gives the number of occupied houses in each Ward of the Jaipur City and the average number of persons residing per house. With the exception of Wards 2, 3 and 6 where as many as 21, 17 and 23 persons respectively reside per house, in the remaining Wards of the city the

distribution is fairly uniform, about 12 persons per house only.

31. The detailed distribution and density of the urban population in the different districts will be found in Subsidiary Tables 3·1 and 3·2 in Part I-B of the Report. The most urbanized district in this Division is Jaipur which has an urban density of 8,319 persons per square mile and the percentage of urban to general population is 28·3. It has got 26 towns of which Jaipur City belongs to Class I, Kishangarh belongs to Class III. Four towns belong to Class IV and 12 to Class V. The remaining 8 towns belong to Class VI. Next in importance, in this Division

is the District Jhunjhunu which has an urban density of 5,155 persons per square mile, and the percentage of urban to general population is 23·8. There are 15 towns in it of which two belong to Class III, two to Class IV, 9 to Class V and the remaining two to Class VI. Third in importance is District Sikar which has an urban density of 4,890 persons per square mile and the percentage of urban to general population is 21·9. It contains 11 towns of which two belong to Class III, two to Class IV and seven to Class V. The District of Bhilwara is peculiar in itself. It has an urban density as high as 10,016 persons per square mile, but the percentage of urban to general population is only 9·3. Of the 7 towns in this district one belongs to Class III, one to Class IV, three to Class V and the remaining two belong to Class VI.

32. In this Division there are 61 towns including two Cities, Jodhpur and Bikaner. About 198 persons per thousand of general population live in them. The distribution of population per thousand of urban population in the towns of different classes is given below in Table No. 133.

**Rajasthan Dry Area Division.**

TABLE No. 133.

Number per thousand of urban population living in towns of different classes in Rajasthan Dry Area Division.

Class of Towns	Number of towns of each class	Number per thousand of urban population.
20,000 and over .. .. .	10	574
10,000 to 20,000 .. .. .	13	186
5,000 to 10,000 .. .. .	25	192
Under 5,000 .. .. .	13	51

Here also more than half of the urban population is found to be living in the biggest towns of this Division (20,000 and over). Jodhpur and Bikaner were the capitals of important integrating States and also contain big Railway Establishments.

33. The most urbanized district in this division is Bikaner. Although the urban density here is only 3,778 persons per square mile, yet the percentage of urban to general population is as high as 45·1. It has got 7 towns of which Bikaner City belongs to Class I, three belong to Class V and three to Class VI. Next in importance in this Division is the District Churu which has also not got a very high urban density (only 4,876 persons per square mile) yet the percentage of urban to general population there is high enough (35·4). It has got 11 towns of which four belong to Class III, three to Class IV, three to Class V and the remaining one belongs to Class VI. Jodhpur District stands as low as third in importance in this Division. Although it has the highest urban density of 9,960 persons per square mile, yet the percentage of urban to general population is only 33·0. It contains 6 towns of which one belongs to Class I, three to Class IV and two belong to Class V. The last in importance is the District Jalore, which has also got an urban density as high as 9,129 persons per square mile, yet the percentage of urban to general population is only 6·1. It contains four towns of which two belong to Class V, and two to Class VI.

34. In this Division there are 22 towns including Udaipur City. About 104 persons per thousand of the general population live in towns. The distribution per thousand of urban population in the towns of different classes is as shown in the following Table No. 134.

**Rajasthan Hills Division.**

TABLE No. 134.

Number per thousand of urban population living in towns of different classes in Rajasthan Hills Division.

Class of Towns	Number of towns of each class	Number per thousand of urban population.
20,000 and over .. .. .	1	412
10,000 to 20,000 .. .. .	3	184
5,000 to 10,000 .. .. .	10	300
Under 5,000 .. .. .	8	104

Here the proportion of persons living in biggest towns (20,000 and over) is a little less than half being 41 per cent only, while 30 per cent of them live in towns of Class V. The only important urban area is Udaipur City which owes its importance to being the capital of the premier State of Rajputana and its picturesque lakes and hills decorated by palaces.

35. The most urbanized district in this Division is Udaipur which has an urban density of 8,715 persons per square mile, and the percentage of urban to general population is 12.4. It has got 12 towns of which Udaipur City belongs to Class II, one town belongs to Class IV, six to Class V and the remaining four belong to Class VI. Next in importance in this Division is the District of Sirohi which has an urban density of 9,042 persons per square mile, and the percentage of urban to general population is 11.7. It has got 4 towns of which one belongs to Class IV, two to Class V and one to Class VI. Third in importance in this Division is the District of Dungarpur which has an urban density of 2,782 persons per square mile and the percentage of urban to general population is 7.1. It contains 4 towns of which two belong to Class V, and two to Class VI. The least in importance is the District of Banswara which has an urban density of 3,937 persons per square mile. The percentage of urban to general population is 5.5. It has got two towns of which one belongs to Class IV and the other to Class VI.

36. There are 29 towns in this Division, including the Kotah City, in which about 140 persons per thousand of the general population live. The distribution per thousand of urban population in the towns of different classes is shown in the following Table No. 135.

TABLE No. 135.

Number per thousand of urban population living in towns of different classes in Rajasthan Plateau Division.

Class of Towns	Number of towns of each class	Number per thousand of urban population
20,000 and over .. .. .	3	385
10,000 to 20,000 .. .. .	5	229
5,000 to 10,000 .. .. .	13	291
Under 5,000 .. .. .	8	95

Here also the concentration in bigger towns is visible but not so prominent as in the other Divisions observed above. The percentage of urban population living in towns with the population of 20,000 and over is only 38 while the corresponding percentage of those living in towns with the population between 10,000 and 20,000 is also as high as 22.9 and it is as high as 29.1 in towns of Class V (5,000 to 10,000).

37. The most urbanised district in this division is Bundi which has an urban density as low as 2,723 persons per square mile, yet the percentage of urban to general population is fairly high 17.0. It has got 6 towns of which one belongs to Class III, two to Class V and three to Class VI. Next in importance in this Division is the District Kotah which has a higher urban density of 4,854 persons per square mile, but the percentage of urban to general population is lower, being 16.6. It has got 8 towns of which one belongs to Class II, one to Class III, one to Class IV, four belong to Class V and one belongs to Class VI. Third in importance in this Division is the District Jhalawar which has a still higher urban density of 8,347 persons per square mile, yet the percentage of urban to general population is 11.5 only. It contains 8 towns of which one belongs to Class IV, three to Class V and four belong to Class VI. The least in importance is the District of Chittorgarh which has an urban density of 6,697 persons per square mile. The percentage of urban to general population is 10.7. It has got 7 towns of which three belong to Class IV, and four to Class V.

### SECTION 3.

#### Growth.

1. In considering the growth of populations in the urban areas, it is to be remembered that the number of towns have varied from census to census. Certain places, which are regarded as villages at one census, have been treated as towns in subsequent censuses. Similarly, at times, certain towns of a particular census have been classed as villages in a subsequent census on the ground that they no longer had urban characteristics to justify their inclusion in the urban category. It is, therefore, proposed to consider the growth of the towns in two different ways. First, the growth of the urban areas will be considered on the basis of the census figures for the areas regarded as urban during the census, irrespective of the individual places comprising these areas. Subsequently, the growth of specific urban places in each Natural division will be traced to study their development.

2. The variation in the number of urban units from decade to decade has been seen in Table No. 118 para 3 of Section 2. Subsidiary Table 3.3 in Part I-B of the Report, gives the mean decennial growth rates of the urban population during the last three decades. It will be observed that for Rajasthan and Ajmer the growth has been as follows:—

TABLE No. 136.

Mean decennial growth rate of the Urban Population in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Decade	Mean decennial growth rate	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1921-30	16.1	9.0
1931-40	20.3	18.1
1941-50	33.1	32.6

In appreciating these figures, it has to be remembered that the percentages are with reference to the population in the places treated as towns at each of the censuses concerned, and that the figures do not make any allowance for the deletion of any towns from the previous list or for inclusion of any new towns at a later census. But these changes, as will have been seen from what has been said earlier in this chapter, have not been of an order to make any serious difference to the conclusions that may be drawn from these figures.



3. In Table No. 104 in the previous Chapter II Section 2 para 18 we have traced the growth of urban population in Rajasthan and Ajmer side by side with the rural population from 1901, when the urban population was only 14.1 per cent. of the total population in Rajasthan and 30.4 p. c. in Ajmer. From 1901 upto 1931, this percentage fluctuated in Rajasthan between 13.0 and 14.1 and in Ajmer between 30.4 and 36.9. In 1941, it rose to 14.3 in Rajasthan and fell to 36.7 in Ajmer, and in 1951 it is now 17.3 per cent. of the total population in Rajasthan, corresponding to the condition in Japan in 1893, or in the Soviet Far East in 1880, and it is as high as 42.9 in Ajmer. The noteworthy point is that during the last half century the growth rate of our urban population was never so high in any decade as it was in the last decade and with the inevitable industrial development of the State possessing rich mineral and other natural resources, the growth rate is bound to increase rapidly in course of time. There has been a more rapid growth in urbanization in Ajmer State. This is not beyond expectation. Ajmer is a small State having a large city like Ajmer, which accommodates more than one-fourth of the total population of the State. Therefore, with the fall and rise in the population of Ajmer City, the entire urban population is affected. Due to commercial and administrative facilities, people from rural areas generally migrated to the city and settled there. Beawar town is also developing fast being an industrial town; consequently the urban population in Ajmer State is also bound to increase rapidly in future.

4. With a view to appreciate clearly how the different classes of towns mentioned in the Growth of towns of different classes. previous section have been growing, it is desirable to trace the growth of each class during the last 50 years as shown in Table No. 137 below:—

TABLE No. 137.

Percentage variation of population in different classes of towns in Rajasthan and Ajmer from 1901 to 1951.

Class of Town	Net variation per cent since 1901 (+) or (-)	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
I over 100,000 ..	+ 97.14	+ 166.29
II 50,000 to 100,000 ..	+ 53.73	+ 132.83
III 20,000 to 50,000 ..	+ 87.30	+ 8.94
IV 10,000 to 20,000 ..	+ 57.27	No town in this class.
V 5,000 to 10,000 ..	+ 93.33	+ 205.57
VI under 5,000 ..	+ 316.29	- 1.86

5. A broad conclusion which can be drawn from these figures is that in Rajasthan, leaving aside towns in Class VI in which the growth is due mostly to the inclusion of new places in that category from villages, the largest growth is to be found amongst the class of towns with the largest population. The towns of Class VI have shown a percentage increase of over 316, while those of Class I have shown an increase of over 97 per cent. during the last 50 years. Towns of Class III have shown a similar increase of over 87 per cent. while those of Class II have increased by 53 per cent. The remaining two Classes IV and V show 57 and 93 per cent. increase in the population. This increase is to be considered along with the facts that certain places have been recorded as towns at certain censuses and as villages at others as pointed out before. Again, in some cases the population of a particular town has increased and it is pushed up in the higher category. Thus, for example, in 1901 Jaipur was the only city in Class I in the State. In 1941, Jodhpur and Bikaner were pushed up from Class II to Class I. Similarly, in 1941, there were only 13 towns of Class III, out of which, only Kotah City has now gone up in Class II, and as many as 7 other towns, have stepped into Class III from IV. In Ajmer, it was in 1921, that Ajmer City was pushed to Class I from Class II. This time, (1951 Census), Beawar town has been promoted from III Class to II Class and Nasirabad has risen to III Class from Class IV. Kekri

and Deoli towns remain where they were, while Bijainagar and Pushkar have for the first time been added in 1951 Census, to the list of towns in the Ajmer State. The greatest increase is seen in Class V due to the two newly declared towns Bijainagar and Pushkar. Ajmer City also shows a rapid growth as shown in the Table No. 126 in the previous section. Beawar town cannot be forgotten as it shows about 132.83 per cent. of growth. The least growth is seen in towns of Class III *i.e.*, 8.94 per cent. There is a slight fall in Class VI, *i.e.*, 1.86 per cent. only, due perhaps to the movement of the army from Deoli Cantt.

6. In examining the figures, in Table No. 137 above it has to be remembered that this Subsidiary Table 3.4 makes no allowance for new additions to the list of towns, deletions or even for transfers of towns placed in a particular class at one census which have qualified for a different class at a later census. It can, however, be said that these complications do not affect the clear indication of the table that barring Class VI the largest growth has been in the topmost class, *i.e.*, in the large cities, which is understandable for reasons, which have already been mentioned. These large cities have not only more attraction for the people who want to move into towns, but also have, within their limits, a larger capacity to absorb some more population and provide means of livelihood for them, than smaller towns. Trade inevitably develops with the growth of towns which increases its attraction for people and also its capacity to absorb a larger population, and there is often also the growth of industries, which are most conveniently located in large towns, rather than in small towns. Commerce and industry react on each other and they thrive where there is a large population, as in these large towns, and good communications.

7. What has been stated above is confirmed by the figures given in the Table No. 138 below, which has been compiled differently, *i.e.*, to be exact, by comparing, for each class, the growth of population of all the towns in Rajasthan, which were treated as such at the 1921 Census, ignoring the changes in their classification during the subsequent decades.

TABLE No. 138.

Growth of population in places treated as towns in 1921 by classes from 1921 to 1951.

Class of Towns.	Percentage of variation increase (+)			
	1921-30	1931-40	1941-50	1921-50
1	2	3	4	5
Class I over 100,000	18.9	16.9	65.6	129.9
Class II 50,000 to 100,000	26.4	40.6	17.2	108.4
Class III 20,000 to 50,000	19.5	25.9	25.9	70.3
Class IV 10,000 to 20,000	18.9	19.8	15.4	64.4

These figures indicate clearly, not only that there has been an appreciable increase of population every decade, but that there is a marked trend for the towns in Class I to grow at a more rapid pace than the towns in the other classes and that this trend was exhibited in a spectacular manner during the decade 1941-50.

8. Main Table A-IV (Towns classified by population with variation since 1901) shows how each of the 218 towns of the Rajasthan State, including the six cities, and 7 towns of Ajmer, including Ajmer City, have grown from decade to decade during the last half century. We will proceed to study the growth of some of the important towns in each Natural Division after reviewing the growth in the Division as a whole.

9. Subsidiary Table 3·3 gives the mean decennial growth rates of urban population in the Natural Divisions and the districts during the last three decades. **The East Rajasthan Plain Division.** It will be noticed that the growth rate, in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, has been fairly large compared to the other three divisions during the last two decades. In 1921-30 it was as low as 12·2 and showed only a slight rise to 13·5 in 1931-40, but suddenly it rose upto 35·8 in 1941-50. The main cause of this rapid increase in the urban population is the rapid growth of towns in Bhilwara, Jaipur and Sawai Madhopur Districts. The development of Jaipur City is connected with this rapid growth due to its having been made the capital of Rajasthan and thereby also giving a stimulus to its industrial and commercial activities. The total population of Jaipur City according to the 1951 Census, is 291,130. The population of the same city in 1901 was only 166,567. It will, therefore, be seen that actually the population of the city of Jaipur has increased about 75 per cent. A perusal of the Main Table A-IV, mentioned above, will show how the largest increase has taken place since 1931. In other words, the rapid urbanization has taken place during the last 20 years, and specially in the last decade it shows an increase of 115,320 persons. The gloomy future predicted about Jaipur City in 1921 has by a favourable cycle of events been turned into an exceptionally bright one.

10. Next to Jaipur, the biggest town in this division is Alwar with a population of 57,868 persons. Its population in 1901 was 56,771. Table A-IV, mentioned above, shows a fall in population at the Census of 1911. In respect of 1911 figures, Mr. Kealy held that the decline in that decade was mostly artificial, due to an outbreak of plague, at the time of the census, which drove a great many of the inhabitants away from the city. Since 1921 it shows a slow but steady rise. The merger of the State has taken away from Alwar the status of being the capital of a State. In the city there is a small pottery and porcelain factory, the only factory of its kind in Rajasthan, also a factory for paints and varnishes which is also the only one in Rajasthan. It has also got an industry of very great potentiality namely the working of Barytes and its derivatives. This ore (excepting in a certain area in Madras) is not found anywhere else in India. The copper ores of this place are said to be very rich in the percentage of copper. If all these industries, towards which the attention of the Director of Industries, Government of Rajasthan, has been attracted, are developed in near future, there are chances for a further rapid growth in the population of this city.

11. Sikar with a population of 44,140 is the third town of this Division. Its population was 21,523 in 1901. It has more than doubled itself, the percentage growth being 104·9. A careful perusal of Table A-IV, showing classification of the towns by population with variations since 1901, shows that almost all the towns of this Division have shown fair increase in population during the last 50 years. The bigger towns have shown quite a large increase, indicating as if the very fact of their being large has contributed, to a certain extent, to the larger percentage increase. Some of the smaller towns have also shown remarkable development. The case of Bhilwara town, in the Bhilwara District, is perhaps most remarkable. This town with a population of 10,346 in 1901 now possesses a population of 29,668 (almost treble in half a century). Development of road and rail transport, the establishment of textile mills and mica industries in this district head-quarters town has helped considerably in its development. A perusal of Main Table A-V (Towns arranged territorially with population by livelihood classes), given in Part II-A of the Report shows that industrial and commercial activities etc., claim about 58 per cent. of the population of this town.

12. The other important town of this division is Bharatpur. Till recently it was the capital of former Bharatpur State. It shows a decrease of about 6,280 persons during last 50 years. This decrease, in the population of the capital town of former Bharatpur State, again confirms the belief expressed in the previous chapter that Bharatpur is sending its population towards Uttar Pradesh or we can say that inspite of having received a large number of displaced persons, this town is being deserted. The fact and reasons of this decline in the population of Bharatpur

town have been discussed at great length by Mr. Kealy in the 1911 Census Report. They need not be repeated here. Those interested are requested to refer to pages 21 to 26 of the said report. The Superintendent of Census Operations 1921 lays down in his report: "The decline in this city since 1881, in the words of Mr. Kealy was more marked than in any other city or capital town till 1911, and the causes thereof have been dealt with at length in the last report. The present figures do not appear to have been affected by those causes as they show a marked progress in so far as the rate of decline has appreciably fallen, if the ravages of influenza were left out of account. The figures would indicate a gain over 1911, rather than a loss. It can further be asserted with some degree of satisfaction that the drop this time in the city (only one per cent.), is smaller than in the State itself as a whole and in most of the cities which were equally affected by the scourge. This is in harmony with the general axiom that in cities and large towns, decrease in population is always lower than in the State or districts containing them, as such places invariably attract people from outside."

13. Tonk is another important town. It occupies the fourth position among the towns in this Division, but shows the least growth (excluding Bharatpur town which as we have seen above shows a decline in the growth of population). It has increased by only 4,074 persons during the last 50 years. Its population in 1901 was 38,759 and in 1941 it was 38,650, *i. e.* almost the same. It thus showed no sign of increment during 40 years. The last decade has shown an increase of 4,183 persons, the population now being 42,833. The following quotation from the 1921 Census Report throws light on the previous history of the growth of this town. "The city has been showing a decline continually since 1891, varying from nearly 10 to 16 per cent. The loss has been the least in this decade, being 10.3 per cent. but it amounts to 25.4 since 1881 or one-fourth of the population has been swept away in 30 years. The decrease in the population of the whole State in this decade, has been only 5 per cent. while that of the city twice as much. This depletion in every successive decade is a matter of concern. The city shows, 5,296 deaths against 2,381 births during the decade. The excess of deaths over births was 2,915."

14. The mean decennial growth rate of the urban population during the last three decades of this Natural Division has been comparatively the smallest. It was 23.3 in 1921-30, 30.3 in 1931-40 and 27.5 in 1941-50. There are two cities in this Division, Jodhpur and Bikaner of Class I. Jodhpur had a population of 79,109 in 1901 and it has now become a city with a population of 180,717. Bikaner had a population of only 53,075 in 1901 and it has now 117,113 persons. The importance of Jodhpur as having a huge Railway establishment and a Military training centre is well-known. The third town from the point of view of population in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division is Churu with a population of 40,047. It had a population of only 15,675 persons in 1901. Ganganagar which had a population of only 1,700 persons in 1911 is now proud of possessing 36,437 persons. It has increased rapidly to twenty times in 40 years, but only after the construction of the Gang Canal which made it an important centre of irrigated land for agriculture. Ganganagar opened the door for immigration from the various States of India and chiefly from Punjab. The Government of Rajasthan has also colonized in this district nearly one-third of the total number of displaced persons who settled in this State. Bikaner Division is mostly a desert. Whatever agriculture does exist is found in this district, of which the town is the only distributing centre. In this Division, towns with a population between 20,000 and 50,000 are eight in number. Of these, six, namely Churu, Ganganagar, Sardar Shahr, Sujargarh, Nagaur and Barmer have shown an increase by more than 150 per cent. in the last 50 years. The remaining two towns namely Ratangarh and Pali have more than doubled during the same period. There are 13 towns in this division with a population between 10,000 and 20,000. They are not growing with such rapid speed but their percentage is fairly high as the Main Table A-IV published in Report Part II-A will show.

15. The mean decennial growth rate of urban population of these Natural Divisions during the last three decades has been given in Table No. 139.

**The Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions.**

TABLE No 139.

Mean decennial growth rate of urban population in Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions.

Decade	Mean decennial growth rate in	
	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division
1	2	3
1921—30	13·0	15·4
1931—40	17·9	19·0
1941—50	43·1	32·3

16. The figures show that the mean decennial growth rate in these divisions is higher than that of the East Rajasthan Plain and Dry Area Divisions, during the last two decades, which is mainly due to the fact that certain places have newly been raised to the status of a town in this census. Actually as pointed out in the previous section, these are comparatively backward parts of the State, where there are no large industries in the towns except the cement works at Lakheri. A perusal of Table 140 given below, which is derived from Subsidiary Table 3·6 in Part I-B of the Report, will clearly show that only 26·4 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) reside in the towns of Hills Division and 35·3 per cent. in those of the Plateau Division as compared to the average of 38·0 per cent. for the State as a whole, 40·4 per cent. for the Plain Division and 40·0 for Dry Area Division.

TABLE No. 140.

Number per 1,000 of the General population belonging to Livelihood Class V who live in Towns

State and Natural Divisions	Number per 1,000 of general population belonging to Livelihood Class V who live in towns
Rajasthan State	380
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	404
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	400
Rajasthan Hills Division	264
Rajasthan Plateau Division	353
Ajmer	687

17. Of all the urban places in the Rajasthan Hills Division, the development of Udaipur City has been very notable although it has not been so fast as that of some towns in other Divisions. It shows a growth of 90 per cent. during last 50 years, its population in 1901 was 47,863 and now, in 1951, it is 89,621 persons. The following extract from the Census Report of Rajputana, 1911, explains the conditions 40 years ago. "There is nothing in the way of industries or anything else to attract outsiders; education and administration are both very backward; and it seems improbable under present condition that the city will recover its position of 1881. The Udaipur-Chittorgarh Railway which was opened in 1898, though it has brought the beauties of this picturesque spot within easy reach of all, has assisted possibly in attracting its inhabitants to other places". These observations viewed with the figures of 1951 Census.

show how the improvement in administration, etc., since 1911, specially in the last decade, have resulted in an unexpected increase in the population of this city. As has already been explained above, this is the most backward part of the State and has no industrial development. It is rich in mineral products. But they are lying deposited in the bosom of earth for the last several centuries and may remain there for many years to come. It is rich in forests which were till recently not properly worked. The only source for the income of the people is agriculture and export of raw materials to other parts of the State. Other important towns are Nathdwara, which owes its importance to the shrine of Shrinathji, Sirohi, Dungarpur and Banswara all of which were capitals of former States in Rajputana. It is expected that with the development of the mineral and forest resources of this Division, there are chances for the rapid growth of urban population in this Division in the near future.

18. The notable growth in the Plateau Division has been in Kotah City which shows 95 per cent. growth during 50 years. Its population in 1901 was 33,657 and now it is 65,107 persons. This is the only town in this Division which has shown this type of high growth. Other towns are also growing fairly rapidly and the towns of Kotah District will show a more rapid growth than other towns of the Division in near future as Hydro-electric Scheme and Chambal Project will attract immigrants from other parts of the State and adjacent States, chiefly from Madhya Bharat. Other important towns in this Division are Bundi, Jhalawar and Chittorgarh which are district headquarters. The town Lakheri Cement Works, gives hopes for a rapid growth of population due to increasing demand of cement.

19. The figures for individual districts cannot be taken at their face value, in view of the changes in the number of towns at each census referred to above, and it is not therefore worthwhile discussing these figures in detail. The large figures noticed in the case of some districts are sufficiently explained by the tremendous growth in some towns, there is no room for doubt however, as to the marked jump in urbanization during the decade 1941-50. In fact, conditions have been quite favourable for urbanization since 1921 and there was an appreciable increase, inspite of the economic depression which commenced in 1930-31 and which persisted till the commencement of World War II. During the decade 1941-50, there have been some special factors in operation, as already explained, accelerating the pace of urbanization.

20. The normal census definition of a city and its relaxation in Rajasthan to include towns with a population of 50,000 and above, have been discussed in para 7 Section 1 of Chapter II and referred to in para 1 Section 2 of this Chapter. Subsidiary Table 3-5 gives statistics about the population of cities. It shows that Jaipur is the biggest city in Rajasthan, Jodhpur comes next and Bikaner ranks third, Udaipur stands fourth, Kotah comes next to Udaipur while Alwar stands the last.

21. In Rajasthan, Jaipur is the biggest city and being the capital is developing rapidly.

TABLE No. 141.

Growth of cities.

Year	Persons	
	Jaipur	Ajmer
1901	166,567	73,839
1911	143,498	86,222
1921	126,607	113,512
1931	150,579	119,524
1941	175,810	147,258
1951	291,130	196,633

It shows about 75 per cent. growth during the last 50 years. Ajmer is the only city in Ajmer State which alone contains nearly 66 per cent. of total urban population of that State. Let us therefore consider these two important cities side by side. Jaipur had declined in each decade between 1901 and 1921. Since 1921 the population began to increase but the most remarkable growth has taken place during the last decade. In 1941 it contained only 175,810 persons while 291,130 persons are enumerated in this census showing a growth of 116,000 persons or 66 per cent. The causes of the decline in the previous decades according to the previous Census Reports are ravages of plague and influenza which swept away a large number

of its inhabitants. Ajmer shows a steady rise during the last 50 years. It shows a growth of 122,794 or 169 per cent. during the period 1901-50. The largest growth has been in the decade 1941-50 i.e., an increase of 48,000 persons or nearly 33.3 per cent. as can be seen in Table No. 141 above. The reasons are already explained above in this section. According to the previous census reports the growing prosperity of the city is entirely due to immigration.



TABLE No. 142.

## Rank of Jaipur City and Ajmer City in India.

Year	Rank	
	Jaipur	Ajmer
1891	13	
1901	13	..
1911	15	..
1921	22	23
1931	20	24
1941	24	31
1951	19	34

22. In the present Census of 1951, amongst the cities of India, Jaipur stands 19th and Ajmer 34th. Their ranks amongst the Cities of India at the different censuses are given in inset Table No. 142.

In this table the rank of Jaipur and Ajmer Cities has been taken among the cities of Indian Union only. All the cities which were excluded from India due to the partition of India are not counted. It is interesting to see how Jaipur went on steadily losing its rank from 1901 to 1941, and how it has succeeded in gaining by 5 steps in the last decade only. Ajmer gained in rank between 1921 and 1931, but since then it is steadily losing it.

23. Jaipur is gaining higher rank amongst the cities of the country and the problems connected with its development are therefore, acquiring an All-India significance. In considering the growth of the Jaipur City in the above paragraph, we have considered only the population recorded at the census. As observed previously the census figures are essentially based on normal residence and, therefore, a very large number of people who work in Jaipur during the day time and go back to their houses in the sub-urban areas are not covered by the census figures. In considering the development schemes of Jaipur City, therefore, it would be desirable to bear in mind not only the problems connected with the resident population of the city, but also with those of the working population.

24. The figures in Subsidiary Table 3.5 do not make any allowance for the increase in the limits of the respective towns during the decades concerned. There is, however, no mistake in the fact that there has been generally a large jump in the population of cities for reasons which have been sufficiently explained already.

25. An inquiry into the causes of city growth raises several kinds of questions. Such an inquiry may refer to the problem of why some cities grow faster than others. Again, it may refer to the nature of the economic forces behind the whole urbanization trend. Or it may refer to the demographic question of whether the urban expansion is due to migration or to natural increase. It is this third kind of question with which we shall begin.

27. From the figures available which will be discussed in Section 5 below and from general knowledge and information on urban mortality, such as it is, does not suggest a low death rate. On the contrary, the registered death rate is generally higher in the cities than in the country. It may be true, of course, that death registration is better in the cities, but if this were true, one would expect birth registration also to be better and the natural increase roughly comparable to that of the country. Actually the natural increase in the cities, as reported by official vital statistics, is lower than that in the rural areas. There is no evidence, then, that urban death rates appear high merely because they are better registered. The cities are known to be un-sanitary. They are characterised by bad housing and poor diet to an even greater extent than the rural areas. We cannot, therefore, account for the growth in the urban portion of the population on the basis of a greater natural increase. The only other demographic explanation lies in migration. This we shall examine in the next section.



## SECTION 4.

## Movement.

There are no precise statistics on rural-urban migration. The most direct evidence is contained in the figures on place of birth collected at the census. **Rural-Urban Migration.** These, however, suffer from at least three defects: (i) They probably underrate the amount of mobility, because children are often recorded erroneously as having the same birth place as their parent. (ii) They cannot give information on year-to-year movements. (iii) They seldom show the number of people living in a city who were born there, but rather the number of those who were born in the whole district. At best, therefore, the statistics on place of birth are mere makeshifts for understanding the amount of rural-urban migration. But they have to be used in the absence of anything better.

2. Of the total urban population of 2,649,367 persons residing in Rajasthan, as many as 2,263,593 persons (about 85 per cent.) were recorded at the Census **Extent of Migration.** as born in the district of enumeration. This means that the population mostly consists of people who are born in the villages of the same district and have migrated to the towns and of people born in the towns of the district itself. Nearly one seventh of the urban people had their birth places outside the district of enumeration and obviously these are the migrants who have come from other areas. Of the total population of 297,764 residing in the urban areas of Ajmer as many as 139,369 persons or 46·8 per cent. were recorded at the census as born in the State. This means that more than half of the urban population of the State consists of people born out-side it. These are the migrants from other parts of India as well as from outside India, including Pakistan. (N.B. Here it should be remembered that Ajmer is a mono-district State).

3. The marginal Table No. 143 shows the names of cities in Rajasthan and Ajmer together

TABLE No. 143.

Percentage of out-born persons in cities.

Name of City	Out born persons per 100 of the total population of the City.
1	2
Jaipur City ..	15·5
Alwar City ..	19·2
Bikaner City .	18·2
Jodhpur City ..	12·8
Udaipur City ..	18·4
Kotah City ..	33·8
Ajmer City ..	62·7
Rajasthan and Ajmer States combined ..	26·2

**The extent of rural-urban migration in cities.** with the percentage out-born in each case (*i.e.* born outside the district in which the city is situated, because the percentage of people born in the district outside the city is not known). The average percentage of out-born in the cities of Rajasthan and Ajmer combined is nearly 26·2. Thus it appears that about one-fourth of the inhabitants of the cities are born outside the districts in which their city is situated. In particular places, however, the percentage is as low as 12·8% (in Jodhpur City) and is as high as 62·7% (in Ajmer City). There is a tendency though not pronounced for the proportion of out-born to be higher, the larger the city, despite the fact that it takes the larger stream of migrants to outweigh the greater number of births that inevitably occur in the larger cities. But other factors also play

their part; as we see that leaving aside Ajmer, the city in which the percentage of out-born is the greatest is not Jaipur, as should be expected, but Kotah which is almost the smallest city, which is bigger than Alwar only amongst the cities of Rajasthan; Jodhpur though the second largest city in Rajasthan has the lowest percentage of out-born persons.

4. Doubtless as the urbanization gains greater momentum the percentage of out-born in the cities will increase. In other words, there is no reason to expect in the near future any diminution of the rural-urban migration rate. This rate, however, large it may seem from the point of view of the cities, is quite small from the point of view of the rural region. As yet it could hardly be said to have any effect in draining off surplus labour from the rural areas.

5. The following Table No. 144 gives the percentage of immigrants into urban parts of the State and the Natural Divisions, based on the birth place statistics.

**Analysis of the immigrants into the urban parts of the State and the Natural Divisions:**

TABLE No. 144.

Immigrants, in the urban parts of Rajasthan and Ajmer and the Natural Divisions.

Persons enumerated in	Number per 100 of urban population born in							
	District of enumeration	Other districts of the same Natural Division	Other parts of the State	Adjacent States	Other parts of India	Beyond India		
						Pakistan	Other territories	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Rajasthan State ..	85.40	4.06	2.19	2.75	0.31	5.25	0.04	
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	87.28	3.13	1.47	2.41	0.26	5.38	0.07	
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	84.36	6.00	2.31	1.78	0.35	5.18	0.02	
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	83.73	1.45	3.16	2.78	0.28	3.55	0.05	
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	78.25	3.85	3.86	7.42	0.38	6.22	0.02	
Ajmer ..	46.81	..	..	18.13	11.71	23.14	0.21	

The Table above shows that in Rajasthan the percentage of persons born outside the district of enumeration is 14.6. Nearly 2/5ths of them (6.2 per cent) are born in the different districts of the State itself, while about one-fifth (3.06 per cent) are from the rest of India. Apart from the displaced persons and Pakistan nationals, who constitute about 5.25 per cent of the total urban population, the number of other foreign-born people is 1,157 or about 4 per ten thousand. In Ajmer more than half of the persons living in its urban areas are born outside the Ajmer State (53.2 per cent). A little more than 1/3rd of them (18.13) are born in the adjacent State i.e. in Rajasthan only. Displaced persons constitute 23.1 per cent of the total urban population. The number of people born in places outside India and Pakistan is only 631 or about 2 per thousand.

6. It will be observed that the largest number of immigrants from Pakistan are to be found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, where the largest number of displaced persons have been rehabilitated, mostly in the Alwar, Bharatpur and Jaipur Districts. Details of immigration into the urban areas of the districts from outside the district will be found in Subsidiary Table 3.8 in Part I-B of the Report.

**Large number of migrants in the East Rajasthan Plain Division.**

7. It has already been pointed out in Section 2 of this Chapter that although the East Rajasthan Plain Division stands second in area among the Natural Divisions of the State, it has the highest urban density in the State. The Table No. 144 given in para 5 above shows that out of 385,774 persons born out-side the district of enumerations, as many as 157,595 (or about 40 per cent) were enumerated in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. The rapid urbanization of the East Rajasthan Plain Division is connected with the industrial and commercial development and also with the formation of the Capital of the State in Jaipur City which is responsible for attracting migrants into the urban areas from different places. Amongst the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan it is in Rajasthan Plateau Division where the percentage of migrants from places in India outside Rajasthan in the urban areas to the total urban population of the Division is the highest being 7·8 per cent; next to it in Rajasthan Hills Division (3·0) and in East Rajasthan Plain Division (2·7). It is the least in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (2·1). In Ajmer State it is as high as 29·8 per cent. The proportion of migrants from other parts of Rajasthan is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (8·3); next to it in Rajasthan Plateau Division (7·8), followed by Rajasthan Hills Division (3·7). It is the least in East Rajasthan Plain Division (3·6)

8. As pointed out in the previous Chapter II (Section 4 para '9') no statistics are available to show the actual movement of people from the rural areas of a district into the urban areas, but in paragraph 12 of Section 4 of the Chapter II, we have discussed the nature of migration-cum-registration error in the rural and urban areas to point out the movement from the rural to the urban areas. The question of sex-ratios will be fully discussed in Chapter VI, but here it is necessary to refer to it to indicate the nature of migration from the rural to urban areas as well as from other parts. Table No. 145 given below shows the percentage of migrants by sex.

TABLE No. 145.

Percentage of males and females amongst persons born in the district of enumeration, other districts of the same Natural Division, other parts of the State and other States of India.

State or Division where enumerated	Percentage of people born in							
	District of enumeration		Other districts of the same Natural division		Other parts of the State		All other States of India	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Rajasthan State ..	44·5	40·9	2·10	2·00	0·9	1·3	1·5	1·6
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	45·8	41·5	1·4	1·7	0·5	1·0	1·3	1·4
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	43·6	40·8	3·4	2·6	1·0	1·3	1·1	1·0
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	45·0	43·7	0·7	0·8	1·9	1·3	1·7	1·3
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	41·2	37·1	1·7	2·2	1·8	2·1	3·9	3·9
Ajmer State ..	25·3	21·5	..	..	..	..	15·6	14·2

The figures in Table No. 145 above indicate that the female proportion in urban areas is comparatively low amongst people born in the district of enumeration, indicating clearly how the villagers come to the towns of their district leaving their families in the villages. In this connection the observations made in the previous Chapter about disinclination of the people to leave the villages permanently is of interest. The figures confirm the tendency. The female ratio for migrants from other districts of the same Natural Division, and from other parts of the State, is on the other hand generally high, indicating the marriage or casual migration, except no doubt, in the Dry Area Division, where the female ratio, for migrants from other districts of the same Natural Division, is low, indicating that in this Division marriage connections also do not extend much beyond the same district. The female proportion is found to be again low in the Dry Area and Hills Divisions in the case of migrants from other States showing the movement of people coming for business, etc., leaving their families behind. The proportion is high in the East Rajasthan Plain and the Plateau Divisions, indicating permanent migration, as well as marriage migration, perhaps from the adjoining States in the districts which touch them.

9. The over-all male and female ratio in the urban areas is also of interest as it also shows the extent of the migratory nature of the urban population. In Rajasthan as a whole, there are 932 women in the urban population per one thousand males as against 921 in the general population and in Ajmer the proportion is 892 to one thousand as against 925 in the general population. The difference in the figures of the two States indicates two different phenomena working in each State namely a semi-permanent emigration from Rajasthan to places outside Rajasthan of people who leave the families behind and a semi-permanent immigration into the urban areas of Ajmer of people who leave their families in the rural homes. But in the case of Ajmer City a comparatively higher female ratio in the City as observed in the following para (10) indicates permanent migration into that city. Nature of immigration is reflected in this ratio. In the Natural Divisions, the figures are as shown in Table No. 146.

TABLE No. 146.

Name of the State and Natural Division.	Females per thousand Males		The female ratio ranges from 930 per thousand males in the Dry Area Division to 952 in the Hills Division. The higher female ratio, in the Urban Areas of the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, indicates permanent migration, in which migrants from Rural areas generally bring their families with them, and also marriage migration. It also indicates the semi permanent emigration from the urban areas of these Divisions to places outside Rajasthan in which women are mostly left behind. The lower female ratio in the urban areas of Hills and Plateau Division, on the other hand, indicates temporary migration, in which migrants to towns from the villages, for education, trade, business, etc., leave their families behind.
	Urban	General	
1	2	3	
Rajasthan State ..	932	921	
East Rajasthan Plain Division	931	910	
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	930	906	
Rajasthan Hills Division	952	972	
Rajasthan Plateau Division .	930	938	
Ajmer State ..	892	925	

10. In the Jaipur City, there are 895 females per 1,000 males; whereas in the Kherwara Cantonment there are only 624 females per 1,000 males. Ajmer City, on the other hand, has 903 females per 1,000 males. The male and female ratio in each town of the State and in the Wards of the two cities, Jaipur and Ajmer will be found in Subsidiary Table 3-11 in Part I-B of the Report, which will be discussed under sex ratio in Chapter VI, Section 4.

11. Figures of emigration from the urban areas are also not available. In paragraph 9 Section 4 Chapter II it has been observed, "There is as yet no question of any large movement from urban to rural areas because the towns have been growing in numbers and size." But this movement can be judged from the deterioration in the population of certain towns. Main Table A-IV, (Towns classified by population with variation since 1901) given in Part II-A of the Report, shows that whereas a rapid growth is indicated in the case of most of the towns there are however as many as 26 towns out of 218 in Rajasthan State in which the population has actually declined. Most of them (22) are in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. Some of the towns, which were the capitals of the integrated States before merger have shown reduction in population; amongst these are Bharatpur (—6280), in Bharatpur District and Karauli (—4334) in the Sawai Madhopur District. This is what was expected due to administrative changes. But in several other towns also the same phenomenon is observable, e.g. Deeg (—2222) in the Bharatpur District, Rajgarh (—1523) in Alwar District. Emigration of this type of limited character from these towns in the various districts is also not unlikely on account of the administrative changes. A similar type of emigration can be seen in the towns of Pokaran (—2008) in Jodhpur District, and Pachpadra (—876) in Barmer District. There is no other important change in the Bikaner and Jodhpur Divisions. In Rajasthan Hills Division Kherwara Cantt. and Kotra Cantt. call for no comments because of the usual movements of army personnel to the various parts of the State. Lakheri town in Bundi District lost 270 persons in 1941 and again registered a further fall of 1,366 persons during 1951 when its population is found to be 4,894. This is perhaps because the Lakheri Cement Works which form a separate town close by, attract its people. The highest figures of emigration have been found to be of those migrating to the adjoining States, like Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Madhya Bharat and Bombay from the districts which adjoin the above States as explained in Chapter I Section 4. This is no doubt a fact as we have seen in the Subsidiary Table 1.5 that we are sending more persons to other parts of India than we are receiving from them. This sort of emigration has taken place not only in this decade but it is increasing from decade to decade. This emigration generally takes place from urban units because villagers generally do not move beyond their nearest town, but people living in towns travel far and wide for their Commercial and Industrial activities. Separate figures of emigrants from the urban units of Rajasthan and enumerated elsewhere not being available, we have only to rely upon surmises and conjectures. The 26 towns which are declining in population are distributed in the Natural Divisions as shown in the Inset Table No. 147, from which it is curious to note as observed above that 22 out of the 26 declining towns are situated in the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

TABLE No. 147.

Distribution of declining towns in  
Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Number of declining towns.
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	22
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	1
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	1
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	2
Ajmer State ..	1

The deterioration of 26 towns out of 218 in the Rajasthan State is thus a significant circumstance. A perusal of Main Table A-IV mentioned above further shows that in addition to these towns there are 8 others which have shown very low growth during the current decade compared to that in the previous decades. Their names are given below, the figures of actual increase in population are also given within brackets against each town.

Udaipur Wati (49) and Bisau (76) in Jhunjhunu District, Toda Bhim (462) in Sawai Madhopur District, Naraina (251), and Sarwar (290) in Jaipur District, Uniara (97) in Tonk District, Kotra Cantt. (2) in Udaipur District and Bari (578) in Bharatpur District.

12. We have already referred to the problem of population out-stripping cultivation and now we are facing the other problem of industrialisation in urban areas failing to keep pace with the growing population which has found the outlet into the neighbouring States. The livelihood pattern of the emigrants from the Rajasthan State into the adjoining States has already been discussed in Chapter I and it is shown how the industrial cities of these neighbouring States, particularly Bombay, have been attracting migrants from several parts of the State.

13. As compared to many other people, as previously noted, the population of the Indian region is characteristically immobile. The rural-urban movement, strong enough to expand the towns and cities, therefore stands out as peculiar, and it could have been produced only by powerful factors. These factors may be divided into two categories those at home, in the rural village, which "push" the individual towards the City, and those in the city itself which "pull" him there. The two are of course mutually dependent, because a "push" in the village might not be so regarded if there were no "pull" in the city and *vice versa*; but the classification is convenient.

**The motive of Rural-Urban Migration.**

14. The extremely high density of agriculturalists on arable land, the excessive and hopeless character of rural indebtedness, the progressive subdivision and fragmentation of holdings, the bankrupting, recurrence of droughts and crop failures, the inefficient modes of cultivation and stock-raising, the uncertainty of foreign and local markets, all conspire to make the peasant's life unbearably hard.

15. Evidently the peasant in these States does not react to adverse conditions in the same way as the American farmer. If conditions of absolute famine prevail he may migrate in large numbers, but as long as the starvation is gradual he tends to remain at home. To him the agricultural way of life in the local village is a superior way of life, and the close association with his relatives, neighbours, and caste fellows is eminently desirable. He is willing to make a considerable economic sacrifice in order to retain these advantages. Homesickness weighs heavily upon him. In short, the rural environment not only pushes him out, but also pulls him in; certain features of it are to him a burden but others are an advantage. He wants to live there at almost any price.

16. In the past he has generally come to the city for one reason only- to find remunerative work and since this was a means rather than an end in itself he has not regarded the city as a permanent place of abode. He has tended to stay in the city only temporarily, until he had an opportunity to return to the village.

17. The rapidly developing industrial city in this part of the country has recapitulated all of the evils through which the industrial city elsewhere has passed. Housing conditions, working conditions, recreational facilities, and sanitary conveniences have all been incredibly bad, and food has been scarce and unwholesome.

18. These urban conditions make the peasant want to stay in the city only so long as he has to. Furthermore, they make him reluctant to bring his family there. Wives and children tend to be left at home.

As a consequence of his distaste for urban life the peasant who has migrated to the city tends to keep in contact with his local village. He often sends remittances, and returns to the village when he is out of work, when he is needed there, when an important ceremony is taking place or when he is sick. If he recruits additional labour for his employer, he is likely to get it from his own village. Looked at from the point of view of the migrant, the rural village is a sort of insurance against disaster. He can always return there in time of need. "In sickness and in maternity, in strikes and in lockouts, in unemployment and in old age the village home is a refuge for many."

**The Effects of Rural-Urban Migration.**

15. From the point of view of the village itself, the rural focus of the city worker is a financial and intellectual boon. Not only are the emigrants' remittances of value, but the savings he brings home after several months' absence are a valuable addition to the local capital. Furthermore, the migrant constitutes a direct contact with the city, and helps diffuse to the country-side the urban intellectual ferment—above all the urban conception of individualism, efficiency, and relativity. The emigration to the city presumably drains off surplus population and thus aids slightly the demographic problem of the rural village, but this is counterbalanced by the fact that the emigration also takes away the able-bodied and capable workers and leaves the young, the old, and the crippled to carry on agricultural production.

16. From the point of view of industry the rural focus has the effect of producing an unusually high turnover in the labour force. The peasant works in the factory until illness, unemployment, or nostalgia drives him back to the village, or until he has saved enough money to go back proudly. In a large number of factories 5 per cent. of the workers leave each month. Such rapid labour turnover entails a serious loss of efficiency. It also affects adversely the formation of responsible labour unions, the enforcement of labour legislation, the acquisition of skills, and the quest for higher wages.

17. There are evidences, however, that in recent times the labourers have become more accustomed to the city with many of them expecting to spend their lives there. If urbanization continues, if the cities gradually acquire better housing and better recreation facilities, a typical urban proletariat should develop.

18. The above discussion leads us to believe that it is migration which plays a prominent part in increasing the number and size of the urban units. Let us now examine how far births and deaths contribute towards their growth.

**Conclusion.**

## SECTION 5.

### Natural increase, Births and Deaths.

As already observed in Section 5, Chapter I, vital statistics are available only for Ajmer State. In this Section therefore, our discussion will be confined to that State only.

#### Ajmer State.

TABLE No. 148.

Mean decennial birth rates in the urban and rural areas of Ajmer State.

Decades	Mean decennial Birth Rates	
	Urban	Rural
1931-40	37.1	37.8
1941-50	33.7	25.7

2. The mean decennial birth rates for the urban population are given in the Subsidiary Table 3-3 in Part I-B of the Report. A comparison of these rates with those for the rural areas is made in the inset Table No. 148 for Ajmer State.

3. A comparison of the figures of birth rates for the rural and urban areas, as given in Subsidiary Tables 2-3 and 3-3 shows very clearly that in Ajmer the birth rates in the urban areas are higher than those in the rural areas in the decade 1941-50 though they were slightly lower in the previous decade.

**High Birth Rates in urban areas.**



4. While examining the causes for the high birth rate in the urban areas it is interesting to observe that the sex ratio is significantly different in the rural and urban areas for reasons connected with the phenomenon of migration already discussed. The detailed discussion of the sex ratio will be undertaken in Chapter VI, but here it may be pointed out in connection with the high birth rate that the number of females per 1,000 males in the urban areas is lower than that in the rural areas in the State, being 950 in rural and 892 in urban population. The natural consequence should have been a low birth rate in urban areas, but the result is different. Let us examine the matter further.

TABLE No. 149.

Marital status of 10,000 females in the rural and urban population.

Ajmer State.	Females of each marital status per 10,000 females		
	Un-married	Married	Widowed
Rural ..	3,282	5,400	1,318
Urban ..	3,927	5,046	1,027

5. The percentage of married females in the rural and urban areas has also a direct effect on the birth rate. Table No. 149 given in the margin shows the marital status of 10,000 females in rural and urban population in Ajmer State.

It will be observed that the percentage of married females in the rural areas is also a little higher than that in the urban areas. This factor also tends to decrease rather than increase the birth rate in the urban areas.

6. Another interesting circumstance connected with the high birth rate in the urban areas is noticeable in the age distribution of 1,000 married females in the rural and urban areas as given in Table No. 150 below:—

TABLE No. 150.

Age distribution of 1,000 married females by rural-urban break-up.

Ajmer State	Females per 1,000				
	0-14	15-34	35-44	45-54	55 & over
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rural ..	160.5	573.9	147.0	71.8	46.8
Urban ..	50.5	657.8	165.1	84.6	42.0

It will be noticed that in Ajmer State the percentage of married females below 15 years in the urban areas is lower than the number in the rural areas. But the percentage of females in the most fertile reproductive age group is higher in urban when compared with the same in the rural areas and the same is the proportion of those in the age group 35-44. This might be the factor tending towards higher birth rate in the urban than in the rural areas. All other factors discussed above in this paragraph should have resulted in a lower birth rate in the urban than in the rural areas, but the fact is contrary to it as explained above. The only, perhaps the most apparent, cause of higher birth rate in urban areas therefore, seems to be a higher proportion of females in the reproductive period combined with a comparatively less accurate registration in the rural than in the urban areas.

7. Table No. 148 given in para 2 above, shows the variation in the mean decennial birth rate in the Ajmer State. It will be observed that during the interval between 1931-40 to 1941-50, there is a fall in the birth rate in Ajmer State both in the rural and urban areas. But the fall is much greater in rural than in urban areas due perhaps to the lower ratio of married females in the reproductive age group in rural than in urban areas.

## Rajasthan State.

8. The above discussion is based on the figures of Ajmer State only, and applies fully to that State alone. But the general demographic and social conditions in the urban areas of both the States being similar, an inference, although weak, can be drawn for Rajasthan also on the study of figures of birth rate of Ajmer, together with the figures of sex ratio and marital status of females in Rajasthan which are available. The Table No. 151 below shows the sex ratio in the rural and urban areas of Rajasthan and the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 151.

Females per 1,000 males in Rural and Urban Population of Rajasthan.

State and Natural Division	Rural Population.	Urban Population.
1	2	3
Rajasthan State	918	932
East Rajasthan Plain Division	905	931
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	900	930
Rajasthan Hills Division	974	952
Rajasthan Plateau Division	940	930

It is apparent that in Rajasthan as a whole, the sex ratio is higher in favour of females in urban than in the rural areas. It is different in different Natural Divisions. It is higher in the urban areas of the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Dry Area Division and lower in those of Hills and Plateau Divisions. These figures show a tendency for higher birth rate in the urban when compared to the rural areas of the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Dry Area Division.

TABLE No. 152.

Married females per 10,000 females in the rural and urban population in Rajasthan.

State and Natural Division. Married females per 10,000 females

State and Natural Division	Rural	Urban
1	2	3
Rajasthan State	5065.1	5489.7
East Rajasthan Plain Dn.	5186.6	5723.2
Rajasthan Dry Area Dn.	5112.4	5389.5
Rajasthan Hills Division.	4560.0	4660.5
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	5163.4	5439.2

9. The ratio of married females is seen in the inset Table No. 152.

The figures show that the ratio of married females is also higher throughout in urban than in the rural areas. This may also tend to higher birth rate in urban areas.

10. The ratio of married females of reproductive age group can be seen in the Table No. 153 below:

TABLE No. 153.

Proportion of married females in the reproductive period in Rajasthan by Rural and Urban break up.

State and Natural Division	Married females per 1,000 in the age groups.	
	15—34	35—44
	2	3
Rajasthan State .. .. .	{ Rural 582·8	180·1
	{ Urban. 565·1	187·5
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	{ Rural 552·7	184·7
	{ Urban. 555·7	193·7
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	{ Rural 582·2	178·7
	{ Urban. 562·4	186·9
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	{ Rural 649·9	176·8
	{ Urban. 623·7	160·4
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	{ Rural 609·5	169·7
	{ Urban. 578·2	178·8

It is evident that in Rajasthan State as a whole, the ratio of females in reproductive age group is slightly lower in the urban than in the rural areas. Among the Natural Divisions, it is higher only in the urban areas of the East Rajasthan Plain Division and lower in all other Divisions. This last factor shows a slight tendency for a fall in the birth rates in urban areas when compared to the rural areas of Rajasthan. The combined effect of the above factors may be expected to be a stationary or an insignificantly higher birth rate in the urban when compared to the rural areas.

11. Although Family Planning centres or clinics have not yet been started in the State, the value of Family Planning is being increasingly felt in the urban areas of the State. Active steps are taken by many States in India. In Nagpur City, for instance, there are actually four recognised places where advice is given to the people on methods connected with Birth Control. Problems relating to Family Planning and sex education are freely discussed and encouraged in Newspapers. We feel special necessity for the Family Planning in our State where the procreation rate, specially among the working classes, seems to be very high indeed with a great infant mortality rate and ruining of the mother's health.

TABLE No. 154.

Mean decennial death rates of urban and rural areas in Ajmer State.

Decades	Mean decennial death rate	
	Urban	Rural
1	2	3
1931-40 .. .. .	32·7	28·8
1941-50 .. .. .	22·2	21·1

12. The mean decennial death rates of the urban population are also given in Subsidiary Table 3·3.

The comparative figures for the urban and rural population for the Ajmer State are given in the inset Table No. 154.

It is interesting to observe from Table No. 154 that during the decade 1931-40 the urban death rates were much higher than the rural death rates. The conditions changed in 1941-50, when both the urban and rural rates came down, the change being more perceptible in urban than in the rural areas. This circumstance further shows clearly how

during the last two decades increased medical facilities in the urban areas have brought down the death rate. The simple explanation offered for death rates in urban areas exceeding the rural death rates is that the villagers live in healthier atmosphere and that the natural open air life enables them to keep well, while the people of the towns, living in congested places, fall an easy prey to disease. Congestion in our urban areas has hardly diminished and it is on account of the modern drugs and medical facilities that our urban death rate has significantly come down. If these benefits of modern science were made available to our village people, there is little doubt that the death rate amongst them would come down to an even greater extent than has been the case in the urban areas.

13. As in the case of the rural population, vital statistics for the urban areas of the integrated States of Rajasthan are not available and the natural increase can be estimated only for Ajmer State, for which vital statistics are available in the Public Health Reports and have been incorporated in Subsidiary Table No. 3.3. The figures are summarised in Table No. 155 below:—

TABLE No. 155.

Natural increase of population in urban areas of Ajmer State.

Decade	Registered Births	Registered Deaths	Natural increase	Decennial rate of natural increase
1	2	3	4	5
1941—50 ..	86,332	56,775	29,557	11.4
1931—40 ..	73,147	64,689	8,458	4.5

14. The figures given in Table No. 155 show that the rate of natural increase of population as judged by the excess of births over deaths increased nearly three times during the decade 1941-50 as compared to the rate of the previous decade 1931-40. To appreciate these changes it is necessary to consider the rates of the population growth in the corresponding areas as given in Table No. 156:

TABLE No. 156.

Mean decennial growth rate of the Urban areas of Ajmer State

Decade	Mean decennial growth rate
1941—50 ..	32.6
1931—40 ..	18.1
1921—30 ..	9.0

It will be noticed that the rate of growth of the population was, during the three decades, almost galloping but the growth of the population did not gallop so fast as the natural increase rate, because we see that while the mean decennial growth rate increased from 18.1 in 1931-40 to 32.6 in 1941-50 (i.e. less than double) the corresponding increase in the natural population has been a little less than three times i.e. from 4.5 in 1931-40 to 11.4 in 1941-50. This typical change in the rates is due to the emigration phenomenon.

15. The above discussion has led us to believe that the excess of births over deaths has also played a significant part in inflating the growth of the population in the urban areas of Ajmer unless it be due to better registration of births and deaths.

## SECTION VI.

## Livelihood Pattern.

1. Subsidiary Table 3-7 in Part I-B of the Report shows the distribution of 10,000 people of urban population amongst the eight livelihood classes. In Rajasthan nearly 16 per cent of the urban population belong to agricultural classes, and 84 per cent. to the non-agricultural classes, while only 3 per cent of the urban population belong to agricultural classes in Ajmer State.

2. The percentage distribution of the urban population into the four agricultural livelihood classes for Rajasthan and Ajmer State and the Natural Divisions is given in Table No. 157 below:—

TABLE No. 157.

Percentage distribution of the urban population into the Agricultural Classes.

State and the Natural Division.	I	II	III	IV	Total
	Cultivators of owned land.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned.	Cultivating labourers.	Non-cultivating owners of land and agricultural Rent receivers.	
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rajasthan State. ..	7.09	7.29	0.95	0.87	16.20
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	7.66	8.73	0.72	0.95	18.06
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	5.74	8.35	0.98	0.52	15.59
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	8.24	2.18	1.04	1.30	12.76
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	8.04	1.48	1.83	1.28	12.63
Ajmer State. ..	1.75	0.56	0.26	0.38	2.95

3. The owner type of cultivators, residing in the urban areas are prominent in the Hills as well as in the Rajasthan Plateau Divisions. In the Hills Division (consisting of the four districts of Udaipur, Dungarpur, Banswara and Sirohi) 8.24 per cent. of the entire urban population, belong to Livelihood Class I (Owner cultivators). They include the large land owners, who get their land cultivated through servants or partners in profit, as well as the cultivators who have their fields near about and who live in the towns and work in those fields. In the Hills and Plateau Divisions, the districts in which more than 10 per cent. of the urban population belong to Livelihood Class I, are Dungarpur (15.19), Sirohi (11.01), Chittorgarh (10.13) and Jhalawar (11.58). In the districts of Dungarpur and Sirohi, nearly 18 and 20 per cent. respectively, of the urban population, belong to the agricultural classes. In these industrially backward districts quite a significant proportion of even the urban population is mainly dependent on agriculture.

4. In the Plain and Dry Area Divisions, also some districts, have got a large percentage of owner cultivators residing in urban areas. Tonk (14.81), Sawai Madhopur (17.94) and Bhilwara (15.83) have all considerably larger percentage of owner cultivators than the average of 7.66 per cent for the East Rajasthan Plain Division as a whole. Similarly in the Desert area of Rajasthan the districts of Ganganagar (10.81), Pali (11.47), Jalore (7.92) and Churu (7.11) are important for their higher percentage of owner cultivators in urban areas when compared to the divisional figure of this class which is only 5.74 per cent of the urban population. In all the districts named above, the percentage of owner cultivators is higher when compared to the other agricultural classes, both in rural as well as in total population.

5. It is interesting to notice that the largest percentage (18·06) of the people of agricultural classes residing in urban areas is to be found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, in which another very significant point to be noted is that 8·73 per cent of these people belong to the class of cultivators of unowned land. In the Dry Area Division also the proportion is not much different being 8·35. Compared to the figures for the other Divisions, this is a high percentage and the explanation for it lies in the fact as we have already noticed in Chapter I, that the percentage of cultivators of unowned land in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, is the largest on account of the typical land system or perhaps due to the confusion of classification referred to above, wherein tenants paying rent or revenue to the Government or Nobles, were by mistake, treated as cultivators of unowned land.

6. The percentage of cultivating labourers in the urban areas is the highest in the Plateau Division. It seems that these people work as agricultural labourers in the fields attached to the towns or to villages in the vicinity and reside in towns.

7. The percentage of non-cultivating owners of land and agricultural rent receivers belonging to the Livelihood Class IV in the urban areas is largest (1·30) in the Rajasthan Hills Division and next to it in the Plateau Division (1·28 per cent). In the other two Divisions their percentage are almost equal, being a little less than one per cent of the urban population of the respective Division as shown in Table No. 157 in para 2 above.

8. In Ajmer only about 3 per cent of the entire urban population belong to agricultural classes. The highest percentage among the people who are engaged in agricultural activities is of Class I (Cultivators of owned land) *i.e.*, 1·75 per cent. It means that more than half of the agricultural classes in urban areas are owner cultivators, next come the cultivators of unowned land (56 per ten thousand), followed by non-cultivating owners of land (38 per ten thousand). Agricultural labourers come last *i.e.*, 26 persons per ten thousand. This is what should be expected from a place like Ajmer State which has 7 towns including Ajmer City and the highly industrial town of Beawar. More than 82 per cent of the entire urban population reside in Ajmer City and Beawar town only, where there is not much scope for labourers in fields.

9. The percentage distribution of the urban population belonging to the non-agricultural classes in Rajasthan and the Natural Divisions as also in the Ajmer State is given in Table No. 158 below:—

TABLE No. 158.

Percentage distribution of urban population into the Non-Agricultural classes.

State and Natural Divisions	Percentage of non-agricultural classes in urban population	Percentage to total urban population of persons depending on			
		V Production other than cultivation	VI Commerce	VII Transport	VIII Other service and miscellaneous sources
Rajasthan State .. .. .	83·80	19·46	21·69	3·85	38·80
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	81·94	19·56	20·24	3·26	38·88
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	84·42	17·95	23·54	4·34	38·59
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	87·25	18·39	22·37	3·97	42·52
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	87·37	24·74	21·57	4·81	36·25
Ajmer State .. .. .	97·04	30·92	23·96	6·87	35·29

The figures show that 83·8 per cent of the urban population depend on non-agricultural occupations and only 16·2 per cent on agriculture. It will be remembered that the corresponding figures for the rural population are 17·7 per cent for non-agricultural classes and 82·3 per cent for agricultural classes. One would of course expect to find such a difference between the rural and urban population. Reverting to the urban population, the corresponding figures for the Divisions are: East Rajasthan Plain Division 81·9 per cent for the non-agricultural classes and 18·1 per cent under agricultural classes; Rajasthan Dry Area Division has 84·4 per cent under non-agricultural classes and 15·6 per cent under agricultural classes; in the Rajasthan Plateau Division 87·4 per cent belong to non-agricultural classes and 12·6 per cent to agricultural classes; Rajasthan Hills Division has 87·2 per cent under non-agricultural classes and 12·8 per cent under agricultural classes. The figures for Ajmer State are 97·0 per cent for the non-agricultural classes and 3 per cent under agricultural classes, (higher even than those of the East Rajasthan Plain Division). This is not surprising in such a highly urban State. It will be seen that the highest percentage 87·37 of non-agricultural classes for the urban population is to be found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division while the lowest percentage 81·94 is found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. This difference is merely due to the fact that in most of the towns of the East Rajasthan Plain Division many agriculturists also reside. Such towns are mostly seen in Sawai Madhopur, Bharatpur, Jhunjhunu and Bhilwara Districts. It will be noticed that in both Rajasthan and Ajmer States as a whole as well as in each Natural Division, the largest percentage under non-agricultural classes is in Class VIII, (Professional services and employees under Government and local authorities and miscellaneous means of livelihood) and that Commerce comes next, (except in Plateau Division, where Class V comes second). Class V (Production other than cultivation) comes third. Each of the above occupations supports a much larger percentage of the urban population than Transport (Class VII). The figures under Class VIII must, as we find in this State and other States in India, be higher than those in Class V, in a country like ours where industrialization has not progressed far.

10. It is interesting to observe from Table No. 158 given above that the percentage of urban population under Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) is almost fairly distributed in all the Natural Divisions. There is, no doubt, a higher proportion in the Rajasthan Plateau Division. In Ajmer State their proportion is significantly high. These figures have been arrived at by a calculation of the percentage of the people of Livelihood Class V on the entire urban population including the agricultural classes. Subsidiary Table 5·1 (b) given in Part I-B of the Report shows the number of persons in each class and sub-class per 10,000 persons of non-agricultural classes only in the urban areas. A perusal of this table will show that the percentage of the people belonging to Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) to the non-agricultural classes in the urban areas of the State and Natural Divisions is as follows:—

TABLE No. 159.

Percentage of people belonging to Livelihood Class V to the non-agricultural classes in Urban Areas

State and Natural Division	Percentage
Rajasthan State .. .. .	23·22
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	23·88
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	21·26
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	21·07
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	28·31
Ajmer State .. .. .	31·87

These figures also show the same pattern. It will be seen that the percentage of non-agricultural classes depending on the various industries grouped under Livelihood Class V is the highest (28·31) again in the Rajasthan Plateau Division, and the lowest (21·07) in the Rajasthan Hills Division. In Ajmer it is higher than any Natural Division of Rajasthan (31·87). A detailed discussion of the different industries in Livelihood Class V in the different Natural Divisions will be found in Chapter V.



11. Table No. 158 given above shows that the percentage of urban population belonging to Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) is largest in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division and smallest in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. Here again a perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·1(b) mentioned above will show that if the percentage is calculated on the non-agricultural population of the urban areas the figures for the State and Natural Divisions are found to be as follows:—

TABLE No. 160.

Percentage of persons living upon Commerce to the total non-agricultural population in urban areas.

State and Natural Division	Percentage.
Rajasthan State	25·88
East Rajasthan Plain Division	24·70
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	27·88
Rajasthan Hills Division	25·64
Rajasthan Plateau Division	24·68
Ajmer State	24·69

It is interesting to note the fair distribution of the percentage of commercial people in all the Natural Divisions amongst the non-agricultural classes in the urban areas except in the Dry Area Division where this proportion is a little higher. The figures of Ajmer State are almost similar to those of East Rajasthan Plain Division.

12. The percentage of the urban population belonging to Livelihood Class VII (Transport) in the Plain, Dry Area, Hills and Plateau Divisions as shown in Table No. 158 above, are 3·26, 4·34, 3·97 and 4·81 respectively. If the percentages are calculated on the non-agricultural population alone they would be 3·97, 5·14, 4·55 and 5·51 respectively in each of the Natural Divisions given above, as shown in the Subsidiary Table 5·1(b). In Ajmer the percentage of urban population belonging to the Livelihood Class VII (Transport) to total urban population is very high being 6·87 almost double when compared with Rajasthan and by calculating the percentage on non-agricultural population only it comes to 7·08.

13. According to Table No. 158 given above the largest percentage (42·52), of the urban population belonging to Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) is to be found in the Rajasthan Hills Division. The corresponding percentage in the East Rajasthan Plain Division is 38·88. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division it is 38·59 and in Plateau Division it is the lowest being 36·25 per cent. The percentages on the actual non-agricultural population residing in the urban areas come to 48·74, 47·45, 45·72 and 41·50 respectively for each of the four Natural Divisions as given in Subsidiary Table 5·1(b). Livelihood Class VIII consists of Division "8" (Health, Education and Public Administration) and Division "9" (Services not elsewhere specified) of the ten Divisions of all Industries and Services, according to the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme, referred to already in the previous Chapter. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·7, referred to above shows that the proportion of self-supporting persons in Division "8" is highest in the urban parts of the Rajasthan Hills Division, while in Division "9" it is highest in the Rajasthan Plain Division. The people residing in East Rajasthan Plain Division are financially better off, who can afford to keep domestic servants in a proportionately higher number than those in other Divisions. In the Rajasthan Hills Division there are various administrative, educational, and medical institutions at Udaipur, while the total urban population is not so high as in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, therefore, the percentage of self-supporting persons under Division "8" is some what higher than in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. In Ajmer the urban population belonging to the Livelihood

Class VIII forms 35.29 per cent of the total urban population and by calculating on the non-agricultural population, it comes to 36.36 per cent. Industrial Division No. "8" (Health, Education and Public Administration) engages a lesser proportion of population in Ajmer *i.e.* 14.49 per cent when compared to Division "9" (Service not elsewhere specified) which gives subsistence to a comparatively higher proportion *i.e.* (20.15 p.c.)

14. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 3.7 in Part I-B of the Report, shows that in the urban areas of the districts of Jaipur, Sikar, Bikaner, Jodhpur, Kotah and Udaipur the percentage of persons belonging to Livelihood Class VIII is very high. In Bikaner, it is as high as 49 per cent. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division, all the districts have a high percentage of people belonging to this Livelihood Class except Bharatpur and Bhilwara. In the Jaipur District 42.99 per cent of the urban population belongs to the serving classes. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division as well as in the Hills and Plateau Divisions, the percentage of the urban population belonging to Livelihood Class VIII is fairly uniform.

15. The chief characteristics of urban areas are that they accommodate a large majority of persons in a small area, and this urbanization is rendered possible by the nature of occupations that prevail therein. Agriculture being the chief rural industry cannot provide a perennial employment to all those depending on it since the industry in itself is a seasonal one. The land being a gift of nature cannot be increased, nor employment created for the growing numbers, although by intensive form of cultivation its productivity could be very much enhanced. The nature of the industry in itself fixes a ceiling to the level of employment and the numbers that it can support. The urban population, which mainly depends on industries and services (that is, occupations other than agriculture) has, on the other hand, the advantage that every increase in these occupations is followed by fresh opportunities to employ more men subject, of course, to practical economic considerations reviewed in the last section of Chapter I.

16. It will be interesting to see how many of the general population under each livelihood class live in towns. Subsidiary Table 3.6 gives the figures, which have been tabulated for this purpose. The object of this examination is to see, whether any particular livelihood class shows a decided preference for towns.

The Table No. 161 given below shows the distribution into rural and urban areas of population belonging to each of the different livelihood classes of non-agricultural occupations.

TABLE No. 161.

Distribution of non-agricultural classes in Rural and Urban areas.

State and Natural Divisions	Number per 10,000 general population of non-agricultural classes in rural and urban areas		Number per 1,000 of general population in rural and urban areas in each livelihood class							
			V Production other than cultivation		VI Commerce		VII Transport		VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State .. .. .	501.5	498.5	620.4	379.6	428.7	571.3	286.8	713.2	471.5	528.5
East Rajasthan Plain Division	489.3	510.7	595.9	404.1	418.2	581.8	307.1	692.9	463.9	536.1
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	467.1	534.0	600.3	399.7	396.8	603.2	260.7	739.3	434.7	565.3
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	598.9	401.1	736.4	263.6	575.7	424.3	306.4	693.6	524.2	475.8
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	555.2	444.8	647.1	352.9	419.7	580.3	283.7	716.3	260.3	439.7
Ajmer State .. .. .	236.5	763.5	313.1	686.9	173.2	826.8	114.5	885.5	222.0	778.0

17. We find from Table No. 161 above that persons engaged in Transport (Class VII) are proportionately more numerous in towns when compared with those engaged in other non-agricultural activities, being 71 per cent. This is what one would expect to find as buses and lorry services are mostly operated from towns and as all important railway stations are in towns. Of those depending on commerce 57 per cent are in towns. Naturally towns have a much greater attraction for traders than villages where the turnover of business cannot be much. It is also a fact that every town is a trade centre for villages in its neighbourhood. The comparatively small figure (37.9 p.c.) under Class V, among the non-agricultural classes, confirms the fact that most of our production is still of the cottage or small scale type, which is carried on in rural parts and that major industries, which prefer towns to villages, have yet to develop on an appreciable scale. Besides, Stock-raising and forestry, which are included in Industry, are prevalent more in rural than in urban areas. Class VIII is a residuary category. It includes the professional services, employees of Government and local authorities and miscellaneous means of livelihood. A little more than half of such persons (52.8 per cent) are found in urban areas. The figures under Class V can catch up the figures under Class VIII only as the major industries develop.

18. Amongst the Natural Divisions we find that all the Divisions follow the pattern of the State, but the percentages are comparatively smaller in the Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions. This should cause no surprise; the isolated houses standing in the midst of fields, or on hill-tops, are the rule in these areas. Towns are therefore slow to grow there, and even non-agricultural occupations are practised on a more appreciable scale in the rural areas in the Hills and Plateau Divisions than in other Divisions.

19. The Table No. 162 below, shows the distribution in rural and urban areas of population belonging to each of the different livelihood classes of Agricultural occupations.

TABLE No. 162.

Distribution of agricultural classes in rural and urban areas.

Number per 1,000 of general population in rural and urban areas belonging to each agricultural class

State and Natural Divisions	Cultivators of owned land		Cultivators of unowned land		Cultivating labourers		Non-cultivating owners etc.	
	I		II		III		IV	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State ..	972	28	945	55	247	53	906	94
East Rajasthan Plain Division	967	33	925	75	936	64	887	113
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	953	47	959	41	937	63	903	97
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	987	13	964	36	944	56	924	76
Rajasthan Plateau Division	981	19	932	68	966	34	934	66
Ajmer State .. ..	980	20	923	77	960	40	918	82

The figures show that, among the agricultural classes, Class IV, (Non-cultivating owners, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants) has a slight preference for urban life, when compared with other agricultural classes, as we find that as many as 9.4 p.c. of them live in urban areas. That is what one would expect to find from the fact that people of this class are economically inactive, as they do not attend to the cultivation of their lands themselves, and they prefer the more comfortable life in towns. The fact that a small percentage is found under Class I, is just what one would expect to find. Only about 2.8 per cent of the persons who belong to this class, viz. persons cultivating wholly or mainly their own lands and their dependants, are to be found in towns. Persons under Class II (Cultivators of unowned

land and their dependants) and Class III (Cultivating labourers and their dependants) are also found in small numbers in towns, i.e., 5.5 and 5.3 p.c. respectively. Their percentage though small is higher than that of those belonging to Class I.

20. The Table No. 161 also shows that urbanization is the greatest in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, in the sense that the dependence on non-agricultural occupations is more significant in this Division and it is the least in the Rajasthan Hills Division where such dependence is the least. The relationship between non-agricultural occupations and urbanization is vividly brought out by a reference to the figures of the districts of Jaipur, Jodhpur, and Bikaner in which the three biggest cities of the State are situated. Of the total number of persons engaged in non-agricultural occupations in the Jaipur District as many as (57.2) per cent live in the urban areas and (42.8) per cent in rural areas. The urban rural ratio of population in the district is (28.3:71.7). Similarly, in the Jodhpur District as many as (76.3) per cent of the people depending on non-agricultural occupations live in urban areas while the urban population in the district is only 33.0 per cent of the total population of the district. The urban areas of Bikaner District similarly, accommodate 23.3 per cent of the total population of the district and 64.3 per cent of the population following non-agricultural occupations. A perusal of the Economic Table B-I given in Part II-B of the Report and Subsidiary Table 3.1 in Part I-B of the Report showing the occupational distribution of urban population, will show that the districts in which there is a larger dependence on non-agricultural occupations, have also been those which are more urbanized. In Ajmer State the percentage of the people depending on non-agricultural occupations living in urban areas, is as high as 76.3 while the percentage of people living in the urban areas to the total population of the State is 42.9.

21. The livelihood pattern of the urban population in this State compared with some of the States in India is shown in Table No. 163 below:—

Comparison with other States

TABLE No. 163.

Livelihood pattern of Urban Population compared with some of the other States in India.

State	Livelihood Classes							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Uttar Pradesh ..	8.4	1.6	1.0	1.4	24.9	21.9	6.2	34.6
West Bengal ..	1.8	0.7	1.0	0.7	28.7	24.2	0.3	33.6
Bihar ..	11.88	2.02	7.61	1.50	17.80	19.05	5.87	34.27
Orissa ..	7.8	1.5	2.0	2.7	13.3	17.5	5.6	49.6
Mysore ..	7.2	1.8	1.8	2.6	28.6	17.9	4.2	35.9
Madras ..	7.1	3.0	4.6	2.6	23.6	19.0	5.8	34.3
Bhopal ..	2.08	1.34	0.79	0.25	19.57	19.82	5.83	50.32
Rajasthan ..	7.09	7.29	0.95	0.87	19.46	21.69	3.85	38.80
Ajmer ..	1.75	0.56	0.26	0.38	30.92	23.92	6.87	35.29
Madhya Pradesh ..	8.08	1.15	5.40	1.04	27.83	19.98	7.46	29.06
Madhya Bharat ..	4.40	2.45	1.84	0.54	28.96	20.43	4.73	36.65

It cannot be said with certainty whether some of the differences noticed are not attributable to the varying vagaries in the entries of occupations which was the most difficult part of the enumeration attempt at the 1951 Census.

22. A comparison of the total number of principal earners of the 1931 Census and the total number of self-supporting persons of 1951 Census in the three cities of Rajasthan and Ajmer City and the percentage variation in the different livelihood classes will clearly show how urbanization goes hand in hand with the development of Commerce and Industries.

Urbanization correlated with Commercial and Industrial Development

TABLE No. 164.

The percentage variation of principal earners of the 1931 Census (in Rajasthan Agency) and the self-supporting persons of the 1951 Census (in Rajasthan) by livelihood classes in Cities (100,000 and over).

Livelihood Class.	Percentage variation in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
I Cultivators of owned land .. .. .	+713·6	— 39·0
II Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned ..	— 63·0	— 55·4
III Cultivating labourers .. .. .	— 53·4	— 50·9
IV Non-Cultivating owners of land and agricultural rent receivers.	— 98·0	— 17·3
V Production other than cultivation .. .. .	+ 1·1	+149·3
VI Commerce .. .. .	+102·8	+104·4
VII Transport .. .. .	+ 36·3	— 61·5
VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources .. .. .	— 4·1	+ 22·0
TOTAL .. .. .	+ 9·6	+ 26·2

Before scrutinizing the figures the differences in the definitions and classifications adopted at the two censuses, referred to at various places before, should not be lost sight of. The figures show that amongst the agricultural classes in the cities of Rajasthan there is a decrease in the number of self-supporting persons amongst the tenant cultivators, cultivating labourers as well as rent receivers. It seems that the people who were cultivating tenants or labourers are gradually acquiring land and becoming owner cultivators. The rent receivers also seem either to undertake cultivation or take to other occupations as their principal means of livelihood, so that the income from rent becomes only a side income. These figures show striking increase in the numbers of owner cultivators which fact again depicts the same undesirable picture of increased pressure on cultivated land resulting in uneconomic fragmentation of holdings etc. Amongst the non-agricultural classes, traders show a marked increase, *i. e.*, almost double. Transport has also increased by 36 per cent but the increase in the industrialists is only 1·1 per cent. Service class shows a slight decrease of 4 per cent. The figures, therefore, indicate the necessity of developing Cottage as well as Large Scale Industries in the cities.

23. In Ajmer City there is a significant decrease in all agricultural classes and the corresponding increase amongst the industrialists and traders. Service class has increased slightly (22 per cent). But the fall in transport is significant which is mainly due to the change in the method of classification referred to above, namely that all the Railway employees have not been classed under transport in 1951.

24. In the Census of 1931, the Ajmer City contained nearly 27 per cent of the population of the Ajmer State and in 1951 it accommodates about 29 per cent of the population of the State. The population of the city itself registered an increase of 48·7 per cent over the mean population of the 1931-50. This increase in population is readily explained when we find, in Table No. 164 above, that the number of total self-supporting persons in 1951 registered an increase of 26·2 per cent over those of 1931. Out of this total increase of 26·2 per cent, self-supporting persons of non-agricultural classes show an increase of nearly 29·0 per cent whereas self-supporting persons of agricultural classes show a fall of nearly 50 per cent.

25. The cities of Rajasthan also present a similar picture. In 1931 they contained 20·5 per cent. of the total population of the districts in which they were situated and in 1951 this percentage has gone up to 22·0. The cities have registered an increase of 56·0 per cent. over the mean population of the period. Self-supporting persons ascertained at the Census of 1951 show an increase of 9·6 per cent. over those of 1931. Out of this total increase, self-supporting persons of the non-agricultural classes exhibit an increase of 13·7 per cent. whereas those of agricultural classes exhibit a loss of 38·8 per cent.

26. It needs no further elucidation to conclude that with every increase in industries and commerce, urbanization will increase in the State.

27. Obviously, as compared to other ways of setting the city off from the country, the occupational pattern affords a sharp distinction. This is true in Rajasthan as in other places. If the occupational figures for the 7 cities with special reference to Rajasthan and Ajmer States are subtracted from the occupational figures for the rest of Rajasthan the remainder is 74·7 per cent, in Rajasthan and 62·3 in Ajmer as against 2·7 per cent. in the cities of Rajasthan and 1·5 per cent. in Ajmer City as shown in Table No. 165 below. If figures for the strictly rural parts are taken into consideration the percentage would come to more than 80. In this part of the world, as in other parts, the rural population is distinguished by its virtually complete devotion to a single occupation.

TABLE No. 165.

Percentage of total population belonging to each occupational class, for cities and for the rest of the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Livelihood Class	Rajasthan Cities	Rest of Rajasthan State	Ajmer City	Rest of Ajmer State
1	2	3	4	5
I. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants	1·1	45·6	0·8	52·0
II. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly un-owned and their dependants	0·8	24·1	0·2	4·3
III. Cultivating labourers and their dependants	0·2	3·3	0·2	3·8
IV. Non-cultivating owners of land; agricultural rent receivers and their dependants	0·6	1·7	0·3	2·7
V. Production other than cultivation	17·9	8·4	30·5	14·9
VI. Commerce	21·8	5·7	23·2	8·2
VII. Transport	6·3	0·6	8·6	1·2
VIII. Other services and miscellaneous services	51·3	10·6	36·2	12·9
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

28. But the difference between the occupational structure of the rural and urban populations, though sharp is not so great as it is in some other countries. Many towns and even cities in Rajasthan are still dominated by a rural economy though this is not exactly true of Ajmer. This fact appears clearly in Table No. 165 above which gives, for the 6 cities of Rajasthan and for the rest of Rajasthan, as also for the Ajmer City and the rest of Ajmer State, the percentage of all persons belonging to each livelihood class. One might expect the greatest difference to lie in the Agricultural classes and the Industry, since the one is typical of rural and the other of urban areas. But the differences with respect to other occupations *e.g.* Trade, Transport and Services is also high. Such a result is partly due to the classification of occupations in the

Census. Industry for example, as already observed, embraces handicraft, production in the home and many other activities, *e.g.* Stock-raising, forestry, etc., which are more akin to rural activities. But the result is also partly due to the fundamental rurality that still clings to many cities in this region. This can be seen more clearly when specific occupations are dealt with.

