CHAPTER- I

PROLEGOMENON

Origin of Villages

International Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences (INES) gives some information on the origin, nature, type and characteristics of the villages the world over under a historical perspective.

According to IESS although some times applied to any permanent small settlement more than a few scattered dwellings the term 'village' usually refers to a consolidated agricultural community ... .... So defined the village was the predominant type of human community for over three millennia and continues to be so in most of Asia, Africa, Latin America, as well as in some parts of Europe.1

The domestication of plants appeared in South Western Asia, perhaps as early as 10000 B.C., but the emergence of first true villages based on fully effective food production seems to have taken place almost 3000 years later, earliest

general date being 6750 B.C. for Jarmo in North Eastern Iraq ... in India about 2500 B.C. ... wherever the food producing revolution effectively replaced, earlier hunting and gathering patterns, village life became established. The techniques of domestication spread rapidly, even so to areas ecologically quite different from those in which they arose. Man's first serious attempt to shape his environment actively, rather than passively adapt to it, worked a new era of cultural development. 2

The fullest achievement of this new era came only with what has sometimes been called the 'urban revolution', on the appearance of civilisation. Towns and cities emerged, based on the altered economic relationships. Paradoxically it was the appearance of the political, economic, social and religious developments associated with urban centres that brought village life to its full development ... Between the folk culture of the village and the sophisticated culture of urban or quasi-urban settlements, there developed a multifaceted interdependence that bound them, for all their contrasts, into a single socio-cultural whole. Most recent research on village life has focussed upon the analysis of this interdependence. 3

Regarding the origin of villages and their constitution, G.R. Madan gives the following account -

The gregarious instinct among human beings, the tribal tie, the common danger from wild beasts and the use of mutual help and cooperation favoured the rise of compact village

2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
communities. From very early periods, the village consisted of a cluster of houses and the surrounding lands cultivated by it. The village community mostly has been agricultural. For its every day needs it included a permanent hereditary staff of village artisans such as blacksmith, carpenter, barber, shoe-maker, potter and washerman, each of whom was paid annually an allowance in grain share at the time of harvest by each cultivator. They are known as servants of the community. There may also be the trader, the oilman, the weaver, the mason, the well-digger etc., in the villages. With the dawn of civilisation the people must have formed a government to administer their own affairs and led a new type of life.  

1.2 Types of Villages

It is the nature of people in different localities, their living conditions, the topography of the land, climate, rainfall, caste and communities, food habits, habitat and a host of other factors which together determine the nature, size and strength of the village. There is no common pattern for villages in different parts of the world. Even though there is a common sense norm regarding the pattern of village, it is not necessary that the different villages conform to that pattern. In fact they differ in many ways.

4. G.R. Madan, India's Developing Villages, Print House, India (Lucknow) 1983, P.
John Cornell and Michael Lipton try to reach out to an ideal type of village. They say that -

the ideal type of a village is a small, settled group of persons living in and forming almost all the population of a locality surrounded by open space. Two further characteristics relevant in less developed environments are that, atleast two-thirds of families get most of their income from agriculture and that most economic, social, political and religious relationships are within the village.\(^5\)

Cornell and Lipton finally dwell upon the idea that,

a village for our purposes must be sufficiently integrated and internalised that the majority of transaction relations (purchase and sale) are intra-village, whilst the majority of villagers work within the home village (on its lands) on an average working day.\(^6\)

A World Bank study instead of trying to find a common set of norms, gives a loose definition so as to suit the varying situations in different countries of

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6. Ibid.
the world, and at the same time trying to identify village groups in different countries and different localities. According to this study, the village is a behavioural unit because -

the individuals tend to behave in a similar fashion in a given type of situation; similar villages contain similar proportions of different kinds of people in similar relations to one another; and the aggregate behaviour of one collection of sub-groups will resemble that of a similar collection in another village.

1.3 Indian Context

In the Indian context a village is denoted as "an aggregate of several families sharing the same habitation"\(^8\), either in respect of ancient grama or medieval or modern Indian village, says Vivek Ranjan Bhattacharya. One of the most popular western definitions of a village is "an assemblage of houses larger than a hamlet and smaller than a town".\(^9\) Moreover the earliest Indian literature, Rig Veda, refers to village (grama) as an aggregate of several families sharing the same habitation.\(^10\)

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9. Ibid.
10. Ibid.
The great epic Mahabharatha, gives an outline of the system of Indian village and inter-village organisations. According to it the village was the fundamental unit of administration and had as its head the Gramini, leader and chief spokesman; one of the major responsibilities of this head man was to protect the village and its boundaries in all directions within a radius of two miles. The administrative system was organised on the basis of grouping of villages, each group having its own recognised leader. Thus a group of ten villages was under a das-gramini, and this was the first unit of inter-village organisation. Two such groups used to be under a Vimsatipa. A group of hundred villages was headed by Satgramini or Grama Satadhyaksha. Finally a group of thousand villages was under an Adhipati.

Kautilya gives a clear and categoric definition of a village as follows:

Village consisting each of not less than a hundred families and not more than five hundred families of agricultural people of Sudra caste, with boundaries extending as far as a Krosa (2250 yards) or two and capable of protecting each other shall be formed.11

11. Ibid., p.4.
In the U.K. or the U.S.A. the village is thought to be 'intermediate between the hamlet and the town'. A hamlet is defined there as a settlement with several families and some form of commerce but not with a big population. A settlement with more than thousand people is popularly known as a town. So it can be safely derived that a settlement in the U.S.A. with a population less than a thousand people and some sort of commerce is known as a village ......... But the Indian Villages differ fundamentally from the villages in the west. Instead of each family living among its own fields, the Indian village is generally a concentration of many households with their holdings scattered over great distances. The village community in India is thus close and compact and generally larger than a village in Europe.12

It is further observed that -

Villages with a population of four or five thousand are not rare and there are occasionally villages with as many as ten thousand inhabitants ....... By a skillful interweaving of agriculture and industry, and because of their comparatively larger population, the Indian village was still at the advent of modern age, largely self-sufficient and the home of a contented community.13

12. Ibid.
13. Ibid., p.5.
However,

All the six lakh and odd units, so called villages cannot be termed as such because tens of thousands of them consist of but a few houses, most of them having just a couple of houses. ".... the Commission (census of India) is believed to have suggested that a place with twenty families could perhaps be considered a village and defined as such.¹⁴

