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EXVIRONMENTAL FACTORS' IN PRODUCTION AND PRODUCTIVITY OF RICE IN KERALA'

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ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS IN THE PRODUCTION AND PRO-

INTRODUCTION

The rice crop in Kerala has made significant gains over recent years. The output increased from 8.73 lakh tonnes in 1956-57 to 13.52 lakh tonnes in 1971-72 and gross area from 7.62 lakh hectares to 8.75 lakh hectares. The State also registered a moderate increase in per hectare yield. However, the rise in yield rate has been disparate.

A aubstantial chunk of the crop even today has low and stagnant productivity. Significant yield differences are observed between regions and between seasons. These interregional and interseasonal variations seem to be largely due to differences in environmental factors. In this paper an attempt is made to bring out the dimensions of the variations and their policy implications for rice production in the State.

The estimates of area, yield rate and production of rice are available in the several publications of the State Bureau of Economics and Statistics and the State Planning Board, such as Season and Crop Reports, Reports on Crop Cutting Surveys, the Fact Book on Agriculture, Kerala Economic Review, Statistics for Planning: Serial No.1, Agriculture, etc. Area under rice is estimated through regular sample surveys conducted by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics. Theestimates of area involve same degree of error but the margin of error has not been worked out. The yield rate and production are estimated on the basis of crop cutting surveys conducted by the Bureau every crop season in all the taluks of the State. The annual estimates for individual taluks might involve a large

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margin of sampling error, say upto 30 percent*



I. FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

The interregional and interseasonal variations in the yield of rice are the main theme of this study. Before we proceed with a require aid to contaragery out at the analysis, let us examine the salient characteristics of the paddy regions and seasons in Kerala.

(a) The Three regions

- (i) In terms of topography and physical features, Kerela falls into three broad natural divisions, viz., the lowland, the midland and the highland. Area with a mean elevation upto 25 feet above the sealevel are classified as lowland; the area lying between 25 feet and 250 feet above the sealevel belong to the midland; and those that are 250 feet and above the sealevel constitute the highland. In term of location, the lowland is the strip of land stretching along the seacoast on the west. The highland spreads along the eastern boundar and includes the high ranges and the Western Ghats. The midland fall between the lowland and the highland.
- (ii) In the following analysis, the taluks in the State are grouped into these three natural divisions. A majoriy of the taluks clearly fall into the regional grouping. Thus 10 taluks belong to the

The Sampling design adopted for the crop cutting surveys is one of multi-stage rendom sampling. The taluk is taken as the stratum, a census village the first stage unit, survey sub-division number as the second stage unit a 'Kandom' as third stage unit and finally a square flot of 5 x 5 meters as the ultimate sampling unit. From each taluk, six census villages are selected with eugal probability. From each of these census villages a systematic sample of three survey sub division numbers is selected from a frame consisting of the conseqution numbers of wet landsurvey sub-division. A square plot of side 5 meter is harvested, threshed, winnowed, and weighed. A sample of grains freevery 5th cut is forwarded to the District Statistical Officer for conducting driage experiments for estimating loss due to driage. Ther has not been any significant change in the sampling design over the period under reference in the Fresent study.

highland, 17 taluks fall in the midland and 9 taluks belong to the low-land. The remaining 19 taluks overlap into two or three natural divisions* The focus of our analysis is on the 36 taluks which lend themselves to clear-cut demarcation. It should, however, be noted that the demarcation is to a great extent arbitrary and that the area in any particular region is not strictly homogenous. In fact considerable differences in elevation soil, rainfall, and other agro-climatic conditions do exist as between different taluks in one region as well as between different parts of the same taluk.

(iii) The rainfall generally tends to increase as one moves from the south to the north and from the lowland to the highland. "As regards the georgraphical distribution of the rainfall it can generally be said that there is a similar (to that from the south to the north) increase from stations on the coast to the stations at the foot of the Ghats."