29. The percentage of total agricultural classes is high for some cities as shown below in Table No. 166.

Percentage engaged in agriculture (in Cities).

TABLE No. 166.

Percentage of agricultural classes to total population of Cities.		Percentage of agricultural classes to total population	
Name of City			
Jaipur	.. ..	1.4	
Jodhpur	.. ..	2.2	
Bikaner	.. ..	2.5	
Udaipur	.. ..	4.9	
Kotah	.. ..	2.1	
Alwar	.. ..	6.6	
Ajmer	.. ..	1.5	

The proportion is the lowest in Jaipur and Jodhpur cities and also in Ajmer, while it is highest in Alwar and Udaipur. It varies between 1.4 in Jaipur City to 6.6 in Alwar City. Some of the urban agriculturalists probably cultivate farm land included within the city, but most of them doubtless travel to farms outside the city boundary. "Despite the high percentage of these agriculturists in the cities, the proportion is apparently not so high as would be found in the urban places of some other countries—notably those in the Balkans".\*

30. Since the census definition of industrial employment is a very broad one, it is not surprising that rural regions show a substantial percentage of persons in this category. The percentage among the people outside the seven cities is one-half of what it is in the cities. Stock-raising, mining and forest industries are mostly carried on in rural areas. Also, the variation by size of city though negligible is worth noting as given in Table No. 167.

TABLE No. 167.

Proportion of all workers in means of livelihood classes, according to the size of the city.

Livelihood Classes	Cities 10,000 to 50,000		Cities 50,000 to 100,000	
I .. ..	0.8	1.8		
II .. ..	0.5	1.6		
III .. ..	0.1	0.3		
IV .. ..	0.6	0.8		
V .. ..	18.3	17.0		
VI .. ..	21.4	23.0		
VII .. ..	6.4	5.8		
VIII .. ..	51.9	49.7		

A correlation between the percentage in Industry and the rate of growth of the city seems to be present, as already mentioned but the combination of Industry, Trade and Transport seems a more significant occupational grouping for the city population. A glance at the inset Table No. 167 however, will show that this differentiation is not so sharp as that of some other important groupings. This is because there is strangely little differentiation between cities of various sizes with respect to Industry or Transport. There is considerable differentiation with respect to Trade. There are more traders in smaller than in the bigger cities, but it does not carry the weight that the other two do. The net result is a consistently but not markedly higher percentage of persons engaged in the combined category (Industry, Trade &

Transport, the larger the city). The service class is also slightly more significant in the larger cities. The fact that all the cities in Rajasthan were, until recently, capitals of important States of Rajputana, tends to swell unduly the proportion of persons in Public Administration and Domestic service.



31. It has been shown in paragraphs 22 to 25 above, that the more Industry, Trade and Transport a city had in 1931, the faster it grew between 1931 and 1951. In the sections on urban age and sex composition in Chapter VI, it will be shown that a large proportion of persons engaged in these occupations is conducive, as one might expect, to a concentration of males (and to some extent of females) in the 20-40 age group. Finally in the section on literacy in urban places, it will be shown that the greater the proportion of persons in these occupations, the more literate the population and the more rapid its future progress in literacy. Nearly every index suggests that in Rajasthan and Ajmer, as in the Western countries, the typically urban characteristics—large size, concentration in the productive age, high literacy, and low fertility are associated with the dominance of Industry, Trade and Transport in the occupational structure. These tendencies have not gone as far as in Western Nations, but they are apparently beginning.

## SECTION 7.

### Concluding Remarks.

1. We have seen that only about 17·3 per cent. of the total population of Rajasthan resides in the urban areas. Of this about 1/3 lives in the six cities **Distribution of population.** of Rajasthan namely, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner, Udaipur, Kotah and Alwar and about 1/5 in the 19 towns which have a population of over 20,000 each. In Ajmer State the urban population forms 42·9 per cent. of the entire population of the State; of which about 2/3 live in the Ajmer City only, and about 1/6 of the urban population resides in Beawar town which is next to Ajmer City in the State, having a population of 51,054 persons. Subsidiary Table 3·4 gives briefly the distribution of the urban population in the towns of different classes.

2. The density of urban population also differs widely because of the haphazard manner in which our towns have been growing. The number of persons per square mile in the urban areas of the Bharatpur District is as high as 11,824, while in the Jaisalmer District the density of urban population per square mile is as low as 1,338 persons.

3. The immediate necessity of taking active measures for preventing congestion, thus becomes evident. Unless prompt action is taken to control the **The urgent need of controlled development.** urban development the situation will become extremely complicated, as the urban population is now growing as it never did before and the rate of growth will become faster as we develop more and more industrially. Compared to the decennial growth rate of about 16·2 per cent. in the urban population of Rajasthan during 1921-30 and of 20·3 per cent. during 1931-40, the growth rate of about 33·1 per cent. during 1941-50, is in itself a circumstance of grave concern. Even if this rate persists, the urban population of the State would double itself within three decades. Actually, as pointed out, the acceleration in the rate itself is rapid and the growth will be much faster. In Ajmer State the position is rather more serious and the urgent need to control the development in urban areas is of great importance. The rate of growth will become still faster in future as Ajmer City and Beawar town are the most industrialised towns in this Region. Here the mean decennial growth rate of urban units has increased from 9·0 per cent. in 1921-30 to 18·1 per cent. in 1931-40. This growth rate again increased upto 32·6 per cent. during the decade 1941-50. This fact attracts a serious consideration and shows the necessity of a prompt handling of the situation.

4. It is comparatively easy to lay out a plan in an open area and to control construction of buildings from the very beginning than to demolish old houses, after they are allowed to be built in a haphazard manner, for purposes of towns development. Apart from wasteful expenditure involved in such operations the harassment to the people is of no less consequence, and the history of congestion of Udaipur City (Ward No. 6) already referred to, should attract the attention of all our local bodies and authorities in charge of town planning and urban development works, as to how our people are packed in such a small area. If we distribute equally all the land of that ward to all the people of the same, it is surprising to note that it is

about 21·7 square yards only of floor area in which a man has to pass his whole life, sleeping, dining, cooking, receiving visitors, washing, praying and even keeping his cattle.

5. The birth rate of the urban population of Ajmer State has shown a fall of about 3·4 per cent. during the last two decades. The reasons for this fall, as has been explained, are partly connected with the previous history and partly due to the heavy migration during the inter-census period 1941 to 1950.

6. An argument is some times advanced that birth control will reduce the intelligentsia and the very cream of the nation in the urban areas while leaving the trash in the villages to multiply at will, a tragedy for which we might repent later. Deliberate family limitation is undoubtedly most essential in our rural areas and as pointed out before, an all-out effort on a governmental level can only save us from the otherwise

**Effect of Birth Control Propaganda in Urban Areas.**

catastrophic consequences resulting from the race of population against means of sustenance. The intelligent middle-class people of the urban areas, who cannot make two ends meet, have actually commence practising birth control and it is futile to hope that they will not do so if the knowledge is withheld from them. In the first place, the belief that knowledge on such a subject can be withheld is ill-founded. Again, we have seen that under the present circumstances the standard of living of the middle classes is not likely to rise, even if attempts are made to increase production, without corresponding effort being made to control population. In other words, if we do not provide adequate facilities for birth control, we will not only fail to achieve the object of getting more intelligent babies; but, on the other hand, in our anxiety to improve the calibre of the nation, we will be doing great disservice to the country by encouraging the middle-class to adopt unscientific or otherwise dangerous methods of birth control coming to their knowledge in the usual "hush-hush" manner. On the other hand, if carefully prepared family planning schemes are introduced and facilities are provided wherever possible to propagate the knowledge on the subject and to enable the people to get safe and reliable required materials, we shall not only be educating the intelligent people and preventing them from resorting to undesirable methods, but we will be taking the first important step of spreading the ideas amongst the poorer classes and the villagers. History of other countries has shown that the practice of birth control starts from the top—the intelligentsia—and gradually spreads down to the poorer people. With the increasing contact between the rural and urban areas, which is now taking place, it is likely that the family planning schemes of urban areas will become popular in the villages much sooner than many people might imagine, and actually the theory, that family planning will remain confined to towns and will sap the cream of the nation without spreading into the villages, might prove to be completely unfounded.

7. The death rate in the urban areas of Ajmer has shown an encouraging fall from 32·7 in 1931–40 to 22·2 in 1941–50. As compared to the corresponding rates for the rural areas, these figures indicate a very successful fight against death in the urban areas during the last two decades and as already pointed out, the fall is likely to continue as more medical facilities become available.

**The Death Rates.**

8. The question of movement of people from villages into the towns has been discussed in the concluding Section 7 of the previous Chapter and, as already pointed out, the rate of immigration into the towns is bound to increase rapidly. The phenomenon of daily migration referred to in Section 7 of Chapter I has particular importance in large cities like Jaipur and Ajmer and it shows how the resident population of a city differs from the working population during day-time and how, therefore, the phenomenon is of importance in considering the development plans of the cities.

**Migration from Villages.**

9. We have seen in the last chapter that contact between the rural and urban areas is rapidly increasing. In Chapter V, Section II—Transport, Storage and Communication—we will discuss at length the transport developments in the State, but here it may be mentioned that motor transport in the State has increased highly during the last decade and the motor buses and jeep cars have penetrated into places far into the interior bringing the villagers, as it were, close to the towns. The increased transport facilities will encourage immigration into the urban areas and will be an important factor in the rapid increase of the urban population at a time when the growing numbers in the villages are not required to handle agriculture. Apart from the caution needed in planning urban growth in view of these developments, considerable care will be needed to prevent urban diseases from spreading into the villages.

10. Nearly 16·2 per cent. of the urban population of Rajasthan belongs to the agricultural classes and the remaining 83·8 per cent. to the non-agricultural classes. Of the agricultural classes about 7·1 per cent. belong to the category of owner cultivators and about 7·3 per cent. to the class of cultivators of unowned land. The remaining people of the agricultural classes are roughly equally divided amongst the non-cultivating owners of land and cultivating labourers.

11. The classification of the self-supporting persons of non-agricultural occupations on which the large majority of the urban people depend, is given in detail in Subsidiary Tables 5·7 to 5·17. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·7 shows that there are in Rajasthan 613,158 and in Ajmer 87,601 self-supporting persons of all industries and services, who reside in the urban areas of the State and they are distributed in the 10 Divisions of Industries and services in the Natural Divisions as shown in Table 168 below:—

TABLE No. 168.

Distribution of the self-supporting persons of all industries and services, in urban population, by divisions of industries and services, in Rajasthan and Ajmer, and the Natural Divisions.

Distribution of 1,000 Self-supporting persons in all Industries and Services

Division of Industries and Services	Rajas-	East Raj-	Rajas-	Rajas-	Rajas-	Ajmer
	than State	asthan Plain Dn.	than Dry Area Dn.	than Hills Dn.	than Plateau Dn.	State
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0. Primary Industries not elsewhere specified.	18·5	18·1	12·9	30·1	27·1	27·6
1. Mining and Quarrying	7·1	5·6	10·8	4·3	4·8	6·9
2. Processing and manufacture food stuffs.	129·7	144·4	111·8	104·1	144·4	196·7
3. Processing and manufacture metals, chemicals and products thereof.	19·6	14·9	26·4	19·6	17·8	44·0
4. Processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified.	70·1	75·6	51·0	69·6	102·6	65·2
5. Construction and Utilities	52·7	42·7	48·1	95·7	69·8	40·6
6. Commerce	237·8	225·0	263·2	231·0	219·0	208·6
7. Transport, Storage and communication.	49·1	44·0	51·7	48·6	61·0	64·0
8. Health, Education and Public Administration.	154·8	149·4	157·1	166·1	159·6	144·9
9. Services not elsewhere specified	260·6	280·3	267·0	230·9	193·9	201·5

12. Division '0' to '4' of the Divisions of Industries and Services, contain the numerous industries but it will be observed that these industries engage only 24.5 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons in Rajasthan. This shows how our State is industrially backward. In Ajmer no doubt the position is somewhat better than that in Rajasthan where 34.04 per cent. of the self-supporting persons are engaged in these industries. The most important activities of the urban population in the Rajasthan and Ajmer States are contained in Divisions 6 and 9 (Commerce and Services not elsewhere specified). In fact more than 49.8 per cent. or nearly half of the total number of self-supporting persons of all industries and services are engaged in these industries. Amongst the other occupations given in Table 168 above, Division "8" in Rajasthan and Division "2" in Ajmer claim the highest percentage, as there is not much development of huge industries in Rajasthan, nor important transport activities in the State. Naturally, therefore, Public Administration and Services claim the high percentage in Rajasthan. But in Ajmer manufacture of food stuffs, textiles, and leather and their products occupy an important position. A detailed discussion on the distribution of the self-supporting persons in different industries and services will be found in Chapter V--Non-Agricultural Classes. But here it might be pointed out that the largest number of self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services and residing in urban areas is to be found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division as will be seen from Table 168 above.

13. In Section 1 para 5 of this Chapter mention has been made of certain characteristics with respect to which the gulf between city and country is greater. **Urban Age Structure.** We have discussed some of them in the foregoing sections of this Chapter namely occupational structure, the proportion of persons of foreign birth and the birth, death, and housing density rates. Sex ratio will be dealt with, in Chapter VI; so will be the age structure. The general conclusion on the discussion about age structure can be summarised in a few words by saying "Like most cities in the world, those in Rajasthan have a concentration of people in the productive ages of life. The larger the city the larger is the concentration."

14. There seems little likelihood that the age structure of the cities will normalize itself in the near future. The sex ratio of the migrants may tend to rectify itself, but not the age distribution. This is especially true of that part of the age scale lying below ten years of age. If a decline in fertility really begins in these States, it will probably affect the cities first. This will compensate for any increased influx of females in the reproductive ages, which might otherwise swell the proportion of children. Continued rural-urban migration, with high urban mortality, will probably keep the proportion of older persons to a minimum. The chances are that cities, in these States, therefore, will become more distorted in their age structure before they become less so.

15. Although Rajasthan has been traditionally rural, there are undeniable evidences that a change is under way. The acceleration in the growth of cities, **The future of the City.** the correlation between size of city and rapidity of growth, the trend toward industrial and commercial expansion, and normalization of the sex ratio all indicate that urbanization is likely to gain momentum as it goes forward, and that within the next few decades, barring major catastrophes, the pace may become extremely rapid. If the signs are valid, if urbanization is coming on a big scale, then a fundamental revolution will inevitably occur in the society. The city is the diffusion centre for modern civilization, and as it comes to dominate the countryside, the new will come to dominate the old. The city has so far led in the growth of literacy, in the education of women, in the decline of caste, in the reduction of fertility, and in the development of political awareness. It is, therefore, playing the same innovating and stimulating role that it has played in Western civilization.

16. But despite the presence of modern industry, modern transportation, and modern ideas, the cities have a sprawling, unsanitary, unplanned, and neglected character. Further-

more, even though modern ideas are in circulation the extensiveness and persistence of ignorance, disease, overcrowding, and stratification seem appalling. It should not be assumed that faster urbanization will simply exaggerate the already hard conditions of life in the cities. There is every evidence that an awareness of urban problems now exists, that the city is becoming a more acceptable place to live, and that improvement is in the air. The Census Commissioner for India 1941, says that "City life has begun really to appeal to the ordinary middle class or lower middle class Indian, because for the first time accommodation within his means and to his taste has become available."<sup>1</sup> Blocks of decent flats with the amenities of running water and electric lights and numbers of cinemas, trams, buses, hospitals, etc., have meant that persons increasingly seek to pass their retirement or their leisure in a city instead of their former home. Also, the best education is available only in the cities. There is evidence of a tendency for families rather than detached individuals to move into the city.

## CHAPTER IV

### AGRICULTURAL CLASSES

#### SECTION I.

##### Preliminary Remarks.

In this Chapter we shall first deal with the Agricultural Classes, their distribution in the State and their economic status and activities, and will then briefly consider the vital question of population and means of sustenance.

2. The importance of agriculture in Rajasthan and Ajmer can hardly be overstressed. We have already seen in Chapter I, Section 6, while discussing the livelihood pattern of the general population, that 70·9 per cent. in Rajasthan and 45·4 per cent. in Ajmer, of the entire population of the States belong to the agricultural classes; while, as observed in Chapters II and III above, 82·7 per cent. in Rajasthan and 57·1 per cent. in Ajmer, of the enormous population of over 12·64 millions in Rajasthan and 0·396 million in Ajmer, residing in rural areas and about 16·2 per cent. in Rajasthan and 2·95 per cent. in Ajmer, of even the comparatively small urban population of about 2·65 millions in Rajasthan and 0·298 million in Ajmer depend on agriculture as their principal means of livelihood. Discussing the importance of Agriculture in our country, Agarwal rightly observes: "Agriculture has always occupied a place of pride in India's economy. That role it retains even today, inspite of the fact that the country is once again being steadily industrialised. The great significance of agriculture in the country's life and economy is well borne out by the fact that it is the main occupation of the people. Truly speaking, agriculture is not merely an occupation or a business proposition for the people, it is a tradition—a way of life which for centuries has shaped their thoughts, outlook and culture."

3. In accordance with the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme given fully in Part II-B of the Report and referred to in Section 6 of Chapter I, the classification of the agricultural people have been divided into the four livelihood agricultural classes. These classes already mentioned, namely (I) cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned, and their dependants; (II) cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned, and their dependants, (III) cultivating labourers and their dependants, and (IV) non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers, and their dependants. It is necessary to bear in mind the definitions of these terms as already pointed out in Section 6, Chapter I, as, otherwise, considerable confusion might arise in comparing the statistics with those collected by different investigators.

4. Subsidiary Table 5·6 given in Part I-B of the Report, shows the comparison of the livelihood classes of the 1951 Census with the occupational groups of 1931 Census. The flyleaf to the table gives the details of the groups of 1931 Census which correspond to different livelihood classes of 1951. It will be observed that the four agricultural

---

1. 'Indian Agriculture and its Problems', By A. N. Agarwal, Page 1 (Ranjit Printers and Publishers, Chandni Chowk, Delhi).

livelihood classes correspond to the occupational groups of 1931 as shown in Table No. 169 below.

TABLE No. 169.

Livelihood Classes I to IV of 1951 Census corresponding to the occupational groups of 1931.

Livelihood Class of 1951	Occupational group of 1931 Census
I. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned, and their dependants.	5. Cultivating owners. 8. Cultivators of JHUM and shifting areas. N. B. (There were no entries in 1951 Census under this head).
II. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned; and their dependants.	6. Tenant cultivators.
III. Cultivating labourers; and their dependants.	7. Agricultural labourers.
IV. Non-cultivating owners of land; Agricultural rent receivers; and their dependants	1. Non-cultivating proprietors taking rent in money or kind. Estate Agents, Managers, Rent Collectors etc.

5. It is to be noted that the category of agriculture in 1931 not only included the above five occupational groups corresponding to the four agricultural-livelihood classes, but 12 other occupational groups which are now included amongst the different livelihood classes of Industries and Services as shown in Table No. 170 below:—

TABLE No. 170.

Agricultural occupational groups of 1931 Census corresponding to Livelihood Classes V and VIII of 1951.

Livelihood class of 1951 Census	Occupational groups of 1931 Census.	Division of Industries and Services of 1951 Census.
V— Production other than cultivation.	(9) Cinchona plantation (10) Cocoanut            " (11) Coffee               " (12) Ganja                " (13) Pan vine             " (14) Rubber               " (15) Tea                   " (16) Market gardeners, flower and fruit growers.	0.3 Plantation Industries Owners, Managers and workers.
VIII—Other services and miscellaneous sources.	(2) Estate Agents and Managers of owners (4) Rent collectors, clerks etc. (3) Estate Agents and Managers of Government.	9.0 Services otherwise unclassified. 8.7 Employees of State Government.



6. In making comparison with the 1931 Census figures, therefore the changes in the classification have to be taken into account and figures of livelihood classes are accordingly compared, as far as it is possible to do so, in Subsidiary Table 5·6 mentioned above.

7. The definitions of cultivating owners, tenant cultivators, agricultural labourers and non-cultivating proprietors taking rent in money or kind, of the 1931 Census classification were practically the same as the corresponding definitions for the cultivators of owned land, those of unowned land, of agricultural labourers and rent receivers respectively, belonging to Livelihood Classes I to IV at the 1951 Census.

8. Table A-V (Towns arranged territorially with population by livelihood classes), given in Part II-A of the Report, contains details of distribution of the agricultural classes in each town of the State. Tehsilwise distribution in the urban and rural areas will be found in Table E-(Summary figures for Districts). Particulars of the agricultural classes in respect of each village of the State are contained in the Primary Census Abstract of each district given in the respective District Census Handbook.

9. The economic status of the agricultural classes showing self-supporting, earning dependants and non-earning dependants *i. e.* the economically active, semi-active and passive persons in the different parts of the State down to the district level is given in Economic Table I in Part II-B of the Report. The break-up for the Census tracts would be found in the District Census Handbooks. The Secondary means of livelihood of the economically active or semi-active persons of the agricultural classes is contained in the Economic Table II for the State, each Natural Division and District. Details for the Census tracts would be available in the District Census Handbooks.

10. The Subsidiary Tables of the 4th series contained in Part I-B of the Report form the basis of the review in this Chapter. In Subsidiary Table 4·1, the ratio of agricultural classes per 1,000 persons of general population is considered, along with the number in each of the four agricultural livelihood classes and sub-classes of 10,000 persons of all agricultural classes; in this table a comparison was to be attempted with agricultural holdings by size, partly from the data collected at the census and partly from the information about the size of holdings to be supplied by the Director of Land Records. But as there were no systematic land records in the integrating States the desired figures could not be made available.

11. Subsidiary Tables 4·2 to 4·5 deal with each of the four agricultural livelihood classes separately and show the distribution of 10,000 persons of each livelihood class in each of the three sub-classes of self-supporting persons, non-earning dependants and earning dependants. They also give an analysis of the secondary means of livelihood of 10,000 persons of each livelihood class.

12. Subsidiary Table 4·6 gives a complete picture of active and semi-active people in cultivation. It thus also shows how far the contribution to agricultural principal means of livelihood is other than cultivation.

13 Subsidiary Tables 4·7 to 4·9 deal with the progress of cultivation during the last three decades, components of cultivated area per capita, land area per capita and trend of cultivation per capita, during this period. The population figures made use of in preparing these tables are based on the census figures. The agricultural statistics required have been taken from the "Brochure on Land Utilization Statistics, Pre-war Average to 1948-49 corrected as on 20th December, 1951," issued by the Economic and Statistical Adviser, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India in 1951. The following extracts from the explanatory note to the said brochure being necessary for a proper appreciation of the figures are reproduced below.

14. "The land utilization statistics presented in this brochure cover the period from the decennium ending 1938-39 to 1948-49. The State-wise figures have been arranged on the basis of Post-Independence administrative set-up of India. The data for 1947-48 and 1948-49 have been repeated from the earlier years in case of those States whose return for both or either of these years have not yet been received. In such cases, the data are subject to revision."

15. "Due to the extension of coverage the data are not strictly comparable as between different years. This particularly applies to the statistics for 1947-48 and 1948-49 which have somewhat larger coverage in some cases than that for the previous years. It is also to be noted that in several cases the variation in acreage figures for the same item as between different years is due partly to revised classification or correction of a faulty estimate and partly to actual increase or decrease."

16. "Since all the States do not collect statistics of land utilization and further since there are certain pockets which are left out of account even in the States where such statistics are collected, data on land utilization are not available for the entire geographical area of the country. Most of the unclassified area appears to be unsuitable for cultivation because of hilly or mountainous terrain, desert land or arid climate."

17. Subsidiary Table 4.11 (Distribution of cultivated area and density on cultivated land) is prepared from the figures of cultivated area supplied by the Director of Agriculture, Government of Rajasthan whose covering note explains the limitation on the extent of accuracy of the figures. The relevant extracts of which are reproduced in Chapter I Section 2 para 59.

18. Subsidiary Table 4.9 which gives the land area per capita and the trend of cultivation, deals with the supreme problem of population and sustenance and has been reviewed at length in Section 9 of this Chapter.

19. Some climatological tables supplied by Meteorological Department, Government of India are also included in Part I-C Appendices, as annexure to Appendix I of the report showing the climatic changes at different times. These tables will be useful in fully appreciating the progress of cultivation in the different decades and the changes in the food production of the State and its different parts.

20. The question of the reliability of the Census Economic Data has already been discussed in Chapter I, Section 6 (Livelihood Pattern), and need not be repeated here. The agricultural statistics used in this Chapter are those compiled by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture Government of India, as well as those supplied by the Agricultural Department of the Government of Rajasthan. The Director of Agriculture, Rajasthan, was very particular to get the required figures collected by very experienced statisticians of his office and the figures may be taken as the only reliable available statistics in the State.

## SECTION 2.

**Agricultural population ratios; self-supporting persons and dependants; secondary means of livelihood of agricultural classes.**

1. Subsidiary Table 4.1 given in Part I-B of the report shows the percentage of the general population belonging to the agricultural classes in the State and its different parts, on a perusal of which we find that 70.9 per cent. of the total population in Rajasthan and only 45.4 per cent in

Ajmer State, belong to agricultural classes. The comparative position of these States with some other States of India can be seen in the inset Table No. 171.

TABLE No. 171.

Percentage of Agricultural Classes to total population in Rajasthan and other States of India.

State	Percentage of agricultural classes to total population	State	Percentage of agricultural classes to total population	The above figures show that Rajasthan is more agricultural than Ajmer, West Bengal, Madras, Mysore, Travancore-Cochin, Coorg, Bombay, Saurashtra, Kutch, Hyderabad, Bhopal Punjab and Delhi and less agricultural than the remaining States. Similarly Ajmer is more agricultural than Kutch and Delhi only.
1	2	1	2	
Rajasthan	70.9	Coorg	57.8	
Ajmer	45.4	Bombay	61.5	
India	69.8	Saurashtra	46.6	
Uttar Pradesh	74.2	Kutch	42.0	
Bihar	86.0	Madhya Pradesh	76.0	
Orissa	79.3	Madhya Bharat	72.2	
West Bengal	57.2	Hyderabad	68.8	
Assam	73.3	Bhopal	65.6	
Manipur	83.4	Vindhya Pradesh	87.1	
Tripura	75.3	Punjab	64.5	
Sikkim	91.6	P. E. P. S. U.	72.6	
Madras	64.9	Delhi	9.9	
Mysore	69.9	Bilaspur	90.7	
Travancore Cochin	54.8	Himachal Pradesh	93.0	

2. The position in the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan is summarised below in Table No. 172.

TABLE No. 172.

State and Natural Divisions	Percentage of Agricultural classes to total population
1	2
Rajasthan State ..	70.9
East Rajasthan Plain Division	69.8
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	68.7
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	77.4
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	72.5

nearly 89 per cent. and the lowest in Jaisalmer being 36 only. In 17 out of the 25 districts

Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the least percentage of agricultural classes as could naturally be expected. But it is interesting to find that their percentage is only slightly higher in the East Rajasthan Plain Division where the availability of cultivated land and good irrigation might be expected to increase the ratio, but it seems that the existence of the capital of the State, the industrial towns and trading centres in this area reduce the proportion of agriculturists. The backward areas of the Hills Division have naturally the highest percentage of people belonging to agricultural classes and the Plateau Division occupies the intermediate position in this respect. Coming to districts we find from Subsidiary Table 4.1 that their proportion is the highest in Dungarpur and Banswara being

of Rajasthan they form more than 70 per cent. of the population. The districts where their strength is more than 80 per cent, in addition to Dungarpur and Banswara mentioned above are Chittorgarh, Bhilwara and Ganganagar. Nowhere are they less than 50 per cent. except in Jaisalmer District.

3. Subsidiary Table 4.1 brings out a very significant fact that out of every 10,000 people belonging to the agricultural classes, 4,499 or a little less than half the number of persons in Rajasthan are just doing nothing, while 3,927 are actual self-supporting workers and 1,574 are earning dependants. In Ajmer the number of non-earning dependants per 10,000 of population, is 3,743 that of earning dependants is 2,053 and self-supporting persons are 4,204 per 10,000. At this point the attention of the readers is invited to Introduction of Report Part II-B, Economic Tables where it has been made clear that "in the enumeration stage about non-earning dependants no difficulty was felt, but some confusion was noticed, so far as self-supporting persons and earning dependants were concerned, specially in joint families, of agriculturists as well as non-agriculturists, where a definite share of income of every individual member could not accurately be ascertained even in the mind of the householder. Consequently in some cases, though very few, the adult sons and their wives in agriculturist households were treated as earning dependants, in others as self-supporting, although their share of income was sufficient for their maintenance." The effect of this misunderstanding becomes more visible when the figures are viewed at district level.

4. The following Table No. 173 shows the comparative position of Rajasthan and Ajmer as well as some States in India. The figures show that the percentage of non-earning dependants is higher in Rajasthan than in Ajmer and Madhya Pradesh States but lower than that in Madhya Bharat, Madras, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Bhopal, out of the States given in this Table.

TABLE No. 173.

Dependence among agricultural classes in some States of India.

No. per 1,000 of people of Agricultural classes who are

Name of State	No. per 1,000 of people of Agricultural classes who are		
	Self-supporting	Earning Dependants	Non-earning dependants
Rajasthan .. .. .	392.7	157.4	449.9
Ajmer .. .. .	420.4	205.3	374.3
Madhya Bharat .. .. .	318.8	111.7	569.5
Madhya Pradesh .. .. .	300.4	288.6	411.0
Madras .. .. .	258.4	50.7	690.9
Orissa .. .. .	277.7	99.0	623.3
Uttar Pradesh .. .. .	296.9	141.8	561.3
Bhopal .. .. .	363.0	67.0	570.0

5. Table No. 174 below, shows the percentage of dependency in the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan. From this table it appears that the variation in the percentage of non-earning dependants from Division to Division is not very significant. It varies from 49.04 in Dry Area Division to 42.91 in East Rajasthan Plain Division, the span of variation is only nearly 6.0 per cent.

TABLE No. 174.

Dependency amongst Agricultural Classes in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Percentage to total agricultural classes of		
	Self-supporting persons	Earning Dependants	Non-earning Dependants.
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	40·96	16·13	42·91
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	41·56	9·30	49·04
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	33·12	22·81	44·07
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	35·62	20·61	43·77

6. Coming to Districts, we find from Subsidiary Table 4·1 that the percentage is the highest in Ganganagar District (52) and next to it in Sirohi and Jodhpur 51·5 and 51·4 respectively. This proportion is found to be the lowest in Tonk *i.e.*, 38·0 per cent. and Sawai Madhopur 38·5 per cent. In Ajmer it is lower than any district of Rajasthan being 37·4 per cent. only.

7. For a possible explanation of this abnormal dependency, we might examine the composition of the population according to age, as given in Subsidiary Tables 6·9 to 6·14 in Part I-B of the Report. The following Table No. 175 gives the abstracted statistics from these tables for Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions, as well as for the Ganganagar District.

TABLE No. 175.

Distribution of 10,000 persons of Agricultural Classes by Age Groups in Rajasthan, Ajmer and certain areas.

Age Groups	Rajas- than State	East Rajas- than Plain Dn.	Rajas- than Dry Area Dn.	Rajas- than Hills Division	Rajas- than Plateau Dn.	Ganga- nagar Distt.	Ajmer
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Infants (below 1 year) ..	372	419	329	353	339	441	420
Young children (Aged 1-4 years).	1,091	1,027	1,103	1,285	1,047	1,417	1,094
Boys and girls (Aged 5-14 years.)	2,589	2,473	2,633	2,829	2,596	2,534	2,474
Young men and women (Aged 15-34 years) .. ..	3,235	3,232	3,196	3,190	3,375	3,227	3,321
Middle aged persons (Aged 35-54 years) .. ..	1,937	1,972	1,978	1,727	1,978	1,679	1,891
Elderly persons (Aged 55 and over) .. ..	776	878	760	615	666	702	800

These figures when viewed with Table No. 173 above show that persons of the age-groups 15-34 and 35 to 54, or all young men and women as well as middle aged persons who should normally be expected to work are 51.7 per cent. of the total agricultural class while the proportion of self-supporting persons and earning dependants combined is 55.0 per cent. This means that all persons of earning age group are really earning, none of them is sitting idle; on the other hand, in addition to them, more than 3 per cent. of the earners come from the lower or higher age groups who should normally be expected not to be earning. Similarly it will also be seen that out of the total number of non-earning dependants (45 per cent.) nearly half *i. e.*, 22.4 per cent. come from infants, young-children and elderly persons combined, whom none would expect to earn. The remaining 22.6 per cent. must belong to age group 5-14 who form 26 per cent. of the agricultural population. The result is that of the young boys of the age group 5-14 also 3.4 per cent. are earning and the rest are non-earning. This is not an undesirable position if the remaining 22.6 per cent. are utilizing their time by going to school but this does not seem to be the case. The fact seems to be that the proportion has swollen partly because of the social custom whereby females of well-to-do households keep aloof from profitable enterprise and also to some extent to the sentiment against declaring the housewives to be working in the fields although in fact they do work.

8. From Table No. 175 given in para 7 above it will also be seen that the total number of infants, young children and elderly persons per 10,000 of agricultural classes in Rajasthan, Ajmer and the different areas are as shown below in Table No. 176

TABLE No. 176.

Total number of infants, young children and elderly persons per 10,000 of agricultural classes in Rajasthan, Ajmer and different parts.

State and Natural Divisions	1	2
		Infants, young children and elderly persons per 1,000 of Agricultural Classes
Rajasthan State .. .. .	.. .. .	2,239
East Rajasthan Plain Division	.. .. .	2,325
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	.. .. .	2,192
Rajasthan Hills Division	.. .. .	2,253
Rajasthan Plateau Division	.. .. .	2,048
Ganganagar District	.. .. .	2,560
Ajmer State	.. .. .	2,314

These figures show that the number of persons who are likely to be dependant on account of their age is larger in the Ganganagar District than in the other districts. Their number in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Hills Division is less than that in the Ganganagar District. The age composition, therefore, accounts for the high percentage of dependency in Ganganagar District compared to that in the other Divisions and other parts of the State.

9. To examine the matter further we may add the earning and non-earning dependants and we find that 60.73 per cent. of the agricultural classes in Rajasthan as well as in the Natural Divisions and districts are included in this combined category. The figures of non-earning dependants and earning dependants as given in Subsidiary Table 4.1 further show that in the Ganganagar District, where this over-all position is the same as in many other places, the earning dependants are fewer and the non-earning dependants are more in number. One possible explanation for this state of affairs seems to be that there is much poor labouring

population and that the dependants of cultivators are not as much employed as they would otherwise be. This is corroborated by Subsidiary Table 4·2 about Livelihood Class I. There we find that for the State as a whole the figure of earning dependants per 10,000 people of Livelihood Class I is 1,804 and the corresponding figure for Ganganagar is only 1,014. Examining the position about the secondary means of livelihood in Subsidiary Table 4·2, we find that the number of owner cultivators, who earn secondary income by working as agricultural labourers, is 307 out of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class I for the State as a whole, while the corresponding figure for the Ganganagar District is only 135. Therefore, it means that in the Ganganagar District these people are not obtaining jobs as cultivating labourers because there is already a full quota of cultivating labourers. The part time man cannot compete with the fulltime man, who is himself demanding employment. This fact is further brought out in Subsidiary Table 4·4 for Livelihood Class III. In this table, we find that the number of self-supporting persons per 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class III for the State as a whole is 4,295 and for the Ganganagar District it is only 3,539 which means that in the Ganganagar District the percentage of employment as self-supporting persons amongst the class of agricultural labourers themselves is lower than the average for the State as a whole.

10. It is clear that in the Ganganagar District the scope for secondary means of livelihood as cultivating labourers or otherwise is, therefore, very little. Another possible explanation of the higher proportion of non-working dependants can be found in the fact that the people are financially so well off that they do not need their young children in the age group 5-14 to be yoked to any profitable enterprise. It has been observed that children of the age group 5-14 are sent to school in places where education facilities exist by parents who are well off while those in less affluent circumstances have to entrust them some minor work whereby they might add some thing to the family income. But figures showing agewise distribution of the non-earning dependants have not been worked out nor is the number of children of school going age actually attending schools available which would have enabled us to attempt to confirm the above presumption. Another aspect of the situation is that these so called non-earning dependants are not all really economically inactive or non-working, most of them do help in the household occupation by looking after the family cattle or driving the persian wheel, but as they do not make any tangible or substantial addition to the family income they escaped notice and were entered as non-earning dependants.

11. The position would have been clearer if the slips of non-earning dependants would have been sorted by age and sex. This would have enabled us to find out how many of these people are not earning because of the sentiment against sending ladies to work for gain and how many due to age of incapacity, and the number of able aged non-earning persons might have given some idea of unemployment or competition on jobs. But it is too late now to work out the figures.

12. A detailed analysis of the secondary means of livelihood of agricultural classes for the general, rural and urban population of the State, Natural Divisions, and districts, will be found in the Economic Table II (Secondary Means of Livelihood) given in Part II-B of the Report. It is interesting to observe that amongst the agricultural classes, in Rajasthan, only about 21·11 per cent. and in Ajmer 32·98 per cent. of the people have a secondary source of income, of whom about 15·74 per cent. in Rajasthan and 20·53 per cent. in Ajmer are earning dependants and the rest are the self-supporting persons.

13 The following Table No. 177 compares the proportion of self-supporting persons and earning dependants per 10,000 persons of all agricultural classes, who follow the occupation mentioned in column 1 as a secondary means of livelihood, in Rajasthan and Ajmer with those in Madhya Pradesh.



TABLE No. 177.

Self-supporting persons and non-earning dependants per 10,000 persons of all agricultural classes whose secondary means of livelihood is mentioned in column 1.

Secondary means of Livelihood	Economic Status	Per 10,000 to total agricultural classes in		
		Rajasthan	Ajmer	Madhya Pradesh
1	2	3	4	5
Cultivation of owned land	Self-supporting persons ..	22	261	50
	Earning dependants ..	706	133	490
Cultivation of unowned land ..	Self-supporting persons ..	30	78	60
	Earning dependants ..	233	44	30
Employment as cultivating labourers ..	Self-supporting persons ..	70	278	180
	Earning dependants ..	275	1,446	2,050
Rent on agricultural land ..	Self-supporting persons ..	18	16	40
	Earning dependants ..	19	9	10
<b>Total Agricultural Classes</b> ..		<b>1,373</b>	<b>2,265</b>	<b>2,910</b>
Production (other than cultivation)	Self-supporting persons ..	215	235	170
	Earning dependants ..	199	242	140
Commerce ..	Self-supporting persons ..	39	102	70
	Earning dependants ..	17	38	30
Transport ..	Self-supporting persons ..	10	27	20
	Earning dependants ..	6	4	..
Other services and miscellaneous sources ..	Self-supporting persons ..	136	252	80
	Earning dependants ..	116	133	140
<b>Total non-Agricultural Classes</b> ..		<b>738</b>	<b>1,033</b>	<b>650</b>

The figures show that out of these about 36 per cent. of the people of all agricultural classes, 29 per cent. have returned agricultural occupation itself as a secondary means of occupation in Madhya Pradesh. The same is the pattern in Rajasthan and Ajmer, because we see that in Rajasthan 13.73 out of 21.11 per cent. of the people with secondary source of income are engaged in agricultural activities for their secondary source of income and only about 7.38 per

cent. of the people in Rajasthan have other types of secondary source of income. Of these 7.38 per cent, as many as 4.14 per cent. get subsidiary employment in some kind of industry, of Livelihood Class V which also includes such industries allied to agriculture as stock-raising, breeding of small animals, forestry etc. In Ajmer, the remaining 10.23 per cent. have their secondary occupations other than agriculture. Out of them 4.77 per cent. get subsidiary income from industry 3.85 per cent. from services etc., 1.4 per cent. from trade and 0.1 per cent. from transport.

14. The following Table No. 178 shows the position in Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 178.

Self-supporting persons and earning dependants per 10,000 persons of all agricultural classes whose secondary means of livelihood is mentioned in column 1, in Natural Divisions.

Secondary means of livelihood	Economic Status	East Rajasthan Plain Dn.	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division
1	2	3	4	5	6
Cultivation of owned land	Self-supporting persons	29	22	11	11
	Earning dependants	559	211	1,568.	1,276
Cultivation of unowned land	Self-supporting persons	44	21	18	16
	Earning dependants..	231	388	105	43
Employment as cultivating labourers	Self-supporting persons	107	38	38	58
	Earning dependants	332	132	261	426
Rent on agricultural land	Self-supporting persons	20	24	8	12
	Earning dependants	28	12	13	14
Production other than cultivation	Self-supporting persons	191	214	251	256
	Earning dependants ..	238	99	243	180
Commerce	Self-supporting persons	47	28	33	49
	Earning dependants ..	23	12	12	19
Transport	Self-supporting persons.	14	7	5	6
	Earning dependants..	10	3	0.99	1
Other services and miscellaneous sources	Self-supporting persons	152	112	141	135
	Earning dependants..	165	74	78	101

15. The picture in the Natural Divisions does not differ very much from one another. In all the Divisions more than 8 per cent. of the total people of agricultural classes obtain subsidiary income from agricultural occupations. The percentage is highest in Rajasthan Hills Division (20.22) and the lowest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (8.48). The highest percentage of those among agriculture classes who obtain subsidiary income from industry, is found in Rajasthan Hills Division (4.94) and the lowest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (3.13). Service provides supplementary income to the highest proportion (3.17) in East Rajasthan Plain Division and to the lowest proportion in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (1.86). Commerce is followed as a subsidiary occupation by the largest proportion in East Rajasthan Plain Division (7.0) and by the smallest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (4.0).

16. Before proceeding to analyse the secondary means of livelihood of the actual working population amongst the agricultural classes it is desirable to examine the percentage of people in the different agricultural livelihood classes who have a secondary source of income. The following Table No. 179 shows the percentage of self-supporting persons as well as earning dependants separately who have a secondary means of livelihood, to the total population of each of the four agricultural livelihood classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

TABLE No. 179.

Proportion of Self-supporting persons and earning dependants with secondary income in each agricultural livelihood class in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

	I		II		III		IV	
	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned		Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned		Cultivating labourers		Non-cultivating owners of land; agricultural rent receivers etc.	
	Raj.	Ajmer	Raj.	Ajmer	Raj.	Ajmer	Raj.	Ajmer
Percentage of Self-supporting persons having secondary means of livelihood to the total population of the class.	5.15	9.68	5.71	13.42	4.94	9.14	10.21	15.35
Percentage of Earning dependants having secondary income to the total population of the class.	18.04	21.76	12.13	18.66	13.86	12.36	8.60	12.01
Total ..	23.19	31.44	17.84	32.08	18.80	21.50	18.81	27.36

17. It is interesting to observe that in Rajasthan the largest percentage of people with secondary means of livelihood, to the total population of the class, is to be found in Livelihood Class I (23.19), while it is least (17.84) in Livelihood Class II. In Livelihood Class III and in Livelihood Class IV also it is almost the same 18.81. This Class IV, however, has another peculiarity that the percentage of self-supporting persons having a secondary means of livelihood is higher even than the percentage of the earning dependants, whereas in Livelihood Classes I, II and III the percentage of self-supporting persons having a secondary means of livelihood is about 1/3 of the percentage of earning dependants. The reason for this is obvious. The

self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class IV have ample time at their disposal to be able to undertake a subsidiary occupation, because they are the non-cultivating owners of land, who get the rent and who are not otherwise employed to earn their principal means of livelihood. Besides, they do not feel the necessity of sending their dependants to work rather they have a disinclination towards it. In the case of the other three livelihood classes particularly Class III, this is not the case. They have to work to earn their principal means of livelihood and have to put in additional effort to supplement their income by undertaking other occupations. In this respect the figures of Ajmer also are similar to those of Rajasthan. But in Ajmer, the largest percentage of people with secondary means of livelihood is found in the Livelihood Class II (32.08) although it is not much higher than that of Class I which is 31.44. It is the least, as in Rajasthan, in Livelihood Class III (21.50). The percentage in Class IV is fairly high in this State being 27.36.

18. The following Table No.180 gives the distribution of 1,000 self-supporting persons and earning dependants belonging to all the agricultural classes into the eight livelihood classes according to their secondary means of livelihood.

Secondary means of livelihood of the working agricultural population.

TABLE No.- 180.

Secondary income of economically active and semi-active persons in agricultural occupations per 1,000, (number of self-supporting persons and earning dependants who derive their secondary means of livelihood as mentioned in column 1).

Secondary means of Livelihood	Rajasthan State	Ajmer State
1	2	3
I Cultivators of owned land ..	132.3	63.0
II Cultivators of unowned land ..	45.8	19.5
III Cultivating labourers and their dependants.	62.7	293.5
IV Non-cultivating owners of land ..	6.7	4.0
V Production other than cultivation ..	75.3	67.2
VI Commerce .. .. .	10.2	20.4
VII Transport .. .. .	2.9	4.9
VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources.	43.8	51.5

19. It is interesting to observe from the marginal table that only 37.9 persons out of 1,000 self-supporting persons and earning dependants of all the agricultural classes have a secondary means of livelihood. In other words, only 37.9 per cent. of the working population have a supplementary source of income. Again, it is to be observed that this 37.9 per cent. of people include nearly 24.7 per cent. of those who again have for their secondary means of livelihood one of the agricultural activities. This means that only about 13.2 per cent. of the working population of the agricultural classes have taken to occupations other than agriculture to supplement their earnings from agriculture. In Ajmer State 52.4 per cent. of working population have a supplementary source of income. Out of whom, nearly 38.0 per cent. again have as their secondary means of livelihood

one of the agricultural activities. This means that only about 14.4 per cent. of working population of the agricultural classes have taken to occupations other than agriculture to supplement their earning from agriculture as compared with 13.2 per cent. in Rajasthan. The over all position in both the States is therefore similar.

20. Such an abnormal dependence on agriculture is, to say the least, alarming. It shows how the huge population belonging to the agricultural classes depends almost entirely on agriculture and have hardly any other supplementary source of income, with the result that in time of fall in agricultural prices or unfavourable seasons they have no other means of keeping up their standard of living. The necessity of introducing cottage industries and other non-agricultural occupations amongst the agricultural classes cannot, therefore, be over-stressed.

### SECTION 3.

#### Relative proportion of different Agricultural Classes, correlated to distribution of land in agricultural holdings of different sizes.

A perusal of Subsidiary Table 4.1 in Part I-B of the Report and Table No. 181 below shows that 61.11 per cent. in Rajasthan and 82.45 per cent. in Ajmer, of the Agricultural classes, belong to Livelihood Class I (Cultivators of owned land). Cultivating labourers of Livelihood Class III claim 4.38 per cent. in Rajasthan and 6.2 per cent. in Ajmer, while Cultivators of unowned land are 32.26 per cent. in Rajasthan and 6.92 per cent. in Ajmer. Non-cultivating owners of land claim 2.25 per cent. in Rajasthan and 4.42 per cent. in Ajmer.

2. Among the Natural Divisions, the Dry Area Division has a very low percentage under Livelihood Class I, and a comparatively high percentage under Livelihood Class II. The case is exactly the reverse in Hills Division, the Plateau Division and also in Ajmer State. In the Hills Division, the proportion of persons of Livelihood Class I is more than 11 times as high as that of those belonging to Class II. In the Plateau Division it is nearly 20 times higher and in Ajmer more than 12 times higher. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division the owner cultivators are nearly double in proportion to the cultivators of unowned land. The proportion of Cultivating labourers is the highest in the Plateau Division (10.54 p.c.) and lowest in the Hills Division (2.50 p.c.)

TABLE No. 181.

Percentage distribution of agricultural population into the different Agricultural Livelihood Classes.

Percentage of all agricultural classes belonging to Livelihood Class.

State and Natural Division.	I-Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned.	II-Cultivators of land wholly or mainly un-owned.	III-Cultivating labourers.	IV-Non-cultivating owners of land; agricultural rent receivers.
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State .. ..	61.11	32.26	4.38	2.25
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. ..	63.21	31.50	3.02	2.27
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. ..	35.28	58.70	4.49	1.53
Rajasthan Hills Division .. ..	87.17	8.03	2.50	2.30
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. ..	81.54	4.20	10.54	3.72
Ajmer State .. ..	82.45	6.92	6.21	4.42

3. Unless it be due to the confusion in classification at the enumeration stage this typical distribution suggests an inference that there are larger holdings in the Dry Area Division than elsewhere, so that the owners have to get a part of their holding leased to others who cultivate it in the capacity of cultivators of unowned land whose number is proportionately higher here. We have already discussed in Chapter I. Sec. 6 para 13, the highest percentage of cultivators of unowned land in the Dry Area Division. In the Hills Division the holdings seem to be comparatively small which can be cultivated by the owners without the necessity of letting or employing labourers; but, unfortunately, we have no statistics of size of holdings to support this presumption.

4. Table No. 181 given above shows that next to the Dry Area Division already referred to above, the largest percentage of cultivators of unowned land **The Cultivators of Un-owned Land.** (31.50 p.c.) are to be found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division; while the smallest percentage 4.20 is noticed in the Plateau Division. In the Hills Division, it is 8.03.

5. On examining the district figures in Subsidiary Table 4.1 in Part I-B of the Report, in respect of the percentage of cultivators of unowned land, it is found that very low percentages are noticed in the Dungarpur (1.86), Jhalawar (1.78) and Udaipur (3.76), Districts of the Hills and Plateau Divisions and the highest percentage 85.75 is found in the Barmer District of the Rajasthan Dry Area. The Sirohi District in the Hills Division and Bhilwara District in the Rajasthan Plain Division attract particular attention, because in the former district the percentage of cultivators of unowned land is as high as 58.55 compared to the average of 8.03 for the Rajasthan Hills Division. This phenomenon is connected with the land tenure system of this old integrated State, where obviously the custom of sub-letting agricultural land was common. The low percentage of cultivators of unowned land (5.47) in the Bhilwara District compared to the average of 31.50 for the East Rajasthan Plain Division is explained by the fact that in this district the percentage of owner cultivators is comparatively very high. In fact, in the Bhilwara District the percentage of the owner cultivators is 87.54 compared to 63.21 for the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

6. Subsidiary Table 6.2 given in Part I-B of the Report shows the composition of the rural and urban families in the different districts. Assuming the composition of the rural families to be applicable generally to the agricultural classes and knowing the total population of the agricultural Livelihood **Size of Holdings.** Classes I and IV in the different parts of the State, as given in Economic Table I in Part II-B of the Report, we can arrive at an approximate number of agricultural families possessing agricultural holdings in a particular part. Table No. 182 given below is prepared on this assumption for Rajasthan and its Natural Divisions. The area figures represent those supplied by the Director of Agriculture, Rajasthan Government.

TABLE No. 182.

Average occupied area per family of land holders (i.e., of Livelihood Classes I and IV) in Rajasthan and Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Approximate number of families.	Average occupied area for the year 1950 in 000 acres	Average area per family in acres.
1	2	3	4
1. Rajasthan State	2,505,273	29,980	11.96
2. East Rajasthan Plain Dn.	1,031,511	9,014	8.76
3. Rajasthan Dry Area Dn.	724,411	16,695	23.05
4. Rajasthan Hills Dn.	389,352	1,225	3.15
5. Rajasthan Plateau Dn.	359,999	3,046	3.47

7. These figures also corroborate the conclusion arrived at in para 3 above and show how great is the difference in the cultivated area per family in the Hills Division (3.5 acres) as contrasted with the Dry Area Division (23.05 acres). The area per family in the Plateau and Plain Divisions is also very low being 8.47 and 8.76 acres respectively. Lest the high figures of the Dry Area Division misguide us, it must be remembered that in that Division the so called cultivated area is cultivated only once in three years on an average. In Rajasthan as a whole also the average area per family comes to about 12 acres only while it is more than 17 acres in Madhya Pradesh.

8. Another significant point brought out by the study is that there is no doubt that our agricultural holdings are very small, and the question poses itself whether the fragmentation of holding is the most crippling handicap in our agriculture or whether it is that of a few land-owners holding all the land with vast majority of landless agriculturists. A further examination of the figures will enable us to find out the answer.

9. In Table No. 181 given in para 2 above we have seen that of the agricultural population of Rajasthan and Ajmer the great majority (61.11 and 82.45 per cent. respectively) belongs to the owner cultivator class, while the non-cultivating owners are almost negligible (2.25 and 4.42 per cent. respectively). The agriculturists of unowned land constitute a comparatively significant proportion in Rajasthan (32.26) and very insignificant (6.92 per cent.) in Ajmer while the labourers are insignificant in both States being (4.38 and 6.21 per cent.) only. In Chapter I, Section 6 para 24 to 28 figures have been given to show that while the proportion of the agricultural labourers has been falling from Census to Census, that of the cultivators (Livelihood Classes I and II) has been increasing. As already pointed out, in 1921 the proportion of the cultivators to the total population was 54.56 per cent, compared to 66.17 per cent. now. The percentage of agricultural labourers in 1921 was 5.5, compared to 3.5 in 1951. At the 1931 Census, as we have said, the entire population was not classified but the percentage to total population of self-supporting persons and earning dependants amongst the cultivators of the 1951 Census, which is 36.6 in Rajasthan and 25.4 in Ajmer can be compared with similar percentage of 17.9 in Rajasthan and 11.8 in Ajmer at the 1931 Census. The corresponding percentages for the agricultural labourers are, as already pointed out, 17.4 and 18.5 and 1.76 and 1.92 during 1931 and 1951 Censuses for Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively. Such a large difference is due to the fact that all the working dependants who were employed in agricultural activities were placed in this class in the 1931 Census Report. By deducting the figures of working dependants (13.67) from 17.4 we get the percentage of self-supporting persons in class III to be 3.73 in Rajasthan and by deducting 13.56 from 18.5, we find their number to be 4.94 in Ajmer in 1931.

10. The analysis of relative proportion of the different agricultural classes amongst our agricultural population of the 1951 Census and the comparison of the available data about their proportion in the total population during the Censuses of 1921, 1931 and 1951, bring out the outstanding fact that not only a vast majority of our agricultural population belongs to the category of owner cultivators but that their proportion is increasing during the last 30 years and that of the agricultural labour class is falling and at the same time the size of the agricultural holding is dwindling down.

11. Comparing the size of the average agricultural holding in U. S. S. R. of 1,600 acres, in Canada of 234 acres and in U.S.A. of 159 acres; Agrawal rightly deplores the existence of the tiny holdings in India varying from 3 acres in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to about 12 acres in Bombay and points out how these "toy-size" holdings "are un-economic even for a wooden plough and a pair of bullocks" and says, "The only feasible and effective alternative is, therefore, to try joint farming on co-operative basis." According to him "Joint farming is indispensable for us. In this we will find a solution for overcoming the evil effects of small and scattered



holdings and for enabling the small farmers to obtain the benefits of large scale farming. By doing so, the unit of cultivation will increase in which case mechanisation will become easily possible, perhaps even necessary." <sup>1</sup>

12. Describing the fragmentary and small holdings as the bane of our agriculture, Bimal Ghose, says, "Not only are holdings small and un-economic for even the existing stage of agricultural development, but the methods of cultivation are also almost primitive. Little use is made of agricultural machinery, while tractors and harvesting machines are useless in the present stage of agriculture. In truth, as Lenin said, 'small farming cannot extricate itself from poverty.' "Pointing out that the most effective means of the increasing agricultural production is to replace the small-scale farming by large-scale co-operative or collective cultivation". Bimal Ghose sounds a note of warning and says, "The history of Russian agricultural development is witness to the necessity of proceeding gradually in the sphere of agriculture, of not attempting to transform it overnight." <sup>2</sup>

13. While outlining the agricultural development in Soviet Russia, Ghose described the difficulties in the initial stages of agricultural development and quotes Stalin to point out that in the beginning the only way out "is to unite the small and dwarf peasant farms gradually but surely, not by pressure, but by example and persuasion, into large farms based on common, co-operative, collective cultivation of the soil, with the use of agricultural machines and tractors and scientific methods of intensive agriculture." <sup>3</sup>

14. Explaining the difference between co-operative and collective farming, Bimal Ghose quotes Sir John Maynard and says "Co-operators choose their own associates and presumably exclude the less promising of the applicants for admission, whereas every local peasant who is ready to pool his rights has a legal claim to membership of the Collective farm, unless he is an impenitent enemy of the Soviet Government." <sup>4</sup>

15. According to Bimal Ghose Co-operative farming is, therefore, probably the initial step indicated to increase the size of our agricultural holding. The history of co-operative effort amongst our cultivators has not been, on the other hand, very encouraging and it will require the utmost patience and careful handling of the problem before any appreciable progress is made on voluntary basis. Again, if compulsion in any form is resorted to, its repercussions are bound to be serious. Bimal Ghose says, "But collectivization will not be achieved without tears, for the simple reason that the peasantry, by its very position, is not socialistic."

16. It is, therefore, clear that while the fragmentation of the holdings is the biggest problem of our agriculture, the methods of resolving it will need the utmost caution and the closest consideration so that while its crippling effect on our agricultural production may be removed as soon as possible, it might not involve us in difficulties which might prove to be formidable or inconvenient not only administratively, but also economically, if, in trying to get more production quickly, we disturb the existing order and are not able to substitute a better machinery for handling agriculture efficiently. The present movement about redistribution of land, particularly amongst the landless agriculturists, if it results in further fragmentation of holdings it might do more harm than good. On the other hand if by this voluntary method the land secured is formed into large holdings and cultivated on co-operative or collective basis it might serve as a pilot scheme of collectivization. The Governor of Madhya Pradesh has rightly remarked, "The land problem is baffling. There is a vague and ill-understood cry for the redistribution of land. Immediately the question arises as to what constitutes an economic unit and whether any redistribution of land over 50 acres in extent will ensure to the

1. 'Indian Agriculture and its Problems' by A.N. Agrawal, M. A. p. 135-38. (Ranjit Printers and Publishers, Delhi).

2. Planning for India by Bimal C. Ghose, (Second Edition July, 1945) p. 30-31. 3 & 4 Ibid, Pages 73 and 68.

tiller the equivalent of such economic unit. The existing land would not on redistribution work out even to an acre to each holder. Efficiency of production on the contrary requires a minimum holding of 12 to 15 acres. It is thus that between equity of ownership and efficiency of cultivation there is a vast gap and the problem is insoluble except by way of organising co-operative cultivation of large units of land measuring say, a hundred or two hundred acres, by a Co-operative Society. The problem requires study, patience and wisdom."

#### SECTION 4.

#### Cultivators of Land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants.

1. As we have seen, the cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants account for over 61·10 and 82·45 per cent. of the total population of all the agricultural classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively. Their actual number is about 6·62 millions in Rajasthan and 0·26 million in Ajmer and their distribution in the different parts of the State is given in Economic Table 1 given in Part II-B of the Report.

2. The distribution of ten thousand people of Livelihood Class I amongst the sub-classes is further given in Subsidiary Table 4·2 in Part I-B of the Report, from which we find that in this livelihood class there are 44·04 per cent. of non-earning dependants, 37·92 per cent. of self-supporting persons and 18·04 per cent. of earning dependants in Rajasthan and 37·13 per cent. of non-earning dependants, 41·11 per cent. of self-supporting persons and 21·76 per cent. of earning dependants in Ajmer. The figures for the State and the Natural Divisions are summarised in Table No. 183 below:—

TABLE No. 183.

Distribution of 10,000 cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants amongst sub-classes of economically active, semi-active and passive persons.

State and Natural Divisions	Number per 10,000 of Livelihood Class I		
	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants
1	2	3	4
Rajasthan State ..	3,792	4,404	1,804
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	4,087	4,152	1,761
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	3,973	5,190	837
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	3,318	4,325	2,357
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	3,463	4,378	2,159
Ajmer State ..	4,111	3,713	2,176

3. While considering the question of earning dependants particularly amongst agriculturists cultivating land jointly, it is necessary to bear in mind the definition of the term as used at the Census. An earning dependant for purposes of Census was a person who secured a regular income even though small and not sufficient to support him or her alone. Where two or more members of a family household jointly cultivated land and secured an income therefrom, each of them was regarded as earning a part of the income. None of them was, therefore, regarded as non-earning dependant. Each of them was classed as either a "self-supporting person" or an "earning dependant", according to the share of income attributable to him or her by the head of the family. It was made clear to the enumerators during the

Census that this did not mean that every one who worked was necessarily a self-supporting person or an earning dependant. Thus, for instance, a housewife who cooked for the family, brought up the children, or managed the household was doing very valuable work but nevertheless, her economic status was that of a "non-earning dependant" if she also did not earn an income.

4. A perusal of the above figures show that the Dry Area Division has a greater proportion of non-earning dependants and smaller proportion of earning dependants as compared to the State figures as well as figures of other Divisions. The availability of the secondary means of income is obviously the main factor responsible for this difference, as also the fact that Livelihood Class I is perhaps relatively well off and does not put the dependants to work to the same extent as in other areas. The number of earning dependants is proportionately higher in the Hills Division which leads to an inference that the comparatively low standard of living and the poverty of the people of that place compels them to send their young children to other jobs possibly collecting and selling fuel and fodder which is plentiful there, or to work as a labourer on the road or the mine. Their proportion in the Plateau Division is more or less the same and similar reasons may be attributed to this fact there also. The proportion of non-earning dependants is the least in Ajmer State because here the proportion of both self-supporting persons as well as earning dependants is comparatively higher. The reason is obvious. Ajmer has decidedly greater chances for a person to engage himself in subsidiary jobs. Subsidiary Table 4·2 in Part I-B of the Report shows that in the Ganganagar District the number of earning dependants of Livelihood Class I is comparatively low (1·014 per 10,000) of total belonging to that class and, as has been explained before in Section 2 para 10 above, one of the principal causes is that there is little work for this category of persons as there are more people than are required to handle the available cultivation. Their percentage is the least in Churu as could naturally be expected for there is no scope for it.

5. The Dungarpur District of the Rajasthan Hills Division stands out conspicuously with the largest number (3,325 per 10,000) of earning dependants. It will be noticed from a perusal of the Subsidiary Table 4·2 that the number of earning dependants is comparatively large in all the backward districts of Hills and Plateau Divisions as well as East Rajasthan Plain Division. The number of earning dependants in Jhalawar (2,481), Bundi (2,223), Tonk (2,366) and Banswara (2,173) Districts is also high. We have already seen in the previous section that in the Hills and Plateau Divisions the holdings are very small and the figures of earning dependants in Livelihood Class I show how the people cultivate their own land with the members of their family and maintain themselves.

6. Subsidiary Table 4·2 also gives the analysis of the secondary means of livelihood of 10,000 persons belonging to Livelihood Class I. While considering the figures of secondary means of livelihood in this table, it is necessary to point out that during enumeration some of the earning dependants of families of cultivators were recorded as belonging to Livelihood Class I in certain places, while in some places they were recorded under Livelihood Class III. The instructions given were that such persons should be recorded under Livelihood Class I, if they had a legal right to the land; otherwise they were to be treated as ordinary cultivating labourers of Livelihood Class III, because such persons could not be owners and again would also not be responsible for cultivation. In view of the fact that some of the enumerators could not appreciate the distinction, there was the likelihood of recording the earning dependants of a cultivator either under Livelihood Class I or under Livelihood Class III according to the enumerator's interpretation of the instructions. It is, therefore, necessary to treat the figures of earning dependants shown under Livelihood Class I and III in columns 6 and 10 of Subsidiary Table 4·2 together, and if this is done the probable error in recording the earning dependants of the family of an agriculturist working in the field under Livelihood Class I or III would not matter.

7. The combined total of the earning dependants under Livelihood Class I and III as given in columns 6 and 10 of Subsidiary Table 4·2 for the State as a whole shows that 1,335 persons out of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class I are either working on their own or somebody else's land. Similarly in the Dungarpur District the combined total of columns 6 and 10 shows that as many as 3,224 persons are similarly engaged in agricultural work.

8. Subsidiary Table 4·2 brings forth another very significant point. It shows that amongst the people belonging to Livelihood Class I only 23·19 per cent. in Rajasthan and 31·44 in Ajmer have a secondary source of income. **Almost complete dependants on Agriculture.** including earning dependants who form 18·04 per cent. in Rajasthan and 21·76 per cent. in Ajmer. Again out of the 23·19 per cent. of people who have a secondary means of income, 15·72 per cent. in Rajasthan and 21·22 per cent. in Ajmer, derive it from one of the agricultural sources and only 7·47 and 10·22 per cent. of them get it from non-agricultural occupations, in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively. This again shows how this principal agricultural class which accounts for 61·10 and 82·45 per cent. of the huge agricultural population is almost completely dependent on agriculture.

9. The main source of secondary income other than that from agriculture is from production other than cultivation (Livelihood Class V). A perusal of columns 13 and 14 of the Subsidiary Table 4·2 shows that, in **Sources of Secondary income.** Rajasthan about 4·39 and in Ajmer 4·94 per cent. of the people (including 2·16 in Rajasthan and 2·42 in Ajmer representing the self-supporting persons and 2·3 in Rajasthan and 2·52 in Ajmer representing the earning dependants) derive their secondary income from this source which again includes, as we have seen before, the industries of Division '0' such as stock-raising, plantation, forestry, fishing, hunting and rearing of small animals etc.

10. Subsidiary Table 4·2 also shows that the largest proportion of persons deriving their secondary income from industries are to be found in the Rajasthan Hills Division consisting of Udaipur, Dungarpur, Banswara and Sirohi Districts. This is because of the Sugar, Gur and Cotton industries and the fact that there are rich mines in Udaipur District. The East Rajasthan Plain Division comes next in importance in respect of secondary income from sources under Livelihood Class V, and, as we will see in Chapter V, this Division is comparatively rich in industries and also contains good mines.

## SECTION 5.

### Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants.

The cultivators of unowned land and their dependants form about 32·26 per cent. of the total number of agricultural classes in Rajasthan and 6·92 per cent. in Ajmer State, their actual number is 3,495,773 in Rajasthan and 21,786 in Ajmer and their distribution in the State is shown in Main Economic Table I in Part II-B of the Report.

2. Subsidiary Table 4·3 in Part I-B of the Report gives the distribution of ten thousand persons of Livelihood Class II into the sub-classes of **Workers and Dependants.** self-supporting persons and earning and non-earning dependants. It is seen that in this livelihood class there are in Rajasthan 46·01 per cent. and in Ajmer 37·79 per cent. of non-earning dependants, 41·86 per cent. in Rajasthan and 43·55 in Ajmer of self-supporting persons and 12·13 per cent. in Rajasthan and 18·66 in Ajmer of earning dependants. The distribution in the Natural Divisions is given in Table No. 184 below.

TABLE No. 184.

Distribution of 10,000 cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants into the sub-classes of economically active, semi-active and passive persons.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 of Livelihood Class II.		
	Self-supp- orting persons	Non-earn- ing dependants	Earning depen- dants.
Rajasthan State ..	4,186	4,601	1,213
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	4,133	4,463	1,404
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	4,330	4,682	988
Rajasthan Hills Division.	3,059	4,906	2,035
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	3,464	4,776	1,760
Ajmer State ..	4,355	3,779	1,866

3. These figures show that the number of earning dependants, in this livelihood class also, is the least in the Dry Area Division as in the case of Class I. A comparison of Table No. 184 with Table No. 183 given in para 2 of the previous section shows that except in the Dry Area Division the proportion of earning dependants to non-earning dependants in livelihood Class II, is higher throughout the State than in the case for livelihood Class I and this is natural, because Livelihood Class I would be better off than Class II.

4. The overall percentage of the people of Livelihood Class II in Rajasthan who have a secondary means of income is 18·81 including 12·13 per cent. of earning dependants. In Ajmer they are 32·08 per cent. including 18·66 per cent. of earning dependants. Again out of 18·81 per cent. of the people having a secondary source of income in Rajasthan 10·59 per cent. get it from one of the Agricultural sources and only 8·22 per cent. of the people derive it from non-agricultural occupations. In Ajmer agricultural occupations provide subsidiary income to 21·73 per cent. and non-agricultural ones to 10·35 per cent.

5. Production other than cultivation provides the secondary income to 3·94 per cent. of the people out of 8·22 per cent. in Rajasthan mentioned above, as will be seen from a perusal of Subsidiary Table 4·3 in Part I-B of the Report. In Ajmer it is the subsidiary occupation of 4·56 per cent. The largest proportion of people of Livelihood Class II who derive their secondary source of income from one of the occupations under Livelihood Class V is to be found in the Plateau Division for reasons given in the previous section dealing with Livelihood Class I.

6. It is interesting to note the similarity in the distribution of persons belonging to Livelihood Class II and deriving their secondary income from "Production other than cultivation" as given in Subsidiary Table 4·3 and those belonging to Livelihood Class I and having the same source of secondary income as shown in Subsidiary Table 4·2. Except that the proportion is low, in the case of the people of Livelihood Class II, the distribution is otherwise similar to that for Livelihood Class I.

## SECTION 6.

## Cultivating Labourers and their dependants.

TABLE No. 185

## Distribution of cultivating labourers

State and Natural Division	Percentage of cultivating labourers to total agricultural population-
Rajasthan State .. .. .	4.38
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	3.02
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	4.49
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	2.50
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	10.54
Ajmer State .. .. .	6.21

About 4.38 per cent. of the total number of persons belonging to the agricultural classes are found to be cultivating labourers in Rajasthan and 6.21 in Ajmer. Their actual number is about 474,996 in Rajasthan and 19,568 in Ajmer and their distribution in the State, and the Natural Divisions is given in Table No. 185 below. Main Economic Table B-I, given in Part II-B of the Report, contains the details of the actual number of the cultivating labourers in each district and Subsidiary Table 4.1 in Part I-B gives the respective number in each district per 10,000 persons of all agricultural classes. The proportion of agriculturists to total agricultural population varies from 2.50 per cent. in Rajasthan Hills Division to 10.54 in P. C. the Plateau Division.

2. Subsidiary Table 4.4 shows that amongst the agricultural labourers in Rajasthan, the percentage of non-earning dependants is 43.19, that of earning dependants is 13.86 and that of the self-supporting persons is 42.95. The distribution amongst the Natural Divisions and Ajmer State is given in Table No. 186 below.

TABLE No. 186.

## Distribution of 10,000 agricultural labourers and their dependants into sub-classes of economically active, semi-active and passive persons.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 of Livelihood Class III		
	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants.	Earning dependants.
Rajasthan State .. .. .	4,295	4,319	1,386
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	4,633	3,996	1,371
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	3,922	5,047	1,031
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	4,042	4,334	1,624
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	4,399	3,935	1,666
Ajmer State .. .. .	5,569	3,205	1,236

3. A perusal of the figures in table above shows that the largest percentage of non-earning dependants in Livelihood Class III also, is to be found in the Dry Area Division. The Plateau and the East Rajasthan Plain Divisions have the smallest percentage of non-earning dependants in Livelihood Class III. In Ajmer the proportion of the non-earning dependants is the least, but here we find a corresponding higher proportion of self-supporting persons. Apart from the question of the financial position, the problem of availability of employment, already referred to, is also an important factor to be considered, while judging the comparative proportion of earning dependants in different parts.



4. It is interesting to compare the above Table No. 186 to table 183 given in para 2 Section 4 and Table 184 in para 2 Section 5 above to see how the largest percentage 42.95 of self-supporting persons is to be found amongst the agricultural labouring class as compared to that amongst the owner cultivators (37.92) and the tenant cultivators (41.86) similarly the percentage of non-earning dependants is least amongst the agricultural labourers. In considering this circumstance, the definition of self-supporting persons, as given in the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme in Part II-B of the Report, might also be referred to. The agricultural labourer earning a comparatively small income may be a self-supporting person although with the same income a member of the class of owner cultivator might be classified as only an earning dependant. Therefore, as most of the people of Livelihood Class III, who can work, earn enough to support themselves, the percentage of earning dependants is found to be lower (13.86) in this class compared to that amongst the owner cultivators (18.04) and higher than in the cultivators of unowned land (12.13). But the overall percentage of dependency, that is the total of earning and non-earning dependants, is lowest amongst the agricultural labourers (57.05 per cent.) compared to that amongst the owner cultivators (62.08) and the cultivators of unowned land (58.14). This would be naturally expected because the poor people cannot afford to have a large number of non-earning dependants.

5. The bare fact that the proportion of dependants is the least amongst the agricultural labourers is no indication of their standard of living which is, undoubtedly of the lowest category. All that the figures bring out is that this class of agricultural population contains the largest proportion of economically active population.

6. In Chapter I, Section VI, we have already pointed out how the percentage of agricultural labourers has been falling from census to census. It is to be remembered that this class of people have been working under very adverse circumstances. Apart from the hard conditions of work, which need considerable physical strain in inclement weather, their remuneration is hardly enough to enable them to keep fit. Even the methods of payments are in many places irregular and unsatisfactory. Again, the employment is seasonal and most of them have no employment for the rest of the year.

7. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 4.4 shows that the percentage of agricultural labourers, who have a secondary source of income, is only (18.80) including the earning dependants (65,855) who constitute 13.86 per cent. In other words, the self-supporting persons amongst the agricultural labourers, who have a secondary source of income form only 4.94 per cent. of the total population of the agricultural labourers. The earning dependants amongst these people are also mostly engaged as agricultural labourers. In fact, out of 13.86 per cent. of the earning dependants, 8.17 per cent. get the income by working as agricultural labourers that is to say only about 5.69 per cent. have a real secondary source of income. It will therefore, be seen that excluding the earning dependants who get their income by working as agricultural labourers, only 10.63 per cent of the people of Livelihood Class III have a secondary source of income. Even amongst these 10.63 per cent, 3.56 per cent. get their secondary source of income from one of the agricultural occupations other than that of agricultural labourer. Thus only 7.07 per cent. of the entire agricultural labour class of the State, numbering about 33,601 persons have a secondary source of income other than that from the seasonal agriculture.

8. These are thought provoking figures. They indicate (a) the plight of the agricultural labour classes and (b) the main cause of the shortage of this form of labour. 81.20 per cent of 474,996 people, belonging to the class of agricultural labourers, have no work for about six months and they have to depend for the whole year on the meagre seasonal



earning of 42·95 per cent. amongst them who are self-supporting persons and 13·86 per cent. who are earning dependants. This mass of half-fed people are likely to fall an easy prey not only to any natural calamity but also to any mischievous propaganda calculated to stir up their feelings to bring about the most serious consequences.

9. The main problems of the agricultural labour class are (a) improvement in their present conditions of work with ensured minimum wage and (b) provision of subsidiary work. The theory of improving their condition by redistribution of land, as we have seen, in Section 3 of this Chapter, is fraught with the danger of further fragmentation of holdings likely to adversely affect the agricultural economy.

10. Improvement in the present conditions of work cannot be brought about by mere legislation. If the agriculturist is himself half-fed on his economic holding, he could hardly be held further to feed his labour. The problem is in fact tied up with that of development in agriculture, to which we will briefly refer in the concluding section of this Chapter, where we shall also point out how cottage industries need much greater emphasis than they have received so far and how the actual progress made in Japan in this connection has been encouraging.

11. We conclude the discussion on the agricultural labourers by quoting a pertinent passage about their condition from the summary of developments reviewed in the Report of the Sub-Committee of National Planning Committee. "This labour is scattered unorganised, ill-paid, ignorant and very scantily nourished, clothed or housed. There is no organisation amongst them to fight for and safeguard their interests, secure decent conditions of work, rates of wages and a measure of social security which the industrial worker is now steadily attaining. The seasonal character of the occupation militates against any immediate improvement unless and until an all round national policy concerning landholding and cultivation is adopted and carried into effect."<sup>1</sup>

#### SECTION 7.

#### Non-cultivating owners of cultivable land, Agricultural rent receivers and their dependants.

The non-cultivating owners of agricultural land in Rajasthan number only 244,278 or about 2·25 per cent. of the total number of persons under all agricultural classes. In Ajmer their number is 13,906 or 4·42 per cent. Their distribution in the State is given in Economic Table B-I in Part II-B of the Report. The largest percentage (3·72) of these people amongst the agricultural classes is to be found in the Plateau Division and the smallest (1·53) in the Dry Area Division, while the East Rajasthan Plain Division contains 2·27 per cent. and the Hills Division 2·30 per cent. Amongst the districts their percentage is highest in the Bundi District and it is lowest in the Bharatpur District.

2. Subsidiary Table 4·5 given in Part I-B of the Report shows, as would be expected, that the largest proportion of non-earning dependants is to be found in **Workers and dependants.** this livelihood class. Out of 10,000 persons of this class, there are as many as 5,948 persons in the State, who are non-earning dependants, and only 860 earning dependants. Thus, the percentage of earning dependants in this livelihood class comes to only about 8·6.

3. The distribution of the people of Livelihood Class, IV according to their economic status is given in table 18·7 below:—

<sup>1</sup> National Planning Committee series (Report of the Sub-Committee Land Policy, Agricultural Labour Insurance by K. T. Shah, p. 175 (Vora & Co., Published Ltd., Bombay 2.))

TABLE No. 187.

Distribution of 10,000 non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants into the sub-classes of economically active, semi-active and passive persons.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 of Livelihood Class IV		
	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants
Rajasthan State .. .. .	3,192	5,948	860
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	3,115	6,190	695
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	3,070	6,385	545
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	3,178	5,845	977
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	3,458	5,162	1,380
Ajmer State .. .. .	3,808	4,991	1,201

4. This table brings out another interesting characteristic of the non-cultivating owners of land. The proportion of self-supporting persons amongst them is also the least in Dry Area Division and it is the largest in the Plateau Division. The proportion of non-earning dependants amongst the people of this livelihood class is also largest (63.85) in the Dry Area Division and is almost equally large (61.90) in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. It is least (51.62) in the Plateau Division where the percentage of earning dependants is highest (13.80) as against Dry Area Division where it is lowest (5.45). With a view to clearly appreciate the economic status of these non-cultivating owners of land, we shall study their secondary source of income a little more closely.

5. Table 188 given below shows very clearly the secondary source of income of the non-cultivating owners of land and furnishes a beautiful picture of who they really are.

TABLE No. 188.

Secondary means of livelihood of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class IV

Nature of Secondary activity	Number of persons following Subsidiary Occupations named in column 1 per 10,000 of the total belonging to Livelihood Class IV in					
	Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cultivation of owned land. { Self-supporting persons	245	294	410	180	46	100
{ Earning dependants.	131	94	98	193	188	35

TABLE No. 188 (Contd).

Number of persons following Subsidiary Occupations named in column 1 per 10,000 of the total belonging to Livelihood Class IV in

Nature of Secondary activity		Number of persons following Subsidiary Occupations named in column 1 per 10,000 of the total belonging to Livelihood Class IV in					
		Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plain Division	Ajmer State
1.		2	3	4	5	6	7
II Cultivation of un-owned land	Self-supporting persons	35	51	46	16	8	40
	Earning dependants.	34	49	45	12	12	18
III Employment as cultivating labourers	Self-supporting persons	91	105	22	80	132	375
	Earning dependants.	186	129	31	102	491	565
IV Rent on agricultural land	Self-supporting persons	..	..	..	..	..	..
	Earning dependants.	216	131	175	356	322	95
V Production other than cultivation	Self-supporting persons.	182	143	128	201	295	217
	Earning dependants	143	154	73	133	191	231
VI Commerce	Self-supporting persons.	148	124	66	219	216	212
	Earning dependants.	24	26	10	34	27	47
VII Transport	Self-supporting persons.	13	12	5	16	21	50
	Earning dependants.	4	7	..	3	1	27
VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources	Self-supporting persons.	307	299	208	368	371	541
	Earning dependants.	122	104	113	144	147	183

6. It will be seen that out of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class IV in Rajasthan, the largest number of self-supporting persons are to be found supplementing their own income from Other services and miscellaneous sources, the number being 307. Next to them in numerical importance are those whose secondary occupation is cultivation of their own land, their number being 245. Next to them are those engaged in production other than cultivation (182) which includes cattle-breeding as already noted. Amongst their earning dependants, the very large proportion of them engage themselves as agricultural labourers their number being 186. Next to them in number are those engaged in production other than cultivation (143). Next to them are those engaged in other services and miscellaneous sources. (122). This would seem that these earning dependants of non-cultivating owners of land actually work as labourers, cattle breeders and servants also. The figures against employment as cultivating labourers, reveal two facts about this livelihood class. They show that out of 10,000 persons in Rajasthan as many as 91 self-supporting persons and 186 earning dependants work as agricultural labourers also. In other words nearly three per cent. of these rent receivers, are not of the traditional category of big Jagirdars or Thikanadars but are petty land owners. Amongst the others some have their own land which they cultivate, others get

themselves employed in State and other services and others again engage themselves as cultivating labourers or as breeders of cattle or as workers in other industries.

7. It is to be noted, while studying the Table No. 188 in para 5 above that the largest number of non-cultivating owners of land, who work as cultivating labourers also, is to be found in the Plateau Division (132 self-supporting and 491 earning dependants). The East Rajasthan Plain Division comes next with 105 and 129 followed by the Hills Division with 80 and 102. In the Dry Area Division their number is the least being 22 and 31. Coming to the District level we find that it is in the Tonk District that the largest number of self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class IV work as agricultural labourers to supplement their income. Their number is as large as 428 out of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class IV as shown in Subsidiary Table 4.5 given in Part I-B of the Report. In the Jhalawar District on the other hand, the largest number of earning dependants numbering 795 per 10,000 are found working as labourers in the fields while in the Tonk and Kotah Districts the numbers are 537 and 518 respectively. The number of those engaged in other services etc. as a Subsidiary occupation, including self-supporting persons and earning dependants is the highest in Plateau Division (518); next to it in the Hills Division (512) followed by East Rajasthan Plain Division (403). The Dry Area Division stands last (321).

8. The analysis of the figures of Table No. 188 in para 5 above and the Subsidiary Table 4.5, therefore, tend to show that the non-cultivating owners of land and agricultural rent receivers are not all big land owners who thrive on the labour of the tillers of the soil by getting only rent from them, but that there is quite a reasonable proportion amongst them who are themselves compelled to work as labourers in the fields or servants to supplement their income.

9. About 3.25 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class IV in Rajasthan get subsidiary income from "Production other than cultivation" and about 1.72 per cent. from "Commerce". Here again, the Plateau Division has the largest percentage (4.86) of people belonging to Livelihood Class IV and getting subsidiary income from production other than cultivation.