In this connection V.R. Bhattacharya points out that,

On its definition stands the political shape of the country, on its interpretation depends the economic progress of the nation. The description of an Indian village means, the narration of the face of the country. On its future steps depend the future of the nation.¹⁵

1.4. Ideal Village

The Gandhian concept of a village centres round a self-contained or self-reliant economy. Gandhi suggests this villagism or self-sufficient economy as the 'peaceful negation of exploitation'.¹⁶

Gandhi's picture of ideal village was of a 'republic' independent of its neighbours for its vital wants, yet interdependent in other ways, growing its own food and cotton, and if surplus land was available, money crops.¹⁷

¹⁴. Ibid., P.2.
¹⁵. Ibid.
¹⁶. Ibid., P.9.
1.5 South Indian Village

In South India according to historians - The largest administrative division was the Mandala, which was sub-divided into Valanadus or into Nadus and Kottams. The lowest administrative units were the Kurram (union of villages) and grama (Village) each under its own headman who was assisted by assemblies (Ur, Mahasabha). The village headman had his counterpart in the Nagarapati of cities. In certain rural areas the village Assembly consisted of the whole adult population, in others the Brahmanas or a few greatmen, who were selected by a kind of ballot. 18

1.6 Economic Importance of a Village

The world over the economic importance of villages improved over time. It was at different points of time that villages in different parts of the world acquired importance which went beyond the boundaries of the villages. The state authorities began to show interest in the development of villages at this juncture. Christopher John Baker explains the political and economic life of South India as follows:

From the later medieval period onwards, the State authorities conspired to push forward the frontiers of the agrarian economy in order to provide the resources required for

warfare - namely food and other produce on the one hand, and manpower on the other.
They encouraged more intensive use of established agricultural regions, and also urged colonisation in new areas. Both intensification and extension entailed some State investment in irrigation. The effect of the pressure was to multiply the numbers of small scale farmers, and to develop to a sophisticated level the practice of small scale agriculture based a labour-intensive production with multiple strains of crops, intensive patterns of mixed and multiple cropping, careful use of irrigation water and extensive coercion of available labour. Commerce developed alongside the agrarian economy but along special lines. First there was a network of local exchange necessary to provision a complex agriculture. Secondly there were networks of trade, transport and finance involved in the conversion of agricultural surplus into the resources required by the State. Thirdly there was a growth of overseas trade which was looked on as an additional source of revenue and a necessary device for acquiring many strategic materials ····· there was a powerful though dispensed state system, a mass of basically unfree rural labourers, and a commercial system which was not directly controlled by the State but which served a society in which the State played a powerful role.19

The above passage brings to light the actions by the State to develop the rural economy though with an overwhelming motive of serving the strategic purpose of the State.

1.7 The Indian National Scene after Medieval Period

During the medieval period while India was being ruled by five hundred and odd kings scant attention was paid to the maintenance and development of villages by these kings. It all depended upon the attitude and temperament of different kings and varied from kingdom to kingdom. The advent of Europeans and consolidation of India changed the scene and the Europeans themselves acquired the power of administration through provincial governments. European motive was at first revenue, but later they were forced to look into the problems of agriculture, as necessitated by severe famines. While the organised monopoly traders (East India Company) were interested in trade benefits and revenue benefits, a group of European free traders, who were also entrepreneurs and colonisers fought against this monopoly and made attempts to develop rural India. B.B. Misra points out that, rural development in modern India was initially the work of European free traders, a body of commercial entrepreneurs or colonisers, more especially from Britain, who were functioning in the second half of the 18th century, as an antithesis of the monopoly rights of the East India Company. In the absence of
adequate provision for security in the rural districts, they not only advanced loans to private entrepreneurs, but themselves got involved in development of such commercial crops as tea, coffee, jute, cotton, indigo and sugarcane. They functioned more or less as rural banks. 20

1.8 Development of Indian Agriculture

The above actions were only stray attempts to develop agriculture based on commercial crops and to benefit from the onward trade margin. It did very little to the general development of rural masses, except a few who were employed in the plantations. The importance of developing agriculture, the mainstay of the rural economy, and the direct responsibility of the State to provide it, came to be especially realised as a result of a series of famines that recurred in different parts of India in the 18th and 19th centuries. 21 These famines provided in due course a conceptual framework related not only to

21. Ibid., P.67.
meeting distress, but more especially to positive aspects of rural development in terms of agricultural improvement on a continuous basis. These included central direction, statistical information and feedback and specialisation in development services involving the knowledge of science and technology. Co-operation of villagers was also sought and each village was to indicate the felt needs in respect of different sources of irrigation, supply of improved seed and green manure, of agricultural implements, bullocks and power.

1.9 Planning from Below

These actions could very well be termed as the first step towards organising and implementing planning from below, though confined only to agriculture sector. For implementing the programme the Government of India wanted, on the basis of this information collected from each village, 'a plan for the provision of the necessary facilities that can be drawn up for the kounty or the firka, then to be consolidated into the district plan.'

22. Ibid., P.83.
23. Ibid., P.227.
24. Ibid., P.278.
The agency involved in the collection of data and planning was, however, official. The collection of information along these lines was considered necessary, for, it is not enough to tell cultivators to grow more food, this has to be supplemented by providing necessary facilities for each village to enable it to do so, not only as a part of an immediate programme to produce the maximum quantity, but of a regular postwar development plan. 25

1.10 Villages - Since Independence

After independence in 1947, the main concern of the Government of India, was to provide food to the teeming millions. The national government also felt the need for all-round development of the national economy. Since more than 80 per cent of the people lived in villages, the development of villages is the key to the economic progress of the country. It appointed various committees to find out the causes of villages dragging behind towns and cities, in development. Finally the planners and the Government of India

25. Ibid.
have come to the conclusion that grass-root level planning starting from villages upwards is the panacea. To this end, the Government of India has introduced the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEHP). All these steps were based on the report of the Ashok Mehta Committee on Panchayati Raj Institutions submitted in 1978, which draws heavily on valuable prior works on Decentralised Planning by Balwant Rai Mehta Study Team in 1957, the report of the Expert Working Group on Block level Planning in 1977 and the report of the Dantwalla Working Group of 1977, identifying the programme as susceptible to local level planning and execution.