Thus, the annual rainfall in the lowland ranges from 890 mm in the extrme south to 3560 m.m. in the north. The midland receives an annual rainfall from 1400 m.m. in the south to 4000 m.m. in the north. The annual rainfall in the highland varies from 2540 m.m. in the south to 5080 m.m. in the north.

The highland taluks are Pathanamthitta, Pathanapuram, Devikulam, Peerumedu, Udumbamchola, Thodupuzha, Chittoor, Palghat, S. Wynad and N. Wynad. To the midland belong Neyyattinkara, Trivandrum, Chirayinkil, Kottarakkara, Kunnathur, Mavelikkara, Thiruvalla, Changenacherry, Alwaye, Kunnathunad, Moovatupuzha, Thalappilli, Ottappalam, Ponnani, Kozhikode, Thirur and Cannanore. The taluks of Karunagappally, Ampalapuzha, Karthikapally, Kuttanad, Shertal. Conchin, Parur, Chowghat and Crangannore are situated in the lowland, The residual group of taluks which are spread over more than one natural division comprises Nedumangad, Quilon, Chengannur, Kanjirappally, Kottayam, Meenachil, Vaikom, Kanayannoor, Mukundapuram, Trichur, Alathur, Perinthalmanna, Badagara, Ernad, Hosdurg, Kasergode, Thalipparamba, Tellicherry and Quilandy.

^{1.}Director of Statistics, Season and Crop Report, July 1956 to June 957, Government of Kerala, 1959, P.6

^{2.} Director of Statistics, <u>Season and Crop Report</u> for the years 1957-. and 1958-59, Government of Kerala, 1961- P.1.



It may be borne in mind, however, that "most of the rain-guage stations are in taluk offices and there is reason to believe that the rain-gauges are not properly maintained and the readings are not correctly recorded."

(iv) The soil in most parts of the lowland is sandy, varying in texture from sandy loan to pure sand. In some parts of the lowland, e.g., Kanayannoor, Shertallai, Ambalapuzha and Kuttanad taluks, one come acress peaty or 'kari' soil. The soil in the midland is mostly laterite. The western fringes of a few taluks in the midland region have sandy so while the eastern sectors of some have forest soil. In certain taluks the midland, such as Mavelikkara, Thiruvalla and Changanacherry stretche of alluvial soil are also observed. The highland region has both later and forest soil.

(b) The Three Paddy Seasons

(i) There are three main paddy seasons in Kerala -- 'Virippu',
'Mundakan' and 'Punja'. The first crop, Virippu, is sown during AprilJuneand hervested in August-October. The sowing andharvesting periods
the second, Mundakan, crop are August-October and December-January resp
ctively. Themain Punja crop is sown in November-December and harvested
in February-March. The Virippu and Mundakan crops account for the bulk
of the area under paddy in the State. As of 1969-70, 45 percent of the
area was under Virippu, 44 percent under Mundakan and the rest, 11 percent under Punja.

^{3.} Season and Crop Report, 1956-57, op.cit. P.6.

paddy. In the lowland region, lunja is the predominent crop. Punja is also prevalent on an extensive scale in Chengannoor, Vaikom, Kottayam, Mukundapuram, and Trichur, the taluks belonging to the heterogenous region. It may, however, be noted that sizeable parts of these taluks lie in the lowland region. The distribution of paddy area among the three seasons in the different regions is given in Appendix Table.

(ii) Whereas Virippu and Mundakan crops are raised in almost all parts of the State, the Punja crop is to a large extent concentrated in central Kerala comprising the four districts of Alleppey, Kottayam, Ernakulam and Trichur. Of the total area under Funja in 1969-70, viz. 98146 hectares, the above four districts claim 82830 hectares or a little over 84 percent. The rest of the Punja area, that is, 15311 hectares, is distributed over the other five districts where Punja crop on the average accounts for only 2 to 3 percent of the total area under paddy. Further, among the four districts which claim 82830 hictores under Punja, 41704 hectares are concentrated in Alleppey district, which came to about one half of the total paddy in the district. Moreover, the Punja crop is concentrated in a few taluks viz., Kuttanad, Vaoikom, Kottayam, Mavelikkara, Thiruvalla, Changanacherry, Chengannoor, Ambalapuzha, Karthikappally, Alwaye, Parur, Kunnathunad, Mukundapuram and Trichur. These fourteen taluks account for a little over 83 percent of the total Punja area in the State. Of this, Kuttaned taluk alone has 26 percent of the total and Kottayam taluk claims another 12 per It may be noted that these fourteen taluks form two clusters in the erstwhile states of Travancore and Cochin. The Punja fields are situatied near rivers, lakes and backwaters. They remain submerged during most of the year and the crop is sown after dewatering the fields. The proximity to the rivers and backwaters assures controlled irrigation to the fields and their