10. The forest industries and the cattle grazing of the Plateau Division are mainly responsible for attracting under Livelihood Class V as many as 295 self-supporting persons and 191 earning dependants out of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class IV, showing that these are the only industries, in the backward areas which are taken up by people of all agricultural classes including the land owner Class IV. It further throws light on the real status of these "receivers of rent".

11. In considering the figures under Livelihood Class V it is to be remembered that it includes, as we have pointed out, such industries as stock-raising, rearing of small animals, poultry farming, lac propagation, plantation industries, forestry and wood cutting, hunting and fishing. This will account for the larger figures in districts of Plateau Division and further shows that amongst the people of Livelihood Class IV, there are not only agricultural labourers but also perhaps persons working in forest etc.

12. It is also interesting to note in Table No. 188 given in para 5 above and in Subsidiary Table 4.5 that quite a few non-cultivating owners of land get subsidiary income from transport activities being only 17 per 10,000 of the total. The largest figure is again in the Plateau Division (22). Amongst the districts the largest number is found in Bikaner (93). In Ajmer their proportion is more than 4 times that of Rajasthan being 77 per 10,000. This may, perhaps be due to big Railway Establishment in Ajmer which gives scope for these rent receivers to supplement their income.

13. Table No. 188 given in para 5 above further shows that about 3.07 per cent. of persons of Livelihood Class IV in Rajasthan who are self-supporting persons, get subsidiary income from Other services and miscellaneous sources. That is to say, these "land owners" contain actual serving-class people also.

14. A careful analysis of the figures given in Subsidiary Table 4.5 and Table 188 above, therefore, shows that in Rajasthan over 10.31 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class IV belong to the category of persons who have to supplement their income by working as labourers or servants or as cattle breeders.

## SECTION 8.

## Active and Semi-Active Workers in Cultivation.

1. Subsidiary Table 4.6 shows that the total number of active and semi-active workers in cultivation in Rajasthan is only about 5.75 millions and in Ajmer 0.192 million. They include the self-supporting persons and the earning dependants of the agricultural classes engaged in cultivation work, as well as self-supporting persons of non-agricultural classes having cultivation as their secondary means of livelihood and also the earning dependants of the non-agricultural classes engaged in cultivation work. In other words, including the whole-time and part-time workers in cultivation, there are 5,753,389 people in Rajasthan and 192,263 in Ajmer who are responsible for the entire agricultural production in the State. The total population of the State is 15.290 millions and, therefore it is the actual full time and part-time labour of 37.4 per cent. of the people which produces the agricultural crops in the State. We will presently consider the problem of assessing the labour of the part-time workers to arrive at a tentative conclusion about the percentage of full-time workers which may be said to feed the people by producing food-crops for local consumption and for export if any.

2. It is interesting to note that of the total number of 5.75 millions active and semi-active workers in the State, over 58 per cent. belong to the category of cultivators of owned land. The percentages of these workers in the three agricultural classes in the State and the Natural Divisions are given in Table 189 below.

TABLE No. 189.

Percentage of active and semi-active workers in different Agricultural livelihood classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

State and Natural Division.	Percentage of active and semi-active workers in cultivation.		
	I-Cultivators of owned land	II-Cultivators of un-owned land	III-Cultivators of labourers
1	2	3	4
Rajasthan State .. ..	58.6	31.6	9.8
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. ..	59.9	30.1	10.0
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. ..	32.9	60.6	6.5
Rajasthan Hills Division .. ..	85.0	7.1	7.3
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. ..	78.0	3.8	18.2
Ajmer State .. ..	60.5	6.6	32.9

3. These figures again bring out the contrast between Dry Area Division and the rest, connected with the agricultural economy of the two Divisions, discussed in Section 3 para 3 above, in connection with the nature of holdings. Although in the Dry Area Division 35.28 per cent. of people of agricultural classes belong to Livelihood Class I, the actual active and semi-active workers are only 32.9 per cent of the total number of such people in the Division. Similarly, while the percentage of cultivators of unowned land to the total number of people of all

agricultural classes is 58·71 in the Dry Area Division, their percentage amongst actual workers is as high as about 60·6. The figures for other Divisions are different. There we see on a comparison of Table No. 189 in para 2 above with Table No. 181 in para 2 of Section 3 of this Chapter, that the proportion of active and semi-active workers in cultivators of unowned land to the percentage of the total number of persons belonging to this class, is almost uniformly low and not as high as in Dry Area Division. This appears to be due to the fact that the cultivator of Class I in all except Dry Area Division has a small holding on which he has to work with his family to get his bread, while in the Dry Area Division where the holdings are large and in the hands of comparatively few well-to-do owners, the position is different and a large number of economically inactive people depend upon such self-supporting persons who lease out a portion of their holdings to tenants.

4. Assuming that an earning dependant does the work equal to about 1/3rd of that done by a self-supporting person on an average and further assuming that the effort of a self-supporting person for earning his secondary means of livelihood is equivalent to about 1/6th of that required for earning the principal means of livelihood, we can ascertain the ratio of active workers in cultivation to the total population giving a rough idea of the number of persons fed by an active worker in cultivation. Subsidiary Table 4·10 in Part I-B of the Report is prepared on these assumptions from Subsidiary Table 4·6 and it will be observed that according to this Table there are about 47 lacs of effective active workers in agriculture in Rajasthan and about a lac and a half (147,000) in Ajmer. In other words, therefore, all the food in the State is produced by the labour of these 47 and 1·47 lacs of people in Rajasthan and Ajmer. The total population of the State is about 152 lacs in Rajasthan and 6·93 lacs in Ajmer, showing that one active worker produces food and other crops for approximately 3·3 persons, in the population of Rajasthan and also for meeting the exports from the State if any. In Ajmer State, the active worker produces food and other crops for approximately 4·7 persons in the population and for meeting the exports from the State if any. The corresponding figures for the Natural Divisions also follow the same pattern. They are as follows.—

TABLE No. 190.

Consumers of Agricultural Products per head of effective active workers in agriculture in the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan.

Natural Division	Consumers per head of effective workers in agriculture
East Rajasthan Plain Division	3·3
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	3·3
Rajasthan Hills Division	3·3
Rajasthan Plateau Division	3·4

5. In considering the above figures it is to be remembered that they give only an approximate idea of the actual workers in cultivation and the number of persons depending for their food on them. Thus for example the agriculturists in Jaisalmer District are not alone supporting the total population of the district. They get considerable amount of imports from other districts of the State. Similarly the figures of 3·3 for Rajasthan Plain Division, Rajasthan Dry Area Division and Rajasthan Hills Division, have to be considered in the light of these remarks to appreciate their meaning.

6. A perusal of the Subsidiary Table 4·10 also shows that a pair of hands devoted to cultivation in the Barmer District produces food and other commodities for 2·9 persons; in the Jalore District a similar pair of hands produces food etc. for 3·0 persons and in the Jhalawar District for 3·2 persons. What these figures actually mean is that whereas the cultivators for Jaisalmer District do not feed the entire population of that district, the cultivators of Jhalawar, Kotah and Bundi not only feed their population, but also feed other people of the State.

7. It would have been of interest to compare the figures in Subsidiary Table 4·10 with the known facts about export and import of foodgrains. But reliable statistics of movement of foodgrains and the export and import position in the different districts of the State could not be got hold of. However from the study of the figures in the Subsidiary Table 4·10 we get a rough comparative idea of the mouths to be fed in different areas and the pair of hands at work to produce the food and the net result of their effort in making the area surplus, deficit or self-sufficient in foodgrains as observed above. We cannot draw any specific conclusions, because food is not produced only by hands, (although they are essential in its production). Other things such as land, water, manure etc., are also necessary for producing food and we will now proceed to consider in the next section the question of actual production of food with reference to the progress of cultivation and the growth of population.

#### SECTION 9.

#### Progress of cultivation correlated to the growth of general population.

1. Subsidiary Table 4·7 (progress of cultivation during three decades) given in Part I-B of the Report, shows how the average net area sown has changed during the last thirty years. It must, however, be remembered as mentioned in Section I above that these statistics do not represent the whole area of Rajasthan. The whole of the Hills Division is a non-reporting area. Besides, in the reporting area also, there are non-reporting patches, especially unsettled areas and Jagir areas from which figures are not available. Yet the available figures can be relied upon for studying the trend from decade to decade, because the above differences are constant throughout.

TABLE No. 191.

Average area sown from decade to decade in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Decade ending	Average area sown in acres in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1951	7,471,347	414,230
1941	6,339,888	307,399
1931	6,387,147	340,063
1921	5,501,979	327,184

2. A perusal of the figures in inset Table No. 191 shows that the average net area sown in the reporting areas of the State is highest in 1951 during the period of thirty years and has been showing steady rise during the last three decades. It was 5,502 thousand acres in 1921 and has risen to 7471 thousand acres in 1951. The rise has been nearly 35·8 per cent. In Ajmer, also the area on the whole has increased from 327 to 414 thousand acres although there is a fall in the middle decade.

The position in Natural Divisions can be seen in the Table No. 192 below which shows that the progress is the most marked in Rajasthan Dry Area Division where the area increased from 1,698 in 1921 to 3,328 thousand acres in 1951 or nearly double.



TABLE No. 192.

Average net area sown from decade to decade in Natural Divisions.

Average area sown in acres in

Decade ending	Average area sown in acres in			
	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division
1951	2,520,154	3,327,750	Not available	1,623,443
1941	2,810,360	2,564,245	do.	1,464,283
1931	2,529,513	2,420,232	do.	1,437,402
1921	2,654,209	1,697,672	do.	1,150,098

Rajasthan Plateau Division stands next in this respect where the average net area sown has increased from 1,150 thousand in 1921 to 1,623 thousand acres in 1951, thus showing an increase by 41.2 per cent. The East Rajasthan Plain Division stands last where the average net area sown has fallen from 2,654 in 1921 to 2,520 thousand acres only in 1951. The figures of the Hills Division are not available.

3. It is also encouraging to find that in Rajasthan the average net area irrigated has also been constantly increasing. It was 831 thousand acres in Rajasthan during the quinquennium ending 1921 and has now increased by nearly 50 per cent. to nearly 1,275 thousand acres. In Ajmer, the net area irrigated increased from 100 thousand acres in 1921 to 127 thousand acres in 1931 and then the progress has stopped, or rather it fell to 111 thousand acres in 1941. The area in 1951 is roughly the same as it was in 1921, only a slight increase by 4,035 acres, as shown in the following Table No. 193.

TABLE No. 193.

Average net area irrigated from decade to decade in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Decade ending.	Average net area irrigated in acres in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1951	1,274,981	104,170
1941	1,260,925	111,418
1931	932,520	127,040
1921	831,261	100,135

4. The following Table No. 194 shows the corresponding position in the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 194.

Average net area irrigated from decade to decade in Natural Divisions.

Average net area irrigated in acres in

Decade ending	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division
1951	435,497	717,395	Not available	122,089
1941	599,147	543,910	do.	117,868
1931	610,099	195,429	do.	126,992
1921	651,576	110,323	do.	69,362

It will be noticed that the remarkable increase in this intensive form of cultivation has taken place in the Dry Area Division where the average net area irrigated increased from 110 thousand acres in 1921 to 717 thousand acres in 1951 or nearly seven times. The progress of irrigation made in the Ganganagar District due to the Gang Canal is reflected in these figures. In the Plateau Division, there has been a rise in the net area under irrigation from 69 in 1921 to 122 thousand acres in 1951 although there is a fall in the decade 1931-40. In this Division, irrigation is mostly carried out from wells and tanks which have to depend upon rains. It is curious to note that the East Rajasthan Plain Division shows a marked and steady fall in this respect between 1921 and 1951, the fall being steady between 1921 and 1941 and abrupt in 1941-50. The decline in the net area sown in the East Rajasthan Plain Division can be said to be due to the fact that there is little or no canal irrigation and water level in wells is going down. Regarding water level what R. Mukerjee has said about U. P. applies to this Division also, specially to those parts which adjoin the U. P. He writes, "The Malthusian Law of Diminishing Returns is now operating not only by the soil but also by water acting as a limiting agent in agricultural development. In the United Provinces the limits of the flow irrigation have been nearly approached and in the future the Province will have to work more and more towards hydro-electric lift irrigation from tube-wells or low-level canals or rivers. It will have to utilise the sub-soil water reservoir to a greater extent than before. But even here the limits of well irrigation have been reached in some areas. In the driest zone in the United Provinces, the Muttra-Etawah region, little expansion of well irrigation is possible, due to the rapid fall of the sub-soil water level that is now putting too great a strain on the muscles of cattle and men, leading to a steady deterioration of agriculture. Throughout the plains of India a striking change of hydrographical conditions is indirectly brought about by deforestation in the hill slopes and overgrazing, especially in the riverine areas."\*

5. An attempt has been made to get the figures of rainfall in Rajasthan and principal places for as many years as possible with the help of the data available in the past Census Reports and the Reports received from the District Officers, specially in response to my circular on this subject. They are reproduced in Appendix I, Annexures IV and V, Part I-C of the Report.

\*Food Planning for four hundred years by Radhakamal Mukerjee page 11.

6. It will be observed that although the figures of rainfall do not indicate any substantial reduction, they reveal wide fluctuations; and this irregularity in the rainfall from year to year might be one of the causes for the fall in the water-level; but there might be other reasons also for this phenomenon and it would be worthwhile investigating this problem intensively, because it is the Plains Division from which more can be expected in the matter of production of foodgrains than from the Dry Area. The indiscreet deforestation is also said to be another probable reason for the water difficulty which is mainly responsible for the replacement of the more nutritious wheat and rice by the inferior food grain Jowar, Bajri and Maize. Deprecating the increase of area under inferior food grains at the cost of rice and wheat in India Radhakamal Mukerjee remarks "It is accordingly clearly evident that the food position in India is gradually becoming worse both with reference to the relative proportion of food production to mouths to feed and also with reference to the nutritive quality of the cereals."\*

Table No. 195 below shows the figures of average area irrigated more than once from decade to decade.

TABLE No. 195.

Average area irrigated more than once in acres, from decade to decade.

Decade ending	Average area irrigated more than once in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1951	37,994	24,553
1941	41,983	16,060
1931	60,384	12,670
1921	119,434	10,186

In Rajasthan the figures show that the average area irrigated more than once has been constantly decreasing. It was 119,434 thousand acres in Rajasthan during the quinquennium ending 1921 and has now reduced to nearly one-third *i. e.* 37,994 thousand acres in 1951. In Ajmer the area irrigated more than once has been constantly increasing. It was 10,186 thousand acres in 1921 and has now more than doubled to 24,553 thousand acres in 1951.

The position in Natural Divisions can be seen in Table No. 196 below.

TABLE No. 196.

Average area irrigated more than once in acres from decade to decade in Natural Divisions.

Decade ending	Average area irrigated more than once in			
	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division
1951	16,742	874	Not available	20,378
1941	22,078	..	do.	19,905
1931	42,053	..	do.	18,331
1921	102,470	..	do.	16,964

\*Food Planning for four hundred year by Radhakamal Mukerjee page 21.

The figures show that in the East Rajasthan Plain Division the remarkable decrease in this intensive form of cultivation has taken place, where the average area irrigated more than once decreased from 102·470 thousand acres in 1921 to 16·742 thousand acres in 1951 or nearly one-sixth of the former. On the contrary there has been a constant increase in the Rajasthan Plateau Division. It was 16·964 thousand acres in this Division during the decade ending on 1921 and has now increased to 20·378 thousand acres.

7. The average area sown more than once has also increased in Rajasthan from 432·07 thousand acres in 1921 to 860·78 thousand acres in 1951 as is clear from the Table No. 197 given below, although there is a fall in the decade 1921-1930.

TABLE No. 197.

Average area sown more than once from decade to decade in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Decade ending	Average area sown more than once in acres in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1951	860,776	47,017
1941	405,996	46,350
1931	372,985	98,220
1921	432,069	59,608

In Ajmer, the figures of net area sown more than once also show a different trend as they have risen in the decade 1921-1930 and then there is a sudden fall in 1941 with a slight rise in 1951. On the whole, there is a fall when compared with the figures of 1921.

8. The position in the Natural Divisions can be seen in the Table No. 198 below:—

TABLE No. 198.

Average area sown more than once from decade to decade in Natural Divisions.

Decade ending	Average area sown more than once in acres in			
	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division
1951	760,481	43,845	Not available	56,450
1941	331,773	24,148	—do—	50,075
1931	303,189	14,713	—do—	55,683
1921	367,391	25,677	—do—	38,501

The most significant rise is visible in East Rajasthan Plain Division from 367·39 thousand acres in 1921 to 760·48 thousand acres in 1951, although there is a fall between the two decades. The increase has been marked in the decade 1941-50, being more than double in 10 years, next to it in Dry Area Division from 25·67 in 1921 to 43·84 in 1951. It is the least in the Plateau Division being 38·50 in 1921 and 56·45 in 1951. This rise and fall may also have some relation to prevailing prices; but we have no price statistics available to enable us to examine the matter in this light.

9. The figures give an inference that the pressure of population has begun to cause greater intensive agriculture in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. Still the double cropped area is only 11.5 per cent. If irrigation facilities are made available there are possibilities for a further increase

10. The discussion about the progress of cultivation given above shows that at the end of three decades the net area sown in the State has increased but not at the same rate as the population. The area increased from 5501.97 in 1921 to 7471.34 in 1951 *i. e.*, 33.9 per cent. while the population rose from 9,868,088 in 1921 to 15,290,797 in 1951 *i. e.*, 55.1 per cent.

11. When we come to consider the problem of per capita cultivation during the three decades and examine Subsidiary Table 4.9 given in Part I-B of the Report, we notice a fall in the cultivation per head of population in the State which is alarming in some parts. The position is summarised in Table No. 199 given below for the State and the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 199.

Trend of cultivation per capita during three decades.

State and Natural Division	Area of cultivation per capita (in cents. 1 cent = $\frac{1}{100}$ acre)			
	1951	1941	1931	1921
Rajasthan State .. .. .	79.1	74.2	79.6	80.4
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	43.0	55.0	56.6	65.1
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	73.9	66.8	79.0	67.8
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	non reporting			
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	114.3	110.6	123.4	108.3
Ajmer State.. .. .	59.7	52.7	67.1	73.2

12. It will be seen from the above table that in 1921 every man, woman and child had each about 80.4 cents. (0.8 acres) of land to draw sustenance from. It was reduced to 79.6 cent in 1931 and was further reduced to 74.2 in 1941 and has since increased to 79.1 in 1951. In spite of the irrigation facilities made available during the last three decades the area of cultivation per capita has not reached the 1921 level. But the significant rise in the decade 1941-50 and the prospects based on the irrigation projects under contemplation give cause to believe that it may be possible in the next decade to make up the deficiency. In arriving at the above figures, due allowance has been made for the fact that the growth of irrigation is a form of intensive cultivation even if it is not superficially extensive. In fact the area of cultivation per capita, as calculated in Subsidiary Table 4.9 from Subsidiary Tables 4.8 and 4.7 takes into account the area under irrigation. In spite of this we find the poor result during the last three decades. The significant point to be noted is the fall in the area under cultivation defined in the manner indicated above where the actual area under cultivation is duly weighted to take into account the benefits of irrigation.

13. Another important feature revealed from the above figures is that it is the East Rajasthan Plain Division where the area of cultivation per capita shows an alarming decrease in the three decades. It is therefore to this Division that the attention of the authorities should be specially directed. The Bhakra Project and Chambal Project may perhaps not affect this area so much. The condition in Ajmer State is in no way better than that in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. The figures show a rise in the area of cultivation per capita in the Dry Area Division but here cultivation is possible in one out of three years. This is therefore no ground for consolation, although a rise in the Plain Division is a sufficient ground for consolation.

14. Reference to statistics of cultivated area per head of population from 1921 to 1951 thus shows convincingly that the phenomenon of growth of population out-stripping the progress of population has become a problem for us and was not a problem for our forefathers. It is obvious that in the last century, the growth of population and growth of cultivation went hand in hand and that the population began to out-strip food production during the last thirty years. Prior to 1920 the balance of population was maintained by periodical occurrences of famines and pestilence. This fact and the effect of the recent growth of population on the means of sustenance will help us to appreciate that we cannot lull ourselves to sleep in the belief that the population and food problem have been of old and that we should not worry about them. The statistics mentioned above demonstrate that this is a fallacy and that the problem of population outstripping cultivation is not an age-old problem but is one which has cropped up during our lifetime and has to be faced by us.

15. Although the net area sown in the State now has increased since 1921 as we have seen above, the yield of foodgrains per acre is another factor which has to be borne in mind before coming to a conclusion whether food is keeping pace with the growth of population. Unfortunately figures of yield rate for this State are not available either for the past years or the present. The general belief of all concerned consulted by me on this subject is that the yield rate is diminishing and various causes have been assigned for the phenomenon including the scarcity of manure etc., which have been discussed in para 14 Section 7 Chapter I. The growth of population running ahead of production of food is bound to run into a situation which must entail serious consequences as explained in concluding part of Chapter I, unless, on a Governmental scale, action is taken in time.

16. Assuming that the conditions in Ajmer are similar to those in Rajasthan regarding yield rate, the fact that it is diminishing, is further confirmed by the following Table No. 200 prepared from the figures supplied by the Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, for the following important crops in Ajmer.

TABLE No. 200.

Average yield (in lbs. per acre) of Principal Crops in Ajmer.

Crops	Year				
	1926-27	1931-32	1936-37	1941-42	1946-47
<b>Wheat—</b>					
Irrigated	2	3	4	5	6
Unirrigated	..	1,246	1,173	736	488
Both	..	270	630	448	352
	..	758	902	704	472
<b>Barley—</b>					
Irrigated	1,521	1,736	1,736	1,295	482
Unirrigated	800	494	750	647	272
Both	1,160	1,315	1,243	971	344

TABLE No. 200. (Contd.)

Crops	Year					
	1926-27	1931-32	1936-37	1941-42	1946-47	
<b>Jowar—</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6
Irrigated ..	..	..	..	..	..	120
Unirrigated ..	..	340	265	..	146	62
Both ..	..	..	..	..	146	88
<b>Bajra—</b>						
Irrigated ..	..	..	..	..	480	440
Unirrigated ..	..	..	..	..	851	84
Both ..	..	..	..	..	230	88
<b>Cotton—</b>						
Irrigated ..	..	269	232	160	181	181
Unirrigated ..	..	164	..	90	59	59
Both ..	..	216	..	125	139	139
<b>Maize—</b>						
Irrigated ..	..	1,309	807	867	368	368
Unirrigated ..	..	771	320	..	232	248
Both ..	..	1,040	563	..	352	304

17. The fall in the grain production capacity per capita is likely to be accompanied by one or other of the following three possible changes during this period.

**Effect of the fall in the grain production capacity per capita.**

- (i) The proportion of area under cultivation devoted to foodgrains may have decreased.
- (ii) Imports into the State from outside may have increased or exports from the State to outside may have decreased.
- (iii) The average annual rate of consumption per capita may have decreased (this may be caused by an increase in the relative proportion of those classes of the population whose annual rate of consumption per capita is below normal.)



18. The details of the percentage variation of area under staple foodgrains are not available for the whole decade. Whatever figures are available have been given in the following Table No. 201 as supplied by Commissioner, Civil Supplies, Rajasthan Government, Jaipur.

TABLE No. 201.

Area and production of principal crops in Rajasthan.  
Year 1948-51.

Crops	Area in thousand acres.			Production in thousand tons		
	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51
<b>Kharif Cereals.</b>						
Rice .. ..	74	101	170	23	14	52
Jowar .. ..	1,885	1,447	1,509	133	123	165
Bajra .. ..	3,586	5,134	5,757	255	254	317
Maize .. ..	697	680	644	152	85	75
Small Millets ..	584	584	584	88	88	88
<b>TOTAL KHARIF CEREALS ..</b>	<b>6,824</b>	<b>7,946</b>	<b>8,664</b>	<b>651</b>	<b>564</b>	<b>697</b>
<b>Rabi Cereals.</b>						
Wheat .. ..	991	1,085	1,220	217	193	252
Barley .. ..	486	505	668	135	132	171
<b>TOTAL RABI CEREALS ..</b>	<b>1,477</b>	<b>1,598</b>	<b>1,888</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>325</b>	<b>423</b>
Gram .. ..	1,389	1,191	1,411	327	119	194
<b>TOTAL .. ..</b>	<b>9,692</b>	<b>10,727</b>	<b>11,963</b>	<b>1,230</b>	<b>1,008</b>	<b>1,314</b>

We find from the above table that the production of the total cereals has increased from 1,230 thousand tons in the year 1948-49 to 1,314 thousand tons in the year 1950-51 a net increase of 6.83 per cent, although there was a fall in the intervening year 1949-50. But this increase in production is not in the same proportion as the increase in the area as it increased about 23.4 per cent. This fact also confirms the fall in the yield rate.

19. The statistics of yield of foodgrains discussed above has made it clear that although the overall net area under cultivation has increased the yield factor has for various reasons shown a downward trend at a time when the population has been increasing fast. The effect of the growing population on the food position can be best demonstrated by comparing the grain production capacity of cultivation per capita. But for want of reliable statistics it is not possible for us to do so now.

20. Statistics of imports and exports of foodgrains from the various districts of Rajasthan available with the Civil Supplies Department of the Government of Rajasthan are summarised below in Table No. 202.

TABLE No. 202.

Approximate quantity of foodgrains imported and exported from the districts of Rajasthan in the year 1949-50.

S. No.	District	Imported into (+) Exported from (-) in tons.
1.	Jaipur	+ 25,000
2.	Tonk	- 10,000
3.	Sawai Madhopur	- 10,000
4.	Bharatpur	- 4,000
5.	Alwar	....
6.	Sikar	+ 15,000
7.	Jhunjhunu	+ 15,000
8.	Bikaner	+ 16,000
9.	Churu	+ 10,000
10.	Ganganagar	- 25,000
11.	Jodhpur	+ 35,000
12.	Barmer	+ 10,000
13.	Jalore	....
14.	Pali	....
15.	Nagaur	+ 10,000
16.	Jaisalmer	+ 6,000
17.	Udaipur	+ 8,000
18.	Dungarpur	..
19.	Banswara	..
20.	Chittorgarh	- 3,000
21.	Bhilwara	+ 4,000
22.	Kotah	- 55,000
23.	Bundi	- 5,000
24.	Jhalawar	....
25.	Sirohi	+ 6,000
	Net Imported	48,000

21. In his note on "Net consumable grains per acre" Sri N. S. Chowdhry, Statistician, Agricultural Department, Rajasthan has furnished extremely interesting and exhaustive analysis of the production, imports, exports, seed requirements, and net available quantities of principal commodities in the State, in which he has also taken into account the wastage of foodgrains in storage, markets, etc. as well as consumption for animals. This note has been reproduced in Appendix 1 and has also been referred to in para 73 Section 2 of Chapter I. In this note he has come to the conclusion that, "Rajasthan State is just on the margin. For the slight change in the seasonal conditions, we may have to import foodgrains from outside."

22. The Nutrition Advisory Committee of the Indian Research Fund Association has suggested the following composition of a balanced diet to provide the various nutrients in sufficient quantities, taking into consideration the Indian dietary habits:—

**Requirements of Cereals for Rajasthan calculated on the basis of the 1951 population.**

TABLE No. 203.

Requirements per day in a Balanced\* diet for an adult man.

	Oz.		Oz.
Cereals .. .. .	14	Milk .. .. .	10
Pulses .. .. .	3	Sugar and Jaggery ..	2
Green leafy Vegetables ..	4	Vegetable Oil, Ghee etc. ..	2
Root Vegetables .. .. .	3	Fish and Meat .. .. .	3
Other Vegetables .. .. .	3	Eggs .. .. .	1 egg
Fruits .. .. .	3		

The balanced diet of the type mentioned above is an ideal which is of the orietical value only. In actual practice, the vast majority of our people have to depend mostly on cereals and, therefore, 16 ozs. of cereals per adult man are considered absolutely essential. "In the absence of any scope for an increase in the intake of other constituents in the diet for the country as whole, adequacy of cereal consumption is important not only for efficiency of the worker but for maintaining life itself. While the rich and the well-to-do can replace a certain portion of cereals in their diet by fruits, milk, vegetables, meat, fish and eggs, the vast majority of the population, who are notoriously povertystricken have no access to such substitutes. In their case, therefore, a minimum supply of 16 ounces of cereals per day per man is absolutely essential. If they get less there is a serious set-back in their efficiency, which is already low as the full quota of 2,800 calories is seldom available. But what is more tragic is the fact that any diminution in cereal consumption below a certain limit means actual starvation and death."<sup>1</sup>

23. As the food requirements of the adults and the young and of males and females differ, it is necessary to calculate the food requirements for a community on the basis of consumption units to be arrived at by assigning proper weights for sex and age difference. There are different formulas suggested by different authors. Lusk has suggested the following formula.† The food consumption by the adult male is taken as the standard consumption unit and females and young persons are converted into adult equivalents at the rate of 1 female = 0.83 adult male and 1 young person = 0.7 adult male, a young person being defined as a boy or girl aged 15 or less.

24. Table 204 given below gives the calculation of the consumption units for Rajasthan and Ajmer on the basis of the above formula.

\*Population and Food Planning in India' by Baljit Singh, Page 25 (Hindi Kitab Limited, Bombay)

1. I bid page 31.

†Food Planning for Four Hundred Millions by Radha Kamal Mukerjee page 23, Macmillan and Co. Ltd., London 1938.

TABLE No. 204.

Consumption units on the basis of the 1951 population of Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Age Group	Consumption unit per individual	Population (in thousands)		Total No. of consumption units for the population in Col. 3 & 4 (in thousands)	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3	4	5	6
0—15 .. ..	0·7	6,075	262	4,252	183
Males 15 and upward ..	1·0	4,822	231	4,822	231
Females 15 and upward..	0·83	4,383	200	3,638	166
Age not stated ..	1·0	11	..	11	..
Total		15,291	693	12,723	580

The total requirement of cereals for Rajasthan and Ajmer at the rate of 16 ozs. per consumption unit would, therefore, work out at about 2,073 million tons and for Ajmer 94,510 tons. (It may be pointed out here that the average cereal output available for adult in the Indian Union during 1946—47 and 1948—49 was only 13 and 13·1 ozs. per day).

25. The net available quantity of the cereals including rice, wheat, Jowar and minor millets in Rajasthan during the last three years is given in the table 201 above. The average available quantity during the three years comes to about 1,018 million tons, showing that the State is now in deficiency to the extent of as many as about 1,055 million tons. These figures seem to be incredibly high. It seems that the production figures are very much under-estimated. There is no doubt, that there is a deficiency of production of food grains in the State. But the reliability of these figures of deficiency is not free from doubt. Mr. Chowdhry's note in Appendix 1 gives a more or less correct picture. The deductions in col. 3 in Table 205 below are based on that note.

TABLE No. 205.

Analysis of net available quantity for human consumption of cereals in Rajasthan (Figures in thousand tons).

Year	Production	Deduct at 20 per cent for seed and wastage	Available for human consumption
1	2	3	4
1948—49 .. ..	1,230	241	989
1949—50 .. ..	1,008	201	807
1950—51 .. ..	1,314	263	1,051

26. The general conclusion from the above discussion is that even in normal years the production of food in Rajasthan is not quite sufficient to maintain the population as it is today and unless effective permanent steps are taken for increasing the food production or the amount of import is increased the growth of population will lead to serious consequences; and, as normal years are exceptional and lean year is the rule, the necessity of reducing our numbers becomes imperative.

## SECTION 10.

### Concluding Remarks.

In this Chapter we have seen that 70·9 per cent. of the population of Rajasthan belongs to the agricultural classes, of whom about 45 per cent. are economically completely inactive, about 39 per cent. are actual self-supporting persons and about 16 per cent. are earning dependants. We have also seen that about 21·1 per cent. of the agricultural classes have a secondary source of income, of whom 5·4 per cent. are the self-supporting persons, the remaining 15·7 per cent. being the earning dependants. Taking into consideration the secondary agricultural occupations of people belonging to agricultural and non-agricultural classes, we find that it is the effort equivalent to that of about 47 lakhs of active workers in agriculture in Rajasthan which produces all the agricultural commodities for the whole population of about 152 lakhs and for export, showing that one active worker produces food and other crops for about 3·3 persons in the population and also for meeting the exports from the State. In the Ajmer State 45·4 per cent. of the total population belong to agricultural classes of whom 42 per cent. are self-supporting, 21 per cent. are earning dependants and 37 per cent. are economically completely inactive. About 33 per cent. have secondary source of income of whom 21 per cent. are earning dependants. It is the effort of 1·5 lakhs of active workers which produces all the agricultural products for the 7 lakhs of people and meeting the export from Ajmer State.

2. While in Rajasthan 70·9 and in Ajmer 45·4 per cent. of the entire population belong to the agricultural classes, over 82·7 per cent. in Rajasthan and 57·1 per cent. in Ajmer of the people living in the rural areas depend on agriculture for their sustenance. This vast majority of people depending upon the vagaries of the monsoon have, again, to crowd their activities in a limited period of time and have no work for the rest of the year. Under-employment in this sense amongst these people is, therefore, obvious and is only underlined by the census figures—already discussed.

3. In the concluding paragraph of Section 2 of this Chapter we have noticed how only 38 per cent. of the working population amongst the agricultural classes have a secondary means of livelihood. These 38 per cent. of people include nearly 24·9 per cent. of those who, again, have for their secondary means of livelihood one of the agricultural activities and only 13·2 per cent. of the working population of agricultural classes have secondary occupation other than agriculture. As a percentage of the total population of the agricultural classes, we have seen that only 7·38 per cent. of them have secondary source of income other than agriculture and of these 7·38 per cent. only about 4·14 per cent. get subsidiary employment in some kind of industry of Livelihood Class V which includes amongst other industries, such industries as plantation, stock-raising, forestry, breeding of small animals, etc., which are again akin to agriculture. In other words, the census figures show that the vast majority of the people belonging to the agricultural classes have little or no employment other than agriculture and that a very small fraction of them are able to supplement their income from other sources. The necessity of introducing cottage industries and other non-agricultural occupations as secondary means of livelihood amongst the agricultural classes can, therefore, hardly be overstressed.

4. The progress made in providing supplementary jobs to the cultivators in the vicinity of their homes in Japan which is an essentially agricultural country like India, is well described by Chaman Lal, "Home Industries have been fast converting Japan, an agricultural country,

into an industrial country. The farmers who mainly depend on meagre agricultural incomes have been able to improve remarkably their standard by devoting their spare time to home industries and small industries. The following data show the progress of the scheme of providing supplementary jobs to farmers in the vicinity of their homes:

1937.....	25	per cent. had supplementary jobs.
1938.....	54.3	"
1941.....	58.1	"
1942.....	61.5	"
		( Peak industrial and war production year ).
1946.....	46.4	per cent. had supplementary jobs (After the war).
1947..	52	"

Many war workers have again become farmers after war. The decrease in supplementary jobs is natural."

5. Although it is not possible to calculate the exact surplus population in agriculture we can give an approximate idea of the alarming position by referring to the size of the economic holdings referred to in para 15 of Section 3 of this Chapter. Assuming the economic holding to be of 15 acres and the average cultivators' family to be consisting of 4.65 persons as pointed out there, and further assuming that the economic holding visualized for this State is so proposed that the relation between land, labour and capital are ideal in the sense that the labour of the family alone with a pair of bullocks and a plough would be able to get the best income under the existing circumstances without employing outside labour, we can calculate the population which can economically be supported on 29,980,000 acres of land in holdings in Rajasthan according to the figures supplied by the Agriculture Department, Rajasthan Government reproduced, in Subsidiary Table 4.11 given in Part I-B of the Report. The figure of population works out to be about 9,371,250. The actual agricultural population of Rajasthan according to Economic Table I given in Part II-B of the Report is 10,836,939. In other words, we have about 1,465,689 people more amongst our agricultural classes than we need to economically manage our cultivation. The proportion of persons between 20 to 60 in the population of Rajasthan is about 43.9 per cent. Assuming that these persons can be employed in industries, we find that over 643,437 able-bodied persons, men and women, or about 320,000 able-bodied men are wasting their time and energy and are an unnecessary burden on agriculture for whom it will be wise to provide employment in cottage industries.

6. We may examine the question of the excess population in agriculture from another point of view by assuming the average size holding to be one that could conveniently be worked by a cultivator and his family with a pair of bullocks and a plough. Let us say it is  $1\frac{1}{3}$  times the present average holding. This would mean  $\frac{1}{3}$ th reduction in the population dependent on agriculture which is over 10.8 millions. Again, we find that we have surplus of nearly 1.4 millions.

7. These figures, though undoubtedly very rough, illustrate the magnitude of the surplus population in our agriculture and again bring home the nature of under-employment amongst our agricultural classes. In other words, they show what tremendous man-power is being wasted and how precarious the whole position is when such huge numbers fall back on agriculture as practically their sole occupation. Drawing attention to the tragedy which occurs due to almost complete dependence on agriculture when the crops fail, the Famine Commission observed as early as 1880 as follows, "A main cause of the disastrous consequences of Indian famines and one of the greatest difficulties in the way of providing reliefs in an effectual shape is to be found in the fact that the great mass of the population directly depends on agriculture and that there is no other industry from which any considerable part of the

community derives its support. The failure of the usual rains thus deprives the labouring classes as a whole not only of the ordinary supplies of food obtainable at prices within their reach, but also of the sole employment by which they can earn the means of procuring it. The complete remedy for this condition of things will be found only in the development of industries other than agriculture, and independent of fluctuations of seasons. With a population so dense as that of India, these considerations are of the greatest weight and they are rendered still more serious by the fact that the numbers who have no other employment than agriculture are in large parts of the country greatly in excess of what is really required for the cultivation of the land. So far as this is the case, the result must be that the part of the population which is in excess of the requirements of agriculture eats up the profit that would otherwise spring from the industry of the community. It is not surprising in a country thus situated that material progress is slow."

8. It may be pointed out here that in 1891, when the second census of the old Province of Rajasthan and Ajmer Merwara was taken, the agricultural population formed only 56.4 per cent. of the entire population as against 70.9 per cent. now. These figures reveal a serious state of affairs. They show clearly how during the past sixty years our industries are declining due mainly perhaps to keen competition with machine manufactured imported articles and the want of encouragement and patronage of indigenous products. This has resulted in throwing more and more persons on agriculture for their subsistence which itself depending upon uncertain monsoon tends to increase the number of victims to famine and starvation.

9. Describing the causes of the occupational unbalance and crowding in agriculture, Radhakamal Mukerjee says, "In India during the last three decades there has been a decline in the relative proportion of industrial employment in relation to the total number of workers, this accompanying a process which may be described as de-industrialisation. Between 1911 and 1931 the number of persons employed in industries declined by 2.2 millions, most industries, including textiles and industries of dress and toilet, having suffered loss of numbers of workers. The decline of village arts and handicrafts, coupled with the decrease of employment in large scale organised industries, due to the depression have increased the occupational unbalance in the country and the pressure on the impoverished soil. Not merely a forward programme of industrial planning, with the aid of a more vigorous tariff policy, but also systematic effort for the encouragement of inter-provincial migration and over-sea settlement will contribute to mitigate the present over-crowding in agriculture." \* Proceeding further he says, "But sooner or later India will have to adopt the ideal of the small family system which did exist in the past in order to prevent the appalling waste of life now apparent on all sides."

10. While considering the relative proportion of different agricultural classes, we have noticed that about 61 per cent. of the people belonging to the agricultural classes are owner cultivators, about 32 per cent. are cultivators of unowned land, about 5 per cent. are agricultural labourers and about 2 per cent. are non-cultivating owners of land. It is further noticed that in the backward part of the State, consisting of the Hills and Plateau Divisions there is the largest percentage (more than 80) of owner-cultivators with the smallest size of holdings; while in the comparatively more developed part of the State in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the percentage of owner cultivators is the least 35 per cent. and the size of holdings is largest. We have also seen how the agricultural holdings are on an average very small and uneconomic. The imperative necessity of increasing the size of the holdings and the danger of further reduction in size as a result of the movement of redistribution of land have been stressed and the need of cautious approach to the problem has been pointed out.

\*Food Planning for Four Hundred Millions by Radhakamal Mukerjee, Pages xii-xiii (Macmillan & Co., Limited, London, 1938).



11. While analysing the economic status of the people of different agricultural livelihood classes, we found that the largest percentage of economically inactive people was to be noticed amongst the non-cultivating owners of land, the percentage being as high as 9. Among the owner-cultivators, the percentage of non earning dependants was about 44, while amongst cultivators of unowned land it was about 46 and it was found to be lowest (being about 43) amongst the cultivating labourers.

12. During our discussion on progress of cultivation in relation to growth of general population, we have noticed the fall in the area of cultivation per capita as well as in the production in the state as a whole, and in the Natural Divisions. We have noticed that per individual in the State, the cultivation has diminished by 1.3 cents in thirty years. In the Rajasthan Plateau Division it increased by 6.0 cents and in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division it increased by 6.1 cents. The largest reduction is in the Rajasthan Plain Division where the area of cultivation per capita has been reduced by 22.1 cents and where there is very little scope for extending cultivation, because every kind of land which can be used for cultivation is already taken under cultivation there is no surplus land lying.

13. It has been pointed out that there has been an increase in the net area sown as it existed at the end of the quinquenniums 1921 and 1951. The main cause of the abnormal fall in per capita cultivation during the three decades is, therefore, the more rapid increase in population and failure of cultivation to keep pace with the growing population.

14. Reclamation and colonization of culturable land in our backward and undeveloped Districts of Dungarpur, Banswara, Kotah, Jhalawar and Bundi could perhaps be investigated side by side with the schemes for the amelioration of the backward classes in these areas. A survey of our forest land fit for cultivation is also over due. Surprising as it may sound, but it is nevertheless true, that we have no specific district-wise figures of forest area suitable for cultivation.

15. The State contains 12,869 square miles of forest land as shown in the inset Table No. 206 prepared from the note on "Forest Wealth" by Shri Sujan Chand Kothari, Chief Conservator of Forests, Rajasthan Government published in the Rajasthan "A Symposium".

TABLE No. 206.

Area under forests		Total forest area in sq. miles	This constitutes only about 10 per cent. of the total area of the State. According to Mukerjee, "for the needs of agriculture, 20 per cent. of the land area is usually considered as proper amount of forest." Estimates made by the Secretary of the Madhya Pradesh Forest Policy Committee show that one acre per capita should be adequate to meet the fuel and fodder needs of the village with an average population of 1,000 persons and 800 heads of cattle cultivating about 1,500 acres intensively. On the basis of the 1951 population of Rajasthan, the forest land per capita comes to 0.45 acres. This is grossly inadequate. We are already too short of forest land looking to our requirements. Apart from supply of timber, fuel, fodder and other forest produce to meet the requirements of the agriculturists and the general public and raw material for a number of industries and employment to a large population, the forests have very considerable importance in preserving the physical features, moderating the climate and minimising soil erosion. In fact, the protective functions
Units			
Matsya .. ..	.. ..	908	
Jodhpur .. ..	.. ..	457	
Jaipur .. ..	.. ..	384	
Bikaner .. ..	.. ..	80	
Rajasthan .. ..	.. ..	11,040	
Jaisalmer .. ..	.. ..	.....	
		12,869	

of the forest are indispensable for conserving the fertility of the land and ensuring water supply. Kingsley Davis rightly observes, "It must be remembered that the subcontinent has a tropical climate, with a combination over much of its area of strong sunshine and alternating torrential rains and drought. This is the sort of climate that quickly ruins soil after its natural covering has been removed. In the Indian region, because of the growth of population, the expansion of cultivation, the excessive grazing of goats and cattle, and the demand for wood, drastic deforestation has occurred. Despite conservation measures taken in 1855 and 1878 the process has gone so far that cowdung must generally be used for fuel rather than for fertilizer. The loss of the forest cover on mountains and hills has brought increasingly destructive floods and has worsened the effects of drought."<sup>1</sup>

16. While, therefore, there is no doubt that in Rajasthan there are extensive areas of valuable reserve forests particularly in the remote tracts, which are potential cultivable lands and some of which could be turned to agriculture, the need of undertaking a proper survey and marking out each area with the utmost caution was perhaps never so great as it is now when all efforts are needed to increase food by extending and intensifying cultivation, but at the same time ensuring that in our anxiety to extend cultivation we might not diminish our forest area to such an extent that not only there might be danger of shortage of essential forest produce but the very cultivation might be adversely affected entailing disastrous consequences. The suggestion of attempting to the reforestation of hills-slopes and reclaiming the level cultivable land from the present forest area for cultivation, is worth examining.

17. We conclude this discussion on the possibilities of extending cultivation by excising the forest land, with a request to the Collectors to get a regular survey done in their districts and on its basis to find out the probable area of land other than new and old fallow-land suitable for cultivation in their districts, and on the figures so obtained and on the basis of their and their officers' general knowledge and after ascertaining the desirability of reducing the forest area in particular district some steps may be taken on governmental basis in this direction.

18. The grave consequences of the rapid population growth out-stripping progress in cultivation have been discussed at length in the concluding section of Chapter I, as well as in Section 9 of this Chapter. That this is a phenomena of recent years, has been established from the history of cultivation per capita available from 1921 and summarised in inset Table No. 207.

TABLE No. 207.

Year	Cultivation in cents per capita (1 cent $\frac{1}{100}$ acre.)
1921	80.4
1931	79.6
1941	74.2
1951	79.1

19. It will be seen that in the old Province of Rajputana we had 80.4 cents per individual in 1921. Upto 1921 a balance was maintained between the growth of population and cultivation, but since 1921 the population is growing much faster than the progress of cultivation, threatening us with dire consequences as already explained. "The terrors and splendours of history are, in a way, stories of food. For instance, there is considerable justification in saying that "Had the feeding arrangements of Bourbon France given satisfaction, the Bestille would probably never have been formed, or had the Steppes of Central Asia been able to feed all their rapidly breeding tribes, neither the Aryan nor the Moughul invasions of India might have occurred. As such there is no disentangling of this theme from the future

politics and economics of a country. The link between diet and destiny is, indeed, very close and direct, a link which the leaders of India can ill afford to ignore."<sup>1</sup> Viewing with alarm the increasing population of India, Dr. Gyan Chand said a decade ago, "with increasing population it is almost certain that either they will continue to starve as they are starving now, if food production and population increase at the same rate, or suffer from even worse pangs of hunger if they do not. Dr. Akroyd, in the Health Bulletin referred to above says, 'Experience has shown that human beings can adapt themselves at a low level of vitality, and with their powers impaired, to an insufficient ration and scarcely realize that they are under-fed.' People in India have suffered a lot in pathetic contentment and still are suffering. They attribute the inhumanity of man to man, to acts of God and watch passively the procession of death which daily passes before their eyes and which they themselves join long before their appointed time. 'They scarcely realize that they are under-fed.' But they are under-fed, and the cause of this is that the output of food is not enough to meet the minimum physiological requirements. There are clear signs that some of them are realising rather acutely that they are under-fed and the proportion of such people is bound to grow. This makes the whole economic and social position precarious, and economic and social changes involving removal of all obstacles which impede progress will have to be made much sooner than most people realise. But even when such changes do come and the discontentment born of hunger can be directed into constructive channels—a task which will require the highest qualities of social craftsmanship—raising the 400 millions to a level at which there may be practically no underfeeding, is going to be an enormous undertaking, which will be rendered almost impossible of accomplishment if the number of half-starved people goes on increasing. Is there over-population in India? The answer to the question is given by the facts which prove that semi-starvation exists in India on a vast scale and all that we can do at present can only mitigate it to a small extent. It is extremely dangerous in existing circumstances to make this state more acute by adding to our numbers."<sup>2</sup>

20. Even at present the Rajasthan and Ajmer States are in a critical position of being the deficit States and we are in a more difficult position than that in which our neighbours in Bombay, Madhya Pradesh and Madhya Bharat are. In Madhya Bharat, the area of cultivation per capita is 1.24 acres in Madhya Pradesh, it is 1.35 as compared to our figure 0.79 acres. These figures give us a warning that we are in more dangerous position than our neighbours. Unless we are careful and prompt in resorting to appropriate measures in time to be self-sufficient, on Governmental scale, we will fall in great danger in near future. Our neighbouring States, though better off than we are, are also facing the danger of a steady fall in the area of cultivation per capita and will no longer be in a position to feed us as they have been doing till now in times of scarcity. The exports from outside India may also become impossible due to world shortage of food when compared with the increase in the number of mouths to be fed and also due to our inability to pay for it in exchange.

21. As we have seen, our yield rates of staple foodgrains have been deteriorating, but even on the basis of the present production and the growth rate of population, it could be safely pointed out that the State would continue to be more and more deficit in her staple foodgrains within two decades unless an all out effort is made to increase food production and to control population growth.

22. We have already referred to the possibilities of extending cultivation. Intensification of agriculture is another remedy to increase our production. It is clearly indicated by comparing the figures of Rajasthan with the following comparative figures of out-turns quoted by the Madhya Pradesh Forest Policy Committee:—

1. 'Indian Agriculture and its problems, by A. N. Agarwal page 101 (Ranjest Printers and Publishers, Chandni Chowk, Delhi.)  
2. India's Teeming Millions, by Gyan Chand (London, George Allen and Unwin).

TABLE No. 208.

Yield rate of Rajasthan compared with that of other places.

State or country	Yield per acre in pounds		
	Wheat	Rice	Cotton
Ajmer and Rajasthan .. .. .	472	..	139
Madhya Pradesh .. .. .	305	496	55
Uttar Pradesh .. .. .	786	629	
Bombay .. .. .	447	967	80
Madras .. .. .	..	1,048	88
India .. .. .	636	829	89
Italy .. .. .	1,383	2,963	170
Japan .. .. .	1,713	2,053	..
U. S. A. .. .. .	846	1,413	268
China .. .. .	989	2,433	204

23. While these figures indicate the great difference in the out-turns, they do not by themselves indicate that we could also produce 1,713 lbs. of wheat per acre instead of 472 lbs. as we do. Agricultural development depends on social, economic and technical factors. Thus, for example, if the soil is extremely poor, or the climatological circumstances are adverse, a farmer could hardly hope to reach the Italian standard even if he were able to bring all the resources of the Italian farmer to bear on his soil. The economic and social factors have been referred to by us to some extent in the previous sections. They include the excessive dependence of our population on agriculture, the uneconomic size of holdings, which are multiplying with increase in population, universality of marriage and the application of the law of inheritance, fluctuating prices, lack of adequate credit and marketing facilities, the primitive ways of cultivation, apathy towards co-operative principles and co-operative or collective farming and a number of other defects in our agricultural economy. Kingsley Davis observes, "India's disadvantage in this matter is not due to the natural deficiency of the land itself. As previously noted, the subcontinent includes great tracts of the richest land in the world. The low productivity is due rather to the way the land is handled—to the low proportion of capital invested in it—and hence is correlated with the farmers' poverty and density on the land. The smallness of the capital investment in farming is shown in numerous ways in the absence or inadequacy of conservation measures, and in the primitive techniques of cultivation, in the non-use of both natural and artificial fertilizers, in the failure to improve the breeds of plants and animals. The inevitable consequence is that the land does not produce as much as it otherwise could."<sup>1</sup>

24. Agricultural development has, therefore, to be comprehensive if it is to be successful. That a comprehensive agricultural development programme can succeed in intensifying cultivation is pointed out by Bimal Ghose, who says, "In Russia, for example, the yield per hectre of all grains increased in 1937 by 33 per cent. over the average yield during 1928-32."<sup>2</sup>

1. Population of India and Pakistan by Kingsley Davis page 208.

2. 'Planning for India' by Bimal C. Ghose, page 84. (Second Ed. Hamphery Milford, Oxford, University Press).

25. We will deal with dairy and poultry farmings and plantation of fruits, etc. in Chapter V, dealing with the industrial population, but here it is necessary to refer to these sources of protective food and the great necessity of developing them. "It is true that most of our people are faced with the problem of getting some kind of food to keep body and soul together and our first effort is, undoubtedly, to make sure of our minimum requirements of the staple food-grains. Lack of calories, vitamin and essential nutrients is the greatest single source of death in Indian sub-continent. It produces specific dietary diseases that are fatal, it lowers resistance to most other diseases, and it lessens the strength, incentive and effective intelligence which are necessary if the people are to remedy their situation."<sup>1</sup>

The Public Health Commissioner to the Government of India rightly remarked in his Report for 1935, "No preventive campaign against Malaria, against Tuberculosis or against Leprosy, no Maternity relief or child welfare activities, are likely to achieve any great success, unless those responsible recognise the vital importance of the factor of defective nutrition and from the very start give it their most serious attention. Abundant supplies of quinine and the multiplication of Tuberculosis Hospitals, Sanatoria, Leprosy colonies, maternity and child welfare centres are no doubt desirable, if not essential, but none of these go to the root of the matter. The first essentials for the prevention of disease are a high standard of health, a better physique and a greater power of resistance to infection. These can only be attained if the food of the people is such as will give all the physiological and nutritional requirements of the human frame."

26. The problem of controlling population growth with its different implications has been examined in the concluding section of Chapter I and the discussion in this Chapter relating to the food resources further shows the need of promptly adopting a progressive social policy of birth control. According to Harold L. Ickes, we are at least ten per cent. short of our food needs in the whole land.<sup>2</sup> Discussing the relation between population and food supply in Asia, Radha Kamal Mukerjee refers to the increase in cultivation all over. He points out, "These increases have not mitigated the enormous pressure of population on available subsistence, even with a low standard of living among the Asiatics. Its magnitude will be realised if we remember that half the human race has run short of cultivated land to the extent of at least 20 per cent. and that, as estimated at the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture at Hot Springs, "three quarters of the inhabitants of Asia were living below decent health standards"<sup>3</sup> Describing the position in India, Mukerjee says, "From the year 1930-31, the margin between food supply and population began steadily to decrease until in 1937-38 food production was less by 15 per cent. and food supply available for consumption by 7 per cent. as compared with the population growth since 1910-15."<sup>4</sup> Proceeding further, he says, "The chronic under-feeding of *at least one-third of the population* is at the root of India's low standard of health and inefficiency in every field."<sup>5</sup>

27. We have already referred to the great necessity of increasing our food supply and developing our industries. Considering the population question in all its aspect, it is in our own interest and in the interest of humanity that we also realise the importance of controlling the growth of our numbers and are not swayed by false notions of increasing the man-power to increase our strength, because the fast growing population will undo our efforts to raise our standard of living and instead of building up a healthy and powerful nation to withstand any aggression, we will have semi-starving people who will fall an easy prey not only to famine or disease but even to an organised aggressor or a mischief-maker.

1. The Population of India and Pakistan, by Kingsley Davis op. cit. page 59.

2. 'Races Land and Food' by Radhakamal Mukerjee, page 3 (Dryden Press, New York, 1946).

3. do do do do do do page 65 do do

4. Ibid page 48.

5. Ibid, Page 51.

28. Describing the need of country-wide Birth Control Propaganda, Shri Radhakamal Mukerjee says, "A rational family planning and education of the masses in birth-control must be accepted as the most effective means of combating population increase. The small family system deliberately planned and integrated with other habits and traditions which regulate different sides of domestic life, must now be adopted in India as the social and ethical norm, and such a custom as polygamy, which, by encouraging a large family, has become an obvious economic misfit, must be declared illegal."<sup>1</sup>

---

1. 'Food Planning for Four Hundred Millions' by Radhakamal Mukerjee 217 (Macmillan and Co. Ltd., Lond. 1938).

## CHAPTER V

### NON-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES.

#### SECTION I.

##### Preliminary Remarks.

The agricultural situation in India is obviously a vicious circle in which population density, fragmentation, inefficiency, soil mining, lack of capital, low productivity, and countless other features mutually reinforce one another. This vicious circle cannot be broken by agricultural reform alone. It can be broken only by the *deusex machina* of industrialization. It is therefore with some hope that we turn to the prospects of industrial growth in the two States. In this chapter we will deal with the distribution of non-agricultural classes and their economic classification.

Statistics on economic activities of the people are among the most important of information about the economic and demographic characteristics of countries. They have an immense variety of uses which are too numerous to be catalogued here. These statistics provide an inventory of the human resources of each country, showing the number and characteristics of persons engaged in economic production, their occupation, and their distribution among the various branches of economic activity. Statistics of occupations provide a valuable means of characterizing the population from both economic and social point of view. For example, from these data may be determined the proportion of the labour force engaged in agriculture, the ratio of wage earners to independent workers and the ratio of professional white collar workers, artisans, and craftsmen to the total labour force, and to the total population. Such indices are important in the analysis of a people's industrial, educational and cultural level and their social organization. Further valuable information can be available if economic characteristics are related to other demographic characteristics which are available from census schedules. Subjects which may be thus studied are: differences in the social positions of various ethnic groups; social and economic differences in fertility; relationships between family limitation and employment of women; social and economic factors in the selection of migrants; effects of migration on population composition in areas of immigration and emigration; relationships among employment or occupation and other indices of social and economic status, such as educational level, income and value of home. This information is essential for national government agencies and is useful for international agencies that are concerned with economic reconstruction and development, with economic aspects of population trends and international migration, and with other problems that involve a consideration of the volume and character of labour resources in different countries.

2. The main economic tables for the 1951 Census are contained in Part II-B of the Census Report. As pointed out before they are based on the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme, 1951, prepared by the Registrar General of India, and reproduced in the same volume. As mentioned in paragraph 2 of Section 6 (Livelihood Pattern) of Chapter I it is of the utmost importance to study the economic classification scheme and its elucidation to appreciate the definitions of the terms used and the significance of the data reviewed in the report and also to guard against the possibility of erroneous comparison of figures with figures collected in different economic surveys in the country and not really comparable, with the figures collected at the 1951 Census.



3. Subsidiary Tables of the 5th series given in Part I-B of the Report form the basis of the review contained in this Chapter. Subsidiary Table 5·1 gives the proportion of non-agricultural classes in the State and the different districts and also shows the classification of 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes into each class and sub-class. The classification of employers, employees and independent workers is for the first time undertaken during the 1951 Census and is included in Subsidiary Table 5·1.

4. Two additional Tables 5·1 (a) and 5·1(b) have been included in the series giving the details of the distribution of the rural and urban non-agricultural population in the State and its different parts. They contain the same information for the rural and urban areas which is included in Subsidiary Table 5·1 for the general population.

5. Subsidiary Tables 5·2 to 5·5 deal with each of the non-agricultural livelihood classes separately and show the number per 10,000 persons of each livelihood class in each sub-class. The number per 10,000 self-supporting persons of each livelihood class who are employers, employees and independent workers is also given in these Subsidiary Tables which further contain a complete analysis of the secondary means of livelihood of 10,000 persons of each livelihood class belonging to the non-agricultural category.

6. Subsidiary Tables 5·7 to 5·17 give the territorial distribution of 10,000 self-supporting persons of the different industries and services in the State by industrial divisions and sub-divisions.

7. The District Index of non-agricultural occupations given in Part I-B of the Report gives the details of the actual number of persons engaged in the different divisions, sub-divisions and groups of all industries and services in the State, the Natural Divisions and the districts and also the actual occupations returned by the citizens.

8. The actual economic information collected at the census and reviewed here is, as pointed out before, (Chapter I, Section 6 paragraphs 3 and 4) gives **Reliability of the data:** a good and reliable picture of the condition of the people of the State in respect of enquiries made of them. But it must be made clear here that as a result of vague entries in the slips in some Tehsils or towns with regard to occupational details specially in respect of labour, service, trade, etc. Some unreliability is visible when we look into figures of certain sub-divisions of industries or services which will be pointed out at their proper places.

9. A perusal of returns of self-supporting persons under some of the columns in Economic Table III gives rise to doubts regarding their reliability. The figures were scrutinised with the aid of the original census records and it was noticed that in some cases the enumerators failed to grasp the instructions and the replies to question regarding economic status of such persons were wrongly entered in the slips. This was particularly noticed in case of a number of females who are actually dependants but have been shown as self-supporting, employers or independent workers.

10. Some striking instances are quoted below:—

(a) There is no coal mining in Sawai Madhopur District and the returns under group 1·1, are persons engaged in handling coals in the Railway workshop. The occupation return in the slips has been shown as “कोयले के कारखाने में काम करना” which was ambiguous and consequently such slips were sorted under Coal Mining.

(b) 137 males and 6 females have been returned under group 3·1 Iron and Steel basic manufacture as independent workers. The actual returns are “लोहे की ढलाई करना या लोहे का काम करना” meaning manufacture of articles of Iron and Steel etc., and should have been classed under group 3·0 manufacture of Metal products otherwise unclassified, as they appear to be mostly blacksmiths.

(c) Under group 7·4—Railway transport in columns 589 and 590 returns appear to be a result of misunderstanding of the instructions which say that managers etc. should be treated

as employees and not employers. In column 590 the returns are a result of the misunderstanding whereby persons engaging domestic servants or who engaged clerks or labourers in their managerial capacity have been entered as employers.

(d) Similarly returns in columns showing independent workers under Sub-divisions 7-3, 7-4, 7-5, 7-6, 7-8 are also results of misunderstanding of instructions by the enumerators. In each case these should have been classed as employees and not independent workers.

(e) Under Sub-division 9-2- Barbers and Beauty shops, females returns are doubtful. It appears that they are dependants and not self-supporting ones.

11. These mistakes could be detected at too late a stage where correction was not possible. Hence the figures are to be made use of subject to the above limitations.

12. The question of comparison of economic data collected at the different censuses has been discussed already (Chapter I, Section 6, paragraphs 22 to 25) and need not be repeated here. But the caution given in paragraph 2 of this section above should be borne in mind so that the danger of trying to compare incomparable figures and drawing erroneous conclusions might be avoided. As mentioned, in para 4, Section 1, Chapter IV, Subsidiary Table 5-6 given in Part I-B of the Report shows the comparison of the livelihood classes of the 1931 Census which correspond to different livelihood classes of 1951.

## SECTION 2.

### Non-agricultural Population Ratios, Self-supporting persons and dependants; Secondary Means of Livelihood of Non-agricultural classes.

The non-agricultural population of Rajasthan State is more than a quarter and less than a third of the entire population of the State *i.e.* 29.1 per cent. In Ajmer it is more than a half being 54.6 per cent. Subsidiary Tables 5.1, 5.1(a) and 5.1(b) given in Part I-B of the Report give the proportions of the non-agricultural population in different parts of the State. The following Table No. 209 compares Rajasthan with other States of India in this respect.

TABLE No. 209.

Proportion of Non-agricultural population in Rajasthan and other States of India.

S. No.	Name of State	Percentage of Non-agricultural population	S. No.	Name of State	Percentage of Non-agricultural population
1	India .. .. .	30.2	2	Rajasthan .. .. .	29.1
3	Ajmer .. .. .	54.6	4	Uttar Pradesh .. .. .	25.8
5	Bihar .. .. .	14.0	6	Orissa .. .. .	20.7
7	West Bengal .. .. .	42.8	8	Assam .. .. .	26.7
9	Manipur .. .. .	16.6	10	Tripura .. .. .	24.7
11	Sikkim .. .. .	8.4	12	Madras .. .. .	35.1
13	Mysore .. .. .	30.1	14	Travancore Cochin .. .. .	45.2
15	Coorg .. .. .	42.3	16	Bombay .. .. .	38.5
17	Saurashtra .. .. .	53.4	18	Kutch .. .. .	58.0
19	Madhya Pradesh .. .. .	24.0	20	Madhya Bharat .. .. .	27.8
21	Hyderabad .. .. .	31.2	22	Bhopal .. .. .	34.4
23	Vindhya Pradesh .. .. .	12.9	24	Punjab .. .. .	35.5
25	P.E.P.S.U. .. .. .	27.4	26	Delhi .. .. .	90.1
27	Bilaspur .. .. .	9.3	28	Himachal Pradesh .. .. .	7.0

It is interesting to see that the proportion of non-agricultural population is higher in Rajasthan even than Madhya Pradesh, Madhya Bharat, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Orissa and P.E.P.S.U. But this should give us no reason for feeling proud; because it shows, not that, our State is more industrialized but that we have comparatively less scope for agriculture.

2. The position in respect of the States and the Natural Divisions is summarized below in Table No. 210.

TABLE No. 210.

Proportion of Non-agricultural population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Non-agricultural classes per 1,000 of		
	General Population	Rural Population	Urban Population
1	2	3	4
Rajasthan State .. .. .	291	177	838
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	302	182	819
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	313	182	844
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	226	151	872
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	275	177	874
Ajmer State .. .. .	546	226	970

It will be noticed that in the rural areas of Rajasthan only 17·7 per cent. of the population belong to non-agricultural classes, while in the urban areas the percentage is 83·8. It is interesting to note that the actual population of non-agricultural classes living in urban areas (2,220,115) is almost equal to that living in the rural areas (2,233,743). In the rural areas of Ajmer 22·6 per cent. of the population belong to non-agricultural classes and in the urban areas they form 97 per cent. The actual population of non-agricultural classes living in the urban areas of Ajmer is (288,942) while that living in the rural areas is only (89,525).

3. Amongst the Natural Divisions of the Rajasthan State, the highest percentage (31·3) of the non-agricultural classes in general population is to be found in Rajasthan Dry Area Division, where their percentage in the rural area (18·2) is also the highest, while in urban area it stands third, because in Rajasthan Plateau and Rajasthan Hills their percentages are higher, being 87·4 and 87·2 respectively, while that in the Dry Area Division is only 84·4. The East Rajasthan Plain Division comes next to the Rajasthan Dry Area Division in respect of the percentage of the non-agricultural population which is 30·2 p.c. Here the percentage in the rural population is almost highest being 18·2, but in urban it is the lowest being 81·9. The districts which have a high percentage of non-agriculturists in the general population compared to the figure for the State and the Natural Divisions, are Jaisalmer (64·4), Bikaner (46·8), Sirohi (46·7), Jaipur (44·2), Pali (42·2), Jodhpur (38·5), Kotah (35·0), Sikar (32·5), Jhunjhunu (29·6) and Bundi (29·4). The reasons are obvious. The whole of the Dry Area Division, as its very name suggests, is unsuitable for agriculture. While it has got facilities for cattle breeding which

is classed as an industry, specially in the Districts of Jaisalmer and Bikaner where typical desert conditions exist. Jaipur being the capital and Jodhpur having a big Railway establishment can naturally be expected to have a higher percentage of non-agricultural population. The Cement Works at Lakheri in Bundi are to some extent responsible for this high figure in Bundi and perhaps the forest and handloom weaving industry at Kotah for the figures of that district. The case of Ajmer is well-known.

4. Amongst the non-agricultural classes about 61 per cent. in Rajasthan and about 62 per cent. in Ajmer are doing just nothing being non-earning dependants. The corresponding percentage for agricultural classes is in Rajasthan about 45 and in Ajmer 37 per cent. as we have seen in Subsidiary Table 4.1. The percentage of earning dependants amongst the non-agricultural classes is also lower being about 7.6 in Rajasthan compared to 15.7 for the agricultural classes and 6.0 in Ajmer as against 20.5 in agricultural classes in that State. The dependency ratios in the State and its different parts is summarised in Table No. 211 given below:—

TABLE No. 211.

Proportion of Self-supporting persons and dependants among non-agricultural classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes in sub-class of								
	General Population			Rural Population			Urban Population		
	S. S. P.	N. E. D.	E. D.	S. S. P.	N. E. D.	E. D.	S. S. P.	N. E. D.	E. D.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Rajasthan State .. .. .	3,164	6,071	765	3,492	5,425	1,083	2,834	6,721	445
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	3,140	6,004	856	3,525	5,292	1,183	2,772	6,686	542
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	3,077	6,339	584	3,440	5,661	899	2,761	6,930	309
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	3,208	5,968	824	3,334	5,591	1,075	3,020	6,531	449
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	3,438	5,704	858	3,652	5,176	1,172	3,172	6,363	465
Ajmer State .. .. .	3,204	6,194	602	3,652	4,909	1,439	3,066	6,592	342

S. S. P.—Self-supporting Persons. N. E. D.—Non-earning Dependants. E. D.—Earning Dependants

5. Amongst the Natural Divisions the highest percentage of non-earning dependants (63.39) is to be found in the general population in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division where earning dependants are only 5.84 per cent. and the lowest in the Plateau Division (57.04 per cent.) where also the earning dependants are only (8.58 per cent). The East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Hills Division occupy an intermediate position with an almost equal proportion of non-earning dependants which is 60.0 in East Rajasthan Plain Division and 59.6 in the Hills Division. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5.1 in Part I-B of the Report shows that amongst the Districts Churu and Bikaner, in the Dry Area Division, stand out as those having the largest percentage of non-earning dependants. In Churu 73 per cent. of the people of non-agricultural classes in the general population do nothing and only about 4 per cent. are working dependants, while in Bikaner the corresponding figures are 69 and 2. The reason is not far to seek; these districts are the home of the well-to-do Seths who would not feel the necessity of sending their dependants to work. The districts in which the percentage of non-earning dependants in the general population is the lowest are Sawai Madhopur (54.84 p.c.) and Tonk (55.14 p.c.).

6. A look at the rural urban differentiation in dependency, as revealed by the figures in the above Table No. 211 shows that both in Rajasthan and in Ajmer as well in every Natural Division of Rajasthan the proportion of non-earning dependants is higher and that of earning dependants is lower in urban than in rural areas. In Rajasthan the proportion in the urban areas is as high as 67.21 per cent. compared to 54.25 in the rural parts. In the case of Ajmer the percentage of non-earning dependants in urban areas is as high as 65.92 as compared to 49.09 in the rural. Similarly, the earning dependants in the urban areas are hardly 4.5 per cent. while in the rural areas they are more than double in proportion, the percentage being about 11. One obvious reason for this is that in towns and cities the dependants of well-to-do people do not work partly because of social customs and want of adequate facilities for work and partly due to the fact that they do not find it necessary to work, specially children of school going age are sent to school as education facilities do exist. In the rural areas on the other hand the social barriers are less effective and facilities (although grossly inadequate) do exist to a certain extent to enable the dependants of non-agriculturists also to take up subsidiary employments while there are comparatively less facilities for education.

7. In the rural areas the position, (as revealed by Subsidiary Table 5.1 (a) and Table No. 211 given in para 4 above) is a little more encouraging, although the comparative differences between the Natural Divisions in respect of dependency are of the same nature as in the case of the general population. Thus for example the highest percentage of non-earning dependants in the rural area is also to be found in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (56.61), while the lowest percentage is in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (51.76). In this Division which consists of Bundi, Kotah and Jhalawar Districts the Bidi industry and the forest activities and handloom weaving in Kotah and Jhalawar Districts provide good non-agricultural employment to the people to a certain extent. The number of earning dependants is again lowest (8.99) in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division in the rural areas and the highest (11.83) per cent. in the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

8. Table No. 212 given below shows that the bulk of the people of non-agricultural classes (about 44 and 36 per cent.) in the general population, in Rajasthan and Ajmer States respectively, belong to Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) and about 30 and 35 per cent. respectively to Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation). Thus about 74 per cent. of the people in Rajasthan and 71 in Ajmer belong to these two livelihood classes. Of the remaining 26 per cent. in Rajasthan, Commerce claims about 23 per cent. and Transport about 3. Of the remaining 29 per cent. in Ajmer, Commerce supports 23 per cent. as in Rajasthan and Transport 6 per cent.

TABLE No. 212.

Distribution of the people belonging to non-agricultural classes in general population in the different livelihood classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

M/L. Classes.	Number per 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes in each livelihood class of General Population.	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
V Production other than cultivation ..	3,049	3,542
VI Commerce ..	2,258	2,280
VII Transport ..	321	610
VIII Other services and miscellaneous sources ..	4,372	3,568

9. It is to be remembered that Livelihood Class V contains people engaged in Primary Industries not elsewhere specified including (Division "0") Stock-raising, Rearing of small animals, Plantation industries, Forestry, Hunting and Fishing. Subsidiary Table 5.7 gives the distribution of the self-supporting people of non-agricultural classes amongst the different divisions. Division "0" claims 7.00 and 5.16 per cent. of the self-supporting persons of non-agricultural classes in the Rajasthan and Ajmer States respectively. We might, therefore, get a better picture of the people depending on the industries other than those of Division "0" in the Rajasthan State by deducting about 7 per cent. out of the 30 per cent. mentioned in para 8 above. This means that of the people of non-agricultural classes less than one-fourth derive their principal means of livelihood from industries other than those comprised in Division "0". In Ajmer their proportion is a bit higher being 30 per cent. after deducting 5.16 from 35 per cent. mentioned in para 8 above.

10. Table No. 213 given below shows the proportion of persons depending on each non-agricultural livelihood class in each of the Natural Divisions. It shows that those depending on Production other than cultivation are highest in proportion in the Plateau Division (35.69 per cent.) followed by the Hills Division (32.06) and the East Rajasthan Plain Division (30.18). The Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the lowest figure (28.41). Coming to the district level we find that it is the Jaisalmer District which has the highest percentage (66.67). This is because of the cattle breeding industry.

TABLE No. 213.

Distribution of people belonging to non-agricultural classes in the different livelihood classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

Number per 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes in each livelihood class of General Population.

State and Natural Division.	Number per 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes in each livelihood class of General Population.			
	Production other than cultivation.	Commerce.	Transport.	Other Services and miscellaneous sources.
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State ..	3,049	2,258	321	4,372
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	3,018	2,168	293	4,521
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	2,841	2,469	371	4,319
Rajasthan Hills Division.	3,206	2,423	263	4,108
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	3,569	1,892	342	4,197
Ajmer State.	3,542	2,280	610	3,568

11. Table No. 213 given in para 10 above also shows that in the general population amongst the Natural Divisions the Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the largest percentage of people (24.69 per cent.) of the non-agricultural population belonging to Livelihood Class VI

(Commerce). East Rajasthan Plain Division with 21·68 per cent. comes next to Rajasthan Hills Division (24·23) and then the Rajasthan Plateau Division (18·92). Subsidiary Table 5·1 given in Part I-B of the Report shows that amongst the districts the largest percentage of commercial people (*i. e.*, 33·61) is to be found in Churu. In Ganganagar they are 30·25 per cent. and in Dungarpur 29·59 per cent. Their proportion is lowest in the Districts Bundi (13·23 per cent.) Sirohi (17·29 p.c.), and Kotah (17·51 p.c.).

12. Livelihood Class VII (Transport) provides subsistence to a comparatively fewer people than any other livelihood class. The reasons have already been discussed in Chapter I Section 6 paragraph 11 where the scheme of classification is explained. Amongst the Natural Divisions the highest percentage (3·71) is to be found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division and least (2·63) per cent. in the Hills Division. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division these form 2·93 per cent. and in the Plateau Division 3·42 per cent. of the total non-agricultural population. The highest percentage of the people of service class (45·21) is found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the lowest (41·08) in the Rajasthan Hills Division. In the Dry Area Division they form 43·19 per cent. of the non-agricultural population and in the Plateau Division 41·97 per cent.

13. Table No. 214 below gives the distribution of 10,000 persons of the non-agricultural classes of rural areas amongst the four non-agricultural livelihood classes. While discussing the Subsidiary Tables 2·4 and 3·7 in Chapters II and III the distribution of the general population in rural and urban areas has already been considered and we will now examine the distribution of the rural population in the individual non-agricultural livelihood classes.

TABLE No. 214.

Distribution of people belonging to non-agricultural classes in the different livelihood classes of Rural population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Number per 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes in each livelihood class in Rural population.			
	Production other than cultivation	Commerce	Transport.	Other services and miscellaneous sources.
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State	3,771	1,931	184	4,114
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	3,676	1,854	184	4,286
Rajasthan Dry Area Dn.	3,660	2,102	208	4,030
Rajasthan Hills Dn.	3,942	2,349	134	3,595
Rajasthan Plateau Dn.	4,159	1,430	175	4,236
Ajmer State.	4,686	1,670	295	3,349



14. In the rural areas Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) provides means of subsistence to 37.71 per cent. of the non-agricultural population in Rajasthan and 46.86 per cent. in Ajmer. It is next in importance to Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) which supports 41.14 per cent. of the non-agricultural classes in the rural areas of Rajasthan and 33.49 per cent. in Ajmer as will be seen from Table No. 214 above and Subsidiary Table No. 5.1 (a). Commerce supports 19.31 per cent. of the agricultural classes in the rural areas of Rajasthan and 16.70 in Ajmer and Transport supports 1.84 per cent. in Rajasthan and 2.95 per cent. in Ajmer. The above Table No. 214 also depicts the position in the Rural areas of the Natural Divisions.

15. As in the case of general population, so in the rural population the largest percentage (41.59) of these depending on production other than cultivation is to be found in the Plateau Division. The Rajasthan Hills Division stands next with the percentage of 39.42 followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Dry Area Division where the percentages are 36.76 and 36.60 respectively. While referring to Subsidiary Table 2.4 the districts, in which rural population contained more than 10 per cent. of the general population in Livelihood Class V, were individually considered. These districts included Jaisalmer, Sirohi, Pali and Kotah. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5.1 (a) in Part I-B of the Report shows that in addition to the above districts several other districts also contain relatively high proportion of the people of non-agricultural classes in rural areas in Livelihood Class V. The reason as seen in Subsidiary Table 5.8 is that in most of these districts, stock-raising and forestry are very important industries. The District of Jaisalmer (Rajasthan Dry Area Division) having a percentage of 72.25 tops the list. The Districts of Kotah and Jhalawar of Rajasthan Plateau Division stand second and third with the percentage of 43.61 and 43.28 respectively. The lowest percentage 10.87 is found in the Churu District (Rajasthan Dry Area Division). In the East Rajasthan Plain Division, Sawai Madhopur District has the highest percentage 41.34, followed by the Districts of Alwar 37.54 and Jaipur 37.32.p.c.. The Sikar District has the lowest percentage 31.22. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, Jaisalmer District tops the list, with the percentage of 72.25. The Districts of Pali and Barmer stand second and third having a percentage of 41.89 and 33.69 respectively. The District of Churu has the lowest percentage of 10.87. It is interesting to note that it is in this Division that the districts having the highest as well as the lowest percentage of the whole State are found *e. g.* the District of Jaisalmer (highest) and Churu (lowest). In Rajasthan Hills Division, the Sirohi District possesses the highest percentage (42.75) followed by the Districts of Dungarpur (41.97), Udaipur (38.23) and Banswara (32.42) per cent. In Rajasthan Plateau Division, the Kotah District has the highest percentage (43.61) Next to it is the District of Jhalawar with 43.28 per cent. followed by Bundi (38.92) and Chittorgarh (37.02).

16. Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) is higher in importance than the Livelihood Class V in the rural areas, as will be seen from Table No. 214 above and subsidiary Table 5.1(a). The largest percentage (about 43) is found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. This seems to be the richest and the most fertile Division in the State where the rural population is also comparatively better off and can afford to engage servants. Because as we see in Subsidiary Table No. 5.7 it is not the Health and Education services which swell the proportion in this Division. Their percentage here is the least (5.76) per cent. when compared with other Divisions. The highest percentage in the Health and Education services is found in the Plateau Division (8.06 per cent.), next to it in the Hills Division (7.24 per cent). Even the Dry Area Division with a percentage of 6.26 is higher than the Rajasthan Plain Division in this respect. It can no doubt be said that the Plateau Division occupied the second position having 42 per cent. of the people belonging to non-agricultural classes depending upon Other services and miscellaneous sources for their livelihood, mainly due to the higher percentage in the Health and Educational Services. The Rajasthan Dry Area Division

and Rajasthan Hills Division occupy the third and fourth position having the percentages of 40·3 and 35·9 respectively of persons belonging to non-agricultural classes depending upon Other services and miscellaneous sources. Coming to the district level we find that Ganganagar District tops the list as it contains 54·97 of the total non-agricultural population depending upon Other services and miscellaneous sources for their livelihood. Churu stands second (52·71) and Bikaner third (50·45). The districts where the proportion of such persons is the lowest are in the ascending order: Jaisalmer (8·09), Dungarpur (32·19 per cent.) and Udaipur (33·84 p.c.). A comparison of Subsidiary Table 5·1 (a) with the Subsidiary Table 2·4 (discussed in Chapter II) already given in Part I-B of the Report shows that the pattern of distribution of the non-agricultural classes in the rural areas under Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) and VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) is as follows:—

TABLE No. 215.

Proportion of persons belonging to Class V and VIII in the entire rural population as compared with that in non-agricultural population in rural areas.

State and Natural Division	Percentage in entire rural population of persons belonging to Livelihood Class		Percentage in non-agricultural population in rural areas of persons belonging to Livelihood Class.	
	V	VIII	V	VIII
	Production other than cultivation	Other services and miscellaneous sources	Production other than cultivation	Other services and miscellaneous sources
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State .. ..	6·66	7·27	37·71	41·14
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	6·69	7·80	36·76	42·86
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	6·66	7·33	36·60	40·30
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	5·95	5·43	39·42	35·95
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	7·38	7·51	41·59	42·36
Ajmer State .. ..	10·61	7·58	46·86	33·49

It will be observed that as far as Livelihood Class VIII is concerned, the pattern of distribution in Natural Divisions is similar. The highest percentage in each case is to be found in East Rajasthan Plain Division, Rajasthan Plateau and Dry Area Divisions stand second and third respectively. Rajasthan Hills Division stands last.

17. In the case of Class V, however, Rajasthan Plateau Division is highest when considered with reference to the entire rural population. But when considered with reference to the non-agricultural population alone, the highest percentage is found in East Rajasthan Plain Division, next to it is Plateau Division.

18. A comparison of Subsidiary Table 5.1 (a) in Part I-B of the Report or Table No. 215 given above with Subsidiary Table No. 2.4 (discussed in Chapter II already) shows that the pattern of distribution of the non-agricultural classes in the rural areas under Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) and VII (Transport) in Rural Areas is as follows:—

TABLE No. 216.

Proportion of persons belonging to Livelihood Class VI and VII to the entire rural population as compared with that to non-agricultural population in rural areas.