Towerling above all these, is the need for all-round development of the national economy through five year plans. It is basic data right from the bottom, which form the basis for the implementation of these national development programmes. This study is to be looked into, in the light of these current needs and the historical past.
1.11 **Relevance of Village Studies**

**Irrelevance of classical lesson**

The classic lesson of the past — agricultural revolution preceding industrial revolution — is no more tenable. Many developing countries tried to emulate the developed, only to create developed pockets in largely underdeveloped areas. Robert S. McNamara, World Bank Governor, points out that, industrialisation through utilisation of agricultural surplus could no longer be condoned in view of the increasing unemployment and poverty in rural areas. Concentration of poverty in the country side of the 'developing nations' and investment limited to the modern sector increase disparities in income and therefore the necessity of reorienting development policy towards more equitable growth by increased investment in agriculture and rural development, focusing on the hundred million small families.²⁶

Arthur Lewis' model of economic development envisaging shift of labour from agriculture to industry, as economic development proceeds, is vitiated by

the capital-intensive labour-saving western technology.

The Daltonian concept - that government is the best which governs the least; and Bastable's contention - it is better to take out and keep out of the pockets of the people, as little as possible, because all government expenditures are unproductive - are already dubbed as conventional fallacies. All these preclude a new approach to development.

In the international scene the trickle-down theory has failed to prove itself, and it was even found that development process did not spread from the town to the villages, but only produced backwash effects and not spread effects. Misra and Sharma point out that, the trickle-down theory has failed and now development must begin from the bottom with mobilisation of 'Loksakti' or people's power. Consequently there has been a marked shift from the dominant, 'growth first redistribution later' approach to strategies promoting growth with equity and redirecting resources

with a favourable bias towards the poorer 'target groups'; from industrialisation as core sector to priority for rural development simultaneously.

1.12 Circumstantial Specialities of Villages

A village is close to its people, their life, livelihood and culture, and its role as focal point of reference for individual prestige and identification are the primary specialities of a village.  

A notable cause for village studies is that the 'village environment' is a major variable affecting the behaviour of villagers in less developed countries. The village in effect is a decision-making unit because of its socio-economic and physical assets and liabilities and their interpersonal distribution plus a degree of isolation, influence and are influenced by most decisions taken within the village.


29. Ibid.
The village in practice is the unit of ultimate allocation for many types of rural resources. Hence policy makers need to note the cases of disparity in the growth of villages inspite of similar initial resources; which village develops with own resources and which village with other's help; which villages show high returns on which resources; and which villages can direct returns to the people. Here hypothesis testing and policy formulation meet.  

Diverse socio-economic conditions are prevailing in different parts of the country. There is not one single characteristic shared by all villages, but rather a wide range of overlapping characteristics, each one found in many villages, but absent from some smallness, nucleation, agricultural emphasis and so on. The characteristics commonly found are agricultural livelihood and production, geographical differentiation of habitation, geographical differentiation of rights in land, work places for most people within the same geographically differentiated boundaries as those of their habitation, small population size, high proportion of internal transactions and some degree of administrative differentiation. Most people in most village

30. Ibid., PP.24,25.
in less developed countries can earn their living directly from agriculture producing bulk of their food, the remainder of the village population usually lives by providing goods and services as inputs to or in immediately processing the output of the agriculturists of the village.\textsuperscript{31}

An extremely important role in the spatial structure of developing countries is played by regions - above all agricultural ones - where the dominant position is assumed by the traditional pattern of socio-economic relations, which is highly internally diversified.\textsuperscript{32}

Despite substantial intra-village activities, a village will have links with the outside world which does not make it an isolated unit. Further as economic


and commercial activities in rural areas get strengthened tending to the growth of trans-village transactions, the linkage with the semi-urban centres will also develop, thus providing the needed rural-urban continuum. 33

The response pattern of a village to exogenously introduced sources of change is endogenously conditioned by factors such as character of the antecedent social structure and the history of the phenomenon undergoing change, as also the nature of the measures introduced. 34

1.13 Interest in village studies and village development:

International Scene

In the international scene, nearly all the major development-oriented international governmental organisations have sponsored research and publications, highlighting the need for a shift of priorities to poverty-oriented rural development projects. 35 Since the early seventies, International Labour Organisation (ILO) has

been involved with new labour intensive approaches to rural development - 'Growth from below', 'participation and employment oriented' strategies. At its 31st session in New Delhi in 1975, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific (ESCAP) declared the 'highest priority to the rural disadvantaged'. ESCAP has been playing the role of co-ordinating and assisting other UN agencies as well as national governments for integrated rural development programme in Asia and Pacific Region. In several studies of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the ILO, the need for rural development and poverty alleviation forms the main theme.

Research institutions all over the world and many Universities both in India and outside are now interested in knowing the specific problems of villages. Hence they are engaged in conducting village studies - study of specific problems of a group of villages and studies of total situation of individual villages.

36. J.S. Brara., op.cit.

37. J.S. Brara, op.cit., P.11. For example, see the ILO Publication, Poverty and Landless in Rural Asia (1977) and A.D.B. Study, Rural Asia: challenge and opportunity since the mid 70s.
The Imperial Government of India showed much interest in the development of Indian villages, during the last two decades of the 19th century and the first four and a half decades of the 20th century, for the sake of enough and assured supply of food and fodder, so as to avoid recurrence of rampant famines of the yester-years. Commensurate with this policy, in the second decade of this century, four foreign economists - Harold Mann, Gilbert Slater and Mrs. & Mr. Wiser, undertook village studies to get first hand information about some of the Indian villages.

In the inter-war years D.R. Gadgil and R.K. Mukherjee studied aspects of rural life, encouraged by C.N. Vakil and G.S. Ghurye. Henceforth village studies assumed added importance, as it was recognised as the right approach to national development through development of villages, and to assist policy makers with reliable data of the first hand type.

The situation with regard to village studies underwent a radical change after the end of world war II, when Indian social anthropologists trained abroad and
their foreign counterparts, began making systematic studies of villages in different parts of the country. These studies relied almost exclusively on the method of participant observation, and presentation of data was usually around a well defined theme of theoretical and comparative interest.