submersion after harvest leads to the replenishment of the soil through the annual deposit of silt. The major part of the alluvial belt in the State is contained in the two clusters formed by the fourteen taluks convering the main Punja zone.

II. INTERREGIONAL VARIATIONS IN YIELD RATES OF RICE

- (i) In this section we shall analyse the variations in yield between the three regions, the highland, midland, and lowland. As mentione
 earlier, in the highland, Punja crop is practically absent. Therefore
 comparison of yield rates between the three regions has to be confined to
 Virippu and Mundakan, the crops which are prevalent in all the three
 regions.
- (ii) The variations in yield among the three regions during four year viz. 1961-62, 1964-65, 1965-66 and 1968-69 are analysed here. The first two years are comparatively normal years of annual rainfall, with a total precipitation of 3309.5 m.m and 3169.5 m.m. respectively. The year 1965 is an abnormal period when the State received a total of 2009.1 m.m. very much the normal rainfall. The last year under reference, 1968-69, is a normal period in terms of total rainfuell, but also a recent period which might reflect the impact of the new agricultural technology. The average yield of dry paddy per hectare in the two seasons among the three regions is s in Table 2. For estimates of average yield in the different taluks of each region see Appendix Table II.

Table 2: AVERAGE YIELD OF PADDY IN THE THREE REGIONS (K.G. Per hectare)

	19	61-62 1964-65		65	1965-66		1968-69	
Region	Viri- ppu	Munda- kan	Viri-	Munde- kan	Viri- ppu	Munda- kan	Viri- ppu	Munda- kan
Highland Midland	1831 1663	2744 2343	1959 1 712	2749 2298	2234 1830	2012 1700	2242 1793	2750 2346
Lowland	1701	1839	1330	1750	1721	1295	1396	1387

The foregoing table shows the average yield rates for the two seasons in 10 highland taluks, 17 midland taluks and 9 lowland taluks. It is seen that in all the four years, and in both the crop seasons, the average yield is the highest in the highland and the lowest in the lowland, with the solitary exception of Virippu season in 1961-62. The difference in yiled between regions also appeares to be significant. To test the significance of interregional differences in yield, the data were put to analysis of variance.

The results of the analysis are summarised below:-

Contd....

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ANALYSES OF VARIANCE

(i) 1961-62

d.f.	s.s.	M.S.	F.
		-	
1	5928325	5928325	26.52
28	46895.15	167484	0.74
2	2476746	1238373	5.54
26	2212799	85108	0.38
28	6258647	223523	-
57	16876517		
(ii)	1964-65		
d.f.	s.s.	M.S	F
1	5271778	5271778	22.62
30	8709204	290307	1.25,
			9.97
			0.62
		233002	
61	20971044		
(ii:	i) 1965-66		
d.f.	S.S.	M.S.	F.
1	224691	224691	2.35
-			3.59
			17.11
			2.55
			_•///
57	12492871		
(f	iv) 1968-69		
d.f	S.S	M.S	F. •
1	315159	3151050	20.80*
			3.59
,			32 .77
			1.40
			1 • 170
59	23336741		
	28 2 26 28 57 (ii) 	28	28

The results of the analysis of variance show that the interregional variations in yield rate is highly significant at 1 percent level for all the four years. Further, it may be noted that variations within the regions are not/all significant. Incidentally, interseasonal variation is also highly significant during all the years except 1965-66, a year characterised by subnormal rainfall.