State and Natural Division	Percentage in entire rural population of persons belonging to Livelihood Class		Percentage in non-agricultural population only in rural areas of persons belonging to Livelihood Class	
	VI	VII	VI	VII
	Commerce	Transport	Commerce	Transport
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State .. ..	3.41	0.32	19.31	1.84
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	3.37	0.34	18.54	1.84
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	3.82	0.38	21.02	2.08
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	3.51	0.20	23.29	1.34
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	2.54	0.31	14.30	1.75
Ajmer State .. ..	3.78	0.67	16.70	2.95

It will be observed that so far as Livelihood Class VII is concerned, the pattern of distribution in the Natural Division is similar. The highest percentage in each case is to be found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division while East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Plateau Division stand second and third in position respectively, and Rajasthan Hills Division has the lowest percentage. In case of Livelihood Class VI, however, Hills Division is the highest when considered with reference to the non-agricultural classes alone, but when considered with reference to the entire rural population the highest percentage is found in the Dry Area Division. The difference is due to the fact that the proportion of the traders relative to the number of people of non-agricultural classes is higher in the Hills Division than with reference to the people of all the livelihood classes. The discussion contained in Chapter II, Section 6, with regard to the rural distribution of the people of Livelihood Classes VI and VII would generally hold good when the distribution is considered with reference to the non-agricultural classes only. Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) stands third among the four non-agricultural classes in rural areas of Rajasthan and Ajmer States as will be seen from the Table No. 216 above, and Subsidiary Table 5.1 (a).

19. The largest percentage (about 23.3) is found in Rajasthan Hills Division. This looks strange but is due to the fact that the proportion of traders among non-agricultural population is higher in this Division than other parts of the State. Next comes Rajasthan Dry Area Division

(21.02) and the East Rajasthan Plain Division (18.54) Rajasthan Plateau Division stands last with 14.30 per cent. only. Let us consider the detailed commercial occupations as revealed by the Subsidiary Table 5.14. In almost all districts in Rajasthan, Sub-division 6.1 (retail trade in food stuffs including beverages and narcotics), 6.3 (Retail trade in textile and leather goods) and 6.0 (retail trade unclassified) combined contribute more than 85 per cent. of the total self-supporting population of this Livelihood Class VI. It means that these are pretty commercial people who get their livelihood by means of retail trade of various articles.

20. Livelihood Class VII (Transport) is the most insignificant class. The people belonging to this class form 0.32 per cent. of the total rural population. The chief reason for the backwardness of our people of the rural areas is due to lack of communication as it is difficult for our masses of the country to come in contact with urban areas and to achieve the knowledge of modern world. Among the Natural Divisions Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands first having 2.08 per cent. of the total non-agricultural people engaged in Transport. This is due to large establishment of Railway in Jodhpur and Bikaner Districts. Next to Dry Area, East Rajasthan Plain Division occupies the second position. Jaipur District, Sawai Madhopur and Alwar Districts are responsible for these high figures due to the large establishment of bus and Railway systems in this Division. Third stands the Plateau Division where bus service is prominent.

21. Subsidiary Table 3.7 in Part I-B of the Report gives the distribution of 10,000 persons of all Livelihood Classes of the urban areas. Table No. 217 below and Subsidiary Table 5.1-b give the distribution of 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes only who resides in urban areas. In Livelihood Class V to the urban areas also Livelihood Class V (Production other than VIII in Urban Areas. cultivation) supports 23.22 per cent. in Rajasthan and 31.87 per cent. in Ajmer State of the non-agricultural classes. Commerce supports 25.88 per cent. in Rajasthan and 24.69 in Ajmer State. Transport provides maintenance for 4.46 per cent. in Rajasthan and 7.08 per cent. in Ajmer, of the total non-agricultural population in urban areas and Livelihood Class VIII (other services and miscellaneous sources) to 46.30 per cent. in Rajasthan and 36.36 per cent. in Ajmer State.

22. It is observed that the largest percentage to people of all livelihood classes in urban areas of those belonging to Livelihood Class V are to be found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (24.74) followed by East Rajasthan Plain Division with 19.56 per cent., and Rajasthan Hills Division and Rajasthan Dry Area Division with the percentages of 18.39 and 17.95 respectively. In the Table No. 217 as well as Subsidiary Table 5.1(b) it is interesting to note that similar to Subsidiary Table 3.7 (which relates to total population—agricultural and non-agricultural combined), the percentage of the people of agricultural classes residing in urban areas is also highest in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (28.31) and it is the East Rajasthan Plain Division which stands second in this respect also with the percentage of (23.88). The Rajasthan Dry Area Division and Rajasthan Hills Division have the lowest percentages of (21.26) and (21.07) respectively. The Rajasthan Plateau Division has the highest percentage amongst all the Divisions; it has the District of Bundi with the top-most percentage of 46.55. The same District of Bundi has the highest percentage in the Table 3.7 also. For the urban population the reason is clearly associated with the well known cement works at Lakheri and the extensive 'Bidi' industry in the urban areas. The mining and forest activities in these districts have also helped in increasing the percentage. It is interesting to notice that the percentage of people of non-agricultural classes belonging to Class V in the urban areas of the Bundi District is higher even when compared with Jaipur and Kotah the most industrialised districts of the State where the percentages are as low as 23.93 and 23.02 respectively.

TABLE No. 217.

Distribution of the people belonging to non-agricultural Classes in the different livelihood classes of urban population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes in each livelihood class of urban population			
	Production other than cultivation	Commerce	Transport	Other services and miscellaneous sources
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State .. .. .	2,322	2,588	460	4,630
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	2,388	2,470	397	4,745
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	2,126	2,788	514	4,572
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	2,107	2,564	455	4,874
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	2,831	2,468	551	4,150
Ajmer State .. .. .	3,187	2,469	708	3,636

23. The Rajasthan Dry Area Division which is the home of the well-known so called Marwari Seths, whose commercial activities extend far and wide, stands out first in Table No. 217 above and Subsidiary Table 5-1(b), as 27·88 per cent. of the non-agricultural people in the urban areas of this Division belong to Livelihood Class VI, followed by the Rajasthan Hills Division with 25·64 per cent. The East Rajasthan Plain Division (24·70 per cent.) and the Rajasthan Plateau Division (24·68 per cent.) come next in order of importance. Amongst the districts of the State, Ganganagar (36·5 per cent.), Barmer (35·95 per cent.) and Churu (33·78 per cent.) contain in the urban areas the largest percentage of non-agricultural people in Livelihood Class VI. Churu is well-known for the all round commercial activities of millionaires residing in it. The high figures in Ganganagar is due to the Ganga Canal and its rich produce of wheat and gram. Jhunjhunu (26·27 per cent.) is almost as important as Churu in the commercial activities of its residents.

24. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, the Ganganagar District contains the largest percentage of non-agricultural people in Livelihood Class VI in the urban areas as also observed above. Barmer owes its importance to its situation on the Sind border as well as the salt works and the consequent trade at Pachpadra. Churu has eleven large towns, some of them are business centres. In brief the Rajasthan Dry Area Division contains all the first three districts of the whole State of Rajasthan.

25. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division the Sikar District tops the list with the percentage of 28·02 followed by the Districts Alwar, Bhilwara and Jhunjhunu with the percentages of 26·96, 26·51 and 26·27 respectively. The Districts of Sikar and Jhunjhunu are the richest districts of the State. Bhilwara is renowned for its mica and soap stone mines.

26. In the Rajasthan Hills Division, Dungarpur District tops the list with the percentage of 33·47 followed by the Districts Udaipur, Banswara and Sirohi having the percentages of (25·29), (24·69) and (22·24) respectively. Dungarpur is well-known for its export of ghee and forest products. In the Rajasthan Plateau Division, the Chittorgarh District stands first possessing the percentage of 30·02, followed by the Districts of Jhalawar, Kotah and Bundi with the percentages of 25·57, 24·97 and 16·35 respectively. Chittorgarh District has a flourishing trade in cereals, pulses, oilseeds, forest produce, building stone and also in printed cloth.

27. The distribution of the non-agricultural people of the urban areas into Livelihood Classes VII (Transport) and VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) as given in Subsidiary Table 5.1(b) follows the pattern as given in Subsidiary Table 3.7 for the people of all livelihood classes in the urban areas which is already discussed in Chapter III.

**Distribution of Livelihood Classes VII and VIII in Urban Areas.**

28. (a) *Dependency*:—The examination of Subsidiary Table 5.2 in Part I-B of the Report shows that in Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) about 54.9 and 57.2 per cent. of the people are non-earning dependants in the Rajasthan and Ajmer States respectively. In other words, nearly half the population of this livelihood class is economically idle. The break-up for the rural and urban areas further shows that the proportion of non-earning dependants is much higher (about 63.9 in Rajasthan and 63.6 in Ajmer) in the urban than in the rural areas (about 49.4 per cent. in Rajasthan and 43.1 per cent. in Ajmer). The position in the States and the Natural Divisions is summarised in Table No. 218 given below:

TABLE No. 218.

Proportion of Self-supporting persons and dependants of Livelihood Classes V in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division		Number per 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class V in each Sub-Class								
		General Population			Rural Population			Urban Population.		
		Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants
1	2	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
Rajasthan State	..	3,354	5,494	1,152	3,623	4,943	1,434	2,915	6,394	691
East Rajasthan Division.	Plain	3,378	5,399	1,223	3,686	4,769	1,545	2,924	6,328	748
Rajasthan Division.	Dry Area	3,277	5,776	947	3,661	5,156	1,183	2,699	6,707	594
Rajasthan Hills Division.		3,305	5,297	1,398	3,356	5,053	1,591	3,164	5,977	859
Rajasthan Division.	Plateau	3,479	5,347	1,174	3,608	4,920	1,472	3,244	6,130	626
Ajmer State	..	3,394	5,720	886	3,735	4,309	1,956	3,239	6,363	398

The percentage of non-earning dependants in Livelihood Class V in the general population of the East Rajasthan Plain Division is as high as 53.99 while in rural and urban population the percentages are 47.69 and 63.28 respectively. This Division is second only to Dry Area Division in this respect. The Jhunjhunu District has the highest percentage of 65.41 in general population in this Division where nearly two-thirds of the population are sitting quite idle.

29. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the percentage of non-earning dependants of Livelihood Class V is highest being nearly 57·76, the percentage in the urban areas is 67·07 and that in the rural areas about 51·56. In this connection, it is interesting to refer to Subsidiary Table 5·7 giving distribution of self-supporting persons of all industries and services. Livelihood Class V consists of Divisions 0 to 4, and a perusal of the columns pertaining to these divisions shows that the comparative proportion in division '0' is fairly high in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, while it is highest in the Rajasthan Plateau Division and least in East Rajasthan Plain Division. The non-earning dependants are in the largest proportion in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, while they are least in the Rajasthan Hills Division. This clearly shows that the industries grouped under Division '0' and consisting of stock-raising, rearing of small animals, plantation, forestry, hunting and fishing provide employment to a much larger percentage of people in the Rajasthan Hills Division than in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division. The figures for the earning dependants also present the same picture as those of the non-earning dependants, as shown in Subsidiary Table 5·2. Their number is the least in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division and highest in Rajasthan Hills Division. In the Ajmer State the percentage of non-earning dependants is even higher than that in Rajasthan, rather as high as that in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (57·20 per cent.) In the urban population, it is 63·63 and in the rural 43·09.

30. (b) *Secondary Means of Livelihood of people belonging to Livelihood Class V*:—Subsidiary Table 5·2 gives the distribution of 10,000 people of Livelihood Class V, who have a secondary means of livelihood also. It shows that in Rajasthan as well as in Ajmer there are about 34 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class V, who are self-supporting, of whom only 8 per cent. in Rajasthan and 7 per cent. in Ajmer have a secondary means of livelihood. The details of secondary means of livelihood in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions are summarised in Table No. 219 below:—

TABLE No. 219.

## Secondary Means of Livelihood of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class V.

Secondary Means of Livelihood		Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Cultivation of owned land	Self-supporting persons ..	195	183	152	354	200	158
	Earning dependants ..	99	106	52	221	79	21
Cultivation of unowned land	Self-supporting persons ..	278	210	550	131	34	62
	Earning dependants ..	125	140	187	51	4	4
Employment as cultivating labourers.	Self-supporting persons ..	70	84	40	64	91	94
	Earning dependants ..	145	173	71	98	251	148
Rent on agricultural land.	Self-supporting persons ..	39	29	22	79	75	67
	Earning dependants ..	13	23	4	9	5	6



TABLE No. 219. (Contd.)

Secondary Means of Livelihood		Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Production other than cultivation.	Self-supporting persons ..	88	108	70	70	77	101
	Earning dependants ..	565	538	511	742	625	339
Commerce	Self-supporting persons ..	36	42	33	28	30	42
	Earning dependants ..	35	34	19	82	33	33
Transport	Self-supporting persons ..	8	16	2	3	3	32
	Earning dependants ..	9	16	2	2	3	23
Other services and miscellaneous sources.	Self-supporting persons ..	105	138	54	105	110	156
	Earning dependants ..	162	193	101	193	173	312
TOTAL	Self-supporting persons ..	820	810	923	834	620	712
	Earning dependants ..	1,152	1,223	947	1,398	1,173	886
Total		1,972	2,033	1,870	2,232	1,793	1,598

It is interesting to observe from Table No. 219 above that out of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class V there are only 820 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan and 712 in Ajmer who have a secondary source of income. In Table No. 218 in para 28 above we noticed that the percentage of all self-supporting persons in Livelihood Class V is in Rajasthan 33.54 and 33.94 in Ajmer. Table No. 219 above, therefore shows that this 33.54 per cent. in Rajasthan and 33.94 per cent. in Ajmer included only 8.20 per cent. of people in Rajasthan and 7.12 per cent. in Ajmer who have a secondary source of income. It is further interesting to note that the percentage of 8.20 and 7.12 mentioned above includes 0.7 per cent. in Rajasthan and 0.94 per cent. in Ajmer who work as agricultural labourers to supplement their income while 1.95 and 1.58 per cent. respectively out of the 8.20 and 7.12 per cent. get the secondary income from cultivation of their own land. Actually agricultural sources provide secondary income to the bulk of the self-supporting persons belonging to Livelihood Class V having a secondary source of income *i. e.*, 6 out of 8.20 per cent. in Rajasthan and 4 out of 7.12 per cent. in Ajmer.

31. The position with regard to the earning dependants as revealed by Tables No. 218 and 219 is also very interesting. It will be observed that out of 11.52 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class V (production other than cultivation) in Rajasthan and 8.86 per cent. in Ajmer who are earning dependants, about 3.82 per cent. in Rajasthan and 1.79 per cent. in Ajmer get their income from agricultural sources, the most important of them being that of agricultural labourers which absorbs 1.45 out of the 3.82 per cent. of the earning dependants in Rajasthan and 1.48 in Ajmer.

32. Table No. 219 further shows that apart from the agricultural sources the earning dependants are mostly engaged in one of the occupations falling under Livelihood Class V itself. That means that in all probability they merely help in the economic activity of the people who support them. The percentage of such earning dependants out of the total percentage of 11.53 and 8.86 is 5.65 and 3.39 in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively. It is therefore clear that excluding the earning dependants engaged in agriculture and those who help in family undertakings we are left with only 2.05 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class V in Rajasthan and 3.68 in Ajmer who are earning dependants and engaged in other non-agricultural activities.

33. (a) *Dependency*:—A perusal of the Subsidiary Table 5.3 in Part I-B of the Report and Table No. 220 given below shows that nearly 68 and 70 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class VI in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively are non-earning dependants, doing nothing. The percentage of non-earning dependants in the rural areas of the State is about 63 and 61 in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively while that in the urban areas is nearly 72 in each of the States. Similarly the figures of earning dependants show that only 4.2 and 3.7 per cent. of the people of this livelihood class in the Rajasthan and Ajmer States respectively belong to this category. The percentage in the rural areas of the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer are 6.05 and 8.05 while in urban areas 2.81 and 2.83 respectively. The dependency in this livelihood class is, therefore, very high and particularly in the urban areas where the dependants of the well-to-do traders obviously do not work.

TABLE No. 220.

Proportion of self-supporting persons and dependants in Rajasthan and Ajmer States in Livelihood Class VI—Commerce,

Number per 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class VI in each Sub-Class of

State and Natural Division	General population			Rural population			Urban population		
	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants	Self-supporting persons	Non-earning dependants	Earning dependants
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Rajasthan State ..	2,763	6,817	420	3,065	6,330	605	2,537	7,182	281
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	2,703	6,829	468	3,041	6,262	697	2,460	7,236	304
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	2,754	6,906	340	3,072	6,405	523	2,545	7,235	220
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	2,858	6,739	403	3,019	6,476	505	2,640	7,095	265
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	2,940	6,550	510	3,208	6,151	641	2,747	6,838	415
Ajmer State ..	2,660	6,966	374	3,130	6,065	805	2,562	7,155	283

The highest percentage (69.06) of non-earning dependants in the general population is to be found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division also, it is almost equally high viz. 68.29. In the Rajasthan Hills Division and Rajasthan Plateau Division the percentage is 67.39 and 65.50 respectively. The lowest percentage 3.40 of earning dependants of Livelihood Class VI in the general population is also to be found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division which has the highest percentage of non-earning dependants. In the Rajasthan Hills, East Rajasthan Plain and Rajasthan Plateau Divisions the percentages of earning dependants are 4.03, 4.68 and 5.10 respectively.

34. It is evident from Subsidiary Table 5·3 that in the East Rajasthan Plain Division the highest percentage of non-earning dependants is found in the Jhunjhunu District (77·16) with the percentage of (3·49) only in earning dependants. Sikar District stands second with the percentage of 74·98 and 2·40 in non-earning and earning dependants respectively. Jaisalmer District has the lowest percentage of non-earning dependants (52·28) where the percentage of earning dependants is (15·63).

35. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, Churu District attracts attention as it has the highest percentage (72·84) of non-earning dependants in this Division with fairly low percentage (3·60) of earning dependants. This is probably due to the fact that the commercial community in this district is very wealthy who do not generally find it necessary to allow their dependants to work. Bikaner District of this Division has the lowest percentage (1·64) in the earning dependants in the State of Rajasthan while the percentage of non-earning dependants here is as high as 68·53 though not as high as Churu.

36. In the rural areas of the Natural Divisions the percentage of non-earning dependants in Livelihood Class VI is highest (64·76) in the Rajasthan Hills Division which has also a fairly high percentage (70·95) in the urban areas. This seems strange when we think of the comparative poverty of the population of Division and leads to an inference that the commercial classes here are better off than other classes and can afford to allow their dependants to remain non-earning; or that there is no scope here for part time jobs and these non-earning dependants are an extra burden on the earning members. The Rajasthan Dry Area Division, has also almost similar picture to offer with 64·05 per cent. in the rural and 72·35 per cent. in the urban. The proportion of non-earning dependants is the least both in the rural (61·51) as well as the urban areas (68·38) in the Rajasthan Plateau Division. It seems that this Division has comparatively poor and petty traders who cannot afford to have many non-earning dependants.

37. (b) *Secondary Means of Livelihood of People of Class VI*:—Subsidiary Table 5·3 shows the distribution of the secondary means of livelihood of the people of Livelihood Class VI. Table No. 221 given below summarises the position for the State and the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 221.

Secondary Means of Livelihood of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and their Natural Divisions

Secondary Means of Livelihood		Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Cultivation of owned land	Self-supporting persons ..	109	124	67	164	132	79
	Earning dependants ..	29	35	12	63	25	15
Cultivation of unowned land.	Self-supporting persons ..	111	120	150	36	25	24
	Earning dependants ..	33	36	46	8	3	3
Employment as cultivating labourers.	Self-supporting persons ..	15	24	4	17	15	12
	Earning dependants ..	25	32	10	21	53	35

TABLE No. 221 (Contd.)

Secondary Means of Livelihood		Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Rent on agricultural land	Self-supporting persons ..	82	72	12	254	174	59
	Earning dependants ..	8	11	1	18	8	6
Production other than cultivation.	Self-supporting persons ..	39	49	26	26	56	30
	Earning dependants ..	96	126	65	74	104	107
Commerce ..	Self-supporting persons ..	103	134	77	78	91	54
	Earning dependants ..	163	163	132	170	265	115
Transport ..	Self-supporting persons ..	7	8	6	8	6	14
	Earning dependants ..	7	15	1	4	1	8
Other services and miscellaneous sources.	Self-supporting persons ..	50	58	32	64	65	68
	Earning dependants ..	58	50	75	45	51	84
Total. ..	Self-supporting persons ..	516	589	374	647	564	340
	Earning dependants ..	419	468	342	403	510	372
<b>Total</b>		<b>935</b>	<b>1,057</b>	<b>716</b>	<b>1,050</b>	<b>1,074</b>	<b>712</b>

38. It will be seen from Table No. 221 above that out of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class VI in the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer there are only 516 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan and 340 in Ajmer who have a secondary means of livelihood. Table No. 220 shows that the percentage of all self-supporting persons in Livelihood Class VI is 27.63 in Rajasthan and 26.60 in Ajmer. It is therefore, clear that this percentage of 27.63 in Rajasthan and 26.60 in Ajmer includes only 5.16 per cent. of the self-supporting persons in Rajasthan and 3.40 in Ajmer who have a secondary source of income. Of these 5.16 and 3.40 per cent, 1.09 and 0.79 per cent. respectively get secondary income from cultivation of their own land; 1.03 per cent. in Rajasthan and 0.54 per cent. in Ajmer are again engaged in other commercial activities to supplement their income and the remaining 3.04 per cent. in Rajasthan and 2.07 per cent. in Ajmer derive supplementary income from various other sources.

39. People of Livelihood Class VI contain 4.20 per cent of earning dependants in Rajasthan and 3.74 per cent. in Ajmer of whom 0.25 per cent. in Rajasthan and 0.35 per cent. in Ajmer work as cultivating labourers and 1.63 per cent. in Rajasthan and 1.15 per cent. in Ajmer are engaged in commercial activities indicating that they render help in the business of the people who support them. Production other than cultivation and Miscellaneous sources provide income for the remaining 1.54 and 1.91 per cent. in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively.

40. While examining the secondary source of income of the earning dependants, Jaisalmer and Bharatpur Districts attract attention in Subsidiary Table 5·3. Jaisalmer has the largest percentage (15·62) of earning dependants while Bharatpur (8·39) comes next. The earning dependants of the Jaisalmer District mostly derive their income from Other services and miscellaneous sources, the percentage being as high as 10·2. Production other than cultivation, (Class V,) stands second with the percentage of 2·6, Cultivation of unowned land (Class II) engages 1·4 per cent. About 1·0 per cent are engaged in Commerce (Class VI) and 0·3 per cent. in Class I, Cultivation of owned land. The remaining Classes *viz.* III, VII and IV have very insignificant percentages (0·1), (0·02) and (0·01) respectively. In the Bharatpur District about 3 per cent. of the earning dependants are traders; about 2 per cent. are engaged in production other than cultivation, Livelihood Class II, III and I each is the secondary source of income of nearly 1 per cent. About 0·5 per cent. get their income from Miscellaneous sources and the remaining 0·3 per cent. are distributed in Class IV and VII.

41. The total number of people belonging to Livelihood Class VII, Transport in the Rajasthan and Ajmer States is only 143,111 and 23,089 respectively. The reasons for this low figure are given in Chapter I, Section 6 (Paragraph 11) and as pointed out they are associated with the system of classification adopted.

42. (a) *Dependency*:—In Livelihood Class VII also the percentage of dependency is very large. There are in Rajasthan about 66 per cent. of non-earning dependants and only about 4 per cent. of earning dependants. In the Ajmer State the non-earning dependants are 70 per cent. and earning dependants 3 per cent. as will be seen from Table No. 222 given below:—

TABLE No. 222.

Proportion of self-supporting persons and dependants in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions in Livelihood Class VII (Transport).

State and Natural Division.	Number per 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class VII in each Sub-class of								
	General Population			Rural Population			Urban Population		
	S.S.P.	N.E.D.	E.D.	S.S.P.	N.E.D.	E.D.	S.S.P.	N.E.D.	E.D.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Rajasthan State	3,012	6,605	383	3,433	5,804	763	2,843	6,927	230
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	3,129	6,398	473	3,591	5,456	953	2,923	6,817	260
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	2,773	7,012	215	3,258	6,291	451	2,601	7,267	132
Rajasthan Hills Division.	3,073	6,389	538	3,346	5,867	787	2,952	6,620	428
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	3,293	6,232	475	3,420	5,657	923	3,243	6,460	297
Ajmer State	2,735	6,951	314	3,121	5,551	1,328	2,686	7,132	182

S.S.P.—Self-supporting persons. N.E.D.—Non-earning dependants. E. D.—Earning dependants.

The dependency is higher in urban than in rural areas. There are about 58·0 per cent. non-earning dependants and 7·6 per cent. are earning dependants in rural areas of Rajasthan. The corresponding figures for the Ajmer State are 55·5 per cent. and 13·2 per cent., for non-earning dependants and earning dependants respectively.

43. In the urban areas, 69·2 per cent. are non-earning dependants and 2·3 per cent. are earning dependants in Rajasthan. In Ajmer State the figures of non-earning dependants are higher than those of Rajasthan as there are 71·3 per cent. non-earning dependants and only 1·8 per cent. are earning dependants.

44. It will be noticed that the largest percentage (70) of non-earning dependants in this livelihood class, in the general population is to be found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, in which the percentage in the rural and urban areas comes to 62·91 and 72·67 respectively. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division the percentage of non-earning dependants in this livelihood class is as high as 63·98 in the general population and 54·56 and 68·17 in the rural and urban areas respectively. The percentage of non-earning dependants in the Rajasthan Hills Division and Rajasthan Plateau Division is 63·89 and 62·32 in the general, 58·67 and 56·57 in the rural and 66·20 and 64·60 in the urban population respectively. The Jodhpur, Bikaner and Jaisalmer Districts of the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, while going through Subsidiary Table 5·4 in Part I-B of the Report, attract special attention by having the highest percentage of non-earning dependants (76·22), (72·42) and (71·57) respectively, as well as the lowest percentage of earning dependants in the State (0·67), (0·97) and (1·75) respectively. It is also remarkable that the district having the highest percentage of non-earning dependants, has the lowest percentage of earning dependants, as should naturally be also expected.

45. (b) *Secondary means of Livelihood of people of Class VII (Transport).*— In Livelihood Class VII (Transport) there are in Rajasthan about 30·12 per cent. and in Ajmer State 27·35 per cent. of self-supporting persons including, in Rajasthan about 3·28 and in Ajmer 1·74 per cent. who have secondary means of livelihood. Of these in Rajasthan about 0·71, 0·91 and 0·6 per cent. get their secondary income from I, II and VIII Classes respectively and in Ajmer 0·35, 0·23 and 0·5 per cent. The remaining derive their secondary income from various other sources, as shown in Table No. 223 below.

TABLE No. 223.

Secondary means of Livelihood of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class VII (Transport) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

Secondary Means of Livelihood		Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Cultivation of owned land.	Self-supporting persons	71	99	28	82	99	35
	Earning dependants	42	66	12	49	51	19
Cultivation of unowned land.	Self-supporting persons	91	125	85	57	25	23
	Earning dependants...	35	53	28	32	3	5

TABLE No. 223. (Contd.)

Secondary Means of Livelihood		1	Rajasthan	East Rajasthan	Rajasthan Dry	Rajasthan Hills	Rajasthan Pla-	Ajmer
			State	Plain Division	Area Division	Division	teau Division	State
			2	3	4	5	6	7
Employment as cultivating labourers.	Self-supporting persons	..	19	26	13	5	21	13
	Earning dependants ..	..	51	73	18	31	92	97
Rent on agricultural land.	Self-supporting persons	..	16	16	6	47	21	25
	Earning dependants ..	..	4	5	2	5	2	4
Production other than cultivation.	Self-supporting persons	..	44	59	20	74	43	10
	Earning dependants ..	..	80	109	32	104	110	57
Commerce	Self-supporting persons	..	16	22	9	14	22	18
	Earning dependants ..	..	17	17	11	35	23	40
Transport	Self-supporting persons	..	11	12	11	9	11	..
	Earning dependants ..	..	34	28	24	99	38	8
Other services and miscellaneous sources.	Self-supporting persons	..	60	89	32	35	66	50
	Earning dependants ..	..	119	121	88	183	156	82
Total	Self-supporting persons	..	328	448	204	323	308	174
	Earning dependants ..	..	382	472	215	538	475	312
<b>Total</b>		..	<b>710</b>	<b>920</b>	<b>419</b>	<b>861</b>	<b>783</b>	<b>486</b>

46. There are only about 4 and 3 per cent. of earning dependants in Livelihood Class VII (Transport) in the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively and of these 0.51 and 0.97 per cent. respectively are cultivating labourers, 0.80 and 0.57 per cent. are engaged in Production other than cultivation and 1.19 and 0.82 per cent. in Other services and miscellaneous sources in Rajasthan and Ajmer State respectively. It is interesting to note in the Table No. 223 above that in all the Natural Divisions, the most important secondary sources of income of self-supporting persons belonging to the Livelihood Class VII are from Class II (Cultivation of unowned land), Class I (Cultivation of owned land) and Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources).

47. The proportion of persons who earn their secondary source of income from Class II is highest in Plain Division (1.25) and Rajasthan Dry Area Division (0.85). Rajasthan Plateau Division stands last where the percentage is as low as 0.25, while Rajasthan Hills Division occupies the intermediate position where the percentage is (0.57).



48. The next important source of Secondary income of self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VII in all the Natural Divisions is cultivation of owned land from which nearly 1 per cent. of people in East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Plateau Division earn their secondary source of income. Rajasthan Hills Division comes next to it (0·82 per cent.) and Dry Area Division stands last where the percentage is as low as 0·28.

49. Other services and miscellaneous sources are another important means of secondary income of self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VII.

50. It will be observed that amongst the earning dependants of Livelihood Class VII (Transport), the most important occupations are those of Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) Class V (Production other than cultivation) and Class I Cultivation of owned land.

51. Rajasthan Hills Division stands first among the Natural Divisions where 1·83 per cent. of the people earn their income from Livelihood Class VIII as a secondary source. It is followed by Rajasthan Plateau Division (1·56) and East Rajasthan Plain Division (1·21). Rajasthan Dry Area comes last having the corresponding figure less than one per cent. *i.e.*, 0·88 per cent. In case of Class V (Production other than cultivation), Rajasthan Plateau Division (1·10 per cent.) comes first. It is followed by East Rajasthan Plain Division (1·09) and Rajasthan Hills Division (1·04). Rajasthan Dry Area stands last having a very low figure compared to other Divisions which is 0·32 per cent. only.

52 (a) *Dependency*:—In this livelihood class, nearly 60·5 and 60·42 per cent. of the people of the Rajasthan and Ajmer States respectively are non-earning Livelihood Class VIII dependants doing nothing, in the general population and the percentage of earning dependants is 7·01 and 5·14 respectively in Rajasthan and Ajmer States. In the rural population of the States the percentage of non-earning dependants is 54·26 in Rajasthan and in Ajmer 51·15, while in the urban area it is as high as 66·08 and 63·06 in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively. Similarly the percentage of earning dependants in the urban areas is only 4·34 in Rajasthan and 3·63 in Ajmer, while in the rural areas it is 9·99 in Rajasthan and 10·41 in Ajmer, as will be seen from Table No. 224 below:—

TABLE No. 224.

Proportion of self-supporting persons and dependants in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions in Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources).

Number per 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class VIII in each sub-class of

State and Natural Division	General Population			Rural Population			Urban Population		
	S.S.P.	N.E.D.	E.D.	S.S.P.	N.E.D.	E.D.	S.S.P.	N.E.D.	E.D.
Rajasthan State	3,249	6,050	701	3,575	5,426	999	2,958	6,608	434
East Rajasthan Plain Division	3,192	5,987	821	3,593	5,314	1,093	2,845	6,569	586
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	3,156	6,328	516	3,437	5,702	861	2,940	6,809	251
Rajasthan Hills Division	3,347	6,011	642	3,514	5,596	890	3,164	6,466	370
Rajasthan Plateau Division	3,639	5,584	777	3,855	5,078	1,067	3,365	6,227	408
Ajmer State	3,444	6,042	514	3,844	5,115	1,041	3,331	6,306	363

S.S.P. — Self-supporting persons. N.E.D. — Non-earning dependants.  
E.D. — Earning dependants.

53. The highest percentage (63·28) of non-earning dependants in the general population is to be found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division. The lowest percentage (55·84) is in the Rajasthan Plateau Division as in the other livelihood classes. The percentage of non-earning dependants in the rural population is the highest (57·02) again in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division. The corresponding percentages in the Rajasthan Hills, East Rajasthan Plain and Rajasthan Plateau Divisions are 55·96, 53·14 and 50·78 respectively. Similarly, in the urban population the highest percentage (68·09) is to be found again in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division and the corresponding figures for the East Rajasthan Plain, Rajasthan Hills and Rajasthan Plateau Divisions are 65·69, 64·66 and 62·27 respectively. It is to be remembered that the East Rajasthan Plain Division is the most urbanised part of the State.

54. On going through Subsidiary Table 5·5 the Churu District and Bikaner District attract attention in respect of the dependency ratio. The Districts of Churu (73·0) and Bikaner (70·5) have the highest percentage of non-earning dependants in this livelihood class. The number of earning dependants is also low in Churu being 2·1 per cent. while in Bikaner also the figure is much lower being about 1·4 per cent.

55. A reference to Subsidiary Table 1·8 shows that the largest percentage of general population in Livelihood Class VIII is to be found in the Jaipur District in the whole State. This is not surprising as the district contains the capital of the State and is also the seat of the University and various other institutions. Dependants of people engaged in such services do not normally have any employment and the large dependency ratio is thus obvious.

56. (b) *Secondary Means of Livelihood of people of Class VIII*:—Subsidiary Table 5·5 shows that in Rajasthan 32·49 per cent. and in Ajmer 34·44 per cent. of the people of Livelihood Class VIII are self-supporting persons including in Rajasthan 5·10 and in Ajmer 4·85 per cent. who have a secondary means of livelihood also. Of these, in Rajasthan 1·09 and in Ajmer 1·29 per cent. derive secondary income from cultivation of their own land, while about 0·46 per cent in Rajasthan and 0·7 per cent. in Ajmer, get rent on agricultural land and about 0·35 per cent. in Rajasthan and 0·56 per cent. in Ajmer of these people work as cultivating labourers. Out of the 7·0 per cent. in Rajasthan and 5·0 per cent. in Ajmer of earning dependants of this livelihood class, about 0·75 and 1·12 per cent. in Rajasthan and Ajmer respectively are engaged as cultivating labourers, 1·07 and 0·83 per cent. in Production other than cultivation and about 3·52 and 2·37 per cent. in Other services and miscellaneous sources. The position in the State and the Natural Divisions is summarised in Table No. 225 below:

TABLE No. 225.

Secondary Means of Livelihood of 10,000 persons of Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

Secondary Means of Livelihood							
From	Of	Rajasthan State.	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Cultivation of owned land.	Self-Supporting persons..	109	117	83	130	120	129
	Earning dependants ..	72	100	31	72	55	20

TABLE No. 225 (Contd.)

Secondary Means of Livelihood		Rajasthan State	East Rajasthan Plain Division	Rajasthan Dry Area Division	Rajasthan Hills Division	Rajasthan Plateau Division	Ajmer State
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Cultivation of unowned land.	Self-supporting persons ..	109	121	146	31	19	36
	Earning dependants ..	58	78	61	11	4	8
Employment as cultivating labourers.	Self-supporting persons ..	35	46	21	31	40	56
	Earning dependants ..	75	97	30	96	137	112
Rent on agricultural land	Self-supporting persons ..	46	40	21	110	83	70
	Earning dependants ..	8	9	7	10	8	9
Production other than cultivation.	Self-supporting persons ..	59	81	25	52	75	53
	Earning dependants ..	107	157	37	84	126	83
Commerce ..	Self-supporting persons ..	26	40	12	14	18	27
	Earning dependants ..	23	34	9	29	12	41
Transport ..	Self-supporting persons ..	7	10	4	3	3	5
	Earning dependants ..	5	7	2	2	6	3
Other services and miscellaneous sources.	Self-supporting persons ..	119	138	91	101	137	109
	Earning dependants ..	352	340	340	358	431	237
Total ..	Self-supporting persons ..	510	593	403	472	495	485
	Earning dependants ..	700	822	517	662	779	513
Total ..		1,210	1,415	920	1,134	1,264	998

57. It will be observed that amongst the earning dependants of Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) the most important occupation is that of Class VIII itself (Other services and miscellaneous sources). In the Rajasthan Plateau Division the largest percentage (4.31) of earning dependants is engaged in this occupation. The Rajasthan Hills Division stands second with the percentage of 3.58 while the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Dry Area Division engage the equal percentage of (3.4). Rajasthan and Ajmer States have the percentage of 3.52 and 2.37 respectively of the earning dependants in Class VIII.

58. It is also interesting to note in Table No. 225 above that in all the Natural Divisions the most important secondary source of income of the self-supporting persons belonging to livelihood Class VIII are from Class I cultivation of their own land and Class VIII itself equally, though the highest percentage (1.46) in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division is of those belonging to Class II Cultivation of unowned land) where, as pointed out in Chapter IV, Section 3, comparatively big holdings predominate which are partly leased out to tenants. Production other than cultivation (Class V) is the next important means of secondary income of self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VIII. This is a fact that service classes cannot earn enough as their salary to enable them to make their both ends meet with their salary alone. Industries like Bidi-making generally absorbs servants of low salary during their leisure hours.

59. The next important source of secondary income of self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VIII in all Natural Divisions is that of rent on agricultural land. This is again an important circumstance which shows how these petty land holders have to serve to earn their principal means of livelihood and how the income from land is only of secondary importance. In Chapter IV, Section 7, (Paragraph 6) we have already referred to the question of the status of the non-cultivating owners of land and there we noticed how a substantial percentage of them had to work as labourers or servants to supplement their income. Here we notice the other type of these petty land owners whose income from the land is even less than the income they get as servants.

### SECTION 3.

#### Employers, Employees and Independent Workers and Employment (in Factories and Small Scale Industries.)

It is for the first time in 1951 that the figures for employers, employees and independent workers have been collected at the Census for the self-supporting persons of the non-agricultural classes engaged in industries and services.

2. A person was recorded as an "employer" at the Census who had necessarily to employ other person or persons in order to carry on the business from which he secured his livelihood. Thus if a person employed a cook or other person for domestic service, he was not recorded as an employer merely for that reason. An "employee" for purposes of the Census figures is a person who ordinarily works under some other person for a salary or a wage in cash or kind, as a means of earning his livelihood. There may be persons who are employed as managers, superintendents, agents etc., and in that capacity control other workers. Such persons are also employees only and are not recorded as employers. An "independent worker" similarly means a person who is not employed by anyone else, who also does not employ anybody else in order to earn his livelihood and who, earns his livelihood by doing some work himself. In the case of joint family concerns and partnership concerns which employed other persons, the head of the family or the managing partner alone was treated as an employer, other members were independent workers. A self-supporting person may be neither an employer, nor an employee, nor an independent worker he may have means of livelihood without working. Such persons form a separate category. In this category come such persons as pensioners, stipend-holders, receivers of rent or interest, beggars, prostitutes, etc.

3. Practical difficulties encountered by the enumerators in collecting the information and the way in which they were removed are discussed in the introductory note to Economic Tables in Report Part II—B. In the case of employers it was noticed, though in very few cases, that persons who employed domestic servants were also by mistake treated as employers. Special attention was paid during the inspection stage towards detecting such mistakes wherever they were found and such of them as could be detected have been corrected. Still some of them might have escaped notice and the figures should be made use of subject to the above margin.

4. Subsidiary Table 5.1 in Part I-B of the Report gives the figures of employers, employees and independent workers per 10,000 of self-supporting persons of all non-agricultural classes. We will not be seriously wrong if we suppose that these figures give the same proportion for the entire category of non-agricultural classes. Broadly, the ratio between the self-supporting persons on the one hand and the earning dependants plus the non-earning dependants on the other is in the neighbourhood of 3:7 in both Rajasthan and Ajmer States and it might be made use of to estimate the number of dependants corresponding to the distribution of employers, employees and independent workers amongst the self-supporting persons.

5. On the basis of the assumption made above, the distribution in the case of Rajasthan and Ajmer may be shown as follows:—

TABLE No. 226.

Approximate distribution of 10,000 persons of all non-agricultural classes amongst employers, employees, independent workers and others.

Name of State	Employers.			Employees			Independent workers.			Others.
	Total	S.S.P.*	Depen- dants	Total	S.S.P.*	Depen- dants	Total	S.S.P.*	Depen- dants	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Rajasthan ..	136	41	95	2,773	832	1,941	6,743	2,023	4,720	348
Ajmer ..	983	295	688	4,206	1,262	2,944	4,623	1,387	3,236	188

\* S. S. P=Self-supporting Persons.

In considering the figures of employers and employees, it is to be remembered that there is a marginal zone of persons who are genuinely independent workers as well as employees. The manner in which we are classifying them is therefore, accidental but there is no bias and the figures on the whole duly represent the actual proportions. It will be observed from Subsidiary Table 5.1 and the table above that there are 28 per cent. employees and 67 per cent. independent workers amongst the non-agricultural classes in Rajasthan. In Ajmer the percentage of employees is 42 and that of independent workers 46. The employers are only 1 per cent. in Rajasthan and nearly 10 per cent. in Ajmer.

6. A study of Subsidiary Table 5.1 shows that the ratio of independent workers to employees is very interesting in some cases. In the Jaisalmer District of the Rajasthan Dry Area Division where the stock-raising industry is very prominent, it is interesting to notice that the ratio of independent workers to employees is of the order of 12:1. This is a genuine home-industry phenomenon. In the Bikaner District in the same Division on the other hand, where the wool industry seems to be in the hands of large contractors, the ratio of independent workers to employees is nearly equal i. e., 1.2 : 1.0

7. While examining the figures of employees, employers and independent workers in Subsidiary Table 5.1, it will be noticed that there is a significant proportion of the self-supporting persons who are classed under the category "Others". These are the economically unproductive self-supporting persons and a perusal of Main Economic Table III (Employers, employees and independent workers by industries and services, divisions and sub-

divisions) shows that in Rajasthan and Ajmer States the total number of such persons is 48,983 and 2,279 respectively. Out of these 1,411 persons subsist on income from non-agricultural property in Rajasthan and 706 in Ajmer, 3,934 persons in Rajasthan and 482 persons in Ajmer derive their income from remittances and scholarship. Beggars and Vagrants are 41,921 in Rajasthan and 957 in Ajmer, while all persons of other non-productive activities are 1,717 in Rajasthan and 134 in Ajmer.

8. The overall figure of about 49,000 un-productive persons in Rajasthan and 2,000 in Ajmer appears to be small, but it is to be remembered that it represents only the self-supporting persons. Actually, the total number of persons depending on this livelihood group would be about three times this number, or roughly about 150,000 persons in Rajasthan and 6,000 in Ajmer.

9. Subsidiary Tables 5.1(a) and 5.1(b) show the analysis of the non-agricultural population in rural and urban areas in respect of employers, employees, independent workers and others. Table No. 227 given below summarises the position in respect of the State and the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 227.

Proportion of Employers, Employees and Independent workers amongst the self-supporting persons of the non-agricultural classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions

State and Natural Division	General Population				Rural Population				Urban Population			
	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Others	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Others	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Others
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Rajasthan State.	136	2,773	6,743	348	111	2,089	7,376	424	166	3,621	5,959	254
East Rajasthan Plain Division	170	2,917	6,563	345	156	2,369	7,061	414	187	3,583	5,969	261
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	107	2,808	6,727	358	42	1,947	7,542	469	178	3,743	5,842	237
Rajasthan Hills Division	82	2,380	7,182	356	45	1,592	7,972	391	143	3,678	5,879	300
Rajasthan Plateau Division	136	2,534	7,005	325	175	1,944	7,495	386	81	3,382	6,300	237
Ajmer State	983	4,206	4,623	188	85	1,679	7,839	397	1,314	5,140	3,436	110

It will be seen that in the rural areas the ratio of independent workers to employees in the Rajasthan State as a whole is 3.5:1 and in Ajmer 4.7:1, while in the urban areas it is 1.6:1 in Rajasthan and 1.1.5 in Ajmer. This is a natural phenomenon, because in the towns and cities the proportion of employees to independent workers is bound to be greater than in the rural areas, where the people have more opportunities of working independently and this proportion varies with the size of the cities or towns. In Ajmer State where the city and the towns are comparatively bigger than the average town of Rajasthan the proportion of employees is higher than that in Rajasthan. It will also be noticed from the Table No. 227 above that in most of the Natural Divisions the ratio of independent workers to employees in the rural and urban

areas is roughly of the same pattern. The Rajasthan Hills and Rajasthan Plateau Divisions present distinctly different pictures in rural and urban areas respectively. The ratios are remarkably different from other parts of the state. It will be observed that the ratio of independent workers to employees in Rajasthan Hills Division in the rural area is 5:1 while that in Rajasthan Plateau Division in urban area it is 2:1. In the urban areas of all other Divisions the ratio is roughly 3:2. The ratio of independent workers to employees in the rural areas of the Districts of Jaisalmer, Jalore and Sirohi attract special attention which is 20:1 in Jaisalmer and 8:1 in both the remaining Districts of Jalore and Sirohi. In urban areas the ratio in the Barmer District is 4:1 and it is 3:1 in the Districts of Jalore and Chittorgarh which is different from the other districts of the State.

10. The ratio of independent workers to employees in almost all the districts is significantly different in rural from urban areas but it is nearly the same in the Tonk District, where the ratio is 2.5: 1 in rural area while 2.3:1.8 in the urban areas. This is a typical district in which the urban population gets employment in industries and it seems that in the rural areas also industry absorbs a good number of employees, who are engaged by big industrialists. This fact is also reflected in Subsidiary Table 2.4 as well as in 5.1(a). Table 2.4 shows that in the Tonk District out of every 10,000 people of all livelihood classes in the rural areas, as many as 567 people belong to Livelihood Class V. Similarly, Table 5.1 (a) shows that out of 10,000 persons of the non-agricultural classes in the rural areas as many as 3,575 people belong to Livelihood Class V.

11. Subsidiary Table 5.2 given in part I-B of the Report shows the ratio of independent workers to employees amongst the self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class V. This is about 8.8:1 in Rajasthan and 1.4:1 in Ajmer for the general population. It is interesting to notice that in the rural areas of the Rajasthan State the ratio of independent workers to employees in Livelihood Class V is about 13:1 and 10:1 in Ajmer. In the urban population it is 8:1.7 in Rajasthan and 5.3 in Ajmer. The ratio for the Natural Divisions in total, rural and urban areas will be seen from Table No. 228 below:—

TABLE No. 228.

Proportion of Employers, Employees and Independent workers amongst the self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class V by secondary economic status in								
	General population			Rural population			Urban population		
	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Employers	Employees	Independent workers
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Rajasthan State ..	124	1,043	8,833	101	685	9,214	169	1,770	8,061
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	148	1,135	8,717	97	894	9,009	242	1,583	8,175
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	71	815	9,114	57	302	9,641	99	1,860	8,041
Rajasthan Hills Division. ..	40	863	9,097	14	697	9,289	116	1,356	8,528
Rajasthan Plateau Division. ..	218	1,348	8,434	276	823	8,901	102	2,417	7,481
Ajmer State ..	1,369	3,551	5,080	99	897	9,004	2,036	4,945	3,019



12. It will be noticed that the ratio of independent workers to employees in Livelihood Class V in the rural areas is the highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division while in the urban areas, it is highest in Hills Division. This is what must be expected because in the backward region like Hills Division, whatever industrial activities do exist in urban areas are mostly of the nature of domestic industries. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, the only prominent industry in the rural areas is stock-raising which in its very nature does not involve employment of other persons. The ratio in rural areas as well as in urban is lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division, as this Division contains the well known Cement Works and also several organised industries of weaving, building stone quarries etc., worked by Thekedars which all provide scope for employment of persons in rural areas.

13. Subsidiary Table 5.3 in Part I-B of the Report gives the ratio of independent workers to employees amongst the self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VI. The ratio of independent workers to employees for the Rajasthan State as a whole is about 10:1 for the general population and Independent workers while in Ajmer it is 4:1. In the rural areas of the State, it is about 14:1, in Rajasthan and nearly 16:1 in Ajmer and in the urban areas about 7:1 in Rajasthan and 3:1 in Ajmer, as will be seen from Table No. 229 below:—

TABLE No. 229.

Proportion of Employers, Employees and Independent Workers amongst the Self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States, and the Natural Divisions.

Number per 10,000 Self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VI by secondary economic status in

State and Natural Division	General Population			Rural Population			Urban Population		
	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Employers	Employees	Independent workers
Rajasthan State	359	888	8,753	268	632	9,100	441	1,121	8,438
East Rajasthan Plain Division	434	1,317	8,249	439	1,126	8,435	429	1,487	8,084
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	340	594	9,066	51	211	9,738	570	898	8,532
Rajasthan Hills Division	243	495	9,262	158	244	9,598	374	886	8,740
Rajasthan Plateau Division	257	618	9,125	428	552	9,020	112	675	9,213
Ajmer State	1,889	1,521	6,590	117	590	9,293	2,342	1,759	5,899

14. The ratio of independent workers to employees in the Natural Divisions also is not very much different from that in the State as a whole, although in the individual districts there are sharp variation as will be seen from Subsidiary Table 5.3. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the Jaisalmer District shows the ratio of independent workers to employees as 302:1 and in the Sikar District it is 4:1. It is interesting to notice that the percentage of employers in the Jaisalmer District is the lowest in the State. In this connection a reference to Subsidiary Table 5.14 is of

some interest. It shows that in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, there is the largest number of retail traders in foodstuffs (including beverages and narcotics) while on the other hand the largest number of retail traders otherwise unclassified are found in Sikar District in the East Rajasthan Plain Division.

15. The ratio of independent workers to employees in Livelihood Class VII will be found in Subsidiary Table 5·4 in Part I-B of the Report. It will be observed that for the Rajasthan State as a whole the ratio is of the order of 1:1·2 and for Ajmer State it is 1:2·8 as will be seen from Table No. 230 given below for the States and Natural Divisions. In the rural areas of the State, it is about 5:4·7 in Rajasthan and 1·8:1 in Ajmer. In the urban areas, it is about 1:1·3 in Rajasthan and 1:4 in Ajmer.

TABLE No. 230.

Proportion of Employers, Employees and Independent Workers amongst the Self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VII (Transport) in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VII by secondary economic status in								
	General Population			Rural Population			Urban Population		
	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Employers	Employees	Independent workers
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Rajasthan State ..	268	5,279	4,453	195	4,727	5,078	303	5,548	4,149
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	467	4,839	4,694	337	4,185	5,478	537	5,196	4,267
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	69	6,498	3,433	46	5,796	4,158	79	6,807	3,114
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	288	4,610	5,102	39	4,635	5,326	412	4,598	4,990
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	148	4,074	5,778	175	4,036	5,789	137	4,089	5,774
Ajmer State. ..	21	7,324	2,655	85	3,467	6,448	11	7,904	2,085

16. The ratio of independent workers to employees varies from one Natural Division to the other, a perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·4 also confirms the same trend. In the districts also the ratio is widely different from district to district e.g. in Bharatpur it is 1·6:1, in Alwar it is 1·1:1 and in Ganganagar it is 1:5. A reference to Subsidiary Table 5·15 (Territorial Distribution of Self-supporting persons engaged in Transport) shows that 73 per cent. of the self-supporting persons in the Alwar District and 70 per cent. in the Bharatpur District are engaged in transport by road as against the State average of 59. Alwar and Bharatpur stand third and fourth respectively in the districts of East Rajasthan Plain Division; the Districts of Jhunjhunu (93) and Tonk (86) comes first and second respectively. In the case of the Ganganagar District the largest percentage (71) of people is engaged in the Railway Transport, against the State average of 37. It does not lead only in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, but it tops the list of all the districts of the State in this respect.

17. Subsidiary Table 5.5 in Part I-B of the Report gives the distribution of the employers, employees, independent workers and others per 10,000 of self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VIII. Table No. 231 given below summarises the position in respect of the State and the Natural Divisions.

Employers, Employees, Independent Workers and others in Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources).

TABLE No. 231.

Proportion of Employers, Employees and Independent Workers amongst the self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States.

State and Natural Division	Number per 10,000 self-supporting persons of Livelihood Class VIII by secondary economic status in											
	General Population				Rural Population				Urban Population			
	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Others	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Others	Employers	Employees	Independent workers	Others
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Rajasthan State ..	38	4,676	4,512	774	54	3,867	5,074	1,005	21	5,551	3,904	524
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	59	4,703	4,487	751	97	4,044	4,912	947	18	5,423	4,022	537
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	18	4,995	4,179	808	22	4,162	4,651	1,165	14	5,745	3,755	486
Rajasthan Hills Division.	22	4,367	4,780	831	15	3,172	5,782	1,031	31	5,828	3,554	587
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	25	4,082	5,161	732	11	3,288	5,836	865	45	5,240	4,176	539
Ajmer State ..	289	5,749	3,472	490	53	3,056	5,763	1,128	367	6,636	2,717	280

1 A8. perusal of the table shows that the ratio of independent workers to employees is almost equal in the Rajasthan State and 1:1.7 in Ajmer State. It differs slightly in all the Natural Divisions. The largest percentage of employees is in the Districts of Bikaner and Banswara 68 and 63 respectively, lowest in the Districts of Sirohi and Jalore 8 and 30 respectively.

The distribution of Subsidiary persons engaged in unproductive activities and belonging to Livelihood Class VIII, as given in subsidiary Table 5.5 shows that about 8 per cent. of the self-supporting persons belong to this category in the Rajasthan State and in Ajmer 5 per cent. Their percentage is largest (about 8.08) in Rajasthan Hills Division. In the Rajasthan Plain Division and the Rajasthan Plateau Division the percentage of unproductive self-supporting persons is 7.5 and 7.3 respectively. In the Districts of Rajasthan, Jalore has the highest percentage of 20.23 and Sirohi the lowest 1.82.

## SECTION 4.

## Primary Industries other than Cultivation not elsewhere specified.

1. According to the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme given in Part II-B of the Report the industrial division "0". (Primary Industries not elsewhere specified) consists of the sub-divisions mentioned in Table No. 232 below, which also gives the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each in Rajasthan and in Ajmer.

TABLE No. 232

Self-supporting persons employed in Division "0" and its Sub-divisions in the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Division and Sub-division	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
'0' .. .. .	95,186	6,142
0·1 Stock-raising .. .. .	78,007	4,486
0·2 Rearing of small animals and insects .. .. .	79	—
0·3 Plantation Industries .. .. .	356	1
0·4 Forestry and collection of forest products .. .. .	16,478	238
0·5 Hunting including Trapping and Game propagation .. .. .	101	276
0·6 Fishing .. .. .	165	1,141

TABLE No. 233.

Rural Urban distribution of the proportionate strength of Self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "0" in the State and the Natural Division.

State and Natural Division	Total	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State .. .. .	100	88	12
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	27	22	5
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	41	38	3
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	14	12	2
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	18	16	2
Ajmer State .. .. .	100	61	39

2. Subsidiary Table 5·8 deals with this group of Industries and it shows that the self-supporting persons engaged in industries of Division "0" in Rajasthan constitute 7·0 per cent of the total self-supporting persons following non-agricultural pursuits. The corresponding percentage in Ajmer is 5·16. The position in Natural Divisions can be seen in following Table No. 234.

TABLE No. 234

Distribution of Self-supporting persons engaged in Division "0" (Primary Industries not elsewhere specified) in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Actual	Per 100 of the self-supporting persons engaged in all Industries and services.
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. ..	25,237	4.19
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. ..	39,252	9.18
Rajasthan Hills Division .. ..	13,149	9.18
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. ..	17,278	9.42

Rajasthan Plateau Division with a percentage of (9.42) stands first. The highest figures for Plateau Division are due to forest industries found in this Division. Hills Division and Rajasthan Dry Area rank next because forest industries in the Hills Division and stock raising in the Dry Area Division are the main occupation of these people. The low figures for East Rajasthan Plain Division indicate the comparative absence of both.

Among the districts, Jaisalmer District tops the list as about 49.96 *i.e.*  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the total self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services are engaged in these industries, next comes Sirohi with 17.40 per cent, while lowest figures are visible in case of Bikaner District where these people form less than 1 per cent. *i.e.* 0.79 per cent. only. Next higher than Bikaner is Churu District where the percentage of these people is 1.07 per cent. Nearly 82 per cent. are engaged in stock-raising about 17 per cent. in forestry and collection of such persons of forest products and the remaining one per cent. are engaged in industries comprised in all other sub-divisions. In Ajmer 73 per cent. are engaged in stock-raising, 4 per cent. in forestry etc., 19 per cent. in fishing and 4 per cent. in hunting. The district index of non-agricultural occupations given in Part I-B of the Census Report, shows the actual number of self-supporting persons engaged in different occupational groups comprised in each sub-division and also shows the actual occupations returned by the citizens.

3. Stock-raising (industrial sub-division—0.1) includes the following groups *viz.* 0.11—Herdsman and shepherds, 0.12 Breeders and keepers of cattle and buffaloes and 0.10—Breeders and keepers of other large animals including transport animals. It is an industry which is almost universal in the State and is to be found in every district. The most important districts from the point of view of stock-raising are Nagaur, Jaisalmer, and Jalore which have nearly cent per cent of the persons belonging to this Industrial Division engaged in industries comprised in one or other of the above groups. The districts having more than 90 per cent. of such people are Bikaner, Jodhpur, Barmer, Pali, Sirohi Tonk, Sawai Madhopur, Jaipur and Sikar. In all, 78,007 self-supporting persons in the State of Rajasthan and 4,486 in Ajmer are engaged in stock-raising.

4. Sri N.N. Godbole, Director of Industries and Commerce, Government of Rajasthan, has remarked about the cattle wealth of Rajasthan. "The cattle wealth of Rajasthan can be said to occupy the 4th place in India according to the All India Cattle Census Figures of 1940. In addition to its population of sheep and goats which number 8,000,000 (eight millions), cattle and other animals which are used for ploughing, transport and dairy purposes, are also useful in giving us bones, grease, hides and skin and wool which are important raw-materials for other industries. Thus the State of Rajasthan on account of its cattle and other animal population provides immense scope for the development of industries in which bones and wool are used as raw-materials."\*

\*"Rajasthan a Symposium," Government of Rajasthan, Directorate of Public Relations, Jaipur page 87.

5. Sheep breeding is thriving in all the sandy districts. The sheep of Jaisalmer and Bikaner are well-known for their breed and yield of wool. Camel rearing and breeding also is an important industry in the desert area, firstly because this animal can live without water for days, even weeks, and for his grazing the leaves of trees suffice; and secondly because his utility is the greatest in the sandy tracts where inspite of railway extension there are miles and miles of land unserved by any means of communication. He has rightly been called "the ship of the desert."

6. One of the principal causes of the most unsatisfactory milk position in our State is poor feeding which is but natural owing to vast unfertile sandy area covering nearly half of the State, which do not yield any grass or any other fodder as well as the Hilly areas where grass is not in easy access. **Causes of poor milk yield.** It is a common practice in Rajasthan Dry Area Division, when there are no normal rains, that a large number of cattle have to be taken hither and thither in search of fodder and water, outside the State to places as far as Madhya Bharat.

7. Pointing out ways and means of increasing our milk production and comparing it with the production in other countries, Baljit Singh says, "According to Dr. Burns, it is possible to increase milk yield to the extent of 75 per cent. in the case of cows, 60 per cent. for buffaloes and 50 per cent. for goats. A large part of it can be realised simply by improved feeding and better management, and therefore, without much loss of time. In fact, the milk yield of the village cattle can be improved to the extent of 50 to 60 per cent. if the fodder and concentrates are given in adequate quantities. If the average yield of cereals per acre is increased, as it ought to be, there will be considerable area for the cultivation of pulses, oil-seeds and fodder, in quantities sufficient for the production of enough food for men and feeding stuffs for the dairy cow and buffalo. In Europe including Russia five times as much milk is produced as in India with an equal number of milch cattle. It may be very ambitious to strive for a similar efficiency but an objective of doubling the present output in the near future should in no case be regarded as too high. Such a target should rather be regarded as within easy reach and one of the cardinal features of the country's agricultural and food policy." <sup>1</sup>

8. Rearing of small animals and insects, industrial sub-division 0·2 consists of the following groups: 0·21-Poultry farmers, 0·22-Bee-keepers, 0·23-Silkworm rearers, 0·24-Cultivators of Lac and 0·20-Rearers of other small animals and insects. **Rearing of small animals and insects.** This industry is not common in Rajasthan. Even poultry farming is not yet properly organised. In fact, there are no persons in the State who have returned as whole time poultry farmers. No where do we find poultry keeping as an industry in these States. Villagers do keep a few fowls. They use the eggs themselves. Bee-keeping and cultivation of lac also do not exist although there is a great scope for this industry. What does exist is the collection of honey and wax and the collection of lac which will be discussed under Forestry.

9. Plantation as an industry also does not really exist in Rajasthan nor in Ajmer. Whatever figures have come out in the Census Tabulation relate to such persons who returned their occupation something like gardener, vegetable grower etc. **Plantation Industry.** There are classes of people in the sandy districts whose principal means of livelihood is plantation of water-melons. This fruit of this area is famous for its sweetness, it is cultivated during the monsoon and requires very little water for its irrigation. The existence of this industry there, is reflected in the figures of Churu and Bikaner Districts. In Churu 16 per cent. and in Bikaner 6 per cent. of all persons engaged in the industries comprised in division "0" are engaged in Plantation industry. Plantation industry like the plantation of musk-melons water-melons, cucumbers and brinjals is followed in the sandy beds of rivers in other places also where underground water flows in the months of February to April. But this sort of industry is followed as a subsidiary occupation by persons whose principal means of livelihood is cultivation. The plantation industry engages only about 0·4 per cent. of the self-supporting persons of Division "0" in Rajasthan and 0·02 in Ajmer.

1. "Population and Food Planning in India" By Baljit Singh pages 135-136 ibid.

01. Forestry and collection of forest products industrial Sub-division No. 0.4 consists of the following groups namely, 0.40—planting, replanting and conservation of forests (including forest officers, rangers and guards), 0.41—Charcoal burners, 0.42—Collectors of forest produce and lac, 0.43—Woodcutters and 0.44—Cowdung collectors and cow-dung cake makers.

The important activities comprised in this industrial sub-division found in Rajasthan are fire-wood cutting, charcoal burning, collection of honey, wax, lac, and gum, manufacture of kattha and wood-cutting for building timber. Bamboos and beams of local teak and charcoal are important articles of export from the Hills and Plateau Divisions. Forests in Rajasthan exist mostly in the Hills Division and the Plateau Division in almost all districts. The above industries are, therefore, significant in the Districts of Dungarpur, Banswara, Udaipur, Kotah, Bundi and Jhalawar. This sub-division of industries engages 17.31 per cent. in Rajasthan and 3.87 per cent. in Ajmer State, of the self-supporting persons engaged in all the Industries of division "0" (Primary Industries not elsewhere specified). The forests of the State are a great national asset and apart from the people, who are returned as self-supporting persons depending on forest industries, there are many for whom the forest provide secondary or tertiary means of livelihood and this fact must be carefully borne in mind in studying the Census figures. It should be remembered that during the Census only the principal and secondary means of livelihood were recorded and no information was collected about other sources of economic income. Thus the vast majority of the people living in the backward areas of the State, where the forests abound, get economic help in various ways from the forests and not all of them come under the scope of the census enquiry. Thus, a cultivator might be getting fuel, bamboos and other requirements for his household and cultivation, and if cultivation is his principal source of income and his next greater source of income is plying of a bullock-cart, the census enumerator would have recorded the two means of occupations, namely, cultivation and transport, but not his income from the forest. Actually, however, without the forest the cultivator's life would be well-nigh impossible in many areas. In Part II of Volume 2 of the Report of the Industrial Survey Committee, the following interesting account of the forests and their economic importance is given by Shri K.P. Sagriya, "Exploitation of the forests to obtain such necessities of life as timber, firewood, bamboos, grass, etc., and products of economic importance such as lac or kattha is one of the few primary industries, only next in importance to agriculture. Extensive forests have existed from the primaeval times and thanks to Nature, they have survived though in a somewhat depleted condition, to this day, inspite of their ruthless exploitation at the hands of man for his own use and of his cattle. Forestry, by which is meant the rearing of tree crops on scientific lines, is however, still in its infancy. The important role that the forests play in the general commercial welfare and in the economic life of the people is not always fully realised. If statistics were to be collected they would convincingly show that apart from the jungle population which is directly dependent on the forest for such necessities of life as poles, firewood, wood for agricultural implements, grass for grazing for livestock, bamboos, thorns, edible products and even medicines, a large number earn their livelihood on forest works such as felling of trees, fashioning of timber, casting of forest products, construction of roads, buildings, wells, tanks, etc. Besides this, employment on a large scale is provided to persons engaged in working up the raw-products through cottage industries such as carpentry, tanning, bamboo works, lac propagation, shellac manufacture, bidi-making, kattha boiling, rose oil distillation, etc., and to many skilled labourers engaged in large scale industries utilizing forest products, such as cabinet making, match manufacture, saw mills, etc.

11. About the forests in Rajasthan Shri Suganchand Kothari, Chief Conservator of Forests, Government of Rajasthan, writes:—"Forests are a valuable asset to a Nation. Every nation has been provided with forests as a gift of nature. Man from the very start has been using them in one form or the other to his advantage. In fact, he has been living entirely on them. Leaves, grasses, roots, berries and such other products of nature's vegetation have been utilised by him from time immemorial. With the increase of population and progress of civilisation man cleared the forest harnessed the animals, constructed ploughs, tilled the land,



raised field crops, utilised fibres and timbers and built carts, boats, houses, bridges, railways, mills and various other industries which are all directly or indirectly connected with forests. India has always been an agricultural country depending mainly on rainfall, soil fertility and livestock which depend on maintenance of forests. However, not only the uneducated public, but also the educated and responsible persons, have been of the opinion that all are, or should be, free to cut, lop, burn, graze, clear land, cultivate and destroy the forests. This very idea has been the main cause of deterioration of forests and consequently has resulted into irregularity of rains, erosion and floods, landslips, washing away of soils and a very poor livestock. The innocent population have suffered from the misdeeds of their brothers. Rajasthan has also not escaped the calamity. Extremes of temperature, scanty rainfall, erosion and floods have resulted into thorny forests of very poor value. Fodder famines have now become a rule and not an exception.

12. "Rajasthan's present position as regards its forest wealth is not encouraging. We have inherited this wealth from the different integrating units, some of which were only a few hundred square miles in area. There was no progressive working in any of the States previously, probably due to lack of trained personnel and also because the object of working was solely to get the maximum revenue. They never cared for the future plans because they believed that "A bird in hand is worth two in the bush." The results of all these evils are not far to seek. Thousands of people from Western Rajasthan migrate every year with their belongings and cattle to different parts of Madhya Bharat in search of food and fodder. There exist no working plans worth the name and the afforestation and regeneration works depend on the annual grant of money. The forests are worked for fuel and charcoal in an unsystematic way without any plan for sustained yield. Forests are undemarcated and rights not settled. The forests in Rajasthan cover an area of 12,869 square miles i.e. 11.7 per cent. of the whole area. It is estimated that about 20.25 per cent. of any country should be under forests to satisfy its need of timber, fuel and grass.

13. The chief items of forest produce are Kattha, charcoal, fuel-wood, bamboos, gums, grass and khas. The scientific methods of extraction for the minor forest products are not employed. Evidently there is a great field of improvement for certain industries such as catechu, Bidi, tanning fibers and flosses, manufacture of ropes, wooden toys, and extraction of khas oil. Mahua trees are found in abundance in most parts of Rajasthan. In times of petrol shortage, it might become possible to manufacture power alcohol from the fruit of these trees. There exists a vast potentiality for the manufacture of paper-pulp and card-board from several common fodder grasses, bamboos and salar (*Boswellia serrata*) found surplus in the Union. A fairly large quantity of fuel and charcoal is exported annually to adjoining States because it cannot be transported to distant fuel famine areas of Rajasthan due to lack of means of communication".

14. Another important industry coming under Industrial Division "0" is that of Bee-keeping (Sub-division 0.22). This industry as such does not exist here. Collection of honey and wax do exist which come under Sub-division 0.42. With their plentiful forests and other resources the Hills and Plateau Division seems to hold out great prospects for the development of this industry, though at present they are not being utilised at all or only in a haphazard manner. Of the trees and plants grown in these Divisions those on which the bees can thrive are abundant and varied. At present the industry is carried on by individuals or small groups of individuals on a small scale. Nowhere is the industry carried on in a scientific manner. Generally speaking, there is no particular community that has specialized itself in this trade. The people living near forest areas try to supplement their earning by these means.

15. The bees, the honey-combs of which are usually raided by the honey-collectors are Indian bee or *Apis Indica*, which can easily be tamed, the little Bee or *Apis Florea* or even the Rock Bee or *Apis Dorsata*. The two latter love the open air and are untamable. The rock bee is very ferocious also. The present method of production, though crude is simple enough. The bees are scared away, the hive captured and honey squeezed with hands, after which it is strained through

a piece of cloth which is not always clean. If the bee is ferocious, it is smoked away for capturing the hives a highly wasteful process. The major portion of the honey that is marketed at present is what is collected from the combs of the untamable bees; this is indication perhaps of the enterprising nature of the honey producer. The honey so obtained varies in quantity from a quarter or half a seer per comb of the ordinary bee to six or seven seers per comb of the Rock Bee. Today, the chief use to which honey is put is medicinal, obviously then, the market for it cannot be a wide one. Bees' wax is used by various groups of people, such as chamars, polish and candlemakers. Since the introduction of paraffin wax which is sold very cheap, the use of bees' wax in the candle making industry has declined. There is however, still a good demand for wax candles for certain special purposes, *e.g.* for burning in temples. Incidentally, it must be mentioned that this is one of the very few cottage industries in which there is no impediment of any sort placed, whether in the form of licence or octroi. Under existing circumstances, the case for introducing apiculture as an entirely new industry is strong. Not only does it make it possible for an agriculturist or horticulturists to supplement his meagre earnings with the proceeds of this subsidiary industry but it may even enhance his earnings from his main occupation, because the bees, by assisting in crops pollination, may improve the quality and the yield of his crop.

16. The industry connected with propagation of lac is included in sub-division "02-Rearing of small animals and insects" of Division "0" (Primary Industries not elsewhere specified)". But cultivation of lac as an industry does not exist in Rajasthan, although there is an ample scope for it.

**The Lac Industry.** The position at present is that lac is found in abundance in all forests but the twigs containing lac are collected and exported. There are very few people who manufacture shellac or any other product of lac. Only 79 self-supporting persons are classified under the sub-division in Rajasthan, and none in Ajmer. Here again the remarks hold good which have been given under forestry. The figures are so small because very few people depend upon it as their principal means of livelihood or the secondary means of livelihood. Most people combine it with agricultural and forest pursuits. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·8 and the District Index of Non-agricultural Occupation will show that the industries comprised in this sub-division are mostly found in the districts of the Hills and the Plateau Divisions, the percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in them to the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries of Division '0' are given in the Inset Table No. 235.

TABLE No. 235.

Proportionate strength of the self-supporting persons engaged in Forestry and collection of forest products in certain districts.

Name of District	Percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in forestry and collection of forest products to total self-supporting persons engaged in Primary Industries not elsewhere specified.
Udaipur ..	68·14
Dungarpur ..	90·55
Banswara ..	77·51
Kotah ..	36·79
Bundi ..	20·15
Jhalawar ..	28·52

The Hills and Plateau Divisions of Rajasthan have great possibilities which have not yet been adequately tackled. Industrially lac is coming more and more into prominence, and although to a great extent the trade depression and the substitutes have affected this industry, yet if we can take to exploiting the possibilities of lac, it is one which will lead itself to considerable improvement. Lac culture can form a very good occupation for the people living in the neighbourhood of the forest. Lac insects themselves use as host trees—Palas, Ber and Kusum. These trees are not of much use in other ways. The skill that is required is very little. Village people can work the collected lac into shellac in their own cottages, men and women working together to form a suit for production. The equipment that is needed is very simple and can be made by the villagers themselves. With the spread of the use of electricity lac can be used in manufacturing of insulators and other

-electrical accessories. Therefore, its commercial possibilities are great. Here again the industry, because it reaches down to the unsophisticated people requires a considerable amount of organisation. The lac industry also promises to provide good employment to our under-employed villagers if the industry were properly developed.

17. Sub-Divisions 0·5—Hunting and 0·6—Fishing are very insignificant in Rajasthan, although they seem to be of some importance in Ajmer. Hunting and trapping accounts for only 0·11 per cent. of the self-supporting persons belonging to Division '0' (Primary Industries not elsewhere specified) in Rajasthan and 4·49 per cent. in Ajmer. In Rajasthan the total number of self-supporting persons engaged in it is only 101 of whom 60 belong to Jaipur District and 24 persons to Jhalawar District. In Ajmer the number is 276 persons. Fishing is not possible in the Dry Areas of Rajasthan and in places where it is possible *e.g.* the lakes and rivers of Hills and Plateau Divisions it is not popular due to Hindu religious sentiment being strongly against it. It is of some importance in the Ajmer State. In Rajasthan only 165 and in Ajmer 1,141 self-supporting persons are engaged in this Industry.

## SECTION 5.

### Mining and Quarrying.

1. Rajasthan is rich in mineral deposits many of which are being worked at present. The following extracts from an article by Shri M. L. Sethi, Director of Mines and Geology, Rajasthan Government, briefly summarise the position. "Mineral resources of countries have attained great importance in the modern industrial age; with them problems of international relations, trade, policies and industry are closely linked. Few people seem to realise during times of peace, the extent to which nations have become dependant upon minerals. They are the raw materials both of the machine and of the power to run it.

2. "India, though less fortunate than many other countries in possessing mineral wealth, can count on some important mineral deposits for her industrial development. Iron and manganese ores, chromite and coal, bauxite and magnesite can be named in this list. Amongst the few States which share this fortune Rajasthan easily commands a high place falling next only to Bihar and Madhya Pradesh.

3. "Although a third of this State lies covered with deserts which have hardly been explored so far, there are the Aravallies, which give geological and mineral predominance to this land of glorious heritage. Except for some jurassic formations in Western Rajasthan, a large part of the hilly tract consists of archaean crystalline complex, the Delhi and Vindhyan systems.

4. "Rajasthan has long been enjoying a pre-eminent position in the production of minerals and metals from its mines for many centuries, when almost every village had its own iron forge. Millions of tons of slag lying at Sighana-Khetri and remnants of *zinc smelting* furnaces near Zawar (Udaipur District) give convincing proof of this thriving metal and mineral trade.

5. "Today occurrences of copper, lead, zinc, silver cadmium, tungsten, manganese, iron, titanium, columbium, tantalum, beryllium, etc. are known amongst the metallic minerals. In the field of industrial and non-metallic minerals excellent development of glass-sand talc and soapstone, gypsum, mica emeralds, fullers earth, limestones, clays, felspar, quartz and for a host of others is well-known over widely scattered areas here. A lignite coal deposit is also being worked by the Government for the last several years to provide fuel for electric power generation to Bikaner City and to Sri Ganganagar.

6. "When speaking of rocks and minerals, one can not forget mentioning the exquisite quality and quantity of building stones which have given us the historic Tajmahal, the famous, Dilwara Jain temples, the Jumma Masjid and many other beautiful public structuresd monuments and edifices.

7. "Efforts are being made by a private corporation to revive the lead-zinc silver mining activity near Zawar, Udaipur.

8. "A very important non-ferrous metal, for which Rajasthan has already attained some fame is "Beryllium"; its economical source, the mineral "Beryl" has been mined as an accessory mineral from several mica mines. Columbite Tantalite, a rare mineral, has also been produced in small quantities sporadically from the same mica mines. Near Degana in Jodhpur a small deposit has been worked for wolfram from 1939 to 1946 and it has contributed about 200 tons of tungsten concentrate. Rajasthan can certainly find its rank as the third largest producer of mica in India. When vigorous search for deposits of mica and beryl was on, a couple of small emerald producing zones were discovered in 1944-45 in Udaipur area and emerald produce worth Rs. 5,99,835 has already been sold.

9. "Another mineral in which Rajasthan has secured a name both in foreign and Indian markets is "Talc" commonly known as "Soapstone". There are important gypsum deposits in Jodhpur and Bikaner Divisions. Suitable limestones both for the manufacture of lime and cement are available in abundance in several areas. A survey conducted a year ago showed excellent limestone deposits, capable of supplying to a thousand tons per day cement plant for any number of years near Chittorgarh. A cement factory at Lakheri is already producing cement and another one is under construction at Sawai Madhopur. A good quality of glass-sands occurring as coarse friable sandstone is found near Bundi, Sawai Madhopur, Dhula, Jhir (Jaipur), Zawar (Udaipur), and Mudh (Bikaner). They break readily round the grains. During the last ten years, approximately 2,300,000 maunds of glass-sand has been produced fetching about Rs. 20,00,000 as sale value. Pottery clays, fullers-earth, China clay, ochres, felspar, quartz barytes, asbestos, graphite, and several other minerals have been produced in small as well as fair quantities from several deposits spread all over Rajasthan. Lignite coal is mined from Government owned and operated colliery at Palana, Bikaner."

10. The total number of self-supporting persons engaged in the industries comprised in this division are in Rajasthan 13,985 persons who form 1.03 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons in the non-agricultural classes and in Ajmer 1592 who form 1.34 per cent. The rural urban distribution of the proportionate strength of self-supporting persons engaged in this industry can be seen in Table No. 236 below:—

TABLE No. 236.

Rural-Urban distribution of the proportionate strength of self-supporting persons engaged in Division I Mining and Quarrying.

State and Natural Division	Total	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State .. .. .	100	69	31
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	46	35	11
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	24	8	16
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	11	9	2
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	19	17	2
Ajmer State .. .. .	100	62	38

According to the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme this industry comes under Division I (Mining and Quarrying) the Sub-division of which together with the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each are given in Table No. 237 below:—

TABLE No. 237.

Sub-Divisions of Division 1 (Mining and Quarrying) and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. and Name of Sub-division	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1·0 Non-metallic mining and quarrying not otherwise classified ..	1,012	28
1·1 Coal Mining .. .. .	20	..
1·2 Iron ore mining .. .. .	12	..
1·3 Metal mining except iron ore mining .. .. .	435	..
1·4 Crude petroleum and Natural Gas .. .. .	..	..
1·5 Stone-quarrying, clay and sand pits .. .. .	8,971	101
1·6 Mica .. .. .	3,265	1,463
1·7 Salt, Saltpetre and saline substances .. .. .	270	..
Total Division 1 ..	13,985	1,592

Subsidiary Table 5·9 in Part I-B of the Report gives the statistics relating to this industry. The position in Natural Divisions can be seen in Table No. 238 below:—

TABLE No. 238.

Distribution of Self-supporting persons engaged in Division 1 (Mining and Quarrying) in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Self-supporting persons engaged	Percentage to self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services.
1	2	3
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	6,312	1·05
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	3,386	0·79
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	1,577	1·08
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	2,710	1·48

Rajasthan Plateau Division again stands first among the Natural Divisions. Next comes Hills Division. This is natural as these Natural Divisions are richer in respect of mineral wealth than other Divisions of the State.

Among the districts, Bhilwara District tops the list with 3·35 per cent. Next to it are Tonk, Kotah and Udaipur respectively. The lowest figure is seen in the case of Jhunjhunu, Churu, and Jaisalmer Districts.

11. Sub-division 1.0 relates to non-metallic mining and quarrying not otherwise classified. It includes mining and quarrying of such materials as precious and semi-precious stones, asbestos, gypsum, sulphur, asphalt and bitumen.

**Non-metallic mining and quarrying not otherwise classified:** As we have seen above the minerals falling under this category are found in Udaipur District in Tehsil Bhim in a place called Kala Guman where a couple of small emerald producing zones were discovered recently in 1944-45. Gypsum deposits are known to exist in Jodhpur and Bikaner Divisions. Mr. Sethi writes "Since the establishment of synthetic fertilizer plant at Sindri, Bihar, by the Government of India, Rajasthan's name as a proposed supplier of 2,000 tons of gypsum per day has become well-known to many of us; formerly these supplies were projected from N.W. India, now under Pakistan; the circumstances have somewhat changed, making it necessary to focus attention on deposits of this mineral occurring in Rajasthan. Many million tons of reserves are known and more are expected to be found when exploration and prospecting is under way for this mineral. Though ancient Assyrians and Egyptians prized it for making containers and for sculpturing, now the building trade is consuming a major portion, almost 90 per cent. of its total world production. Rajasthan is exporting 65,817 tons to the Cement Industry for use as a "retarder". The total production of gypsum in Jodhpur and Bikaner is approximately reckoned as 80,000 tons per year. This will considerably be stepped up as soon as supplies to Sindri Plant are begun. Efforts to make use of gypsum for wall boards, files, building plasters, and laths should be made to help our house building programme. Asbestos is also produced from several deposits spreading all over Rajasthan.

12. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5.9 will show that this industry engages 7.24 per cent. of all self-supporting persons engaged in industries of this division in Rajasthan. This industry therefore ranks third in order amongst the industries comprised in Division 1 (Mining and quarrying), the first being stone quarrying clay and sand pits 64.15 p.c. and second being Mica 23.35 p.c. It is the most prominent industry in East Rajasthan Plain Division where it supports 11.80 per cent. of the total persons engaged in mining and quarrying, Hills Division holds second position (5.96 per cent.), Plateau Division comes next with a percentage of 4.72 and Dry Area Division stands last (1.33 per cent.) The total number of persons engaged in it is 1,012. They are distributed in the districts as given in the Subsidiary Table No. 5.9. In Ajmer State 28 persons are engaged in this industry who form 1.76 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries of the Division (1).

13. Sub-division 1.1 relates to coal mining:—Coal mining is very insignificant in Rajasthan. According to the Director of Mines and Geology, Rajasthan Government, the only place where lignite coal is mined in Rajasthan is at Palana in Bikaner District. The total number of persons returned under this industry according to census slips is 20 only.

14. Sub-division 1.2 Iron ore mining does not exist in Rajasthan. Subsidiary Table 5.9 shows 12 persons engaged in this industry.