During the second half of the 20th century, Mahatma Gandhi, an avowed nationalist of the time and leader of the freedom movement and later Father of the Nation, passionately interested in rural development, propagated the slogan, "each village a self-reliant model republic", and showed intense dislike for industrialisation, as evident in his policy programme. 38 To understand the ethos of India, one must live in the village, and therefore he advocated the policy of return to the village to the elite of the nation.

Now, village studies of two types - studying a single village economy in its totality and studying the particular problems of a group of villages - are largely undertaken in the country. Recently a resurvey was conducted in the village "Iruvelpattu" in Tamil Nadu, which

38. J.S. Brara, op.cit., P.144.
was originally surveyed by Gilbert Slater's team, to note the changes which have taken place within the course of this time. Moreover, National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD) in Hyderabad is solely interested in rural development and related studies. Many other universities and institutions are engaged in studies relating to villages and rural problems.

1.15 Practical Interest

Economists who work as analysts and interpreters of secondary data must have a desire to come into close contact with the object of their concern. 39

A number of micro studies of villages can be used as checks against data collected from macro surveys. 40

The income gap between the town and the country is so wide that a pursuit of it will help us to come to grips with the real reasons of this sad situation.

The sheer size of the problem, 290 million people below poverty line in India according to the

40. Ibid., P.38.
draft sixth plan (1978-83), necessitates a detailed and indepth study of this group of people, who are mostly villagers.

Many third world countries are engaged in economic planning, both to achieve quick economic development and to alleviate the problem of poverty. Since problem of poverty is more urgent, the solution recommended by experts is 'grass-root level planning', which needs grass-root level information. K.N. Raj remarked, "the kind of centralised planning India has had so far - with its reliance mainly on selected projects for building up overheads of development and on certain general policies and measures for mobilising and allocating resources - has had little visible impact on vast areas of the country."\(^41\)

Governmental acceptance of the policy of grass-root level (village level) planning as evident from the introduction of IRDP in 1979, precludes the need for elaborate village studies programme.

The ethnic and cultural variations of Indian villages, accompanied also by various other differences

necessitates study of Indian villages in their individual perspective.

1.16 Data Position in the Country

Presently economists and administrators are working on macro data of the economy - sector-wise, crop-wise, industry-wise and national averages. Even the current programme, IRDP is being implemented without enough data base. In the seventh plan period, surveys conducted in villages in different states to locate 300 very poor families, by official agencies, is at best partial. This cannot in any way give a total picture of the villages concerned. According to A.H.M. Abdul Hye, "local level planning needs collection of comprehensive data on resource availability, development potentials and priority needs." Further, according to K.N. Raj, culture and values were themselves moulded by economic compulsions and external conditions; hence it was these factors which are ultimately responsible for determining the regional differences in the absorption of educational services across the country. Accurate information on economic compulsion and external conditions therefore is the key to chalking out programmes of

rural development. A data bank earmarking the needs of each village is as much a need of the hour.

1.17 Relevance of this Village

Grass-root level planning calls for data at the village level. Hence all villages merit indepth study.

In the state of Kerala, there are 1446 revenue villages, inhabited by 2,06,82,405 people forming 81.26 per cent of the total population of the State. The average strength of population of a village is 14303. This huge size of population in each village, makes it an independent unit worthy of separate study.

However, there are some specific reasons for selecting Kallur Vadakkummury Village for the present study -

1. The researcher has long acquaintance with the village and therefore he will not be considered by many as an alien, and will not be repulsive to the people.

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43. K.N. Raj, op.cit.

2. Agriculture-orientation of this village (national character) and nearly complete utilisation of available land.

3. Coconut and paddy, are the two cardinal bulk products of the village, which are also the major agriculture products of Kerala, and hence a representative village.

4. The poetic fancy of a village being supplied with water to its heart's content is quite true of this village.

5. This village has contributed sizeable number of workers to the gulf countries and a perusal of which will provide good information on the impact of gulf money on the village.

6. It has some historical importance. The earthen fortress and trenches built by the Raja of Travancore to quell the attack of Tippu Sultan, Mysore Tiber, a little before 1790 passes through this village, though now battered beyond shape by the passage of 200 years.

7. It has strong intervillage and intravillage activities making it a good representative of Kerala villages and therefore meriting an indepth study.
1.18 Research Epistemology

According to S.P. Ahuja, the basic task of economic research in a developing economy, like India, is to assist in economic policy and decision-making via economic advice by accretion of knowledge and reduction of uncertainty. This ought to be done by a better collection and comprehension of library and field data and use of improved techniques of analysis, interpretation and prediction. 45

Village studies of the socio-economic survey type, of one village can be grouped into two main divisions:

1. Those which generate benchmark data about the socio-economic life of the people, which is an essential information input for launching development programmes.

2. Those which analyse the social, economic and political impact of development measures on different strata of society.

Village studies can be classified into further two divisions:

1. Where village is the unit about which generalisations are sought.

2. Where intravillage units of more than one village are studied, for seeking generalisation at a higher level of aggregation - District or State.

The present study is of the first type in both classifications, and it seeks to generate bench mark data and generalisations, which could be translated into a set of hypotheses to be tested by further studies.

1.19 Methodology

Both primary and secondary data were collected for the study. Primary data were collected with the help of specially designed schedules. Five per cent of the village households selected on the basis of the type of house owned or possessed by the households, using stratified random sampling method. For this purpose village households were divided into the following divisions -

1. Government assisted 'one lakh houses scheme' houses.
2. Houses with thatched roof.
3. Houses with tiled roof, single storey.
4. Houses with concrete roof, single storey; and
5. Double storey houses.
The researcher found this to be the best single criterion by which the village households could be differentiated, for the sake of economic class division of the people. The data collected are compressed into four economic class divisions - poor, lower middle class, upper middle class and rich.

Secondary data for the study were collected from village office, other institutions of local self government and the banking and financial institutions.

1.20 **Study Design**

For the purpose of analysis the thesis is divided into nine chapters. The first chapter introduces the subject of study and explains the significance of the study. It also provides the profile of the village.

Chapter two deals with the different aspects of agriculture in the village. The discussion includes division of land among major agricultural crops, methods of cultivation, income from different crops, gross income and net income from agricultural production, composition of factor inputs, cost structure and resource potential.

Chapter three discusses the problems of industrialisation in the village. The number and types of
institutions in the village, their input and output analysis, locally available resources, resource potential and future possibilities of industries also form part of this chapter.