III. INTERSEASONAL VARIATION IN YIELD RATE

Next we proceed to examine the yield differentials between the three seasons, Virippu, Mundakan, and Punja. The analysis is confined to the valuks where all the three crops were present. All the three crops are reported in 25 taluks, of which 10 are in the midlard, 6 in the lowland and 9 in the miscellaneous region. The estimated average yield of paddy for 10 years from 1961-62 through 1970-71 for the three seasons in the 25 taluks are given in the Appendix Table III. The average yields for each region and season over the ten years are summarised in Table 4.

Table 4: AVERAGE YIELD OF PADDY IN THREE SEASONS (Kg. per hectare)

Year	Season	Midland	Lowl and	Others	Average
1	2	3	4	5	6
1061	Virippu	1672	1635	1447	1588
1961 – 62	Mundakan	2499	1730	1891	2129
62	Punja	2353	2447	2334	2470
	Average	2275	1971	1890	2071
	Virippu	1367	1517	1875	1803
1962– 63	Mundakan	2286	,1944	2091	2137
	Punja	2284	['] 24 77	2136	2212
	Average	2146	2014	2034	2076

Year	Season	Midland	Lowland	Others	Aver
1	2	3	4	5	6
1963 – 64	Virippu Mundakan	1 72 2 2264	1 72 9 1942	1961 2190	1 80 21
04	Punja	2375	2019	2151	22
	Average	21,20	1891	2102	20
1964-	Viripp _i Mundakan	1617 2289	1298 1879	1652 2241	15
65	Punja	2156	1770	2079	20
	Average	2021	1649	1991	19
1955 - 66	Virippu Mundakan	1692	1500 1357	1765 1750	16 16
66	Punja	1659 1929	1643	1576	17
	Average	1760	1500	1697	16
1966-	Virippu	1777	1413	1841	17
67	Mundakan Punja	\2033 2063	1567 1785	2058 20 7 3	19 19
	Average	1960	1582	1992	18
	Virippu	1879	1418	1792	17
196 7 68	Mundakan Punja	1969 23 12	1675 2124	1872 2050	18 21
	Average	2053	1739	1974	19
1968- 1	Virippu Mundakan	1727 2432	1378 1430	1776 2106	16
69	Punja	1980	1672	. 2154	.19
	Average	2045	1476	2612	19
1969-	Viripru Mundakan	1706 2074	1412	2186	18
7 0	Punja	2402	1567 2060	2183 2735	19 24
	Average	2060	1680	2149	20
1970-	Virippu Mundakan	1941 2279	1708 1798	2331 2612	20 21
71	Punje Punje	2624	2907	2 7 94	27
	Average	2282	2137	2404	22

The broad picture emerging from the above Table is that the yield rate is the lowest in the Virippu season and the highest is the Punja crop. When all taluks are taken together, by and large, the average yeild rises as one moves from the Virippu through Mundakan on to the Lunia season. In the midland taluks, over the entire period, the Virippu crop has the lowest yield. During three years, that is, 1962-63, 1964-65 and 1968-69, the Mundakan yileded the highest, and in the remaining seven years, Punja yield led all the three seasons. As far as lowland is concerned, in all the years except 1964-65 Punja has the highest yield among the three seasons. On the otherhand, in the lowland taluks, the Virippu crop has reported the lowest average yield in nine out of the ten years. In the mixed group of taluks, the picture is slightly mixed, and naturally so. However, we notice that the summer crop is on top in seven out of 10 years. The departures from the general pattern of interseasonal variation in yield are presumably due to random factors. This is supported by the results of the analysis of variance referred to earlier in Table 3. In Table 5 the summary of the analysis of variance covering ten years is presented.

