Located in the Irdo-Gangetic plain, Uttar Pradesh even after the formation of Uttarakhand State comprising its hilly areas in the Himalayan region, continues to be the largest state in terms of population. The present book provides expansive and pragmatic insights regarding distinctive characteristics of land, people, customs, resources, historical background, culture, crafts, literature, economy etc. of Uttar Pradesh.

Sri S.N. Jha, IAS (1972), formerly Chairman, Uttar Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation, Lucknow, has acquired a long experience of more than three decades occupying many important positions in the State administration with distinguished records. He is presently Director General & Additional Secretary (Commerce) with Ministry of Commerce & Industry, Government of India.

UTTAR PRADISEH
The Land and the People

SUBODH NATH JHA

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I. Name of the divisions & districts
II. Uttar Pradesh at a glance
**Preface**

This book owes much to my experience while working in the Planning Department, Government of Uttar Pradesh and my association with a number of departments as also with divisional and district administration in different parts of this State, which provided me expansive and pragmatic insights regarding distinctive characteristics of land, people, customs, resources, economy, etc. of Uttar Pradesh together with its fascinating past with illustrious events of power and politics; bravery and brilliance; sacrifices and successes, etc, on the one hand and treasure of culture and crafts; literature and learning; religion and rituals on the other. In fact, spectrum of such a wide range of valuable ingredients formed the subject matter of this book.

In the treatment of the text, a conscious attempt has been made to cover facts and features of every component pertaining to the state of Uttar Pradesh in this slender document to the possible extent so as to ensure their conceptual and empirical validation. No claim is, however, made that the book is either "comprehensive" or free from weaknesses.

However, the present study which encompasses so vast, varied and significant matters that each of these itself deserves treatment of a separate volume. It is hoped that book will generate enough interest among students including scholars and prove useful to those interested in the study of Uttar Pradesh.

I am indebted to Sri Banwari Lal, former Joint Director
and Advisor to the State Planning Institute, U.P., Lucknow, for his valuable help and advice without which this work would not have been timely accomplished. My discussions with Dr. D. M. Diwakar, Prof. Giri, Institute of Development Studies, Lucknow have always been rewarding. I am also grateful to all those who helped me in this regard.

Lastly, I wish to place my gratitude on record to the National Book Trust, India, New Delhi for offering me an opportunity to write this book.

S. N. Jha

Lucknow
February, 2007

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PHYSIOGRAPHY

Introduction
The State of Uttar Pradesh is privileged with certain distinctive characteristics amongst other states of the Indian union. Geographically, it is well placed, physically quite sound, historically greatly glorified, culturally profoundly rich, socially very significant and politically utmost virile. Economically, however, despite being endowed with such niceties and potentialities, it has lagged behind in the race of development.

Administratively, the whole state has been divided in 17 divisions, which have further been divided into 70 districts. The villages have been organized into 813 development blocks. From the economic point of view, these districts have been grouped under the four economic regions viz., Western region, Central region, Eastern region and Bundelkhand region having 26, 10, 27 and 7 districts respectively. The list of districts under each administrative division as also under each economic region is provided in Annexure-1 and main indicators showing development status of U.P. are provided in Annexure-II.

Location
Uttar Pradesh, one of the border states of the Indian Union, is located in the Indo-Gangetic plain. Its northern boundary forms the international boundary with Nepal. Prior to formation of separate Uttarakhand state in November 2000, its northern border running along the Himalayas also touched Tibet region of China. Now, in the
north lies the Siwalik hills of Uttarakhand state along with the Nepal border. Since then, 13 districts of Hill region of erstwhile Uttar Pradesh, with an area of about 53 thousand kms and a population of about one crore have gone over to the new state of Uttarakhand. Although, the area of the State is now 7.3% of the country’s area against the earlier share of 8.9% yet the State still continues to be the fifth largest state in the country. In terms of population also, Uttar Pradesh continues to be the largest state in the country with a share of 16.2% in the country’s population.

As regards the physical border of Uttar Pradesh, its western and south-western borders touch Haryana, Delhi and Rajasthan states. Madhya Pradesh situated in its south while Bihar is on its eastern border.

Physical Divisions
Prior to Uttarakhand state came into existence, Uttar Pradesh could physically and geologically be divided into three distinct regions viz., the Himalayan region in the north, the Gangetic plain in the middle and the Peninsular region in the south. But after the formation of the new state Uttarakhand, the Himalayan region has entirely been separated leaving only its Bhabhar and Terai part, which is also known as sub-Himalayan zone.

The Gangetic Plain
The Gangetic Plain covers nearly two-third of Uttar Pradesh and has been built by the Ganga and its tributaries. It comprises an alluvial tract of Pleistocene and recent deposits of clay and sand. The height of the entire plain area outside the Bhabhar and Terai belts, generally ranges between 80 metres and 250 metres. Except for northern part of Saharanpur district at the foot of the Siwalik range, no place in the region is more than 300 metres above the sea-level. The whole area is levelled except for those portions of trans-Yamuna, Agra and Mathura districts where several ravines and red-stone hillocks are found on the eastern end of the Arawalli hills. The slope of the plain is from north to south in the western portion and from west-north to south-east in eastern. The plain is watered by the Yamuna, the Ganga and its northern tributaries, the Ram Ganga, the Gomti and the Ghagha. The whole region is densely populated and immensely vital for the economy of the State. The soil available in this region is mostly alluvial which is very fertile. Generally, two crops — RABI during spring and KHARIF during autumn are harvested. The main crops of this region are paddy, wheat, gram, millets and sugarcane.

The Sub-Himalayan Zone
The sub-Himalayan zone is the zone of Terai Bhabar and the foothills of Siwaliks. Geographically, the Siwaliks of the outer Himalayas, immediately below and between the Bias and the upper reaches of Ganga consist of fresh water deposits of middle Miocene to lower Pleistocene age. This belt persists throughout the foothills of the Himalayas and shows a simple type of folding and faulting.

The northern strip of the Gangetic plain, which runs from Saharanpur in the west to Deoria in the east, is called the Bhabar and Terai and has distinct features of its own. The Bhabar skirt lies in Saharanpur, Bijnor and Pilibhit districts. Hills torrents and rivers descending from the mountains slow down here and leave behind boulders brought by them from upper reaches. The tract is 34 kilometres wide in the west but gets narrow eastwards. The Bhabar is piedmont plain in which coarse pebbles are inter-mixed with finer and extremely pervious detritus where the smaller Himalayan rivers and streams vanish under ground till they emerge again to create a marshy tract called the Terai. The Terai is a swampy zone and extend southward from the margin of Bhabar. The Terai is a creation of the sub-soil and heavy rainfall.

It is covered by tall grasses and thick forests. The Terai area was once 80 to 90 kilometres wide. The narrow strip
of Terai runs through the northern portion of Saharanpur, Bijnor, Rampur, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Kheri, Behraich, Gonda, Basti, Siddharth Nagar, Gorakhpur, Mahrajan, Deoria and Padrauna districts. The width of Terai belt has considerably diminished on account of the State Government’s land acquisition programme in recent years. The main crop of Bhabar and Terai areas are rice, wheat and sugarcane.

Peninsular Region
The southern most part of Uttar Pradesh is the peninsular shield composed of, geologically speaking, the most ancient rocks of diversified origins. Its mountains represent the survival of hard masses of rocks which have escaped weathering and removal. The eastern part of this region comprises Vindhya mountains while the western portion consists of a rocky highland plateau with the Vindhya mountains to the south of it. The Vindhya range is composed of sedimentary rocks of Vindhyan system i.e. sandstone, lime-stone and shales. The height of the plateau is generally not above 300 metres above the sea-level.

At a very few places, it is more than 450 metres. The elevation of Kaimpur and Sonarpur at some places in Mirzapur and Sonbhadra districts is about 600 metres. The plateau region is mainly composed of Bundelkhand granite and gneiss. The whole region consists of the Bundelkhand Division, the Meja and Karchana tehsils of Allahabad district, the entire Mirzapur district south of the Ganga and Chakia tehsil of Varanasi district. Rainfall is scanty in entire region. The land of this region is very suitable for agriculture due to the configuration of the land. Arrangement of irrigation and drinking water has been made in the past few years through the construction of reservoirs. The crops of this region are jauar, gram and wheat.

Climate
The State has a tropical monsoon climate with an average temperature varying from a minimum of about 3-4°C in January to 43-44°C in May-June. In the sub-Himalayan belt stretching from Saharanpur to Deoria, the climate is humid and hazardous to health. Down below the Gangetic plain, usually the temperature in January touches 3-4°C while it shoots up to 43°C in May-June. Generally, the districts of Agra and Jhansi have the highest temperature and Bareilly and Roorkee the lowest.

The climatic conditions of the State are also reflected by the three different seasons of the year—winter season from October to February, summer from March to mid-June and monsoon from mid-June to September. Winters are generally cold. The north-western districts experience extreme cold during winters. Hailstorms in February and March are not uncommon. The southern hills and plateau are very hot in summers owing to barren and rocky nature of the terrain. Nights are pleasant.

Rainfall
The State gets major share of rains of about 83 per cent between mid-June and mid-September mainly from Bay of Bengal Monsoon and about 17 per cent due to north-westerly cyclones. The rains in the sub-Himalayan region, as it is popularly called, the average annual rainfall is over 100 cms. The southern hills and the plateau get rainfall about 100 cms. However, Jalaun and Hamirpur districts and some portions of Jhansi and Banda districts receive comparatively less rainfall. In plains, Gorakhpur district with about 56 rainy days gets maximum average rainfall of 184.7 cms, while Mathura with 32 rainy days a minimum of 54.4 cms.

Rivers
The Ganga and the Yamuna are the major rivers of Uttar Pradesh, which originate in Uttarakhand state from Gangotri and Yamunotri glaciers respectively. While rivers and rivulets such as Dhauli, Pindar, Alaknanda, Mandakini,
etc. join the Ganga on its right bank, the tributaries such as Ramganga, Gomti, Ghagra along with Kali, Sarda, Rapti, Gandak, etc. on the left bank. All the left bank tributaries except Gomti, which originates in Pilibhit, have their origin in the Himalayas or beyond, while all the right bank tributaries originate in the Vindhyan and Satpura ranges. The major tributaries of the Yamuna are Chambal, Sind, Betwa and Ken. Beside these tributaries of Ganga and Yamuna, some other rivers viz. Sai, Kosi, Kalyani, Chandraprabha, Karmanasha, Rihand, Belan and Dharsan join the Ganga or the Yamuna in the State. The Ganga and the Yamuna rivers join together in Allahabad.

The rivers in the State originating in Himalayas are full of waters round the year while the Vindhyan rivers often dry up in the summers. It is because the water in the Himalayan rivers is not reduced in the summers due to melting of snow and also because intensity of rainfall is comparatively more than in the Vindhyanas.

Soil

On the basis of geological and physical conditions, the soils of the State can broadly be classified into two categories viz. alluvial soil, mixed red and black soil which vary in its different regions. The details follow for each region viz. Sub-Himalayan zone (Terai, Bhabar and the foothills of Siwaliks), the Gangetic plain and southern hills and plateau.

Soils of the sub-Himalayan zone are pebbly and porous, varying from clay loam to sandy loam. The clay loam is rich in organic matter and its surface is dark grey. Sandy loam varying from drought conditions owing to excessive percolation and a low water absorbing capacity.

Soils of the Gangetic Plain, mostly of alluvial type, consist of old alluvial soil (Bangar) and new alluvial soil (Khadar). The bangar forms the higher ground while the khadar forms the flood-plains adjacent to the rivers. The bangar is clayey, generally dark in colour and full of pebbles (kankar) while the khadar is sandy, light in colour and with less kankar. In order to classify the soils of this region, the whole Gangetic plain can be divided into Western, Central and Eastern ranges.

Soils in the Terai area of the western region are mostly dark grey in colour, varying from loam to sandy loam. These soils are shallow and generally acidic, containing stones and gravels in large proportions. In the plain areas of this region (Saharanpur, Muzaffar Nagar and Meerut districts), the soils are deep and very fertile. Towards further east (Bareilly, Bijnor, Pilibhit and Moradabad), the tract has soils of heavy loam in texture.

Soils in the entire Central region is mostly sandy loam except the north-eastern part (Kheri and Sitapur district), it is loam or sandy loam and is slightly acidic.

In the Eastern region, the soils are mainly three types viz. Bhat, Banjar and Dhuh. Bhat soil is low lying and sandy loam in character and possesses high lime content. Dhuh soil is found near river-banks and is subject to inundation. A phosphatic deficient belt of this region is its north-western part. The soil in which potash is mainly deficient is found in Jaunpur, Azamgarh and Mau districts. The soil popularly known as usar and reh is generally found in dry parts of the region. These soils mostly occur in Aligarh, Mainpuri, Kanpur, Sitapur, Unnao, Etah, Etawah, Rai Bareli and Lucknow districts.

The soils of Southern Hills and Plateau are mixed and red black. The districts in which these soils are found include Jhansi division, Mirzapur and Sonbhadra districts, Meja and Karchhana tehsils of Allahabad district and Chakia tehsil of Varanasi districts. The black soils, generally known as Mar and Kabar are calcareous and possess a high degree of fertility. They are predominantly clayey. They expand when wet and shrink when dry and develop cracks during summers. The red soils are found on plateau tops and upper slopes. These are also of two types viz. Parva and Rakar. The former is highly light sandy loam soil while the latter is eroded soil mostly found on higher elevations.
### Annexure-1

**Name of the Divisions & Districts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Districts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Agra Division</td>
<td>Agra, Aligarh, Etah, Firozabad, Mainpuri, Mahamaya Nagar (Hathras), Mathura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Azamgarh Division</td>
<td>Azamgarh, Balia, Mau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Allahabad Division</td>
<td>Allahabad, Kaushambi, Fatehpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Bareilly Division</td>
<td>Bareilly, Badaun, Pilibhit, Saharanpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Basti Division</td>
<td>Basti, Sant Kabir Nagar, Sidharth Nagar (Navgarh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Chitrakut Division</td>
<td>Banda, Hamirpur, Mahoba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Devi Patan Division</td>
<td>Gonda, Bahraich, Balrampur, Shravasti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Faizabad Division</td>
<td>Faizabad, Ambedkar Nagar, Barabanki, Sultanpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Gorakhpur Division</td>
<td>Gorakhpur, Deoria, Kushi Nagar (Padrauna), Mahraj Ganj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Jhansi Division</td>
<td>Jhansi, Jalaun (Orai), Lalitpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Kanpur Division</td>
<td>Kanpur City, Kanpur Dehat, Auraiya, Etawah, Farrukhabad, Kannauj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Meerut Division</td>
<td>Meerut, Baghpat, Buland Shahr, Gautam Budh Nagar (Noida), Ghaziabad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Mirzapur Division</td>
<td>Mirzapur, Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi), Sonbhadra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Moradabad Division</td>
<td>Moradabad, Bijnor, Jyotiba Phule Nagar (Amroha), Rampur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Saharanpur Division</td>
<td>Saharanpur, Muzaffar Nagar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Varanasi Division</td>
<td>Varanasi, Chandauli, Ghazipur, Jaunpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Lucknow Division</td>
<td>Lucknow, Hardoi, Lakhimpur Kheri, Rai Bareli, Sitapur, Unnao</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Economic Region wise Districts

**Western Region:** Bijnor, Moradabad, Rampur, Saharanpur, Muzaffar Nagar, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Mathura, Agra, Firozabad, Etah, Mainpuri, Badaun, Bareilly, Pilibhit, Shahjahanpur, Farrukhabad, Etawah, J.P. Nagar, Baghpat, Gautam Budh Nagar, Mahamaya Nagar (Hathras), Kannauj, Auraiya

**Central Region:** Kheri, Sitapur, Hardoi, Unnao, Lucknow, Rai Bareli, Kanpur Nagar, Kanpur Dehat, Fatehpur, Barabanki

**Bundelkhand Region:** Jalaun, Jhansi, Lalitpur, Hamirpur, Mahoba, Banda, Chitrakoot

**Eastern Region:** Pratapgarh, Allahabad, Bahraich, Gonda, Faizabad, Ambedkar Nagar, Sultanpur, Sidhartha Nagar, Maharajganj, Basti, Gorakhpur, Kushinagar, Deoria, Mau, Azamgarh, Jaunpur, Ballia, Sant Ravidas Nagar, Varanasi, Ghazipur, Mirzapur, Sonbhadra, Kaushambi. Shravasti, Balrampur, Sant Kabir Nagar, Chandauli
### Annexure-II

#### Uttar Pradesh at a Glance

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Area</td>
<td>240,928 Sq. Km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8.75 Crore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7.86 Crore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>13.15 Crore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>3.46 Crore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>689 per sq. km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Literacy (2001)</td>
<td>57.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>70.23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>53.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>70.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sex Ratio</td>
<td>898 females per 1000 males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Divisions (No.) 2002</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Districts (No.) 2002</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Tehsils (No.) 2002</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Blocks (No.) 2002</td>
<td>813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Nyay Panchayat (No.)</td>
<td>8135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Gram Panchayat (No.)</td>
<td>52028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Habited Villages (No.) 1991</td>
<td>97134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Total Villages (No.) 1991</td>
<td>107327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Nagar Nigam (No.)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Cities (No.) 2001</td>
<td>682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Main Crops</td>
<td>Paddy, Wheat, Barley, Jwar, Bajra, Maize, Urad, Moong, Arhar, Gram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Main Fruits</td>
<td>Mango, Guava</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Main Minerals</td>
<td>Limestone, Dolomite, Magnesite, Soapstone, Glass sand, Marble, Phosphorite, Bauxite, Non-plastic, Fire-clay, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Main Industries
- Cement, Vegetable oils, Textiles, Cotton Yarn, Sugar, Jute, Glassware and Bangles.