Chapter four is on village administration. It elaborates on the services rendered by government machinery in facilitating the development of agriculture and industry in the village. The role of local self government in village development, the extent of decentralisation in village administration and the need for further decentralisation are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter five explains the ways and means of marketing of village produce, both industrial and agricultural origin. It also explains the relevance of intra village connections in facilitating marketing.

Chapter six gives an account of the financial agencies working in the village, their respective roles and contributions in the upkeep and development of the village. It also mentions the total effects of the working of the different financial agencies in the village.

Chapter seven provides information regarding the income and expenditure pattern of the village. The nature
and type of consumption items and the respective percentages are put in juxtaposition.

Chapter eight is on village social life. It explains the social life of the villagers, including religious. Intervillage and intravillage connections of the villagers are also noted.

Chapter nine presents the findings of the study. It includes the net effect of agricultural operation in the village and its future prospects; the present state of industry and its future prospects; the strength of marketing system and the effect of the financial system. It also includes suggestions for improvements for further development of the village.

Village Profile

1.21 Location

The village, Kallur Vadakkummury belongs to Mukundapuram Taluk in Trichur District in Kerala State. The district lies more or less in the centre of the State. Mukundapuram Taluk has 53 villages.46 This

village Kallur Vadakkummury, is encircled by Mala Panchayat on the North western side, Chalakudy Municipality on the northern side, Melur Panchayat on the eastern side, Koratty Panchayat and Annamanada Panchayat on south eastern side and Kallur Thekkummury village on the southern side. This is a 'one village-one panchayat' administrative area.

It is 2.5 kilometres away from the nearby town, Chalakudy, and is connected to it by 1.5 kilometres of Public Works Department (PWD) road passing through Melur Panchayat and 1.0 kilometre through National High way (N.H. 47). Chalakudy river enters the village from Melur Panchayat and makes out into the village in the form of an 'inverted U', encompassing within it ward Nos. IV to X, whereas ward Nos. I to III are on the 'inverted U', dividing the village into two unequal portions.

1.22 **Area and Size**

Out of the total area of the state 38863 sq. kms.\(^{47}\) the share of the district is 3032 sq. kms.\(^{48}\) Mukundapuram

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\(^{47}\) B.K. Venugopal (ed), *op.cit.* p.V.

is the biggest taluk in the district, having an area of 1316 sq. kms. to which the village belongs. The average size of a village in the district being 12.63 sq. kms., this village with a land area of 17.63 sq. kms. is an above average village, by size.

The area of the village is comprised of 817.2514 hectares of parambu (raised land), 713.9474 hectares of paddy land (low-lying land), 230.8544 hectares of puramboke land (no man's land) and 78.4028 hectares of land being occupied by Chalakudy river, totalling 1840.456 hectares. The land area of the village is only 1.34 percent of the total land area of the taluk. Conventionally the village is divided into eight karas/desoms - Annanad, Kadukutty, Kathikutom, Kalloor, Sampalloor, Cheruvaloor Koledom and Ambazhakad.49

1.23 Land and its Utilisation

The land area of the village consists of high lands, midlands and low lands. High lands are situated on the eastern and southern side of the village. These are mainly utilised for cutting granite and laterite stones. Midlans are located on both banks of the river,

and it includes all other areas other than low lands and high lands. Midlands form maximum land area of the village where coconut trees are grown and houses built. Part of high lands and midlands are utilised for construction of houses, shops and public institutions. The valleys of different pieces of high lands and midlands stretching from the eastern boundary of panchayat ward IV and adjacent areas of ward V, further passing through the middle areas of wards V, VI, VII and VIII, forming a 'U' belt, quite opposite to the 'U' bent of the river, form the low lands. It is utilised mainly for the cultivation of paddy.

Puramboke lands lie on both banks of the river and by the side of the main canal of the village by name, 'chāthanchāl'. Another major puramboke land is the 'kotta land', land raised by the erstwhile Maharaja of Travancore in 1789 to prevent the attack of Mysore Tiger, Tippu Sultan, which took place in 1790. Main PWD road of the village, Kadukutty - Muringood Road is mostly built on this 'Kotta'.

The legal owner of the puramboke land is the government. However, purambokes on both sides of the river are partly annexed by neighbouring owners and the rest encroached by the river; 'Kotta' puramboke lands partly utilised
for the above PWD road and partly occupied by landless people; and the puramboke lands near chāthan chāl and major part of the said canal are now occupied by the people and utilised for paddy cultivation. Now puramboke lands could be found only in the records of the village.

This village has neither any forest area nor any perennial pastures or grazing lands.

1.24 People

According to 1971 census the number of people in the village was 17316, and the density was 982 per sq.km. This is much higher than the state average density of 655 people per sq.km. in 1986. The survey leads to the following results. At the fag end of the calendar year 1986, the village had a population of 24,817, of which 13018 are men and 11799 are women. For every thousand men there are 906 women, a sex-ratio quite different from that of the State. Sex-ratio of the State at the time was 1032 females for 1000 males. According to the survey the strength of employed people is 7636, which is 30.77

50. Adoor K.K. Ramachandran Nair, op.cit.
51. B.K. Venugopal, op.cit.
52. Survey data.
53. B.K. Venugopal, op.cit.
per cent of the total population. Therefore the dependency ratio is 1:2.25. This is in conformity with the small family norm of one earning member and three dependents.

Division of village population on the basis of age is presented in Table 1.1.

Table - 1.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.No.</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>No. of people</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 - 15</td>
<td>6556</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>16 - 30</td>
<td>8763</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>31 - 50</td>
<td>4968</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>51 and above</td>
<td>4530</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24817</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data.

Table 1.1 shows that aged dependents are less than young dependents. If groups 1 and 2 are put together, it can be seen that the population is top heavy and definitely
Poised for further growth. The number of old aged non-earning dependents are quite low, roughly one in each household.

Regarding higher education, professional and technical training, it is found that 13.16 per cent (3266) of the people are students of technical training institutions, arts and science and professional colleges.

Table 1.2 gives the position of the village in this respect.

**Table 1.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No. of students</th>
<th>Percentage of population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Science college education</td>
<td>2208</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Training Institutes</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering degree</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical degree</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3266</td>
<td>13.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data
It can be seen that the village is poised for growth in educational standards, particularly technical training. This can be termed as investment in human resources, and the present level of training itself will form a reserve of trained labour.