Table 5: ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Variation	d.f.	S.S.	M.S.	F
laluks	24	37135698	1547321	11.22
ears	9	18179772	2019974	14.64
Seasons	2	29180843	14590421	105.78**
XS	48	20419073	425397	3.08
XXS	18	11686528	649251	4.71
ľXY Error	216 432	20987446 5958 5237	97164 137929	0.70
[otal	749	197174597		

The results of the analysis of variance clearly bring out the fact that interseasonal variations in yield are highly significant at 1 per cent level.

IV. FACTORS UNDERLYING YIELD DIFFERENCES

We noted above that the yield rates varied significantly between three regions and between the three seasons. We shall now attempt to tiry the Postor's which account for the interregional and interseasonal variations.

- (a) As between the regions, the average yield of rice was seen to be the highest in the highland and the lowest in the lowland. Interregional differences in yield rate may be due to differences in climate soil, excepting pattern, etc.
- (i) Climatic conditions show some variations among the three regil Climate in the highland is cool and tracing for most part of the year; over the winter months in the high ranges the temperature drops to 100 during the day and touches the freezing point at night. In the midland Lowland, the climate is hot, the temperature ranging from 20°c to 25°c It may be berne in mind that the rice crop required high temperature. Relative Lumidity is higher in the lewland than in the midland and high But, then, opinions are divided on the influence of humidity on the pe mance of the crop. Coming to rainfall, it tends to increase as we mov from the lowland to the highland. But the impression one gets from lo at the names rainfall data for a period of fifty years, 1901-1951, is interregional variation in rainfall is not much. Further, with regard rainfall, after all, it is its distribution, rather than the total, wh is more relevant. Thus, the interregional differences in climate do m suggest a definite pattern so as to explain the observed differences yield between the three regions.

- (ii) The higher yield from the highland region is perhaps due to cropping pattern prevailing there. The cropping intensity in the highland region is generally low compared to the paddy areas in the other two regions. In taluks like Feermede and Udumbanchola only one crop is raised. In no taluk more than two crops are taken; even where two crops are grown, one crop claims the bulk of the area. In Devikulam for instance, a little over 94 per cent of the paddy area is accounted for by Mundakan or winter crop, and only 6 percent is sown to Virippu. In the North Wynad and South Wynad taluks, over 90 percent of the area is under the winter crop and the rest is under Punja or summer paddy. It is worth examining whether the lower cropping intensity in the highland is the reason behind the higher yield rate there.
- (iii) It is generally held that a substantial proportion of the inherent yield of a plant is governed by the genetic constitution of the strain of the seed and only a part of the actual yield is atributable to environmental conditions, the quantity and quality of inputs and agronomic practices.

 In some of the highland taluks, long-duration strains are cultivated. Other things remaining the same, the long-duration strains are known to give higher yields than the medium or short-duration varieties. This hunch is also a matter for further investigation.
- (iv) As with topography and climate, we also observe differences in soil texture and fertility between the regions. It may be recalled that the highland region is dominated by laterite and forest soil, In the mid-land one comes across stretches of laterite, forest soil, and alluvial soil. As against these, the lowland is predominently sandy; in a few lowland taluks peaty or Kari soil is also found. The sandy soil is highly porous and extremely deficient in all major plant foods. The poaty soil is characterised by poor aeration and drainage and low fertility. Further the Kari lands are

subject to annual inundation under salt water with serious adverse effect on soil fertility, leading to frequent crop failures. Thus, the soil in the lowland appears to be inferior to the soil in the midland and the highland. However, paddy is a highly adaptable crop in terms of soil co ditions. At the same time, differences in the soil texture may have some bearing on yield differences. The highly porous sandy soil in the lowly region has poor retention capacity compared to the laterite, alluvial or forest soils covering the other two regions. In this context, the criti variable affecting the yield rates in the three regions may perhaps be \\$ greater loss of water through percolation and seepage in the lowland reg rather than the lower fertility of the lowland soil. "The types of soil suitable for paddy cultivation depend more on the conditions under which plant is grown than upon the nature of the soil. The semi-aquatic condi runder which it is cultivated necessitate a heavy soil through which irri gation water will not percolate, for the demands of the plant regarding water are more precise than are its demands on soil conditions."5 Pendl observes: "Rice is doubtless the most adaptable food crop man grows, and enough water remains on the soil until the maturing of the crop, it can duce atleast a little grain on soils that are unbelievably poor in plant nutrients.6