### Main Handicrafts
- Chikan work, zari work, wooden toys and furniture, terracotta toys and brass work

### Main Tourists and Historical Places
- Piprahwa, Kaushambi, Shravasti, Sarnath, Kushinagar, Chitrakoot, Lucknow, Agra, Jhansi, etc.

### Main Religious Places
- Kashi, Prayag, Ayodhya, Mathura, Naini-maharanya, Shaktipeeth, Vindhyavasini, Devi Temple, Devi Patan, Reetha Meetha Saheb, Devasharif, Kaliyar-Sharif, Nanakmahta, etc.

### Main Folklores
- Birha, Chaiti, Dhola, Kajari, Rasia, Alha, Puran Bhagat, Bharti-bharti.

### Main Folk Dances
- Charkula, Karma, Pandav, Payee-danda, Tharu, Dhobiya, Rayee, Shaaira, etc.

### Universities (No.) 2001-02
- 24

### Agriculture Universities (No.)
- 3

### Polytechnics (No.)
- 81

### ITIs (No.)
- 179

### Junior Basic Schools (000) 2002-03
- 98

### Senior Basic Schools (000) 2002-03
- 24

### Higher Secondary Schools (000) 2002-03
- 11

### Degree Colleges (2002-03)
- 940

### Medical Colleges (No.)
- 9
  2001-02

### Engineering Colleges (No.)
- 8
  2001-02
34. Private Engineering Colleges (No.) 2001-02 : 22
35. Allopathic Hospital & Dispensaries (No.) 01-01-2003 : 4236
36. Ayurvedic & Unani Hospitals & Dispensaries (No.) : 2210
37. Homoeopathic Hospitals & Dispensaries (No.) 2002-03 : 1342
38. Television Centres (No.) 2000-01 : 3
39. Air Stations (No.) 2000-01 : 13
40. Registered Factories (No.) 1999-2000 : 14004
41. Banks (No.) 2002-03 : 8184
42. Total Metalled Roads : 104137 Km. 2001-02
    National Highways : 3912 Km. 2001-02
    State Highways : 9098 Km. 2001-02
    District & other roads : 91127 2001-02
43. Vehicles on Road 2002-03 :
   a) Govt 2002-03 : 5817
      Buses (No.) 2002-03 : 5571
      Trucks (No.) 2002-03 : 166
      Taxies (No.) 2002-03 : 80
   b) Private 2002-03 : 5928395
      Buses (No.) 2002-03 : 25357
      Trucks (No.) 2002-03 : 125010
      Taxies (No.) 2002-03 : 104214
      Cars (No.) 2002-03 : 326604
      Motorcycles (No.) 2002-03 : 4488426
      Tractors (No.) 2002-03 : 709797
      Others (No.) 2002-03 : 148987
44. Telephone Connections (No.) 2002-03 : 2972275
45. Post Offices (No.) 2002-03 : 17690
46. Total Enterprises (’000) -1998 : 2828
47. Constituencies of Lok Sabha : 80
48. Members of Rajya Sabha : 31
49. Members of Vidhan Sabha : 404
50. Members of Vidhan Parishad : 100
51. State Govt Employees (’000) 2002 : 836
## NATURAL RESOURCES

This chapter deals with the natural resources available in the State viz., land, water, minerals, flora and fauna, while manpower as a resource is discussed in the next chapter.

### Area

The geographical area of Uttar Pradesh, prior to its reorganization, was 2,94,411 sq. km., which has now been reduced to 2,40,928 sq. km., since an area of 53,483 sq. km. has been transferred to the new state of Uttarakhand. As a result, the area of the State has come down from the earlier 8.9% of the total area of the country to 7.3%. However, the State still continues to be the fifth largest state in the country, the other four states with larger shares being Madhya Pradesh (13.5%), Rajasthan (10.4%), Maharashtra (9.4%) and Andhra Pradesh (8.4%). While the shares of these states in country’s population are lower or equal to their shares in its area, situation is just reverse in case of Uttar Pradesh. It has more than double share in country’s population (16.2%) as against its share (7.3%) in the area. This imbalance has further widened after the formation of Uttarakhand state in view of the fact that the share of Uttar Pradesh in country’s population has only marginally declined by 0.2 percentage points (from 16.4% to 16.2%) whereas its share in the area went down by eight times i.e. 1.6 percentage points (from 8.9% to 7.3%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>U.P.</th>
<th>14 Major States</th>
<th>Rank of U.P. in 14 Major States</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per capita income (2002-03)</td>
<td>Rs. 10,389</td>
<td>Rs. 10,389</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per capita consumption of electricity (2002-03)</td>
<td>18912</td>
<td>18912</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road length per lakh population (1999-99)</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings below one ha.</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per capita net area sown (2000-01)</td>
<td>% 75.4</td>
<td>% 75.4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of area under commercial crops (2001-02)</td>
<td>% 18.4</td>
<td>% 18.4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of workers in manufacturing (2001)</td>
<td>% 4.2</td>
<td>% 4.2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth rate (2001)</td>
<td>Per 1000 31.6</td>
<td>Per 1000 31.6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death rate (2002)</td>
<td>Per 1000 9.7</td>
<td>Per 1000 9.7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate (2002)</td>
<td>Per 1000 live birth 2.30</td>
<td>Per 1000 live birth 2.30</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit deposit ratio (2001-02)</td>
<td>% 20.4</td>
<td>% 20.4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of schools (2001-02)</td>
<td>30,42</td>
<td>30,42</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of hospitals and dispensaries</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J.B.S.</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.B.S.</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H.S.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of beds</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Land
Among all natural resources, land forms one of the most significant and basic resources, since it is limited and unexpandable. Moreover, there are competing claims on this fixed resource. In view of heavy pressure of population on land, which is mounting day by day, its optimal use becomes sine qua non. This is much more so in the case of Uttar Pradesh being most populous among all states with far less area. It is because of this very fact, agriculture continues to remain the most dominant sector and prime mover of the State’s economy. In such a situation, if a large area is left unused, it obviously becomes a matter of serious concern. An area of about 27.5 lakh ha. comprising, culturable waste of about 5 lakh ha. usur land of about 6 lakh ha. each and fallow land of about 16.5 lakh ha. awaits a productive use. The net area sown in the State is 168.12 lakh ha. which is about 70 per cent of reporting area and out of the net area sown only 51 per cent is sown more than once. It, therefore, reveals that there is clear possibility of putting more area under double cropping. Table 2.1 provides an insight regarding land being used for different purposes in Uttar Pradesh.

The land resource of Uttar Pradesh is plagued with various forms of degradation viz., soil erosion, alkalinity, salinity, ravines, water logging, etc. The status of land degradation in U.P. is in Table 2.2.

Table 2.1
Utilization of Land in the State During 2001-02

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl</th>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>2001-02 ('000 ha.)</th>
<th>% to Reporting Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reporting area</td>
<td>24202</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Forest</td>
<td>1689</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Barren and unculturable land</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Land put to non-agricultural uses</td>
<td>2514</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Culturable waste land</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Permanent pasture &amp; other grazing land</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Land under misc. trees, crops and groves</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Current fallow</td>
<td>1026</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Other fallow</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Net area sown</td>
<td>16812</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Area sown more than once</td>
<td>8635</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Relates to the year 2000-01.


Table 2.2
Area Under Various Forms of Land Degradation in Uttar Pradesh

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Land Degradation</th>
<th>Area (lakh ha.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Soil Erosion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Arable Land</td>
<td>36.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Non-Arable land</td>
<td>28.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Special Degradation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Ravines</td>
<td>37.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Sodic Lands</td>
<td>9.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Diara Riverine Land</td>
<td>7.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Water Logging</td>
<td>13.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Total (1+2)</td>
<td>74.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Water
Uttar Pradesh is endowed with bountiful water resources viz. ground water resources and surface water resources. However, a large part of water resources, both of surface
water and ground water have still not been tapped. It has been estimated that till 1999-2000, as high as about 42% of the State’s ultimate potential of 125 lakh ha. of surface water is still left for creation. Likewise, the level of development of ground water in the State is about 56%, leaving a large balance (44%) of the same to be made use of. In view of increasing demand of water for different purposes i.e., irrigation, drinking, industrial and other uses, it has become paramountly significant and vulnerable resource. This fact has led the State to formulate ‘State Water Policy’ on the pattern of National Water Policy not only to properly preserve and manage the available water resources but also to ensure their optimal utilization.

Surface Water
The source of surface water is rainfall. It has been estimated that about 35% of the total water available through rainfall is lost due to evaporation and about 25% seeps into soil. The remaining 40% flows into other river systems of which only about 33% can be used for irrigation purposes because of limitations imposed by topography, climate, soil, etc.

The water availability and annual flow of five major rivers viz. the Ganga, the Gandak, the Ghagra, the Sone and the Gomti in the State has been estimated by the Water Resources Organization, Govt of India, as presented in Table 2.3.

It would thus be seen that availability of water for future exploitation is estimated to be 12.21 m.ha.m. (99.06 maf). The quantum of water already being used is about 32 maf. Thus, the availability of surface water totals upto 131.06 maf in the State (including Uttarakhand).

Ground Water
The permeability and storage characteristics are quite favourable for ground water availability in U.P. as aquifers, composed of fine coarse sand and gravel, are thick and clay percentage is small. Main recharging factors are rainfall, seepage from canals and infiltration from irrigated fields.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Net G.W. availability for all uses (lakh ha.m.)</th>
<th>Net G.W. for Future irrigation (lakh ha.m.)</th>
<th>Present (2002-03) Stage of Development (lakh ha.m.)</th>
<th>(percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17.89</td>
<td>12.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The availability of ground water in the State significantly varies from one region to another. The Western region is placed at the top, while Bundelkhand region at the bottom. The net ground availability of water in U.P., as per State Ground Water Department of U.P., a state level nodal organization entrusted with the responsibilities of surveys, assessment, development, management and augmentation of ground water resources, is about 80.24 lakh ha.m. About 27.22 lakh ha.m. as on April 2000, ground water balance is available for further development. Region-wise break-up is given in table-2.4 (p. 19).

Flora
Natural vegetation in the form of forests and shrubs is considered a most significant resource in view of the fact that they not only function as watershed protection, prevention of soil erosion and ground water recharge but also provide hygienic environment and employment opportunities.

Total area under forest in Uttar Pradesh prior to formation of Uttarakhand State was 33994 sq.km. i.e. 11.54 per cent of its geographical area. Now, the State of Uttar Pradesh has forest cover only on 10756 sq. km. (4.46%), as a forest area of 23243 sq. km. has gone over to Uttarakhand.

The natural vegetation now available in the State are largely deciduous characterised by the shedding of leaves in early summer as also evergreen trees. These can be classified into three categories viz., Tropical Moist Deciduous Forests, Tropical Dry Deciduous Forests and Tropical Thorny Forests. These are briefly discussed below in sequence.

Tropical Moist Deciduous Forests
These forests grow in regions which record an average annual rainfall between 100 cm and 150 cm, have an average temperature between 26°C and 27°C and have considerable degree of humidity. Such forests, obviously, are confined to the sub-moisture and Tarai region and to a limited extent, to the eastern Vindhyan region. These are of two types, almost pure forests of *Sal* which grow on higher altitude regions and the moist mixed miscellaneous deciduous species like bamboo, climbers, cane and various evergreen shrubs *Mahuja* (Bassia latifolia), *Gular* (Fiens glomerata), *Jamun, Amla, Ber, Palas, Semel, Dhak, Jhingal*, etc. are the most important trees.

Tropical Dry Deciduous Forests
Though sal also occurs in this type, the bulk is under various dry deciduous species. The important ones are *Amaltas, Bel, Anjeer* (fig) etc., *Neem, Peepal, Sheesham, Mango, Jamun, Imli* (Tamarind), *Babool*, etc. grow along river banks and other moist regions. Such forests are generally found in western, eastern, central and other parts of the plains. Teak also occurs to a limited extent in the Vindhyan regions.

Tropical Thorny Forests
These are confined to the south western drier part of the State, which have an average annual rainfall of 50 cms to 70 cms, average annual temperature between 25°C and 27°C and humidity of less than 47 per cent. The usual trees of such species in the region are *Babool* thorny legumes and euphorbias. Besides, *Philai, Khair, Kokke, Dhamem, Neem*, etc., are other important trees found here. These forests have medicinal herbs, resin and gum-bearing trees also.

As already stated above, after reorganization of the state of Uttar Pradesh, the forest area in the state has become dangerously low (4.46%) in view of the National Forest Policy of India, which envisages a minimum of 33% of the total land area to be under forests. In order to improve upon and counter this dismal picture of forest cover in the State, the forest department has initiated a number of schemes for creating awareness about multiple roles and benefits of forests improving the level of
technology, strengthening planning capability, increasing people participation, involving private and government organization and ensuring sectoral linkages.

**Fauna**

The State is endowed with fauna of various species viz. Mammals (cow, buffalo, mouse, mongoose, goat, sheep, etc.), Fish (rohu, tengan, parsham, singhi, saul, etc.), Amphibia (frog and toad), Reptiles (lizard, cobra, tortoise, crocodiles, etc.) and Aves (cheel, vulture, peacock, pigeon, parrot, fowl, cock, etc.). Here, however, it would be appropriate to confine this section to fauna, comprising livestock and fisheries resources which is considered an essential ingredient for the development of the State’s economy, which is primarily an agrarian. Significance of this resource lies in view of the fact that majority of the State’s population resides in rural areas where most of the people, particularly small and marginal farmers and other weaker sections of the society depend fully or partially on it.

**Livestock**

According to the Livestock census of the concerned years, the total livestock population in the State was 44.27 million in 1951 which indicated an increasing trend over the years. In 1993, the total livestock population was found to be 117.75 million showing an increase of more than two and a half times. However, it was estimated at 112.77 million in 1998 recording a decline of 4.2% in five years. The census data of State's livestock population for 1993 and 1998 provide a comparative account in Table 2.5.

The contents of the table are indicative of the declining trend which appears to have set in all the groups of livestock population except that of birds which have recorded positive growth. It may be added that the State is quite rich in poultry birds. The total number of poultry birds, which was about 20 lakh in 1951 has increased to about 96 lakh in 1993 and further to more than 117 lakh in 1998.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Animal species</th>
<th>Livestock population (in million)</th>
<th>Annual growth rate between 1993 &amp; 1998 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breedable</td>
<td>23.53</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indigenous</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>5.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breedable Crossbreed</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffalo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breedable</td>
<td>19.02</td>
<td>18.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>9.46</td>
<td>9.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sheep, Goat &amp; others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheep</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goat</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>11.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>51.20</td>
<td>47.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poultry</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>12.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other birds</td>
<td>9.59</td>
<td>11.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (1+2+3+4)</td>
<td>117.75</td>
<td>112.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As a result of the concerted efforts by the Animal Husbandry Department, the production of different livestock products viz. milk, wool and eggs, in the State has been quite encouraging. It has consistently been showing an upward trend over the years as shown in Table-2.6 (p. 24).

The production of meat also increased from 951.80 lakh kg. in 1996-97 to 1736.87 lakh kg in 2000-01. The anticipated level at the end of the Ninth Plan i.e. 2001-02 is 1767.21 lakh kg.
Table 2.6
Production levels of milk, wool and eggs in different years in U.P.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>At the end of the</th>
<th>Production of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Milk (lakh m.t.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth Plan</td>
<td>72.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh Plan</td>
<td>91.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighth Plan</td>
<td>123.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ninth Plan*</td>
<td>145.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Anticipated
Source: Animal Husbandry Department, U.P.

Uttar Pradesh is the largest milk producing state in the country, which accounts for 16% of the total milk production. As regards wool and eggs production, its respective ranks are fifth and seventh in the country. Although, production levels of these products are well-high impressive but their low productivity has been the major concern. In order to meet the growing demand of these products, an all out efforts is being made by the State to enhance the productivity levels and bring them at par with those of Punjab and Haryana. Various schemes and programmes have been launched to scientifically and optimally exploit the potential available in animal husbandry sector by strengthening the activities like upgrading the breed of animals, development of fodder resources and maintenance of animals in good health by extending curative and medical facilities.