The population strength has gone up from 17316 in 1971 to 24817 in 1986. This shows a total growth of 43.32 per cent and an average annual growth of 2.89 per cent. This rate of growth of population is more than double that of the growth of population of the state (1.42 per cent) for the quinquennial period, 1981-86.

**Housing Facilities**

Taking area of the house, the basic living facility, as the major criterion, the houses of the village can be divided into four groups as presented in Table 1.3.

It could be noted from Table 1.3 that 43.7 per cent have insufficient dwelling facilities. Average dwelling facility (built in area) of 500 sq.ft. and 1000 sq.ft. are enjoyed only by 31 per cent of the households, and better living facility of 1000 sq.ft and above built-in area is enjoyed by the rest 25.3 per cent of the households.
Table - 1.3

**Division of Houses into Built in Area Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of the house in sq. ft.</th>
<th>No. of houses</th>
<th>Percentage of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100 - 499</td>
<td>1908</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 - 799</td>
<td>760</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800 - 999</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 and above</td>
<td>1104</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4370</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data.

The first group in table 1.3 when further subdivided gives the following result:

Table 1.4 shows that the first two groups forming 21 per cent do not have sufficient dwelling facility and they need better housing. There are on average 5.68 people in each household. Such small houses as possessed by the first 21 per cent of households could not contain them even in a very rudimentary sense.
Table - 1.4

Housing Facility - First Group Subdivision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of the house in sq. ft.</th>
<th>No. of houses</th>
<th>Percentage of the total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100 - 199</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200 - 299</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300 - 399</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400 - 499</td>
<td>511</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1909</strong></td>
<td><strong>43.7</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data.

Houses with mud floors, leaf roof, wall and shutters need biennial replacement due to material degeneration, which eats into their income. Five times the construction cost of these houses if initially spent on building pucca houses for this group, their non-productive, recurring expenditure could be avoided.

1.26 Habitat

River basins are occupied mainly by the two upper classes, with comparatively larger areas of land under the ownership and possession of each family. These people are,
infact, early settlers. Irrespective of the community differences, it is the better offs who own these lands. This settlement pattern of early settlers is in conformity with the contention of the Ricardian theory that, man utilises first the most fertile and convenient land.

High lands and purambokes are occupied by the lower middle class and poor. These lands are away from the river and its catchment areas. Houses in highlands are few and far between; whereas there is congested living in 'Kotta' puramboke lands, the only puramboke lands used for dwelling purposes. Small parcels of low-lying lands which are generally utilised for paddy cultivation, now allotted to poor agricultural workers as 'Kudikidappu' land are being used for dwelling purposes by them.

Though this is the general pattern of habitat, the people in the village are living in community blocks as far as possible. Public institutions like schools, churches, temples and mosques are built in the concerned areas, particularly to serve the interests of the concerned community.

In big plots houses are built at prominent corners of those lands. In small plots houses are built at the centre of the plots.
There is a modern trend in habitat. It is construction of houses on lands on both sides of the main roads, in comparatively limited areas of lands. In this kind of living there is no community feeling and people of different communities live in adjacent houses.

Government introduced scheme of 'one lakh houses' is implemented in all panchayat wards of this village, except ward II. These houses are located in high lands in all wards. Village panchayat could not find a plot for this purpose in ward II. However ward II already has a colony of low caste and poor people, established much earlier.

Congested living is found only in the colonies of the poor. But this congestion is not seriously felt, as there are large areas of open land, near these colonies.

Construction of compound walls is only for beautification purposes and put up only in the front line boundary of the household lands. Other sides are fenced with green bushy plants. Security provided by compound walls is no consideration of the people, as they do not have a feeling of insecurity owing to the absence of compound walls.
1.27 Modes of Conveyance, Communication and Contact

Infrastructure:

**Vehicles**

Private transport bus is the most popular mode for commutation. They are filled to capacity from the starting point itself, jam packed when it reaches the middle of the village and overcrowded when it crosses the village boundary, during peak hours in the morning and evening. Long distance travellers on a daily basis are few. However there are a few permanent employees working at Alwaye and Ernakulam, who travel partly by bus and partly by train. There are some 24 buses plying through the different PWD roads in the village. Kerala State Road Transport Corporation is plying three buses connecting this village, with Chalakudy town and Alwaye town.

Travel inside the village from houses to work places or fields is commuted by foot or on bicycle. Very few villagers belonging to the lower middle class and upper middle class possess scooters, and a handful of the rich use cars.

**Roads**

This village has two types of roads - PWD roads
and panchayat roads. About 27 kilometres of PWD road connect the different parts of the village to the nearby villages and Chalakudy town. These are pucca roads with granite base and asphalt top. They are 6.1 metre wide.

There are 75 panchayat roads of a total length of 87.5 kilometres. These are the links connecting the different points within the village. These roads are made of laterite stone chips, built and maintained by the panchayat. These are non-motorable roads.

Kadavus

As the village is divided into two land masses by the river, it becomes necessary for the people to cross over at different points for both travel and transport of things. There are fourteen Kadavus in the village. The right to ply country boats linking two opposite Kadavus is auctioned by the panchayat for a period of one year at a time. The auctioneer charges a payment (10 ps) from the travellers. Goods and animals are charged extra.

Post Offices

Postal department of the Government of India is serving the village through four branch post offices,
located at four important places manned by extra-departmental staff. These post offices also maintain public telephone booths. These telephone booths are in addition to nearly 25 telephone connections to private houses and industrial institutions. These communication and contact infrastructure facilities make it possible for the people to meet their needs of communication comparatively speedily.

1.28 Hygiene and Sanitation

Hygiene

The people of the village being hardworking agricultural labourers and technicians, do not experience much of a problem of health. Large expanse of land and open space and comparatively pure atmospheric conditions create a highly congenial hygienic condition in the village. Household wastes are instantly utilised as manure, as also animal wastes. Grand vegetation found all over the village further adds to the purity of air in this area. Further, availability of pure water is considered a blessing by the people of the village. The only disquieting feature is the smoke emanating from chimneys of tile factories.