(b) Yield differences between the three seasons were found to be highly significant. The Virippu crop registered the lowest yield while highest yield was realised in the Punja season. To what extent are the interregional variations in yield due to differences in climatic and oth environmental conditions? How much are the variations due to genetic factors and agronomic practices? Is there any interaction between

^{5.} G.H. Grist, Rice, Longmans, Green and Co. 1960, p.11

^{6.} Loc. cit.

environmental conditions and cultural practices? We turn to these questions now:

The Virippu and Mundakan crops are raised during the monsoon (1) The Virppu season synchronises with the Southeast monsoon. crop/grown under cloudy conditions; the available sunlight during the Virippu season is less than that in other months of the year. is difficult to form a firm judgement on the effect of the it/seasonal variations in sunlight on the performance of the crop. In the first place, the data on sunlight (reckoned in terms of, say the number of sunny/rainy days) during the period under survey, are not readily available. Secondly, one does not know whether the actual sunlight usually available during the Virippu season, though less than that of the other two seasons, is not sufficient for photosynthetic efficiency. The interseasonal variation in temperature and relative humidity in most parts of the State does not seem to be very great. The temperature during the Virippu season is evidently lower than that of Mundakan and Punja seasons; but the difference is not much. At any rate, it is an open question whether the temperature during the Virippu season is so low as to depress its yield. As mentioned earlier, there is no consensus on the effect of high humidity on the yield rate of meddy. But it has been observed that the high humidity during the monsoon season is a serious environmental problem. "The humidity increases the segerity of attacks by insects and diseases."7 Cloudy atmosphere, low temperature and high humidity obtained during Virippu season favour the cice blast disease and bacterial leaf blight. On the otherhand, the Punja crop is relatively free from these adverse conditions. During the Punja season the temperature is high; the sky is clear and there is adequate sunlight; and relative humidity is low. Notwithstnding the above, one is led to the conclusion that interseasonal variations

^{7.} Randolph Barker and Mahar Mangahas, "Environmental and other Factors Influencing the Performance of New High Yielding Varieties of Wheat and Rice in Asia", Agricultural Development in Developing Countries - Comparative Experience, Indian Society of Agricultural Economics, Bombay, 1972, p.228.

in climatic conditions do not fully explain the difference in yield.

- (ii) There is however, a crucial environmental factor which differentiate Viripru and Mundakan from the Punja crop. The first two cr depend upon the not too dependable rains, while the punja is irrigated pathe Punja unlike the other two crops, is raised only in such areas where is assured supply of water.
- (iii) The risk element in the Punja crop is comparatively low, the to controlled irrigation. Therefore, the cultivators should be prepared experiment with new inputs and new techniques. Available evidence seems support this hypothesis. As of 1970-71, about 54 percent of the Punish fi was under the new high yielding varieties, as against 13 percent of the Mundakan area and 15 percent of the Virippu area. The proportion of the paddy area using chemical fertilizers, for the same period, has been estived and a little over 40% in Virippu; the percent under Mat about 95 percent of land not receiving any mandres is the least in the of the Funja. Thus the Punja crop leads the other two in respect of addition of modern inputs and practices. The availability of irrigation wate seems to be the main factor inducing the adoption of improved seed, application of fertilizers, etc. to a greater extent in Funja than in Mundakas Virippu.
- (iv) Availability of water emerges as the critical variable affering yield rates. In the course of a recent survey among sample cultivate and other knowledgeable persons in some twenty selected areas in the State learned that the main constraint or the expansion of Punja crop was lack irrigation facilities, for during this season rainfall is reduced to a truly be mentioned that even in areas where some major and medium irrigations.