Fisheries
A large and extensive potential of fisheries production exists in the State in the form of running water and stagnant water resources. The former covers large perennial rivers, tributaries, streams and irrigation canals while the latter comprises reservoirs, natural lakes, ponds, tanks and bundhies. However, for fish production work, stagnant water is most suitable and useful. In flowing water, only fish catching is easy, and not its production. About 28,500 km length of rivers/canals in the form of flowing water resources is available in the state. In addition, a total area of 4.32 lakh ha. is available in the form of stagnant water. Its details are provided in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7
Availability of Stagnant Water Resources in U.P.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stagnant water resource</th>
<th>Available water area (lakh ha.)</th>
<th>Water area brought under pisciculture (lakh ha.)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reservoirs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>90.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural lakes</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village ponds, tanks &amp; bundhies</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>61.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.32</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.29</strong></td>
<td><strong>53.01</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The resources of water mentioned above particularly, the resources of natural lakes and village ponds, tanks and bundhies still offer vast potential for the development of fisheries.

The inland fish production in Uttar Pradesh in 1999-2000 was 1.93 lakh mt, which stood at fourth place in the country, while the first, second and third positions went to West Bengal (8.66 lakh mt), Andhra Pradesh (3.80 lakh mt) and Bihar (2.55 lakh mt) respectively. The fish production in U.P. has further increased to 2.25 lakh mt in 2001-02. The fish seed production has also improved from 8000 lakh in 1999-2000 to 9795 in 2001-02.
Minerals
Uttar Pradesh is one of the poorest state in minerals in India. It has hardly one per cent of the total mineral deposits in the country. After the reorganization of the State, mineral rich districts viz, Uttar-Kashi, Chamoli Pithoragarh, Pauri-Garhwal, Tehri Garhwal, Almora, Nainital and Dehradun have been transferred to the new state of Uttarakhand. Now, whatever minerals are available in U.P. are mainly concentrated in its eight districts viz, Agra, Lalitpur, Jhansi, Hamirpur, Banda, Varanasi, Mirzapur and Sonbhadra. Details regarding some of them are as follows:

Bauxite
Deposits of bauxite suitable for metal aluminium manufacture are available in Banda and Varanasi districts to the tune of about 6 to 8 million tonnes.

Dolomite
Banda, Mirzapur and Sonbhadra districts have deposits of dolomite in considerable quantity, which are considered suitable for steel industry.

Limestone
Large quantities of limestone are available in Vindhyan region, particularly in Mirzapur and Sonbhadra districts, which have reserve of a high grade limestone.

Coal
Coal deposits of about 1000 mt are available in Singrauli, Makrikhoh and Bansi areas of Mirzapur district as also in the eastern areas of the Rihand dam.

Marble
Mirzapur, Sonbhadra and Jhansi districts have got large quantity of good marble.

Morrum sand
Kanpur, Jhansi, Jalun, Hamirpur and Banda districts have substantial quantity of Morrum sand, which is used in almost all types of construction.

In addition, Kankar, reh, saltpetre and sand are also available in sufficient quantity in Western, Central and Eastern regions of the state. A non-plastic fine clay of about 3 million mt has also been found in Mirzapur district. Reserves of copper and uranium are also reported to be available in Lalitpur district.
Demographic Features

Population
Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state in the country. According to the census data of 2001, its population works out to 16.61 crore, which is 16.2% of the country's total population. The decennial population data for U.P. and the country presented in the table—3.1 provides useful insight regarding its trend and growth since 1901.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census Year</th>
<th>Uttar Pradesh</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population (crore)</td>
<td>Annual growth rate (percentage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>(-) 0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>(-) 0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>8.83</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>11.09</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>13.20*</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>16.61*</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistical Diary, 2003, and Annual Plan 2004-05 Vol.1 (Part I), Uttar Pradesh

*Excluding Uttarakhand

It is evident from the table that population of the State had declining trend between 1901 and 1921 in which it came down from 4.86 crore to 4.67 crore. But thereafter, it shows a relentless march, particularly since 1971. It galloped nearly four times from 4.67 crore in 1921 to 16.61 crore in 2001. Not only a rising trend is discernible in absolute terms but also in annual growth rates, which continuously went on touching new heights from one decade after another. In the decade ending 1931, it was at a mild level of 0.61% only, which speeded upto 1.29%, 1.12%, 1.55%, 1.81%, 2.20% and 2.27% in the decade ending 1941, 1951, 1961, 1971, 1981 and 1991 respectively and further to an all time high level of 2.33% in 1991-2001 decade. It is also quite revealing that annual growth rate of population in the State during 1931-81 was lower than that of all-India but during 1981-2001, it was higher.

Density
Uttar Pradesh occupying first place in population ranks fourth in terms of density of population. The density of population in the State revealed almost same trend and pattern as observed in case of population as discussed above. According to the census of 2001, the density of population per square kilometer of area of the State stood at 689, while West Bengal (904), Bihar (880) and Kerala (819) claimed first, second and third place respectively. The density of population in the country was found to be 324 only. The data with regard to density of population for the State and the country indicate a consistently rising trend between 1931 and 2001 as is evident from Table-3.2 (p. 30).

Regional Distribution
The area and population spread-up together with its density in the four economic regions of the State viz. Western, Eastern, Central and Bundelkhand is provided in Table—3.3 (p. 30).
Table 3.2
Density of Population in Uttar Pradesh and India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Density of population per square kilometer of area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>548*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>689*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excluding Uttarakhand

Source: Statistical Diary, 2003, Uttar Pradesh.

Table 3.3
Area, Population and Density in Different Economic Regions of Uttar Pradesh in 2001*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Area (sq.km)</th>
<th>Population (lakh)</th>
<th>Percentage share in State’s Population</th>
<th>Density of Population (per sq. km)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(sq.km)</td>
<td>(lakh)</td>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>79831</td>
<td>611.14</td>
<td>33.14</td>
<td>36.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>45834</td>
<td>302.01</td>
<td>19.02</td>
<td>18.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>85845</td>
<td>666.28</td>
<td>35.63</td>
<td>40.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bundelkhand</td>
<td>29418</td>
<td>82.32</td>
<td>12.21</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>240928</td>
<td>1661.75</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistical Diary, 2003, Uttar Pradesh.

*Tentative

It would be gathered from the table that population densities are lower in comparatively harsher regions than fertile environments. Contents of the table amply demonstrate that eastern region is the largest region both in terms of area as well as population with respective shares of 35.63% and 40.11%. The density of population is also highest being 776 per square kilometer of area. Bundelkhand is the smallest, semi-arid and sparsely populated region. This region with a share of 12.21% in the total area and 4.95% in the total population of the State, accounts for lowest density of 280 per sq. km of area. The western and central regions are found to be at the second and third place in order, with regard to all these variables with respective magnitudes being 33.14% and 19.02%, 36.77% and 18.17% and 766 per sq. km. and 689 per sq. km.

Sex Ratio
The sex ratio is determined by number of females per thousand of males. The data with regard to sex ratio in Uttar Pradesh and India thrown up by different censuses are brought out in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
The Number of Females Per Thousand Males in Uttar Pradesh and India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census year</th>
<th>Uttar Pradesh</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>904</td>
<td>950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>907</td>
<td>945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>909</td>
<td>941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>879</td>
<td>930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>876</td>
<td>927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>898</td>
<td>933</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Different Plan Documents and Statistical Diaries of Uttar Pradesh.
The contents of the table reveal that sex ratio in the State witnessed an increasing trend in three census counts viz 1931, 1941 and 1951. However, in the following period, it shows a zig-zag behaviour while at the all-India level, it generally depicts a declining trend. The number of females per thousand of male (910) observed in 1951 still stands highest.

Rural-Urban Composition
The definition adopted for classifying rural and urban areas was different prior to 1961 census. Hence, from the comparability point of view, the data relating to rural urban components of population are presented since 1961 onwards in table-3.5.

Table 3.5
Rural-Urban Composition of Population in Uttar Pradesh

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census Year</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lakh</td>
<td>Lakh</td>
<td>Lakh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1661</td>
<td>642.33</td>
<td>95.13</td>
<td>737.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(87.10)</td>
<td>(12.90)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>759.52</td>
<td>123.90</td>
<td>883.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(85.97)</td>
<td>(14.03)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>909.63</td>
<td>198.99</td>
<td>1108.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(82.05)</td>
<td>(17.95)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>1060.90</td>
<td>259.72</td>
<td>1320.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(80.33)</td>
<td>(19.67)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001*</td>
<td>1315.70</td>
<td>346.04</td>
<td>1661.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(79.18)</td>
<td>(20.82)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Tentative
N.B. Bracketed figures denote percentages to their respective totals.
Source: Plan Documents, Uttar Pradesh.

The composition of population in Uttar Pradesh is heavily tilted towards rural areas, which still accounts for as high as a little above 79 per cent. The rate of urbanisation, which is considered an important measure of development, in the State has been quite slow. It increased only about 8 per cent during a period of four decades between 1961 and 2001. The percentage of urban population in the State in 1991 was only 19.67 while the states like Maharashtra had nearly more than double (38.70%), followed by Gujarat (34.50%) and Tamil Nadu (34.20%), the all-India average being 25.70%.

Scheduled Castes & Scheduled Tribes
Scheduled castes and scheduled tribes form an important segment of the States’s total population, being a little over 21 per cent. Prior to formation of the new state of Uttarakhand, the SC and ST population in Uttar Pradesh, as per 1991 census, was 292.76 lakh (21.04%) and 2.88 lakh (0.21%) which at present is estimated to have come down to 280.44 lakh (21.24%) and 0.76 (0.06%) lakh respectively. The details are provided in table-3.6.

Table 3.6
SC and ST Population in the State in 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Scheduled Castes</th>
<th>Scheduled Tribes</th>
<th>Total SC &amp; ST</th>
<th>State’s Total Population (lakh)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population (lakh)</td>
<td>Share (%)</td>
<td>Population (lakh)</td>
<td>Share (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>185.49</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>234.53</td>
<td>21.16</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>292.76</td>
<td>21.04</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.B. Bracketed figures denote estimates excluding Uttarakhand.
Source: Plan Documents, Uttar Pradesh.
The population of SCs in the State comprises as many as 66 castes, whereas STs constitute mainly Tharu, Buxa, Bhotia, Jaunsari and Raji. But after the reorganization of the State, only Tharu and Buxa tribes are left in the State, whose population is estimated to be 52435 and 1860 respectively, the other scattered tribes being 21769 totalling upto 76064 as present tribal population in the State. These tribes are mainly concentrated in Kheri, Balrampur, Sarawasti, Bahraich, Mahrajganj and Bijnor districts.

Proportion of Workers
The proportion of men workers in the total population of the State, as per tentative results of census 2001 has substantially decreased to 23.74% from 29.44% in 1991. Similar observations are noticed in rural-urban and male female break-ups. The details are provided in table-3.7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>1991</th>
<th>2001*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>30.20</td>
<td>23.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50.26</td>
<td>39.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>6.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>26.36</td>
<td>23.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45.98</td>
<td>40.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>29.44</td>
<td>23.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49.42</td>
<td>39.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>6.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Tentative
Source: (1) Statistical Diary, 2003, Uttar Pradesh.
(2) Uttar Pradesh, Annual Plan 1994-95.

A comparative analysis of the proportion of workers in 2001 and 1991 clearly offer some encouraging change. Percentage of female workers in the State has slightly come down in 2001 (6.10) from that (6.64) of 1991 while substantial reduction is observed in case of male workers, respective percentage being 39.58 and 49.42. In urban areas, the proportion of female workers has marginally increased by 0.36 percentage points.

As regards economic classification of workers, the comparative data for various category of workers of 2001 census are yet to come. Hence, requisite data of 1991 census are provided in table-3.8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.No.</th>
<th>Occupational Category of Workers</th>
<th>Percentage to Total's Main Workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Agricultural labours</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Those engaged in livestock, fishing, forestry, hunting, horticulture and its allied activities</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Renovation, servicing and reconstruction</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Trade and commerce</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Transport and communication</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total main workers</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistical Diary, 2001, Uttar Pradesh.

It is quite evident from the table that majority of the male workers (73.5%) are engaged in the primary activities
comprising agriculture and allied activities and mining. The secondary sector consisting of manufacturing, construction, etc., account for 9.0 per cent while the tertiary sector having various kinds of services claims the remaining 17.5 per cent of the main workers. The tentative results of 2001 census, which is available only for broad categories of total workers, show that concentration of workers (about 66%) in the agricultural activities still continues, followed by the services sector, which appears to have higher share as compared to 1991.

**Literacy**

Literacy rate in the State, as per tentative results of 2001 census, at present is 57.36 per cent, the male and female literacy rates being 70.23 per cent and 42.28 per cent respectively. This shows significant improvement of nearly 17 per cent over literacy rate of 40.71 per cent in 1991. In the major states of Indian union, Uttar Pradesh, barring Bihar (47.53) has the lowest rate of literacy, all-India average being 65.38 per cent.

**Table 3.9**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Literacy Rate (per cent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>12.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>20.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>23.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>32.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>40.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001*</td>
<td>57.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Tentative

*Source: Statistical Diaries of different years of Uttar Pradesh.*

The journey towards accomplishing the target of literacy for all appears still quite long, as would be evident from the movements of literacy rate during the 40 year period from 1951 to 2001 displayed in table 3.9 (p. 36).

Overall literacy rate in the State has moved up from about 12 per cent in 1951 to a little over 57 per cent in 2001 while that of male and female from about 19 to 70 and 4 to 43 per cent. Although, female literacy rate has accelerated faster than earlier, it has still not been able to cover even half of the journey as the percentage of illiterate females stands at 58 plus.
UTTAR PRADESH THROUGH THE AGES

Introduction
Prior to directly stepping into the centuries old events of Uttar Pradesh, the author being a student of history, considers it quite relevant for the cause of better insight and understanding to devote a few words regarding this discipline itself. It hardly needs any fresh emphasis on a universally observed fact that necessity and love of history is ingrained in our nature. We are highly interested in the old stories of chivalry and valour, charity and generosity, fidelity and devotion. However, since history brings before us the glories of the past providing valuable guidance for our future life, a creative imagination is highly called for altogether as Edmund Burke has rightly indicated that “In history, a great volume is unrolled for our instructions”. Hence, history must not be read as a collection of dry and old facts and dates but as a living representation of the past which has great significance for the present. If we do so, dry bones will fill up with flesh and blood and we will see a mighty procession of living men, women and children in every age and every clime different from us and yet very like us with much the same human virtues and failings. History, in short, is not a magic show but there is a plenty of magic in it for those who have eyes to see.

This chapter, with the aforesaid backdrop regarding history, briefly presents the fascinating past of Uttar Pradesh, which for many centuries had been the focal point of culture and crafts, and religion and riches on the one hand and power and politics and bravery and brilliance on the other in the Northern India. This region in its splendours and tragedies alike truly represented the sacrifices and successes of the latter.

The historians have classified the Indian history broadly into five periods/ages. Differences, however, lie in the periodicity of various classifications. The most prevalent classification is (a) Vedic Period (200 B.C. - 1000 B.C.) (b) Pauranic or Mahabharat Period (1000 B.C. - 600 B.C.) (c) Ancient Period or Hindu Period (600 B.C. - 600 A.C.) (d) Medieval Period (1200 & 1707) and (e) Modern Period (since 1707 onwards). Obviously enough, prior to 1921, the civilization of Vedic Period was considered to be the oldest only because of the fact that history prior to Vedic Period was unknown. However, after the large scale excavations by the Department of Archaeology in that year and thereafter in Harappa and Mohan Jodaro, which are now situated in respective provinces of Punjab and Sindh of Pakistan, the civilization of Indus (Sindhu) Valley came into limelight. It was only then established that latter was much older than the former and period of Indus Valley Civilization is generally considered as old as 3000 B.C. This civilization continued till 1500 B.C. This has been categorized as Pre-Historic Age (3000 B.C. - 1500 B.C.). But how this civilization vanished thereafter is today a matter of conjecture only, although consistent attempts by the historians in this regard are still on.