15. Sub-division 1.3 consists of Metal mining except iron ore mining. Lead-Zinc-Silver mines have been in existence at a place known as Zawar in Udaipur District, since several centuries. It is said that it was the income from these mines which financed the Maharanas to enable them to face the Mughals. During intervening period, the industry had begun to be un-economic. Recently efforts have been made to revive it. According to Mr. Sethi more than 7,000 feet of development work has already been completed. The ore zone has been proved to exist at a level about 100 feet deeper than the lowest point reached by the ancients in their pits. About 3,500 tons of hand dressed lead-concentrates have already been



smelted, to give a lead bullion weighing about 1,260 tons, and more than 22,000 tons of mineral carrying zinc lead etc. are stockpiled for treatment in an ore dressing mill now under erection at the mine site. When ready it would treat about 200 tons of ore per day. This mineral deposit is the only one of its kind in whole of India, and if efforts to prove adequate reserves of ore meet with success, then Rajasthan can easily regain its position as an important lead-zinc producer and would meet, though partially, the growing demands of these metals over this sub-continent." According to Census returns this industry engages only 435 persons *i.e.* 3 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in mining and quarrying. Most of them (97%) are found in Rajasthan Hills Division, these are perhaps engaged in Mines at Zawar. The remaining 3 per cent. are found in East Rajasthan Plain Division. There is not a single person engaged in this industry in Rajasthan Dry Area Division and the Plateau Division. 26.63 per cent. of the total number of persons engaged in mining and quarrying in the Hills Division, are engaged in the industry comprised in this sub-division. There is not a single soul in Ajmer engaged in this industry.

16. Sub-division 1.4 Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas: This industry does not exist in Rajasthan. Mr. Sethi writes "Modern civilization depends to a large extent on oil and coal. Oil, the commodity "as necessary as blood" in the battles of today, has been the subject of international intrigues, competition etc. There are several world combines and agreements as to the control of trade of this precious fuel. The hitherto known petroleum resources of India are of a limited scale. Rajasthan offers prospects for exploration of this vital mineral. Just before the beginning of the last world war a preliminary geophysical survey has been carried out for oil by a private company over 5,670 sq. miles of north-western Jaisalmer. Nummulitic limestones are found here and may be considered as "Source" rocks, but it is not known whether the sandstone overlying the same have adequate porosity and other conditions as to function as "reservoir" rocks for oil. Correlation of geological conditions and geophysical observations entailing more detailed work would only speak about its potentiality. Not a single soul is returned as engaged in this industry in Rajasthan.

**Crude Petroleum and Natural gas.**

17. Sub-division 1.5 Stone-quarrying, clays and sand pits:—This is the most important industry of this division. In Rajasthan, 8,971 persons *i.e.* over 64 per cent. of the self-supporting persons belonging to this division are engaged in this industry. In Ajmer State it is insignificant in comparison to Rajasthan where only 101 persons are engaged in this industry and the percentage is about 6. Amongst the Natural Divisions, this industry occupies the largest percentage of self-supporting persons in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (95.17). In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the percentage is 74.19. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is 51.89. The Hills Division has the lowest percentage (38.37). It is interesting to note that in some of the districts of Rajasthan this is the only industry falling in Division 1, where cent per cent. of the people engaged in mining and quarrying are found engaged in this industry of stone quarrying. These are Alwar, Sikar, Churu, Jalore, Dungarpur and Sirohi. The building stone quarries of Chittorgarh and Jhalawar Districts are well-known, from which large amount of stone is exported to distant places.

**Stone quarrying, clays and sand pits.**

18. Sub-division 1.6 Mica:—A perusal of the Subsidiary Table 5.9 in Part I-B of the report shows that "Mica" is the next important industry of the Rajasthan State in which 3,265 persons *i.e.* about 23 per cent. of the self-supporting persons belonging to Division 1 are to be found. Mica itself is the most important mineral in this category and some of the magnificent mines, which have world wide fame are found in the Rajasthan State. In Ajmer State "Mica" mining is the first and foremost of the mining industries from which 1,463 persons *i.e.* about 92 per cent. of persons engaged in mining and quarrying derive their livelihood. Amongst the Natural Divisions, East Rajasthan Plain Division tops the list as it has the percentage of 34.85. Rajasthan

**Mica.**



Hills Division stands second with a percentage of 29·04 and Rajasthan Dry Area Division is the third having the percentage of 17·87. There is practically no mica mining in the Rajasthan Plateau Division where the percentage is as low as 0·07. In the districts of Rajasthan, Bhilwara has the highest percentage (85·80), Jodhpur District comes next with 46·11 per cent. followed by the Bharatpur and Jaipur Districts where the percentages are 42·86 and 27·33 respectively. From Jaipur and Udaipur area alone Rs. 2,70,35,649 worth of mica during the ten years period (1939-49) has been produced.

19. Sub-division 1·7 (Salt, Saltpetre and Saline substances) supports only 1·93 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in mining and quarrying, the actual number returned being only 270 in the Rajasthan State. Out of these 211 persons are found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division and 59 in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. Coming to district level we find that there are 201 persons in Barmer, 59 in Jaipur, 9 in Nagaur and only 1 person in the Pali District.

#### SECTION 6.

#### Processing and manufacture—Foodstuffs, Textiles, Leather and products thereof.

These industries under Division 2 are of considerable importance, because 201,687 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan, and 23,904 persons in the Ajmer State are engaged in them, representing about 15 per cent. in Rajasthan and about 20 per cent. in Ajmer State, of the self-supporting persons belonging to all industries and services class. According to the Indian Census Economic Classification Scheme given in Part II-B of the Report, the industry Division "2", Processing and manufacture—Food stuffs, Textiles, Leather and Products thereof, consists of the following Sub-divisions, Self-supporting persons engaged in these sub-divisions, in Rajasthan State and Ajmer State, are entered against each sub-division:—

TABLE No. 239.

Sub-divisions of Division 2 and the strength of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Occupations	Self-supporting persons engaged.	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
2·0	Food Industries otherwise unclassified .. .. .	4,862	1,212
2·1	Grains and Pulses .. .. .	6,931	589
2·2	Vegetable Oil and dairy products .. .. .	13,428	1,396
2·3	Sugar Industries .. .. .	442	266
2·4	Beverages .. .. .	773	1,101
2·5	Tobacco .. .. .	3,878	2,771
2·6	Cotton Textiles .. .. .	76,805	8,977
2·7	Wearing apparel (except foot wear) and made up textile goods. .. .. .	31,210	1,792
2·8	Textile Industries otherwise unclassified .. .. .	4,615	1,923
2·9	Leather, Leather Products and foot wear .. .. .	58,743	3,877
	Total .. .. .	201,687	23,904

2. The rural-urban distribution of the proportionate strength of self-supporting persons engaged in this division in the State and the Natural Divisions is given in the Table No. 240 below:—

TABLE No. 240.

Rural-Urban distribution of the proportionate strength of Self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division 2.

State and Natural Division	Total	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State .. .. .	100	61	39
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	52	33	19
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	25	14	11
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	9	6	3
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	14	8	6
Ajmer State .. .. .	100	28	72

The Table No. 241 below gives the strength of the self-supporting persons engaged in Division 2 in each of the Natural Divisions and their percentage to the total self-supporting persons in each Natural Division.

TABLE No. 241.

Strength of Self-supporting persons engaged in Division 2 (Processing and manufacture—Foodstuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof) in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Persons engaged in	Percentage to self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	104,933	17.41
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	51,290	11.99
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	18,273	12.49
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	27,191	14.82

3. The food industries under Sub-division 2.0 and 2.1 which include butchers, rice pounders, flour grinders, millers of cereals and pulses, grain parchers, Halwais, makers of blended and prepared flour and other cereal and pulse preparations, preservers of fruits and vegetables etc. are common every where in the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer. Together, they account for 11,793 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan who form 5.85 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in this Division and 1,801 in Ajmer who form 7.53 per cent.

4. In the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan, the Plateau Division stands first in which 7.49 per cent. of the self-supporting persons are engaged in both the Sub-divisions 2.0 and 2.1 Rajasthan Hills Division comes second with the percentage 6.63 followed by East Rajasthan Plain Division (6.01) Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the lowest percentage of 4.34.

5. Coming to the district level, we find that Bikaner District tops the list having the percentage of 17.49, Bharatpur District stands second (12.54 per cent.), Dungarpur District with the percentage of 10.69 stands third, followed by the District of Kotah (9.91 per cent.). The lowest percentage (1.03) is to be found in Jalore District. The Districts of Bharatpur and Kotah can very well be expected to have a high percentage because they are the most productive parts of the State.

6. Sub-division 2·2 (Vegetable oils and dairy products) which includes vegetable oil pressers and refiners, manufactures of hydrogenated oil, and makers of butter, ghee and other dairy products, accounts for 6·66 per cent. of the self-supporting persons in the industrial Division 2 in the

#### Vegetable Oils.

Rajasthan State, and 5·84 per cent. in Ajmer. Dairy products are manufactured to a certain extent all over the State. But nowhere do we find people depending solely on this occupation. It is mostly the side job of an agriculturist. We should therefore, not be surprised to find such low figures of persons engaged in this industry. There are some families of *ghosis* whose sole occupation is dairy farming and preparation of dairy products. It is perhaps their strength which is reflected in these figures. Apart from oil-mills and power driven Kolhus indigenous oil-pressing is the hereditary occupation of "Telies" who follow it as a domestic industry in almost every big village, combining it in most cases, with agriculture. Amongst the Natural Divisions, Plateau Division has the highest percentage of 12·15. Next to it is the Hills Division which has a percentage of 8·49. Dry Area Division stands third (5·95) followed by East Rajasthan Plain Division with a percentage of 5·26. Comparatively high figures are found in the Districts of Kotah, Bikaner, Jhalawar, Banswara, Sawai Madhopur, Dungarpur and Bharatpur. These districts combined engage in this industry more than 10 per cent. of the self-supporting persons of this industrial Division "2". The lowest percentage (0·85) is to be found in the District of Jhunjhunu. All the districts where the percentage is higher than other districts are either good producers of oil seeds and consequently have a number of oil mills in which naturally a large number of persons are engaged, or are good cattle breeding places where ghee is manufactured as a cottage industry. Sesamum, mustard, linseed and groundnuts are the principal oil-seeds grown in Rajasthan which provide occupation for the oil pressers.

7. The industries comprised in this Sub-division 2·3 (Sugar Industries), are 2·31 Gur manufacture and 2·30 Sugar manufacture. Those comprised in sub-division 2·4 (beverages) are Breweries and distilleries. Today drawing, ice manufacture and manufacture of aerated and mineral waters. The manufacture of gur is prevalent in almost all villages in the sugarcane producing areas of Rajasthan specially in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, Hills and Plateau Divisions and the Ganganagar District of Dry Area Division. But this again is a side job of an agriculturist. The figures of agriculturists who manufacture gur in the above districts do not find place in the census results. Regarding Brewers and distillers it must be borne in mind that every big village has a Kalal's shop specially in the Hills Division where a Bhil can live without food but not without drink. The abundance of Mahua trees in the Hills Division also facilitates its manufacture. But most of these Kalals are mere traders instead of manufacturers. In Rajasthan Sugar Industries account for 442 self-supporting persons, *i.e.* (0·22 per cent.) and beverages 773 (0·38 per cent.). In Ajmer, Sugar Industry engages 266 persons *i.e.*, (1·11 per cent.) and beverages 1,101 (4·61 per cent.) of the self-supporting persons engaged in the industries comprised in this Sub-division.

8. In the Natural Divisions, the Rajasthan Hills Division has highest percentage in both the Sub-divisions *i.e.* 0·93 in Sub-division 2·3 (Sugar industries) and 1·42 in Sub-division 2·4 (beverages). This is due to the District of Udaipur which has the highest percentage 1·80 in beverages, and which stands second in Sugar industries in all districts of the State with the percentage of 1·36. In Sugar industries the District of Ganganagar (Rajasthan Dry Area) tops the list which engages 1·81 of the self-supporting persons. There are big Sugar Factories at Bhupalsagar (Udaipur District) and Ganganagar. Besides them, in all the sugarcane producing areas gur is manufactured as a cottage industry.

9. Sub-division 2·5 (tobacco) includes bidi industry of the States. This industry engages about 2 per cent. of the self-supporting persons in Rajasthan and about 12 per cent. in Ajmer State. In Ajmer State there are several bidi factories which engage 2,771 persons in all but in Rajasthan there are only 3,878 persons who follow this occupation, out of whom 1,592 persons (*i.e.* nearly

#### Tobacco.

40 per cent.) are found in the Plateau Division. This is due to the Districts of Kotah and Bundi which possess a nice and fertile tobacco yielding area and the forests supplying the "leaves necessary for it." Here we find the largest number of bidi factories in the whole of the State.

10. Sub-division 2·6-Cotton textiles, consists of the following groups *viz* 2·61 Cotton ginning, cleaning and pressing, 2·62 cotton spinning, sizing and weaving and 2·63 cotton dyeing, bleaching, printing, preparation and sponging. This industry employs 76,805 persons in Rajasthan and 8,977 persons in Ajmer, who form about 38 per cent. both in Rajasthan and Ajmer of the total self-supporting persons engaged in Industrial Division 2. Their distribution in the industrial groups can be seen in the Table No. 242 below:

TABLE No. 242.

Self-supporting persons engaged in the groups comprised in Sub-division 2·6 Cotton textiles.

Industrial group and its code number.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer.
2·61 Cottonginning, cleaning and pressing .. .. .	3,886	319
2·62 Cotton spinning, sizing and weaving .. .. .	55,874	6,728
2·63 Cotton dyeing, bleaching, printing, preparation and sponging	17,045	1,930
Total .. .. .	76,805	8,977

This is one of the oldest industries and though it has suffered vicissitudes from time to time it still gives employment to a very large number of people. Most of the weavers use imported mill-spun yarn for weaving coarse cloth required for villagers. Yarns of the counts of 60s, 80s, and upto 120s is however, used by the weavers of Jhunjhunu, Neem-ka-Thana (Sikar), Kotah and Udaipur. The Paichas *i.e.* turbans and sarees woven in these places are exported to important Indian cities and towns where people from Rajasthan carry on business. Hand weaving of cotton cloth has suffered recently on account of the inadequate and costly supplies of yarn. For improving the economic condition of these cottage workers, the department of Industries and Commerce employs instructors who demonstrate the working of labour saving appliances such as fly shuttle looms and cottage warping sets and train the weavers to use them, and also maintains a Central Marketing Organisation which supplies them with good quality of yarn, gives the marketable designs, standardises the articles and puts them up in the markets after properly finishing and labelling them.

11. Describing how there are some 2½ million workers engaged in India in the handloom industry as against seven lakh workers in cotton mills, Shri M.P. Gandhi believes that the handloom industry offers a solution to the problem of mass unemployment and poverty in the country to a degree which no other single industry can tackle. He says, "No scheme of social security on a nationwide scale is possible when the national income and living standard are so low. It is in this context that the case for handicrafts is stressed, and hand-weaving, as a means of employment and income to millions and as an instrument of equitable distribution of national income all over this huge sub-continent, acquires a special significance. It offers a solution to the problem of mass unemployment and poverty in a backward economy to a degree which no other single industry can tackle."<sup>1</sup>

12. Amongst the Natural Divisions, East Rajasthan Plain Division (44·78 per cent.) stands first, Rajasthan Dry Area Division (31·98 p.c.) comes second, followed by the Rajasthan Hills Division (30·78 p.c.) and Rajasthan Plateau Division (28·66 p.c.). Coming to district level, the Sawai-Madhopur District (57·57) tops the list, the District of Barmer (54·10) stands second followed by Bhilwara with a percentage of 52·48 and the District of Tonk with (46·79). The lowest percentage is found in the District of Banswara (11·05).

13. Sub-division 2·7 (Wearing apparel except footwear and made up textile goods) consists of the following groups:—

**Wearing Apparels.**

**TABLE No. 243.**

Groups of Sub-division 2·7 and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Occupation.	Persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer.
2·71	Tailors, milliners, dress makers and darners ..	29,195	1,304
2·72	Manufacturers of hosiery, embroiders, makers of crepe lace and fringes.	1,008	448
2·73	Fur dressers and dyers .. ..	765	..
2·74	Hat makers, and makers of other articles of wear from textiles.	65	40
2·75	Manufacture of house furnishing textiles ..	114	..
2·76	Tent makers	..	..
2·76	Makers of other (made up textile goods including umbrellas)	63	..
	Total ..	31,210	1,792

It accounts for 31,210 self-supporting persons who form 15·47 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "2," in Rajasthan State and in Ajmer State for 1,792 self-supporting persons who form 7·5 per cent. This industry is to be found all over the State. The details of its distribution can be seen in the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations in Part I-B of the Census Report.

14. In the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan State, the Rajasthan Hills Division tops the list which has a percentage of 21·59, Rajasthan Dry Area Division with a percentage of 20·93 stands second, followed by Rajasthan Plateau Division with 14·68 and the East Rajasthan Plain Division 11·95. This industry is generally found more developed in urban areas than in rural ones. Coming to the district level we find that Jodhpur District having 38·77 per cent. stands first, where there is a big umbrella factory also, Banswara District having a percentage of 37·24 comes next, followed by the Dungarpur District with 29·80 and the District of Jalore with the percentage of 29·72. The district which has the least percentage is Alwar District (7·81).

15. This Sub-division 2·8 consists of the following groups and the strength of self-supporting persons engaged in each is given in the Table No. 244 below:—

**Textile Industries other-wise un-classified.**

TABLE No. 244.

Industrial groups comprised in Sub-division 2·8 and the strength of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Self-supporting persons engaged in groups shown in Column 1 in

Industrial groups and their code number.	Self-supporting persons engaged in groups shown in Column 1 in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
2·81 Jute pressing, baling, spinning and weaving ..	356	16
2·82 Woollen spinning and weaving .. ..	1,520	960
2·83 Silk reeling, spinning and weaving .. ..	17	3
2·84 Hemp and flex spinning and weaving .. ..	1	..
2·85 Manufacture of Rayon .. .. .	..	..
2·86 Manufacture of rope, twine, string and other related goods from coconut, aloes, straw, linseed and hair.	2,712	944
2·80 All other (including insufficiently described) textile industries, including artificial leather and cloth.	9	..
Total ..	4,615	1,923

The table shows that this Sub-division employs 4,615 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan who form 2·29 per cent. of the total persons engaged in this division. In Ajmer the number is 1,923 who form 8·05 per cent.

16. In the Natural Divisions, the East Rajasthan Plain Division tops the list with the percentage of (3·09), the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (2·16) stands second, followed by the Rajasthan Plateau Division with 0·67 per cent. The Rajasthan Hills Division has the lowest percentage (0·49). Coming to the district level, we find that the Bikaner District tops the list (10·35 per cent.) where there is a woollen press as mentioned in the Rajasthan Industries Directory, next comes the Nagaur District with (6·34 per cent.). Alwar District (5·79 per cent.) ranks third followed closely by the District of Bharatpur which engages 5·39 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in this Industrial Division. On a comparison of the names of the districts mentioned in para 3 of section 4 of this Chapter we can infer that the districts where sheep breeding is a prominent industry but where there is no corresponding woollen textile industry, deserve examination of the chances of developing the latter industry there also.

17. Sub-division 2·9 (Leather, leather products and footwear) consists of the following groups: employing self-supporting persons noted against each given Leather products and footwear. in Table No. 245 below.

TABLE No. 245.

Industrial groups comprised in Sub-division 2-9 and the strength of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Industrial groups and their code number	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
2-91 Tanners and all other workers in leather .. ..	25,877	1,835
2-92 Cobblers and all other makers and repairers of boots, shoes, sandals and clogs.	31,905	1,817
2-90 Makers and repairers of all other leather products ..	961	225
Total ..	58,743	3,877

18. It is an important industry. About 29 per cent. of the self-supporting persons in Rajasthan and about 16 per cent. in Ajmer or in all 58,743 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan, and 3,877 in Ajmer are engaged in this industry. The conversion of hides and skins into such articles as are required for use in villages is highly lacking. Tanning is carried on by "Chamars" with their crude and laborious methods and very valuable raw material is being wasted. It is not possible to estimate the output of hides and skins without a proper survey, but it should be very great inasmuch as the cattle population of Rajasthan and Ajmer is very large. The Department of Industries and Commerce of Rajasthan has recently engaged the services of an expert for this industry and it is proposed to teach the village "Chamars" and "Mochis" the scientific methods of tanning and manufacture of modern footwear, suit-cases and other leather goods for the urban market. Efforts are also being made to appoint inspectors for the whole of Rajasthan, at two or three centres, specially at Jaipur and Jodhpur. Leather tanning is being encouraged with the help of trained experts.

19. In the Natural Divisions Rajasthan Dry Area with a percentage of 33 stands highest. In the Rajasthan Plateau Division it is 30 per cent. in Hills Division 29 and in the East Rajasthan Plain Division 27. Most of the leather is used in the manufacture of shoes, an article of universal demand which encourages the industry in each village. A very small quantity is being used in the manufacture of other articles. The embroidered shoes of Jaipur and Jodhpur are well-known and are exported to all the cities of India. The embroidered bags of Jodhpur were once used for keeping cartridges and gun-powder, but there has been some improvement in the quality, and they are now also used as ladies hand bags. This industry has a great scope for improvement.

20. Comparing the districts of the Rajasthan State we find that the District of Jhalawar having 50.63 per cent stands first the Nagaur District (41.32) comes next; the District of Alwar 39.14 ranks third, closely followed by the District of Pali which engages in this industry 39.05 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in the Industrial Division 2.

#### SECTION 7.

#### Processing and Manufacture—Metals, Chemicals and Products thereof.

This Division comprises the following Sub-divisions and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each is also given below:



TABLE No. 246.

Sub-divisions of Industrial Division 3 and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Industrial Sub-divisions.	Name	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3	4
3-0	Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified.	18,428	1,519
3-1	Iron & Steel (Basic manufacture) ..	143	..
3-2	Non-Ferrous Metals (Basic manufacture) ..	43	7
3-3	Transport Equipment ..	1,657	1,198
3-4	Electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies.	672	116
3-5	Machinery (other than electric machinery including Engineering workshops) ..	1,986	402
3-6	Basic Industrial Chemicals Fertiliser and Power Alcohol.	205	-
3-7	Medical and Pharmaceutical preparations. ..	196	3
3-8	Manufacture of Chemical products otherwise unclassified.	701	1,448
Total ..		24,031	4,693

Subsidiary Table 5-11, given in Part I-B of the Report, supplies statistics relating to this division.

2. The self-supporting persons engaged in the activities comprised in this division are proportionately equal in urban and in rural areas, the percentage being 50 in urban and 50 in rural areas for Rajasthan, while in Ajmer the percentage is 82 in urban and 18 in rural areas. It varies from Division to Division. The highest proportion in the urban areas is found in Rajasthan Dry area Division (57) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (32).

3. In almost every village in Rajasthan, a carpenter and a blacksmith are to be found. **Carpentry and Smithy.** The carpenters and blacksmiths in rural areas are continuing to use tools of the primitive type and employ laborious methods in their work. Their brethren living in large towns and cities have, however, learnt the use of the modern labour-saving tools and appliances, and produce articles of better design and finish. Improvements are proposed to be introduced by training the younger generation of artisans in the rural industrial schools to be started, and in the technical schools already in existence at Bikaner, Jodhpur and Jaipur.

4. The manufacture of knives, scissors, locks etc., at Badnor, (Bhilwara District) Arni (Chittorgarh District) and Khairoda (Udaipur District), enjoy good reputation, but they need assistance by way of power, design and co-operative efforts for meeting the present competition. The swords and daggers, so much used in the days of Rajput Glory, have an artistic value even today. Sirohi and Bundi enjoy a reputation for such goods. It will suffice to mention that the word Sirohi was used in Rajasthani poetic language as a synonym for sword. But the figures in the District Index of Non-agricultural Occupations do not confirm it. It seems that in these districts the industry does not flourish now, or the workers have some other principal means of livelihood, and this is only a side job.

5. The industries comprised in this Division engage 24,031 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan State who form 1·8 per cent. of self-supporting persons engaged in non-agricultural pursuits, the largest number of whom is found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division *i.e.*, 9,670, East Rajasthan Plain Division comes next, which has 7,763 persons, followed by Rajasthan Hills Division (3,379) and Rajasthan Plateau Division, which has 3,219 persons. In Ajmer State 4,693 persons are employed in these industries who form 3·9 per cent. The District Index of Non-Agricultural occupations in Part I-B of the Reoprt gives their distribution in the various parts of the State.

6. Sub-division 3·0. This industry in the Rajasthan State employs 18,428 persons *i.e.*, 76·68 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in the industries comprised in the Division "3". In Ajmer State, the number of persons engaged in this industry is 1,519 who form 32·37 per cent. The self-supporting persons engaged in the activities comprised in this Sub-division are proportionately lower in urban than in rural areas, the percentage being 40 in urban and 60 in rural areas for Rajasthan but in Ajmer the percentage is 63 in urban and 37 in rural areas. It varies from Division to Division being highest in the urban areas in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (47) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (26).

7. This Sub-division consists of the following groups, the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each of them is also shown below against the name of each group.

TABLE No. 247.

Groups of Sub-division 3·0 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Industrial groups	Persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3	4
3·01	Blacksmiths and other workers in iron and makers of implements ..	15,095	874
3·02	Workers in copper, brass and bell metal ..	2,226	82
3·03	Workers in other metals .. ..	505	236
3·04	Cutlers and surgical and veterinary instruments makers.	320	..
3·05	Workers in mints, die sinkers etc. ..	..	..
3·06	Makers of arms, guns, etc. including workers in ordinance factories.	282	327
	Total ..	18,428	1,519

8. Amongst the Natural Divisions this industry is the most flourishing in the Rajasthan Plateau Division where the percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in it is 84·34; Rajasthan Hills Division (81·47) comes next, followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division (77·65). The lowest percentage is found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division which is 71·69 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries of Division "3". Coming to the district level we find

that in respect of this industry the Jhunjhunu District stands first where 99.61 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "3" are engaged in Industries comprised in Sub-division, 3.0; Nagaur comes next (98.74), Banswara ranks third (98.47), Dungarpur (98.35) fourth and Sirohi fifth (97.56); Jodhpur District stands last with 50.64 per cent. only.

9. In this industrial Sub-division the most common industrial group is 3.01 consisting of Blacksmiths and other workers in Iron and makers of implements, which engages 15,095 persons or nearly 82 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons (18,428) engaged in industries comprised in Division "3". Group 3.02 consisting of workers in copper brass and bell metal, comes next which employs 2,211 self-supporting persons *i.e.* nearly 12 per cent. The makers of arms, etc. though numerically insignificant on the whole, are comparatively more numerous in Udaipur District where 99 self-supporting persons are engaged in this industry. Banswara (39) and Jhalawar (26) Districts come next.

10. As noticed in the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations, and Table No. 247 in para 7 above this Sub-division includes blacksmiths etc., (15,044) workers in copper, brass and bell metal (1,756) and tinsmiths (348). Naturally, therefore, every district shows a fairly large percentage of the self-supporting persons in this Sub-division in Subsidiary Table 5.11. It is interesting to note that in the backward districts of Rajasthan Hills Division, the percentage under "Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified 3.0" is extremely high, as seen in para 8 above. This merely means that almost all the persons thus classified are of blacksmiths, coppersmiths or tinsmith type, or are workers in copper, brass, bell metal etc. The percentage for the Jodhpur District in Subsidiary Table 5.11 attracts attention, as it shows the lowest percentage (50.64) under Sub-division 3.0. This is due to the fact that there are other industries in the district, notably those comprised, in Sub-division 3.4 (electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies) and 3.5 (machinery including Engineering workshops) each of which accounts for about 20 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "3."

11. Sub-division 3.1. This industry has no importance in Rajasthan State. Only 143 *i.e.* 0.6% self-supporting persons are returned as being engaged in this industry, of whom 133 are in rural and 10 only in Urban areas. Jalore District has returned as many as 128 persons, and Udaipur District 9. There is none in Ajmer State.

**Iron and Steel (Basic Manufacture)**

12. Sub-division 3.2. It is also a very insignificant industry in Rajasthan State, in which only 43 persons (0.18 per cent. of the Division 3) are engaged, while none is found in Ajmer in this industry. 95 per cent. of them are found in urban and 5 per cent. in rural areas, in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division only, *i.e.* in the District of Bikaner (32), Jodhpur (9) and Jalore (2). 33 of them are engaged in brass smelting and making and 10 are brass founders.

**Non-ferrous metals (Basic manufacture)**

13. Transport equipment (Sub-division 3.3) is one of the important industries in the Division "3" which employs 1,657 self-supporting persons in the Rajasthan State *i.e.* 6.90 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in this division. In Ajmer State it engages, 1,198 persons *i.e.* 25.53 per cent. The percentage is 88 in urban and 12 in rural areas of Rajasthan and 80 in urban and 20 in rural areas of Ajmer. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 95, and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 61. This industry ranks third in position in each of the Rajasthan and Ajmer States when compared to other industries comprised in this Division "3". This Sub-division includes the following industrial groups. The number of self-supporting persons engaged in each is given against each:—

**Transport equipment**

TABLE No. 248.

Groups of Sub-division 3·3 and self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Name of Industrial group	Persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
3·31	Building and repairing of ships and boats .. ..	..	..
3·32	Manufacture, assembly and repair of railway equipment motor vehicles and bi-cycles.	1,531	1,198
3·33	Manufacture of aircraft .. ..	..	..
3·34	Coach builders and makers of carriage, Palki, rickshaw, etc. and wheel wrights.	70	..
3·30	Manufacture of all other transport equipment.. ..	56	..
		<u>1,657</u>	<u>1,198</u>

14. Among the Natural Divisions, the Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands first with the percentage of 11·13, Rajasthan Hills Division holds the second position, having 6·87, followed by the Rajasthan Plateau Division (4·63) and the East Rajasthan Plain Division which has the lowest percentage of 2·58 only. Almost the same picture is seen when we look at the district level *i.e.* the Jodhpur District (Rajasthan Dry Area Division) engages 963 persons, Udaipur District (Rajasthan Hills Division) employs 221 persons and Kotah and Bundi Districts 80 and 51 persons respectively, while Jaipur District (East Rajasthan Plain Division) engages only 91. These five districts account for 1,406 persons out of the 1,657 total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Sub-division 3·3 in Rajasthan State, the remaining 251 persons are scattered in various districts.

15. The District Index of Non-agricultural Occupations gives the detailed occupations of these people as shown below:—

TABLE No. 249.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 3·3  
and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Bi-cycle Fitters .. ..	942	148
Motor Repairers .. ..	219	21
Bi-cycle Repairers .. ..	185	..
Workers in Railway workshop .. ..	151	1,029
Motor seat makers .. ..	56	..
Tonga builders .. ..	49	..
Bullock cart makers .. ..	21	..
Motor fitters .. ..	18	..
Motor Part makers .. ..	16	..
	<u>1,657</u>	<u>1,198</u>
	Total ..	

16. In Rajasthan State, industries comprised in Sub-division 3·4 engage 672 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 2·8 per cent. of those engaged in the industries comprised in Division "3" of whom 668 are in urban areas and only 4 in rural. In Ajmer State it occupies only 116 persons all of whom are in urban areas; all these persons are engaged in group number (3·40) which consists of manufacture of electrical generating, transmission and distribution apparatus, electrical household appliances other than lights and fans, electrical equipment for motor vehicles, aircraft and railway locomotives and cars, communication equipment and related products, including radios, phonographs, electric batteries, X-ray and therapeutic apparatus; electric tubes etc.; they are found in appreciable numbers in the Districts of Jodhpur (411), Ganganagar (116), Bikaner (55) and Alwar (49).

17. The detailed occupations of the above persons are given in the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations as below:—

TABLE No. 250.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 3·4 and the number of persons engaged in each.

Occupation	Persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Workers in Electric Factories .. .. .	591	85
Electric goods repairers .. .. .	59	31
Torch Factory .. .. .	16	..
Electric Mechanical fitters .. .. .	3	..
Radio Repairers .. .. .	3	..
<b>Total</b> .. .. .	<b>672</b>	<b>116</b>

18. Sub-division 3·5 has much importance in Rajasthan and Ajmer States. It stands second in order in Rajasthan and employs, 1,986 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 8·26 per cent. of all those who are engaged in industries comprised in Division "3". It ranks fourth in Ajmer State where it engages 402 self-supporting persons who form 8·57 per cent. of the total engaged in industries comprised in this Division. The percentage is 75 in urban and 25 in rural areas of Rajasthan and 94 in urban and 6 in rural areas for Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (93) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (15). It consists of 'Engineering workshops engaged in producing machine and equipment parts.'

19. The District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations shows the actual occupations of these people to be as noted below:—

TABLE No. 251.

Actual Occupations returned under Sub-division 3·5 and the number of persons engaged in each.

Occupation	Persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Machinery works .. .. .	1,181	400
Workshop servants .. .. .	396	2
Factory servants .. .. .	248	..
Workers in lead .. .. .	77	..
Mechanical servants .. .. .	61	..
Fitters .. .. .	23	..
<b>Total</b> .. .. .	<b>1,986</b>	<b>402</b>

20. In the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan, the East Rajasthan Plain Division has the highest percentage (12.55), Hills Division stands second (6.51), Plateau Division ranks third (6.15), just closely followed by the Rajasthan Dry Area Division with the percentage of 6.14. The districts, in which a substantial number of persons engaged in this industry are found, are Bharatpur (305), Sawai Madhopur (304), Bikaner (265), Jaipur (254), Udaipur (216), Jodhpur (144), Ganganagar (131) and Chittorgarh (109).

21. Sub-division 3.6. These industries engage only 205 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan than making the percentage of (0.85) of this Division, and none in Ajmer. A large majority of them *i.e.* 196 persons are manufacturers of dyes, Basic Industrial Chemical and Fertilizer and Pow- explosives and fire works. They are mostly found in urban areas, and alcohol. the percentage being 83 in urban and 17 in rural areas. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 99 and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 70.

22. The District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the detailed occupations of these persons.

TABLE No. 252.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 3.6 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of Occupation	Persons engaged in Rajasthan.
Fire Works manufacturers	73
Gunpowder makers.	67
Dyes makers.	56
Acid makers.	8
Rubber Balloon makers.	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>205</b>

23. The districts in which these people are found in substantial numbers are Jodhpur (69), Alwar (52), Udaipur (28) and Bhilwara (24). The importance of chemical manufacturing industries has been stressed by the Industries Committee as follows:—

“Industrial chemicals form a class of basic or key industries which are vital to the full-fledged development of the Province, and should receive the very careful attention both of Government and the public. The establishment and development on economic lines of the chemical industry is only possible if it is viewed as one group rather than as consisting of so many independent items, since they are so closely inter-linked with, and are inter-dependent upon, one another. The importance of this group of industries lies in the fact that the industrial use of the raw materials of the Province depends upon the availability of these chemicals. As the Tariff Board on the Heavy Chemical Industry says: ‘one of the principal grounds on which the chemical industry may establish a claim, to public assistance is that it is a key industry. Its products are used in most other industries, *e.g.* in the textile industry, the leather industry, the paper industry, the glass and porcelain industry, the rubber industry in the making of artificial silk, of paints and varnishes, soap and candles, and the purification of mineral and vegetable oils.’ They go on to remark. There is another point of view which also makes the industry one of National importance. During the last few years industrial advancement as well as the development of agriculture has been largely a question of applied chemistry. In every country therefore to-day more and more attention is paid to chemical research both for industrial and for agricultural purposes. The real foundations of industrial chemical research can never be laid in any country which does not possess a chemical industry; for though

much knowledge may be acquired in laboratories, unless that knowledge is applied in practice to the needs of industry and agriculture, little or no advance is possible. The vast mineral, forest and agricultural resources of India cannot be exploited to their fullest extent unless opportunities are given to chemists to acquire practical knowledge in works where the processes of manufacture are in actual operations."

24. These industries under Sub-division 3·7 engage only 196 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan State forming 0·82 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "3" of whom 151 are in urban areas and the rest in rural. In Ajmer only 3 persons are engaged making the percentage of 0·06 who are all in rural areas. The districts where they are found in substantial numbers are Ganganagar (60), Sikar (37), Bundi (35) and Kotah (26).

25. These industries under Sub-division 3·8 employ 701 self-supporting persons, *i.e.*, 2·92 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division 3, while in Ajmer it engages as many as 1,448 persons, forming a percentage of 30·85, of whom more than 99 per cent are in urban areas. In Rajasthan 69 per cent. of them are found in urban and 31 in Rural areas. This Sub-division consists of the following groups, in which are engaged the number of self-supporting persons shown below against each.

TABLE No. 253.

Groups of Sub-division 3·8 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Name of Industrial groups.	Persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
3·81	Manufacture of perfumes, cosmetic and other toilet preparations. . . . .	253	4
3·82	Manufacture of soaps and other washing and cleaning compounds. . . . .	180	1,044
3·83	Manufacture of paints, varnishes, lacquers and polishes	64	134
3·84	Manufacture of ink. . . . .	64	265
3·85	Manufacture of matches. . . . .	37	..
3·86	Manufacture of candles. . . . .	103	1
3·87	Manufacture of Starch . . . . .	..	..
3·80	Other chemical products. . . . .	..	..
	<b>Total,</b> . . . . .	<b>701</b>	<b>1,448</b>

26. In the Natural Divisions, the East Rajasthan Plain Division has the largest percentage of 4·80; Rajasthan Hills Division with a percentage of 3·37 comes next, followed by Rajasthan Plateau (1·90) and Rajasthan Dry Area Division which has the lowest percentage of 1·58. The districts in which these persons are found in substantial numbers are Bharatpur (168), Jaipur (144), Udaipur (113), Bikaner (68), Sawai Madhopur (56), Ganganagar (46) and Kotah (38). The occupations in detail taken from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations can be seen in the Table No. 254 below.



TABLE No. 254.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 3·8 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Workers in soap factory .. .. .	180	1,044
Soap manufacturers .. .. .	147	..
Workers in candle factory .. .. .	103	1
Perfumers .. .. .	80	4
Ink Manufacturers .. .. .	64	265
Paint makers .. .. .	61	..
Workers in match factory .. .. .	37	..
Oil manufacturers .. .. .	13	..
Agarbati makers .. .. .	13	..
Dyes makers .. .. .	3	..
Varnish makers .. .. .	..	134
Total .. .. .	701	1,448

**SECTION 8.****Processing and Manufacture not elsewhere specified.**

The miscellaneous industries of Division "4" provide employment to 120,572 self-supporting persons in the Rajasthan State and 9,159 persons in Ajmer as shown in Subsidiary Table 5·12 given in Part I-B of the Report. They form 8·86 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons of non-agricultural classes in Rajasthan and 7·70 per cent. in Ajmer. Their percentage is 36 in urban and 64 in rural areas for Rajasthan but it is different in Ajmer, the percentage being 62 in urban and 38 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (43) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (29).

2. This industrial Division comprises the following Sub-divisions. The number of self-supporting persons engaged in each is also given in the Table below:—

TABLE No. 255.

Sub-divisions of Industrial Division "4" and the number of Self-supporting persons employed in each.

Code No. of Industrial Sub-division	Name	Self-supporting persons employed in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
4·0	Manufacturing Industries otherwise unclassified .. .. .	30,284	3,259
4·1	Products of Petroleum and coal .. .. .	10	..
4·2	Bricks, tiles and other structural clay products .. .. .	1,926	79
4·3	Cement, cement pipes and other cement products .. .. .	4,272	14
4·4	Non-metallic mineral products .. .. .	45,027	2,022
4·5	Rubber products .. .. .	46	..
4·6	Wood and wood products other than furniture and fixtures .. .. .	36,947	3,044
4·7	Furniture and fixtures .. .. .	1,257	407
4·8	Paper and paper products .. .. .	78	7
4·9	Printing and allied Industries .. .. .	725	327
	Total .. .. .	120,572	9,159

3. Sub-division '4.0' (Manufacturing industries otherwise unclassified) accounts for more than one-fourth, (25.12 per cent.) of the self-supporting persons engaged in Industries comprised in Division "4," i.e., 30,284 persons in Rajasthan State and 35.58 per cent. i.e., 3,259 persons in Ajmer State. Their percentage is 51 in urban and 49 in rural areas. In Ajmer they are more prominent in urban areas where the percentage is 87 as against only 13 in rural areas. The proportion varies very slightly from Division to Division between 53 in the urban areas of Rajasthan Dry Area Division and 46 in those of Rajasthan Plateau Division. This Sub-division includes the following groups. The persons employed in these groups are also given in the Table No. 256 below.

TABLE No. 256.

Industrial groups comprised in Sub-division 4.0 (Manufacturing Industries otherwise unclassified) and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Industrial group.	Name	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
4.01	Manufacturing of professional scientific and controlling instruments (but not including cutlery, surgical or veterinary instruments).	..	..
4.02	Photographic and optical goods .. .. .	15	..
4.03	Repair and manufacture of watches and locks ..	735	46
4.04	Workers in precious stones, precious metals and makers of jewellery and ornaments.	20,188	1,384
4.05	Manufacture of musical instruments and appliances ..	37	204
4.06	Manufacture of stationery articles, other than paper and paper products.	..	..
4.07	Makers of plastic and Celluloid articles other than rayon	..	..
4.08	Sports goods makers .. .. .	..	165
4.09	Toy makers .. .. .	462	462
4.00	Other miscellaneous manufacturing industries, including bone, ivory, horn, shell etc.	8,847	998
	Total .. .. .	30,284	3,259

4. The District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the detailed occupations. The Table below shows the names of such of them as are occupying more than 500 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan.

TABLE No. 257.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 4.0 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
Gold and Silver ornament makers .. .. .	17,572	1,023
Bangle makers .. .. .	5,189	701
Gems Setters and Precious Stone dressers .. .. .	2,377	361
Gold work .. .. .	812	..
Handicrafts work .. .. .	624	..
Watch makers .. .. .	735	46
Others .. .. .	2,975	1,128
Total .. .. .	30,284	3,259

5. In the Natural Divisions, Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the highest percentage of 29.35, East Rajasthan Plain Division stands second with the percentage of 24.83, followed by the Rajasthan Hills Division (23.14). The lowest percentage is found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (20.37). Coming to the district level, we find that the largest percentage is found in the districts of Churu (57.93) and Jodhpur (36.21). Chittorgarh District, of the Rajasthan Plateau Division, stands third in position, and has the percentage of 35.15, while Nagaur stands fourth with a percentage of 33.98. The District of Bundi also attracts attention, as it has the lowest percentage (7.7).

6. Sub-division '4.1' (Products of Petroleum and Coal). This industry is practically non-existent in these States as only 10 persons are found in Rajasthan (6 in Udaipur District, 3 in Sikar and 1 in Bikaner), all in urban areas, and none in Ajmer, who have returned their occupation as Kerosine and Petroleum refiners.

#### Products of Petroleum and Coal.

7. Sub-division '4.2' (Bricks, tiles and other structural clay products). A perusal of the figures for this Sub-division, in Subsidiary Table 5.12 in Part I-B of the Report, shows that 1,926 self-supporting persons *i.e.* (1.60 per cent.) in Rajasthan (1,827 Brick makers and 99 Chinaware makers) and 79 self-supporting persons (*i.e.*, 0.86 per cent.) in Ajmer are employed in these industries. They are all brick makers. (They are more common in rural areas than in urban, the percentage being 47 in urban and 53 in rural areas in Rajasthan.) But in Ajmer it is strange to find all of them in urban areas and none in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 84, and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division 43. The apparent reason for a comparatively small number of persons engaged in this industry is that this industry though universal in Rajasthan and Ajmer States is followed by people who combine it with the job of Pottery or Agriculture. These above figures represent only those self-supporting persons who are engaged in Structural Clay Products only and who follow this industry as the principal means of livelihood.

8. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the highest percentage of 3.16, East Rajasthan Plain Division stands second with the percentage of 1.07, followed by the Rajasthan Hills Division (1.06) and the Rajasthan Plateau Division (1.03). The Districts of Dry Area Division where this Industry is prominent are Ganganagar, Bikaner and Barmer which possess the top-most percentage of 23.75, 11.32 and 6.97 respectively. The District of Alwar (5.19) stands next to Barmer, followed by the Bhilwara District (3.50). The Districts of Sawai Madhopur, Jodhpur, Bundi and Jaisalmer also attract special attention, due to nil figures. Bricks and tiles have no demand in hilly places where stone is plentiful and they have no scope in such of the sandy districts where clay is not available.

9. Sub-division '4.3' (Cement, Cement pipes and other Cement products). These industries employ 4,272 self-supporting persons *i.e.*, 3.54 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division '4' in Rajasthan State and only 14 persons in Ajmer who are Cement Pipe Manufacturers (all in urban areas) making the percentage of 0.15. In Rajasthan 87 per cent. of them are found in urban areas and only 13 per cent. in the rural. In Rajasthan 3,777 self-supporting persons have been returned as Cement goods manufacturers, 493 persons as Labourers in Cement Factories, 2 as Cement manufacturers.

10. Amongst the Natural Divisions, Rajasthan Plateau Division has the largest percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in this Industry (20.6), in comparison with that in the State as a whole (3.54) as well as the other Divisions, namely, East Rajasthan Plain Division (0.89), Rajasthan Dry Area Division (0.06) and Rajasthan Hills Division only (0.03). This is due to the Lakheri Cement Factory in the Bundi District which employs 3,576 persons *i.e.*, about 84.

per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in this Division in the whole State of Rajasthan. Coming to the district level again, we see that the Bundi District tops the list with the percentage of 68.0. In other districts the figure is insignificant *e.g.* Sawai Madhopur (6.94), Kotah (2.46), Bharatpur (0.95) and Bikaner (0.7). These five districts account for 4,263 persons out of 4,272; of the remaining 9 persons, 4 are found in Udaipur, 3 in Pali and 2 in Jodhpur.

11. The Director of Industries and Commerce, Government of Rajasthan, lays down, "Bundi is famous for its fine silica and the area round about is rich in lime-stone and clay. As such, the State (Bundi) is most useful for the manufacture of cement. The Lakheri Cement Works is one of the best factories in India producing high class cement. The natural deposits available in this area have got the suitable composition required for the manufacture of cement in the proper proportions. In fact the Lakheri factory has got a mixture which is a ready made mixture for the formation of cement. The silica in Bundi is one of the best in the whole of India being at times even 99.5 per cent. pure. At present it is mostly exported."

12. Sub-division '4.4' (Non-metallic mineral products). This industry is fairly common all over the State, particularly because earthenwares are in large demand every where. There are two Glass and Pottery Factories in the State, one in Jaipur and another in Dholpur. These industries are very important and employ 45,027 self-supporting persons (*i.e.*, 37.35 per cent.) in Rajasthan and 2,022 persons (*i.e.*, 22.08 per cent.) in Ajmer. The percentage is 26 in urban and 74 in rural areas for Rajasthan and 17 in urban and 83 in rural areas for Ajmer. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 34, and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 16. This Sub-division includes the following groups. The number of self-supporting persons employed in each is also given in the Table No. 258 below:—

TABLE No. 258.

Industrial groups comprised in Sub-division 4.4 (Non-Metallic mineral products) and number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Industrial group	Name	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3	4
4.41	Potters and makers of earthenware	42,799	1,971
4.42	Makers of Porcelain and crockery	1	..
4.43	Makers of Glass bangles, glass beads, glass necklaces, etc.	42	..
4.44	Makers of other glass and crystalware	58	..
4.40	Makers of other miscellaneous non-metallic mineral products.	2,127	51
	Total	45,027	2,022

13. Before using these figures a fact, towards which attention has been invited from time to time, should be borne in mind. The number of self-supporting persons amongst potters and makers of earthenware given in the above table represent only those who follow that industry as their principal means of livelihood. According to the common knowledge of the country, it is a known fact that the village potters mostly combine this occupation with agriculture which is their main source of income, and the industry of pottery occupies them during dull seasons only. The figures of such people do not therefore appear in this Table.

14. The prominent occupations and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each under Sub-division "44" are given in table below according to the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations.

TABLE No. 259.

Main occupations returned under Industrial Sub-division 44 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
Pot makers .. .. .	42,798	1,971
Stone goods makers .. .. .	679	31
Lime Stone burners .. .. .	457	20
Makers of stone mills .. .. .	401	..
Stone Cup makers .. .. .	325	..
Others .. .. .	367	..
Total .. .. .	45,027	2,022

15. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the East Rajasthan Plain Division has the highest percentage of 42.13, Rajasthan Hills Division (37.81) stands second, followed by Rajasthan Dry Area Division (34.09). The Rajasthan Plateau Division has the lowest percentage of 27.06. Coming to the district level, we find that the Pali District tops the list with the percentage of 53.16. Jaipur District (46.34) stands second, Tonk District (46.22) ranks third, followed by the District of Alwar and Sikar which have the percentages of 44.05 and 42.25 respectively. The District of Bundi also attracts attention because of the lowest percentage of 11.71 only.

16. The note on the cottage industries of Rajasthan, published by the Director Public Relations, Government of Rajasthan, lays down, "In almost every village in Rajasthan, a potter is to be found. He supplies the rural population with cheap earthenware. There is sufficient scope to improve and increase the income of the potters by introducing efficient potters' wheels and improved kilns. With the help of a foot-driven wheel, a potter can double his production. A better class of earthenware can also be produced with the help of an improved kiln and that too with a smaller consumption of fuel." "In Rajasthan, Jaipur City had long been renowned for its blue and white pottery. This was until recently a very popular industry and was much appreciated by Western countries and even now it is in good demand. This was a whole-time urban industry and almost all the raw materials are available here. A mixture of five materials, such as glass, gum, multani mitti, sajji, etc., are made into a pulp. The body of the material thus obtained is passed through moulds of various kinds such as flower vases, bowls, tiles, etc. After giving a coat of glaze, designs of birds, animals and floral work are painted with coloured oxides, then a coating of another glaze is given and finally articles are put into handmade kiln.

After baking at a high temperature, the vessels are taken out. A beautiful glazed surface with floral designs is obtained on finely coloured blue and white artistic vases etc. This is some thing like what is known as underglaze decoration." "There was a great demand for this pottery in foreign countries upto 1935, and after that the workers migrated from Jaipur and others who were left behind began to lose interest. Only recently, this industry has again been revived with the co-operation of some of the workers."

17. Sub-division '4.5' (Rubber Products) has no significance in Rajasthan State. It engages only 46 self-supporting persons *i.e.*, (0.04) per cent. of all self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division '4' in Rajasthan and none in Ajmer. They are all rubber stamp makers, 20 of whom are found in Chittorgarh District and 22 in Kotah District and 4 in other places. There is only one Rubber Factory in Kotah named 'Kotah Rubber Industries, 'Kotah.'

18. Sub-division '4.6' (wood-products other than furniture and fixtures). This sub-division employs 36,947 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 30.64 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division '4' in Rajasthan and 3,044 self-supporting persons *i.e.*, 33.24 per cent. in Ajmer. A great majority of them are found in rural areas, the percentage being 27 in urban and 73 in rural areas for Rajasthan, but they are more prominent in Ajmer in urban than in rural areas, the proportion in urban areas being 56 per cent. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (33), and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (23). The industrial groups of this Sub-division, in which these persons are engaged, can be seen from the Table No. 260 below:—

TABLE No. 260.

Sub-division '4.6' (Wood and Wood products other than furniture and fixtures) and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Name of Industrial group	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3	4
4.61	Sawyers .. .. .	385	23
4.62	Carpenters, turners and joiners .. .. .	28,847	1,828
4.63	Veneer and plywood makers, match veneer and splint makers.	..	45
4.64	Basket makers .. .. .	5,748	759
4.60	Other Industries of wood materials including leaves, but not including furniture and fixtures.	1,967	389
	Total .. .. .	36,947	3,044

19. The District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the detailed occupations and the number of self-supporting persons employed in each. The chief among them are shown

in Table No. 261 below:—

TABLE No. 261.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 4·6 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Workers in Wood (Carpentry) .. .. .	29,232	1,851
Basket makers .. .. .	4,606	755
Bamboo goods makers .. .. .	1,051	97
Leaf Plate makers .. .. .	933	39
Mat makers .. .. .	274	..
Broom makers .. .. .	249	4
Sirki makers .. .. .	230	12
Ply-wood makers .. .. .	..	45
Reed Chair makers .. .. .	141	225
Others .. .. .	231	16
Total .. .. .	36,947	3,044

20. Rajasthan Hills Division (36·19) has the highest percentage, Rajasthan Dry Area Division (31·25) stands second, followed by Rajasthan Plateau Division (30·03). The lowest percentage is to be found in East Rajasthan Plain Division (29·24). As for the districts, the District of Bundi attracts attention because of its lowest percentage (12·15) inspite of the fact that it contains good forests, while no other district has a percentage less than 20. The highest percentage is found in Banswara District (52·29). Next comes Kotah (44·10), followed by Jodhpur (41·83), Jaisalmer (39·83) and Bikaner (38·55). Banswara and Kotah being full of forests afford ample opportunities for this industry.

21. Sub-division '4·7' (Manufacture of furniture and fixtures) is a comparatively minor industry in Rajasthan State and engages only 1,257 self-supporting persons *i.e.* (1·04) per cent. But in Ajmer it has some importance where 407 persons are employed, making the percentage of (4·44).  
**Furniture etc.**  
 In Rajasthan the self-supporting persons engaged in the activities comprised in this Sub-division are proportionately lower in urban than in rural areas, the percentage being 41 in urban and 59 in rural areas, but in Ajmer 99 per cent. of them are found in urban and 1 only in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (67), and lowest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (22). This Sub-division includes manufacture of household, office, public-building, professional and restaurant furniture, office and store fixtures, screens, shades etc. regardless of material used. This industry can thrive either at places where timber is easily available due to existence of good forests, or where there is a good market for finished articles due to the existence of big towns. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 5·12 shows that there is not a single self-supporting person engaged in this industry in the Districts of Tonk, Sikar, Barmer, Jalore, Jaisalmer and Sirohi. The high percentage in Ajmer State confirms the above assumption, because it has larger towns in comparison with those of Rajasthan and consequently greater demand for furniture. The following Table No. 262 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations, gives the main occupation returned on the census slips and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.



TABLE No 262.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 4·7 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer.
1	2	3
Wooden Furniture makers .. .. .	1,170	407
Photo Framing .. .. .	33	..
Painters .. .. .	32	..
Others .. .. .	22	..
Total .. .. .	1,257	407

22. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, where 1·47 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in Division '4' are found engaged in the industries comprised in Sub-division '4·7', stands first, East Rajasthan Plain Division with a percentage of 1·10 comes second, followed by Rajasthan Hills Division (1·04). The lowest percentage (0·15) is found in Rajasthan Plateau Division, inspite of the fact that it contains good forests. Coming to the district level, we find that Bharatpur District with a percentage of 4·01 tops the list; Pali where the percentage is 3·98 comes second, Ganganagar (3·51) ranks third, followed by Jhunjhunu (2·28) and Udaipur (1·55). This industry can be made to develop in districts with good forests namely, Udaipur, Dungarpur, Banswara, Chittorgarh, Kotah and Bundi.

23. Sub-Division '4·8' (Paper and paper products). This industry supports only 78 self-supporting persons (68 in urban and 10 in rural areas) *i. e.* 0·06 per cent. in Rajasthan and 7 persons only *i. e.* (0·08) in Ajmer, all in urban areas. Out of these 78 persons, 55 persons are found in Jaipur District, 8 in Bikaner, 6 in Sawai Madhopur, 2 in Jodhpur, 1 in Udaipur and 6 in Kotah District. This industry includes manufacture of paper and paper board and articles of pulp, paper and paper-board. About this industry, the Director of Industries and Commerce, Rajasthan Government writes:

"This is one of the important industries of Rajasthan. Jaipur, Sanganer, Udaipur and Kotah are the centres of this industry. It is an industry which is decaying, if proper arrangements are not made for the improvement in technique. In Japan, hand-made paper is mostly used for writing in Japanese character. If legislation is enacted in India to utilise only hand-made paper for certain purposes, it may find a better sale. Japanese have devised small digesting pans, small electric driven beaters, and a very ingenious and inexpensive method of drying paper with the help of the heat, kindled and maintained by rubbish locally available. All these devices can be easily introduced and the cost of making paper can also be lowered. The quality of paper can also be improved. In Japan, generally a ream of 480 sheets is easily made per day by one man.

24. "All varieties of paper for which there exists only a limited demand may usefully be manufactured by hand. It will not be economical for big factories to take to these articles. Blotting and filter papers are of such kinds, costly papers, like invitation cards, fancy writing pads, etc. are prepared in all countries by hand. What is needed immediately is the introduction of power-driven beaters for making pulp which cannot be done well or cheap by human labour only.

25. "The papier-mache articles in Rajasthan are quite different from those of Kashmir. Kashmir is very much advanced, Jaipur and Udaipur in Rajasthan are also doing good work. Here birds, animals, fruits, vegetables and dry fruits are made in natural colours. There is a need for introduction of new designs and for making new articles, to keep our workers in the trade. Decoration requires change according to fashion and taste of the people. The more the literacy spreads, the more will be the waste paper available. If the industry develops, we can make good use of waste paper and will be able to feed many mouths by this industry."

26. Sub-division '4.9' (Printing and allied Industries). This industry provides employment to 725 Self-supporting persons in Rajasthan *i.e.* 0.6 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division '4'. In Ajmer it supports 327 persons *i.e.* 3.57 per cent. The percentage is 94 in urban and 6 in rural areas for Rajasthan and none is found in the rural areas of Ajmer. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 99 and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division 74. The industrial groups engaging these persons together with the number of persons engaged in each are given in the Table No. 263 below:

TABLE No. 263.

Industrial groups of Sub-division 4.9 and the Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Name of Group	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer.
1	2	3	4
4.91	Printers, lithographers, engravers ..	415	321
4.92	Book binders and stitchers .. ..	310	6
	Total ..	725	327

27. The distribution of self-supporting persons engaged in this industry, amongst the Natural Division is more or less uniform. Rajasthan Hills Division tops the list in this Division where 0.67 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in the industries comprised in this Division '4' are found engaged in this industry, East Rajasthan Plain Division (0.63) comes next, and Rajasthan Dry Area Division (0.58) stands third. The lowest percentage of 0.5 is found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division. Coming to the district level, we find that Jaisalmer stands first (6.26), Jhalawar comes second (2.09), Jodhpur (1.45) ranks third, Jaipur comes next with (1.08) and Bikaner (1.03) follows it.

## SECTION 9.

### Construction and Utilities

Subsidiary Table 5.13 given in Part I-B of the Report shows that the industries comprised in the Division '5' provide employment to 74,994 self-supporting persons in the Rajasthan State and 4,835 persons in Ajmer. Of these 42,688 or 56.9 per cent. are in rural areas and 32,306 or 43.1 per cent. in urban areas of Rajasthan and in Ajmer 1,278 or 2.66 per cent. are in the rural areas and 3,557 or 73.4 per cent. in the urban areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division, (59) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (34). This industrial Division comprises the following Sub-divisions, the number of self-supporting persons engaged in

each Sub-division are also given in the Table No. 264 given below.

TABLE No. 264.

Sub-divisions of Industrial Division "5" and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Sub-divisions.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer.
1	2	3	4
5·0	Construction and maintenance of works otherwise unclassified.	34	..
5·1	Construction and maintenance of buildings ..	36,030	2,000
5·2	Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges and other transport works.	4,523	298
5·3	Construction and maintenance of telegraph and telephone lines.	5	..
5·4	Construction and maintenance operations of irrigation and other agricultural works.	1,395	..
5·5	Works and services, electric power and gas supply.	2,190	107
5·6	Works and services domestic and industrial water supply.	4,925	711
5·7	Sanitary works and services including scavengers	25,892	1,719
	Total ..	74,994	4,835

The figures show that almost one half of these persons are engaged in construction and maintenance of buildings and almost one third in sanitary works and services.

2. Sub-division "5·0" (Construction and maintenance of works otherwise unclassified) accounts for only 34 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan, while none is found in Ajmer. They are found in the urban areas of three districts *e.g.* 30 in Udaipur, 3 in Nagaur and 1 in Bhilwara where they have returned their occupation as contractors.

3. Sub-division '5·1' (Construction and maintenance of Buildings). These industries are very important and common all over the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer. In Rajasthan 36,030 self-supporting persons *i.e.*, (48·04 per cent.) or nearly one-half of the total self-supporting persons in the Division '5' are engaged in this sub-division '5·1'. In Ajmer it accounts for 2,000 self-supporting persons *i.e.*, two-fifths of all self-supporting persons engaged in the industries comprised in Division '5' (41·37 per cent.). Their percentage is 53 in urban and 47 in rural areas of Rajasthan and 70 in urban and 30 in rural areas of Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Hills Division 67 and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 44. This Sub-division includes the following groups and the number of persons engaged in each is

also shown against each group in Table No. 265.

TABLE No. 265.

Industrial groups of Sub-division 5·1 and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of group.	Name of occupation.	Persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan.	Ajmer
1	2	3	4
5·11	Masons and Brick-layers .. ..	13,698	1,058
5·12	Stone cutters and dressers .. ..	4,600	27
5·13	Painters and decorators of houses .. ..	182	58
5·10	Other persons engaged in the construction or maintenance of buildings other than buildings made of bamboo or similar material.	17,550	857
	Total ..	36,030	2,000

4. The inset Table No. 266 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the actual occupations returned on the census slips.

TABLE No. 266.

Actual occupations returned under industrial Sub-division 5·1 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer.
1	2	3
Repairers of houses ..	11,824	857
Masons ..	7,005	1,058
Builders of houses ..	5,267	..
Stone dressers ..	4,600	27
Labourers (buildings) ..	2,944	..
Mistry P.W.D. ..	1,978	..
Kankar breakers ..	1,948	..
Painters and decorators of houses	182	58
House Contractors ..	162	..
Brick-layers ..	120	..
Total ..	36,030	2,000

5. Amongst the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan these industries are the most prominent in the Rajasthan Hills Division in which the percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in these industries to the total engaged in the industries comprised in Division "5" is the highest being (67·69), Rajasthan Plateau Division stands second with the percentage of 64·28, followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division (41·89). The lowest percentage (38·92) is found in Rajasthan Dry Area Division. Coming to the district level, we find that the Jhalawar District with a percentage of 84·14 tops the list, Bundi (80·72) comes second, Durgapur (77·82) ranks third, followed by Chittorgarh (71·05) and Udaipur (68·30). The Districts of Barmer and Jalore also attract attention because of their lowest percentage of only (2·49) and (9·19) respectively.

6. Sub-division '5·2' (Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges and other transport works) accounts for 4,523 persons in Rajasthan and 298 persons in Ajmer. In each State 6 per cent. of the self-supporting persons,

engaged in the Industries comprised in Division "5" are found engaged in this industry. Their percentage is 27 in urban and 73 in rural areas in Rajasthan, and in Ajmer the percentage is 92 in urban and 8 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 62 and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 2 only. The Table No. 267 will show the actual occupations returned under this Sub-division and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

TABLE No. 267.

Actual occupations returned under Industrial Sub-division 5.2 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer.
I	2	3
Railway gangmen .. .. .	1,843	..
Road consolidation .. .. .	1,124	298
Contractors of Roads P. W. D. .. .. .	857	..
Employees in Road Deptt. .. .. .	699	..
Total .. .. .	4,523	298

7. Amongst the Natural Divisions, Rajasthan Plateau Division holds the first position where 11.66 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "5" are found engaged in this industry. Rajasthan Dry Area Division (7.77) stands second, Rajasthan Hills Division (7.02) ranks third, followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division with the lowest percentage of 2.67 only. When we look at the districts of Rajasthan the Jodhpur District attracts our attention, for here we find the highest percentage (24.10 per cent. *i.e.* exactly four times the percentage of the State) of self-supporting persons to the total engaged in the industries comprised in division 5, as being engaged in this industry. Kotah District (22.97) stands second, Udaipur (9.01) ranks third and Chittorgarh (8.71) fourth, followed by Alwar District (7.69). Nobody has returned this occupation as his principal means of livelihood in the Districts of Bharatpur, Jhunjhunu, Sikar, Barmer, Jalore, Jaisalmer and Sirohi.

8. Sub-division '5.3' (Construction and maintenance of telegraph and telephone lines). Only 5 persons in Rajasthan State (who are found in the urban areas of Jaipur District alone) have returned this occupation as their principal means of livelihood and none in Ajmer. It is, however, to be noted that only such employees of the telegraph and telephone department, as are engaged in construction and maintenance of telegraph and telephone lines only are to be classed under this sub-division. Others come under Sub-division 7.7 and 7.8 of the Division "7".

TABLE No. 268.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 5.4 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation.	Persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Labourers at Bandh. .. .. .	1,254	..
Workers in Irrigation Deptt. .. .. .	71	..
Workers at canal. .. .. .	42	..
Contractors of tanks. .. .. .	20	..
Well diggers .. .. .	8	..
Total .. .. .	1,395	..

9. Sub-division "5.4" (Construction and maintenance of irrigation and agricultural works).

and other agricultural works) accounts in Rajasthan for 1,395 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 1.86 per cent. of all self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "5". In Ajmer nobody has returned this industry as his principal means of livelihood. Out of these 1,395 persons, Pali District of Rajasthan Dry Area Division alone contains 1,266 persons. These persons are employed on the bandh of Luni, the only river in the desert. The remaining 129 persons are found distributed as follows, 32 in Jaipur, 22 in Kotah, 20 in Udaipur, 13 in Nagaur, 12 in Bhilwara, 11 in Churu, 10 in Banswara, 5 in Chittorgarh, 3 in Bundi and 1 in

Ganganagar. The actual occupations of self-supporting persons engaged in this industry together with the number engaged in each may be seen in the Table No. 268 above prepared from the District Index of the Non-Agricultural occupations.

10. Sub-division '5.5' (Works and services; electric power and gas supply) provides employment in Rajasthan to 2,190 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 2.92 per cent. of all engaged in industries comprised in Division '5' of whom 1,417 are workers in power house and 773 electrical contractors. In Ajmer 107 persons are engaged in this Sub-division forming the percentage of 2.21 who are all workers in power house. In Ajmer all are in urban areas and in Rajasthan 92 per cent in urban and the rest in rural areas.

**Electric Power and Gas etc.**

11. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the Rajasthan Dry Area Division possesses the highest percentage (7.46) of self-supporting persons engaged in this industry to the total engaged in industries comprised in Division "5". Hills Division with a percentage of 1.60 stands second followed by Plateau Division (1.55) and East Rajasthan Plain Division (1.30). Amongst the Districts, Bikaner having the percentage of 41.57 tops the list. This is due to the Power House of Bikaner, perhaps the biggest in Rajasthan which supplies electricity upto distant places like Churu and Sardar Shahr at a distance of nearly a hundred miles. Jodhpur District with a percentage of 14.0, stands second, Sawai Madhopur (6.78) ranks third and Bharatpur (4.56) comes fourth.

12. Sub-division '5.6' (Works and services domestic and industrial water supply) accounts in Rajasthan for 4,925 persons *i.e.* 6.57 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "5". In Ajmer 711 persons *i. e.*, 14.71 per cent. are employed in these industries. Their percentage is 54 in urban and 46 in rural areas in Rajasthan and in Ajmer 93 in urban and 7 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (70) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (41). This number consists, to a certain extent, of employees of the water works which exist only in a few towns in Rajasthan but to a large extent of those who are engaged in fetching water from wells which are usually at some distances from the residential areas in villages and small towns. In places where wells are nearer, every housewife in the middle classes fetches water for domestic use herself.

**Water supply etc.**

13. Amongst the Natural Divisions, Rajasthan Hills Division has the highest percentage (10.94) of self-supporting persons engaged in this industry to the total engaged in industries comprised in Division "5". Rajasthan Dry Area Division (9.43) stands second, East Rajasthan Plain Division (5.11) ranks third. The Rajasthan Plateau Division has the least percentage of 3.29. Amongst the Districts, Ganganagar tops the list with the percentage of 35.23, Banswara (32.83) stands second, Jaisalmer (32.03) comes next followed by Tonk with the percentage of 17.44. It is strange that there is none in the Barmer District who has returned this occupation as his principal means of livelihood.

14. Sub-division '5.7' (Sanitary works and service including scavengers) provides employment to nearly one-third of the self-supporting persons of the Division "5", in each of the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer. Their percentage is 28 in urban and 72 in rural areas for Rajasthan but in Ajmer it is 65 in urban and 35 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Hills Division (40) and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (23). The actual number of self-supporting persons engaged in this occupation in Rajasthan is 25,892, forming 34.53 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in industries comprised in Division "5". In Ajmer the number is 1,719 who

**Sanitary works.**

form 35.55 per cent. This industry is one of the most important of all those comprised in Division '5' and is found throughout the States. In the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations all these persons have been returned as scavengers except one who has given his occupation as a Sanitary Supervisor.

15. In the Natural Divisions, the East Rajasthan Plain Division has the highest percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in this occupation to the total of those engaged in industries comprised in Division '5' being 49.08 *i. e.* nearly half. The Rajasthan Dry Area with a percentage of 29.52 stands second, followed by the Plateau Division (18.98). The lowest percentage is found in Rajasthan Hills Division (12.08). Amongst the districts, Barmer tops the list with the gigantic percentage of 97.51. Jalore holds the second position with the percentage as high as 89.75. Tonk (70.63) ranks third and Bharatpur (60.32) comes fourth in order. The lowest percentage of 3.56 is found in the Banswara District. The higher percentage in certain districts is due to the fact that other occupations comprised in this division do not exist to an appreciable extent in them. This inflates the percentage of scavengers.

### SECTION 10.

#### Commerce.

Commerce (Division '6') is an important economic activity which provides employment to nearly one-fifth of the total self-supporting persons engaged in non-agricultural pursuits, in each of the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer, as shown in the Subsidiary Table 5.14 given in Part I-B of the Report. The actual number of self-supporting persons returned as engaged in commerce in the Rajasthan State is 277,969 *i. e.* 20.44 per cent. In Ajmer there are 22,953 self-supporting persons engaged in this enterprise who form 19.29 per cent. of all the self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services including Commerce itself. Their percentage is 52 in urban and 48 in rural areas in Rajasthan and 80 in urban and 20 in rural areas in Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (56) and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (39). This Division includes the following Sub-divisions, the number of persons engaged in each Sub-division is also given in the Table No. 269 below:—

TABLE No. 269.

Sub-divisions of Division '6' (Commerce) and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Sub- division.	Name of Sub-division	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer.
1	2	3	4
6.0	Retail trade otherwise unclassified ..	114,012	7,247
6.1	Retail trade in food-stuffs (including beverages and narcotics).	79,366	6,709
6.2	Retail trade in fuel (including petrol) ..	4,897	826
6.3	Retail trade in textile and leather goods ..	44,459	4,646
6.4	Wholesale trade in food-stuffs .. ..	4,157	942
6.5	Wholesale trade in commodities other than food-stuffs.	10,899	1,388
6.6	Real Estate .. ..	168	101
6.7	Insurance .. ..	22	2
6.8	Money-lending, banking and other financial business.	19,989	1,092
	Total ..	277,969	22,953



2. Sub-division '6·0' (Retail trade otherwise un-classified) is a very significant activity in which 114,012 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 41·02 per cent. of those engaged in activities comprised in Division '6' are engaged in Rajasthan, while in Ajmer the number is 7,247 who form the percentage of 31·57. The percentage is 47 in urban and 53 in rural areas in Rajasthan, and in Ajmer it is 68 in urban and 32 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (53) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division 35. The activities comprised in this Sub-division are universal throughout the State. This Sub-division consists of the following groups. The actual number of persons engaged in each group is also given in the Table No. 270 below:—

TABLE No. 270.

Groups of Sub-divisions '6·0' (Retail trade otherwise unclassified) and the number of persons engaged in each.

Code No. of group.	Name of occupational group	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer.
6·01	Hawkers and street vendors otherwise unclassified	2,617	485
6·02	Dealers in drugs and other chemical stores	943	205
6·03	Publishers, Book-sellers and stationers.	1,170	410
6·00	General stores-keepers, Shop-keepers and persons employed in shops otherwise unclassified.	109,282	6,147
	Total ..	114,012	7,247

The greatest number is found among general store-keepers, shop-keepers and persons employed in shops otherwise unclassified because this is a sort of residuary group in which all slips containing entries of insufficiently described commercial activities have been sorted.

3. The following Table No. 271 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations, gives the names of principal occupations returned under this Sub-division in which the number of self-supporting persons engaged is more than 500 in Rajasthan.

TABLE No. 271.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 6·0 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
General merchants .. .. .	81,026	4,645
Service on a shop .. .. .	4,650	..
Manihari goods sellers .. .. .	3,734	665
Gold and Silver merchants .. .. .	3,666	383
Filigree and lace shop .. .. .	3,447	2
Street Vendors and Hawkera	2,410	..
Sarrafa .. .. .	1,767	..
Bangle sellers .. .. .	1,419	201
Hardware traders .. .. .	1,310	45
Brass and copper merchants .. .. .	890	278
Stationery goods sellers .. .. .	889	284
Druggists .. .. .	864	185
Cycle dealers .. .. .	784	210
Brass dealers .. .. .	715	..

The largest number is found under general merchants because this is also a sort of residuary category in which all slips with uncertain entries of trade might have gone.

4. Amongst the Natural Divisions, Rajasthan Plateau Division has the highest percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in activities comprised in this Sub-division, to the total engaged in Division '6' being 50.1 per cent. East Rajasthan Plain Division with a percentage of 48.45 holds the second position, Rajasthan Hills Division (40.39) ranks third, followed by the Rajasthan Dry Area Division with the lowest percentage of (29.54). Amongst the districts, Sikar tops the list with the percentage of (62.62), Tonk District (58.32) stands second, Jhalawar (56.84) ranks third, followed by the Jhunjhunu District which has the percentage of (52.05). The District of Barmer also attracts the attention due to its lowest percentage of 15.82.

5. Sub-division '6.1' (Retail trade in food stuffs including beverages and narcotics) accounts in Rajasthan for 79,366 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 28.55 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in Division '6' Commerce, and 6,709 persons (*i.e.* 29.23 per cent.) in Ajmer. Their percentage is 59 in urban and 41 in rural areas in Rajasthan and in Ajmer it is 88 in urban and 12 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (61) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (47). This trade is common throughout the State. The occupation groups comprised in this Sub-division "6.1" are given in the Table No. 272 below, along with the actual number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

TABLE No. 272.

Groups of Sub-division 6.1 and the number of Self-supporting persons returned under each.

Code No.	Occupational group	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
6.11	Retail dealers in grain and pulses, sweetmeats, sugar and spices, dairy products, eggs, and poultry, animals for food, fodder for animals, other food stuffs, vegetables and fruits.	70,723	4,912
6.12	Vendors of wine, liquors, aerated waters and ice in shops	2,818	660
6.13	Retail dealers in tobacco, opium and ganja ..	890	49
6.14	Hawkers and street-vendors of drink and food-stuffs ..	169	89
6.15	Retail dealers in pan, bidis and cigarettes .. ..	4,766	999
	Total ..	79,366	6,709

6. The largest number is seen under group '6.11' (Retail dealers in grain and pulses) sweetmeats, sugar and spices, dairy products, eggs and poultry; animals for food; fodder for animals; other food stuffs, vegetables and fruits," because within its circle comes the trade of all necessities of daily life. The pan-bidi sellers form the next important group which has as many as 4,766 self-supporting persons engaged in it.

7. The following Table No. 273 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the actual occupations returned on the census slips in which more than one thousand self-supporting persons are engaged in Rajasthan together with the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each:

TABLE No. 273.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 6.1 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Kirana merchants .. .. .	22,051	896
Grain merchants .. .. .	10,679	190
Confectioner's shop .. .. .	6,917	487
Vegetable sellers .. .. .	5,916	1,300
Ghee and oil sellers .. .. .	5,411	49
Trade in grain .. .. .	4,777	..
Betel and cigarette sellers .. .. .	3,498	999
Liquor contractors .. .. .	2,328	258
Meat sellers .. .. .	2,129	63
Flower and fruits sellers .. .. .	2,007	228
General merchants .. .. .	1,115	..
Agents cigarettes .. .. .	1,083	..
Provision dealers .. .. .	1,027	..

8. Amongst the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, with the percentage of 36.18 stands first, the Hills Division (28.56) comes second, closely followed by Rajasthan Plateau Division (26.98). The smallest percentage (22.54) is found in East Rajasthan Plain Division. Coming to the district level, we find that Jaisalmer District has a very high percentage of 65.03 in comparison to other districts as well as the State as a whole; Bikaner District (44.48) holds the second position, Bhilwara (43.59) ranks third and Ganganagar with the percentage of (42.28) comes fourth in order. The lowest percentage is found in the Jhunjhunu District (14.65).

9. Sub-division '6.2' (Retail Trade in Fuel including Petrol) accounts for 4,897 persons *i.e.* 1.76 per cent. of the Self-supporting persons engaged in the Division "6" in Rajasthan State. In Ajmer 826 persons are engaged in this trade forming the percentage of (3.6). Their percentage is 51 in urban and 49 in rural areas in Rajasthan and in Ajmer 71 in urban and 29 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (64) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (46). All 4,897 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan and 824 persons in Ajmer have returned their occupation as retail dealers (including hawkers and street-vendors) in firewood, charcoal, coal, cow-dung and all other fuel except petroleum. In Ajmer 2 persons have been returned as petroleum distributors.

10. Amongst the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan we find that Rajasthan Plateau Division stands first with the percentage of 2.41, Rajasthan Hills Division (1.95) holds the second position, Rajasthan Dry Area (1.78) ranks third. The East Rajasthan Plain Division has the lowest percentage of (1.52). The higher percentage in the Plateau Division seems to be due to its extensive forests and greater demand for fuel. On an examination of the Sub-Table 5.14 in Part I-B of the Report, we find that the District of Sirohi has the highest percentage of 4.87, Kotah (3.68) stands second followed by Nagaur (2.77) and Pali Districts (2.68). The lowest percentage of (0.17) is found in Banswara District. The low figures of Banswara inspite of its extensive forests seem to be due to absence of transport facilities and limited local consumption. The population mostly consists of Bhils and Minas who usually collect from the jungles the fuel necessary for their domestic use, themselves. They also sell

TABLE No. 274.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division '6.2' (Retail trade in fuel) and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each according to the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Firewood sellers ..	4,036	471
Coal shop ..	461	336
Cow-dung cake sellers	170	17
Contractors of wood ..	139	..
Others .. ..	91	2
Total ..	4,897	826

it to, others but this is mostly their side job which they combine with agriculture. The inset Table No. 274 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the main occupation returned under this Sub-division.

11. Sub-division '6.3' (Retail trade in textile and leather goods) accounts for 44,459 persons in Rajasthan who form 15.99 per cent of the total self-supporting persons engaged in activities comprised in Division '6'. In Retail Trade in Textile and leather goods: Ajmer 4,646 self-supporting persons are engaged in the trade who form the percentage of 20.24. Their percentage is 59 in urban and 41 in rural areas in Rajasthan and in Ajmer 85 in urban and 15 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (66) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (39). It includes Retail trade (including hawkers and street vendors) in piece goods, wool, cotton, silk, hair, wearing apparel, made-up textile goods, skin, leather, furs and feathers etc.

12. The Table No. 275 given below indicates the main occupations returned under this Sub-division and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

TABLE No. 275.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 6.3 (Retail trade in textile and leather goods) and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Cloth dealers .. ..	28,900	3,291
Wool dealers .. ..	5,120	459
Dealers in leather .. ..	4,095	273
Leather shoe dealers .. ..	1,237	261
Jute dealers .. ..	993	..
Cotton Carpet retail sellers .. ..	979	..
Leather dealers .. ..	666	..
Cotton merchants .. ..	597	22
Ready made cloth dealers .. ..	482	..

TABLE No. 275 (Contd.)

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Coarse cloth dealers .. .. .	477	..
Cotton yarn sellers .. .. .	455	328
Gota (Lace) shop .. .. .	303	..
Silk cloth dealers .. .. .	..	12
Others .. .. .	155	..
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>44,459</b>	<b>4,646</b>

13. Amongst the Natural Divisions, we find that the Rajasthan Hills Division, with the percentage of 19.31 tops the list, Rajasthan Dry Area Division (17.69) stands second. East Rajasthan Plain Division (14.24) ranks third in position. The Rajasthan Plateau Division has the lowest percentage of (13.70). Amongst the Districts, Barmer with the percentage of (27.41) stands first, Bikaner (22.68) comes second, Udaipur (21.78) ranks third, followed by the District of Sirohi which has the percentage of (19.77). On account of its lowest percentage of 5.59 the District of Jhalawar also attracts attention.

14. Sub-division '6.4' (Wholesale trade in food-stuffs) engages 4,157 self-supporting persons, i.e., 1.5 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in Wholesale trade in Food-stuffs activities comprised in the Division "6" in Rajasthan State. In Ajmer State 942 self-supporting persons are engaged in this Sub-division making the percentage of 4.1. Their percentage is 47 in urban and 53 in rural areas in Rajasthan but in Ajmer it is 98 in urban and 2 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (59) and lowest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (31). Though the percentage of self-supporting persons engaged in activities comprised in this Sub-division is very low because wholesale dealers are only limited in number, yet it is common throughout the State. This Sub-division includes wholesale dealers in grains and pulses, sweet-meats, sugar and spices, dairy products, eggs and poultry, animals for food, fodder for animals, other food stuffs and wholesale dealers in tobacco, opium and Ganja. The enumerators were instructed to enter as wholesale dealers, broadly speaking, such persons only who sell to traders only, and not to consumers.

15. The detailed occupations returned under this Sub-division along with the actual number of self-supporting persons engaged in each are given in the Table No. 276 given below, prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations:

TABLE No. 276.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 6.4 (Wholesale trade in food-stuffs) and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Wholesale dealers in grain .. .. .	3,038	331
Wholesale grocers .. .. .	611	..
Wholesale dealers in Gur .. .. .	264	521
Wholesale dealers in Ghee .. .. .	56	7
Wholesale commission Agents (Adhat-ki-Dukan) .. .. .	..	83
Others .. .. .	188	..
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>4,157</b>	<b>942</b>

16. In the Natural Divisions of the Rajasthan State we find that East Rajasthan Plain Division with the percentage of 2.12 stands first, Rajasthan Dry Area Division (1.24) comes second, followed by the Rajasthan Plateau Division (0.94). The Rajasthan Hills Division has the lowest percentage of 0.58.