Sanitation

Sanitary habits of the people of this area are presented in table 1.5.
Table 1.5

Sanitary Habits of the People

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic group</th>
<th>Temporary latrine in the compound</th>
<th>Permanent latrine in the compound</th>
<th>Latrine attached to the house</th>
<th>Open space defecation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>1150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower middle class</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>1150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper middle class</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>1150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>1518</td>
<td>1196</td>
<td>1403</td>
<td>4370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data.

Table 1.5 shows that 60 per cent of the poor class defecate in the open space. It is due to lack of facilities, and with every improvement in economic class, this practice is getting decreased and finally in the case of the rich class it is only 7.5 per cent. Attached latrine, a modern facility, is availed by more and more people as their economic position improves and the change is from 8 per cent to 55 per cent. Permanent latrine in the
compound, a condition mostly found among the upper middle class, is getting changed and it is substituted by latrine attached to the house in the case of the rich. The unhygienic habits of temporary latrine in the compound and open space defecation practiced by 37.9 per cent of the people, are mostly found among the poor classes. However, permanent latrine in the compound and attached latrines are used by 62.1 per cent of the people, who belong to the upper classes. So it can be safely presumed that with improvement in economic status, the sanitation of the village will improve to better levels. Panchayat authorities do not find any sanitary problem in the village, as of now, and there is no public sanitary facilities provided anywhere in the village. However, open space defecation as much as it affects the starting portions of the river bank is causing serious inconvenience and is also a health hazard to the people.

1.29 Medical Facilities

It has five hospitals - two of them run by congregations of catholic nuns, one by a medical practitioner and two by the government. These are located at different parts of the village, so as to serve mainly people of the respective areas. Information regarding the services of these hospitals is presented in table 1.6.
### Table 1.6

**Medical Facilities in the Village**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Hospital</th>
<th>No. of doctors</th>
<th>No. of nurses</th>
<th>No. of beds</th>
<th>No. of pay-wards</th>
<th>Para-medical staff</th>
<th>Out-patients per day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Government allopathic</td>
<td>1 general</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Government Ayurvedic</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Private Allopathic</td>
<td>1 general</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Private Allopathic</td>
<td>1 general</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Private Allopathic</td>
<td>1 general</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data.

Table 1.6 shows that the per day average number of out-patients is 67 per hospital. Seasonal variations are experienced, dry season witnessing a reduction and
wet season an increase. One third of these patients are reported to be patients visiting second or third time after contracting the disease. So it can be presumed that on an average 45 people are visiting each hospital as out-patients per day, as first time patients. Government allopathic hospital is experiencing maximum pressure of patients i.e. 100 on an average per day. Barring the second or third time visitors after contracting disease, average strength of new patients per day in this hospital is 67.

Treatment meted out in these hospitals is of primary type, both because of the lack of specialist doctors and advanced facilities. Except the ayurvedic doctor, all others are general practitioners. Only one hospital (private) has an advanced facility of X-ray machine and technician.

The poor of the village avail out-patient facility in private hospitals, the rich making use of payward facility, other things remaining the same. Facilities of both government hospitals are availed only by the poor and lower middle classes.

However, medical facilities available in the village are better than average medical facilities
enjoyed by the people of the state in general. State level position is given in table 1.7.

Table - 1.7

Average Medical Facility in the Village Compared to State average

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average number of persons served by one medical institution</th>
<th>Average medical facilities in the State 54</th>
<th>Average medical facilities in the village</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17324</td>
<td>4963</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average number of persons attended by one doctor</th>
<th>828</th>
<th>4963</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>783</td>
<td>292</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data.

Common diseases found in the village are scabies, hook worm, asthma, diarrhoea and fever. According to allopathic physicians, anaemia due to gross malnutrition is the basic cause of the above diseases. According to Ayurveda Physian, rheumatism, urinary infection and skin

disease are common ailments found among village people. A perusal of the records of different hospitals showed that out of the total patients 66 per cent are old aged people, 10 per cent children and 24 per cent others. Out of the total patients 65 per cent are women.

It has also been found that 8 homoeopathic doctors are also functioning in the village, treating mainly children below the age of ten.

**Education Infrastructure**

This village has good infrastructure facilities with reference to education. It has six lower primary schools (LPS), three upper primary schools (UPS) and three high schools (HS). Altogether 156 teachers are working in these institutions - 21 in LPS, 23 in UPS and 112 in HS. According to Kerala Education Act 1958, LP Schools contain standards I to IV, UP Schools, V to VII and High Schools VIII to X. Further, "the terms secondary school' shall be taken to include upper primary and lower primary standards attached to them, if any, and the 'upper primary school' shall be taken to include lower primary

standards attached to it, if any. Again according to the said Act a 'standard' in a school can have more than one division according to the strength of pupils.

The pupil strength of all schools in the village taken together from 1980-81 to 1985-86 is presented in Table 1.8.

Table 1.8

Comparative Position of Pupils between 1980-81 and 85-86

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Year</th>
<th>L.P.S.</th>
<th>U.P.S.</th>
<th>H.S.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>2065</td>
<td>1755</td>
<td>1676</td>
<td>5496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81-82</td>
<td>1957</td>
<td>1785</td>
<td>1720</td>
<td>5462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82-83</td>
<td>1879</td>
<td>1641</td>
<td>1653</td>
<td>5173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83-84</td>
<td>1924</td>
<td>1760</td>
<td>1603</td>
<td>5287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84-85</td>
<td>1895</td>
<td>1690</td>
<td>1549</td>
<td>5134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85-86</td>
<td>1884</td>
<td>1607</td>
<td>1414</td>
<td>4905</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey data.

The differences in strength of pupils found among LP, UP, and HS point to drop outs at each level. However,

56. Ibid.
the trend is not all consistent, presumably due to the effect of various forces on the school life of children.

Parent-Teacher Associations are functioning in all schools. They finance the extra expenses of these schools - purchasing utensils for cooking noon meal, prize distribution to meritorious children and any other extra expenditure.

Academic brilliance of pupils, as is evident from SSLC results of previous years, is not bad. Average SSLC pass is around 60 per cent. Better results could not be achieved for want of extra coaching facilities.