As regards Uttar Pradesh, its history is traced back to Vedic Period (2000 B.C.-1000 B.C.) However, the excavations and explorations carried out in Almagirpur in Meerut and Hastinapur added altogether a new dimension to the whole history. The extension of the oldest Harappa civilization of India was found up to western Uttar Pradesh. Likewise, discovery of arms and implements of ancient and neolithic age in excavation in Mirzapur, Sonbhadra, Basti, Sohagura in Gorakhpur, Sarai Nahar area in Pratapgarh, Bundelkhand, etc., take us back to remote antiquity, and provide systematic evidence of human
development in eastern Uttar Pradesh. Excavations in Kausambi of Ganga Yamuna Doab have yet significantly contributed to the study of ancient architecture in Uttar Pradesh by bringing town planning of historic age into limelight besides opening several aspects of the development of arts in this region. It is now well established that this has been one of the most prominent regions of India since ancient days, although its area and name have been changing from time to time. This State has found its present form and name after covering a long journey of several centuries. In Vedic Period, it was known as Madhya Desh.¹ In this regard, an extract from Padma Puran appears quite relevant, which is as follows:

गंगा यमुना मध्ये मध्यदेशाती विसृजते।

(The province lying between Ganga and Yamuna was called Madhya Desh)

Later on, its name did change time and again with the change of rulers but its dignified spirit of love for peace and honour always remained unaltered.³ Some authors have broadly found boundaries of the State of Uttar Pradesh parallel to that of ancient Kanyakubja (Kannauj) state particularly during the regime (606-648) of Harsa Vardhan.⁴ The statehood of Kannauj has also been indicated by Dr. R.S. Tripathi in these words:

"... With the lapse of time when Harsa had thoroughly made his position secure and laid opposition, if any, to rest, he formally transferred his capital from Thaneswar to Kannauj and declared himself sovereign ruler of the latter kingdom also by assuming the imperial titles, which appear in his inscription".⁵

Some other names of Uttar Pradesh recorded in available literature are as Banaras region (1775), conquered and ceded districts (1801-03), North-Western Province (1834), United Provinces of Agra and Avadh (1877), United Provinces (1902) and Uttar Pradesh (1950)⁶.

The position of Uttar Pradesh in the map of India is almost the same as that of heart in human body. The palpitation of Uttar Pradesh impinges impact on whole of the country. The major portion of the Central India dedicated and devoted to Hindu, Budha and Jain traditions lies in this very State. The status and significant events of the State during different periods are analysed in succeeding paragraphs, which may enrich and deepen our comprehension of its past.

The Aryan Age
A coherent historical account of Aryan civilization is thrown up by Vedas. That’s why it is also called Vedic civilization. According to Rigved, Aryans, initially inhabited

¹ Uttar Pradesh, 1994-95, P-23, Information and Public Relations Department, U.P. Lucknow.
² कान्नौज का इतिहास का रंजन - Quoted in Kannauj Ka Itihas Tatha Maharaj Jaichand Ki Satya Katha, 1992 by Anand Swarup Mishra P-33.
³ "Uttar Pradesh symbolises natural beauty, peace and valour. The sons of the soil are true to their word and ever-ready to make supreme sacrifices for their honour. They have never allowed their honour to be undermined even if they were torn into pieces in the process. The silent stones of the place unfold the saga of sacrifice and courage even today. The culture of its inhabitants is woven in single fabric. Despite innumerable attempts of diabolical British rule to crush it and disintegrate it, its honour has always remained unsullied" quoted in Ref-1, P-22.
⁵ R.S. Tripathi, History of Kannauj, 1964, P. 77.
⁷ The Aryan civilization pertains to the times of Vedas, which are four viz Rigved, Samved, Atharvaved and Yajurved. Of these, Rigved is the oldest, which is not certain as to when it was written. But taking into account the timings opined by different scholars, it could be understood to have been formulated around 1500 B.C. The other Vedas were brought out much later.
in Sapta Sindhu or the region irrigated by seven rivers (undivided Punjab) viz., Sindhu (Indus), Vitasta (Jhelum), Asikn (Chenab), Purushni (Ravi), Vipasa (Beas), Shatudri (Sutlej) and Saraswati (now lost in the Rajasthan desert). Puru, Turvasu, Yadu, Anu and Druh were the names of five clans (Kul or Gharana) of Aryans, which were popular as Panchjan. Apart from this, the other prominent clan was known as Bharat.

Later on, as recorded in Shatpath Brahman, the significance and glory of Sapta Sindhu gradually receded with the extension of their territory towards the east by conquering Kosal (Avadh) and Videh (North Bihar), formation of new states (Janpadas) and establishment of new centres by the Aryans. As a result, Doab region i.e. the plains of Ganga and Yamuna became the centre of culture and prosperity and was under the rule of the Kingdoms of Kuru, Panchal, Kashi and Kosal for a long time.

As already mentioned, the two most holy rivers of the country i.e. Ganga and Yamuna formed doab—the most fertile plains in Madhya Desh (present Uttar Pradesh). The place of confluence (Sangam), of these two rivers along with the river Saraswati was known as Prayag, which was considered as the most sacred seat of worship. The spiritual air of this place was such that if one takes bath in the Sangam on an auspicious day, his evils and bad deeds would vanish. This belief of Vedic times is very much prevalent even today. The significance of the entire Madhya Desh in general and Prayag, Kashi and Mathura in particular in the Aryan age was at its zenith. Maryada Purshotam Ram and Lok Ranjak Krishna, who are considered as incarnation (Avatar) of God, took birth on the sacred land of this very region. The important events of their times are recorded in the respective great Sanskrit epics of Ramayana and Mahabharat, which were also composed in this province. The Ramayan is attributed to the sage Valmiki and is traditionally considered the earliest of poetic literature (Adi-kavya). The second great epic i.e. Mahabharat is attributed to the sage Vyasa. It is a very big work containing one lakh of verses. These and other Vedic literature provide enough testimony that inhabitants of this region were most cultured and fully conversant with ritual, and sacrifice without any flaw or fault. High cultural tradition of this region almost from vedic times to the present day goes to people committees, which were known as Sabha or Samiti in Vedic age. These Samitis had a dominant role to play not only in religious life but also in political, social and economic activities.8

Vedic literature contains the noble deeds of the rulers of the kingdoms of Kuru, Kosal, Kashi and Panchal particularly of the latter. Panchal state mainly consisted of Bareilly, Badayun, Etah, Farrukhabad and districts of Rohilkhand and central part of Doab. There is a mention in Mahabharat regarding two parts of Panchal viz, Northern Panchal and Southern Panchal which of dividing line was river Ganga. The Kingdom of these respective parts were Ahichhatra and Kampilya. The famous ancient Swayambar of Draupadi was cermonised in this very town of Kampilya.

The Post Aryan Age
For the subsequent history of a long period, historians get confronted with difficulties to make out a coherent and systematic links amongst various historical events on the basis of Puranas and other available Hindu scriptures. After this dark period, the history takes shape again in sixth century B.C. when India was divided in 16 mahajanapadas (states) which were in a state of serious competition for supremacy. These states along with their areas and capitals are shown in table-4.1 (p. 44).

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8. There was a special emphasis on unanimity of opinions among the members of Samiti in the Vedas e.g. Rigveda 1191, 2-4; Atharvaveda, VI 64, 2 (Whitney’s trans. P. 329), quoted in proceedings of the U.P. History Congress, ed. U.P. Arora, 1993 PP 12-23.
Table 4.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Capital</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kuru</td>
<td>Meerut, Delhi and Thanesewar</td>
<td>Indraprastha (Indropal near Delhi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panchal</td>
<td>Bareilly, Budaun and Farukhabad</td>
<td>Aichhatra (Rarnagar near Bareilly) and Kampilya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shusen</td>
<td>Area around Mathura</td>
<td>Mathura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatsa</td>
<td>Allahabad and nearby area</td>
<td>Kaushambi (Kosam near Allahabad)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosal</td>
<td>Avadh</td>
<td>Saket (Ayodhya) and Shravasti (Sahet-Maheb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malla</td>
<td>Deoria district</td>
<td>Kushinagar (Kasia) and Pawa (Fazilnagar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kashi</td>
<td>Varanasi</td>
<td>Varanasi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ang</td>
<td>Bhagalpur</td>
<td>Champa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magadh</td>
<td>South Bihar</td>
<td>Giribraja (Rajgraha-Rajgiri near Bihar Sarif)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vajji</td>
<td>Districts of Darbhanga, Muzaffarpur &amp; Vaishali</td>
<td>Mithila, Janakpur (on Nepal border) and Vaishali (Basa in Muzaffarpur district)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chedi</td>
<td>Bundelkhand region</td>
<td>Shaktimati (probably near Banda)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matsya</td>
<td>Jaipur</td>
<td>Virat (near Jaipur)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashmak</td>
<td>Godawary Valley</td>
<td>Pandanya (place not known)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avanti</td>
<td>Malva</td>
<td>Ujjaini (Ujjain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gandhar</td>
<td>North-west region</td>
<td>Taxila (near Rawalpindi) now in Pakistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanaboja</td>
<td></td>
<td>Rajapur (place not known)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Uttar Pradesh Annual, PP 23-24, Information and Public Relations Department, Uttar Pradesh.

The contents of the table-4.1 amply demonstrate the prominence of this ancient region (Uttar Pradesh) since fifty per cent of the 16 states viz, Kuru, Panchal, Shusen, Vatsa, Kosal, Malla, Kashi and Chedi were situated here. In addition, Shaksya state of Kapilvastu, Bhagga state of Samsumergiri and Malla state of Pawapuri and Kushinagar were also within its boundaries.

Keen competition among these states put them at an unending war which ultimately resulted in absorption of one state in the other. The state of Kashi was annexed by the Kosal state while Vatsa was grabbed by Avanti. The Kosal and Avanti states by absorbing neighbouring small states, became the most powerful Indian states. However, their supremacy did not last long. They were subjugated one by one, by Magadh, which acquired primacy amongst the sixteen states (Sodasa Janpada) Pradyota, the king of Avanti was a contemporary of Bimbisara and Ajatsatru of Magadh. In the fourth century B.C. Chandragupta Maurya (322 B.C.-298 B.C.) conquered and annexed Avanti to his dominions. Likewise, the Kosal state was absorbed in the kingdom of Magadh during the reign of the latter’s king Ajatsatru (494 B.C. - 467 B.C.). Magadh was a very ancient kingdom as referred to in Vedas. In historical times, it was being ruled by Haranyak, Shishunag and Nanda dynasties. Bimbisara who reigned during the sixth century B.C. and established matrimonial alliances with Kosal, Vaisali and Madra, was a very famous king of Magadh. He not only extended his influence by dynastic marriages but also extended it by war. He conquered and annexed the principality of Anga, modern Bhagalpur and Monghyr. He was contemporary of both Vardhamana Mahabir, the founder of Jainism and Gautama Buddha, the founder of Buddhism. He is supposed to have reigned for nearly twenty five years. The dynasty of Bimbisara lasted three or four generations.  

After the close of Bimbisar’s dynasty, Magadh was ruled by the Nand dynasty (343 B.C.-321 B.C.). King Mahapadma Nand of this dynasty extended the sway of Magadh from Kaling (Orissa) on the east to the Beas in the Punjab in the west. It was the dread of meeting the armed forces of the King of the Prasii (as the classical historians called the Magadhan King) that led the army of Alexander the Great to refuse to advance beyond the Beas and forced his retreat.

It was however, Chandragupta Maurya, the first paramount sovereign emperor of India, who overthrew the Nandas and raised Magadh to the imperial position in the closing years of the fourth century. A Greek ambassador named Megasthene was sent to his court. His account Indica as well as Arthashastra, a treatise on administration, written by his prime minister Chanakya or Kautilya gives some idea of the system of administration by which Chandragupta held together his empire over which he ruled for twenty-four years (322 B.C.-298 B.C.) with great success. During the reigns of Chandragupta as also his son Bindusara (300 B.C.-273 B.C.) and his grandson Ashok (273 B.C.-232 B.C.), the entire region of Uttar Pradesh flourished and was quite peaceful and prosperous. The Lion Capital inscribed in the Asoka Pillar (preserved in the Sarnath Museum) has been adopted by the Government of India as the National Emblem. Besides Sarnath, the Ashokan pillars have also been found in various places of Uttar Pradesh viz. Allahabad, Meerut, Kaushambi, Sankisa, Kalsi, Siddharthnagar and Mirzapur. The Dharamajika Stupa was also built by Ashok. The Chinese travellers Fa-hien and Yuan-chwang, who visited India in the fifth and seventh century B.C. have several rock edicts as well. Ashoka left his inscriptions engraved on rocks, pillars of stone and in caves. At the top of every pillar, there was a capital consisting of one or more animal figures in the round, resting on an abacus below which there is an inverted lotus. The artistic merit of these capitals, especially of the Sarnath Capital has been highly praised and, according to Sir John Marshall, “stands unsurpassed by anything of their kind in the ancient world”.

The Magadhan empire during the Ashokan period was extended from Hindukush in north-west to Bengal in the east and from Himalayas in the north to Panar River in the south. Its downfall began with his death in 232 B.C. The last ruler of Maurya dynasty was Brihadrath, who was assassinated by his commander-in-Chief Pushyamitra Sung in 185 B.C. The latter became the founder of the Sung dynasty and ruled for 38 years. His son and successor Agnimitra and his grandson Vasumitra were both great warriors. The celebrated grammarian Patanjali, who lived in his time, indicates seize of Saket (Ayodhya) by the Greeks. His empire was invaded from the south-east by the Orissan King, Khavela and from north by the Indo-Greek king Menander, Pushyamitra repulsed them both and held intact the vast empire. However, Mathura remained a prominent city of Menander empire for a long time. Menander ruled up to about 145 B.C.

The Sung dynasty was succeeded by the Kanva or Kanvayana in about 73 B.C. in Magadh. It was founded by Vasudeva, the Brahman minister of Devabhuti, the last king of Sung dynasty. Kanva dynasty comprising four reigns including that of the founder, covered forty-five years and its last King Susarman was overthrown in about 28 B.C. by Simuka, the founder of the Satavahan or the Andhra dynasty.

The Sakas, who were originally a nomadic people of Central Asia, came in several hordes to India and by the close of the first century B.C. had established themselves in Gandhar, in Punjab, at Mathura, in Kathiyawar and even so far down as Maharashtra. Their leaders assumed the
titles of Kshatrapas or Great Satraps. The first Saka king was Manes who died around 38 B.C. The last Saka chief was Rudrasinha III, the Great Satrap of Ujjaini. In the beginning of the first century A.D., the Parthians attacked north India and started defeating the Sakas.

The Kushan Dynasty
Kushans, who were also a section of Nomadic people of Yuch-Chicaste began to make raids into India in the first century of pre-Christian era. They were divided into several sections of which the Kushans were one who under Kujula Kara Kadphises eventually established their predominance over the other four sections. The chieftain later on established the Kushan dynasty kings in India and came to be known in Indian history as Kadphises-I. The Kushans established a vast empire in India over which they ruled probably from A.D. 48 to 220.

Vima Kadphises or Kadphises II, the son of Kadphises I, became the next king who had come up to the Ganga Valley. Kanishk, who was the successor of Kadphises II, was the most famous king of Kushan dynasty. His reign began in A.D. 78 from which year the Saka era dates. According to some Chinese and Tibetan historians, Kanishk attacked on Soked (Saket). This region is considered to have been absorbed by Kanishk in his empire as evidenced by the inscriptions and coins found in large scale excavations carried out at various places in Uttar Pradesh. He adorned Mathura with numerous fine buildings with artistic sculpture and was probably the sponsor of Gandhar school of art. His royal patronage was extended to artists beyond Gandhar and significant school of art and sculpture developed at Sarnath and Mathura, which were within his empire. Kanishka’s capital was at Purushpur or Peshawar and other capital was at Mathura. His dominions included Gandhar (eastern Afghanistan), Kashmir and the basins of the Indus and Ganga. His rule was long covering probably 24 years from A.D. 120 to 144. His successive rulers were his son Huvishik and grandson Vasudeva.

The history of the period from the middle of the second century to the rise of the Gupta rulers in fourth century is very nebulous. With the approach of the third century A.D., the Kushan suzerainty in Madhya Desh had collapsed and a number of smaller states had once again sprang up in its place. The most powerful dynasty to rule north India during this period was of the Nagas, who were the aboriginal people of the Narmada Valley. One king named Ganapati Naga is mentioned in the Allahabad inscription of Samudragupta. Likewise, Bharhivas, the another sect of the nagas also ruled during this period. Mathura and Krantipuri were the headquarters of these rulers. Panchals of Ahichhatra (capital of northern Panchal) also probably extended their kingdom up to Mathura. It is learnt from the Budha’s literature that Durmukh, one of the Panchal’s famous king had gained victory far and wide.

The Gupta Dynasty
The Gupta dynasty was founded by Chandragupta-I in A.D. 320 and ruled in northern India till about A.D. 510. He not only became the King of the whole of Magadh but also extended his dominions along Ganga Valley as far as Prayag Allahabad and Avadh. He assumed the title of Maharajadhirm and started a new era, known as the Gupta era

11. The Imperial Gazetteer of India: The Indian Empire, Oxford Vol II, pp. 9-10
Guptas started loosing ground after the death of Skandagupta in A.D. 467. It had practically perished after Kumargupta-II, though princes bearing the once-honoured Gupta surname continued to rule for some time more in separated parts of India such as Magadh and Malwa.