17. On a perusal of the Subsidiary Table 5.14 in Part I-B of the Report we find that the District of Jhunjhunu has the highest percentage (4.56), Alwar (4.00) stand second, Sikar (2.58) ranks third, followed by the District of Sawai Madhopur which has the percentage of 2.50. All these four districts belong to the East Rajasthan Plain Division which has therefore got the top most percentage amongst the Natural Divisions of the State. Sirohi District also invites our attention, as not a single person has returned his occupation as wholesale trader in food-stuffs.

18. Sub-division '6.5' (wholesale trade in commodities other than food stuffs) accounts for 10,899 persons in Rajasthan *i.e.* 3.92 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in Division "6" and for 1,388 persons in Ajmer, forming the percentage of 6.05. Their percentage is 55 in urban and 45 in rural areas in Rajasthan and in Ajmer it is 70 in urban and 30 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (66) and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (29). The actual number of persons engaged in the principal occupations falling in this Sub-division can be seen in the following Table No. 277.

TABLE No. 277.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 6.5 and number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Wholesale Trade in cattle .. .. .	2,940	538
Wholesale trade in sheep and goats .. .. .	2,222	..
Wholesale trade in cloth .. .. .	1,137	370
Wholesale trade in stone .. .. .	919	3
Wholesale trade in camels .. .. .	644	..
Wholesale trade in leather .. .. .	643	..

19. Amongst the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan we find that the Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the highest percentage of 4.62, East Rajasthan Plain Division (4.08) stands second, Rajasthan Plateau Division (2.60) ranks third in order. The Rajasthan Hills Division has the lowest percentage of 2.49. Coming to the district level, we find that the District of Nagaur has the highest percentage of 10.74, Dungarpur (9.10) comes second, Jodhpur (6.74) ranks third and Pali District with the percentage of 6.31 stands fourth in order. The District of Bikaner has the lowest percentage of 0.43 amongst the districts of the State.

20. Sub-division '6.6' (Real Estate) includes house and Estate agents and rent collectors of landed property other than agricultural land. There are only 163 persons in Rajasthan *i.e.* 0.06 per cent. and 101 persons in Ajmer making the percentage 0.44 of the self-supporting persons engaged in activities comprised in Division "6". They are found mainly in the districts named below *viz.* 55 in Jaipur and Jhunjhunu each, 16 in Bharatpur, 12 in Sawai Madhopur, 11 in Ganganagar. The remaining 23 are scattered in other districts. Their percentage is 71 in urban and 29 in rural areas in Rajasthan and in Ajmer it is 99 in urban and 1 in rural areas. In Ajmer all of them have returned their occupation as Rent Collectors. In Rajasthan 120 of them are Rent Collectors, 43 are shown as shop rent collectors and 5 as brokers of landed property.

21. Sub-division '6.7' Insurance is the most minor business in the Division "6" which accounts for only 22 persons in Rajasthan (14 in urban and 8 in rural areas) and 2 persons in Ajmer, all in urban areas.

#### Insurance.

22. Sub-division '6.8' (Money lending, banking, and other financial business) accounts for 19,989 persons in Rajasthan making the percentage of 7.19 of the self-supporting persons engaged in activities comprised in Division "6" and 1,092 persons in Ajmer *i.e.* 4.76 per cent. Their percentage is 44 in urban and 56 in rural areas in Rajasthan but in Ajmer it is 79 in urban and 21 in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (51) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (23). This business is universal in the Rajasthan State.

#### Money lending, Banking etc.

23. Main occupations returned under this Sub-division together with the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each, can be seen in Table No. 278 below prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations which gives the details:

TABLE No. 278.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 6.8 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Money lenders .. .. .	15,398	879
Shop assistants .. .. .	1,355	170
Brokers .. .. .	1,200	34
Bank employees .. .. .	337	9
Others .. .. .	1,699	..
Total .. .. .	19,989	1,092

24. Amongst the Natural Divisions, we find that the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, with the percentage of 8.92 stands first, East Rajasthan Plain Division (6.91) comes second, Rajasthan Hills Division (6.68) ranks third in position. Rajasthan Plateau Division has the lowest percentage of 3.26. Coming to the district level, we find that the Jalore District tops the list with the percentage of 29.49, Sirohi (17.55) stands second, Dungarpur (14.07) ranks third and Alwar District with the percentage of 12.46 is fourth in position. The lowest percentage of 0.8 is found in the District of Jaisalmer.

## SECTION II.

### Transport, Storage and Communications.

At all periods of the world's history, the available means of communication and transport have proved a vital factor in harmonising the social and political complexion of the people. But Rajasthan, today, has not the roads that she should have in order to confer the barest amenities of civilization on her inhabitants, whether in the cultural, hygienic, social or economic sphere. From the standpoint of resources, Rajasthan is one of the richest States in India, but her industrial, agricultural and commercial progress has been retarded by lack of roads and the consequent cost of bringing those resources to marketable centres. Hundreds of villages are cut off from the outside world during the four or five months of the monsoon.



2. Efficient communications exercise an immediate effect on the factor of time which is an essential element in the price factor. Good communications in any area will often bring new crops within the range of profitable cultivation. Bad communications, by imposing a constant strain on the health and stamina of draught animals, seriously reduce their efficiency for the all important work of cultivation. Not only do they hamper the agriculturist in the marketing of his produce, but also raise the price of his own purchases from elsewhere. The true income of the cultivator is largely dependent on the efficiency of communications. No kind of improvement can be fully or successfully introduced until there is proper access to all parts of the State, particularly the outlying village.

3. From the point of view of means of communication, a greater part of Rajasthan is totally unserved. A large percentage of its area is inaccessible due either to high, steep, rocky and forestclad hills or vast stretches of loose sand, the monotony of which is disturbed only by sand dunes which make the areas still more inaccessible. The total mileage of Railway line in Rajasthan is about 2,602 miles, metalled roads extend over 3,374 miles and 5,940 miles are connected by other kind of roads. In the plain areas Cart tracks connect the villages with one another which are also motorable in fair weather. In the hilly and desert areas even such tracks are not available, the only means of communication there, are ponies or camels or bullocks who do not require any road or track. In places where it is difficult even for the above animals to pass, Dolies and Palkies are used. Transport by air is next to nothing and transport by water engages some persons either for crossing the Chambal or for taking tourists for excursion on lakes and tanks. Out of the 25 districts of Rajasthan only 18 district Headquarters are connected by rail and 7 have railway stations at a distance ranging from 12 to 74 miles from the district Headquarters. During the course of my tour in the enumeration stage, I noticed that in the Hills Division, there are certain villages which had not been visited by any Revenue or Administrative official for the past more than half a century, due to their inaccessibility. In fact it was this inaccessibility which helped a good deal in maintaining the independence of Rana Pratap against his Mughal foes. But now this inaccessibility has proved to be a great handicap in the development of this area. The necessity of an extensive development of means of Communication in this area has no doubt attracted the attention of the authorities. During recent years several new roads have been constructed on which motor buses are plying. There is also a proposal about the extension of a Railway line from Udaipur to Himmatnagar across the wildest parts of the Bhil areas, or hilly tracts, and also to connect Kotah with Chittorgarh by rail.

4. Subsidiary Table 5·15, given in Part I-B of the Report, gives the figure of self-supporting persons engaged in transport, storage and communication. Before examining the figures it must be borne in mind, as repeated on several occasions before, that all railway employees do not come in this category; those employed in manufacture, assembly and repair of railway equipment and those employed on construction works have been placed under the other occupational divisions. Similarly in the transport by road not all persons, connected with Motor buses, come under this category. Those employed in assembly and repair in motor vehicles have been placed under Sub-division 3·3. Another thing to be borne in mind is that transport by road also includes in fact, transport without road because as observed above, camels, mules, asses, bullocks, palkies and porters travel mostly without roads.

5. The total number of self-supporting persons deriving their principal means of livelihood from activities connected with transport, storage and means of communication (Division 7) is in Rajasthan 44,676 and in Ajmer 6,480. In Rajasthan they form 3·28 per cent. and in Ajmer 5·45 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons under Industries and Services. Their percentage is 67 in urban and 33 in rural areas in Rajasthan and 87 in urban and 13 in rural areas of Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (71) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (65). This occupational division consists of Sub-divisions shown in Table No. 279 below which also gives the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each, in Rajasthan and Ajmer States.

TABLE No. 279

Sub-divisions of Division "7" and persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Sub-division	Name of occupation.	Persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
7·0	Transport and Communications otherwise unclassified and incidental services.	31	6
7·1	Transport by road. .. .. .	26,279	1,687
7·2	Transport by water. .. .. .	83	8
7·3	Transport by air. .. .. .	29	..
7·4	Railway transport. .. .. .	16,687	4,615
7·5	Storage and warehousing. .. .. .	10	..
7·6	Postal services. .. .. .	1,421	93
7·7	Telegraph services. .. .. .	47	23
7·8	Telephone services. .. .. .	70	47
7·9	Wireless services. .. .. .	19	1
Total		44,676	6,480

The figures show that the most prominent Sub-divisions are transport by road, railway transport and postal services. In each of the remaining Sub-divisions the figure is less than 100.

6. Sub-division '7·0' (Transport and Communications unclassified and incidental services) engages only 31 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan (4 in urban and 27 in rural areas) and 6 in Ajmer all in urban areas. This is a category in which perhaps the slips containing entries of insufficiently described transport activities might have found the place.

7. Sub-division '7·1' (Transport by Road) is as observed above, the most important, activity in which 26,279 self-supporting persons *i.e.*, 58·82 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in activities comprised in this Occupational Division "7" are engaged in Rajasthan. In Ajmer State, it is next in importance to transport by rail where 1,687 self-supporting persons *i.e.*, 26·03 per cent. of those engaged in activities comprised in Division "7" are employed in the activities comprised in this Sub-division. They are proportionately higher in urban than in rural areas, the percentage being 68 in urban and 32 in rural areas for Rajasthan and 71 in urban and 29 in rural areas for Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 73 and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 64. It includes owners, managers and employees connected with mechanically driven and other vehicles (excluding domestic servants) Palki, etc., bearers and owners, pack elephant, camel, mule, ass and bullock owners and drivers, porters and messengers, persons engaged in road transport not otherwise classified, including freight transport by road, the operation of fixed facilities for road transport such as toll roads, highway bridges, terminals and parking facilities. The principal occupations returned under this Sub-division, which provide means of livelihood to more than 500 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan, and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each can be seen

in Table No. 280 below.

TABLE No. 280.

Principal Occupations returned under Sub-division '7.1' and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Motor drivers .. .. .	4,815	296
Bullock Cart drivers .. .. .	4,586	231
Camel drivers .. .. .	4,269	32
Transport on donkeys .. .. .	2,904	219
Tonga drivers .. .. .	2,829	520
Porters .. .. .	2,798	..
Porter with a Thela .. .. .	800	..
Transport by road .. .. .	682	..
Motor Cleaners .. .. .	514	33

8. Amongst the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan State, the Rajasthan Hills Division has the highest percentage of (78.3), Rajasthan Plateau Division (69.46) comes second, followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division (64.68) and Rajasthan Dry Area Division (42.27). The reason of this high proportion in Hills Division is clear. In places unserved by quick traffic like rail or motor, a larger number of persons are necessary to fulfil the transport requirements of the population, while in places served by mechanized transport a fewer number of persons can serve the same purpose. In the Plateau Division the existence of good motorable roads in the interior with regular bus services explains its higher proportion. Coming to the District level, we find that the District of Jaisalmer has the top most percentage of 97.25 in the whole State, because there is practically no other transport there, except transport by road. Jhunjhunu District (92.84) stands second, Sirohi (88.67) comes third and the District of Banswara with the percentage of (86.83) stands fourth in position. The District of Ganganagar, on account of its lowest percentage of (21.88) also attracts our attention. The figure under this head in this district is comparatively low because there exist in this District other transport activities also e.g. transport by rail.

9. Sub-division '7.2' (Transport by Water is a very insignificant activity in Rajasthan and Ajmer as there are no big navigable rivers. Consequently only 83 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan State, and only 8 self-supporting persons in Ajmer have returned their occupation under this Sub-division. Their percentage is 47 in urban and 53 in rural areas for Rajasthan. In Ajmer they are all found in rural areas. These 83 persons are found distributed in districts; e.g. in Kotah 44, in Bundi 14, in Bikaner 10, in Sawai Madhopur 6, in Jhunjhunu 5, in Udaipur 2, in Bhilwara and Chittorgarh one each.

10. The figures under Sub-division '7.3' (Transport by Air) though very small deserve notice on account of the importance of this means of transport. 29 self-supporting persons are shown in Subsidiary Table 5.15 as engaged in this industry, 14 of them are in Jodhpur, 13 in Jaipur, one in Bharatpur and one in Jaisalmer. One of them has been returned as Pilot and 28 as "Servants in the office of the aerodrome."

11. Sub-division '7.4' (Railway Transport) is next in importance to "Transport by Road" in Rajasthan which provides employment to 16,687 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 37.35 per cent. or more than one-third of the self-supporting persons engaged in the Division "7". In Ajmer State this Sub-division ranks first as it employs 4,615 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 71.22 per cent. of the Division "7". The percentage is 67 in urban and 33 in rural areas for Rajasthan and 93 in urban and 7 in rural areas for Ajmer. In the urban areas it is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (69) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (43).

12. The District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the names of detailed occupations entered under this Sub-division. The most important of them, engaging more than 200 persons in Rajasthan, are given in the Table No. 281. The figures show that a large majority has been returned under the vague term servants in Railway. This is the reason for the comparatively small number under other heads like clerks, peons etc..

TABLE No. 281.

Main occupations returned under Railway Transport and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Servants in railway .. .. .	12,733	3,953
Coolies and labourers .. .. .	1,863	150
Railway pointsmen .. .. .	539	79
Others .. .. .	1,552	433
Total .. .. .	16,687	4,615

13. Amongst Natural Divisions we find that the Rajasthan Dry Area Division with the percentage of (53.22) stands first, East Rajasthan Plain Division (33.06) comes second, Rajasthan Plateau Division (24.61) ranks third. The Rajasthan Hills Division has the lowest percentage of 16.65. Amongst the Districts, Ganganagar has the highest percentage of (70.83), Jodhpur District with almost the same percentage of 70.44, holds the second position, Bikaner (59.77) ranks third and Chittorgarh comes next with the percentage of 57.89. The District of Jaisalmer does not contain any man in this service.

14. Sub-division '7.5' (Storage and Warehousing) does not exist on an appreciable scale in Rajasthan and Ajmer as a separate business. Only 10 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan have returned their occupation under this Sub-division "7.5" and none in Ajmer. These 10 persons are found in the following districts namely Jaipur (5), Sawai Madhopur (3) and Nagaur (2).

15. Sub-division '7.6' (Postal services) accounts for 1,421 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan *i.e.* 3.18 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons in the Division "7." In Ajmer only 93 persons are employed in this service making the percentage of (1.44). Their percentage is 70 in urban and 30 in rural areas in Rajasthan and 86 in urban and 14 in rural areas of Ajmer. In the urban areas their percentage is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (80), and lowest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 65. Their distribution in the various parts of the State can be seen in the Sub-sidiary Table 5.15.

TABLE No. 282.

Self-supporting persons engaged in Telegraphs, Telephone and Wireless services

Code No. of Sub-division	Name of service	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
7·7	Telegraph ..	47	23
7·8	Telephone ..	70	47
7·9	Wireless ..	19	1
	Total ..	136	71

16. These three services fall under Sub-divisions '7·7', '7·8' and '7·9'. The actual number of self-supporting persons returned

in the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer is given in Table No. 282. It is to be noted that construction and maintenance of telegraph and telephone lines come under Division '5' Construction and Utilities and not under this Division.

## SECTION 12.

## Health, Education and Public Administration Services.

These Services falling under Division '8' provide employment for 142,844 self-supporting persons *i.e.* about 10 per cent. of all self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services in Rajasthan State, while in Ajmer State they support 14,685 self-supporting persons *i.e.* about 12 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons of non-agricultural classes. The percentage is 66 in urban and 34 in rural areas in Rajasthan and 86 in urban and 14 in rural areas in Ajmer. In the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (70) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (58). In spite of the small percentage noted above, the services comprised in this division are of great significance in the economy of the nation. Because it is health and education on which all economic activities of a nation as well as its well being and prosperity depend.

2. Nearly half (49 per cent) of the self-supporting persons engaged in the services comprised in this Division in Rajasthan are engaged as employees of the State Government in Sub-division '8·7' as shown in Subsidiary Table 5·16 in Part I-B of the Report. In Ajmer they form nearly 13 per cent. It is to be noted that Sub-division '8·7' excludes all State Government employees classifiable under other Divisions or Sub-divisions.

3. This occupational Division consists of the Sub-divisions shown in Table No. 283 below which also shows the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each.

TABLE No. 283

Distribution of persons engaged in services comprised in Division '8' among Sub-divisions.

Code No. of Sub-division	Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
8·1	Medical and other health services .. ..	11,491	2,018
8·2	Educational Services and Research .. ..	21,051	2,924
8·3	Army, Navy and Air Force .. ..	Included in Sub-division 8·8	
8·4	Police (other than watchmen) .. ..	15,233	1,097
8·5	Village Officers and Servants including village watchmen .. ..	7,377	163
8·6	Employees of Municipalities and Local Boards (but not including persons classifiable under any other division or sub-division.) .. ..	7,828	281

TABLE No. 283 ( Continued ).

Code No. of Sub-division	Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
8·7	Employees of State Government (but not including persons classifiable under any other division or sub-division).	70,426	1,852
8·8	Employees of the Union Government (but not including persons classifiable under any other division or sub-division).	9,438	6,350
8·9	Employees of Non-Indian Governments ..	Included in Sub-division 8·8	
	Total ..	142,844	14,685

4. Sub-division '8·1' (Medical and other Health services) engages in Rajasthan 11,491 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 18·05 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in services comprised in Division "8" and 2,018 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 13·74 per cent. in Ajmer State, as may be seen in Subsidiary Table 5·16 in Part I-B of the Report *i.e.*, to say there is one medical man for roughly every 1,331 persons in Rajasthan and for 344 persons in Ajmer. The difference between the two States in this respect is worth noting. There are 378 Allopathic Hospitals and Dispensaries, 329 Ayurvedic Aushdhalayas and 7 Unani Dispensaries in Rajasthan State, all run by Government, in addition to private practitioners and dispensaries run by charity-minded persons. This shows that there is a dispensary for every 22,000 persons of population. This is really an inadequate arrangement. Government is taking active steps towards providing increasing medical facilities. 66 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in the activities comprised in this Sub-division 8·1, are found in urban and 34 in rural areas of Rajasthan and 80 in urban and 20 in rural areas in Ajmer State. The percentage in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (72) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (63).

5. The actual number of persons engaged in the various groups of this Sub-division is given in Table No. 284 below.

TABLE No. 284.

Groups of services, Sub-division '8·1' (Medical and other health services) and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Groups	Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
8·11	Registered medical practitioners ..	1,067	572
8·12	Vaidyas, Hakims and other persons practising medicine without being registered.	1,851	387
8·13	Dentists ..	17	114
8·14	Midwives ..	1,011	91
8·15	Vaccinators ..	64	106
8·16	Compounders ..	1,894	352
8·17	Nurses ..	729	68
8·10	All other persons employed in hospitals or other public or private establishments rendering medical or other health services; but not including scavengers or other sanitary staff.	4,858	328
	Total ..	11,491	2,018

6. Not much difference is noticeable in the figures of the Natural Divisions of Rajasthan. We find that the Rajasthan Plateau Division stands first with the percentage of 9.4, Rajasthan Dry Area Division (8.89) ranks second followed by the Rajasthan Hills Division (7.53). The lowest percentage of 7.06 is found in East Rajasthan Plain Division. Coming to the District level, we find that the Pali District with the percentage of 24.33 tops the list, Alwar District (13.45) stands second followed by the Districts of Dungarpur (13.42) and Kotah (13.03). The lowest percentage in the Rajasthan State is found in the Jalore District (4.01).

7. Sub-division '8.2' (Education services) accounts for 21,051 self-supporting persons, forming the percentage of 14.74 in Rajasthan. In Ajmer State Education Services. it provides employment to 2,924 self-supporting persons i.e. 19.91 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in services comprised in Division "8". The percentage is 58 in urban and 42 in rural areas of Rajasthan and 82 in urban and 18 in rural areas in Ajmer. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (71) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (51). The groups comprised in this Sub-division and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each can be seen in Table No. 285 below.

TABLE No. 285.

Groups of Sub-division 8.2 (Education services) and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Group	Name of Group	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
8.2	Professors, Lecturers, teachers and Research workers employed in Universities, Colleges and Research Institutions.	287	290
8.22	All other professors, lecturers and teachers	15,250	1,788
8.20	Managers, Clerks and servants of Educational and research institutions including Libraries and Museums, etc.	5,514	846
	Total	21,051	2,924

8. Amongst the Natural Divisions, we find that East Rajasthan Plain Division has the highest percentage; (16.47), and this is just what can be expected in the most advanced division in the State. It contains Jaipur City, the Capital of Rajasthan, and the seat of the only University of the State. Rajasthan Hills Division stands second with the percentage of 14.66, followed by the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (13.23). The lowest percentage of 13.17 is found in Rajasthan Plateau Division. Amongst the Districts, Churu has the highest percentage of 24.3, Nagaur District (21.37) comes second, followed by the District of Tonk (20.49). The District of Alwar ranks fourth in position with the percentage of 20.32. The lowest percentage is to be found in the Jaisalmer District (2.55).

9. Sub-divisions '8.3', '8.8' and '8.9' refer to employees of Union Government and those of Non-Indian Governments, who are not otherwise classified under other Divisions or Sub-divisions. The total number of these employees in the Rajasthan State is only 9,438 i.e., 6.6 per cent of the self-supporting persons of the Division '8'. 9,419 of them have returned themselves as employees of Union Government and 19 as employees of foreign Governments. In Ajmer State these Sub-divisions account for 6,350 self-supporting persons making the huge percentage of 43.24, a bit less than one-half of the total persons employed in the Division "8". Of these 6,237 are employees of the Union Government and 113 are employees of foreign Governments.



The percentage is 76 in urban and 24 in rural areas for Rajasthan and 95 in urban and 5 in rural areas for Ajmer. The largest percentage is found in the Districts of Jaisalmer (31·88), Barmer (24·77) and Bikaner (17·81).

10. Sub-division '8·4' (Police other than village watchmen) accounts for 15,233 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan or roughly one police employee per 1,000 of population making the percentage of (10·66) of the total self-supporting persons engaged in the services comprised in Division '8'. In Ajmer there are 1,097 persons *i.e.* one for nearly 640 persons or 7·47 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in the activities comprised in Division '8'. The percentage is 58 in the urban and 42 in rural areas of Rajasthan and 83 in urban and 17 in rural areas in Ajmer. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (63) and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (52).

11. The actual occupations returned and the number of the persons employed in each may be seen in the following Table No. 286 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations.

TABLE No. 286.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 8·4 (Police other than village watchmen) and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Occupations.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Employed in Police Department	13,739	1,097
Constables	1,065	..
Head Constable	141	..
Clerks in Police Department	148	..
Camel riders in Police	55	..
Sub-Inspectors	60	..
Inspectors	12	..
Employees in C.I.D.	6	..
Guards at Jails	5	..
Deputy Inspector General of Police	2	..
Total	15,233	1,097

12. The Rajasthan Hills Division has the highest percentage of 15·9, Rajasthan Plateau Division (15·28) stands second, followed by the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (10·83). The lowest percentage (7·55) is to be found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. Coming to the district level, we find that Sirohi District leads with the percentage of 27·0, Banswara (21·19) comes second, Jhalawar (19·84) ranks third, followed closely by the District of Dungarpur (19·23). The lowest percentage (3·34) is found in the Jhunjhunu District.

13. Sub-division '8·5' (Village Officers, including village watchman) engages 7,377 self-supporting persons in the State of Rajasthan or 5·16 per cent. of those engaged in services comprised in Division "8" and in Ajmer it employs only 163 persons *i.e.* 1·11 per cent. The percentage is 29 in urban and 71 in rural areas in Rajasthan. In Ajmer all are in rural areas. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 45 and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 6. The actual occupations returned under this Sub-division as also the number of self-supporting persons employed in each are given in the following Table No. 287.

TABLE No. 287.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 8·5 and the number of Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Occupations.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Watchmen .. .. .	3,625	..
Employees in Gram Panchayats.. .. .	1,926	163
Village servants .. .. .	536	..
Employees in tehsils .. .. .	529	..
Patwaris .. .. .	339	..
Village officers .. .. .	235	..
Village peons .. .. .	187	..
Total .. .. .	7,377	163

14. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the largest percentage (6·76) is found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division which has the largest number of villagers. Next comes the Rajasthan Plateau Division with the percentage of 5·39, Rajasthan Dry Area Division (3·82) ranks third, followed by the Hills Division which has the lowest percentage of 2·73. Amongst the districts, Barmer with the percentage of 32·44 tops the list, Sikar (25·28) stands second, Bundi (13·16) ranks third, followed by the District of Alwar with the percentage of 10·57.

15. Sub-division '8·6' (Employees of the Municipalities and local Boards but not including persons classifiable under any other Division or Sub-division) account for 7,828 self-supporting persons in the Rajasthan *i.e.* (5·48) per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in the services comprised in Division "8". In Ajmer it employs only 281 persons *i.e.* 1·92 per cent. The percentage is 80 in urban and 20 in rural areas in both Rajasthan and Ajmer. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (96) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 65.

16. In spite of this lower percentage these services are of great importance, at least for the urban areas. In Rajasthan State there are 6 cities and 212 towns in which there are 137 Municipalities, 12 Town Boards and 4 notified areas, amounting to 153 in all. In Ajmer State there are five Municipalities one in the city and four in towns.

17. Amongst the Natural Divisions we find that the East Rajasthan Plain Division has the highest percentage (6·06), Plateau Division (5·9) stands second and Rajasthan Dry Area Division (5·47) ranks third. The lowest percentage is found in the Hills Division (2·77). Coming to the district level we find that Bharatpur District has the highest percentage of 13·91, Bikaner (12·28) stands second, Bundi (10·1) ranks third and Jaisalmer with the percentage of (8·88) comes fourth in order.

18. Sub-division '8·7' (Employees of State Governments, but not including persons classifiable under any other Division or Sub-divisions) accounts for 70,426 self-supporting persons in Rajasthan *i.e.* 49·3 per cent. (nearly one half) of the total self-supporting persons in the Division "8". In Ajmer, 1,852 persons *i.e.* 12·61 per cent. of all those engaged in services comprised in Division "8" are employed in these services. The percentage is 72 in urban and 28 in rural areas in Rajasthan and 83 in urban and 17 in rural areas in Ajmer. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (77) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (57).

19. The actual number of persons employed in various services comprised in this Sub-division "8.7" may be seen in the Table No. 288 given below, prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations.

TABLE No. 288.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 8.7 (employees of the State Governments but not including persons classifiable under any other Division or Sub-divisions) and persons engaged in each.

Occupations.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Government employees .. .. .	62,741	1,852
Government Peons .. .. .	2,466	..
Employees in tehsils .. .. .	1,348	..
Patwaries .. .. .	560	..
Employees in Customs Department .. .. .	359	..
Watchmen .. .. .	351	..
Employees in Public Works Department .. .. .	318	..
Employees in Settlement Department .. .. .	308	..
Employees in Supply Department .. .. .	234	..
Amins .. .. .	203	..
Employees in Rehabilitation .. .. .	192	..
Employees in Revenue Department .. .. .	142	..
Others .. .. .	1,204	..
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>70,426</b>	<b>1,852</b>

20. Variation from one Natural Division to another is not much. The highest percentage *i.e.* 53.26 is found in the Hills Division, Plateau Division (50.29) stands second, East Rajasthan Plain Division (48.78) ranks third. The Rajasthan Dry Area has the lowest percentage of 48.19. Among districts the highest percentage (66.10) is found in Ganganagar, Jhunjhunu (61.78) comes second, Chittorgarh (59.29) ranks third, and the Udaipur District (59.23) comes fourth. The lowest percentage of 21.27 is found in the Barmer District.

### SECTION 13

#### Services not elsewhere specified and Miscellaneous Means of Livelihood.

Subsidiary Table 5.17 given in Part I-B of the Report shows that in Rajasthan the total number of persons engaged in this miscellaneous category, included in Division '9' is 364,228 who form about 26.78 per cent. of the total number of self-supporting persons engaged in all industries and services in the State. In Ajmer State this category provides employment to 24,555 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 20.63 per cent. The rural-urban distribution of the self-supporting persons engaged in the activities comprised in this Division is different in Rajasthan from that in Ajmer. In Rajasthan the proportion is lower in urban than in rural areas being 3:4, it is 5:2 in Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division being 48 per cent. and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (34 per cent). In Rajasthan about 62 per cent. of all the self-supporting persons classified under Division '9' are to be found in Sub-division '9.0' (Services otherwise unclassified) while in Ajmer State this Sub-division '9.0' engages about 39 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons under Division '9'. They include persons of unclassified as well as vaguely described professions. Thus for example the 'Mazdoors' (labourers) who have not given their place of work or the nature of their actual labour are classed

under this Sub-division. Astrologers, fortune-tellers etc. are also included in this category. This Division includes 9 Sub-divisions, the detailed description of each Sub-division along with the number of persons engaged in each of them is given in the Table No. 289 given below:

TABLE No. 289.

Sub-divisions of Division '9' and the self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Sub- division	Occupations	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
9·0	Services otherwise unclassified .. .. .	227,539	9,515
9·1	Domestic services (but not including services rendered by members of family households to one another).	47,192	3,237
9·2	Barbers and beauty shops .. .. .	22,131	1,976
9·3	Laundries and laundry services .. .. .	12,436	2,433
9·4	Hotels, Restaurants and eating houses .. .. .	3,009	841
9·5	Recreation services .. .. .	15,809	3,398
9·6	Legal and business services .. .. .	2,834	1,379
9·7	Arts, letters and journalism .. .. .	713	106
9·8	Religious charitable and welfare services .. .. .	32,565	1,670
	Total .. .. .	364,228	24,555

2. Sub-division '9·0' (Services otherwise unclassified) provides employment to 227,539 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 62·47 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in services comprised in the Division "9" in the Rajasthan State, while it supports 9,515 persons in Ajmer, who form the percentage of 38·75. In Rajasthan the self-supporting persons engaged in the activities comprised in this Sub-division are proportionately lower in urban than in rural areas, the ratio being 3:4. In Ajmer the reverse is the ratio being 4:3. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (64 per cent.) and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 52 per cent. Table No. 290 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the main occupations as returned on the census slips.

TABLE No. 290.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 9·0 and the Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of Occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3
Labourers .. .. .	175,225	9,487
Miscellaneous Services .. .. .	46,937	9
Non-Government work .. .. .	3,013	..
Astrologers .. .. .	1,219	28
Watchmen .. .. .	427	..
Domestic servants .. .. .	298	..
Employees Household Department .. .. .	201	..
Others .. .. .	219	..
Total .. .. .	227,539	9,524

3. The proportion of these persons does not vary from Division to Division to a great extent. Hills Division has the highest percentage of 63·70, Rajasthan Dry Area with a percentage of 63·54 comes next followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division, where the percentage is 62·36 and the lowest percentage of 59·13 is found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division. Coming to the district level, we find that the Sirohi District tops the list with the percentage of 79·20. Jhunjhunu District (76·37) stands second, Barmer District (74·99) ranks third and Pali District with a percentage of 74·60 holds the fourth position. The District of Jaisalmer also attracts our attention on account of its lowest percentage of 27·47 throughout the State.

4. Sub-division '9·1' (Domestic Services—but not including services rendered by members of family households to one another) engages in Rajasthan State 47,192 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 12·96 per cent. of those engaged in services comprised in the Division '9' and in Ajmer State 3,237 (or 13·18 per cent.). The ratio in urban is higher than in rural areas, being roughly 5:3 in Rajasthan and 7:3 in Ajmer. It varies from Division to Division. Their proportion in the urban areas is higher in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (66) and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division (50). It consists of the following groups of services, each of which engages the number of persons shown against each.

TABLE No. 291.

Service groups comprised in Sub-division '9·1' and the Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No.	Name of Service	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
9·11	Private Motor drivers and cleaners .. .. .	922	28
9·12	Cooks .. .. .	5,343	298
9·13	Gardeners .. .. .	1,561	72
9·10	Other domestic servants .. .. .	39,366	2,839
	Total .. .. .	47,192	3,237

5. Amongst the Natural Divisions, Rajasthan Plateau Division has the highest percentage of 14·57, Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands second with the percentage of 14·45 followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division 11·85. The lowest percentage is found in Rajasthan Hills Division 11·43. Amongst the districts the largest percentage is found in the District of Bikaner (42·68) and Churu (30·09). Jhalawar District of the Plateau Division stands third in position and has the percentage of 26·87, while Banswara stands fourth with the percentage of 23·72. The District of Jalore also attracts attention as it has the lowest percentage (4·99) in the State.

6. The services comprised in this Sub-division '9·2' (including Barbers and Beauty Shops—Barbers, Hair dressers and wig makers, tattooers, Shampooers, Bath houses) provide employment to 22,131 self-supporting persons, *i.e.* 6·08 per cent. of all those engaged in services comprised in Division '9' in the Rajasthan State, and 1,976 persons, *i.e.* 8·05 per cent. in Ajmer. It is strange to find their proportion lower in urban than in the rural areas of Rajasthan. The ratio being 1:2 but in Ajmer it is much higher in urban than in rural areas, the ratio being roughly 3:1. It varies from Division to Division. The proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division (49 per cent.) and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division (18 per cent.)

7. The Table No. 292 below prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations gives the actual population returned on the Census slips.

TABLE No. 292.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 9.2 and the Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Barbers .. .. .	22,047	1,976
Bathroom servants .. .. .	73	..
Female Hair dressers .. .. .	11	..
Total .. .. .	22,131	1,976

8. Their proportion in the Natural Divisions varies from 7.35 per cent. in the Rajasthan Plateau Division to 4.79 per cent. in the Hills Division, East Rajasthan Plain Division with a percentage of 6.26 stands second and the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (5.70) ranks third. Coming to the district level we see that Jaisalmer District with the percentage of 25.98 stands first, Alwar (11.51) comes second, followed by the Churu District (11.48) and Jhalawar (10.37). The lowest percentage of 2.29 is found in the Jhunjhunu District.

9. Sub-division '9.3' (Laundries and Laundry Services-including washing and cleaning) engages 12,436 self-supporting persons, *i.e.* 3.41 per cent. of all self-supporting persons engaged in services comprised in the Division '9', in Rajasthan State, and 2,433 persons (9.91 per cent.) in Ajmer. **Laundry Services.** The striking difference in the two States is due to the fact that these services generally find greater scope in urban areas. Ajmer State being highly urbanised affords greater opportunities for such services than Rajasthan. The urban rural ratio is 3:2 in Rajasthan and nearly 16:1 in Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 89 per cent. and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 51 per cent.

10. On a perusal of the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations in Part I-B of the Report we find that all the persons of these services have returned their only one occupation of washerman in the return of the Census Slips. The variation from Division to Division is rather significant as the proportion of such persons ranges from 5.19 per cent. in East Rajasthan Plain Division to 1.37 in the Dry Area Division. Rajasthan Plateau Division (2.73) stands second and Rajasthan Hills Division (2.23) ranks third. Easy access to water being one of the conditions precedent for this class of service the Dry Area Division naturally does not provide much scope for it. Amongst the Districts Bharatpur tops the list with the percentage of 9.12, Alwar District (8.58) stands second, Banswara (7.52) comes next followed by the Jaipur District (6.48). The District of Jaisalmer also attracts the attention where none has returned these services as his occupation. This is what could have been expected as Jaisalmer is the driest place in India.

11. Sub-division '9.4' (Hotels, Restaurants and Eating Houses) has not so much significance in Rajasthan State, as only 3,009 persons *i.e.* 0.83 per cent. of all self-supporting persons engaged in services, comprised in Division '9' are engaged in this Sub-division. In Ajmer State also there are only 841 persons who form the percentage of 3.42. This is also a predominating urban activity. The urban rural ratio being 7:3 in Rajasthan and 19:1 in Ajmer; the proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 97 and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 56. **Hotels etc.**

12. It is strange to find that the proportion of these persons is the highest in Rajasthan Hills Division, being 2.60 per cent. Rajasthan Plateau Division with a percentage of 1.13 comes second, Rajasthan Dry Area Division (0.85) ranks third. The lowest percentage 0.37 is found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. This shows how the most developed part of the State is the most deficient in catering facilities. The highest percentage of 11.39 is found in Dungarpur District, closely followed by the District of Banswara (11.18). Churu (2.55) holds the third position and Sikar District (1.72) stands fourth in order. In the Districts of Jhunjhunu and Jaisalmer none has returned this service as his occupation.

13. Sub-division '9.5' Recreation Services, includes production and distribution of motion pictures and the operation of cinemas and allied services, managers and employees of theaters, opera companies etc., musicians, actors, dancers, etc., conjurers, acrobats, reciters, exhibitors of curiosities and wild animals, and radio broadcasting studios. They provide employment to 15,809 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 4.34 per cent. of the self-supporting persons engaged in services comprised in Division '9' in Rajasthan State and 3,398 self-supporting persons (or 13.84 per cent.) in Ajmer. In spite of the opening of various cinemas in the towns of Rajasthan the proportion of musicians and drum beaters is still higher than the employees in cinemas which raises the rural ratio. The urban rural ratio of these persons is 2:5 in Rajasthan and 3:10 in Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 34 per cent. and lowest in Rajasthan Plateau Division 23 per cent.

14. The following Table No. 293 prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations shows the principal detailed occupations returned under this Sub-division and the number of persons employed in each.

TABLE No. 293.

Main occupations returned under Sub-division 9.5 and the Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Musicians .. .. .	9446	1,564
Drum-beaters .. .. .	3,192	284
Employees in Cinema .. .. .	1,473	744
Entertainment work .. .. .	600	119
Players on instruments .. .. .	..	278
Singing and dancing .. .. .	276	..
Theatre .. .. .	169	28
Raslila .. .. .	143	327
Bhands .. .. .	106	..
Jugglers .. .. .	20	54
Others .. .. .	384	..
Total .. .. .	15,809	3,398

15. Their proportion is the highest (5.13 per cent.) in Rajasthan Plateau Division, Rajasthan Dry Area Division with a percentage of 4.62 stands second. Rajasthan Hills Division (4.57) ranks third. The East Rajasthan Plain Division has the lowest percentage of 3.91. Amongst the Districts Jaisalmer with a large percentage of 25.91 stands first, Jhalawar (13.65) comes second, Bhilwara (7.85) ranks third, just closely followed by the Chittorgarh District (7.34). The lowest percentage of (0.73) is found in the Jhunjhunu District.



16. Sub-division '9.6' (Legal and Business Services), engages in Rajasthan 2,834 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 0.78 per cent. and in Ajmer 1,379 self-supporting persons who form 5.62 per cent. of the total persons engaged in the Division '9'. The urban rural ratio is 8:3 in Rajasthan and 99:1 in Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 83 and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division 55. This Sub-division includes the following groups, the number of self-supporting persons engaged in them are also shown against each group in Table No. 294 given below.

TABLE No. 294.

Groups of Sub-division 9.6 and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Groups	Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
9.61	Lawyers of all kinds, including Qazis, Law agents and mukhtiar.	1,299	429
9.62	Clerks of lawyers, petition writers etc.,	492	461
9.63	Architects, Surveyors, Engineers and their employees (not being State servants).	311	310
9.64	Public Scribes, Stenographers, Accountants, Auditors	224	104
9.65	Managers, Clerks, servants, and employees of Trade Associations, Chamber of Commerce, Board of Trade, Labour Organisation and Similar organisation of employers and employees.	508	75
	Total ..	2,834	1,379

17. Their proportion is the highest in Rajasthan Hills Division (1.24), Rajasthan Dry Area Division (0.92) stands second, Rajasthan Plateau Division (0.77) ranks third. The East Rajasthan Plain Division has the lowest percentage of 0.59. Amongst the districts we find that Jalore District has the highest percentage of 3.53. Banswara with a percentage of 3.01 stands second, Bharatpur (1.53) comes next followed by the Udaipur District which has the percentage of 1.50. It is strange that no body in Tonk District has returned this occupation as his principal means of livelihood.

TABLE No. 295.

Groups of Sub-division '9.7' and the Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Groups	Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
9.71	Artists, sculptors and image makers.	540	44
9.72	Authors, editors and Journalists.	95	62
9.73	Photographers	78	..
	Total ..	713	106

18. Sub-division '9.7' (Arts, letters and Journalism) is quite insignificant in Rajasthan as well as in Ajmer. It provides employment only to 713 self-supporting persons *i.e.* 0.19 per cent. in Rajasthan and in Ajmer only 106 persons *i.e.* 0.43 per cent. of the total self-supporting persons engaged in the Division '9'. The urban rural ratio is 5:4 in Rajasthan and all are in urban areas in Ajmer. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 82 and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 26. It includes the groups shown in the marginal Table No. 295. The number of self-supporting persons engaged in each is also shown against each group.

19. We can find out the main occupations returned and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each in the following Table No. 296 which is prepared from the District Index of Non-Agricultural Occupations.

TABLE No. 296.

Actual occupations returned under Sub-division 9·7 and Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Name of Occupation.	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Painters .. .. .	364	14
Sculptors .. .. .	142	30
Photographers .. .. .	70	..
Editors. .. .. .	49	..
Poets and authors .. .. .	46	62
Others .. .. .	42	..
Total .. .. .	713	106

20. The proportion is the highest in Rajasthan Hills Division (0·38), Rajasthan Dry Area Division with a percentage of 0·21 comes second, East Rajasthan Plain Division and Rajasthan Plateau Division each have the equal percentage of 0·16. Amongst Districts, Jalore has the highest percentage of 1·34, Alwar (0·63) stands second, Udaipur (0·47) ranks third and Chittorgarh District (0·40) stands fourth. In the Districts of Tonk, Sikar, Ganganagar, Barmer and Jaisalmer no body has returned this occupation as his principal means of livelihood.

21. Sub-division '9·8' (Religious, Charitable and Welfare services) provide occupation in Rajasthan for 32,565 self-supporting persons or about 8·94 per cent. of those engaged in industries comprised in Division '9' and in Ajmer for 1,670 persons *i.e.* 6·8 per cent. The urban rural ratio in Rajasthan is 1:2 and that in Ajmer is 8:3. Their proportion in the urban areas is highest in Rajasthan Dry Area Division 53 per cent. and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division 22 per cent. This Sub-division includes the following groups, and the number of self-supporting persons engaged in each of them is also shown against each in the Table No. 297 given below:—

TABLE No. 297.

Groups of Sub-division '9·8' and the Self-supporting persons engaged in each.

Code No. of Groups	Name of Occupation	Self-supporting persons engaged in	
		Rajasthan	Ajmer
9·81	Priests, ministers, monks, nuns, Sadhus, Religious mendicants and other religious workers.	30,417	1,500
9·82	Servants in religious edifices, burial and burning grounds pilgrim conductors and circumcisors.	135	17
9·83	Managers and employees of organisations and institutions rendering charitable and other welfare services.	2,013	153
	Total .. .. .	32,565	1,670

22. The variation between Natural Divisions is not much marked. It is the highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (9·30), Rajasthan Hills Division (9·06) stands second, Rajasthan Plateau Division (9·03) holds the third position and the Rajasthan Dry Area Division has the lowest percentage of 8·34.

23. Amongst the districts, Dungarpur District with the percentage of 17.70 tops the list, Jodhpur District (16.74) stands second, Sawai Madhopur (12.79) ranks third, followed by the Bhilwara District (12.07). The District of Sirohi has the lowest percentage of 2.91.

#### SECTION 14.

#### Concluding Remarks.

In this Chapter we have reviewed the distribution of the non-agricultural population of the States of Rajasthan and Ajmer, the nature and extent of dependency amongst them and their status as employers, employees and independent workers. We have noticed that in Rajasthan, 29 per cent. of the population belong to the non-agricultural classes and in Ajmer 55 per cent. The corresponding percentage for India as a whole is 30 and we are, therefore, more or less at a par in Rajasthan with the average India, and Ajmer State can be said to be nearly double the Indian average in respect of non-agricultural population.

2. A little less than two-thirds of the non-agricultural people (60.7 per cent. in Rajasthan and 61.9 per cent. in Ajmer) are economically idle and do nothing to increase the national income. A little less than one-third are self-supporting (31.6 per cent. in Rajasthan and 32.0 per cent. in Ajmer) and 7.7 per cent. of them in Rajasthan and 6 per cent. in Ajmer are earning dependants. Out of 60.7 per cent. of the economically idle people in Rajasthan, if we leave out of consideration people below 15 years of age and those aged 55 and above, we still get a huge figure of over fourteen lakhs of young men and women belonging to the non-agricultural classes securing no income whatsoever. Half of this number, that is about 7 lakhs, would be young men who are doing nothing. In Ajmer State about fifty thousand young men do nothing. This is an appalling waste of man-power towards which those interested in the welfare of the region will pay their attention, whereby, side by side with the solution of the unemployment problem, a development of cottage and large scale industries, resulting in an overall increase the national income, can be attempted.

3. We have seen that of the total number of 1,409,155 self-supporting persons in the Rajasthan State 1.36 per cent. are employers, 27.73 per cent. are employees and 67.43 per cent. belong to the category of independent workers, while in Ajmer State the percentages of employers and employees and independent workers, are 9.83, 42.06 and 46.23 respectively. We have seen how the ratio varies in the different parts of the two States according to the nature of employment available. The proportion of independent workers is found to be higher where cottage industries exist and people are able to take benefit of them. This shows the insignificant proportion of big capitalists and also a correspondingly weak strength of factory labour. These figures when viewed with those in the previous paragraph show how an adequate investment of capital can turn the seven lakh unemployed persons into employees in factories.

4. Livelihood Class V contains persons belonging to Division "0" to "4" of the Divisions of all Industries and Services. They include:—

#### Proportion in different Industries.

- (a) Primary industries not elsewhere, specified, such as stock raising, plantation, forestry, hunting fishing etc.
- (b) Mining and quarrying.

- (c) Processing and manufacture of food-stuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof.
- (d) Processing and manufacture of metals, chemicals and products thereof, and
- (e) Processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified, such as bricks, tiles and other structural clay products, non-metallic mineral products like pots, earthen ware, bangles etc.

Out of the total number of 1,360,172 (excluding those persons who are economically inactive) self-supporting persons belonging to all industries and services, the total number of self-supporting persons belonging to Class V (Production other than cultivation) in the Rajasthan State is 455,461 (305,202 in rural and 150,259 in urban areas). They form about 33·5 per cent. of all the people belonging to Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation, and in Ajmer State there are 45,490 persons (15,670 in rural and 29,820 in urban areas) forming the percentage of about 34·0. In Rajasthan the largest percentage of them (14·83 per cent.) are found engaged in Division 2—Processing and manufacture of food-stuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof. In Ajmer the percentage is 20·09. These are very important industries of the State.

5. Livelihood Class VIII (Other Services and Miscellaneous Sources) accounts for 1,946,966 people in the Rajasthan State of whom 919,026 reside in villages and 1,027,940 in towns. In Ajmer State there are 135,050 persons of whom 29,979 are found in villages and 105,071 in towns. In Rajasthan State people belonging to this miscellaneous class of services constitute about 43·72 per cent. of the total non-agricultural population and in Ajmer 35·68 per cent. The self-supporting persons of this category in the Rajasthan State, number 632,616 or about 32·49 per cent. of their total number while in Ajmer their number is 46,518 who form the percentage of 34·44.

6. In Rajasthan State, about 20·44 per cent. of the total number of self-supporting persons, engaged in all Industries and Services belong to Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) which consists of Division "6" of the divisions of all industries and services, the actual number of persons engaged being 277,969. In Ajmer State there are 22,953 persons who form the percentage of 19·29. In Rajasthan State amongst these traders, about 41·02 per cent. are retail traders otherwise unclassified, 28·55 per cent. are retail traders in food-stuffs, 15·99 per cent. are retail traders in textile and leather goods and 7·19 per cent. are money lenders and bankers the remaining 7·25 per cent. are engaged in other Commercial activities. In Ajmer State the percentages of self-supporting persons engaged in these activities are retail traders otherwise unclassified (31·57), retail traders in food-stuffs (29·23), retail traders in Textile and leather goods (20·24), wholesale traders in commodities other than food-stuffs (6·05) and money lenders and bankers (4·76). The remaining 8·15 per cent. are engaged in other various commercial activities.

7. Livelihood Class VII (Transport) contains 43,109 self-supporting persons (*i.e.* 3·17 per cent.) of all engaged in non-agricultural pursuits in the Rajasthan State and 6,316 self-supporting persons (5·31 per cent.) in Ajmer.

8. The review of the non-agricultural activities of the people in this Chapter has clearly shown that we are industrially also very backward. In the previous Chapter we considered our backwardness in agriculture and our primitive ways of cultivation and pointed out the need for development. We are in an undeveloped State with very considerable resources both in men and materials; our agricultural standards are low, our educational standards are low, many of our people are under-fed, diseased and badly housed; our towns are unhealthy, our villages are unhealthier still, hardly fit to live in. The need for planning in every department is truly desperate, but in none it is more so than in the matter of industrialisation.

9. One of the main causes of stagnation of the State is its poverty due largely to its resources being undeveloped. We have noticed in this Chapter **Causes of Industrial under development.** and the previous Chapter the vast mineral and forest resources of the State. As rightly observed by the late Honourable Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel, "It is only a question of time that these resources could be turned to the service of the country. Inadequacy of finances and lack of industrial experience have also had their crippling effect on our industrial development.

10. In Chapter IV, we have already pointed out how agriculture forms almost the sole occupation of the people of Rajasthan. A main cause of the disastrous consequences of famines and one of the greatest difficulties in the way of providing relief in an effectual shape, is to be found in the fact that the great mass of the people directly depend on agriculture, and that there is no other industry from which any considerable part of the population derives its support. The failure of the usual rains thus deprives the labouring class, as a whole not only of the ordinary supplies of food obtainable at prices within their reach but also of the sole employment by which they can earn the means of procuring it. The complete remedy for this condition of things will be found only in the development of industries other than agriculture and independent of the fluctuations of the seasons. The nature of unemployment and under-employment amongst our agricultural masses has been brought out in the previous Chapter while the recent continuous growth of our population and the huge addition made every decade to our number have been pointed out in Chapter I. These facts underline the great necessity of industrial development in our State. The occupational distribution of our population is unbalanced as 71 per cent. of the population depends on agriculture.

11. Placed against the magnitude of our reproductive performance our economic achievement appears unimpressive. We are one of the poorest peoples on the globe, threatened by an influx of new lives on a vast scale leading to small per capita income. Since income per capita in a community is an expression of the relationship between its total number and its aggregate income, low average earnings can result only from a failure of the latter to keep pace with the former; the factors that help to augment the national dividend must not be as powerfully operative as those which stimulate or facilitate the growth of number.

12. The first factor that influences the national dividend of a country is the size of its working population for though the whole population enjoys the fruits of national production, it is only a section, those in the working ages, that is responsible for its creation. We shall assume the working age of our population to be from 15 to 54. Besides men, we have a large number of women engaged in production. In 1951, there were 462 women for every 1,000 men classified as self-supporting and working dependants. This proportion was determined by two sets of forces working in opposite directions. On the one hand marriage is universal and early in our country, and the natural effect of early and universal marriage is to withdraw many women from the field of economic employment. On the other hand income per family is low, and a good proportion of our women folk engage in productive work to eke out the meagre earnings of male workers. However, the largest section of our women workers employed in agriculture, and working on the farm, specially the family farm, can be adjusted without difficulty to the exercise of the reproductive function. However, though women workers were nearly half as numerous as male workers, their aggregate contribution to national income is probably very much less. In the first place, in 1951 about 10 out of every 19 women workers were classed as earning dependants. Secondly, in occupations in which both men and women were employed, the earnings of women workers were much lower than those of men. Finally, there was a great preponderance of men in the more lucrative avenues of employment. We should bear these facts in mind when we consider the size of our working population as one of the factors that govern the size of our national dividend.

13. 40 per cent. of our aggregate population in 1951 was enumerated as self-supporting persons and earning dependants. To take males, only, in Rajasthan males in ages 15 to 54 were 57 per cent. of the total male population. We are thus handicapped by the age composition of our people; our productive section forms a smaller part of the total population which it has to support. Equally significant is its distribution by age within the working period. Out of every 1,000 males born in our country, 606 survive to enter the working age at 15. But by age 55 only 81 are still living. Thus as a result of the structure of our specific death rates, the average person who reaches the age 15 can expect to get only 30 years of working life out of a theoretical maximum of 40. We have thus a smaller proportion of persons in the working age and a shorter period of working life available to each person who reaches that age.

14. The second factor that determines national income can be broadly described as the effectiveness of productive effort in the community. But since the return to effort differs from occupation to occupation, the level of income per head of all workers depends as much on the distribution of workers among different occupations as on output per worker in each occupation. We shall consider these aspects of our economy, one after the other.

15. The various occupations which people in this country pursue have been divided into two broad groups:

(1) Agricultural and (2) Non-Agricultural.

The occupational distribution of our workers differs greatly from that of the other countries, we have a high proportion of workers in agriculture and a small fraction in industry. Now this should be of no consequence, if farming were as remunerative as other occupations. In fact, however, in almost all countries income per worker is lower in agriculture than in industry or trade and transport, a rule to which our State is no exception.

16. Given these differences in earnings from agriculture and other occupations, we with a high proportion of workers in agriculture, must put up with a low income per head, and this occupational congestion, whatever its remedy, has its origin in the failure of our economy to adjust itself to the rapid growth of our number. In the first place, our agricultural community has expanded mainly by internal growth, though the decay of rural industries has made some contribution. Secondly, farming in these States has not been subject to any revolutionary change in technique, which reduces the demand for farm labour. It follows today the same technique that it has done for hundreds of years, so that the size of the agricultural community has been determined mainly by the food requirement of a growing population.

17. A similar argument applies to the mass of our industrially engaged population. We have in this country two industrial systems: the one dominated by large-scale organized industries carried on in factories and workshops and the other made up of innumerable cottage and small industries located in villages and towns. Although accurate statistics are not available yet it will not be unsafe to estimate that 90% of our total industrial population is engaged in cottage and small industries and only 10% in large establishments, so that the earnings of the former greatly influences the income of the average industrial worker in the economy as a whole, and there are evidences to show that, in general, the earnings of the cottage worker are much lower than those of the factory employee. The factory employee earns nearly twice as much as the worker in cottage and small industries. We have again a relative over-population in cottage and small industries with more or less the same historical explanation as in the case of agriculture. We have grown faster than the speed with which the structure of our economy has changed.

18. The first problem connected with our population is, therefore, its occupational mal-distribution; income per head of all workers (and per head of population) is low, because there are too many people in avenues of employment in which the return per worker is lower than elsewhere. This is, in part, a logically separate problem from that of the absolutely low productivity of workers in all occupations, and we may continue to be a poor people even after the proportion of men and women engaged in industry and trade and transport has increased at



the expense of agriculture and allied occupations. It is, therefore, necessary for us to investigate the causes of our all-round ineffectiveness. We shall discuss this question only in so far as the factor of population bears on it. There are other causes, but we shall concern ourselves with them only to the extent that they influence or are influenced by the size of our population.

19. Let us take up the output of the industrial worker first. In general, our factory worker produces less per unit of time than the worker in the West or in Japan. This is, in part, due to the quality of the worker; our worker is poorer in physique and skill, and less adjusted to work in factories than his counterpart elsewhere. But another part of the explanation lies embedded in the character of our industrial structure and the stage of our industrial development, which are influenced by the fiscal policy of the State and the composition of our economic resources human and material. Until recently Free Trade and *Laissez Faire* seriously circumscribed for us the opportunity for economic experiment. But within the limitations imposed by fiscal policy, our industrial growth and structure have been determined by the relative supplies of different factors of production. An industry is, after all, a way of producing certain goods or services, and those industries naturally come into existence and flourish in a country which the conditions of cost, governed by the relative supplies of different agents of production, favour. We have in these States an abundant supply of unskilled labour; to-day our factories can recruit all the labour they want at their gates. We also possess various natural resources that are large both absolutely and in relation to the stage of our industrial development. On the other hand, our natural resources are not copious relatively to the size of our population and, contrary to popular belief, our industrial potential appears to be much less than that of the other industrially advanced countries. We have, again, a limited supply of capital available for industry; a good proportion of our domestic capital is employed in trade and finance. Finally, with wide-spread illiteracy we suffer from a short supply of skilled labour.

20. These facts give shape to our industrial structure and determine the output of our industrial worker. In the first place, the growth of large-scale organized industries is still extremely limited in these States. Secondly even the so called large establishments are often incompletely 'factorized' and output per worker in such organisations is, in most cases, lower than in full fledged factories. We have, thirdly, in our industrial system a preponderance of consumer goods industries, in which capital per worker and the degree of skill required are both low. Indeed it would be unusual for industries in a country like ours to be as highly capitalized as corresponding American industries. The explanation lies in the abundant supply of labour that we possess and the relatively small quantity of our capital resources. The low amount of capital employed per labourer reduces out-put per head and lowers national income, and the low wage, in its turn, reduces the efficiency of the worker, and discourages the employment of capitalistic processes.

21. More important than factories and large establishments as fields of employment in our State are cottage and small industries which engage more than 90 per cent. of our industrial labour. But out-put per head is low in these industries, and the average cottage worker enjoys a standard of life even lower than that of the average farmer. Our handicrafts suffer from low physical efficiency and low demand for their products. In the first place many of them are badly equipped, working with primitive tools and instruments, and though the personal skill of the worker, inherited from the past, is often of a high order, it is hardly sufficient to offset the handicap which other factors impose. Consequently output per worker is small, and even a full time artisan turns out much less value in a unit of time than the average worker in a factory producing competitive goods. That cottage industries survive in the face of competition from mills or factories may not then be due so much to their efficiency as to the fact that craftsmen must, in the circumstances of the economy they belong to, accept low rewards for their services.

22. Secondly, the type of product turned out by cottage industries and the prices at which they are sold are governed by the taste and the level of income of the purchasers whose wants they satisfy. Historically cottage industries are relics of a simple but integrated economy in



which the prosperity of the rural artisan depended upon that of the farming community. That economy is disintegrating, and its parts are being reintegrated into a new pattern in which factories replaced cottage industries more and more. The farmer finds it increasingly convenient to buy the products of mills and factories rather than of the village loom or the village smithy. But as output per head is much higher in the former than in the latter, for each worker that finds employment in a factory several workers in cottage industries lose their jobs and swarm into agriculture. The progress of organized industries inevitably reduces the value of the products of rural industry, depresses the income of the cottage worker and pushes him towards farming. •

23. But farming in our country is not a prosperous enterprise either. This low productivity of our agriculture is connected with the size of our population. Output per worker in farming depends upon a variety of factors: the amount and quality of other agents of production, *viz.*, land and capital, that are used conjointly with labour, the technique of cultivation, the enterprise of the producer, and finally, character of farming itself, *i.e.*, the proportion of live-stock to arable culture and the combination crops produced. Probably, the most important of these determinants of agricultural productivity is the man-land ratio, the amount of cultivated land per worker. In Rajasthan there were 10.59 million workers in agriculture, comprising cultivating owners, tenant cultivators, and agricultural labourers, while the total amount of land available for cultivation was estimated at 31.8 million acres, so that the amount of land per worker was nearly 3 acres. This is an average for a vast area over which conditions differ from division to division. In most areas more than 25 per cent. of all farms were less than 3 acres each, and a smaller, but still a good percentage, less than one acre as in Jaisalmer District. Obviously, the amount of land per worker is too low to employ him adequately so that output per head would be small, even if the land were highly productive, and however high the output per head, a good proportion of farm workers must be under-employed.

24. But output per acre is also not high in this country. Our yields are sometimes as low as 40 per cent. of those of other countries. The major explanation lies in the circumstances which compel the farmer to use primitive technique rather than in the skill and enterprise with which he applies it. The poor yield of our farms is, in the next place the result of low capital investment. Investment of capital by the farmer himself is, extremely small, the chief reasons being the poverty of his own resources and the high price at which alone he can borrow them from others. The amount of land possessed by him is so small and the yield from it so meagre, that he has no surplus left for investment in land, after he has met the consumption needs of his family and the requirement of his farm for working capital.

25. The facts discussed in this Chapter and in the previous ones lead us to conclude that perhaps never in our history we were classed upon to face a situation of the type which confronts us now, when our population is increasing at such a pace that we have so far failed to secure adequate means of livelihood for our people. Our food resources in the country have fallen short of our requirements and we are increasingly depending on outside help to feed our people, a large proportion of whom are under-fed and under-nourished. Our State is well-known for being a deficit area. With the increasing population the figures of unemployment and under-employment tend to swell still further in our unbalanced economy. Our Directive Principles of State Policy, as laid down in articles 36 to 51 of our Constitution, are lofty. They aim at securing for each citizen the right to adequate means of livelihood. If these aims are to be achieved our people have to be taken into confidence and convinced of the dangers ahead, so that as a nation we resolve and work with a determination to achieve our objective realising that ours is a race against time. If we fail to appreciate the urgency of the problem of limiting our population and of making a supreme effort to educate our people and to develop our enormous natural and industrial resources and our agriculture by rapid extension of irrigation and intensive cultivation on up-to-date lines, we would not only fail to achieve our ideals but might, on the other hand, invite on ourselves a calamity of unprecedented nature and magnitude.

### Conclusion.

## CHAPTER VI.

### FAMILIES, SEXES AND PRINCIPAL AGE GROUPS.

#### SECTION I.

##### Preliminary Remarks.

In this Chapter we shall review the statistics collected about houses and households, sex-ratios and distribution of the population under principal age-groups.

2. Just as there has been ambiguity in the use of the terms "town" and "village" in the past census records, in the same way obscurity surrounds the terms "house" and "family". In 1901, the definition of a House adopted in villages and small towns was "the dwelling place of one or more families and their resident servants and dependants, having a separate principal entrance from the common way, space or compound". In 1911, a house was defined as being, in rural areas, "the building, or buildings, or part of a building, or hut, occupied as a dwelling place by one commensal family." A commensal family was defined as a group of persons (including their resident dependants and servants) who live together and use the same cooking place, (ek hi chulhe ka paka khate hain). This definition was modified by a few exceptions, so slight, however, as not to affect the general application of it. Both in 1901 and 1911, the definition in rural areas was based more on the social unit than the structural, in 1911 the common cooking place or Chulha displaced "the separate principal entrance from the common way." In towns in 1911, the definition adopted offered two alternatives, "in Municipalities a house was defined as any building separately assessed to Municipal taxation". But where the definition was found impracticable, and in towns which were not municipalities, the old definition of 1901 in villages and small towns (see supra) was allowed. This latter one was universally followed. Sub-numbers, however, were affixed to the room or set of rooms occupied by a commensal family, and, as the census staff and the abstraction offices were instructed to treat these sub-numbers in the enumeration books as separate houses, the definition of a house in urban areas approximated very nearly to that in villages and was practically equivalent to the commensal family. In 1921 and 1931, the definition of "house" adopted was the same as in 1911.

3. In 1941, both in rural and in urban areas the structural basis gave place to the social one. "The house was defined as the dwelling place of one or more persons, or a place which, if unoccupied, is capable of being used as a dwelling place for human beings, having a separate principal entrance from the common way, compound, enclosure, etc.". "The 'Family' was defined to mean a group of persons who ordinarily reside together and use the same Chulha (ek hi chulhe ka paka khate hain); it includes also those persons who, though not using the same chulha, nevertheless ordinarily reside together; but it excludes those who may take food together and yet reside at different places".

Notes:—(i) "One who ordinarily resides" means one who is using or intends to use a house or a room for sleeping purposes for a period of about 3 months or more. An example of the definition given for the family is as follows:—

"My servant takes food at his father's house, but lives at my house and sleeps at my house. He should be enumerated at my house".

4. To overcome practical difficulties, during the 1951 Census of Rajasthan and Ajmer, therefore, the following instructions were issued to the enumerators to identify houses and families. "A house means a building which has a separate main entrance from the common way, space or compound. The minimum that was necessary for entitling a place to be treated as a house for census purposes was at least two walls made of any material and a roof made of any material. Thus shops, temples, mosques, offices, etc., also came within the definition of a house. The term "occupied house" was, therefore, made use of to denote a house used as the residence of any human being. By residence was meant sleeping and dining. In the tabulation stage, no separate tabulation was done for houses which were not occupied houses. In all reports and tables, therefore, the word "House" wherever it occurs, signifies, an "Occupied house" i.e. to say, the dwelling place of one or more 'households or families'. A 'family' or a 'household' consists of persons who are in the habit of living and messing together, and includes their resident dependants and resident servants. One person who habitually lives and messes alone may with his resident servants, if any, constitute a 'Household' or 'family'. Thus a census family is quite distinct from a biological family. Even the nearest relatives e.g., husband and wife or a son and a father were treated as separate households if they happened to live and dine separately from each other; on the contrary persons with no blood relations e.g. servants etc. were treated as members of their master's households if they lived and dined at the master's kitchen. In Hostels and *Sarais* each room, or suite of rooms, allotted to a different traveller or family was treated as a separate house, and in the case of bungalows and houses on the premises of which servants reside, each room or quarter in a row of servant's quarters, was treated as a separate house. Similarly, in coolie lines, chawls etc., each tenement was given a separate number and treated as a separate house". These definitions are essentially the same as those adopted at the previous Census, 1941, in these States.

5. For recording the age the instruction to the enumerator in 1951 was to record the age at the last birth day or the age in completed years. In case of children below one year he was to write '0.' In 1941 also the instructions were to enter the age in completed years, on the first day of March, 1941, but in the case of infants, less than one year old, '0' for years and the number of months, were to be written thus, 0/3. In 1931, the age of each person to the nearest birth-day was to be entered. The age of infants under six months old was entered as zero.

6. The figures relating to houses and households are fairly reliable. Some confusion was noticed in some tracts where the enumerator had treated places used as godowns or store houses or for keeping cattle as occupied houses. Such mistakes were easily detected and corrected at the tabulation stage with the help of the National Registers. But the age returns are the most un-reliable of all census returns. This fact has been mentioned at great length in all previous reports and need not be repeated here. All that is necessary to mention here is that the ordinary educated person in these States has very vague ideas about his own age. The uneducated one has practically no ideas at all. And a man who does not know his own age is unlikely to know the ages of other people. The head of the house who answered the enumerators, questions not only for himself but also for his family, might have some idea of the age of his sons, especially if these attended school or had entered or hoped to enter Government service; he would have less idea of the age of his daughters; very little of that of his wife, which he had never accurately known, and practically none of that of the mother's-in-law and paternal aunts who happened to be quartered upon him. Enumerators were instructed to record the age as stated, if the statement appeared reasonable, otherwise to endeavour to fix it by questions with reference to well-remembered events such as famines; failing to obtain a clue on these lines, to estimate it as best they could and enter accordingly. It is obvious that while a man may well remember that he had just begun to follow the plough in the year of the great

Accuracy of the returns

famine, he cannot call up similar memories vicariously for his uncle or his grand-mother. Again, if the head of the house has no clear recollection of past events, the enumerator has the man before him and at any rate the materials for an estimate. The uncle is not before him, but is probably well-known to him; a sbrewd guess should be possible in this case also. The grand-mother he is unlikely to have noticed, and if she happens to be in *parda*, he has never even seen her. The age recorded in this case may well miss the mark by decades.

7. Age statistics, therefore, obtained under the conditions described, must be expected to be inaccurate throughout, but more accurate for men than for women and for the young than for the old; and to be characterised by much piling up the figures at the age 0-1, at the multiples of 10 and 5 (especially in the case of women), and to a certain extent at numbers ending in 2.

8. The factors making for inaccuracy have however, been constant at each census, and the statistics are, therefore, comparable with those of previous decades; and they approximate to the truth sufficiently to enable inferences to be drawn from them in regard to well-defined periods of life, such as infancy, the early married life of women, the reproductive ages, and senility.

9. One special feature of the present census which reduces the reliability of the figures is that the tabulation of the age returns has been done from ten per cent. sample slips only. The behaviour of the sample is another matter which requires to be guarded against.

10. The Main Table A-I and the tables of the C series, ( C.-I. to C.-V. ) prepared during the 1951 Census will be found in Part II-A of the Census Report. Subsidiary Tables of the 6th series, given in Part I-B of the Report, form the basis of the review contained in this Chapter. Subsidiary Table 6·1 gives the number of persons per 1,000 houses and households per 100 square miles in the State, and the different Districts. Subsidiary Table 6·15 gives the number of occupied houses and number of persons per house in each ward of the cities in the State. Subsidiary Table 6·2 gives the number of households per 1,000 houses and distribution by size of 1,000 sample households of rural and urban population. The method of selecting the sample households is explained in the fly leaf to Main Table C-I ( Household size and composition ) given in Part II-A of the Census Report. Subsidiary Table 6·3 gives the family composition of 1,000 households of the general population, while Subsidiary Tables 6·4 to 6·6 give the statistics of sex ratio of the general, rural and urban population as well as in the agricultural and non-agricultural classes and sub-classes. Subsidiary Tables 6·7 and 6·8 contain the figures of marital status and age distribution of married persons. Subsidiary Tables 6·8 ( a ) and 6·8 ( b ) give information about the unmarried and the widowed, including divorced persons, in the same way as the Subsidiary Table 6·8 does for the married ones. Subsidiary Tables 6·9 to 6·14 deal with the proportion of infants (aged below one year), young children (aged 1-4 years), boys and girls (aged 5-14 years), young men and women (aged 15-34 years), middle aged persons (aged 35-54 years), and elderly persons (aged 55 and over), in the general population. Subsidiary Table 6·16 gives the females per 1,000 males among the sub-classes of all Agricultural and Non-agricultural classes combined.

11. A Census Abstract of sample households, prepared on the basis of one in one thousand households as a sample for each village, containing the household population, family structure, infants and adults in households and married and unmarried persons in the households, has also been compiled and preserved in the bound manuscript volumes for each census tract for such detailed study as might be necessary in future. The method of selecting the sample has been given in its preface.

12. Comparative figures of the previous censuses have been given in the Subsidiary Table 6·1 and 6·4 only, in which adjustments due to territorial changes have been made. Details of the changes in the territories of the State from time to time, are given in the Fly-leaf to Main Table A-II, (Variation in population during 50 years), contained in Part II-A of the

Census Report, as also those in the formation of the districts. The comparison was, therefore, not practicable in the remaining tables. Certain characteristics of the households have been compiled for the first time at the present Census. These are given in Main Table C-I, household (size and composition), given in Part II-A of the Census Report and in the Subsidiary Tables 6·2 and 6·3 given in Part I-B. The sex ratio statistics furnished in Subsidiary Table 6·4 are based on the duly adjusted population as mentioned above and the statistics are fully comparable with those of 1921 and 1941 Censuses. The sex-ratios given in Subsidiary Tables 6·5 and 6·6 are based on the occupational statistics collected at the 1951 Census and these figures are not comparable with the figures given in the previous Census Reports on account of the extensive changes made in the economic classification of the people during 1951 Census as already explained in the previous Chapters.

## SECTION 2.

### Territorial distribution of Houses and Households.

1. The territorial distribution of houses, as given in Subsidiary Table 6·1 in Part I-B of the Report, shows that the number of houses in this State has increased from 2,293,724 in 1941 to 2,496,345 in 1951, *i. e.*, by 8·8 per cent. only as against the increase of 14·9 per cent. in the population. The present definition of a house as meaning a dwelling with a separate entrance took precise shape in 1931, but it is rather doubtful whether that definition was in fact enforced so strictly at the Censuses of 1931 and 1941 as at the 1951 Census. This can account only for a part of the increase, and the major portion of the increase undoubtedly reflects the growing congestion regarding housing accommodation.

2. Columns (38) to (41) of Subsidiary Table 6·1 give the number of houses per 100 sq. miles as ascertained at the various censuses from 1921 to 1951. The figures for each district depend of course upon its area and the number of houses. The small decrease between 1941 and 1951 shown by the figures of Bharatpur, Sikar and Kotah Districts cannot be taken at its face value; it is probably due to the difference in the enforcement of the definition of a house at the two censuses. The general picture presented by the State figures, *viz.*, the increase from 1921 to 1951 is undoubtedly a correct one. The increase in the number of houses per 100 sq. miles compares as follows with the increase in population.

TABLE No. 298.

Increase in the number of houses per 100 sq. miles compared with the increase in population.

State	1921-31		1931-41		1941-51	
	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)
Rajasthan State	.. +14·7	+ 5·11	+17·2	- 3·7	+14·5	+8·8
Ajmer State	.. +18·6	+ 4·3	+15·2	- 1·9	+18·9	+9·73

Note:—(a) = Percentage increase in population per 100 sq. miles.

(b) = Percentage increase in house per 100 sq. miles.

The figures bring out forcibly how far house building has lagged behind the growth of population in all decades. This position is due to the suspension of building activities during World War II and the shortage of building materials, particularly Iron and Cement, and the high cost of even timber and bricks and also labour during the post-war period.

3. The following Table gives the comparative figures for some States in India:—

TABLE No. 299.

Increase in the number of houses per 100 sq. miles compared with the increase in population with some other States.

State	1921-31		1931-41		1941-51	
	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)
Rajasthan ..	+14.7	+ 5.11	+17.2	- 3.7	+14.5	+ 8.8
Ajmer ..	+18.6	+ 4.3	+15.2	- 1.9	+18.9	+ 9.7
Travancore-Cochin	+26.4	+12.1	+18.8	+11.7	+23.8	+15.9
Uttar-Pradesh ..	+ 6.5	+ 2.1	+13.5	+ 7.5	+11.8	+10.8
Orissa ..	+11.8	+ 9.6	+10.1	+ 9.2	+ 6.6	+ 4.2
Vindhya-Pradesh ..	+ 9.6	- 0.12	+13.5	+10.8	+ 5.6	+11.0

The figures show that nearly all the States follow the pattern of Rajasthan.

4. Among the districts also we find the same position except in Jhunjhunu, as will be seen from columns 10 to 13 of the Subsidiary Table 6.1 mentioned above. In the Jhunjhunu District it seems that the number of houses is also increasing with the increase of population because it is the abode of well-known Marwari Seths with business all over India. They can afford to build houses and at the same time they migrate with their families, domestic servants and relatives who are concerned in their commercial activities. Thus the number of persons per house does not increase here to a great extent.

5. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division the district which has the highest number of houses per 100 sq. miles is Bharatpur (4,228). Tonk District has the lowest number (1,788) only. In the Dry Area Division, Pali District has the highest number of houses per 100 sq. miles namely, 2,734 while Jaisalmer has the lowest number (130). In the Hills Division Dungarpur District has the highest number (4,090) and Udaipur District has the lowest number (3,011). In the Plateau Division Chittorgarh District has the highest number (3,083) and Bundi has the lowest (2,227). In the State as a whole, as we have seen, Bharatpur has the highest number and the Jaisalmer District has the lowest.

6. The Table No. 300 below shows the number of persons per thousand houses as ascertained at each of the Censuses 1921 to 1951 in Rajasthan and Persons per 1,000 houses Ajmer States and each Natural Division.

TABLE No. 300.

Variation in the congestion in houses in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions since 1921.

State and Natural Division	Persons per 1,000 houses in general population in			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
Rajasthan State ..	4,354	4,726	5,801	6,125
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	4,340	4,726	6,243	6,834
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	4,358	4,819	5,587	5,717
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	4,515	4,778	4,913	5,395
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	4,463	4,481	5,552	5,916
Ajmer State ..	4,225	4,593	6,436	6,918



The figures show that both in Rajasthan and in Ajmer, the congestion in houses increased during the last 30 years by nearly 50 per cent. In Rajasthan, the number of persons per house in 1921 was 4.3. It rose to 6.1 in 1951, with a sharp increase between 1931 and 1941, except that in the Hills Division, the congestion increased at a greater pace between 1941 and 1951 than between 1931 and 1941. The increase has been the most significant in Ajmer where the number of persons per house increased from 4.2 to 6.9 persons per house or nearly 64 per cent. in 30 years as against 50 per cent. in Rajasthan.

7. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the increase has been the most marked in the East Rajasthan Plain Division from 4.3 in 1921 to 6.8 in 1951 or 2.5 persons per house. It is the least in the Hills Division, from 4.5 to 5.3 or by 0.8 persons. In the Dry Area Division and the Plateau Division the position is more or less similar, as we see that in the Dry Area Division the increase has been from 4.3 to 5.7 *i.e.*, 1.4 persons per house and in the Plateau Division from 4.4 to 5.9 or 1.5 persons per house. The number of persons per house in 1951 is the largest, as one would expect to find, in the East Rajasthan Plain Division being 6.8. Rajasthan Plateau Division comes second with 5.9, Rajasthan Dry Area Division coming third with 5.7, while the Rajasthan Hills Division has 5.4 persons per house. As we have no standard size for a house, the variation in these figures indicate largely the variations, in the size of the family. There is no doubt, however, about the growing congestion in housing accommodation as already mentioned. It can be stated confidently that provision of housing accommodation has not kept pace with the growth in population. A steady and abnormal increase in persons per house confirms the conclusion arrived at in Chapter II Section 2, that no new villages are being founded and even in the existing villages new residential houses are not constructed at the same ratio as that of the growth of population. The explanation of the increase in congestion at a more rapid pace in the decade 1931-41 can be found in the fact that in the decade 1931-41, the people were financially not so well-off as in the next decade 1941-51; because it was in the latter decade that the rise in the prices of agricultural products improved the financial position of the agricultural classes. The more rapid increase of congestion in Ajmer State is due to the rapid growth of population in Ajmer City and Beawar Town.

8. Coming to the District level we find that the district in which the percentage of the increase of this congestion (number of persons per 1,000 houses) is the highest is Jaipur, where the increase has been 72.1 per cent. in the last 30 years. Districts Sikar and Alwar come next with the percentage of 67.5 and 60.4 respectively. In Jaisalmer District the congestion has increased by the least percentage (29.06 only). The highest congestion at present (in the Census 1951) is visible, in the Sikar District, where the number of persons per thousand houses in the general population is 7,836, as shown in Subsidiary Table 6.1. It is the least in the Sirohi District (4,645). In the East Rajasthan Plain Division the district which has the highest number of persons per 1,000 houses is Sikar (7,836) and the lowest number is found in Sawai Madhopur (6,019). In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division the number is highest in Churu (6,595) and the lowest in Jaisalmer (4,946). In the Hills Division it is the highest in the Udaipur District (5,686) and the lowest in Sirohi (4,645). In the Rajasthan Plateau Division Jhalawar has the highest figures (6,081) and Kotah the lowest (5,858).

9. The figures for the rural areas corresponding to those given above for the general Congestion in Rural population are given in the Table No. 301 below:—  
Houses.

TABLE No. 301.

Variation in the congestion in rural houses in Rajasthan and Ajmer States since 1921.

State.	Persons per 1,000 houses in rural population in			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
Rajasthan State.	4,399	4,640	5,805	6,016
Ajmer State.	4,211	4,502	5,859	5,782



The figures show the same trend as those of general population. In the rural areas, we naturally find less congestion than in the State as a whole, but only slightly less, thus confirming the view that the standard of housing is poorer in rural areas and that there is congestion in those areas also.

10. In Ajmer, there has been an actual decrease in the number of persons per house between 1941 and 1951. This decrease is very slight. The explanation is to be found in the appreciable emigration from the rural areas to urban areas that has taken place in the State and to which reference has been made already.

11. Due to the non-availability of the figures for Natural Divisions for the past censuses a comparison of the variation in the congestion in rural houses in the various Natural Divisions from decade to decade cannot be attempted. But it will not be uninteresting to review their present position and compare it with each other. The Table No. 302 gives the figures.

TABLE No. 302.

Congestion in rural houses in the Natural Divisions.

Natural Division	Persons per 1,000 rural houses.
East Rajasthan Plain Division	6,813
Rajasthan Dry area Division	5,567
Rajasthan Hills Division	5,295
Rajasthan Plateau Division	5,776

The figures show that the congestion is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division where 6,813 persons live in 1,000 rural houses. Next to it in Rajasthan Plateau Division where the number of persons per 1,000 houses is 5,776. Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands third where the number is 5,567 and Rajasthan Hills Division stands last 5,295.

12. Coming to the district level, we find from Subsidiary Table 6.1 that the Districts with the highest congestion in rural houses are Jhunjhunu, Sikar and Alwar, where the number of persons per 1,000 rural houses is 8,035, 7,960 and 7,071 respectively. The lowest congestion is found in Sirahi, Jaisalmer and Dungarpur Districts, where the number is 4,636, 4,938 and 5,164 respectively.

13. The corresponding urban figures are given in the Table No. 303 below:—

Congestion in Houses in Urban Areas.

TABLE No. 303.

Variation in the congestion in urban houses in Rajasthan and Ajmer since 1921.

State.	Persons per 1,000 houses in urban population in			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
Rajasthan State	4,083	5,048	5,779	6,706
Ajmer State	4,248	4,770	7,755	9,579

There is an unmistakably sharp increase in the number of persons per house in the urban areas between 1941 and 1951, specially in Ajmer State. Though new houses have sprung up in many of the towns, the increase has not by any means kept pace with the increase in the population. The problem of housing in the urban areas has been aggravated by the large influx just referred to and has yet to be solved satisfactorily.

TABLE No. 304.

Congestion in urban houses in Natural Divisions  
Natural Division. Persons per 1,000  
Urban houses.

East Rajasthan Plain Division	6,930
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	6,416
Rajasthan Hills Division.	6,447
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	6,950

14. The congestion in urban houses in 1951 in the Natural Divisions can be seen in the inset Table No. 304.

The highest congestion is seen in Rajasthan Plateau Division, next to it in East Rajasthan Plain Division. Rajasthan Hills Division stands third and Rajasthan Dry Area Division last in this respect.

15. Next to Jaipur District (9,289) Jodhpur District has got the largest number of persons per 1,000 houses in urban areas (8,279). Then comes Kotah District with 7,782, next to it is Udaipur District with 7,645, followed by Churu with 7,169 and Ganganagar close behind with 7,067. The Jodhpur figure is, of course, largely due to the congestion in Jodhpur City. None of the other figures really call for any special comments. The greater congestion is seen in districts which have cities or big towns. Jalore District has the lowest number of persons per 1,000 houses in the urban areas (3,789).