1.31 **Government administration, Development administration and self-government infrastructure**

Revenue administration of the village is performed by the village office, manned by a village officer, two assistants and a peon. It keeps detailed account of lands put to different agricultural purposes. It also issues certificates of nativity, possession and enjoyment of landed properties, heirship, solvency, handicap, self-employment, floodloss and loss caused by any other natural havoc. Another function of this office is to distribute pension to - old aged, widows, and unemployed. All
administrative programmes of government relating to this village are implemented through this office.

Development administration of the village is effected through, two village extension offices, one agriculture extension office, two veterinary hospitals, one maternity and child health centre and an office of the Central Ground water commission.

Grass-root level planning introduced by Government of India in 1979 is implemented in the village through village extension officers. They have already prepared a list of three hundred prospective beneficiaries belonging to below poverty line group and they are being given loan assistance to viable economic programmes, recommending and channelling their applications through banks. These are all for self-employment programmes.

Agriculture extension office provides assistance to farmers in the forms of necessary advice and assistance, currently through 'Training and Visiting System' (T & V System). Scheduled castes and Tribes and other poor farmers are supplied with seeds, fertilizers and pesticides free of cost, being government assistance.
Veterinary hospitals take care of the cattle population of the village. They provide subsidised feed to cattle and poultry, artificial insemination and medical care to cattle and poultry. Calves and chicks of hybrid variety are also supplied through these hospitals.

Maternity and child health centre propagates the small family norm, provides advance assistance to women in family planning and helps women to take care of the health of their children.

Central ground water commission is an organ of the Government of India, whose branch is working in this village. It assists people to keep water pure and also helps them in finding ground water at different locations.

Village panchayat is the institution of self-government functioning in the village. Elected council assisted by executive officer and staff form the local self-government body. Major activities of this local self-government body are construction and maintenance of roads, public wells; financially assisting anganwadis, youth clubs and other cultural organisations and installation and maintenance of street lights. Any programme assigned to it by the State Government is also implemented
by it (currently 110 house plots under 'one lakh houses' scheme). Funds necessary for the implementation of these programmes and to meet the cost of day-to-day functioning are obtained through taxes, rates, licence fees and State Government assistance.

32 Trade and Industry Infrastructure

This village is having fourteen trading centres located at important junctions, near all tile factories, ossein factory and churches. All these centres together have 106 trading shops - Tea shops (41), provision stores (39), fair price shops (6), textile stores (4), vegetable shops (12) and bakeries (4). Meat and fish are sold in temporary, make shift shops, in addition to the above. In addition to these there are a large number of petty shops and tailoring shops. Fish is also sold all over the village as door delivery item by vendors on cycles. However, bulk requirements of villagers are met by the nearest town market.

The village has no establishment to sell its surplus agricultural produce. They are all bought by visiting brokers from the production point itself.

There are 41 industrial establishments in the village, of which 16 are rice mills doing de-husking of
paddy, 2 oil mills, 5 tile factories, 2 aluminium utensil making units, 1 sea-shell processing unit, 1 bone-crushing unit, 1 thread rubber unit, 1 cola making unit, 1 match factory, 1 ossein producing unit, 4 carpentry work shops and 6 mechanical work shops. All these units except ossein producing unit, sell their products both within and outside the village.

1.33 Water Resource - Sources

This village has five sources for obtaining water - Dam water through major irrigation, river water through minor irrigation, river lift of individual land owners, public wells and ponds and private wells. Nearly 70 per cent of the water utilised for irrigation purposes is from own well lift and own river lift. Major irrigation water obtained by the people is practically nil as it is the fag end of the canal which reaches the village. Paddy land is practically fully irrigated through minor irrigation. The nature of irrigation is shown in table 1.9.

Drinking water is obtained solely from own well lift and water from neighbour's wells. Because of pollution, river water could not be used for drinking purposes.
## Table IV

**Irrigation - High land and Midland**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group of households</th>
<th>Land in Hectares</th>
<th>Land in each group</th>
<th>Land area Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I    II   III   IV</td>
<td>I     II   III   IV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No irrigation</td>
<td>713  345  253  92</td>
<td>12.14 105.65 145.31 18.60</td>
<td>179.64 10.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manual irrigation</td>
<td>161  69   23   -</td>
<td>9.78  16.53  15.52  -</td>
<td>16.94   0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own well lift</td>
<td>46   138  460  437</td>
<td>3.37  55.02  396.86 1066.70</td>
<td>616.17 34.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sharing well lift</td>
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<td>-    63   46   230</td>
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<tr>
<td>Soil retaining wetness</td>
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<td>-    12.14  55.36  -</td>
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<td>1762.14 100.00</td>
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Source: Survey data.
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<th></th>
<th>Group of households</th>
<th>Land in Hectares</th>
<th>Land in each group</th>
<th>Land area Percentage</th>
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<td>I  II  III  IV</td>
<td>I    II  III  IV</td>
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<td>9.78 16.53 15.52</td>
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<td>16.94 0.96</td>
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Source: Survey data.
Moreover, panchayat has provided 56 wells at different places in the village to provide drinking water. Since the panchayat has not taken effective steps to maintain these wells, only the newly built wells in housing colonies (10 Nos,) are in use.

Religious Infrastructure

Material evidence of the religious sentiment of the people of this area is edified into the form of temples, churches and mosque. Five temples, seven churches and one mosque are situated in this village. Temples of old are remnants of old grandeur with their 'Nalu kettu'. Financial constraints make the upkeep and maintenance of temples very difficult, their annual festivals are conducted by raising special contribution from believers. Temple feasts are mixture of religious ceremonies and cultural feasts.

All churches are constructed in western style. Except Sampalloor church and Ambazhakad church, all other churches are new constructions. The financial position of churches is much better than that of the temples, as they have income from their own landed property and expenses of annual festivals are met by some believer willingly, and he even makes a contribution to the church.
The sole mosque situated in the village at a muslim concentration area is built and maintained by the contributions of believers. Believers contribute according to their income and since there is religious mandate regarding the contribution of each individual, the mosque has no financial difficulties.

1.35 Social and Cultural Infrastructure

Social and cultural activities of the village, as far as youngsters are concerned, reverberate through 10 sports clubs and 4 arts clubs. They organise inter-village and intra-village sports and arts competitions.

There are five reading rooms in the village providing newspapers and magazines in Malayalam. Literature in any other language is not available, as it is beyond the comprehension of majority of the people. Facilities of public reading rooms are mostly enjoyed by the poor.