Gupta dynasty has most distinct place in Indian history. It is in their time that political unity was again restored in India and Madhya Desh (Uttar Pradesh) had witnessed an all round development, peace and prosperity. The arts of architecture, sculpture, painting and metallurgy were highly advanced as is shown by the extant Gupta monuments found in Jhansi and Kanpur districts of Uttar Pradesh.

Once again, the power was decentralized in the sixth century A.D. after the fall of Guptas. The Maukhar dynasty was founded in or about A.D. 554 by Isavarmman who defeated a later Gupta ruler and assumed the imperial title of Maharajadhira. His territories covered the eastern part of Madhya Desh (Uttar Pradesh) as well as Gaya region of Magadh. The Maukharis of Kannauj ruled over a large part of Madhya Desh for some time and for the next quarter of a century, the Maukhar dynasty was the strongest power in upper Gangetic Valley. In its sixth generation, Griharman was the last ruler, who reigned up to about 606 A.D. He married Rajyasri, the daughter of Prabhakarvardhan of Thaneswar. His capital was at Kannauj. He was defeated and killed in about 606 A.D. by Devagupta, king of Malwa. As he was childless, the dynasty ended with him and Kannauj passed on to his brother-in-law, Harshvardhan, the king of Thaneswar.

Harshvardhan ruled for 41 years from A.D. 606 to A.D. 647. Initially, Kannauj and Thaneswar were under his rule. But later on he created a vast empire, which extended from the snowy hills in the north to the Narmada in the south and from Ganjam in the east to Valabhi in the west. This vast empire with its capital at Kannauj was efficiently administered by Harsha who assumed the title of Maharajadhira. Kannauj became a major city of north India and for centuries, enjoyed the same status and prestige, which Patliputra had enjoyed earlier or Agra in Mughal period later. It was popular as “Mahodaya Sri” and its possession became the goal of successive Hindu rulers after Harsha. The Chinese traveller, Yuvan-chwang, who visited India at that time, has given a vivid description of Kannauj.

Like Ashok, Harsha also established benevolent institutions for the benefit of travellers, the poor and the sick throughout his empire. He made large gifts and held quinquennial assemblies at the confluence (Sangam) of the Ganga and the Yamuna at Prayag (Allahabad) in which he distributed all the treasures that he had accumulated during the previous four years. The Chinese pilgrim, Hiuen Tsang, attended the sixth of the series in A.D. 643 and has left an account of it, which bears eloquent testimony to the wealth and charity of Harsha.

There was no formal successor of Harsha because he did not have a son. As a result, the vast empire including that of North India was thrown in turmoil. The contemporary rulers started fighting each other in order to capture various parts of his empire. This situation continued for about 75 years. However, for want of relevant records and material, it is not possible to construct a coherent history. Historians have termed it the age of instability or dark age.

On the basis of available evidences that it was only during the first quarter of the eighth century that a glorious ruler named Yashovarman came to power, who established sway over Kannauj. He over-ran almost the whole of India and once again made Kannauj a city of splendour. In alliance with Lalitaditya Muktapith of Kashmir, he sent his army into Tibet and attained substantial
success. Ten years later he was de-throned and slain by Lalitaditya in 740 A.D. Later rulers Palas of Bengal, Rashtrakut of south and Gurjar Pratihars of western India made their goal to capture Kannauj. The second king of Pal dynasty named Dharampal, the greatest king of the dynasty, extended his conquests to Kannauj. Similarly, the seventh king of Rashtrakut dynasty i.e. Indra III, ruled only for two years, but within this short period, he successfully invaded Kannauj and de-throned for a time the Pratihar king, Mahipal. But later on, Mahipal recovered Kannauj but his authority had been greatly weakened and the decline of Gurjar-Pratihar empire began in his reign. The succeeding rulers, viz. Bhoj II, Vinayakpal, Mahendrapal, Devpal, Mahipal II and Vijaypal maintained a precarious hold on their dominions until A.D. 1019 when the reigning king, Rajyapl, fled before the invasion of Sultan Mahmud of Ghajni who captured and plundered Kannauj.

Chandel rulers of Jejak-Bhukti or Jayhoti (present Bundelkhand) successfully met the onslaught of Mahmud of Ghajni. Nannuka Chandel, the founder of Chandelas dynasty in the ninth century A.D. overthrew Pratihar chieftain and became the lord of the southern part of present Bundelkhand region. From Nannuka sprang a dynasty of twenty kings. Yasoverman, the seventh king in succession, was practically the first independent ruler in the dynasty. He occupied the famous fortress of Kalinjar. His son Dhanga (A.D. 950-1008) was the most notable Chandel king. He extended his dominion over the whole of Bundelkhand. He attained the age of one hundred years and then gave up his life by drowning himself at Prayag. Chandel Rajas lingered on in Bundelkhand as purely local chiefs until the beginning of the fourteenth century when with the death of the last king, Hammirvarman, the dynasty came to an end.

A new era of peace and prosperity was restored in Madhya Desh, which was in the grip of turmoil and anarchy for long after the fall of Gurjar-Pratihar dynasty, with the rise of Gaharwars of Gahadvalas in the region. One of the two prominent Gaharwar rulers was Govind Chandra, the grandson of Chandradev (founder of Gaharwar dynasty) reigned as crown king from 1104 to 1114 A.D. and thereafter as king upto 1154 A.D. He has described in his inscriptions as the protector of the holy sites of Kusika (Kannauj), Kasi, Uttara Kosal (Ayodhya) and Indrasthan (Delhi). He ruled over a vast kingdom comprising the greater part of present Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. He restored to some extent the glory of Kannauj, which was his capital. Kashi was the second capital of Gaharwars. His grandson Raja Jaychandra or Raja Jaichand was another popular king. His beautiful daughter Sanjyokta was forcibly carried off in about 1175 A.D. by Prithviraj, the Chauhan king of Ajmer Sambhar and Delhi. He was a great soldier who defeated the Chandela king, Parmal and captured his capital, Mahoba in 1192. His deeds of love and valour are recorded by the famous bard Chand Bardai in his work called “Chand Raisa”. This created such deep hostility between the two princes that Jaichand did not lend any assistance to Prithviraj when the latter’s kingdom was invaded by the Muslims who defeated and killed him in the Second Battle of Tarain in 1192 A.D. Two years later, in 1194, Jaichand himself was defeated and killed by Shihabuddin Muhammad Ghori in the Battle of Chandawar, which is in Etawah. His capital Kannauj was sacked and destroyed by the Muhammadans and the Gaharwar dynasty came to an end. Thereafter, Meerut, Koil (Aligarh), Asani, Kannauj and Varanasi fell victims to invaders. Parmardidev or Veer Parmal was the last Chandel king (A.D. 1166-1203) of Jejabhukti (Bundelkhand) was attacked by Qutubuddin Aibak, the sultan of Delhi, stood siege at the Kalinjar fortress, which he was obliged to surrender and was very likely killed (1203 A.D.) With him fell the greatness of Chandels.
Muslim Rulers
The throne of Delhi continued to be under the possession of Muslim rulers for about 660 years beginning from A.D. 1194, when Muhammad Ghori came to power, to A.D. 1857 when Bahadur Shah was the last representative of Mughal dynasty.

Muslim rule in the country began with Muhammad Ghori (A.D. 1194-A.D. 1206). Since he had no son, Qutubuddin Aibak became his successor, who founded the Slave dynasty in India, grabbing power and coming to the throne of Delhi in 1206 A.D. He ruled till 1210 A.D. The other important rulers of this dynasty were Ilutmish (A.D. 1211-1236), Razia Sultan (A.D. 1236-1240) and Ghiyasuddin Balban (A.D. 1246-1266). Muhammad Jalaluddin Khilji (or Khalji) overthrew the last of the sultans of Slave dynasty and established the Khilji dynasty of the sultans of Delhi which ruled from A.D. 1290 to 1320. The most famous and ablest of the Khilji sultans of Delhi were Jalaluddin (A.D. 1290-96), Alauddin (A.D. 1296-1316) and Mubarak (A.D. 1316-20). After Khaljis, Ghiyasuddin Tughluq founded Tughluq dynasty (A.D. 1320-1413), which comprised nine sultans. However, it was during Muhammad Tughluq reign that the Delhi sultanate reached its highest extent and ruled, though only for a short period, the whole of India from the foot of the Himalayas to cape comorin. The empire of Khiljis as well as Tughluqs comprised present Uttar Pradesh. Although Sambhal, Kara and Badaun were given to important feudal lords but by and large the entire state continued to oppose the Sultans of Delhi. The names of Katchar, Kampil, Bhojpur and Patial stand out prominently in this context.

The history of Madhya Desh in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth century presents examples of brave resistance on the one hand and barbaric repression on the other. When Tughluq dynasty started declining, Malik Sarwar who served as Wazir under Firoz Tughluq was posted in the eastern region with the title Malik-us-sharq (lord of the east). His successors were called Sharqis after the title. Sharqis established an independent state with its capital at Jaunpur and founded Sharqi dynasty which lasted for less than a century. Rulers of this dynasty throughout their regime (A.D. 1394-1479) were at struggle with the sultans of Delhi and vehemently opposed their supremacy over Kannauj and border districts. This dynasty was, however, overthrown by Sultan Bahol Lodi in A.D. 1479. The Sharqi rulers patronised art and culture and developed at Jaunpur a special type of architecture, which came to be known as Sharqi style of which the Atala Masjid at Jaunpur is a brilliant example. The greatest ruler of this dynasty was Ibrahim under whom Jaunpur became an important centre of learning, earning the sobriquet “Shiraz of India”. Malik Muhammad Jaisi lived in their kingdom.

On 18th December 1398, Timur, Amir of Samarkand (also called Timur Lang or Tamerlane) invaded India and ransacked Delhi giving a severe blow to Delhi sultanate which hastened the fall of Tughluq dynasty in A.D. 1412 in Delhi. His act of rape and pillage in Delhi continued for several days. Though, the brunt of Timur’s barbarism was mainly borne by Delhi and Punjab, the Doab region particularly, Meerut, Hardwar and Katchar had also to share the sufferings caused by his catastrophic invasion.

From A.D. 1414 to 1526, Delhi remained in the hands of the Syeds and the Lodis. However, Doab continued to be under various Hindu and Muslim rulers. Agra enjoyed the status of a sub-capital during the rule of Sikandar Lodi (A.D. 1489-1517). The next ruler of Lodhi dynasty i.e. Ibrahim Lodi (1517-1526) proved to be the last ruler of this dynasty as he was defeated and killed in the first battle of Panipat on 21 April, 1526, which laid the foundation of Mughal dynasty in India.

The Mughal Period
The Mughal dynasty was founded by Zahiruddin Muhammad Babur in 1526 as a result of his victory over
Ibrahim, the Lodi Sultan. This victory enabled Babur to occupy Delhi and Agra. Babur’s advance was, however, halted by the Afghans of eastern Uttar Pradesh. But later on, in spite of their stiff resistance and contention, they had to ultimately surrender several important centres viz., Sambhal, Jaunpur, Ghazipur, Kalpi, Etawah and Kannauj. After the death of Babur on 26th December 1530, his son Humayun became the emperor, who ruled from 1530 to 1540 and again from 1555 to 1556. Humayun moved against Sher Khan better known as Sher Shah Suri. But he was completely out-generalled and out-maneuvered by Sher Shah and was defeated by him in 1539 at the battle of Chausa on the bank of Ganga. As a result, he lost Bihar and Bengal. Humayun again attacked in 1540 but he was badly defeated by Sher Shah in the Battle of Bilgram (near Kannauj), lost his capital and the latter became the full fledged emperor. But soon Sher Shah died in 1545 as a result of an explosion while engaged in besieging Kalinjar Fort and thus a luminous star on the horizon of Medieval history had set.

Humayun again took reigns in his hands in 1555. But only after a year, i.e. in January, 1556, his death came as the result of an accidental fall from the staircase of his library at Delhi. Ten months after the death of Humayun i.e. on 5th November, 1556 that the Second Battle of Panipat was fought, which enabled Akbar to occupy Delhi and Agra and thus paved the way for the Mughal’s rule continuously for the next three hundred years.

Akbar (1556-1605) had a vast empire, which extended up to Kabul in the west to Bengal in the east and from the foot of the Himalayas in the north to the river Narmada in the south. Akbar had divided his empire into 15 subas or provinces of which Agra, Avadh and Allahabad were highly significant subas. Akbar was great not only as conqueror but also an able administrator. He adopted the policy of conciliation and liberalism, which paid good dividends in terms of earning loyalty and confidence of Hindus and Muslims alike. He was undoubtedly the brightest star of the Mughal empire. Akbar died in A.D. 1605.

However, the strategies and policies framed by Akbar proved to be so pragmatic that these endured under his successors also particularly Jahangir (1605-1627) and Shahjahan (1628-1658). During Mughal rule, Agra was made capital which remained till Shahjahan shifted it to Delhi. Birbal and Todaramal13, who were honoured with the title of Raja by the Emperor Akbar, and served the latter as ministers, belonged to Uttar Pradesh. The role of Uttar Pradesh, in view of contemporary writers, in taking ‘Hindustan’ to the pinnacle of peace, progress, prosperity and glory was quite significant.

The ideology, policies and strategies, adopted by the Emperor Akbar, which ushered in bringing unparalleled fame, peace and glory all around as also securing favour and support of all castes and creeds, took practically a U-turn during the reign of Aurangzeb, the sixth Mughal emperor (1659-1707) of India. It caused an irreparable loss to the Mughal dynasty. In his panoramic “The Discovery of India”, Jawaharlal Nehru, presented a graphic portrayal of Aurangzeb and the damage his policies inflicted on the empire in these words:

“Aurangzeb far from understanding the present failed even to appreciate the immediate past; he was a throwback and, for all his ability and earnestness, he tried to undo what his predecessors had done. A bigot and an austere puritan, he was no lover of art and literature. He infuriated the great majority of his subjects by imposing the old hated Jeziya toll-tax on the Hindus and destroying many of their temples. He offended the proud Rajputs who had been the props and pillars of the Mughal empire. In the north, he roused the Sikhs, who, from being a peaceful sect, were converted by repression and persecution.

13. According to some he was born in Lahore in Punjab.
into a military brotherhood. Near the west coast of India, he angered the Warlike Marathas, descendants of the ancient Rashtrakutas, just when a brilliant captain had risen amongst them."

As a result, the symptoms of the disintegration of the Mughal empire appeared even before he breathed his last at Burhanpur in the Deccan in 1707. Shivaji (1627-80) started building up an independent Maratha Kingdom in the Deccan. The Jats in Mathura and its neighbourhood had risen in rebellion in 1669, followed by the Bundelas in Bundelkhand and Malwa in 1671, the Satnamis in Narnol in the Patiala State and Mewatis in the Alwar region in 1692. In Avadh, the local governor, Saadat Ali Khan declared independence in 1732 A.D., when the then Nawab of Avadh defeated them with the help of East India Company. Marathas also made their bid to establish themselves in the Ganga-Yamuna Doab but the disastrous defeat of the Mughal emperor, Shah Alam II, and Marathas by Ahmad Shah Abdali helped by Shujauddaulah, the Nawab of Avadh in the Third Battle of Panipat in 1761 proved a serious setback to the advancement of Marathas as also a decisive drag on the Mughal empire. Bahadur Shah-II was the nineteenth and last nominal Mughal emperor, who was virtually a pensioner of the East India Company, died in 1862.

Nawabs of Avadh
Saadat Khan, who was the Mughal Governor of Avadh suba (province) at the time of emperor Akbar, founded the line of the Nawabs of Avadh. Their independent rule over Avadh lasted for three generations viz, (i) Saadat Khan (1724-39), (ii) Safdar Jang (1739-54) and (iii) Shujauddaulah (1754-75). The defeat of the third Nawab Shujauddaulah at the hands of the English at the battle of Buxar in 1764 marked the beginning of the decline of the power of the Nawabs of Avadh. Shujauddaulah had entered into an alliance with the Mir Qasim, the fugitive Nawab of Bengal against the company in 1784 A.D. Mir Qasim was defeated by the British and was forced to cede Kara and Allahabad. Gradually, Avadh became a protected feudatory state under the company. Later on, Rohilkhand and the lower Doab had to be surrendered to company, covering almost one-half of the territories of Avadh. Wazid Ali Shah was the last Nawab and it was during his period (1847-56) that Avadh was formally annexed to the British Indian empire. Lucknow was the capital of the Nawabs of Avadh who beautified it with mosques and palaces and developed into a seat of Muslim culture, music, pelf and degraded luxury.