^{8.} The State Planning Board, Kerla Sconemic Review, 1971, Government of 1972.

projects were completed, for example in Palghat and Trivandrum districts, the cultivators complained that they do not get water for the Punja season. This is exemplified by the limited extent of the Punja crop in these two districts where the major irrigation projects so far unlertaken in the State are mostly concentrated. In such areas in the two districts where Punja crop is reported, the cultivators depend on other sources of water like rivers, lakes and private tanks and wells. It is significant, to note that the existing irrigation schemes serve at best to stabilise the Virippu and Mundakan crops and are not able to release any water for a third crop.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Environmental factors play a decisive role on the yield of rice in Kerala. Among the environmental factors, the most crucial one appears to be the availability of water. A vast proportion of the paddy crop today depends on the rainfall. Even in areas where major irrigation projects have been completed, their essential role is one of protecting the crops raised during the monsoon season. Significantly enough, the Punja crop which gives the highest yield, remains outside the stream of irrigation provided by the Government.

The conclusion emerging from the present study is that Kerala has failed to fully exploit its abudant water resources. The State receives about 3000 m.m. of rainfall a year. Moreover, the year to year variation in total rainfall is comparatively small. Todate the investment has been concentrated on surface irrigation. A proper irrigation system should seem to supply water when it is most needed and at the rate in which it

will be most productive. Herein, perhaps, lies the significance of utilisation of ground water resources. Given the heavy precipitation there should be a large reservoir of ground water in the State which still remains untapped, if not unexplored. The Task Force on Ground Water Resources constituted by the State Planning Board beserved that "groundwater investigation and survey in the State is in its infancy". Studies carried out by the Geological Survey of India in Alleppey Dist experiments of tube well construction by the Fublic Health Engineering Department in Quilon and Alleppey Districts, exploratory drilling by t Central Ground Water Board in some parts of the State have all yielded promising results. The exploitation of groundwater is at present negli The future irrigation plans of the State must reddress the present imble by resorting to what the Irrigation Commission calls, "conjunctive use surface and ground water". But the nature and extent of the adoption of such "conjunctive use" programme should, of course, be based on a careful analysis of all the economic aspects involved.

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APPENDIX TABLE I

Area under three crops in three regions

		1961-62			<u>1970–71</u>	
	'%	area unde	r paddy	%ngea	under padd	у
Taluk	Virippu	Mundakan	Punja	Virippu	Mundakan	Punja
Highland						
Pathanamthitte	21.66	78.34		30.65	67.24	2.11
Pathanapuram	50.68	49.32	• •	47.11	52.89	
Devikolam	• •		• •	5.92	94.08	• •
Peermede	• •	• •	• •	••	100.00	• •
Udumbanchola	• •			• •	100.00	
Thodupuzha	51.47	48.53	• • •	52.28	47.72	• •,
Chittoor	56.57	43.43	• •	48.91	51.09	• •
Palghat	68.62	31.38	• •	62.73	37.27	• •
South Wynad		100.00	• •		87.11	12.89
_	• •	94.12	5.88	• •	93.70	6.30
North Wynad	• •			• •		
verage for highland Midland	4 1. 04,	56.85	2.11	48.98	48.98	2.04
<u> </u>						
Neyyattinkara	50.04	49.96		48.62	50.06	1.32
Trivandrum	49.68	50.32	• •	47.11	49.01	3.88
Chirayinkil	44.81	55.19	• •	42.09	55.25	2.66
Kottarakkara	46.34	53.66		47.40	51.66	3. 94
Kunnathur	37.66	62.02	0.32	41.02	57.40	1.58
Mavelikara	28.34	31.72	39.94	30.11	35.48	34.41
Thiruvalla	26.61	28.44	44.95	23.62	37.12	39.26
Changanacherry	16.10	24.34	59.56	26.51	21.69	51.80
Alwaye	40.02	35.41	4.57	34.22	48.28	17.50
Kunnathunadu	37.05	58.27	4.68	36.15	54.77	9.08
Moovattupuzha	35.17	63.42	1.41	40.00	57.11	2.89
Thalappilly	40.97	55.34	3.69	48.50	47.99	3.51
Ottappalam	61.65	38.35	• •	61.40	38.60	• •
Ponnani	64.34	21.03	14.63	42.86	39.76	17.38
Kozhikode	56.34	13.66	•• /	43.14	54.27	2.59
Thirur	68.58	27.05	4.37	48.57	44.82	6.61
Cannanore	32.08	17.92	• •	85.89	14.11	7
verage for Mid-		.,,,		-,,,,		
land	46.34	45.37	8.29	49.74	42.92	7.34
Lowland						
Karunagappally	28.46 1	68.48	3.06	32.99	60.85	6.16
Ambalapuzha	19.02	22.72	68.26	12.35	32.25	55.40
Karthigappally		40.12	25.32	37.35	39.12	23.53
Kuttanad	5.68		94.32	2.10	• •	97.90
Shertallai	72.06	27.94	• •	59.50	40.50	
Cochin	100.00	• •	• •	100.00	***	• •
Parur	24.71	26.73	48.56	38.30	21.35	40.35
Chowghat	17.38	72.16	10.46	25.31	63.47	11.22
Crangannoer	24.31	73 .7 8	2.51	19.80	78.31	1.89
Average for Low-	-				,	
land	28.10	31.37	40,53	27.17	50.62	42.21