16. In the above figures, the houseless persons have been treated as part of the population. Such persons are found in some numbers in all the large towns. The numbers of the houseless persons in the State as a whole, and in each of the districts are given on the fly leaf of the Main Table A.-I given in Part II-A of the Report.

17. The rapid increase in the population of the towns is obviously the cause of the increased congestion, as housing accommodation is not keeping pace with the increase in the population. This is, however, not so in the villages to the same extent where, as will be seen from the columns 6 to 9 of the Subsidiary Table 6.1. The congestion has increased during the last 30 years at a less rapid pace in most of the districts. Rural houses at many places are huts or even mere sheds and the statistics have not so much significance. As regards the urban areas the housing statistics have a greater value, as they show the pace at which congestion is increasing in the urban areas. The difference between the rural and urban areas in this respect also throws some light on the comparative financial conditions of the rural and urban population. Naturally one would expect the urban people to be financially better off than their brethren in the rural areas and therefore, in a better position to build houses. But the fact is the reverse. It is the rural people who have improved their financial position, due to increased prices of agricultural and forest products, and are thus in a position to build more houses, according to their standard no doubt, as their numbers increase. The urban people are finding it difficult in these days of high prices even to make both ends meet, not to speak of saving some money for the construction of houses. Moreover, the increase in the urban population is due mostly to semi-permanent migrants who have not so much interest in constructing houses in their new abodes where they have come only for a particular aim of getting some job, and which they wish to leave for their rural homes as soon as they can. They therefore, prefer to endure the hardship of living in a congested condition.

18. Subsidiary Table 6.15 given in Part I-B of the Report shows the ward-wise distribution of occupied houses and average number of persons per house in the cities of Rajasthan and Ajmer. A look at the figures of Jaipur City and Ajmer City alone, will give us an idea about the congestion in the cities of Rajasthan and Ajmer States. It will be observed that in Jaipur City, excepting the Wards Nos. 2, 3 and 6 the distribution is fairly uniform from 8 to 13 persons per house only. The average number of persons per house in Jaipur City comes to 12 in 1951 Census. Wards Nos. 2, 3 and 6 are highly congested where the number of persons per house comes to (17), (21) and (23) respectively.

19. Ajmer City is rather less congested than Jaipur, the average number of persons per house being nearly 10. Among the congested wards, may be mentioned the Wards Nos. 1, 2, 9, 12, 14, 15, 17 and 31 where the average number of persons per house varies from 15 to 21.

20. The following Table No. 305 shows the comparative position of the cities in Rajasthan and Ajmer from decade to decade:

TABLE No. 305.

Variation in the congestion in cities from decade to decade.

Name of the City.	Persons per 1,000 houses in			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
-Jaipur City.	4,420	5,372	6,271	12,046
Alwar City.	3,769	5,565	6,291	6,870
Bikaner City.	..	3,775	5,588	6,256
-Jodhpur City.	3,766	4,581	6,134	9,694
Udaipur City.	3,641	4,388	5,697	8,912
Kotah City.	3,160	5,757	6,845	10,831
Ajmer City.	4,419	5,079	8,123	9,723

The figures show a steady increase in congestion in each city since 1921. The increase has been most marked in Kotah City, where the number of persons per 1,000 houses increased from 3,160 in 1921 to 10,831 in 1951 or more than three times. Even in Jaipur City the increase has not been so significant. It shows the construction of comparatively more houses in Jaipur than in Kotah to meet the requirements of the growing population. Kotah is thus more congested even than Ajmer and Jodhpur. In fact in Rajasthan it is next to Jaipur only in this respect having nearly 11 persons per house as compared with 12 in Jaipur. In almost all cities the increase has been very rapid in the last decade more particularly in Jaipur City, where the congestion has nearly doubled in 10 years. The high congestion in Jaipur City as a whole and in particular Wards Nos. 2, 3 and 6 signifies the pressing necessity of the construction of new houses to provide satisfactory living conditions for the existing population and also for the growing numbers which are expected to grow much faster in the next decade if other circumstances remain the same.

21. A full idea about the congestion in houses in each ward of each town can be had from a study of the Primary Census Abstract, given in the District Census Handbook, of each district, in which the population as well as the number of houses in each ward, are given for every town in each district. It will be noticed that on an average the towns of the Bharatpur and Sawai Madhopur Districts in the Rajasthan Plain Division, those of Ganganagar, Nagaur and Pali in Rajasthan Dry Area Division, and Udaipur and Kotah in the Hills and Plateau Divisions respectively have more crowded houses than those in other districts of the State.

## SECTION 3.

## Size and Composition of Family Households.

Households have been classified as small, *i.e.*, those with 3 members or less, medium (4-6 members), large (7-9 members) and very large (10 and over). A perusal of the Subsidiary Table 6·2, in Part I-B of the Report, shows that in the rural areas, the largest number of households are of the medium size, consisting of 4 to 6 members. In Rajasthan 46·1 per cent. and in Ajmer 47·5 per cent. of the total number of households in the rural areas, and in Rajasthan 40·3 per cent. and in Ajmer 41·0 per cent. of the total number of households in urban areas, are of medium size. It is interesting to observe that the percentage of the small size families of 3 members or less is high in urban areas. This may be due to the fact that, as explained in Section 4 of Chapter I the immigrants in the towns do not all come with their families and, again, ideas about family planning seem to be gradually spreading in the towns on account of economic and other reasons, as pointed out before. The number of very large families of 10 members and more is limited. Its percentage is 7·3 in Rajasthan and 1·3 in Ajmer in the urban areas and 6·1 in Rajasthan and a very insignificant proportion in Ajmer in the rural areas. The percentage of large families of 7 to 9 members is approximately the same in rural units of Rajasthan and Ajmer being 17·8 and 20 respectively. But the position is different in case of urban units where the percentage is 18·9 in Rajasthan and 14·1 in Ajmer. In considering these percentages, it is also to be observed that the total number of persons belonging to the small and medium size households is very much larger than the number belonging to the large and very large households.

2. The distribution of households under various categories in respect of the rural areas in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions is shown in the Table No. 306 below:—

**Size of family in the rural areas of Natural Divisions.**

TABLE No. 306.

Distribution of 1,000 Rural Households in families of various sizes in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Average number of persons per 1,000 households	Distribution of 1,000 households			
		Small	Medium	Large	Very large
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rajasthan State.	5,039	300	461	178	61
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	5,174	302	442	190	66
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	5,214	278	453	199	70
Rajasthan Hills Division.	4,801	304	488	159	49
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	4,714	327	485	137	51
Ajmer State.	4,250	325	475	200	..

It will be observed that the percentage of small families is highest in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (32.7) and next to it in the Rajasthan Hills Division (30.4 per cent.), while it is the lowest in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (27.8 per cent). The medium families have the highest percentage in the Rajasthan Hills Division (48.8 per cent). The percentage of the medium families in the East-Rajasthan Plain Division is about 44 while in the Rajasthan Plateau Division it is 48 and it is about 45 in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division. The percentage of large families of 7 to 9 members is, as should be expected, highest in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, *i. e.*, 19.9. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is 19.0, while in the Rajasthan Plateau Division it is lowest, 13.7 per cent. In the Rajasthan Hills Division it is 15.9. In the Ajmer State it is 20.0. The percentage of very large families is highest in the Rajasthan Dry area Division (7 per cent). In the Ganganagar District of this Division, the percentage is 10.9 while in Jodhpur it is 8.6. The smallest percentage 4.9 is to be found in the Rajasthan Hills Division and slightly higher (5.1) in the Rajasthan Plateau Division. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is 6.6 per cent. The details for districts can be seen in Subsidiary Table 6.2 in Part I-B of the report.

3. The corresponding percentage for the urban areas is given in the Table No. 307 below:—

Size of family in urban areas of Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 307.

Distribution of 1,000 urban households in families of various sizes in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Average No. of persons per 1,000 households	Distribution of 1,000 households according to size			
		Small	Medium	Large	Very large
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rajasthan State.	5,042	335	403	189	73
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	5,042	314	449	161	76
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	5,346	316	353	250	81
Rajasthan Hills Division.	5,000	394	333	182	91
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	4,136	454	364	159	23
Ajmer State.	4,077	436	410	141	13

In considering these figures, it is to be remembered that the urban areas in the Plateau and the Hills Divisions are extremely limited. The percentage of small families is shown to be highest in the urban areas of the Plateau Division (45.5). The Hills Division comes next where it is 39.4, followed by Rajasthan Dry Area Division (31.6) and the East Rajasthan Plain Division (31.4). In Ajmer it is 43.6. In the case of medium families, the highest percentage is in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (44.9) followed by the Rajasthan Plateau Division (36.4); Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands third with a percentage of 35.3 and Rajasthan Hills Division last, with 33.3 per cent. The percentage of large families is highest (25.0)

in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, followed by Rajasthan Hills Division ( 18·2 ), the East Rajasthan Plain Division ( 16·1 ) stands third and Rajasthan Plateau Division last (15·9). In Ajmer the percentage is 14·1. The percentage of very large families is highest in the Rajasthan Hills Division, 9·1, followed by the Rajasthan Dry Area Division, 8·1. the East Rajasthan Plain Division comes third with 7·6 per cent. and the Rajasthan Plateau Division last (2·3). In Ajmer the percentage is 1·3. The Statement also shows a tendency for urban areas to have a smaller percentage of medium size families and a large percentage of small size families compared with the rural areas. The details for districts can be seen in Subsidiary Table 6·2.

4. The following Table No. 308 shows the distribution of families by size in cities of Rajasthan and Ajmer. The figures show that very large families are the most prominent in Jodhpur and next to it in Jaipur City, while the small families are least in proportion in both the cities when compared with other cities.

TABLE No. 308.

Distribution of 1,000 households of various sizes in cities of Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Cities	Households of each size class per 1,000 of the total			
	Small	Medium	Large	Very Large
1	2	3	4	5
Jaipur City	352·8	490·2	78·5	78·5
Alwar „	500·0	166·7	333·3	--
Bikaner „	368·4	315·8	263·2	52·6
Jodhpur „	285·7	321·4	250·0	142·9
Udaipur „	400·0	400·0	126·7	63·3
Kotah „	692·3	153·8	153·8	--
Ajmer „	500·0	300·0	175·0	25·0

5. It would, therefore, appear that while the contrast in respect of the size of family between the urban and the rural areas of the State is very marked, as also between the different parts of the rural areas of the State, it is not so in the urban population. Though the State is more or less uniformly favouring the small and medium size families, the somewhat high figures for small families in the urban areas of the places like the Rajasthan Plateau Division and the Hills Division are associated with the nature of migration in these areas as will be seen when we discuss the sex ratios in Section 4, where it is shown how the number of females per thousand males in these urban areas is distinctly less than that in the more developed areas, indicating the temporary and permanent nature of migration. Where the migrants come alone, the number of small households is bound to be larger than the places where they have settled with their families. The large percentage of very large families in Jodhpur City, Jaipur City and the small percentage of the small size families are due to pressure of the conditions of living in a large and expensive cities like Jodhpur and Jaipur compelling people to live together to an extent they would not do in the rural areas.

6. Subsidiary Table 6·3 based on sample data shows the composition of 1,000 households of the general population. It is extracted from Main Table C-I which is based on 1/1000 sample. The heads of the households and their wives in Rajasthan constitute about 34 per cent. of the household population. The sons and daughters of the heads of the households on the other hand constitute as much as 40 per cent. while the other male relatives account for only 10·4 per cent. of the household population. This analysis would show that the heads of the families, their wives and children together constitute about 73 per cent. of the household population and the remaining 27 per cent. are all other relatives, of whom females constitute about 2/3rds of the number. This is consistent with the Indian social life where the large number of widows reside with their relatives. In Ajmer State the heads of the households and their wives constitute about 39·14 per cent. of the household population. The sons and daughters of the heads of the households on the other hand constitute as much as 40·57 per cent. while the other male relatives form only 6·35 per cent. of the household population.

7. The percentage figures of the household composition in the case of the States and the Natural Divisions are given in the following Table No. 309.

TABLE No. 309.

Composition of household population in the State and Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Number per 100 persons of household population.			
	Heads of household and their wives.	Sons and daughters of heads of households.	Male relatives	Female relatives.
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State.	33·76	39·37	10·38	16·49
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	32·36	36·94	11·97	18·73
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	32·99	42·10	9·93	14·98
Rajasthan Hills Division.	35·84	42·45	7·51	14·20
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	37·09	37·15	10·13	15·63
Ajmer State.	39·14	40·57	6·35	13·94

It is interesting to observe that the largest percentage of female relatives are to be found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division when compared with other Divisions and the percentage is lowest in the Hills Division. The explanation in case of Hills Division can be said to be comparatively low financial status of the people who cannot afford to keep many relatives with them. Another interesting inference from the above table is that the tendency of sons and daughters living with the heads of households is the greatest in the Hills Division and next to it in the Dry Area Division. In the Plain Division it is the lowest, which is a sign of modernization in which the adult children as soon as they begin to earn, establish separate families.



8. The composition of an average household as seen from the Subsidiary Table 6·3 is indicated in the Table No. 310 below:—

**Composition of Households.**

**TABLE No. 310.**

Family composition of 1,000 Households.

State and Natural Division	Average No. of persons per 1,000 households	Per 1,000 households					
		Heads of households and their wives		Sons	Daughters	Other relatives	
		Males	Females			Males	Females
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Rajasthan State	5,040	917	785	1,179	805	523	831
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	5,146	932	733	1,126	775	616	964
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	5,239	923	805	1,312	894	520	785
Rajasthan Hills Division.	4,814	883	842	1,211	832	362	684
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	4,647	905	819	1,034	692	471	724
Ajmer State.	4,136	856	763	941	737	263	576

Sons are, of course, more numerous than daughters, because the latter get married in their turn and leave their parents. The largest figure under daughters is in Rajasthan Dry Area Division indicating the later marriage of daughters and their consequent later departure from their parent's homes. In regard to the other male and female relations also, the largest figures are found in East Rajasthan Plain Division and this, of course, is due to the large family circle making up the joint families. In this Division the figures for the Jaipur District are smaller under sons and daughters and other relations confirming what has already been said, namely, that this district has large number of immigrants, who do not bring their families, or bring only some of them, leaving the rest of their families in their home districts. In Jaipur and Ajmer cities the figures for sons, daughters, other male relations and other female relations are smaller in comparison to the corresponding figures of the district. The smaller figures under sons and daughters confirm the fact that many households in the city consist of portions of families, the remaining portions of which are in their family homes in the mofussil districts, and the large figures under 'other relations' compared with the other districts are due to the compulsion even for persons who are not closely related, to stay together, owing to the hard conditions of living in the city, already referred to.

9. The average number of persons per household in the Rajasthan State as a whole is 5 and the difference from Division to Division is very insignificant, while in Ajmer State it is 4. The difference in the rural and urban population in this respect is also very insignificant as seen in the Subsidiary Table No. 6·2. In Rajasthan State as a whole the number per 1,000 households is 5,042 in urban areas and 5,039 in rural areas and in Ajmer the corresponding figures are 4,077 in urban and 4,250 in rural areas. Comparing the figures of individual cities it is interesting to note the difference as shown in the Table No. 311 below:—

TABLE No. 311.

## Family Composition in Cities.

Cities.	Number of persons per household.
Jaipur.	5.2
Alwar.	4.9
Bikaner.	4.5
Jodhpur.	5.0
Kotah.	4.5
Udaipur.	4.0
Ajmer.	4.6

Jaipur City has the highest (5.2) while the lowest is seen in Udaipur being only 4 persons per household, Jaipur is followed by Jodhpur and Alwar City closely. The position of Ajmer City is intermediate having 4.6 persons per household when compared with the cities of Rajasthan.

10. The true Mitakshra Joint-family system, in which the head of the family, "Karta", has unlimited powers and control over the income and expenditure of the family, is now on the wane. In most of the Hindu castes in Rajasthan and Ajmer, the system does still exist though not in its true sense. It is said to be non-existent amongst the Bhils, Mers, etc. There is nothing in practice which might fix a time, when a joint-family should break up. Some families continue joint for several generations, others break up as soon as the head of the family dies or even during his life-time. Young-men of modern education imbued with Western ideas of individual right, show a tendency to separate themselves during the life-time, of their father. Although they do not attempt at the division of ancestral property, yet they keep their earnings separate and do not contribute to the common fund. They become separate only as regards the commensal family. The most common cause for the breaking up of the joint-family is the dissension among females. Other causes which help in the dis-integration of such families are (1) migration: members of the family go out in search of employment and do not return; in such cases they get their shares of property; (2) Misappropriation: Where the headman of the family appropriates the property to his personal use or uses it in a way which does not benefit the family and (3) operation of Income-Tax: The joint-family is thus disintegrating owing to the exigencies of the times and the growth of individualism. Joint family of the present day is more a matter of convenience than an inviolable sacred institution. It has now to be seen, if the figures support the idea that the joint-family system is on the wane.

11. In the 1921 Census Report of the Baroda State, one of the tests laid down was that the variation in the total of married females aged 15 and over and of bachelors and widowers aged 25 and over were compared to variations in inhabited houses. Where the correspondence was close, there the joint-family system would appear to have succumbed seriously to disruptive influences. It is the combination of both these factors that leads towards breaking up of the joint establishments. Young married women who have become mothers and begun to feel the leading starings of the mother-in-law irksome in the extreme, feel inclined to set up separate houses. Similarly grown up bachelors or widowers of 25 and upwards do likewise, for it is about that age that a man irrespective of his civil conditions begins to set about earning his livelihood away from his parent home. An attempt has been made in the Table below to ascertain the position in these States on the basis of the above test. In the Census of 1951 the figures of households were also available. They are also given in the Table to facilitate comparison.

TABLE No. 312.

Proportion of married females and bachelors and widowers compared with inhabited houses and households.

Year.	Proportion of					
	Married females (15 and over) and bachelors and widowers (25 and over).		Inhabited houses in		Households	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer	Rajasthan	Ajmer	Rajasthan	Ajmer
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1921	100	100	100	100	..	..
1931	111	111	105	104	..	..
1941	120	118	101	86	..	..
1951	155	126	110	94	136	150

A comparison of the figures of married females (15 and over) and bachelors and widowers (25 and over) namely 155 with the figures of households in the 1951 Census 136 in Rajasthan gives a more clear idea of the extent to which joint family system still exists. The corresponding figures for Ajmer are 126 and 150 respectively.

12. "The salient facts about the economic position of the family are the important part that children play as a cause of poverty and the heavy financial sacrifices which parents in all but the wealthiest groups have to make in the bringing up of children. In default of counteracting conditions and measures, children are a main cause of hardship and the living standards of children as a whole tend to fall below those of the rest of the community. At all income levels except the highest, parents have to make considerable sacrifices to bring up their children. Children in larger families have a lower standard of living than those in smaller families, and even at relatively high income levels parents meet a large proportion of the cost of their children by cutting expenditure not only on luxuries but also on necessities like rent, clothing and food. Savings disappear altogether from the budgets of many families as the number of dependent children increases". "In all classes of society, except the wealthiest, married couples with young children to support are at an economic disadvantage as compared with childless couples; and parents with a family of several young children are at a disadvantage as compared with those with only one or two. In nearly every income range this disadvantage is substantial. In the poorest sections of the community it may still take the form of an insufficiency of some of the necessities of life, notably a lack of adequate house room for the members of a considerable family, and, until a few years ago at any rate, a lack of food. Even where the income is high enough to rule out any question of actual want, the support of a fair-sized family will none the less entail very large sacrifices of comforts and amenities and may make it more difficult to give the children as good a start in life as the children of small families." \*

\* Report of the Royal Commission on Population of the United Kingdom, Page 137.

## SECTION 4.

## Sex Ratio.

1. From both a national and an international point of view the sex characteristics stand foremost on the list of topics commonly investigated in the population censuses. One of the most important statistics of demography, it is nevertheless one of the simplest items to include in a census enumeration. Large differences between the number of males and females affect marriage rates, birth and death rates, the increase of population, the economic and social condition of the community and the magnitude and direction of migration. The classification of economic and other characteristics by sex is also of great significance. A larger proportion of males will imply a lower marriage rate and a higher rate of recruitment to labour force than what these will be if the sexes balanced equally. Women have generally a lower death rate. Hence, a population with a higher percentage of females will have a lower total death rate.

2. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 6·4, in Part I-B of the Report, shows that in Rajasthan the number of females per 1,000 males as ascertained in the Census of 1951 is 921 and in Ajmer 925. There is a marked paucity of females, a phenomenon quite different from that observable in the Western Countries where the females exceed the males. Various explanations have been given for this phenomenon of sex deficiency in our population. There is, a biological explanation, which is best stated in the words of their authors. According to Sedgwick, the Census Superintendent of Bombay in 1921, "The Indian Caste system, with its exogamous Gotra and endogamous Caste, is a perfect method of preserving what is called in Genetics 'Pure Line'. The endogamy prevents external hybridization, while the exogamy prevents the possibility of a fresh pure line arising within the old one by the isolation of any character not common to the whole line. Hutton, who was Census Commissioner for India in 1931, accepts this view in a modified form. He says "Whether this proposition (of Sedgwick) be entirely acceptable or not, it may be conceded that if once a caste, whether as a result of inbreeding or some totally different factor, has acquired the natural condition of having an excess of females, this condition is likely to be perpetuated as long as inbreeding is maintained". Both the explanations seem plausible, but they do not seem to have been strengthened by securing answers to some basic questions. Do castes, which have maintained purity of line more than others, actually have a higher proportion of boys to girls born than is normal in human population? To this query, there is as yet no answer, because we do not have reliable data on sex ratio at birth in our population. And it is not possible to skip over this initial hurdle and try to explain sex deficiency by reference to the ratio of females to males at ages above zero. For the genetic factor, if there is one, inherent in the caste system should show its influence on the ratio at birth rather than at later ages.

3. There is, however, a simple explanation of the phenomenon available in the relative mortality conditions of our males and females. The female death rate is lower than the male death rate in this country in all ages from 0 to 11, but for ages beyond 11, the former exceeds the latter and the margin of excess increases with the advance of years. The situation is quite contrary with European population, where in England and Wales, *e. g.*, the female death rate is lower than the male death rate, and the advantage in favour of women increases greatly at higher ages. These divergences fully explain our sex deficiency. They are, moreover, rooted in differences between the conditions of women in the two countries rather than in special sociological factors. In Western communities the deficiency of males is due to the dangers to which men are specially subject in the middle ages, while in the less advanced older countries the defect of females is in all probability the result of the more arduous labour that falls to their lot. Poverty, ignorance and lack of normal aids to healthy living, all of which tell more heavily upon female than male lives, sufficiently explain the deficiency of women in our population.

TABLE No. 313.

Sex ratio from decade to decade

Year	Females per 1,000 males	
	Rajasthan.	Ajmer
1881	849	851
1891	891	881
1901	905	896
1911	909	879
1921	899	827
1931	908	889
1941	906	900
1951	921	925

TABLE No. 314

Sex ratio from decade to decade in Natural Divisions.

Natural Division.	Females per 1,000 males			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
East Rajasthan Plain Division	877	891	896	910
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	894	898	889	906
Rajasthan Hills Division.	959	961	957	972
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	927	929	927	938

Division. The increase in the female ratio since 1921 has been the most marked in the East Rajasthan Plain Division where it rose from 877 per 1,000 in 1921 to 910 in 1951. It is the least marked in the Dry Area Division where the proportion increased from 894 to 906 only. The increase in the Plateau Division is also fairly high from 927 per 1,000 in 1921 to 958 in 1951, that in the Hills Division is also insignificant having increased from 959 to 972 only. Amongst the Districts of Rajasthan, the female ratio is highest in Dungarpur District (1,003) and lowest in Jaisalmer District (813). It is only the Dungarpur District, where the females are in excess of males.

6. The variation in female ratio from decade to decade has not been uniform in each district. The lowest variation is found in Jalore, where the number of females per 1,000 males increased from 911 in 1921 to only 913 in 1951. The highest variation is visible in Sikar District, where the number has increased from 886 females per 1,000 males in 1921 to 972 in 1951.

7. Throughout the whole of Rajasthan there is only one District namely Dungarpur, noticed above, in which there is an excess of females over males, being 1,003 females to 1,000 males. In the decades 1921 and 1931 Banswara had a higher female ratio having 1,111 in 1921 and 1,009 in 1931; but now it is deficit of females. In respect of female ratio the districts of Rajasthan can be divided into three categories, (i) those with female ratio above 950, (ii) those with the ratio ranging between 900 to 949 and (iii) those below 900.

4. A perusal of the figures of the previous censuses given in the inset Table No. 313 will show a rise in the female ratio both in Rajasthan and in Ajmer since 1881 with a fall in 1921 in Rajasthan attributable to the influenza of 1918 and in Ajmer in 1911 as well as in 1921 due to plague and influenza. This rise is due perhaps to improved maternity conditions and certainly to a larger emigration of males than females from decade to decade as observed in Chapter 1 Section 4 on the basis of figures given in Subsidiary Table 1.5 (b). A very slight fall in 1941 needs no comment.

5. Amongst the Natural Divisions also the same pattern is observable, as shown in the inset Table No. 314, although there are slight differences from Division to Division, namely, that the proportion of females is comparatively higher in Rajasthan Hills Division and lower in Dry Area Division. The Plateau Division and the East Rajasthan Plain Division occupy an intermediate position in this respect. The proportion ranges from 906 females per 1,000 males in Rajasthan Dry Area Division to 972 in the Hills

According to this criterion 8 out of 25 districts fall in category (i), of which 2 are in East Rajasthan Plain Division *viz.* Jhunjhunu and Sikar and 2 in the Plateau Division *viz.* Jhalawar and Chittorgarh and the remaining four Districts are in the Hills Division namely Udaipur, Dungarpur, Banswara and Sirohi. The only apparent reason is the larger semi-permanent emigration of males from these places for trade, industry, service and labour in the adjoining States of Bombay and Madhya Bharat as also observed in Chapter I Section 4. In category (ii), which is the medium category, come 10 districts, which are distributed in the Natural Divisions as below:

- 3 in East Rajasthan Plain Division *viz.* Tonk, Jaipur and Bhilwara.
- 5 in Rajasthan Dry Area Division *viz.* Bikaner, Churu, Pali, Jalore and Nagaur.
- 2 in Rajasthan Plateau Division *viz.* Kotah and Bundi.

They require no special comments as they represent the normal pattern of the State. The remaining 7 Districts come in the last category, 3 of which are in the East Rajasthan Plain Division *viz.* Bharatpur, Sawai Madhopur and Alwar and 4 are in Rajasthan Dry Area Division namely, Barmer, Jodhpur, Ganganagar and Jaisalmer. No definite reasons can be attributed in the absence of data on births, deaths and migration.

8. A study of the sex ratio in the different age groups as given in Subsidiary Tables 6.9 to 6.14, in Part I-B of the Report shows that in the case of the general population as well as the rural and urban population, the males predominate over the females in all age groups and in all classes agricultural as well as non-agricultural.

9. Normally speaking, one expects the number of females per 1,000 males to be larger in rural than in urban areas. This is exactly the picture presented by Ajmer where the number of females per 1,000 males is 950 in rural as against 892 only in urban areas. A variation as high as 58 per thousand. But in Rajasthan State as a whole the pattern is different. Here female ratio is higher in urban than in rural areas. We can find out the reasons by looking into the conditions in each Natural Division as shown in Table No. 315 below:

TABLE No. 315.

Comparison of female ratio in Rural-Urban areas

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males in	
	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State.	918	932
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	905	931
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	900	930
Rajasthan Hills Division.	974	952
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	940	930
Ajmer State.	950	892

The figures show that in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Dry Area Division the female ratio is higher in urban than in the rural areas partly because the towns in these divisions are residential towns rather than industrial centres and mainly because a part of the male population from urban areas usually live outside Rajasthan for their commercial activities who generally do not take their ladies with them. The reverse position in the Hills and Plateau Divisions is due to the fact that emigration from these places is confined to rural areas from where males migrate to the neighbouring States of Bombay and Madhya Bharat, as observed on various occasions previously, in the capacity of factory labourers or domestic and other servants.

10. There are 12 districts in Rajasthan in which the urban figure is larger than the rural. In regard to all these districts it may be said that towns in these districts are mostly not of the industrial type and that the people of urban areas of these districts usually live outside leaving their families behind.

11. A comparison of the figures of the present with those of the past censuses reveals

TABLE No. 316.

Variation in the female ratio from decade to decade in Rural areas.

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males in			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
Rajasthan State ..	896	907	906	918
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	873	890	892	905
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	884	893	890	900
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	962	964	961	974
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	926	930	928	940
Ajmer State ..	897	928	934	950

that in Rajasthan as a whole the female ratio shows an overall increase in the rural area with a very slight fall in 1941. In the urban areas on the contrary it went on decreasing from 1921 to 1941 but had a sudden increase in 1951. In the Ajmer State the female ratio shows an upward tendency throughout both in rural and urban areas. The conditions are more or less similar in each Division as shown in the inset Table No. 316 where we find an overall increase in female ratio in the rural areas with a slight fall in 1941 in the case of all except East Rajasthan Plain Division.

12. As regards urban areas there is an overall rise in the female ratio in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (with a slight fall in 1931) and the Hills Division (with a slight fall in 1941). But there is an overall fall in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (although there is rise in the decade 1941-51) and in Rajasthan Plateau Division as seen in the

Table No. 317 below. The rise in the females proportion in the urban areas also clearly reflects

TABLE No. 317.

Variation in the female ratio from decade to decade in the Urban areas.

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males in			
	1921	1931	1941	1951
Rajasthan State ..	921	912	904	932
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	902	897	915	931
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	947	926	886	930
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	922	928	906	952
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	934	927	916	930
Ajmer State ..	720	823	845	892

the increase in the tendency towards permanent migration from villages to the towns. Formerly, as pointed out before, most people who came to earn a living in the towns left their families in the villages. This tendency is gradually diminishing with the improvement in the means of communications, development in the urban areas and the spread of modern ideas about urban life in general. A perusal of the figures for the urban areas in the Natural Divisions in the inset Table No. 317 shows that the sex ratio in the East Rajasthan Plain Division has gone up from 902 females per 1,000 males in 1921 to 931 females per 1,000 males in 1951. In the Rajasthan Hills Division, similarly, it has gone up from 922 in 1921 to 952 in 1951. In the Rajasthan Dry Area Division as well as in the Plateau Division the number of females in the urban areas has been declining. In 1921, there were 934 females per 1,000 males in the Plateau Division and in 1951 there are 930. Similarly, in the urban parts of the Rajasthan Dry Area Division there were 947 females in 1921 and the number has gone down to 930 in 1951. In the urban parts of these Divisions immigration from rural areas is taking place, and the tendency of leaving families behind also persists very clearly. Among the districts of Rajasthan, there are 13 districts in which female ratio is higher in urban when compared to rural areas. In the remaining districts it is higher in rural.



13. It has been seen in the previous pages that the population of Rajasthan and Ajmer States particularly of Ajmer State is unusually masculine. Certainly their cities are the most masculine. In 1951 the urban proportion of males per 100 females was 107 in Rajasthan and 112 in Ajmer. This might suggest that the rural regions would have an excess of females, especially since it is known that the region as a whole is one of emigration; but in point of fact the rural ratio itself is masculine, being 109 (males per 100 females) in Rajasthan and 105 in Ajmer, in 1951.

TABLE No. 318.

Male ratio of urban and rural population: 1901-1951 in Rajasthan and Ajmer compared with that in India as a whole.

Decade	Males per 100 females in					
	India		Rajasthan		Ajmer	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
1901	111·9	103·0	104·8	111·4	112·1	111·3
1911	116·9	103·7	105·4	110·7	122·1	110·2
1921	120·9	104·3	108·4	111·7	138·9	111·5
1931	121·9	104·6	109·5	110·3	121·6	107·8
1941	122·8	104·8	110·7	112·4	118·4	107·1
1951	..	..	107·3	108·9	112·1	105·3

NOTE—The figures for India have been taken from the Reports of previous Censuses.

14. A glance at Table No. 318 above shows that the masculine of the urban population in India as a whole has been increasing steadily since 1901. It has gone from 112 to 123 in five decades. In the urban areas of Rajasthan there is a slight overall rise from 105 in 1901 to 107 in 1951, but the figures from decade to decade show a steady rise from 1901 to 1941 and then a fall in the past decade. In the urban population of Ajmer the proportion in 1951 is the same as in 1901 with a significant rise from 1901 to 1921 and thence a steady fall. This suggests that the urban masculinity may be related to the economic basis of modern urbanization on the one hand and to the peculiar attitude of the people towards female employment on the other. If the cities have been growing by migration, if this migration has been mainly connected with the development of modern industry, trade and transport, and if there is a prejudice against the employment of women outside the home, one can expect that the faster the cities grow the more masculine would become their sex ratios.

15. Following the same line of reasoning, one can deduce that the sex ratio will vary directly with the size of the city. Table No. 319 bears out this deduction.

TABLE No. 319.

Sex ratio in the towns and cities by size class from 1901 to 1951.

Cities with population of	Males per 1,000 females					
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
100,000 and over	1,077	1,086	1,167	1,193	1,174	1,116
50,000 — 100,000	1,074	1,119	1,111	1,156	1,147	1,113
20,000 — 50,000	1,029	1,032	1,057	1,072	1,095	1,052
10,000 — 20,000	1,021	1,037	1,061	1,050	1,065	1,045
5,000 — 10,000	1,053	1,043	1,055	1,058	1,082	1,090
Under 5,000	1,064	1,065	1,115	1,097	1,081	1,084

Generally speaking since 1901 the sex ratio has been more masculine, the larger the class of city. The uniformity of the results is striking. The main exception is in the towns under 5,000. These show a sex ratio consistently larger than that for towns 5,000 to 10,000 10,000 to 20,000 and 20,000 to 50,000 with a slight exception in the years 1941 and 1951. This apparently strange result seems fairly easy to explain in terms of census policy in the selection of these towns for inclusion in the "Urban" category namely, that ordinarily a town is regarded as a place having at least 5,000 inhabitants. Only by the special dispensation of the State Census Superintendent can a town of lesser size be declared a town. To receive this special favour the place must give evidence of urban characteristics. Consequently, the places under 5,000 that are declared to be towns have a more truly urban nature than many places between 5,000 and 20,000 people, and this fact shows up in the sex ratio.

16. As compared with other modern countries, the urban sex ratio of these States seems peculiar. In those countries some cities have high sex ratios and others have very low ones. The cities with heavy industries are predominantly masculine, while those with clerical occupations are mainly feminine. In these States, however, the seclusion of women persists as a social institution, and few women are employed in any kind of work outside the home. At the same time the urban environment makes the support of an idle woman extremely expensive for a working man, consequently when he goes to work in the city, the peasant tends to leave his wife and other dependants at home. There the women and children are economically productive, because they are not ordinarily excluded from domestic occupations. Thus the urban sex ratio in Ajmer State constitutes one more evidence that this region has acquired some of the economic and technological features of modernism, without yet having adjusted all her social institutions to the new order. But in Rajasthan there is a peculiarity that there are no big industries or commercial activities which can support the industrial and commercial classes, the males of whom therefore migrate in large numbers to places all over India, generally leaving their families behind. This explains the higher female ratio in urban areas when compared to rural, in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Dry Area Division and a higher female ratio in rural areas of the other divisions from which males from rural areas migrate for service or labour as also observed in para 9 above.

17. On the whole, as we have seen, the rural-urban migration is predominantly masculine. The larger the city, the greater its dependence upon migration, and the lesser its proportion of women. Yet as already pointed out, the cities do receive some female migrants. This is shown by place of birth statistics. It is also true that these women come from nearer the cities, on the average, than do the men. In 6 districts the sex ratio outside the cities (6 cities all told) was found to be 112 males per 100 females in 1951, whereas the ratio for the rural parts of the same districts combined is 118. This higher masculinity of the districts surrounding the cities suggest that the latter, despite the predominance of males in their total migration stream, tend to draw females rather than males from their immediate environs.

18. How long the highly masculine sex ratio will persist in the cities is hard to say. There is certainly some tendency towards the employment of women outside the home, but so far this, tendency has been exceeded by the more rapid employment of males in urban industries, but, as there is no big industrial town in Rajasthan and Ajmer, the urban sex ratio has been decreasing rather than increasing and there are definite signs that a decline may begin in the near future. This conclusion is based on an analysis of the two major cities. In these two cities (Jaipur and Ajmer) the sex (male) ratio goes down in 1951 rather than up. It has decreased to the figure of 112. Yet it is on the basis of these two cities that a slight future decline can be predicted. If one examines the history of the growth rates and sex ratios for these two cities, one finds that the sex ratio at each census is largely a function of the previous decade's rate of growth. This is what could be expected. But as the Table No. 320 below illustrates, the correlation has tended to diminish.

TABLE No. 320.

Population growth and the sex ratio in Jaipur and Ajmer cities.

Name of the City	Percentage of growth of population			Increase in the number of males per 100 females	
	1921-31	1931-41	1941-51	1941	1951
Jaipur ..	18.9	16.2	65.6	114	112
Ajmer ..	5.3	23.2	33.5	118	112

The high growth rate between 1941 and 1951, for example, did not produce a commensurate increase in the male sex ratio. In both Jaipur and Ajmer the male ratio declined. There is reason to believe, therefore, that the rural-urban migration is beginning to contain a larger proportion of women than it formerly did, and that in the future the cities may enjoy a more normal sex ratio. This tendency bespeaks a changed attitude on the part of the public, for it means that women are now being given more opportunities in urban economic life.

19. Generally one expects the number of females per 1,000 males to be larger in agricultural classes than in the non-agricultural classes. This is the pattern seen in Ajmer State as well as in the Hills and Plateau Divisions of Rajasthan. But the conditions prevailing in Rajasthan State as a whole as well as in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Dry Area Division are some what different. In these places the female ratio is higher in non-agricultural classes as seen in the Table No. 321 below:

TABLE No. 321.

Comparison of the female ratio in Agricultural and Non-agricultural Classes.

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males in	
	Agricultural Classes	Non-agricultural Classes
Rajasthan State ..	916	931
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	902	927
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	894	931
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	974	964
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	947	915
Ajmer State ..	971	888

The higher female ratio among the agricultural classes in Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions indicates that in these Divisions the economic pressure to emigrate affects them more than the non-agricultural classes and the emigrants are mostly males who leave their families behind. The high female ratio in non-agricultural classes when compared to that in agricultural classes in the East Rajasthan Plain and Dry Area Divisions corroborate the fact of the emigration of males from these Divisions, who carry on their activities outside Rajasthan, as stated on

several previous occasions, that from these Divisions persons engaged in trade leave their families behind in urban areas and they themselves migrate to other parts of India for their commercial activities. In Ajmer State the figures clearly indicate migration from rural to urban areas.

20. Let us now examine then sex ratio for each individual livelihood class comprised in the agricultural classes.

TABLE No. 322.

## Sex Ratio in Agricultural Classes

State and Natural Division	Females per thousand males in				
	All Agri-cultural Classes	I. Cultivators of owned land	II. Cultivators of unowned land	III. Cultivating labourers	IV. Non-cultivating owners of land or rent receivers
Rajasthan State ..	916	916	897	994	1,085
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	902	894	894	1,093	1,038
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	894	880	897	923	1,046
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	974	972	924	960	1,278
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	947	939	910	985	1,091
Ajmer State ..	971	958	913	1,148	1,084

The low sex ratio under Class I reflects the poor economic condition of the bulk of the land owners who cultivate their own lands, consequent on the small size of the average holding and we should expect that, under difficult conditions of living more males than females survive. Class II comprises persons who cultivate lands on lease, and generally speaking, their economic condition is even poorer than that of the bulk of the persons in Class I. It is not, therefore, surprising to find the sex ratio in the Rajasthan Hills Division, Rajasthan Plateau as well as in the Ajmer State even smaller under Class II than under Class I. But the Rajasthan Dry Area Division is an exception. It shows a higher sex ratio in Class II than under Class I which I think, reflects the better position of lessees under the special land tenures in this Division. Class III comprises cultivating labourers whose economic condition is the worst among all the agricultural classes, and the high sex ratios ranging from 923 to 1,093 in Rajasthan and 1,148 in Ajmer is due to emigration of the males among them. Class IV comprises non-cultivating land-lords and agricultural rent receivers, and generally speaking, their economic condition may be said to be the best among the Agricultural Classes. We should, therefore, expect to find among these classes a lower death rate for women than among the other classes. The position should be roughly the same for the men in this class, but in many cases the men in the same family may have other means of livelihood and may have been returned accordingly, and their figures will not, therefore, come in here. It is noteworthy that, among the self-supporting persons in Class IV, there are in Rajasthan as many as 440 and in Ajmer 514 females per 1,000 males as given in the Subsidiary Table 6.5 in Part I-B of the Report. There are some districts in Rajasthan in which under Class IV females are in deficiency when compared to males. This is of course due to the fact that even among this class of non-cultivating owners of land and agricultural rent receivers, whose economical condition is better than that of the other three agricultural classes, many men live here themselves without their wives. These Districts are Sikar (998) and Sirohi (976). The highest female ratio is noticed in Dungarpur District, where there are 1,765 females per 1,000 males in this class. This gives an indication of their meagre income which compels males to emigrate and to undertake other subsidiary jobs.

21. The sex ratio in the different livelihood classes under non-agricultural classes is given below, in Table No. 323.

TABLE No. 323.

## Sex ratio in Non-agricultural Classes.

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males in Non-agricultural Classes				
	Total Non-agri-cultural Classes	V. Production other than cultivation	VI. Commerce	VII. Transport	VIII. Other services and miscellaneous sources
Rajasthan State ..	931	907	943	846	949
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	927	918	927	832	941
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	931	881	973	832	951
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	964	957	962	899	976
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	915	891	891	896	950
Ajmer State .. ..	888	895	888	832	891

The figures show that in Rajasthan the female ratio is higher in Class VIII and Class VI when compared to the remaining non-agricultural classes. The ratio is lowest in Class VII. In Class V (Production other than cultivation) it is slightly higher than that in Class VII. In Ajmer State, the position is different. Here Class V and VIII have higher proportion of females when compared to the remaining non-agricultural classes. In Class VI, it is the same as the average for all non-agricultural classes. The greatest difference is noticed here also in Class VII.

22. Under Class V, the main items are stock-raising, forestry and handloom industry. In the forest industries, there is a predominantly male population, while in the case of handloom weavers, their economic condition has not been satisfactory and they have been affected frequently either by yarn shortage or by slump in the handloom cloth trade, and these circumstances have naturally an adverse effect on the survival rates for women. Class VI, 'Commerce' is the most prosperous among the non-agricultural classes, and this is reflected in the figures.

23. The largest female deficiency under all the Classes V to VIII is found in the Plateau Division, while among agricultural classes, this Division shows an excess of females over males under Class IV and Class III. The figures undoubtedly reflect the backward condition of this area and the hard conditions of living among the non-agricultural classes. The low proportion of females in the East Rajasthan Plain Division is found in Class V, which reflects the comparative worse economic condition of the people engaged in cottage industries in this Division in comparison with that of other divisions or the un-married conditions of factory workers or if married most of whom may have migrated without the families in the other Divisions. In the Hills Division, Class VIII has the highest sex ratio (976), which is evidently due to the emigration, in large numbers of men in search of miscellaneous occupations in neighbouring States like Bombay and Madhya Bharat.

24. Under Class VI, it will be noticed that the two leading districts in the matter of general trade, viz., Jaipur and Jodhpur show a lower sex ratio viz., 920 and 937 respectively, when compared to the figure of their Natural Divisions, which is of course due to the fact that the traders include large numbers of males who live in these towns for their business, leaving their women behind in their home districts in or outside the State. Under Livelihood Class VIII, Ganganagar District has a low sex ratio, viz., 729 which is due to the predominance of males among the population attracted by the Gang Canal as a semi-permanent migration. The low sex ratios in the non-agricultural classes is explained by the fact that, the bulk of the non-agricultural

occupations are carried on in urban areas and men from the surrounding rural areas move into the towns, attracted by them, leaving their women-folk behind and it is only later, after they have settled down, that their womenfolk join them. It is also well-known, that in the non-agricultural classes, marriages take place generally later than among the agricultural classes.

25. The classification of population according to the part played by each individual in contributing to the National income has been dealt with at some length in Chapter V Section 2, where the people have been classified as (i) Self-supporting persons *i.e.* economically active, (ii) Earning dependants, *i.e.* semi-active and (iii) Non-earning dependants, *i.e.* economically inactive. In this Section an attempt has been made to study the relative proportion of the part played by women in general in augmenting the National income in comparison with that played by the males and also the relative difference in that contribution by women belonging to different Livelihood Classes. In studying these figures the elements inherent in census instructions which under rate the value of the activities of women should not be lost sight of. The position has been clarified in the All India Census Report 1921 in the following words:

“Exact figures of dependants in general occupations are probably of not much value and the difficulties of drawing a clear distinction between the nature of a worker and a dependant are very great. They arise chiefly in assessing the value of the part which women and children take in the occupation of the household or the field, and the distinction is often influenced by the estimation of the relative dignity of work and dependence held by the enumerator or the public. The “Means of Subsistence” of a household or indeed of community, include occupations which are of distinct economic importance but of which the results are often not definitely expressible in terms of monetary income. The economic distinction, between the “Work” of a man who assists nature to produce the raw-material of food in the field and the “Dependence” of the woman who converts that raw-material into edible food in the house is, when analysed, not sustainable. The Provincial Superintendent, Punjab, pertinently remarks: “I suspect, however, that a very large part of the apparent want of employment of female labour arises from the fact that the classification of occupations was drawn up by men and not by women; many women appear as unemployed when they should be classed as actual workers engaged in domestic duties, in cooking, grinding of grain, drawing water from wells, taking food to their families in the field, preparing and mending clothes, and last but certainly not the least in, child-bearing. In fact the occupational tables will have to be completely revised before a fair comparison of the extent of male and female occupations can be drawn.” “The distinction between worker and dependant and between primary and subsidiary occupations involves subtleties of interpretation which continually gave trouble in individual cases, and the extent to which the occupations of the women and children actually contribute to the income of the family must always be a matter of opinion and give rise to inconsistencies in the return.”

26. The general picture, based on the personal knowledge of the writer whereabouts the States, is that the activities of women are as a rule confined to the domestic sphere which bring no income either in cash or in kind to the household, resulting in the classification of women engaged in such activities according to census instructions as non-earning dependants. The exceptions to the general rule can be seen in cases where, *e.g.* (i) amongst agricultural classes the women play the same part as the men in field operations; (ii) among industrial classes also the women do partake in the family industrial activities to a small extent, instances of this nature are found where ladies of tailors, carpenters, black-smiths, oil-pressers, gold-smiths, etc., perform certain parts connected with the industrial activities of the family; (iii) amongst the traders the ladies play an insignificant part still amongst dealers of fruits and vegetables and on betel shops, etc., ladies are seen working and carrying on trade; and the most important:

of all, in the Hills Division the Bhil women generally sell fuel and fodder which their men cut from the forests; (iv) in the transport industry women are seldom found engaged; (v) amongst service class they are found to a very little extent, the instances are of lady teachers, doctors, nurses, mid-wives or of washer-women, hair dressers of ladies, etc., and to some extent of domestic maid servants; and (vi) amongst the labourer class, women of poor families play an almost equal role with the males specially as labourers in construction works.

27. Let us now see how far the census results corroborate the above information. Subsidiary Tables 6:5 and 6:6 give this information separately for agricultural and non-agricultural classes, by totalling the figures we find that in Rajasthan as a whole amongst the self-supporting persons, there are only 36 women per 100 men and in Ajmer State 34 women per 100 men. The figure varies from one Natural Division to another by very small margin ranging between 29 in Rajasthan Plateau Division to 39 in Rajasthan Dry Area Division as shown in the Table No. 324.

TABLE No. 324.

Females per 1,000 males amongst the Self-supporting persons.

The figures indicate the poor role of women amongst the self-supporting persons.

State and Natural Division.	Self-supporting Females per 1,000 males
Rajasthan State.	363
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	384
Rajasthan Dry area Division.	389
Rajasthan Hills Division.	310
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	286
Ajmer State.	336

Amongst the districts of Rajasthan we find the proportion of women to be highest in Jhalawar District ( 771 ) self-supporting women per 1,000 men of the same category and lowest in Dungarpur District (165).

TABLE No. 325.

Females per 1,000 males among Earning dependants

State and Natural Division.	Females per 1,000 males among Earning dependants.
Rajasthan State.	2,029
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	1,776
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	1,739
Rajasthan Hills Division.	2,593
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	2,650
Ajmer State.	1,967

28. Amongst the Earning dependants, in Rajasthan as a whole, as well as in Ajmer, the women are nearly double the number of

men and the proportion varies from 265 women per 100 men in Rajasthan Plateau Division to 174 women per 100 men in Dry Area Division, as seen in the Inset Table No. 325. In the districts of Rajasthan the female ratio amongst the Earning dependants in all the classes (Agricultural and non-agricultural combined) is highest in Banswara District (3,445 women per 1,000 men) and lowest in Jaisalmer District (890).

29. The comparative higher proportion of females than males in this category is due to the fact that males remain in this category only during their boyhood, on attaining maturity they generally begin to earn enough to support at least themselves and thereby raise themselves to the status of self-supporting persons. In the case of females, on the other hand, even after attaining maturity, the income derived from their activities is generally not sufficient to support them, which keeps them in the category of earning dependants only. The



high figures of females amongst the self-supporting persons and earning dependants in the Hills and Plateau Divisions indicate the comparative lower financial status of the population which compels them to send their women-folk to work and the comparative low figure in the East Rajasthan Plain and Rajasthan Dry area Divisions indicate that they are financially better off and that the prejudice against sending women to work, is the strongest in those places.

30. Amongst the non-earning dependants also the proportion of females is higher than the males because although in early childhood, when a person is physically incapable to earn anything the sex ratio may be more or less equal, but after that age period, males generally do not remain in that category, while females, according to the existing social customs, do remain non-earning. Amongst the richer classes, there is no incentive for women to work for gain, and amongst poorer classes, although necessity for engaging in profitable enterprises is keenly felt, yet social traditions withhold them from proceeding in the economic field. These customs are now gradually losing their tightness. The present position is reflected in the figures given in the inset Table No. 326 from which we find that in Rajasthan as a whole, the number of females per 100 males amongst the non-earning dependants is 142 and in Ajmer 150. The highest number is found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division 144 and the lowest in the Hills Division 136.

TABLE No. 326

Sex ratio (females per 1,000 males) amongst the Non-earning dependants.

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males among Non-earning dependants
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,421
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	1,420
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	1,420
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	1,359
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	1,443
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,502

31. In the districts of Rajasthan the female ratio amongst the non-earning dependants in all livelihood classes (agricultural and non-agricultural combined) is the highest in Sirohi District i. e. 2,604 female non-earning dependants per 1,000 males and lowest in Barmer District 1,146.

32. As the conditions differ between the different livelihood classes let us now examine the position separately in each of the various livelihood classes. The proportion of females amongst the self-supporting persons engaged in agricultural classes is shown below in Table No. 327.

TABLE No. 327

Sex ratio amongst the Self-supporting persons in Agricultural classes.

State and Natural Division	Self-supporting Females per 1,000 males in				
	All Agricultural classes	I-Cultivators of owned land	II-Cultivators of unowned land	III-Cultivating labourers	IV-Non-Cultivating owners of land or rent receivers.
Rajasthan State .. .. .	420	377	477	574	440
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	440	410	471	800	395
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	472	424	504	477	310
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	338	336	224	502	721
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	316	288	233	492	488
Ajmer State .. .. .	522	496	461	931	514

A comparison of the agricultural with the non-agricultural classes will be made shortly in para 39 below, but before doing so the differences existing between the individual agricultural classes are worth scrutiny. The highest proportion of women is found amongst the cultivating labourers of Livelihood Class III, in which there are in Rajasthan 574 and in Ajmer 931 self-supporting women per 1,000 men of the same category; and the proportion is even higher than that of the women in Livelihood Class IV (Non-cultivating owners etc.) as shown in the above table. In the case of Livelihood Class II (Cultivators of unowned land and their dependants), on the other hand, the number of self-supporting women per 1,000 men is 477 in Rajasthan and 461 in Ajmer, while in the Livelihood Class I (Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants), the number of self-supporting females is lowest when compared to that in other classes. It is 377 in Rajasthan and 496 in Ajmer per 1,000 males of the same category.

33. Amongst the Natural Divisions, self-supporting women of Livelihood Class I are to be found in the largest proportion in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (424) followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division (410) and the Rajasthan Hills Division (336). The Plateau Division has the lowest proportion (288). East Rajasthan Plain Division (800) and Hills Division (502) have higher figures in case of Class III, when compared to Plateau Division (492) and Dry Area Division (477). In the case of Livelihood Class IV, the lowest proportion is seen in the Dry Area Division (310) and next to it in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. It is highest in the Rajasthan Hills Division (721) and next to it in the Plateau Division (488). Similarly, in the case of Livelihood Class II the highest proportion (504) is found in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division (471) and Rajasthan Plateau Division (233). The lowest proportion is in the Hills Division being (224) only. It is not surprising to find that the female ratio among self-supporting persons is smaller in Classes I and II when compared to Class III. The sex ratio is much higher in Class III "Cultivating labourers" which is also not very surprising. In this class, the women work as much as they can to supplement their family income, in fact the women would work even more and the sex-ratio would be higher, but for their having to attend to their domestic work and to look after children. The existence of labour facilities in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, due to the availability of land for cultivation, is reflected in the sex ratio figure under Class III which is the highest in that Division in the whole State (800). But the figures in Hills Division reflect clearly the hard conditions for people under Class III where there is little land for the labour. The poor Bhils and other financially backward classes who form the major population in Dungarpur Banswara and Udaipur Districts upto some extent of the Hills Division are compelled to send their women to work. This is why they have the higher proportion in these districts namely 594 in Udaipur and 643 in Banswara. The comparatively higher female proportion in Livelihood Class III in the District of Jhalawar and Chittorgarh of the Plateau Division is due to availability of cultivated land. Among the districts of East Rajasthan Plain Division, Sawai Madhopur shows the highest figures *i. e.*, (1,057) which indicates that the land is controlled by land owners who employ these persons for cultivation. Class IV also has a comparatively high female ratio, among self-supporting persons as much as 440 in Rajasthan and 514 in Ajmer State. This is an economically in-active class and figures confirm the very appreciable number of women who own lands. The sex ratio is highest in the Rajasthan Hills Division as one would expect to find having regard to the economically backward condition of the people. This is the most backward area in whole of the State where few people are well-to-do. The petty land owners are also in fact in no better position economically, male members of such land owners' families, therefore, augment their income by following other occupations which bring greater income and therefore, become their principal means of livelihood, while in case of female members the only source of income is the land given to them in Jagir. The highest figures among the districts of the State, are found in Dungarpur (1,572) and Banswara (897).

34. The sex ratio among earning dependants in agricultural classes is given in the Table No. 328 below:—

**Sex ratio of earning dependants in Agricultural Classes.**

TABLE No. 328.

Sex ratio amongst Earning dependants in Agricultural Classes

Females per thousand males among earning dependants

State and Natural Division	Females per thousand males among earning dependants				
	All Agricultural Classes	I-Cultivators of owned land	II-Cultivators of unowned land	III-Cultivating labourers	IV-Non-cultivating owners of land or rent receivers
Rajasthan State ..	2,103	2,240	1,750	2,478	1,669
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	1,828	1,974	1,545	1,786	1,196
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	1,789	1,622	1,860	2,191	1,352
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	2,664	2,667	2,720	2,532	2,259
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	2,699	2,654	2,570	3,531	2,211
Ajmer State ..	2,011	1,968	2,495	2,317	2,070

The proportion of females in partially earning category is largest as would be expected, in the Plateau Division, (2,699) closely followed by Rajasthan Hills Division (2,664). The lowest figure is seen in the Dry Area Division being 1,789. The East Rajasthan Plain Division occupies the intermediate position where there are 1,828 females per 1,000 males. In all the agricultural classes individually, leaving aside Class III, Rajasthan Hills and Plateau Divisions stand first and second respectively and in Class III Plateau Division (3,531) beats the Hills Division (2,532) as shown above. Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands third in this respect in all the agricultural classes excluding Class I (cultivating owners of land) in which the East Rajasthan Plain Division stands third in the whole State (2,240). East Rajasthan Plain Division stands last in this respect in all other agricultural classes (Class II, III and IV) which indicates that these persons have the land to cultivate for themselves and are well-to-do persons so that their young children and women are not employed in the fields for the work in large numbers for earning to support the family. The comparatively much larger figures under this category of earning dependants reflect the fact that women are part-time workers owing to their pre-occupation with household work. As one would expect to find, the female ratio is the highest under Class III, *viz.* cultivating labourers. It is, naturally enough, the lowest in Class IV. The persons on whom women in this class depend are the economically in-active, but comparatively well off class of non-cultivating land owners and rent receivers, and the percentage of women who work to supplement the family income is noticeably smaller than the number of men who work to supplement their income.

35. In the districts of Rajasthan the female ratio amongst the earning dependants in Agricultural Classes *i. e.* the number of females per 1,000 males, is highest in Banswara District (3,472) and lowest in Jaisalmer District (940).

36. Now we shall consider the case of non-earning dependants who form the major part of the female population *i. e.* 45 per cent. of the total agricultural population. The following Table No. 329 gives the sex ratio for non-earning dependants among agricultural classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer as also in the Natural Divisions.

**Sex ratio of non-earning dependants in Agricultural Classes.**

TABLE No. 329.

Sex ratio amongst Non-earning dependants in Agricultural Classes.

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males in Non-earning dependants				
	Agricultural Classes	I-Cultivators of owned land	II-Cultivators of unowned land	III-Cultivating labourers	IV-Non-Cultivating owners of land and rent receivers
Rajasthan State ..	1,314	1,306	1,305	1,288	1,634
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	1,331	1,320	1,324	1,335	1,626
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	1,317	1,349	1,287	1,271	1,761
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,238	1,223	1,281	1,221	1,604
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	1,340	1,329	1,473	1,285	1,545
Ajmer State ..	1,295	1,283	1,206	1,281	1,636

The proportion of females in the non-earning category is the largest for all agricultural classes combined in the Plateau Division and the smallest in the Hills Division. The proportion of females in the non-earning category is largest, as would be expected, in Livelihood Class IV, being 1,634 per thousand males in Rajasthan, and approximately the same proportion in Ajmer (1,636). Livelihood Classes I and II come next in which the relative figures are 1,306, and 1,305 respectively. Livelihood Class III stands last (1,288). These figures clearly show how dependancy amongst women varies with their status. The richer they are the more economically inactive they are found to be. This conclusion is further supported by the proportion of the females amongst the earning dependants as we have discussed above in para 34. It is largest in Livelihood Class III (2,478) followed by Livelihood Class I (2,240), Livelihood Class II (1,750) and Livelihood Class IV (1,669).

37. The female ratio among non-earning dependants is higher for all agricultural classes combined in the State as a whole when compared with Ajmer. It is 1,314 in Rajasthan and 1,295 in Ajmer State. The lowest female ratio is 1,103 in Sawai-Madhopur. This of course confirms the well-known fact that there is a much larger percentage of non-earning dependants among women than among men. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the female ratio amongst the non-earning dependants in agricultural classes is highest in Jaisalmer District (1,935) females per 1,000 males and lowest in Barmer District (1,116).

TABLE No. 330.

Sex Ratio amongst the Self-supporting persons engaged in non-agricultural occupations.

State and Natural Division	Females per 1,000 males amongst the Self-supporting persons.
Rajasthan State ..	218
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	241
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	190
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	217
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	210
Ajmer State ..	178

Sex ratio of self-supporting persons in non-agricultural classes.

38. Let us now examine the sex ratio amongst the economically active and in-active population of non-agricultural classes. The differences are significant as evidenced by the figures in the inset Table No. 330 viewed side by side with those given in the Table No. 327 in para 32 above, relating to agricultural classes. The comparison shows that the proportionate strength of the economically active females when compared to males is much lower amongst the non-agricultural classes (22 females per 100 males) than amongst agricultural classes (42 females per 100 males) it is nearly half, in Rajasthan as a whole. In Ajmer the

proportion is still lower where there are 18 females per 100 self-supporting males in non-agricultural classes as against 52 females per 100 self-supporting males amongst

agricultural classes or a little less than one third. This is what was expected in view of the remarks contained in para 26 above. This proportion is the lowest in the Dry Area Division (19) where we have seen that it is the highest amongst the agricultural classes, (47) showing that the women belonging to the non-agricultural classes of this Division are not engaged in profitable undertakings to the same extent as in other Divisions or to the extent to which those belonging to agricultural classes in the same Division. This is so either because they are comparatively financially well placed and do not feel the necessity, or because the sentiment against sending women to work is the strongest amongst the non-agricultural classes of this Division while the same is not the case amongst agricultural classes who are neither richer nor averse to field work.

39. The proportion is the highest in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (24 females per 100 self-supporting males) where it is fairly low amongst the agricultural classes (44) indicating the existence of wealthy people here, who engage maid-servants as also the wider spread of female education in this Division, which enables the women of this place to serve as teachers, doctors, nurses, mid-wives, etc. The existence of people with a higher standard of living also creates a demand for laundry services in which females play the same part as males. The Hills and the Plateau Divisions where we have seen the comparatively lower proportion of the self-supporting females in agricultural classes (34 in Hills and 32 in Plateau Divisions) occupy an intermediate position amongst the Divisions of Rajasthan in respect of the same proportion in non-agricultural classes (22 in Hills and 21 in the Plateau Divisions). The comparative poverty of the people of these Divisions compels them to send their women-folk to work.

40. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the highest proportion of self-supporting females to the males of the same category in the non-agricultural classes is found in Jhunjhunu District (458 self-supporting females per 1,000 self-supporting males) and lowest in Ganganagar (75).

41. Of the four non-agricultural classes the highest number of self-supporting women per 1,000 self-supporting men is to be found in Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources.) In Rajasthan there are 284 self-supporting women per 1,000 self-supporting men in this livelihood class and in Ajmer 239. The number is highest in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (316) followed by the Rajasthan Plateau Division (292). The Rajasthan Hills Division (274) comes next and Dry Area Division, (239) stands last as shown in the Table No. 331 below:—

TABLE No. 331.

The ratio of Self-supporting females amongst the individual Non-agricultural Classes.

Self-supporting females per 1,000 males.

State and Natural Division	Self-supporting females per 1,000 males.			
	V. Production other than cultivation	VI. Commerce	VII. Transport	VIII. Other services and miscellan- eous sources
Rajasthan State .. .. .	237	87	64	284
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .	263	84	60	316
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .	223	83	65	239
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .	233	115	72	274
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .	195	81	69	292
Ajmer State .. .. .	190	94	11	239

Amongst the districts of Rajasthan we find the proportion of self-supporting females in Livelihood Class VIII to be highest in Jhunjhunu District (630) and lowest in the Ganganagar District (84).

42. Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation stands second in this respect having 237 self-supporting women per 1,000 men in Rajasthan State as a whole and in Ajmer 190. In this class the highest proportion of self-supporting females is seen in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (263), followed by the Hills Division (233) and Rajasthan Dry Area Division (223). Rajasthan Plateau Division stands the last having 195 females per 1,000 males amongst the self-supporting persons of this Class V. The existence of cottage industries to a larger extent, in which women play a more conspicuous part than men accounts for the higher proportion of females amongst the self-supporting persons in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. In the Hills Division it is due to the industries of stock-raising, forestry and wood-cutting in which Bhil women work shoulder to shoulder with men, and these people form a major portion of the population of this Division. Amongst the districts the proportion is highest in Barmer District (545) and the lowest in Sirohi (85).

43. Livelihood Class VI (Commerce) occupies the third position in this respect as it contains in Rajasthan 87 and in Ajmer 94 self-supporting females per 1,000 males of the same category. Here the highest figure is to be found in the Hills Division (115) followed by the East Rajasthan Plain Division (84) and the Dry Area Division (83). The Plateau Division stands last (81). The figures of Hills Division present a bold contrast with those of the other three Divisions which are more or less uniform with a very slight difference. This is due to the existence, in this comparatively backward Division, of petty traders who being poverty-stricken must compel their women to share with them the responsibilities of trade. The most cogent reason seems to be that amongst the Bhils the males usually cut dried grass and fire-wood from the jungles and their women carry them to the nearest villages and sell them. This gives a higher proportion of females amongst the traders. Besides, in the Udaipur District, which has got good irrigation facilities from tanks and wells, fruits and vegetables are grown to some extent which are usually sold by women belonging to Kunjra, Bhoi and Mali classes. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan we find the proportion to be the highest in Sirohi (251) and the lowest in Ganganager (39).

44. Livelihood Class VII (Transport) stands last in this respect in which in Rajasthan State as a whole, there are only 64 self-supporting females per 1,000 self-supporting males following this occupation and in Ajmer only 11. The proportion is the highest in the Hills Division (72) and the lowest in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (60). The Plateau Division (69) and the Dry Area Division (65) occupy an intermediate position. While examining these figures, a description of the transport facilities available in various parts of Rajasthan given in Chapter V should be kept in mind. In the Rajasthan Hills Division, as its very name indicates, there are very few roads on which wheeled transport can work. The common means of transport are head loads in which females play a greater part than males. Transport on pack animals like donkeys, bullocks etc. by communities known as Banjaras and Oads also engages a larger proportion of females.

45. To sum up, the proportion of women and men in the different livelihood classes, discussed above, shows that the relative proportion of women to men in the different Natural Divisions in all the non-agricultural livelihood classes for self-supporting women is highest in the Natural Division which is economically the most backward and lowest in the more advanced one. Here again, it would appear that women of poorer people are engaged in economic activities more than the women of richer classes. As one would expect to find, the sex ratio is very low throughout the State being only 218 females per 1,000 males. Generally speaking, non-agricultural occupations require more training and sustained work than agricultural occupations. Men are, therefore, preferred for these occupations and there are also certain restrictions imposed under the Factories Act to safeguard the health of women. Some non-agricultural occupations are hardly suitable for women. We naturally find the smallest female ratio under Class VII (64 for the State as a whole): transport services are manned mostly by men and the percentage of women employed is negligible. The high figures under Class V indicate the very great extent to which women have been absorbed in industrial occupations, specially cottage industries and those of stock-raising and forestry and wood cutting. The figures under Class VI relate mostly to sellers of grass and fuel,



fruits and vegetables. The largest sex ratio is under Class VIII *viz.*, Other services and miscellaneous sources of income. This is a miscellaneous category which accounts for more self-supporting women than any of the other non-agricultural classes. But the proportion is small, nearly 1/4 of the males in the class. This is, however, the class in which the proportion of females is sure to increase considerably in course of time as an increasing number of women is taking up employment as teachers, clerks, typists, nurses, mid-wives and doctors. These developments which are inevitable and should, on the whole, be welcomed, are likely, when they assume large proportion, to have their repercussions in the future even on the birth rate and the consequent growth of population.

46. The proportion of females when compared to males amongst the earning dependants in the non-agricultural classes is very much higher when compared to the self-supporting females in the same classes; the proportion being nearly 8 times, while the similar proportion amongst the agricultural classes is only 5 times that of females who are self-supporting. But when we compare the proportion of female earning dependants in non-agricultural

TABLE No. 332.

Female ratio among earning dependants in non-agricultural classes.

State and Natural Division.	Earning dependant females per 1,000 males.
Rajasthan State. ..	1,707
East Rajasthan Plain Division. ..	1,568
Rajasthan Dry Area Division. ..	1,579
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	2,033
Rajasthan Plateau Division	2,367
Ajmer State .. ..	1,848

classes with that of those in agricultural classes we find that there are 1,707 female earning dependants per 1,000 male earning dependants in the non-agricultural classes while the corresponding figures in the agricultural classes is 2,103 females per 1,000 males. This fact again shows that just as in the case of self-supporting persons, females in the category of earning dependants are also less inclined to work amongst the non-agricultural classes than amongst the agricultural classes. The non-agricultural classes are comparatively financially better off than agricultural ones and do not therefore feel the necessity of compelling their women to work. The figures of Ajmer State also show the same trend where female earning dependants per 100 males are 185 in non-agricultural classes while the corresponding figure for agricultural classes is 201, and the proportion which they bear to the self-supporting females of non-agricultural classes is nearly 10 times. The inset

Table gives the figures for both the States and the Natural Divisions from which we find that the female ratio among the earning dependants is the highest in Plateau Division (237 females per 100 males) and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (157). The figures of Dry Area Division are also pretty low (158) while those of Hills Division are pretty high (203). Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the district which has the highest proportion of female earning dependants per thousand male earning dependants in non-agricultural classes is Banswara (2,866) and that which has the lowest is Ganganagar (850).

47. Amongst the individual non-agricultural classes female earning dependants figure most significantly in Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation), while in the case of female self-supporting persons we have seen the figures to be highest in Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources). The reason is obvious. Females in service class generally earn enough to support them-selves while those in Livelihood Class V which consists of cottage industry, stock-raising, forestry and wood-cutting, do not earn enough to support them-selves with their income only. The above pattern is visible in Rajasthan State as a whole as also in Ajmer State as well as in all Natural Divisions except the Dry Area Division, where Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) occupies greater proportion of female earning dependants than Livelihood Class V (Production other than cultivation). The following Table No. 333 gives the figures:



TABLE No. 333.

Female ratio among Earning dependants in Livelihood  
Class V (Production other than cultivation)

State and Natural Division	Female Earning dependants per 1,000 males
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,925
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	1,883
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	1,485
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	2,219
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	2,945
Ajmer State .. .. .	2,107

48. In Rajasthan State, as a whole we find that there are 192 earning dependant females per 100 males in Livelihood Class V and the corresponding figure for Ajmer State is still higher being 211. Amongst the Natural Divisions, the highest figure is found in the Rajasthan Plateau Division (294) and lowest in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division (148). The remaining two Divisions occupy an intermediate position, the figures of East Rajasthan Plain Division being 188 and those of Hills Division being 222. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the proportion of female earning dependants per 1,000 male earning dependants in the Livelihood Class V is the highest in Banswara District (3,404) and lowest in Jaisalmer District (511).

TABLE No. 334.

Female ratio among Earning dependants in Livelihood  
Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources.)

State and Natural division	Female Earning dependants per 1,000 males.
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,747
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	1,490
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	1,894
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	2,198
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	2,592
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,979

The next in importance in this respect is Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) in which the ratio of female earning dependants to 1,000 males of the same category is as high as 1,747 in Rajasthan and 1,979 in Ajmer. Amongst the Natural Divisions the proportion is highest in Plateau Division 2,592, followed by Hills Division 2,198. The Dry Area Division comes next with the figure of 1,894 and the East Rajasthan Plain Division stands last (1,490) as shown in Table No. 334 above. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan, the largest female ratio among earning dependants of Livelihood Class VIII is found in District Jhunjhunu where the proportion of female earning dependants to 1,000 males is 3,575 and lowest is in District Churu where the figure is (489).

49. Next in importance is Livelihood Class VII (Transport) in which the female earning dependants are 1,466 per 1,000 of males of the same category and in Ajmer the corresponding figure is 1,701. Among the Natural Divisions the highest figure is found in Hills Division, (2,448) next to it in Plateau Division, (1,783) followed by East Rajasthan Plain Division, (1,321). Rajasthan Dry Area Division stands last (1,233) as seen in the Table No. 335 below:—

TABLE No. 335.

Female ratio amongst Earning dependants in Class VII (Transport).

State and Natural Division	Female Earning dependants per 1,000 males.
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,466
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	1,321
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	1,233
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	2,448
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	1,783
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,701

Amongst the district of Rajasthan, the highest figure is found in Dungarpur District (7,667) and lowest in Barmer District (203).

TABLE No. 336.

Female ratio amongst the Earning dependants in Livelihood Class VI (Commerce).

Name of State and Natural Division	Earning dependants per 1,000 males.
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,068
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	1,022
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	1,236
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	1,133
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	857
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,050

50. Last comes Class VI in which the number of earning dependant females per 1,000 males is 1,068 in Rajasthan and 1,050 in Ajmer. The highest proportion is found in Dry Area Division 1,236 and lowest in Plateau Division 857. The East Rajasthan Plain Division has 1,022 and the Rajasthan Hills Division with 1,133 occupies an intermediate position as seen in inset Table No. 336. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan, the highest female ratio among the earning dependants of Livelihood Class VI is found in District Jaisalmer where the proportion of female earning dependants to 1,000 males of the same category engaged in this class is 2,284 and lowest in District Ganganagar where the figure is 580.

51. Thus we have seen that the proportion of women to men amongst the earning dependants is highest in Plateau Division in all non-agricultural livelihood classes combined, when compared to the proportion of other three Divisions. In the Rajasthan Hills Division the proportion is higher than that in Rajasthan Dry Area Division in the case of Livelihood Class VI. The figures of Plateau Division are lowest. In case of Livelihood Class VII, those of the East Rajasthan Plain Division are lowest, while those of Hills Division are highest. In the case of Livelihood Class VIII the figures of Plateau Division are again highest while those of Plain Division are lowest. These figures reflect the comparative economic condition of these classes and the consequent attempt by the women folk to work and supplement the family income by engaging themselves in occupations which they find suitable for them.

52. The proportion of non-earning females per 1,000 males amongst non-agricultural classes is higher than that in the agricultural classes in Rajasthan and Ajmer States as well as in each Natural Division as will appear from a perusal of the figures in the Table No. 337 below side by side with those given in Table No. 329 in para 36 above for non-earning dependants in agricultural classes.

**Sex ratio of Non-Earning dependants in non-agricultural classes.**

TABLE No. 337.

Female ratio among Non-earning dependants  
in non-agricultural classes,

State and Natural Division	Non-earning dependant females per 1,000 males in all non-agricultural classes.
Rajasthan State ..	1,642
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	1,583
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	1,621
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,733
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	1,684
Ajmer State ..	1,620

TABLE No. 338.

Female ratio among Non-earning dependants  
in Livelihood Class VI-Commerce.

State and Natural Division	Non-earning dependant females per 1,000 males
Rajasthan State ..	1,840
East Rajasthan Plain Division	1,771
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	1,911
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,874
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	1,854
Ajmer State .. ..	1,597

TABLE No. 339.

Non-earning females per 1,000 males in  
Livelihood Class VII-Transport

State and Natural Division	Non-earning females per 1,000 males
Rajasthan State ..	1,716
East Rajasthan Plain Division	1,777
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	1,541
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,847
Rajasthan Plateau Division	2,081
Ajmer State ... ..	1,637.

Female ratio among non-earning dependants in non-agricultural classes is highest in the Hills Division (1,733), next to it in Plateau Division (1,684) followed by Dry Area Division (1,621). East Rajasthan Plain Division stands last (1,583). The proportion of the non-earning females varies from Division to Division according to the facilities available for female employment. The lowest figure in East Rajasthan Plain Division gives indication that in that Division fewer females remain non-earning, because it has greater facilities for employment in cottage industries as well as in service as teachers, doctors, nurses etc. due to greater facilities of female education as previously observed amongst the districts of Rajasthan, the proportion of non-earning females is the highest in Ganganagar District, (1,981 non-earning females per 1,000 males) and lowest in Jhunjhunu District (1,271).

53. Amongst the individual non-agricultural livelihood classes, Class VI, Commerce, has the highest percentage of non-earning females being 1,840 females per 1,000 males in Rajasthan and 1,597 in Ajmer. The proportion is highest in Dry Area Division (1,911) followed by Hills Division 1,874 and Plateau Division 1,854. The lowest figure is found in East Rajasthan Plain Division 1,771 as seen in inset Table No. 338. The highest figure in Dry Area Division indicates the comparative higher financial position of the traders whose women do not feel inclined to work. Among the districts of Rajasthan the proportion of non-earning females to males in Livelihood Class VI Commerce, is highest in District Bikaner (2,416 non-earning females per 1,000 males) and lowest in Jhunjhunu District (1,573).

54. Livelihood Class VII-Transport comes next in which the proportion of non-earning females per 1,000 males is in Rajasthan 1,716 and in Ajmer 1,637. The highest proportion is found in Plateau Division (2,081) followed by Rajasthan Hills Division (1,847) and East Rajasthan Plain Division (1,777). Dry Area Division stands last (1,541) as seen in inset Table No. 339. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the proportion is highest in Tonk District (2,586 non-earning females per 1,000 males) and lowest in Barmer District (1,202).

TABLE No. 340.

Non-earning females per 1,000 males in  
Livelihood Class VIII—Other services  
and miscellaneous sources.

State and Natural Division	Non-earning females per 1,000 males.
Rajasthan State ..	1,579
East Rajasthan Plain Division	1,497
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	1,636
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,694
Rajasthan Plateau Division	1,665
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,585

TABLE No. 341.

Non-earning females per 1,000 males in  
Livelihood Class V (Production other  
than cultivation)

State and Natural Division	Non-earning females per 1,000 males
Rajasthan State ..	1,569
East Rajasthan Plain Division	1,552
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	1,562
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,654
Rajasthan Plateau Division	1,571
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,674

57. The general impression conveyed by the above discussion is that more females are economically idle than males and the development of the cottage industries enabling illiterate women to take part in them and spread of female education enabling literate ones to follow literary pursuits can alone improve the position.

58. Sex ratio differs in different religions. The inset Table No. 342 shows that in Rajasthan among Christians, males and females are equally balanced. Among Buddhists females highly preponderate and among Zoroastrians also females are slightly in excess of males. But the total strength of the followers of these religions being numerically very insignificant, no conclusions can be

TABLE No. 342.

Sex ratio by the religions.

Religion	Females per 1,000 males	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
Hindus .. .. .	919	922
Muslims .. .. .	939	882
Jains .. .. .	954	948
Sikhs .. .. .	840	1,488
Christians .. .. .	1,000	869
Buddhists .. .. .	1,412	1,270
Zoroastrians .. .. .	1,083	1,404

55. Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous sources) comes next in which female non-earning dependants per 1,000 males are 1,579 in Rajasthan and 1,585 in Ajmer. The proportion is highest in Hills Division (1,694) followed by Plateau Division (1,665). The lowest proportion is found in the East Rajasthan Plain Division (1,497) as seen in the inset Table No. 340. Rajasthan Dry Area Division with the figure of 1,636 occupies an intermediate position. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the proportion is highest in Ganganagar District (2,571 non-earning females per 1,000 males) and lowest in Jhunjhunu District (1,115).

56. Livelihood Class V—(Production other than cultivation) stands last in which female non-earning dependants per 1,000 males are only 1,569 in Rajasthan and 1,674 in Ajmer State. The number is highest in Hills Division (1,654) followed by Rajasthan Plateau Division (1,571) and Rajasthan Dry Area Division (1,562). East Rajasthan Plain Division stands last (1,552) in this respect, as shown in the inset Table No. 341. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the proportion is highest in Jaisalmer District (2,092 non-earning females per 1,000 males) and lowest in Barmer District (1,061).

based on these figures. Among the numerically significant religions, females are generally less than males. But the difference is the greatest in Rajasthan among Sikhs in whom there are only 840 females per 1,000 males. This is due to the recent migration of Sikhs, most of whom do not seem to have brought their ladies with them. Next to them, the greatest deficit of females is visible among Hindus who have only 919 females per 1,000 males. Muslims seem to be better in this respect who have 939 females per 1,000 males. Among Jains the difference is the least, the number of females per 1,000 males being 954.

59. The figures of Ajmer give a different picture to some extent. Among the minority religions, the Buddhists and Zoroastrians have an excess of females over males in this State also as in Rajasthan. But among Christians the females are greatly deficit being only 869 females per 1,000 males. Among Muslims the deficiency of females is the most marked as they have only 882 females per 1,000 males. It indicates that in the mass migration between India and Pakistan, females have emigrated from Ajmer in larger numbers than males. Sikhs on the contrary have a very high proportion of females (1,488 females per 1,000 males) or nearly 50 per cent. excess. This seems to be also due to the abnormal sex picture in migration. Among the Jains and Hindus the pattern is similar to that of Rajasthan.

60. Among the Natural Divisions the female ratio among Hindus varies from 903 in the Dry Area Division to 973 in the Hills Division, per 1,000 males, the corresponding figure for the East Rajasthan Plain Division is 907 and that of the Plateau Division 939.

61. The female ratio among Muslims also is the highest in Rajasthan Hills Division (994) and lowest again in the Dry Area Division (914) as in the case of Hindus. The Rajasthan Plain Division (959) and Plateau Division (928) occupy an intermediate position.

62. Among the Jains the picture is a bit different. In their case, Rajasthan Dry Area Division shows a slight excess of females over males, the proportion being 1,002 females per 1,000 males. The reason is obvious. It is this Division from which the males migrate in connection with their commercial activities to places out-side Rajasthan, a great majority of whom are Jains. The lowest proportion is found in the Rajasthan Plain Division (883). The intermediate position is held by the Hills Division (925) and the Plateau Division (963). The position in districts can be seen in Subsidiary Table 8·2 given in Part I-B of the Report.

## SECTION 5.

### Marital Status Ratio.

1. The classification of population by marital status is a factor of considerable demographic and economic importance and is almost universally investigated and tabulated. Even an overall picture of marital status is of great socio-economic importance in mapping population distribution with regard to conjugal condition. If in certain major civil divisions of a monogamous country the sex ratio at marriageable ages departs significantly from unity, then a series of economic, sociological, medical and a host of other problems may arise which require consideration. If a classification by age groups for marital status is available, further light is thrown on the real picture and the attendant problems. Thus it becomes known at what ages people mostly marry; the size and age distribution of the widowed population, etc. And if the marital status by age-sex is further cross-classified for birthplace, nationality, race, religion, occupation, grade of occupation, unemployment, income, etc., a wealth of information about social and economic structure and its cross-pattern with conjugal condition becomes available. The various sub-classifications emerging from such tabulations make it a rich storehouse of information for sociological, economic, and other research workers. Thus the relation of conjugal condition to age, and the ratio of the married to the unmarried in the population have a bearing on the significant question of population reproduction. Also, the relationship of marriage structure to birth-place, nationality and ethnic origin is of significance. There is economic interest in the relationship of conjugal conditions to industry, occupation, income and unemployment. The economic independence of women reacts on the relative number of single, divorced and married, and the last must be studied in relation to growth of population, to the number of births and to the constitution of the family. Tabulations of marital status, even where not cross-classified by economic characteristics, are very valuable for economic analysis in estimating potential demand for housing, for various types of consumer goods, and for many other such purposes.