First War of Independence and After
The East India Company had established the control over almost all parts of India by the middle of the 19th century. There were numerous risings in the first hundred years of British rule in India. They were, however, local and isolated in character. But the risings developed a tradition of resistance of foreign rule, culminating in the 1857 revolt. The Revolt of 1857, which was called a Sepoy Mutiny by the British historians and their imitators in India but described as the First War of Independence by many Indian historians, shook the British authority in India from its very foundations.

In 1856, the annexation of Avadh by Lord Dalhousie under his 'Doctrine of Lapse' 14, generated great resentment in India in general and in Avadh in particular. The action angered the Company's sepoys, most of whom had come from Avadh. Moreover, annexation adversely affected their purse. They had to pay higher taxes on the land their families had in Avadh. The senior most of the Indian

14. According to this principle, an adopted son of an Indian prince could inherit the personal properties of his adoptive father, but not the sovereignty over his state.
sepoys had often to serve under very junior British officers. All these circumstances created bitterness in the Indian army.

The people of Uttar Pradesh played a glorious role in the First War of Independence. The Revolt first erupted at Meerut on 10th May 1857 and soon spread to Delhi, Agra, Banaras, Allahabad, and Kanpur. Avadh, Bundelkhand, Rohilkhand, Bihar, Chhota Nagpur too flared up. Even before the outbreak of Meerut, a sepoy named Mangal Pandey had become a martyr at Barrackpore. He was hanged on March 29, 1857. He had revolted single-handed and attacked his superior officers. This lone episode provided the spark and people stood united with a spirit of do or die for ousting Britishers from India. In Uttar Pradesh, Kanpur, Lucknow and Bundelkhand became the storm centres. This revolt in Kanpur was led by Nana Sahib, the adopted son of Baji Rao II, the last Peshwa with the determined and dedicated support of Tantia Tope and Azimullah, who were loyal servants of Nana Sahib, while Rani Lakshmibai of Jhansi headed the revolt in Bundelkhand. Besides, the sense of duty, loyalty and patriotism displayed by Begum Hazrat Mahal of Avadh, Bakht Khan, Raja Beni Madhav Singh and host of other patriots have made themselves immortal.

This historical struggle, in fact, tolled the knell of the Company’s rule in India. The administration of India was transferred from company to the Crown of England, the queen Victoria on Ist November, 1858. In that very year, the Delhi division was taken out from the North Western Provinces and the state’s capital was shifted from Agra to Allahabad. The state in the next nearly hundred years had gone under changes both in its administration as well as its name and capital. In A.D. 1858, with the merger of the posts of Lt. Governor of North Western Provinces and Chief Commissioner of Avadh, the state was named as North Western Provinces of Agra and Avadh. Again, in 1902, its name was changed to United Provinces of Agra and Avadh. In 1921, it was made Governor’s Province and thereafter its capital was shifted from Allahabad to Lucknow. In 1937, the words ‘Agra and Avadh’ were dropped and the state came to be known as United Provinces. It was only on 12th January, 1950 that the state got its present name of Uttar Pradesh. It attained the status of a full-fledged state of the Republic of India on 26th January, 1950.

Thus, Madhya Desh of the ancient days, Doab/Avadh of the Medieval period, North Western Provinces/North Western Provinces of Agra and Avadh/United Provinces of Agra and Avadh/United Provinces of the British regime and Uttar Pradesh of today, has always been politically active and run concurrently with the history of the country. Its pivotal role in the freedom struggle of the country, whether it was the First War of Independence, Quit India Movement or other such national movements, will always be remembered. In free India also, the state has unparalleled honour of contributing so far eight Prime Ministers viz Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru, Lal Bahadur Shastri, Mrs. Indira Gandhi, Charan Singh, Rajiv Gandhi, V. P. Singh, Chandra Shekhar and Atal Behari Vajpai.
CULTURAL HERITAGE

Introduction
Nature is beautiful, no doubt, but by fits and starts. It is bountiful also, but requires an art to improve upon it so that the beautiful and good in it may be owned. It is with this obsession that human being, since the time immemorial, is persistently striving for developing his natural surroundings and thereby attaining self perfection, i.e. harmonious development of his faculties of the head and heart and the blood and the brain. In order to define this long journey of development, two new terminologies viz, ‘Civilization’ and ‘Culture’ were coined in Europe during the Eighteenth century. In general, the physical development of the society was called civilization while intellectual and spiritual development referred to culture. But more often than not these words were interchangeably used.

The usage of the word civilization on a large scale began with the commencement of English education induced Renaissance in India of the Nineteenth Century, while the other word culture was popularized in the Twentieth Century. It is, however, worth mentioning that these words in this form have not been dealt within the long traditional and highly rich Sanskrit literature.

The potent question, therefore, arises as to what these terminologies really stand for. Views of scholars and historians being at variance, these words have found definitions without end. Perhaps, no two men agree as what civilization and culture are. But one common element which emerges from various views is the extremely close relationship between the two, which is also probably, a cause of divergent views. In the present context, it is neither relevant nor desired to enter into details. Nevertheless, for the sake of a proper insight regarding the aspects in question, it is ought to mention that in archeology, the stages of civilization are determined on the basis of the quality of arms and instruments used by the mankind viz., Palaeolithic Age, Neo-palaeolithic Age, Copper Age, etc. Each stage indicates its particular social organization, economy, polity, religion, philosophy, science and art. The synthesis of specific socio-economic structure and concomitant thoughts and institutions for the development of mankind is generally known as civilization. It is a continuous process, which necessarily includes both successess as well as failures, goods as also bads. The intellectual and spiritual development of the mankind resulted through this process is called culture. Obviously enough, the civilization comprises bad and undesired also together with good and desired while culture contains the best. Culture implies a process of refinement and exercise of the faculties, a sharpening of the intellect and softening of the heart, a harmonious development of human personality. In a nut-shell, when mankind living in a geographical region for certain period of time, adopts specific life style then speciality emerging out of this art of life is called culture. It essentially means that every civilization has its own culture.

The history of the civilization and culture of Uttar Pradesh is as old as that of the Indian nation. The contacts between Aryans and non-Aryans around 2000 B.C. was,

1. Respective synonym of these terminologies in Hindi was formulated as ‘Sabhyata’ and ‘Sanskriti’.
3. Almost all scholars are of the opinion that the word ‘Arya’ represented a linguistic group instead of any racial group. Those who did not understand the language of Aryans were called Non-Aryans.
upto 1920/21, considered as the solid beginning of the Indian culture. But with the excavations in Mohan Jodaro of the Sindh Province and Harappa of the Western Punjab in 1922, bringing out a very old civilization of Indus Valley, the roots of our cultural heritage slid about 1000 years still back. We are, thus, inheritor of the culture of about 5000 years old.

In the aforesaid backdrop, since modern Uttar Pradesh has passed through different civilizations, which has elaborately been brought out in the previous chapter, this region obviously has had gloriously eventful culture of various historic periods from the Pre-vedic age to the modern age. Regarding the greatness of cultural heritage of this region, it would be quite relevant to quote the views of Sir Thomas Hungerford Holdich, who was Deputy Superintendent in the Survey of India and a historian as well:

"This has been for ages the most famous part of India. In pre-historic times, it was the Central or Middle Land, the Madhya Desh of the sacred books of the Hindus and of the ancient poets, the abode of the solar and lunar races, and of the gods and heroes of the Mahabharat and the Ramayana.

"...This tract contains the most holy places in India, Benaras, Ayodhya, Kannauj, Mathura, and many others; it is here that Buddha was born, preached and died, and it was from this centre that his creed spread over a great part of the western world.

"...In our times, this has been politically the most important part of our Indian Empire."

Cultural Events
It is thus, quite apparent that Uttar Pradesh is one of the most ancient cradles of Indian culture. It has the credit of amassing cultures of as long as five thousand years old, which, indeed, one can be proud of. However, to wrap up this old, rich and diversely eventful history of culture and confining that too in a few pages is undoubtedly, a very tough task. Nevertheless, this chapter seeks briefly to incorporate important cultural occurrence of Uttar Pradesh of each age to the possible extent.

Pre-vedic Period
The cultural development during the pre-vedic period in Uttar Pradesh is not much known. But quite a number of palaeolithic arms, tools and other antiquities found during the course of archaeological excavations and explorations carried out in different parts of this region, particularly Banda, Mirzapur and Meerut districts amply demonstrate the linkage of its civilization and culture to that of palaeolithic, meso-lithic and neo-lithic age and Harappan era. Chalk drawings or dark red drawings discovered in the Vindhyan ranges of Mirzapur are considered to be of primitive man. Similarly, researches in Atranji-Khera, Kaushambi, Raighat and Sonkh have also yielded utensils and other objects which have close resemblance both in form as well as material besides several copper5 articles found in Kanpur, Unnao, Mirzapur, Mathura, Ghazipur and some other sites. All these findings, thus bring enough testimony to the prevalence of pre-vedic culture in the state. The links missing at present between the Indus and Vedic civilizations, which appear, probably, lie buried under the ruins of various ancient sites of the State, might hopefully be traced and established in future.

Vedic-Period
Initially, Aryan region was confined to the plains of 'Sapta

4. Thomas Hungerford Holdich, India, first Indian Reprint, 1975, p-147

5. Indus valley civilization is considered as the excellent example of copper age civilization.
Sindhu’ (seven rivers—Sindhu, Satluj, Vyas, Ravi, Chinab, Jhelum and Saraswati). Later on, Aryans extended their territory in the east from Kabul Valley to plains of Ganga, Yamuna, Sone and Saryu. The region comprising these rivers was named as Madhya Desh. The entire region, after accessing, the area surrounded by Godawari and Brahmaputra was named as ‘Aryavart’. But the eastward migration of Aryans and occupation of the whole of Aryavart must have taken many centuries later than the Rig Vedic Age (2000 B.C.) when the Indo-Aryans made their first establishment in the Punjab. This was the region that Brahmarsh Desh or Madhya Desh, which had major area of present Uttar Pradesh, did not occur in vedic hymns. However, post Rig Vedic literature indicates that Doab between Ganga, Yamuna and Mathura assumed great significance. This region at that time was not only considered a very holy place in the whole Aryavart but the foremost centre of vedic philosophy and culture also. It is through this literature that big towns and new states viz, Kuru, Panchal, Kashi and Kosal came to limelight as focal points of cultural advancement.

The period from 2000-1000 B.C. is known as Vedic period during which three types of literature came to the forefront viz., (1) four Vedas— the Rig Ved, Sam Ved, Yajur Ved and Atharv Ved (2) Brahman Granth and Aaranyak. Upanishad was another important literary contribution which came at a later stage. Vedas, Brahmans, Aranyakas and Upanishads all together were called Shruti Granths. Some other Granths related to these have been found which are called Vedang. The people of Kuru and Panchal had substantially contributed to the development of vedic culture and Sanskrit literature. Brahmans were held in high esteem for their learnings, oratorical expertise and other such academic capacities. Vedic period was indeed the age of the climax of Brahmans and domination of Purohits. Their commanding position in the society basically rested on caste system and Sanskrit language. The interference of Purohits and their Karmkand (religious ceremonies) in government affairs increased to such an extent that Kshatriya kings were displeased and began to think to get rid of them and by the beginning of the 600 B.C. they also became quite capable and pledged to formulate Brahman Granth which they named Upanishad. Thus, they registered philosophical victory over Brahmans. Aswapatyi Kaiskeya (Punjab), Pravahan Jaivali (Panchal), Ajatsatru (Kashi) and Janak (Videh) are considered four eminent ‘Gurus’ (religious instructors). Panchal Parishad prominently figures in Upanishads.

The Upanishads signify the highest reach of human imagination. Upanishad literature was the product of meditation in the ashrams hermitage of the sages, several of which were in Uttar Pradesh. Bhrigu, Jamagni, Bharadwaj, Yagyavalka, Vashistha, Vishawimitra, Valmiki and Atri were the distinguished sages, whose ashrams were in Uttar Pradesh or were otherwise connected with this State. The ashram of Jamagni Rishi was in Janamija (Ghazipur). In Pauranik Yug, this was known as ‘Jamagni Kshetra’ like that of Ballia as ‘Bhrigu Kshetra’. Likewise, Buxar (Siddhashram) adjacent to Ballia was the monastery of Vishawimitra, where as per the narration of Ramayan

6. The caste system is found to have existed in the early vedic age only in a nebulous form. But in the later vedic age, in the era of Sutras, it became hereditary and represented occupational groups. Those who specialized in the study of Vedas and took charge of religious ceremonies were called Brahmans. Those who devoted themselves to political and military activities were called Kshatriyas. The general mass of the Aryan people were known as Vasishyas whose principal occupations were trade and commerce. The rest of the people, whose occupation was service was known as Sudras. The system was considered to be of divine virgin and greatly dominated their manners, morals and thoughts.

and Bhagwat, he had performed Yagya (religious sacrifice). Eastern Uttar Pradesh together with Kashi and Prayag was virtually the kingdom of Sanatan Dharm and ancient knowledge as area around Punjab was the centre of Indian culture since Vedic period. Excavations in Rajghat (near Kashi city) indicate the existence of a continuous cultural sequence from the beginning of the first millennium B.C. Although, the earliest descriptions of the city may be traced back to late Vedic times (1400-1000 B.C.), as one of the first Aryan settlements in the middle Gangetic Valley, Kashi was referred to in various Sanskrit texts viz, Jabalopinshad of the Yajurved, Sankha Smriti, the Parsara Smriti, etc.8

The basis of social and political organization of Aryavart was father dominated family. Big units were named as Gram, Vish and Jan. Leader of the gram was called Gramari, Vishpati of Vish and protector of Jan was known as Gope (king). The form of the government was monarchy, which was administered by Rajan. Purohit was the foremost official amongst the government employees. Second to him was the commandar of the Army.

**Post-vedic Period**

The epic period (1000-600 B.C.) which began after the Vedic age has paramount significance for the cultural advancement in Uttar Pradesh. The composition of the Ramayan and the Mahabharat epics are the most notable contribution of this very age. Both are almost contemporary and authors of both the epics were non-Brahmins—Valmiki (Sudra) of the former and Vyas (Kshatriya) of the latter. The Ashram of the Valmiki was in Brahmvarta (Bithoor in Kanpur district and that of the Vyas in Naimisharanya (Nimarsar-Misrikh in Sitapur district. Their roots in the form of popular legends are very old. The Ramayan presents the glimpses of the civilization of Vedic period, while the Mahabharat that of the Sandhav. The State also has the contribution of writing some of the Puranas and Smritis. During this period, the battle of the Mahabharat was fought and the Shri Madbhagwat, which is also treated as an epic, was written. These works, particularly the Ramayana, have enough impact on the life of Hindus. However, Bhagwat Geeta has special place in their spiritual spheres. The worship of Shiva, Vishnu, Surya and Sakti was part of the Brahmanism. Excavations in Mathura and other sites in the State have yielded images of these divinities belonging to the epic period. Temples of Varanasi, Allahabad, Kanpur and other places of the State amply demonstrate the aforesaid faith.

The beginning of the Ancient period or the Hindu period is considered since 600 B.C., when Magadhi Kingdom was established by Bimbisar. During this period, two most important religions viz. Jainism and thereafter Buddhism were founded, the former by Vardhaman Mahavir and the latter by Gautam Buddha. Yet another eminent religious thinker of this time was Goshal, a contemporary of Mahavir and Gautam Buddha, who founded Ajivika sect. Mahavir, the 24th Tirthankar (path-finder) of Jains was although born in the Kundgram city near Vaishali in Bihar but had a large number of followers in Uttar Pradesh. He visited this state and spent about 24 years of his life at Shravasti and Pawapuri (near Deoria). Pawa proved to be his last resting place. Notorious dacoit Anguli-Mal became staunch follower of Buddhism after having his preachings at Shravasti. Besides, distinguished Tirthankers viz, Parshwanath, and Sambharnath, Chandraprabha also belonged to different places of the State, who attained ‘Kaivalya’ (supreme knowledge) here. Gautam Buddha was born in a princely Kshatriya family of Kapilvastu state now in Siddharthnagar district of Uttar Pradesh. His mother belonged to ruling family of Deodah state (now in

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Deoria district of Uttar Pradesh. As regards Goshal, he was born in Uttar Pradesh at Shravan near Shrivasthi. These eminent thinkers played a revolutionary role in transforming the social, religious and spiritual life of this region. Jainism gained a status of Raj Dharm (state religion) during the reign (321 B.C.-296 B.C.) of Chandragupta Maurya and expanded to the entire India. The remains of Jain Stupa, and ruins of Jain Temples found at various sites in the state provide sufficient ground to believe that this religion throbbed here for a fairly long time.