APPENDIX TABLE II

Average Yield of Virippu and Mundakan in Different Taluks for the period 1961-62 to 1970-71 (Kg. per hectare)

Taluks	Virippu	Mundakan
Pathanamthitta	1848	2617
Pathanapuram	1917	2725
Devikulam		2085
Udubanchola	• • •	2813
Thodupuzha	1832	2217
Chittoor	2667	2756
Palghat	2587	2848
Peermade	• •	2287
S. Wynad	• •	2194
N. Wynad	••	1905
Neyyattinkara	2227	2364
Trivandrum	2031	2230
Chirayinkil	1798	2220
Kottarakkara	1857	2601
Kunnathur	1538	2607
Mavelikara	1681	2259
Thiruvalla	1902	2276
Changanacherry	2179	2223
Alwaye	1748	2177
Kunnathunadu	1647	2048
Muvattupuzha	1835	2228
Thalappilly	2131	2239
Ottappalam	2351	2370
Ponnani	1474	2107
Kozhikode	1290	1829
Thirur	1464	1621
Cannanore	1694	1477
Karunagappally	1603	2076
Ambalapuzha	1319	1338
Karthikappally	1661	2033
Kuttanad	1941	• •
Shertallai	1351	1137
Cochin	2007	• •
Parur	1758	1806
Chowghat	1416	1478
Crangannure	1278	1463

APPENDIX TABLE III

Average Yield of Paddy, 1961-62 to 1970-71

(Kg. per hectare)

		Virippu	Mundakan	Punja
1. F	Kunnathur	1538	2607	2313
2. 1	Mavelikkara	1681	2259	2615
3. '	Thiruvalla	1902	2276	2722
4. (Changanacherry	2179	2223	2505
5. 1	Alwaye	1748	2177	2041
6. I	Kuńna thunadu	1647	2048	1839
7. 1	Moovattupuzha	1835	2229	1990
8.	Thalapilly	2131	2239	2812
9. 3	Ponnani.	1474	2107	2033
10.	Thirur	1464	1621	1913
11. I	Karunagappally	1603	2076	1696
12.	Ambalapuzha	1319	1338	2056
13. I	Karthigappally	1661	2033	2513
14.]	Farur	1753	1806	2122
15. (Chowghat	1416	1478	2040
16.	Crangannure	1278	1463	2118
17.	Chengannur	2003	2249	2670
18.]	Kottayam	2011	2269	2244
19.	Meenachil	1686	2082	2052
20.	Vaokom	1550	1912	2060
21. 1	Mukunda puram	1489	1820	2318
22.	Trichur,	1760	2132	2343
23. 1	Hosdurg	1982	1857	1903
24.]	Kascragod	2076	2011	2024
25.	Quilon	1736	2068	1948

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