2. The chapter on civil condition or marital status in the Reports of previous censuses contained a large amount of descriptive matter of considerable sociological interest but of little relevance to the statistics of marriage.

**Scope of the section.**

On this occasion such subjects as peculiar marriage ceremonies, polygamy, hypergamy, endogamy and exogamy are presumed to be known, and the discussion will be primarily confined to an analysis of the statistics together with such aspects of general reference, which are connected with the figures as influences explanatory of the variations. In that connection, the effect of the social legislation will be studied, as also such recent changes in the attitude of the people towards early marriage, widowhood etc., as have been reported, will be briefly referred to.

3. At the outset it is important to lay hold of the meaning of the figures from the point of view of the question asked by the enumerator and the validity

**Meaning of the figures.**

of the answers given. The instructions regarding marital status issued to the enumerators were: "Enter each person whether infant, child, or grown up, as either married, unmarried, widowed, or divorced. Only those who are recognised to have gone through the full marriage ceremony are to be entered as married: betrothed persons (with *vagdan*) or persons about whose marriage only the preliminaries are settled, e.g., *sagai*, are to be treated as unmarried. Prostitutes are to be included among the unmarried. Unmarried women, even though they have children, should be treated as if they are not married. Kept women or concubines are to be shown under their former civil condition. Widows who have taken a second husband by the rite known as *natra* should be treated as married."

4. The above instructions were full and precise, and there is no reason to suppose that they were misunderstood. The instructions regarding the test of marriage were based with a view to rule out cases of mock marriage, as when a girl is married to a bunch of flowers and then remarried as 'widow'. Or again, as the custom requires that a bachelor cannot marry a widow, he is first married to a *shami* tree (*prospis spicigera*). They were also intended to exclude such intermediate forms of *Sambandh* as concubinage, which are not recognised publicly in these States. The enumerators were enjoined to take down without cavil the statements of the people. They were however, to explain to them that only those that have gone through the full binding portion of the ceremony were to be regarded as married. Such a binding portion amongst the higher Hindu castes in these States is the ceremony of *saptapadi* which consists in the bridal pair walking seven times round the sacrificial fire. Its counterpart, equally binding among the lower orders, is the so-called *mangalphero*. The valid part of marriage amongst forest tribes is the seating of the couple at the centre of the marriage-booth and the tying together of the hems of their festal garments into a knot, which is subsequently cut. As to remarriage of widows, the express provision about *natra*, which is a much abbreviated ceremony, indicated to the enumerators that it was to be regarded as a test of valid marriage. On the whole these instructions were strictly followed. These clear instructions made it almost impossible for inaccuracies on any large scale to arise.

5. The figures discussed in this Chapter have been extracted from Subsidiary Tables 6·7 and 6·8, which are based on the Main Table C-III. The

**Statistical data on marital status.**

latter table has been prepared, as explained in Section I of this Chapter from the 10 per cent. samples selected from the entire population excluding displaced persons. The 1941 figures, referred to below, and the 1921 and 1931 figures are based on the entire population, as recorded at those censuses.

6. The Table No. 343 below, gives the percentage of males and females separately, among unmarried, married, widowed or divorced persons according to the 1951 Census.

TABLE No. 343.

Marital status of 1,000 persons of each sex of general population in the States and Natural Divisions.

Per 1,000 of General population of each sex.

State and Natural Division.	Per 1,000 of General population of each sex.					
	Un-married.		Married		Widowed or Divorced.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State .. .. .	472	377	472	514	56	109
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	444	371	491	529	65	100
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	495	373	458	517	47	110
Rajasthan Hills Division .. ..	521	432	434	457	45	111
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. ..	460	347	477	520	63	133
Ajmer State .. .. .	448	352	485	527	67	121

Divorces are not common in the State, therefore, the slips were sorted separately for the divorce figures which are given in a statement at the end of Table C-III in Report Part II-A. The figures in the Table No. 343 above show that 472 males out of 1,000 males and 514 females out of 1,000 females are married. The proportion of un-married males is 472 while that of un-married females is 377 per thousand. The normal age of marriage is, as is well-known earlier for females than for males. The percentage of widowed persons among females is much larger (almost double) than among males, which reflects the fact that widow re-marriage is deprecated by social custom, especially among the higher classes of Hindus while widowers are free to marry again.

7. The effect of universality of marriage and the ban on widow re-marriage has been discussed at some length in Chapter I, Section 3—Growth of General population as well as in Chapter I, Section 5—Natural increase—Births and Deaths. The above figures corroborate the conclusion arrived at there. Amongst the Natural Divisions, we find that the percentage of un-married persons is higher, both among males and females in the Rajasthan Hills Division, which confirms the fact that people generally marry at a later age in that area, particularly in Sirohi and Udaipur Districts, than in the other parts of the State. The East Rajasthan Plain Division has the lowest percentage of un-married males and Rajasthan Plateau Division has the lowest figures for un-married females showing that early marriages take place on a larger scale in these Divisions than elsewhere in the State. The percentage of widows among females is largest in the Plateau Division. This is also attributable to early marriages.

8. Ajmer State also follows the same pattern. Here 448 males and 352 females are un-married among the 1,000 males and 1,000 females respectively. Out of 1,000 persons of each sex, the married males are 485 and married females are 527 *i.e.* to say nearly 50 per cent. of the population. Amongst widowed persons, here also the ratio of females is almost double that of the males, 67 males out of 1,000 are widowed while amongst females 121 out of 1,000 are widowed.

9. It will be useful to examine whether the marital ratio has undergone any change from decade to decade since 1901. The number of un-married persons per 1,000 of population in each of the decades is given in the Table No. 344 below for Rajasthan and Ajmer.

Variation in marital ratio from decade to decade.



TABLE No. 344

Proportion of Un-married persons from decade to decade in Rajasthan and Ajmer States.

Year.	Un-married persons per 1,000 of the population in each sex.			
	Rajasthan.		Ajmer.	
	Males	Females.	Males	Females.
1901 .. ..	479	303	454	276
1911 .. ..	494	317	472	309
1921 .. ..	511	353	466	326
1931 .. ..	491	348	450	317
1941 .. ..	502	377	470	341
1951 .. ..	472	377	448	352

N.B. Figures for the period 1901-41 have been taken from 1941 Census Report.

In Rajasthan there is a slight decrease in the proportion of unmarried males during the last 50 years, having fallen from 479 per 1,000 in 1901 to 472 in 1951. Although in the intervening decades ups and down are visible; the decrease in the last decade is significant, the proportion having fallen from 502 per 1,000 to 472. The figures of Ajmer State also follow the same pattern, where also, in spite of fluctuations in the intervening decades, there is a net fall from 454 per 1,000 in 1901 to 448 in 1951. The figures of un-married females in Rajasthan show a steady increase since 1901 from 303 per thousand to 377 in 1951, although there has been a fall in the decade 1921 to 1931. In Ajmer the increase is more marked than that in Rajasthan from 276 per thousand in 1901. to 352 in 1951, and the increase is almost steady with the exception of a slight fall in the decade 1921 to 1931. The net result is that there is an unmistakable increase in the percentage of unmarried females, indicating that the females are getting married later than in the previous decades. This tendency will become more prominent in future with the spread of education among women and the growing attention paid to the ability of the married couple to live on their own independent resources. There is a definite tendency for females to marry later than before and the Child Marriage Restraint Act is no longer felt to be a handicap.

TABLE No. 345

Proportion of Un-married persons in the Rural and Urban population in the States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Un-married persons per 1,000 of population.	
	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State .. ..	433	396
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	415	385
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	448	392
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	480	459
Rajasthan Plateau Division..	405	410
Ajmer State .. ..	378	442

10. Taking only the 1951 figures for the un-married persons we have seen in the table in para 6 above that the proportion of un-married males to the total males is highest in the Hills Division being 521 per thousand, and lowest in the East Rajasthan Plain Division being 444. In the Dry Area Division their proportion is 495 per thousand and in the Rajasthan Plateau Division it is 460. Looking into the details of rural urban areas we find in the Inset Table No. 345 that in Rajasthan as a whole the proportion is higher in rural than in urban areas and just the reverse in the Ajmer State and to some extent in Rajasthan Plateau Division.

11. Amongst the Natural Divisions, we find that in the urban areas the proportion of un-married persons is highest in the Hills Division, being 459, and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division being 385. In the Dry Area Division it is 392 and in the Plateau Division 410. In the rural areas it is highest also in the Hills Division being 480 and lowest in the Plateau Division being 405. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is 415 and in the Dry Area Division 448. Amongst the districts of Rajasthan the district which has the highest proportion of un-married males is Barmer (641) and the lowest figure is seen in Bharatpur (408). In the case of females the highest figure is seen in District Bharatpur (487) and lowest in Jhalawar (334).

TABLE No. 346.

Proportion of un-married persons in Rajasthan and some other States in India.

Name of the State.	Un-married persons per 1,000 of total population.	
	Males	Females
Rajasthan State	472	377
Ajmer State	448	352
Vindhya Pradesh	418	315
Travancore and Cochin	607	497
Orissa	471	386
Madhya Pradesh	457	374
Uttar Pradesh	463	359

12. A comparison with some other States of India has been made in the inset Table No. 346.

The figures show that the proportion of un-married persons both males and females, is higher in Rajasthan than Ajmer, Madhya-Pradesh, Vindhya-Pradesh, Orissa, and Uttar Pradesh and lower than that in Travancore Cochin.

13. The Table No. 347 below gives the proportion of married persons among males and females during each of the decades 1901-1951.

Married persons.

TABLE No. 347.

Proportion of married persons from decade to decade in Rajasthan and Ajmer States.

Married persons per 1,000 of general population of each sex in

Years.	Married persons per 1,000 of general population of each sex in			
	Rajasthan State.		Ajmer State.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1901	432	499	464	516
1911	438	501	454	511
1921	395	457	441	485
1931	438	496	482	527
1941	437	491	467	521
1951	472	514	485	527

N. B.—Figures for the period 1901-1941 have been taken from 1941 Census Report.

The figures show that in spite of sharp fluctuations in the intervening decades in the proportion of married persons of each sex to the total population both in Rajasthan and Ajmer since 1901, there has been an overall rise in the proportion during 50 years though it is not very significant, i. e., to say an increase in Rajasthan by 4 per cent. in the proportion of married males to the total population and by 1.5 per cent. in that of married females; and in case of Ajmer an increase by 1.9 per cent. in males and 1.1 per cent. in females. But it is interesting to note that there is an increase in the proportion of both un-married females as seen in para 9 above as well as of married females.

This is due to a corresponding decrease in the proportion of widows which we shall examine shortly but before doing so let us see the variation in the proportion of married persons from one Natural Division to another in the 1951 Census.

14. In Table No. 343 above in para 6 we have seen that the proportion of married males to total males is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division being 491 and lowest in Rajasthan Hills Division being 434. In Rajasthan Dry Area Division it is only 458 and in the Plateau Division it is 477. The position in case of females is more or less the same. The proportion of the married females to total population of females is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division being 529 and lowest in Hills Division (457). In Rajasthan Dry Area Division it is 517 and in Plateau Division 520.

TABLE No. 348

Proportion of married persons in the Rural and Urban population in the States and Natural Divisions

State and Natural Divisions	Married persons per 1,000 of population	
	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State ..	485	527
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	500	549
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	478	517
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	444	458
Rajasthan Plateau Division..	496	512
Ajmer State .. ..	525	471

Churu have the highest figure *i.e.*, 522 per 1,000 each in married males while lowest in Barmer District where the figure is only 319 per thousand. In case of married females the highest figure is in Sikar District (622) while lowest is visible in District Barmer (434).

16. It is not surprising to find that, in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, Jaipur District has the smaller percentage under un-married males and larger percentage under married males, because in the immigrants which have gone to swell the city's population between 1941 and 1951 there are larger numbers of married men. A comparison with some other States of India has been made in the following Table No. 349.

TABLE No. 349

Proportion of married persons in Rajasthan and some other States of India.

Name of the State	Married persons per 1,000 of total population	
	Males	Females
Rajasthan State ..	472	514
Ajmer State ..	485	527
Vindhya Pradesh ..	523	556
Travancore and Cochin..	367	388
Orissa .. ..	490	483
Madhya Pradesh ..	494	495
Uttar Pradesh ..	466	521

15. The figures in the inset Table show that in Rajasthan State as a whole, as well as in each Natural Division, the proportion of married persons to the total population is higher in urban than in rural areas, while in Ajmer the case is the reverse where the proportion is higher in rural than the urban. The proportion of married persons to the total population both in rural as well in urban areas, is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (500 per thousand); next to it in Plateau Division (496 per thousand). It is the least in the Hills Division (444 per thousand) and in the Dry Area Division it is 478. The figures of males as well as females follow the same pattern as seen in Table No. 343 above in para 6. Coming to the district level, we find that the Districts Jaipur and Churu have the highest figure *i.e.*, 522 per 1,000 each in married males while lowest in Barmer District where the figure is only 319 per thousand. In case of married females the highest figure is in Sikar District (622) while lowest is visible in District Barmer (434).

17. The figures show that the proportion of married males as well as females is higher than that of Rajasthan, in Ajmer and Vindhya Pradesh, but in Orissa and Madhya Pradesh the proportion of married males is higher and that of married females is lower than that of Rajasthan. In Travancore-Cochin the proportion of married males as well as females is lower than that in Rajasthan, but in Uttar Pradesh the proportion of married males is lower but that of married females is higher than that in Rajasthan.

18. The Table No. 350 below gives the proportion of widowed persons including divorced Widowed and Divorced persons among males and females during each of the decades 1901 to 1951.

TABLE No. 350

Proportion of widowed or divorced persons from decade to decade in Rajasthan and Ajmer States.

Years.	Widowed persons per 1,000 of population of each sex in			
	Rajasthan State		Ajmer State	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1901	89	198	82	208
1911	68	182	74	180
1921	94	190	93	189
1931	71	156	68	156
1941	61	132	63	138
1951	56	109	67	121

N.B.—Figures for the period 1901–41 have been copied from the Report of 1941.

At the 1951 Census, figures have been given separately for widowed and divorced persons; but at the previous Census; they were lumped together under widowed. The declining percentage of widows both in Rajasthan and Ajmer since 1901 is noteworthy and it is the result of marriages taking place at a later age. An increase in the proportion in 1921 may perhaps be the reflection of the influenza. This is bound to have the effect of increasing the rate of growth of the population but this will be counteracted to some extent by the tendency among both males and females to marry late.

19. Amongst the Natural Divisions we have seen in Table No 343 in para 6 above that the proportion of widowed or divorced males to total population of males is highest in East Rajasthan Plain Division, being 65, and lowest in Hills Division being 45. In Rajasthan Dry Area Division it is only 47 and in Plateau Division 63. The position in case of females is different. The Rajasthan Plateau Division which occupies the second position in respect of the proportion of widowed males has the highest proportion of widowed females (133). The proportion is lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division (100). In Rajasthan Dry Area Division it is 110 and in Hills Division it is 111.

20. Looking into the details of rural urban areas we find in the marginal Table No. 351 that in Rajasthan as a whole the proportion is higher in rural than in urban areas and the same is the pattern in Ajmer State. But it is higher in the urban areas than the rural

TABLE No. 351.

Proportion of widowed persons in rural and urban population in States and Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Widowed persons per 1,000 of population	
	Rural	Urban
Rajasthan State	82	77
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	85	65
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	74	91
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	76	83
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	99	78
Ajmer State	97	87

in the Dry Area Division and the Hills Division. Amongst the Natural Divisions the proportion is higher in urban areas of Rajasthan Dry Area Division being 91 and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division being 65. In Hills Division it is 83 and in the Plateau Division 78. In the rural areas it is highest in Plateau Division being 99 and lowest in Dry Area Division being 74. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division it is 85 and in the Rajasthan Hills Division it is 76. Amongst the districts in Rajasthan the highest proportion of widowed and divorced males is found in Sirohi (109 per 1,000) and lowest in Banswara 31. The proportion of widowed and divorced females is highest in Jhalawar (145) and the lowest in Jhunjunu (78).

21. A comparison with some other States of India has been made in the inset Table No. 352.

TABLE No. 352.

Proportion of widowed and divorced persons in Rajasthan and some other States in India.

Name of State	Widowed and Divorced persons per 1,000 of total population	
	Males	Females
Rajasthan State ..	56	109
Ajmer State ..	67	121
Vindhya Pradesh ..	59	129
Travancore and Cochin ..	26	115
Orissa ..	39	131
Madhya Pradesh ..	49	131
Uttar Pradesh ..	71	120

The figures show that in all States mentioned in the Table the proportion of widowed females is higher than that in Rajasthan indicating the existence of the custom of widow marriage to a greater extent in Rajasthan than elsewhere. The proportion of widowers is lower in Rajasthan than Ajmer, Vindhya Pradesh, and U. P. and higher than other States.

22. The age tabulation at this Census is also based on the 10 per cent. Samples taken from the entire population excluding displaced persons, while the age figures for the 1921, 1931, and 1941 Censuses were tabulated with reference to the entire population. As already mentioned in Section 1 of this Chapter, it is well-known that nothing connected with the Census questionnaire is more difficult for illiterate persons than giving precise information relating to their age. In the case of such persons, the enumerator had to do his best by questioning the more intelligent and elderly, if not educated persons in the same household or neighbouring households, and arrive at as good an approximation to the actual ages as was possible. Enumerators were also equipped with calendars of outstanding occurrences in each Tehsil to enable them to assist the persons enumerated to recollect important events in their own lives, particularly important ceremonies like marriage, or birth of a child, with reference to those outstanding occurrences and thus help the enumerator to ascertain the age as correctly as possible. As previously explained, the age ascertained at the 1921 Census was that attained at the last birthday of the person enumerated. At the 1931 Census, what was ascertained was the age attained at the nearest birthday, which might be either prior to the Census date or subsequent to it. At the 1941 Census, the more ambitious proposal to record not only the completed years but also the number of months which had elapsed since the last birthday and upto the Census date, was tried. At the 1951 Census, it was realised that this was too ambitious to attempt and we contented ourselves with ascertaining the number of completed years of age, that is, the age completed at the last birthday. People in this State usually give their running age, *i.e.* the age that they would be completing at their next birthday. This was pointed out and the enumerators were requested to record carefully the age at the last birthday. As at the last Census, the 1951 Census also showed the partiality for people to give their age in multiples of 5 or 0, but the figures ascertained by the enumerators have been adopted without applying any smoothing formula. These differences in the ascertained age are not however of an order which is likely to affect the validity of comparisons based on the figures recorded at the various censuses. Subsidiary Table 6·8 in Part I-B of the Report gives, for each sex, the age distribution in 1941 and 1951 of married persons. The age groups taken for purposes of this comparison are 0-14, 15-34, 35-54, and 55 and over.

23. Taking the Rajasthan State as a whole, we find the age distribution for married persons in 1941 and 1951 to be as shown in Table No. 353.

TABLE No. 353

Distribution of 1,000 married persons by age in the last two Censuses in Rajasthan.

Age Group.	Married persons per 1,000			
	1941		1951	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5
0-14 .. ..	54	121	42	87
15-34 .. ..	520	604	474	579
35-54 .. ..	327	237	367	276
55 and over ..	99	38	116	57
Age not stated. ..	..	..	1	1

These figures confirm the fact referred to previously, that both amongst males and females, marriages are now taking place at a later age and that there is a tendency for them to take place even later than the 15-34 group. The higher figures in the last groups 35-54 and 55 and over in 1951, when compared with those in 1941 are the result of improving death rates. The highest proportion of married persons is found both among the males and females in the group between 15-34. There is a larger proportion of males than females in the married state after the age of 34. The figures in the first group *viz.*, group 0-14 show also a much larger proportion of females than males (almost double) who marry before the age of 15.

24. The age distribution for married persons in Ajmer State in 1941 and 1951 is shown in Table No. 354.

TABLE No. 354

Distribution of 1,000 married persons by age in last two Censuses in Ajmer State.

Age group.	Married persons per 1,000			
	1941		1951	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5
0-14 .. ..	60	128	62	123
15-34 .. ..	525	622	497	603
35-54 .. ..	327	222	356	229
55 and over. ..	88	28	85	45

The figures show that early marriages are more in vogue in Ajmer than in Rajasthan both among males and females. The higher figures in the last groups 35-54 and 55 and over in 1951, when compared with those in 1941 are, in Ajmer also, the result of improving death rates. Here also as in Rajasthan, the highest proportion of married persons is found both among the males and the females in the group between 15-34. There is a larger proportion of married males than females after the age of 34. The figures in the first group, *viz.*, group 0-14 show also a much larger proportion of females than males (almost double) who marry before the age of 15.

25. A comparison of Rajasthan with some other States in India has been made in the Table No. 355

TABLE No. 355.

Married persons per thousand persons in Rajasthan and other States of India in age groups.

Name of the State	Married persons per 1,000 of the total population by sex							
	0 to 14		15 to 34		35 to 54		55 and Over	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Rajasthan State ..	42	87	474	579	367	276	116	57
Vindhya Pradesh ..	53	67	236	252	176	146	39	31
Travancore-Cochin ..	..	1	367	591	463	339	170	67
Orissa ..	28	57	424	552	412	317	135	73
Madras ..	7	28	386	597	455	318	152	57
Madhya Pradesh ..	43	78	464	565	385	300	107	57
Uttar Pradesh ..	62	101	470	557	362	288	106	54

N. B. Figures for Vindhya Pradesh are calculated by sex population but on total population (males and females combined)

The figures show that in Rajasthan early marriage figure for females is lower when compared to Uttar Pradesh, but is higher than all other States mentioned in this table. Amongst males it is lower than that in Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh States, but higher than that in other States. This evil does not seem to exist in Travancore-Cochin where only 1 married female out of 1,000 is shown in the age group 0-14.

TABLE No. 356.

Age distribution of 1,000 married persons of each sex.

Age Group	Sex.	East Raj. Plain Division	Raj. Dry Area Division	Raj. Hills Division	Raj. Plateau Division
1	2	3	4	5	6
0 to 14 ..	Males	47	40	25	47
	Females	90	86	54	111
15 to 34 ..	Males	473	454	495	498
	Females	553	578	647	605
35 to 54 ..	Males	354	383	377	368
	Females	287	281	258	246
55 and over	Males	124	123	103	86
	Females	69	55	41	38
Age not stated.	Males	2	less than 1	1	1
	Females	1	2	..	·04

26. The Table No. 356 gives the position in Natural Divisions. These figures show that early marriages in the first age group 0 to 14 do exist every where and the position is the worst in this respect in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and in the Plateau Division almost equally. Rajasthan Dry Area Division shows otherwise roughly the same trend as visible in the State as a whole. Rajasthan Hills Division is comparatively better in this respect, where the proportion of married persons in the lowest age group is comparatively the lowest. It seems that in this Division people marry at a comparatively higher age. This fact was also noticed in para 7 above, where it was noticed in the Table No. 343 in para 6, that the percentage of unmarried

persons was higher in that Division than that of married ones. The fact of the existence of early marriages, comparatively to a greater extent in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Plateau Division was also corroborated by the figures in Table No. 343 in para 6, where it was noticed that the proportion of unmarried males was the lowest in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and that of unmarried females was the lowest in the Plateau Division. Early marriages amongst males are comparatively fewer than among females throughout Rajasthan as a whole as well as



in all the Natural Divisions, so also in Ajmer State. The highest figures of early marriage in case of males are seen in the District of Bikaner (81) and in case of females in Bhilwara (142), while lowest figure is seen in among males in Districts Bharatpur and Sikar (8) and among females in District Sirohi (26).

27. The highest proportion of married persons is found in the age group 15 to 34, which one should expect. But even in that age group the number of married males is comparatively lower than that of females. It seems that a certain number of males remain unmarried even upto late period, while the females do not do so. In the higher age groups 35 to 54 and 55 and over the proportion of married persons gradually decreases in all the Natural Divisions, both amongst males as well as females. But the number of married females in the advanced age groups is less when compared to that of married males. The reason is apparent that on the dissolution of marriage relations or on the demise of any one of the partners the female partner is not allowed to re-marry, in most cases, and is categorised as a widow while the male partner contracts another marriage and adds to the number of married males. The female partner usually comes from the lower age group wherein we find the number of married females to be higher than the married males. The petty difference from Division to Division can be seen in the Table No. 356 above in para 26.

28. The difficulties of ascertaining the age of the people during the census are indicated in Section I of this Chapter as well as in the paragraph 22 of this Section. In spite of certain elements of doubt about the ages, we cannot fail to notice that the figures bring out the alarming fact that about 4.2 per cent. of married males and 8.7 per cent. of married females in Rajasthan and 6.2 p. c. males and 12.3 p. c. females in Ajmer State are breaking the law about marrying early, but the comparative figures of 1941 and 1951 tend to show that the tendency is on the decline, both in the case of males as well as females, in Rajasthan, and in Ajmer State in case of females only. These conclusions are arrived at even after assuming that all persons below 5 years of age are unmarried. The figures of 1941 Census indicate that persons below 5 years of age were also found to be married and that their percentage was of the order of 0.23 of the total number of married persons. In other words, it would appear that if the assumption referred to above were not made about persons below 5 years of age during the 1951 Tabulation, the increase in the tendency about marrying early would have been noticeable to a still larger extent. But the above figures are not sufficient for forming a correct estimate of the number of persons who are contravening the law about early marriage, because they give us only the proportion of married persons who were in the age group 0-14 at the time of census. It is also not impossible that amongst people who were of the age groups above 14 at the time of census there may be some persons who married before the prescribed age, of whom we could take no notice in the above discussion. In fact if the age at the time of marriage were inquired into, then alone we could have judged the extent of early marriage. There is however, another angle from which the proportion of those who have broken the law against early marriage can be observed. Let us find out how many out of 1,000 persons who are below the age of 14 are married. The inset Table No. 357 gives the figures for Rajasthan and Ajmer:—

TABLE No. 357.

Proportion of married persons to the total in the age group 0-14

Number of married persons per 1,000 of the total persons aged 0-14

Rajasthan			Ajmer		
Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
79.8	26.0	53.8	118.1	39.7	78.4

It is evident, that there are at least 80 children (26 males and 54 females) out of thousand children who have not yet attained the marriageable age and yet are married. There may be many more who married in childhood but are now in older age groups whose number we have no means to ascertain.

29. We have already considered above the enactment of the Sarda Act and its effect. This Act did not apply to the integrating States of Rajasthan but in certain States, there were similar local laws. The number of married females per 1,000 women in 1921 in the State was 457. This figure suddenly jumped up to 496 in 1931. It fell a little in 1941 to 491 but increased again in 1951, when the number of married women per 1,000 women was 514. The corresponding figures for males show that in 1921 there were 395 married males per 1,000 men and in 1931, the figure went up to 438. It fell slightly to 437 in 1941 and has since further gone up to 472 in 1951. The effect of the Sarda Act on the ratio of married persons in the population has been well described in the Rajputana Census Report of 1931. "When the proposed provisions of the Sarda Act became known, the effect in the neighbouring British Province of Ajmer-Merwara was to hasten on the marriages of many little boys and girls who were far below the proposed minimum ages of 18 and 14. Although the Act was not to apply to the Indian States, the same haste appears to have been noticeable among the parents of many immature boys and girls in this Agency". As against the abnormal and uneven nature of the influenza epidemic, we find more or less uniform jump in the number of married persons during 1931 as a result of the Sarda Act in all the Natural Divisions. We have already seen that the birth-rate during 1921-30 and 1931-40 practically remained the same in the Ajmer State. One of the reasons was, as has already been pointed out, the peculiar nature of the distortion of the age structure by the influenza epidemic. Another cause for maintaining the birth rate, which would have shown a more distinct fall on account of the age structure, is to be attributed to the abnormal number of marriages which took place towards the end of the decade 1930. The distinct fall of the birth rate during 1941-50, is as we have seen, corroborated by the fall in the number of married persons in the State during the decade. In other words, the main reason is not that the married people breed less, but that the proportion of married people has diminished. This again is associated with the past history of famines and epidemics affecting particular age groups, as pointed out in Chapter I. The Sarda Act convulsion followed by the levelling off tendency is also a significant case. Columns 7 and 6 of the Subsidiary Table No. 6·7 relating to the married females during 1941 and 1950 show that in the State as a whole, as well as in all the Natural Divisions, the position with regard to the number of married females shows slight deterioration and this might have a further slight damping effect on the birth rate during the next decade, if other circumstances continue to be the same during 1951-60 as they were during 1941-50 as already discussed in Chapter I.

30. In recent years, there have been many movements on foot to postpone the time of marriage till the contracting parties had reached an age when their physical and mental development would be such as to fit them for union, its implications and consequences; but tradition and long standing customs die hard in this region. However, abhorrent early marriage may seem to Western minds, it should be remembered that the ceremony of 'Shadi' or 'Biyah' is more in the nature of a fulfillment of universal law in the East than an implication that the couple should at once settle down to married life, as it is understood in the West. If the bride or bridegroom are of a very tender age, many years usually elapse before they start living together. Each remains under the paternal roof and the evils of infant marriage are only manifest when the parents or guardians anticipate the natural process of physical development by permitting consummation before either boy or girl or both have sufficiently passed the age of puberty for the union to be justifiable in the interest of the well-being of the race as a whole and the next generation.

31. (a) *Universality of marriage*:—The most prominent feature of statistics regarding civil condition is, as it has been always in India, the universality of marriage. To the European observer, it is the feature that strikes as the most significant contrast to the life of the West. But as the India Census Report 1911, pointed out (para 325) "The universality of marriage is not a peculiarity with India. but amongst all primitive races, and it is not the European custom but the Indian, which is the normal and the natural thing". "It is only in the artificial, social and economic conditions of the West that marriage has ceased to be regarded as inevitable, and that prudential and other considerations cause many

**Effects of marriage legislation and the influenza epidemic.**

**Main features of the statistics regarding marital status.**

to remain celibate. In all other parts of the World, marriage is looked upon, not as a luxury, but as an absolute necessity for man and woman alike". Here in India, with the Hindus, this natural tendency is reinforced by social and religious sanctions of great antiquity. Religion in the West, as Risley pointed out, "Usually makes for celibacy, while in India it throws its weight almost wholly in favour of the married state. The Hindus, with whom marriage is a sacrament, forming as they do the predominant portion of the population, have affected profoundly the attitude and social practices of other religions. Musalmans, the bulk of whom are converts from Hinduism, have been affected to a varying extent by Hindu influences, and no where have these influences been so effective as on marriage usage. Jains are dominated by Hindu influences in this regard; so far reforming activity amongst them has been able to effect very little change in their general attitude in regard to caste restriction in marriage and the remarriage of widows. Marriage amongst Tribes is adult, and the remoter is a tribe from Hindu influences, the higher is its age of marriage. The Indian converts to Christianity have been little influenced so far as early marriage is concerned. The Parsis alone are an exception, but even they, until recent years, had succumbed to the pervading influence of Hindu social practices and amongst the orthodox sections, marriage is almost as largely prevalent as amongst any Hindu caste." These general considerations apply with equal force to these States. Of the whole population, over 49 per cent. are married, 42 per cent. are unmarried and 9 per cent. widowed. By sex, the proportions are different. There are nearly twice as many widows as there are widowers, proportioned to a 1,000 of each sex, about a little less than half of males and more than one-third females are un-married.

32. (b) *Early marriage*:—A nother point in which the statistics of marriage offer a marked contrast to the state of things in Western Europe is the early age of marriage. In Rajasthan State, one male in twenty and one female in twelve are married before they are 14 years of age. In Ajmer, one male out of every 16 and one female out of every nine are married before that age. The incidence of infant marriage will be more closely studied presently. In the meantime the contrast is only broadly stated.

33. (c) *The large proportion of widows*:—The third feature which marks off the civil condition figures of these States from the European statistics is the large proportion of the widows that they disclose. The proportion of the widowers is only 6 per cent. of the male population and does not differ greatly from that in other countries. But the proportion of widows is more than 10 per cent. About 14 per cent. of the widows of the State are below 35 years of age.

34. (d) *Correlation between enforced widowhood and early marriage*:—Lastly, the proportion of widows and the practice of enforced widowhood in a community are factors governing the situation regarding the age at marriage. As a general rule, castes that practice infant marriages allow their widows to marry again. This is so amongst Hindus at any rate except high caste Brahmins or Vaishyas. Tribes and Musalmans have adult marriages and also allow their widows to remarry. Jains, although they have adult marriages, rigidly enforce the practice of lifelong widowhood. On the other hand, castes which are adopting this practice as a matter of social prestige are slowly raising their marriage-age.

TABLE No. 358.

Widows per 1,000 of total females from  
1901 to 1951 in Rajasthan.

Decade.	Widows per 1,000 of the total females
1901	198
1911	182
1921	190
1931	156
1941	132
1951	109

35. (e) *Statistics regarding the widows*:—Apart from early marriage, the statistics of civil condition offer one other point of interest, the frequency of widowhood. There are, according to the present census, 109 widows per 1,000 females in the State, and 121 in Ajmer. The corresponding figures for previous decade are given in the inset Table which shows that the proportion of widows is decreasing, but that of married women is slightly increasing as shown in para 13, showing that the age of marriage is rising only slowly. As laid down in the Census

TABLE No. 359.

Young widows from decade to decade

Age period.	Widows per 1,000 of the total in the age-group in Census of					
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
10 to 15	23	9	15	7	7	..
15 to 20	65	31	43	27	17	..

of 1901 are exceptional. On the whole the widowers are also decreasing except in the age group 60 and over. The older the widower the more difficult he is finding it now to marry again. The more human attitude that is inducing people to postpone the marriage of their girls is also making them avoid desperate marriages for their girls. The older candidate is thus elbowed out by the younger competitors in the marriage market. In the Census of 1951, there were in Rajasthan 35 young widows in the age-group 15-24 per 1000 of all widows. It was not possible to work out the comparative figures for the age groups corresponding to those given in Table No. 359 above, because the age groups adopted in the present census were different from these in previous censuses.

Report, 1941, "Widows among infants and children are now (in 1941) very rare", but in the ages 10-15 and 15-20, the proportion of widows though decreasing is still not inconsiderable as seen in the inset Table No. 359. The high proportion of widows in 1901 is doubtless due to famine mortality which usually spared the women. The proportion of widows is decreasing but the proportion of widowers is fluctuating from Census to Census as seen in the Table No. 360. The figures

TABLE No. 360.

Widowers by age-groups from decade to decade

Age period	Widowers per 1,000 males in the age group in the Census of				
	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
15-20	17	27	43	31	65
20-40	92	127	157	123	177
40-60	453	520	529	524	497
60 and over	786	836	850	856	752

36. (f) *Widows at child bearing periods*:—A small comparative statement is given below, wherein the proportion of widows of the child bearing ages is compared. Generally the figures show a declining tendency.

TABLE No. 361.

Number per 1,000 women aged 15-40, who are widowed in Rajasthan

1941	1931	1921
109	154	200

Reforming sects and social reform associations have frequently preached against the evil and have sometimes acted up to their professions. In these States, however, customs die hard and sentimental appeals in favour of their abolition fall on deaf ears. But it is coming to be recognised that widow remarriage is a matter of social necessity.

37. (g) *Present tendency towards widow re-marriages*:—There are at present two kinds of forces acting from opposite directions in regard to this question. At one end of the scale are the intellectualist reformers, found in every high caste, who realise that the condemnation of child-widows to perpetual widowhood is a modern aberration of Hinduism that was unknown to its ancient founders.

38. All these are, however, tentative and more or less individual efforts. No concerted action or wholesale movement is yet apparent. The truth is that all such efforts are and will be powerless so long as authoritative Hindu opinion continues to regard the prohibition of widow remarriage as a badge of respectability. Amongst the lower Hindu castes, the socially affluent sections are discountenancing the practice of widow re-marriage as actively as any Brahmin or Vaishya. Gradually this question is becoming a potent cause of fission in these communities, the section disallowing widow-remarriage being hypergamous to the rest that allow it.

39. (h) *Evidence of polygamy from the figures*:—The figures showing the proportion of wives to husbands in Subsidiary Table 6·8 are sometimes taken as a clue to the incidence of polygamy. Both Hindus and Musalmans are by religion polygamous but in practice as a rule monogamous, there were 996 married women to 1,000 married men, while in 1941, the ratio is 1002 to 1000. Of course, this does not mean that polygamy is, therefore, on the increase. That the general increase in the population has been made up of a larger quota of women than of men has been already pointed out in the previous chapter. Secondly in our exchange in migration, we give more men than women. The true incidence of polygamy is thus obscured by the factor of emigration.

40. (i) *Statistics regarding adult spinsters*:—Table C-III given in Part II-A of the Report shows that there are 92,190 spinsters of the age of 15 and upwards in the 10 per cent. sample population. The corresponding figures from 1921 were about 99,000 spinsters of that age and over. Thus there is decrease of spinsters in the State.

## SECTION 6.

### Infants (Aged '0')

For considering the age structure of the population, statistics have been compiled under six broad categories, viz., infants, i.e., children below one year of age; young children between the ages 1 to 4; boys and girls between the ages 5 to 14; young men and women in the age group 15 to 34, middle aged persons in the age group 35 to 54, and elderly persons in the age group 55 and over.

2. A perusal of Subsidiary Table 6·9 in Part I-B of the Report shows, that in Rajasthan State as a whole and in Ajmer State, the proportion of infants in the population has increased significantly compared to the figures of 1941. Their number per 10,000 of the population in 1941 was in Rajasthan 155. It is 360 in 1951, an increase by nearly 20 per thousand. In Ajmer the proportion has risen from 138 per 10,000 in 1941 to 480 in 1951 or 34 per thousand. The definition of 'infant' as at the 1941 Census as well as at the 1951 Census was that a person below one year of age was regarded as infant. The figures, therefore, indicate that there is real fall in the infant deaths. Taking into consideration the death and birth rates, the calculations show that the increase of infants from 155 to 360 in Rajasthan and from 138 to 480 in Ajmer is not well justified. If, however, the figures for infants and young children are taken together from Subsidiary Tables 6·9 and 6·10, we find that there were in Rajasthan 1,429 infants and young children per 10,000 persons in 1951 as compared to 1,460 in 1941. In Ajmer the number of infants and young children per 10,000 in 1951 is 1,524 as compared to 1,264 in 1941. The difference between these figures is easily explained on the basis of the birth and death rates. It is to be remembered that if we take the individual year age group of the young children, the registration error is reflected. If, on the other hand, we compare the difference between the 1941 and 1951 figures for all infants and young children as well as boys and girls taken together, we would get a measure of the real fall and also a measure of the exaggeration of the fall due to deficiency in registration.

TABLE No. 362

Proportion of infants (below one year)  
in certain States of India.

Name of State	Infants per 10,000 of general population
Rajasthan State ..	360
Uttar Pradesh ..	332
Madhya Pradesh ..	341
Travancore-Cochin ..	295
Vindhya Pradesh ..	228
Orissa ..	279
Madras ..	257
Ajmer ..	480

3. A comparison of the position in 1951 with some other States of India has been made in the inset Table No. 362. The figures show that the proportion is higher in Ajmer State only when compared to Rajasthan. It is lower in all other States given in the table.

4. Amongst the Natural Divisions the proportion ranges from 322 per 10,000 in the Dry Area Division to 397 in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. In the Hills Division their proportion is 327 and in the Plateau Division 362, as seen in the Table No. 363 below.

TABLE No. 363

Proportion of infants (below one year) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Number of infants per 10,000 in General population.		
	Persons	Males	Females
Rajasthan State ..	360	184	176
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	397	199	198
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	322	170	152
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	327	173	154
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	362	178	184
Ajmer State ..	480	252	228

5. Among the Districts, Barmer has the highest proportion, 667 per 10,000 and Jaisalmer the lowest, 97 only.

In Rural and Urban  
Population.

TABLE No. 364.

Proportion of infants (below one year) in Rural and Urban population of Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Number of infants per 10,000 in			
	Rural population		Urban population.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State.	187	181	167	155
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	209	211	152	143
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	169	150	173	160
Rajasthan Hills Division	175	157	159	126
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	171	179	228	215
Ajmer State.	234	224	286	234



The Table No. 364 above shows the distribution of infants in rural and urban population. It is significant to note that in Rajasthan as a whole the proportion of infants in the urban population is lower (322 per 10,000) than that in rural population (368), while it is higher in urban than in rural in Ajmer State. Among the Natural Divisions, Rajasthan Plateau has a higher proportion of infants in urban population than in rural and total population. This pattern is closely followed by Rajasthan Dry Area Division. But just the reverse is the position in the East Rajasthan Plain and Hills Divisions where infants are higher in proportion in rural than in the urban population.

6. The Table No. 365 below gives the figures of infants per 10,000 of population in agricultural and non-agricultural classes. Here too the same trend is noticeable *i.e.* to say, the higher proportion among the Agricultural classes in Rajasthan as a whole and the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Hills Division, and among non-agricultural classes in Ajmer and the remaining Divisions of Rajasthan.

TABLE No. 365

Proportion of infants (below one year) among Agricultural and Non-agricultural classes.

State and Natural Division	Number of infants per 10,000 of			
	Agricultural classes		Non-agricultural classes	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State .. .. .	189	183	171	160
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	207	212	180	166
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	175	154	158	148
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	189	164	119	118
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	163	176	221	207
Ajmer State .. .. .	210	210	296	246

7. These figures together with the figures of the Table No. 364 in previous paragraph naturally raise a question as to the reason of this low proportion of infants in urban as distinct from that in rural population and also in non-agricultural as contrasted with the agricultural population in Rajasthan as a whole and in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Plateau Division, and exactly the reverse position in Ajmer and the Dry Area Division and the Hills Division of Rajasthan. A natural presumption should be that of lower mortality in urban areas and amongst non-agricultural classes due to the availability of better medical facilities in the urban than in the rural areas. The pattern of Ajmer corroborates this presumption, so also that of Rajasthan Plateau Division and the Dry Area Division. But the reason for the opposite pattern visible in the figures of Rajasthan State as a whole and the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Hills Division can only be that even in urban areas of these Divisions the medical facilities are in no way better than those in the rural areas; whatever attempts to reduce deaths, are made by Medical Officers in the urban areas, are frustrated owing to un-healthy conditions of living in the towns, while the comparative out-door life and fresh air and exercise which are available to the rural population seem to compensate sufficiently the loss caused by want of proper medical facilities. The existence of maternity homes etc., in Ajmer City and their absence in the urban areas of Rajasthan as well as the tendency of the temporary and semi-permanent migrants to keep their wives in rural homes and to bring them to the city at the time of delivery and keeping them there only for some time after it to take advantage of maternity facilities are other factors worth considering, because it is well known that in Rajasthan Plateau Division and Dry Area Division there is not so much migration from urban to rural areas as it is in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Hills Division.



8. It is also to be observed that the figures of the male infants are throughout higher than those of the female infants, which again corroborates the fact about higher death rates amongst the female infants than amongst the male infants. One of the probable causes for this as pointed out before, is that a male child receives greater attention than a female child, for reasons associated with the social life and custom of the people. But the higher female ratio amongst the infants in the rural and agricultural population of the East Rajasthan Plain Division and the Plateau Division when compared to that in the urban population of those divisions deserves consideration. I wonder if it is so because the custom of giving enormous dowries is less in vogue in these Divisions when compared to the other places and because the bride's parents get some financial advantage at the time of the marriage of their daughters, from the bridegroom's parents, by way of bride price, due to scarcity of women, whereby girls are treated more as an asset than as a liability in those places. The figures of sex ratio observed in Section 4 corroborate this assumption but we have still to see whether the figures of age groups 1-4 and 5-14 also corroborate this view. A look at the inset tables in Sections 7 and 8 of this Chapter will show that the figures do not support the presumption at all in the case of East Rajasthan Plain Division and they support it to very slight extent in the Plateau Division, because we find that in the age groups 1-4 and 5-14 the males exceed the females in the rural and agricultural population of East Rajasthan Plain Division. and in the Plateau Division the males exceed females in age group 5-14 in the rural and agricultural population. The reason therefore, still remains undiscovered. A correct analysis can only be made in terms of fertility which we are not in a position to do for want of adequate data.

#### SECTION 7.

#### Young children (aged 1-4.)

1. Subsidiary Table 6-10 in Part I-B of the Report gives the number of young children of both sexes of age 1 and above and below 5 years, per 10,000 of the general population. The figures show that the number of the young children has diminished during the decade. Their number per 10,000 of population for Rajasthan was 1305 in 1941 and it was 1069 in 1951, a decrease by 24 per thousand. In Ajmer their proportion per 10,000 persons in 1941 was 1126 and now it is 1044, a fall by 8 per thousand.

TABLE No. 366

Proportion of young children (Aged 1 to 4)  
in certain States of India.

Name of the State	Young children per 10,000 of general population
Rajasthan State ..	1069
Ajmer State ..	1044
Uttar Pradesh ..	1013
Madhya Pradesh ..	1043
Travancore-Cochin ..	1180
Vindhya Pradesh ..	957
Orissa ..	985
Madras ..	949

2. The diminution in the proportion of the young children aged 1-4 is noticeable not only in Rajasthan and Ajmer but also in some other States of India like Madras and Madhya Pradesh. The inset table gives their figures, from which it also appears that Rajasthan and Ajmer States are better off in this respect when compared to all States mentioned in the table except Travancore-Cochin. This phenomenon may be correlated to the decline in the birth rate during the decade as explained in Chapter I Section 5.

3. The variation in the proportion from Division to Division is significant. It ranges from 1,228 per 10,000 in Hills Division to 998 in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. The other two Divisions occupy an intermediate position, the proportion in Dry Area Division being 1,111 and that in the Plateau Division 1,041 per 10,000 as seen in the Table No. 367 below.

TABLE No. 367.

Proportion of young children (Aged 1 to 4) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and in the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Young children per 10,000 of General Population		
	Persons	Males	Females
	2	3	4
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,069	543	526
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	998	508	490
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	1,111	575	536
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	1,228	603	625
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	1,041	524	517
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,044	511	533

4. Coming to the district level we find that in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, Jhunjhunu District has the highest proportion of young children (1,153 per 10,000) and Sikar District has the lowest (817). In the Dry Area Division, Ganganagar District has the highest proportion (1,407) and Churu District has the lowest (927). In the Hills Division the figure of Dungarpur District is the highest (1,535) and that of Sirohi the lowest (1,073). In the Rajasthan Plateau Division the highest proportion is found in the Bundi District (1,154) and the lowest in Jhalawar District (955).

5. The Table No. 368. below compares proportion of young children in the rural and urban population of Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 368.

State and Natural Division	Young children (aged 1 to 4) per 10,000 in			
	Rural population		Urban population	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State .. .. .	550	539	511	463
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	512	502	489	438
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	584	545	540	500
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	620	645	445	446
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	519	525	562	463
Ajmer State .. .. .	561	543	423	518

The figures show that on the whole the proportion of young children is higher in rural than in urban areas throughout, but in the Rajasthan Plateau Division, the proportion of male children (aged 1-4) is lower in rural than in urban areas.

6. The sex ratio in this age group is also worth scrutiny. In the general population as seen in the table in para 3 above, in Rajasthan as a whole, and in all Divisions except Hills Division, males are in excess, while in Ajmer State and in the Hills Division of Rajasthan, the females exceed the males. In the rural population also the males exceed females in this age group and also in the East Rajasthan Plain Division and Dry Area Division. In the Hills Division and the Plateau Division females are in excess. In the urban population also in Rajasthan State as a whole and in East Rajasthan Plain Division, Dry Area Division and Plateau Division the males are in excess but in Ajmer State and in the Hills Division the females are in excess.

7. In the agricultural population as seen in the Table No. 369 in para 10 below in Rajasthan State as a whole and in East Rajasthan Plain Division and in Ajmer State the males are in excess while females exceed the males in the Plateau Division, Hills Division and Dry Area Division. In the non-agricultural population, in Rajasthan State as a whole and in East Rajasthan Plain Division, Dry Area Division and Plateau Division, males exceed, while in Ajmer State and in Hills Division females exceed the males. The reasons of these variations could not with any claim of accuracy be found out by the writer. Correct analysis can only be made in terms of fertility which we are not in a position to do for want of adequate data.

8. In the Rajasthan State as a whole as well as in all the Divisions and the Ajmer State, the rural figures are larger than the urban. This corroborates the unhealthy living conditions in cities and towns of these States, where mortality is higher inspite of better medical facilities. The largest difference is to be found in Rajasthan Hills Division. This indicates the higher mortality in the urban area of this Division. In the Districts of Sikar, Jhunjhunu, Bikaner and Jodhpur the urban figures are higher than the rural figures and this is attributable to the fact that health conditions and medical facilities in rural areas are markedly inferior to those in the urban areas of these districts.

9. Statistics of age-specific death rates are not available for these States but it is a common belief that mortality is highest in this age, barring the infants and old people of the age 60 and above. The survivals in this group will vary with the living conditions and medical facilities available in the different parts of the State.

10. The Table No. 369 below compares the young children in agricultural and non-agricultural classes.

TABLE No. 369

Proportion of young children (age 1-4 years) in Agricultural and Non-agricultural population

State and Natural Division.	Young children (aged 1-4) per 10,000 persons of			
	Agricultural population.		Non-agricultural population.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State. . . . .	551	540	524	492
East Rajasthan Plain Division . . . . .	520	507	480	450
Rajasthan Dry Area Division . . . . .	508	536	592	536
Rajasthan Hills Division. . . . .	633	652	495	530
Rajasthan Plateau Division. . . . .	522	526	532	493
Ajmer State. . . . .	555	539	465	528

11. These figures also follow the same trend as observed in the case of rural urban classification of children, namely, that their proportion is higher in the agricultural classes when compared to that in the non-agricultural classes. This sounds contrary to common expectation and is also contrary to the pattern observed in the corresponding figures of States like Madras and Madhya Pradesh. Naturally one would expect a larger survival of children in the urban areas where medical facilities are decidedly better than in the rural areas. But the case being reverse corroborates the assumption of the unhealthy living conditions in the urban areas. Another possible explanation can be found in the fact that temporary migrants to the urban areas keep their wives and young children in their own villages, but the higher female ratio in the urban areas refutes this argument. If no other cogent reason can be found we can find refuge under the behaviour of the sample or on the comparative efficiency of enumeration in the urban as distinct from rural areas.

## SECTION 8.

## Boys and Girls (aged 5-14).

1. Subsidiary Table 6-11 given in Part 1-B of the Report shows the distribution of boys and girls per 10,000 persons in 1941 and 1951 in Rajasthan and Ajmer. It shows that in the decade 1941-51 the proportion of boys and girls has also diminished in both the States. It has diminished in Rajasthan from 2,658 to 2,543 and in Ajmer from 2,565 to 2,425 persons per 10,000 of the total population. The explanation is to be found in the decline in the birth rate since 1941 which is already explained in Section 5 Chapter I. The Table No. 370 compares the present position in Rajasthan with that in some other States of India.

TABLE No. 370.

Proportion of boys and girls (aged 5-14) to the total population in some States of India.

Name of the State	Boys and girls (aged 5-14) per 10,000 persons in General population in 1951		
	Persons	Males	Females
Rajasthan State .. ..	2,543	1,341	1,202
Ajmer State .. ..	2,425	1,276	1,149
Uttar Pradesh .. ..	2,505	1,334	1,171
Madhya Pradesh .. ..	2,450	1,254	1,196
Travancore and Cochin .. ..	2,454	1,235	1,219
Vindhya Pradesh .. ..	2,574	1,402	1,172
Orissa .. ..	2,440	1,247	1,193
Madras .. ..	2,412	1,214	1,198

2. The figures show that in Vindhya Pradesh only the proportion of boys and girls aged 5-14 is higher than that in Rajasthan. In other States it is lower.

3. Their proportion in 1951 in the Rajasthan and Ajmer States and in the Natural Divisions can be seen in Table No. 371 below.

TABLE No. 371.

Proportion of boys and girls aged 5-14 to the total population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Boys and girls (aged 5-14) per 10,000 persons in general population. in 1951		
	Persons	Males	Females
Rajasthan State .. ..	2,543	1,341	1,202
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. ..	2,464	1,292	1,172
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. ..	2,553	1,362	1,191
Rajasthan Hills Division .. ..	2,767	1,443	1,324
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. ..	2,547	1,345	1,202
Ajmer State .. ..	2,425	1,276	1,149

It is interesting to note that the proportion of boys and girls aged 5-14 is the highest in the Hills Division and the lowest in the East Rajasthan Plain Division. What do the figures indicate? Can we infer improved health conditions leading to a reduction in the mortality rate or a higher birth rate? Certainly in the absence of statistics to guide us the general presumption is higher birth rates, as these parts are inhabited by people of comparatively low standard of living. The variation in the proportion from district to district ranges from 2,885 per 10,000 in Barmer District to 2,185 in Sikar District.

4. The following Table No. 372 compares the proportion of boys and girls in rural and urban areas. We see that both in the Rajasthan and in the Ajmer State the urban figures are definitely smaller than those of rural population. This is probably due to the fact that it is only at this age that boys and girls are left behind in the rural areas by their fathers who have gone to towns for their business or professional work. Every Natural Division presents the same picture but the rural urban differentiation is the highest in Dry Area Division and lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division.

TABLE No. 372.

Proportion of boys and girls aged 5-14 in rural and urban areas

State and Natural Division	Number of boys and girls per 10,000 persons of			
	Rural population		Urban population	
	M.	F.	M.	F.
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State ..	1,363	1,222	1,231	1,106
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	1,295	1,182	1,280	1,126
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	1,415	1,229	1,141	1,034
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,454	1,331	1,341	1,261
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	1,364	1,213	1,218	1,128
Ajmer State ..	1,288	1,192	1,255	1,073

5. The Table No. 373 compares the number of boys and girls per 10,000 of general population among the agricultural and non-agricultural classes.

TABLE No. 373.

Proportion of boys and girls of the age group 5-14 in Agricultural and Non-agricultural classes.

Number of boys and girls (aged 5-14) per 10,000 persons.

State and Natural Division	Number of boys and girls (aged 5-14) per 10,000 persons.			
	Agricultural classes		Non-agricultural classes	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State ..	1,365	1,224	1,279	1,149
East Rajasthan Plain Division ..	1,292	1,181	1,292	1,149
Rajasthan Dry Area Division ..	1,415	1,218	1,245	1,133
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	1,471	1,358	1,342	1,205
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	1,372	1,224	1,267	1,143
Ajmer State ..	1,275	1,199	1,278	1,097

The proportion of boys and girls in agricultural classes is higher than that in non-agricultural classes in both the States as well as in the Natural Divisions with the same pattern as in the case of rural urban classification as shown in Table No. 372 in para 4 above. These figures again show that young children of agricultural classes have a better chance of survival to a small extent when they cross the critical infant stage. The difference from Division to Division is not much marked but it is the highest again in the Dry Area Division and the lowest in East Rajasthan Plain Division. In Ajmer, the proportionate number of boys is slightly higher in non-agricultural classes (3 per 10,000) than in the agricultural classes but that of females is much lower (102 per 10,000).

6. It is to be observed that the boys predominate over girls in all classes in this age group.

**Sex Ratio.** It is true for the States as a whole as well as Natural Divisions. The male:female ratio varies from 1,362:1,191 in Rajasthan Dry Area Division to 1,292:1,172 in East Rajasthan Plain Division. A perusal of the figures of districts in Subsidiary Table 6-11 shows that boys are in excess in all except the Bharatpur and Jodhpur Districts.

### SECTION 9.

#### Young Men and Women (aged 15-34)

1. A perusal of the Subsidiary Table 6-12, given in Part I-B of the Report, shows a fall in the proportion of youngmen and women also. Their number in the State of Rajasthan per 10,000 persons in 1941 was 3,375, while in 1951, it was reduced to 3,245. In Ajmer the figure came down from 3,628 to 3,388.

2 Their proportion in the State and Natural Divisions is given in the inset Table No. 374. The variation in the proportion between one Division and the other is not very marked, yet the largest proportion of young-men and women is found in Plateau Division and the smallest in the Dry Area Division. This is perhaps due to comparatively greater emigration of young persons from this Division, which takes place especially from Bikaner and Churu Districts to the various parts of India for commercial and industrial purposes. Amongst the districts the proportion varies from 3,682 in Sikar District to 2,959 in Alwar District.

TABLE No. 374

Proportion of young-men and women (aged 15-34) to total general population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Young-men and women (aged 15-34) per 10,000 persons of General Population in 1951-		
	Persons	Males	Females
Rajasthan State .. .. .	3,245	1,647	1,598
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	3,229	1,657	1,572
Rajasthan Dry Area Division..	3,208	1,633	1,575
Rajasthan Hills Division	3,254	1,589	1,665
Rajasthan Plateau Division ..	3,367	1,705	1,662
Ajmer State .. .. .	3,388	1,726	1,662

3. The following Table No. 375 compares the rural and urban proportionate figures for young men and women. In this age group the urban figures are distinctly higher than the rural figures. This is the age group comprising persons, who go in for higher education as well as those who migrate to towns for earning after their education is over. One should, therefore, expect to find a larger proportion of the persons in this age group in the towns.

For the same reasons, the proportion of males is larger in the urban areas than in the rural areas. In the urban areas, in the Rajasthan State as a whole, as well as in the Ajmer State and in all the Divisions, except the East Rajasthan Plain Division, the proportion of males is higher than that of females in this age group. This is because the male population in urban areas consists of many unmarried persons including those who are still at the schools and colleges. Actually this is the position in 17 districts including Jodhpur, Bikaner, Udaipur, Alwar and Kotah cities, but in the remaining eight districts including three of the eight districts in the East Rajasthan Plain Division, Sikar, Jhunjhunu and Jaipur, the proportion of females is higher than the males. In the East Rajasthan Plain Division as a whole, the proportion of females is higher than the males. This may perhaps be due to the temporary migration of the young men to places out-side Rajasthan for business from the urban areas of these places, in which females are generally left behind.

TABLE No. 375.

Proportion of young-men and women (aged 15-34) in the rural and urban areas of Rajasthan and Ajmer States and the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Young-men and women (aged 15-34) per 10,000 persons of			
	Rural Population		Urban Population	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State ..	1,635	1,584	1,704	1,165
East Rajasthan Plain Division	1,664	1,544	1,626	1,701
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	1,612	1,567	1,719	1,606
Rajasthan Hills Division ...	1,538	1,655	2,053	1,752
Rajasthan Plateau Division .	1,703	1,667	1,719	1,628
Ajmer State ..	1,665	1,601	1,833	1,767

4. The inset Table No. 376 compares the population of young-men and women in the agricultural and non-agricultural classes. In all the Divisions, there is a higher proportion of young-men and women among the non-agricultural classes than among the agricultural classes. This undoubtedly shows that an increasing proportion of the population is absorbed in non-agricultural occupations, with the growth of industries, and this is a vital group contributing to the number of active workers. In the East Rajasthan Plain and Plateau Divisions, there is a slightly larger proportion of young men and women in the agricultural classes than among the non-agricultural classes.

TABLE No. 376.

Proportion of young men and women (aged 15-34) in agricultural and non-agricultural population.

State and Natural Division	Young men and women (aged 15-34) per 10,000 persons			
	Agricultural population		Non-agricultural population	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State ..	1,637	1,598	1,671	1,598
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	1,664	1,568	1,641	1,584
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	1,623	1,573	1,654	1,580
Rajasthan Hills Division	1,530	1,660	1,797	1,681
Rajasthan Plateau Division .	1,700	1,675	1,719	1,626
Ajmer State ..	1,667	1,654	1,787	1,670

5. The overall higher proportion of young men and women in the urban population and amongst the non-agricultural classes than the proportion in the rural population and agricultural classes, would be associated with the phenomena of immigration and better medical facilities. In this connection, it is interesting to refer to the death rates in urban and rural areas of Ajmer State discussed in Chapter II and III, where we have seen how



there is a significant fall in the death rates in the urban areas, while those in the rural areas have shown little change. The preponderance of males in every class also indicates the incidence of female mortality in the maturity period.

### SECTION 10.

#### Middle Aged Persons (aged 35-54).

1. Subsidiary Table 6-13, given in Part I-B of the Report shows the distribution of middle aged persons, in rural and urban areas as well as in agricultural and non-agricultural classes, from a perusal of which it is clear that there is a rise in the proportion of middle aged persons from 1,781 to 1,968 per 10,000 of the population in Rajasthan and from 1,854 to 1,898 in Ajmer during the last decade 1941-50. The increase in the proportion of the middle aged persons during 1941-50 shows that the average duration of life is increasing with the general improvement in public health.

TABLE No. 377.

Proportion of middle aged persons (aged 35-54) to the total population in some States of India.

Name of State	Middle Aged Persons aged (35-54) per 10,000 persons in General Population,		
	Persons	Males	Females
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,968	1,063	905
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,898	1,067	831
Uttar Pradesh .. .. .	2,090	1,137	953
Madhya Pradesh .. .. .	2,110	1,089	1,021
Travancore-Cochin .. .. .	1,829	921	908
Vindhya Pradesh .. .. .	2,214	1,142	1,072
Orissa .. .. .	2,180	1,105	1,075
Madras .. .. .	2,158	1,102	1,056

2. The position in 1951 in other States can be seen in the Table No. 377 from which it is apparent that in all States except Travancore-Cochin and Ajmer, the population of Middle Aged Persons to total population is higher than that in Rajasthan. As regards middle aged males, the proportion is higher in all States except Travancore-Cochin and in the case of females, it is higher in all States except in Ajmer. Everywhere males exceed the females but the difference in Travancore-Cochin is very little.

3. The following Table No. 378 gives the number of middle aged persons *i. e.* persons in the age-group 35-54 per 10,000 persons of general population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and in the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 378.

Proportion of middle aged persons (aged 35-54) in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and in the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division	Number of persons aged 35-54 per 10,000 persons of General Population		
	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4
Rajasthan State .. .. .	1,968	1,063	905
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	2,003	1,080	923
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	2,000	1,087	913
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	1,767	938	829
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	1,992	1,086	906
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,898	1,067	831

4. The highest proportion is to be found in East Rajasthan Plain Division and in the Rajasthan Dry Area Division also, the proportion is roughly the same. The least proportion is found in Rajasthan Hills Division, Rajasthan Plateau Division ranks third. The reasons are clear. The Rajasthan Hills Division and Rajasthan Plateau Divisions contain economically backward parts in the State, where the people are generally poor and illiterate, living conditions are insanitary and medical aid not easily available. This leads to the deaths in early ages. although we have no figures to corroborate the statement. The higher proportion of young children, due to higher fertility on account of lower standards of living, also reduces the proportion of middle aged persons. Males are in excess of females throughout, but the difference is highest in Plateau Division being 180 per 10,000, it is lowest in Hills Division being 109. Dry Area Division and Plain Division occupy an intermediate position where the differences are 174 and 157 respectively. Looking into the districts we find the highest proportion in Jaisalmer District (2,493) and the lowest in Barmer District (1,551).

5. The proportion of middle aged persons in rural and urban areas is given in the inset

TABLE No. 379

Proportion of middle aged persons (aged 35-54) in rural and urban areas.

State and Natural Division	Number of middle aged (35-54) persons per 10,000 of			
	Rural Population		Urban Population	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State ..	1,061	887	1,073	993
East Rajasthan Plain Division,	1,078	912	1,089	974
Rajasthan Dry Area Division	1,082	876	1,109	1,061
Rajasthan Hills Division ..	952	826	817	856
Rajasthan Plateau Division..	1,085	898	1,087	957
Ajmer State .. .. .	1,033	848	1,127	801

Table No. 379 which shows that on the whole the rural figures are lower than those of the urban population. But in Rajasthan Hills Division the reverse is the case where the proportion of middle aged persons in urban population is lower than in the rural. It is also interesting to note here that although generally speaking in this age group, males are in excess of females, yet the female proportion in urban population is very high when compared with the rural. These figures indicate that the people come to the towns with their wives in this age group to earn their daily bread, when the females have passed the active part of their life, and they are also

in the second and less fertile stage of their reproductive period. The same pattern is seen in Ajmer State, but here the female ratio is higher in the rural than in the urban population indicating a greater migration, to urban areas, of males of this age group, than that of females.

6. The following Table No. 380 gives the proportion of middle aged persons found among agricultural classes and non-agricultural classes, from a perusal of which it is evident that the proportion of middle aged persons is lower in agricultural classes in the State as a whole when compared to that in non-agricultural classes. Amongst the Natural Divisions also it is lower in the agricultural classes throughout. Female ratio in the agricultural classes is much lower than that in the middle aged persons of the non-agricultural classes in Rajasthan. But the opposite is the position in Ajmer State where the female ratio is higher in agricultural population but that in general population is lower than that in Rajasthan. This is due to the fact that industrial development of Ajmer City attracts higher number of males of the middle age than females. On the whole the males exceed the females in all Natural Divisions and in all classes of population agricultural as well as non-agricultural.

TABLE No. 380

Distribution of middle aged persons (aged 35-54) in  
Agricultural and Non-agricultural Classes.

State and Natural Division.	Number of middle aged persons (aged 35-54) per 10,000 of			
	Agricultural Population		Non-agricultural Population	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
	2	3	4	5
Rajasthan State.	1,062	875	1,066	978
East Rajasthan Plain Division.	1,081	891	1,079	1,000
Rajasthan Dry Area Division.	1,096	882	1,069	979
Rajasthan Hills Division...	935	792	949	960
Rajasthan Plateau Division.	1,074	904	1,116	913
Ajmer State.	1,023	868	1,113	793

7. The increase in the middle aged persons is associated with the abnormal mortality among persons over 30 years age due to influenza epidemic. The consequence of which was that the relative proportion to the total population of the young persons between 5 to 14 years of age became higher on account of the selective nature of the calamity as explained in Chapter I. The 5-14 age-group was least affected during the epidemic; while the infants, the middle aged and the elderly persons were comparatively more affected. This means that there was a hump in the age-group 5-14. This hump is now amongst the middle aged persons 35-54 and the rise in the relative proportion of the middle-aged persons in 1951 is obviously due to this cause.

8. Table No. 380 given above shows that amongst middle aged persons the males exceed the females in all groups of population.

**Excess of males over females in the middle aged group.**

## SECTION II.

### Elderly persons (Aged 55 and over).

1. Subsidiary Table 6-14, given in part I-B of the Report, gives the distribution of elderly people, in rural and urban areas as well as in agricultural and non-agricultural classes. It will be seen that the number of elderly persons has noticeably increased in 1951 in Rajasthan from 726 to 815 and in Ajmer from 689 to 764 per 10,000 of general population. This is of course due to the longer duration of life consequent on the improvement in Public Health and in the provision of medical facilities in Rajasthan and Ajmer. The comparative position in 1951 of some States in India is shown in the following Table No. 381 from which it is apparent that the proportion of elderly persons is higher than Rajasthan in Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Madras and lower in other States mentioned in this table. In case of males it is higher in Rajasthan than all other States and in case of females it is lower.

TABLE No. 381.

Proportion of elderly persons aged 55 and over to the total population in some States of India.

Name of State.	Elderly persons (aged 55 and over) per 10,000 persons of General Population.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4
Rajasthan State. .. ..	815	447	368
Uttar Pradesh. .. ..	840	435	405
Madhya Pradesh. .. ..	804	363	441
Travancore-Cochin. .. ..	799	387	412
Vindhya Pradesh. .. ..	744	320	424
Orissa. .. ..	876	419	457
Madras .. ..	872	436	436

2. The following Table No. 382 gives the figures for elderly persons *i.e.*, persons in the age-group 55 and over, per 10,000 of general population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and in the Natural Divisions.

TABLE No. 382.

Proportion of elderly persons in Rajasthan and Ajmer States and in the Natural Divisions.

State and Natural Division.	Number of elderly persons aged 55 and over per 10,000 persons of General Population.		
	Persons	Males	Females
Rajasthan State. .. ..	815	447	368
East Rajasthan Plain Division. .. ..	909	515	394
Rajasthan Dry Area Division. .. ..	806	438	368
Rajasthan Hills Division. .. ..	658	344	314
Rajasthan Plateau Division. .. ..	692	351	341
Ajmer State. .. ..	764	380	384

The highest proportion is to be noticed in East Rajasthan Plain Division which is the most developed part of the State full of medical facilities. It is the least in Rajasthan Hills Division, which is the most backward part of the State, where the medical facilities are generally confined to urban people. Coming to the District level we find that the highest proportion is in Alwar District (1,086) and lowest in Dungarpur District (494).

3. The following Table No. 383 gives the number of elderly persons per 10,000 of general population in rural and urban areas. In Rajasthan as well as in all the Divisions; the higher proportion of elderly persons is also found in urban areas. It is interesting to note that the ratio of females to males is lower throughout but the female ratio is also comparatively higher in urban areas than in the rural. These figures indicate that the persons come to towns with their wives in the later period of life, or better medical facilities have helped the people considerably to increase the duration of life in urban areas than that in rural ones.

TABLE No. 383.

Proportion of elderly persons in rural and urban areas.

State and Natural Division.	Number of elderly persons aged 55 and over per 10,000 persons in			
	Rural Population:		Urban Population.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.
Rajasthan State. .. .. .	431	359	524	410
East Rajasthan Plain Division. .. .. .	503	389	568	413
Rajasthan Dry Area Division. .. .. .	412	357	545	413
Rajasthan Hills Division. .. .. .	345	303	338	406
Rajasthan Plateau Division. .. .. .	343	333	402	393
Ajmer State. .. .. .	385	425	371	314

4. But it is not the case in Ajmer State, which shows an opposite pattern. Here the proportion of elderly persons is higher in rural than in urban areas, female ratio is also higher in rural than in urban population and on the whole the proportion of elderly persons is lower here when compared with Rajasthan. The reason is clear. Ajmer City and the towns of Ajmer State like Beawar being industrially and commercially more developed than cities and towns of Rajasthan they attract youthful persons, and the people of the age of retirement generally re-migrate to their rural homes.

5. The following Table No. 384 shows the distribution of the elderly persons in agricultural and non-agricultural classes:—

TABLE No. 384.

Distribution of elderly persons (55 and over) in Agricultural and non-agricultural classes.

State and Natural Division.	Number of elderly persons (55 and over) per 10,000 persons of			
	Agricultural classes		Non-agricultural classes.	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Rajasthan State. .. .. .	431	345	486	424
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	502	376	546	434
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	425	335	467	438
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	325	290	410	395
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	338	328	388	376
Ajmer State. .. .. .	359	441	400	327

It will be seen that in all the Divisions and in the Rajasthan State, as a whole, the larger proportion of elderly persons is found in non-agricultural classes than that in agricultural classes. The females are also in higher proportion in non-agricultural classes than agricultural classes. These figures indicate the existence of better medical facilities among non-agricultural classes than agricultural classes.

6. The increase in the elderly persons aged 55 and over is also to a certain extent, due to the previous history of famine and pestilence in the State mentioned above. The age group 0-5 of 1881 was an unduly inflated age-group because of the rapid recovery after the famine of 1866. This age-group corresponded to age-group 40-45 in 1921 and the statement showing the percentage variation of population in different age-groups given in Table No. 73 of Chapter I shows that this age-group, which was included in the age-group 40-60, received an increment even after the influenza epidemic, at the Census of 1921. In other words, this age-group contained relatively greater proportion of people to the total population and it was passing through the period 60-65 in 1941 and is now in the period 70-75. This analysis partly accounts for the increase in the elderly persons shown in Table No. 382 above.

7. Table No. 382 given above clearly shows the preponderance of males over females in this age-group also showing how men enjoy greater longevity than women.

**The male-female ratio amongst the elderly persons.**

## SECTION 12.

### Concluding remarks.

1. In this Chapter we have considered the territorial distribution of houses and households and have seen how congestion in the urban areas is gradually increasing. In 1921, some 4,083 persons lived in 1,000 houses in the urban areas, while the number has now gone up to 6,706. In the rural areas the houses mostly consist of huts and although their number has increased, still the congestion has increased from 4,399 persons living in 1,000 houses in 1921 to 6,016 in 1951. The houses, in the backward parts of the State particularly, are hardly more than sheds, besides, the general standard of sanitation in the villages is perhaps as low as ever it was.

2. The position in the urban areas of Ajmer State is rather more serious. In 1921, only 4,298 persons lived in 1,000 houses. But the congestion has gone up more than twice in the last thirty years. 9,579 persons lived in 1,000 houses in 1951. The congestion in rural population has also increased though not to the same extent as in Rajasthan during this period. In 1921, only 4,502 persons lived in 1,000 houses in rural areas, while in 1951, this figure has gone up to 5,782. In considering the question of congestion, it must be remembered that the Census Statistics deal with the houses as defined for census purposes and they give no idea of their size, design or pattern.

3. In the previous censuses no separate statistics were collected for families or households. Every occupied house was presumed to contain a commensal family. In the present census households were separately counted and tabulated. A comparison of families with the houses in which they reside has shown that there are more families than houses in rural areas as well as in the urban areas. More than one family have, therefore, to share a house. The position is worse in urban than in rural areas as indicated by the figures, namely, that in the rural areas of Rajasthan 1,192 households reside in 1,000 houses, while in urban areas the number is 1,440. In the rural areas of Ajmer State 1,322 families reside in 1,000 houses and 2,144 in urban areas.

4. We have discussed at full length in the previous pages that joint family system in the sense of the number of persons living and dining together in the same house, does exist, to a certain extent. The number of married women aged 15 and over plus unmarried and widowed persons aged 25 and over is 155 in Rajasthan and 126 in Ajmer, while the total number of families is 136 in Rajasthan and 150 in Ajmer to 100 of 1921. The difference of

19 in Rajasthan and 24 in Ajmer represents the extent to which the Joint Family system exists. The observation regarding the size of family has shown the position in urban as well as in rural areas to be more or less similar. But small and medium size families (having 3 members or less and 4 to 6 members per family respectively) are more numerous in rural than in urban areas in Rajasthan, while in Ajmer small and medium size families are in excess in urban areas when compared to rural areas. Large and very large families are generally found in the urban areas both in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

5. We have seen that the relative proportion of women is higher in the backward parts of the State. In Ajmer their proportion is higher in rural than in urban areas, while in Rajasthan the reverse is the case. The reasons can be found in the rural-urban migration picture. From the rural areas of Ajmer State people migrate to the towns leaving their families in the rural homes, while from the urban areas of Rajasthan, people migrate to places outside leaving their families here. In most of the States of India the female ratio shows a decline while that in Rajasthan is increasing mainly because the males are migrating from the States in larger numbers every year in search of employment and in pursuance of their commercial and industrial activities for which there is not much scope here.

6. We have seen that generally speaking very few females take part in economic activities either as self-supporting persons or as earning dependants, among both agricultural and non-agricultural classes. But amongst the non-agricultural people the economically inactive females are larger in proportion when compared to those amongst the agricultural classes. A very insignificant proportion of females in service class is a result of want of education among women as well as the sentiment against sending women for services. Females amongst cultivating labourers, no doubt, work in larger proportion than those in other classes, in order to maintain their families.

7. Early marriages are declining no doubt but still there are cases of married people in age-group 0 to 14. The proportion of widowed and divorced persons is steadily falling partly due to the improved health conditions of males and to some extent due to an increase in the proportion of widow-remarriage.

TABLE No. 385.

Age structure of the general population in 1941 and 1951

Age groups	Number per 1,000 persons of			
	Rajasthan		Ajmer	
	1951	1941	1951	1941
0	36	15	48	14
1-4	106	130	104	112
5-14	254	266	243	257
15-34	325	338	339	363
35-54	197	178	190	185
55 and over	82	73	76	69

8. A study of the relative proportion of the population in different age-groups further indicates that the proportion of infants has been increasing rapidly, while that of young children, boys and girls and young men and women is gradually falling. The proportion of the middle aged persons and elderly persons, on the other hand, has been increasing as shown in the inset Table No. 385.

It will be seen that age-group 15 to 34 contains the largest proportion of the population. The proportion decreases as we go down to lower age-groups as well as when we go up to higher age-groups.



9. Figures for the Natural Divisions are not adjusted for the past decade. But the figures of 1951 show the same trend in the State as a whole as discussed in the various sections of the Chapter.

10. The Table No. 386 below gives the number of persons per 1,000 in the State as a whole in each of the age-groups given in Column No. 1 of the Table No. 386 as ascertained at the Census of 1951.

TABLE No. 386.

Age structure of General Population in 1951.

Age-group	Persons per 1,000 in 1951	
	Rajasthan.	Ajmer
1	2	3
0-9 ..	275	273
10-19 ..	209	240
20-29 ..	161	170
30-39 ..	134	129
40-49 ..	97	94
50-59 ..	62	58
60 and over ..	62	36

TABLE No. 387.

Mean age during 50 years

Decade	Males		Females	
	1901	1911	1921	1931
1901 ..	25.4	25.9	24.8	24.8
1911 ..	24.8	24.8	24.6	24.8
1921 ..	24.6	24.8	23.5	23.4
1931 ..	23.5	23.4	23.7	23.5
1941 ..	23.7	23.5	24.5	24.8
1951 ..	24.5	24.8		

The figures show that children in the age-group 0-9 constitute about 27 per cent. of the total population in Rajasthan as well as in Ajmer while the number of old persons aged 60 and over accounts for about 6 per cent. in Rajasthan and 4 per cent. in Ajmer. The proportion of the population in the working age 20 to 60 is about 45 per cent. in both the States. The decline in the birth rate is reflected in the smaller proportion in the lowest age group (0-9) which constitute only 27 per cent. in 1951, as against 29 per cent. in 1941 Census for both the States. Average duration of life is reflected in the increase in the mean age given above in Table No. 387 which shows that the mean age for the State as a whole has increased since 1931, particularly during the last decade. The mean age for the last five censuses is shown in Table No. 387 above by sex.

11. According to Sundbarg, the famous Swedish Statistician, a normal population has about one-half of its total between the ages of 15 and 60, and the proportion of those above that age to those below it indicates, whether the population is increasing, stationary or decreasing. The youngest of the three population groups must be double the oldest, if the population is to continue to grow; just short to that point, it may be stationary but if the older continues to exceed the younger the population would be regressive. It has been considered, that, for Indian conditions, the middle age-group should be more appropriately 15 to 40. The percentages of the population in Rajasthan and Ajmer States under the relevant age-groups are given below:—

Age-groups	Percentage	
	Rajasthan	Ajmer
0-14	40	39
15-40	42	45
Above 40	18	16

If, as I think, we consider it sounder to adopt the groups 15-44 and 45 and over for the last two groups, we shall get the following percentage in the State and its Natural Divisions as shown below in the Table No. 388.

TABLE No. 388.

Percentage of population in Rajasthan and Ajmer.

State and Natural Division	Percentage of population in the age-groups		
	0-14	15-44	45 and over
Rajasthan State .. .. .	40	44	16
East Rajasthan Plain Division .. .. .	39	44	17
Rajasthan Dry Area Division .. .. .	40	44	16
Rajasthan Hills Division .. .. .	43	44	13
Rajasthan Plateau Division .. .. .	40	46	14
Ajmer State .. .. .	39	48	13

These figures show that our population is of the progressive kind.

12. Under the Constitution of the Indian Republic, elections to the State Legislative Assemblies, and to the House of People in Parliament, are on the basis of adult franchise, *i.e.*, all persons, who have attained the age of 21 on the qualifying date and possess the other qualifications prescribed for voters, are entitled to vote at these elections. It will, therefore, be interesting to mention in this Report, what portion of the general population is covered by adult franchise. With reference to the age figures recorded at the 1951 Census it has been ascertained that the persons who have completed the age of 21 constitute nearly 51.6 per cent. of the total population in Rajasthan and 48.7 per cent. in Ajmer and this is thus approximately the proportion of the population covered by adult franchise in these States.

13. The facts summarised above and the discussion on age-structure given in Section 5 of Chapter I, enable us to generally indicate what the future trends of population growth are likely to be. In Chapter I, we have already indicated that as far as the decade 1951-60 is concerned, the downward trend of the birth-rate is likely to continue and the death rate is also likely to fall more particularly in the urban areas. As, however the fall in the death rate is not likely to be so significant as to mar the effects of the reduced birth-rate, the rate of growth of population during the next decade is also likely to show a fall. For reasons, given in the concluding remarks of Chapter I, it is difficult to forecast the population trend beyond 1960, but on the basis of the age-structure and the statistics discussed in this Chapter and Chapter I, we might be able to point out certain general features which are bound to affect the future trends, if they are not seriously affected by migration or occurrence of some calamity—natural or otherwise—and if no deliberate attempts are made to control the population growth by raising the standard of living and education of the people and convincing them of the advantages of limited family at present and in the foreseeable future.

14. We have already seen, how there was a conspicuous increase in the number of infants during the current decade. A perusal of Table No 73 given in Section 5 of Chapter I shows the percentage variation of population in the different age-groups during the last five decades. A perusal of the table shows that the age-group 0-5 has been seriously depleted, during 1931-40 on account of the lesser number of births due to the previous history of the

age-structure and this age-group will be entering fertility period during the decade 1951-60 and, as already pointed out, the birth rate is likely to show a further fall. In 1961, however, the age-group 0-5 of the decade 1941-50, which has received good increments will be entering the fertility period and the recovery in the birth rate is likely to show itself. If infant mortality continues to be low as at present and no unforeseen calamity occurs as pointed out before, it is clear that the birth rate is bound to go up after 1961 and this rate will continue to increase as the depleted age-groups of 1931-40 pass out of the fertility period and the augmented age-groups of infants of 1941-50 onward enter the fertility period.

15. The net result of our study in this Chapter, therefore, tends to indicate that the rate of growth of population in Rajasthan and Ajmer will show a further fall during the next decade, but it will begin to revive after 1961 and as the birth rate will then increase and the death rate is likely to further fall, there is every possibility of the population increasing rapidly in future unless the presumption made in paragraph 13 above cease to hold good. The grave consequences of this probable rapid increase have already been pointed out in the concluding remarks of Chapter I, as well as in Chapters IV and V and in conclusion, therefore, we might repeat the advice of the Royal Commission that "The population problem is now one that must be kept under continuous study".\*

---

\*Report of the Royal Commission on Population, page 4 (London, His Majesty's Stationery Office).