The Age of Buddha
It was only about 29 years of Jainism that Gautam Buddha turned the wheel of his Dharm at the Deer Park at Sarnath, which is about 8 kms. from Varanasi. After delivering his first sermon at Sarnath, he moved about the Gangetic Valley in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar for the next forty five years in his pious obsession. Sarnath gained considerable significance at the time (274 B.C.-232 B.C.) of Emperor Ashok, where several stupas and buildings were constructed by him. A magnificent stone pillar surmounted by the renowned lion capital, which is famous as a master piece of Ashokan sculpture, has been adopted by the Government of India as national emblem. Sarnath abounds in Buddhist monuments many of which are now housed in a museum there. Kushinagar (now known as Kasiya), which is 30 kms. away from Deoria, is equally famous in this regard. Because, it was here that Mahatma Buddha attained Mahaparinirvan or decease. A stupa containing a large idol of Buddha is also here. Shrivasthi was yet another important holy place of Buddhists as also of Jains even today. It is now a district of Uttar Pradesh. At the time of Gautam Buddha, Shrivasthi was the capital of the Koshal state. Besides, it was the main commercial centre of the northern India and considered as original place of srivastav kayastha. Sanksheya (Sankisa) of Etah district is also a very venerable place of Buddhists. They believe that this was the holy site from where Gautam Buddha departed for heaven and descended again from there. Buddhism, which got the patronage of various rulers viz. Ashok, Harsh, Yashoverman, Govindchandra, Jaichanda, etc., flourished well in the State and Buddha's gospel of self reliance, compassion and universal friendship extended far and wide.

The Middle Age of Synthesis
After Harshvardhan, Buddhism for all practical purposes gradually absorbed into Hinduism and virtually ceased to lead an independent existence in the country. The great Sankaracharya renewed Vedanta philosophy and incorporated several doctrinal and organizational features of Buddhism and Jainism into Hinduism. He established four Dhams (spiritual centres) at Badrinath, Puri, Dwarka and Sringeri. Badrinath at that time was a part of Uttar Pradesh but now it is in Uttarakhand. In addition to Sankaracharya's exposition to Vedanta, treatises on dharma by Nathmuni, Yamunacharya, Ramanuj and Madhav were composed in these times.

The cultural and religious activities in this region particularly Ayodhya, Kashi, Prayag, Mathura and Kannauj studded with temples and monasteries were at their zenith. Volumes of literature on it have been contributed by the scholars. But here, it would suffice to mention that Ayodhya and Mathura acquired fame as respective birth places of Lord Rama and Lord Krishna. Prayag was popularly known as Tirthraj (greatest holy place) where people used to throng from every nook and corner of the country. This status of Prayag still continues. Kashi earned the same popularity and significance as other two cities of the world i.e. the Rome and the Mecca. Kashi grew as a great seat of learning, surpassing Takshashila and all other educational centres of India. Kannauj, being capital of Harsha's kingdom, became the nerve-centre of all such doings and qualities during the reign (A.D. 607 to 648) of
Harshvardhan, who himself was a poet and great charitier. Despite organizing five yearly assemblies at Prayag, where he used to donate open-handed, he regularly arranged and coordinated the literary conferences and poetical assemblies as also public meetings for religious and various cultural activities. Dr. Radha Kumud Mukerji's views appear quite relevant here:

"Harsha is the only king in history who is credited with the important innovation of holding large public meetings at regular intervals for religious and cultural purposes."9

A large centre of knowledge, which was called Bhadravihar, was established at Kannauj by him. It was famous in the field of learning in the whole of India. Students and other knowledge-lovers from far and wide used to come here for learning. Yuan-Chwang, the famous Chinese visitor, who had studied here for three months under the supervision of an eminent Professor Vryasen, has wholeheartedly appreciated the people of Uttar Pradesh and their knowledge, skill and mastery over the Sanskrit language. According to Yuan-Chwang, Harsha paid high regards to scholars and poets and spent one fourth of state revenue on them. Ban Bhatt, who was an eminent poet in his court has said

"श्रीकेतु विद्वानोलां गीतमिति हरसरायनम्."

(All types of knowledge flourished in the state of the Harsha in the same vein as they flowed from Shrikanth (Lord Shiva)

Sriharsh was his poet laureate. Besides, Sriharsh and Ban, Mayur, Matang, Diwakar, Gwak, Jaisen, Haridutta and Ishan were other famous poets of his regime. Like Harsha, later rulers also provided patronage to poets e.g., Bhavabhuti and Vakpati at the time of Yasoverman; Maharaj Mihirbhoj and Rajshekhar at the time of Mihirbhoj and Mahendrapal-I (Pratihar); Maharaj Madanpal (Gaharwal); Laxmidhar and Govindchandra himself at the time of Maharaj Govindchandra; Shrihars Naichand and Mammat at the time of Maharaj Vijaichandra and Jaiachandra.

Uttar Pradesh once again welcomed new and liberal thought propounded by the Arya Samaj movement. The founder of Arya Samaj, Swami Dayanand was a disciple of the blind Swamij Brijanand of Mathura. Uttar Pradesh has also been the centre of several religious orders (Akharas) with headquarters at Ayodhya, Mathura, Varanasi and Hardwar.

Middle Age
The cultural patterns of the older all-India empires began to percolate deep into the hinterland and as countless local and regional durbars emulated these forms, which get attested by the arts and literary works of this age.

The arts, culture, language and literature in Uttar Pradesh pulsated with similar dynamism in the middle age also and people from all parts of the country had rapt reverence and admiration for the traditions of this region. During this age, the two main languages of the State i.e. Hindi and Urdu were richly contributed by the great literateurs. Evidences of literary compositions in this language became discernible during the tenth century of Vikram era. Hindi literature is believed to have its origin considerable progress during this period. The history of Hindi literature, based on its form and trend is divided into four periods viz. Veergathakal (the age of heroic poetry), Bhakti Kal (the age of devotional poetry), Riti Kal (the age of amorous poetry and Adhunik Kal (modern age). Basic characteristics of each age are briefly brought out as under. Development of Urdu literature in the State is presented thereafter.

Hindi Language

_Veergatha Kal (10th to 14th century)_

The literary works of this age are abounded in heroic poems and ballads composed by court poets enjoying state patronage. Among these, Parimal Rassau and Prithviraj Rassau are the most important works of this age. The former, composed by Jagnik, embodies the valorous deeds of Alha and Udal of Jejakabukhi (Bundelkhand) and the latter, written by the famous bard Chand Bardai, narrates the heroic deeds of the king Prithviraj Chauhan. By the 13th century, Hindi became popular even among Muslims, whose eminent poet surnamed 'Parrot of India' was Amir Khusrau. He belonged to Patiali (Etah district). He was a prolific author having equal command over Persian, Urdu and Hindi. His craftsmanship and foresightedness provided Hindi poetry altogether a new dimension. Among his works, 'Mukris' was most popular claiming universal recognition.

People, in general, were devout worshippers of Shiva and Krishna but Buddhism and Jainism also had many followers. Their influence on other works of this period is also well reflected.

_Bhakti Kal (14th to 17th century)_

Unlike the age of heroic poetry, the works of Bhakti Kal contained the messages of devotion, peace and social reform as the people were fed up with the continuous social disorder and unbridled atrocities of Turkish invaders. It is for this reason that poets of this age such as Tulsi Das, Surdas, Kabir and Nanak were great bhakti saints and social reformers. Tulsi Das belonged to Ram Bhakti Branch of Sagun School, who composed _Ram Charit Manas, Vinay Patrika, Kavilawali, _etc., while Surdas was the main poet of Krishna Bhakti Branch, whose works are compiled in _Sur Sagar._ Both of them belonged to Uttar Pradesh. Kabir, who was an eminent saint-poet of _Gyanashrungi_ Branch of Nirgun School, also hailed from this state. He was against the rituals and external formalities and preached to foster harmony between man and man, between Hinduism and Mohammadanism. Likewise, Ravidas, Darya Shah and Guru Gorakhnath were other great saints, who gave a new direction to the life and culture in that period. Besides, Keshavdas, Bhusan, Matiram, Ghananad, Behari, Devand Girdhar Kaviraj were other eminent poets, who brought laurels to Uttar Pradesh.

The poets of Premashrayai Branch were greatly influenced by the philosophy of Sufi saints. The author of the epic Padmawat was Malik Mohammad Jaisi. He hailed from Jais town of Rai Bareli district of Uttar Pradesh. Several other poets also enriched Hindi and Urdu literature during this age. Abdur Rahim, who was son of Bairam Khan, the regent and protector of Akbar became the Khan-i-Khanam (premier noble man on the latter's court, composed didactic poems in Hindi, 'Madhastak' composed by him earned wide recognition. His deep rooted devotion to Radha-Krishna has indeed stamped his poetry. The charming confluence of Triveni i.e., Sanskrit, Hindi and Urdu, which he presented, the like of which has not been possible for any other Hindi poet. He stayed and worked in Uttar Pradesh. A notable contribution was made by Sultan Feroz Tughlaq who got Sanskrit works translated into Persian. He patronized Zia-ud-din Barni, the famous Muslim historian, whose work 'Tarikh-i-Firuz Shahi' is considered as great contribution. The city of Jaunpur of Uttar Pradesh was founded by Sultan Firoz Shah Tughlaq and named in honour of his predecessor Muhammad Tughlaq also called Jauna Khan. Under the Shariqi dynasty Jaunpur developed into a great centre of art and culture. It also developed a special type of architecture to the grandeur of which the Atala Masjid still bears eloquent testimony.

_Riti Kal (17th to 19th century)_

Hindi poetry in the later medieval period witnessed a
radical change when love of things amorous replaced Bhakti as the bit motif and figures of speech predominantly figured in it. Poets of this age created such an environment that poetry not only became all pervasive, a thing for people at large but a convention of demonstrating one's poetical art in marriages and other such occasions. Several prominent poets of this age belonged to Uttar Pradesh viz, Behari (Mathura), Dev (Etawah), Bhushan (Kanpur), Matiram (Pratapgarh), Padmakar (Banda), Gyas (Mathura), Tosh (Allahabad), Kulpati Mishra (Agra), Beni (Fathepur), Shridhar Upadhyay (Allahabad), Rasleen (Hardoi), Beni Praveen (Lucknow), Gurudutt Bhupati (Sultanpur), Senapati (Bulandshahr), etc. The famous Bhakti poet Raskhan also belonged to this age. Although, the welcome shift which brought the poetry from royal courts to the huts of saints and Mahatmas did not last long and got established there once again.

Adhunik Kal (19th century onwards)
The political, social and cultural scenario prevailing around the middle of the 19th century those times again brought a thorough change in Hindi poetry. Its theme, which moved around kings and queens, pauranic heroes or mythical references became realistic with focus on common man and patriotism. An all round development is observed not only in poetry but prose form of literature also came into being during the modern age. Bhartendu Harish Chandra was the first literateur to make new experiments in genre of prose, poetry and drama to usher in a period of renaissance in Hindi literature.
After Bhartendu, poets like Maithili Sharan Gupta (Chiragaon Jhansi), Ram Naresh Tripathi, Ayodhya Singh Upadhyay ‘Hariaudh’, and Sridhar Pathak carried this tradition forward. Amongst the great poets of Hindi renaissance and promoters of ‘Chhayabaud’ Suryakant Tripathi ‘Nirala’, Sumitra Nandan Pant and Mahadevi Verma provided a kind of perpetuity both to Hindi as well as to Uttar Pradesh. Poets like Makhan Lal Chaturvedi, Ramdhari Singh Dinkar, Gajanand Madhav ‘Muktibodh’, Bal Krishna Sharma Navin, Gaya Prasad Shukla Snehi, Subhadra Kumari Chauhan, Siyaram Saran Gupt, Sohanlal Dwivedi and Harivansh Rai Bachchan also played prominent roles in enriching Hindi poetry. Most of these dignitaries either belonged to this State or worked here.

Besides poetry, the spectacular development in different forms of prose, novel, drama, essay, story, criticism, articles, papers, conversation, biography, memoirs, etc. in this age brought Hindi literature at par with the most developed languages of the world. The credit of developing Hindi prose, which was earlier confined to religious commentaries and letters edicts only, for behavioural uses goes to Munshi Alla Khan (Lucknow), Lallu Ji Mal (Agra) and Sadasukh Lal Niyazi (Prayag). Bhartendu made a unique effort to link Hindi language to discipline of culture. Assemblies, societies and institutes established in Agra, Bareilly, Varanasi and Prayag made extensive efforts in using Hindi for national awakening. Prominent contemporaries of Bhartendu, who further, enriched and embellished Hindi prose included Balkrishna Bhatt and Kashinath Khatri of Prayag, Radha Charan Goswami and Niwas Das of Mathura, Radhe Mohan Gokul ji (Agra), Radhakrishna Das (Varanasi), Ratnarath (Etawah), Ram Gopal Vidyant (Lucknow), Pratap Narayan Misra (Kanpur), Badri Narayan Chowdhari ‘Premdhon’ (Mirzapur) and Tota Ram Verma (Aligarh). Essay genre of Hindi literature was further adorned by Mahabir Prasad Dwivedi, Shyam Sunder Das, Acharya Ram Chandra Shukla, Prem Chand, Jai Shankar Prasad, Hazari Prasad Dwivedi, Jainendra Kumar and Dr. Sampurnand.

The discipline of story writing in Hindi, in a sense sprouted, foliated, budded and flowered in this very State and whenever mention is made of fiction writing, the name of Prem Chand, acclaimed as the Kahani-Samrat and Maxim Gorki of Hindi, stands out first and foremost.
He linked fiction to the country’s freedom movement and initiated progressive writing in Hindi. Its History from Prem Chand to Akhilesh is full of creativity. After Prem Chand, Prasad, Yashpal, Ashok, Agyey, etc., this discipline has passed through several movements and changes. Markandeya, Rajendra Yadav, Kamleshwar, Shailesh Matiyani, Giriraj Kishore, Govind Misra, Shivani, Mudra Rakshas, Raghuvir Sahai, Amrit Lal Nagar, K.P. Saxena and other authors of Uttar Pradesh, who not only maintained the constructive trend but provided a new dimension to story writing.

History of Hindi literature abundantly testify that apart from literary field, the contribution of Uttar Pradesh to the evolution and promotion of floating literature also which means journalism, has been unparallel and unforgettable. The first newspaper ‘Banaras Akhbar’, a weekly newspaper, was published in Kashvi (Varanasi) on 1st January, 1845. Since then Hindi journalism in the State continuously moved ahead. However, upto the first Indian Freedom Movement (1857), its progress was below the expectations. It was since 1861, that it consistently grew with a faster pace and an all round refinements. Its content, which was earlier confined to literature and politics, became broader to cover religious, social, economic, historical, cultural, moral, legal, national, environmental, medical and scientific aspects. Beside qualitative improvement, the number of Hindi daily and weekly newspapers coupled with weekly, fortnightly and monthly magazines went on progressively mounting with the widening of reading public particularly after the attainment of freedom (1947). Their list has become too voluminous to be accommodated here. However, a few important milestones of Uttar Pradesh in Hindi journalism is as under:-

**Milestones of Hindi Journalism**

- Uttar Pradesh brought out first Hindi newspaper *Banaras Akhbar* (weekly) edited by Govind Raghu Nath and published by Raja Shiv Prasad ‘Sitare Hindu’ in Kashi on 1st January 1845.
- The first daily newspaper *Hindustan* was also published in the state in 1887. Its editor was Pandit Madan Mohan Malviya and owner was Raja Rampal Singh of Kalakankar.
- The first Hindi digest *Saraswati* was published by Nagri Pracharni Sabha (Varanasi) in 1900. It was an illustrated magazine edited by Pandit Mahabir Prasad Dwivedi for about 15 years. It was a period, which was named as ‘Dwivedi Yug’. The publication of *Saraswati* continued for 80 years. Its other prominent editors were Padmamal Punalal Bakshi, Pt. Devidutt Shukla and Pt. Sinarayan Chaturvedi.
- The State is also credited with for publishing first feminine magazine *Bala Bodhini* in 1847. Its editor was eminent author, poet Bhartendu Harish Chandra.
- Pandit Yugal Kishore Shukla, who belonged to Kanpur (U.P.) earned the credit of becoming first editor of the first Hindi weekly newspaper *Udant Martand* published from Calcutta in 1826.
- Munshi Prem Chand, a son of Uttar Pradesh became not only the foremost novelist but brought laurels to the Hindi language in the field of journalism. He edited several periodicals, including *Jagran, Hans, Maryada* and *Madhuri*.
- A revolutionary and splendid weekly newspaper, which later on became daily, was published in Kanpur (U.P.). Its editor was a young enthusiast Babu Ganesh Shankar Vidyarthi. This newspaper became instrumental in inspiring youths to join the freedom movement. Sardar Bhagat Singh, a famous revolutionary was one of its correspondents. Committed to policy-oriented ideals and goals, this paper put forward a challenge before British administration for which it had to pay price. Ironically, Vidyarthi was killed while he was busy in providing protection to some riot affected Muslims.
With a view to providing strength, and sound footing to Hindi journalism as also give full offering in the Mahayajna of freedom struggle a Hindi daily was launched on 5th Sep. 1920 the day of Krishna Jannasthmi. Its founder was Shiv Prasad Gupta, who wanted to bring it at par with Times of London. Its first editor was Sripriakash. Other eminent personalities, who were its editor were Baburao Vishnu Paradkar, Pt. Kamlapati Tripathi, Srikanth Thakur, Ramkrishna, Raghunath Khadilkar, Vidya Bhaskar, Satendra Kumar Gupta and Shardool Vikram Gupta. Aaj newspaper is an important document of freedom movement for the period from 1920 to 1947. Besides Kashi, it is now being published from a dozen places in the State. Since 1920 till today, it is nursing and nurturing Hindi journalism.

The established newspapers which had been published since 1947 or still being published in Uttar Pradesh are: Aaj, Suvatantra Bharat, Navjeevan, Amar Ujala, Navbhurat Times, Rashtriya Sahara, Dainik Jagran, Hindustan, Amrit Prabhat, Jansatta Express, Gandeev, Janmorcha, etc.

In addition to invaluable contribution of the aforesaid State’s eminent poets and authors towards the development of Hindi, its organizational set up viz., Uttar Pradesh Hindi Sansthan, Lucknow, Nagri Pracharini Sabha, Varanasi; Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Allahabad and Hindustani Akadami, Allahabad has done equally commendable job of propagating and popularising this language. The activities of these organizations, which were earlier supervised and controlled by the National Integration Department, Higher Education and Cultural Departments are now looked after by the Language Department of the State.

Uttar Pradesh was the first state to declare Hindi as its official language in October, 1947 and since 26th January, 1968, it was made a legal binding to use Hindi in all official works.

**Urdu Language**

Urdu language and literature too is a great asset of Uttar Pradesh, which has been and is the home of most of the great men of letters. History of Urdu literature brings out notable contribution of this State. Thirteenth Century carries special significance for giving birth of this language. During this period, Amir Khusarau composed first Gazal in Urdu. It gradually developed a literature in about 500 years and it was only during the eighteenth century that its expansion, both vertical as well as horizontal, actually took place. Agra emerges as the major contributor in this regard, which produced Mirza Ghalib, the greatest Urdu poet and Mir Taqi Mir also an eminent poet. Likewise, Nazir Akbarabadi, the poet of commoners lived in Agra and died there. Lucknow has equally played significant role in this process. Nawab Asaf-ud-daula gave shelter and patronage to many poets viz, Fugan, Mir Sada, Mir Zahiq, Mir Hasan, Musafi, Insha and Jurat, who migrated from Delhi on account of disintegration of Mughal empire. The impact of change in time and place of these poets on their works was quite apparent. The Delhi School of Urdu Poetry, which was dominated by the pessimism and sarcasm was replaced by easiness, ornamental quality and artistry. These were the basic characteristics of the Lucknow School of Urdu Poetry. Amongst the poets of the latter style, Nasikh and Aatis were the prominent names. Lucknow has the honour of developing ghazal and several other forms of Urdu poetry viz, Marsia, Masnavi, Rekhti, etc. While poets like Anees and Dabber produced excellent

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11. Urdu language was evolved as the result of a necessity for carrying on exchange of ideas between the conquering Muhammadans who spoke Turki and Persian and the conquered Indians who spoke Hindi. 'Urdu' is Turki word meaning 'camp' and Urdu was originally a camp language containing words taken from Persian, Turki and Hindi. Its script is in Persian, which is written from the right to the left and its grammar and structure are Hindi in the main.
Marsiyas, Daya Shankar ‘Naseem’, Nawab Mirza ‘Shauq’, and Ahmad Ali ‘Shauq’ Kidwai gained wide recognition in Masnavis and Jab Saheb acquired mastery in Rekht. On the pattern of Lucknow, Rampur court also provided patronage to poets such as Dagh, Asar, Amir, Jalal and Taslim Nawab of Avadh Wajid Ali Shah and Agha Hasan Amanat earned a new place in Urdu poetry. Their famous works were Radha-Kanhiya Ka Rahasya and Indra Sabha respectively.

In the early part of the nineteenth century, ghazals and lyrics of Urdu poetry received new colour and direction. Noteworthy names in this regard are Brij Narayan Chakhast, Safi, Aziz Saqib and Jalal. Other such poets of Uttar Pradesh, who considerably enriched and embellished Urdu poetry are Suror Jahanabadi, Bishan Narain Dar, Naubat Rai Nazar, Dwarka Prasad Ufuk, Hasrat Mohani, Ashgar Gondvi, Akbar Allababadi, Josh Mahtababadi, Majaz, Jigar Mordabadi, Arzoo Lucknavi, Fani Badaun, Riaz Khairabadi, Firaq Gorakhpuri, Zafar Ali Khan “Asar” and Siraj Lucknavi.

Uttar Pradesh, particularly Lucknow has substantially contributed to Urdu prose also. It was this State where not only style of satire in Urdu poetry was initiated but also nurtured and brought up. Initially, Akbar Allababadi and Zarief Lucknavi followed by Rasheed Ahmad Siddiqui and Saukat Thanvi greatly contributed in developing this style. Satirical poems, articles, etc. used to be published in ‘Avadh Panch’ during the second half of the nineteenth century.

One can not escape the name of Rajab Ali Beg ‘Suroor’ of Lucknow who emerges as the foremost writer of Urdu prose. Among his works ‘Fasana-e-Ajaib’ written during the reign of Nasir-ud-din Haider of Avadh earned much fame. However, his writing style is decorative, difficult and verbose. It was only after the First War of Independence (1857) that Urdu prose became simple, lucid and intelligible. Major contribution in this context came from the novels of Maulana Abdul Halim ‘Sharar’ and Pandit Ratan Nath ‘Sarshar’. The works of Mirza Muhammad Hadi ‘Rushwa’, Munshi Sajjad Hussain, Maulana Shibli Nomani, Munshi Prem Chand and Allama Niaz Fatehpuri also added new traditions to Urdu literature.

Urdi literature will ever be grateful to Sir Sayyad Ahmad Khan, the founder of Aligarh Muslim University, who belonged to Delhi but had settled in Uttar Pradesh, for introducing new subjects viz. social reform, history, biography, education, nationalism and politics in his articles. Kamal-ud-Din Haider, Hasani-ul-Hussaini, Raja Durga Prasad, Mehar Sandilvi and Maulana Najmul Ghani are the worth mentioning Urdu historians of Uttar Pradesh, who by producing standard books on history particularly basic work on the history of Avadh brought laurels to this State.

Uttar Pradesh is also credited with establishing one of the most prominent publishing house of Urdu books in India at Lucknow. Its founder was Munshi Nawal Kishore, who, indeed rendered Yeoman like service to propagation and promotion of Urdu language by launching a newspaper Avadh Akhbar. Another famous newspaper Hamdam was also published from Lucknow. Likewise, Khadang-e-Nazar, Urdu-e-Maula, Dilkunar, Zamana, Aadeeb, Nigar, Muarrif, Kitab and Shabkoon are the noteworthy literary magazines, which were published from this State.

Uttar Pradesh played a leading role in extending and expanding progressive literature, which focused on the basic issues of the farmers, workers and weaker sections of the society. The first conference of ‘Progressive Writers’ Association was held in Lucknow. Sajjad Hussain, who was one of the founders of the Progressive Writers Association, was associated with this State. The famous progressive critic Syed Ehtisham Hussain also belonged to Uttar Pradesh. Among other eminent critics and litterateurs of Urdu language from Uttar Pradesh are Prof. Masood Hasan Rizvi, Prof. Aijaz Hussain, Dr. Mashi-ul-Zaman,
Prof. Ali Ahmad Suroor, Dr. Ibadat Barelvi, Ismat Chuqhtai, Upendra Nath Ashik, Qazi Abdul Sattar, Jan Nisar Akhtar, Wamik Jaunpuri, Ali Sardar Jafri, Majrooh Sultanpuri, Kaifi Azmi, Bekal Utsahi, Sharyar, etc.

The beginning of modern Urdu literature in 1960 again owes to Uttar Pradesh as the first literary Urdu journal *Shab Khan* was published from Allahabad. The modern mode of Urdu fiction, poetry and ghazals contained symbolic and abstract expressions and emotional agony of the modern man. Eminent litterateurs belonging to this style included Dr. Nurul Hasan Hashmi, Dr. Gyan Chandra Jain, Dr. Jafar Raza, Dr. Muhammad Hasan, Ali Javed Zaidi and Sharib Rudaulvi. Some of the critics, authors and poets of Uttar Pradesh occupy top positions in the world of Urdu literature.

Urdu was declared the second official language of the State in 1989. A number of other measures towards the promotion of Urdu, has been taken by the Govt. of Uttar Pradesh. An Urdu Academy has already been established. Necessary orders have also been issued for accepting applications etc. in Urdu. Various incentives are given to those who learn and teach Urdu. It is, thus, evident that the role of Uttar Pradesh in developing Urdu language has been very significant in the past as well as at present.

With the help of language fund, efforts have been made to publicise and popularize other languages also. To begin with, arrangements have been made at Lucknow, Allahabad and Dehradun for teaching eight Indian languages—Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam, Gujarati, Marathi, Bengali and Oriya free of charge. Later, in 1991, arrangements for teaching other four languages—Punjabi, Sindhi, Assamese and Kashmiri were made.

**Architecture, Art and Craft**

Architectural heritage of Uttar Pradesh is very old and varied. It had a number of remarkable buildings constructed in the Hindu, Buddhist, Jainis, Avadhi, Shaqqi, Mauryan, Mughal and many other styles. Such constructions were in the form of palaces, forts, stupas, temples, mosques and other monuments. Many of these still exist in Allahabad, Varanasi, Mathura, Agra, Jaunpur, Mirzapur, Kannauj, Jhansi, Lucknow and various other parts of the State but for many others we have only descriptions through the Jatakas and other ancient scriptures but no trace as yet.

**The Mauryan Period**

The art and architecture in the State during the Third Century B.C. in the Mauryan period witnessed new dimension. Ashok, the third Emperor of this dynasty, is reported to have built thousands of Stupas and Viharas at prominent places including Sarnath and Kushinagar in Uttar Pradesh but probably none has survived. However, remnants of some of his pillars, which were built with Chunar stones, found at Sarnath, Allahabad, Meerut, Kaushambi, Sankisa and Varanasi testify a high degree of knowledge of engineering as well as perfection in technical execution. They have extorted the admiration of all connoisseurs of art and sculpture. According to Sir John Marshall, the artistic merit of Lion Capital at Sarnath “stands unsurpassed by anything of their kind in ancient world”. Another important centre of Mauryan Art was Mathura. The sculptures of Yakshas and Yakshinis excavated from various places e.g. Parkham, Borada, Jhing-Ka-nagar, etc., of Mathura bring out the folk art of those times. Likewise, remnants of buildings of Shung-Satvahana period found at Sarnath and some specimen of Bharhut-Sanchi School of Art discovered in Mathura provide clear indication of various artistic activities in the State.

**The Art of Mathura**

The Mathura School of Art was at its climax during the Kushan period. Huge images of the Buddha, Jain Thirthankars and Hindu deities, particularly the anthropomorphic image of the former, carved out in
Mathura speak volumes of artistic expertise. Some of their specimens have been preserved in the museums at Lucknow, Varanasi, Mathura and Allahabad. The stone images found at Math, Bhuteshwar and other places in Mathura reveal on the one hand the way of living of those days as also foreign impact on the style of art on the other. Similarly, ruins of several monasteries, temples and stupas of that period found at Sarnath bear the testimony of quantitative as well as qualitative aspects of these constructions.

The Golden Age
The art of architecture, sculpture, painting and metallurgy were so all highly advanced that Gupta period was the golden age in the history of art in whole of India including Uttar Pradesh, where Hindu art was at its best. Stone temple of Deogarh (Jhansi) and brick temple at Bhitargaon (Kanpur) images of Vishnu, standing statue of Buddha in Mathura, the seated image of Tathagat in Sarnath museum, stone and terracotta statues found in Raighat (Varanasi), Sahet-Mahet (Gonda-Bahrain), Ahichhatra (Bareilly), etc., are the extant examples of architecture, art and craft of a super quality, which exhibit splendour, elegance and balance.

After the Gupta period (322-600 A.D.), the development of architecture and sculpture in the early medieval period in Uttar Pradesh particularly in Kannauj, Varanasi, Kalingar and Mathura has been quite remarkable. The State at that time had several forts, palaces and temples. Kannauj alone had about 10,000 ancient temples. Mahmud Ghaznavi was amazed to look at the glory and grandeur of this city, regarding which Briggs has written:

"... a city which raised its head to the skies, and which in strength and beauty might boast of being unrivalled"\(^\text{12}\).

\(^\text{12}\) Briggs, John: \textit{Rise of the Mahomedan Power in India (Tarikh-i Firishla)}, 1905 I P.57

Several grand sculptures of dancing Garpati, beautiful images of Brahma, Indra and other deities built during Gurjar-Prathihars evidently demonstrate that Kannauj was a prominent centre of art and learning and contemporary artists were not only expert in nicely, carving out different parts of the body but were proficient in background-coordination, decoration and revelation of sentiments and emotions. The greatest monastery of India known as Dham Chakra-Jain-Vihar was constructed at Sarnath by Kumar Devi, the consort of Gaharvar King Govind Chandra. The artistic beauty of Mathura temples was so charming and fascinating that it extorted praise from even the iconoclast Mahmud of Ghazni. Chandel rulers also promoted and patronised building activities. Khajuraho with its magnificent temples, Kalingar with its strong fort, Ajaygarh with its palace and Mahoba with its temples, ponds and bundhis speak out enough about their deep longings for art and architecture.

The Sultanate period, in which the growth of art and architecture remain confined to Delhi, is called a dark period for Uttar Pradesh as building activity was almost standstill. It was only during the Sharqui rule (1394-1479 A.D.) that art and culture once again gained momentum in the State particularly in Jaunpur. Mosques have been described as representing the keynote of the Islamic style. Atala Masjid, bearing a special type of architecture, was built in Jaunpur. An artistic propyleum and facilities for women to offer prayers add to its architectural significance. Beside, the fort built in Jaunpur in a very bold and graceful style, is another brilliant example of Sharquis, love for art, craft and architecture.

The Mughal Period
The Mughal period was an age of cultural magnificence, of excellence in various fields particularly art of architecture, which was at its zenith. It consistently moved ahead progressively scaling fresh heights with the construction of
several monuments in the State by Babur, Humayun, Akbar and Jahangir and reached its pinnacle with the unique monument the Taj Mahal built by Shahjahan at Agra. The architecture of this time popularly known as Mughal style of architecture bearing a happy and elegant blending of Indian and Muslim styles, making use of marble, smooth and colourful floors, delicate stone tracery and inlay work.

During this period, a number of forts, palaces, mosques, mausoleums, baths and tanks were built in bold, graceful and grand style. Though Babur constructed Mosque at Ayodhya and commissioned the construction of several other monuments, he was more fond of gardens, which were equipped with running water supplied by Persian water wheels and stepped wells, called Baolis. Likewise, only one mosque that can be attributed to Humayun has survived in Agra, though there are references to his buildings. During the reign of Akbar, the architecture further gained glory and grandeur. Akbar commissioned a number of fort palaces at strategic locations. The first of these was the Agra Fort which was completed in 1571 followed by another fort in the State at Allahabad. According to Abul Fazl, the Agra Fort contained more than five hundred stone buildings. Its main entrance was the massive Delhi Gate, decorated with inlay work in white marble. Most of the buildings within the fort were later pulled down by Shahjahan to make way for marble ones. Notable among those that survived was the Jahangiri Mahal. A special feature of this building was its intricately carved brackets. Like Agra, Fatehpur Sikri also, where Akbar lived for 15 years was also enriched with several remarkable monuments. The outstanding among them was an enormous Jami Mosque, then the largest in Mughal India. Beside an all-white marble tomb of Shaikh Salim, Akbar’s spiritual guide, is regarded as a masterpiece for its fine screens (Jalis) and carved brackets. Buland Darwaza at Fatehpur Sikri, the gigantic gateway to Jami complex is another memorable contribution of Akbar. Among the notable buildings in the complex were the Diwan-i-Aam (public audience hall), the Anup Talao, the richly carved Turkish Sultan’s House, the Khawghah (Akbar’s sleeping chamber), the Daftar Khana (Record office) and the Diwan-i-Khas (private audience hall). Apart from these public buildings, there were small multi-storied palaces for the residence of the emperor’s family and nobles. The most prominent of these were the five-tiered Panch Mahal; Jodha Bai’s Palace and Raja Birbal’s residence. Akbari monuments were gloriously forceful expressions of the growing Mughal might.

Jahangir was a patron of painting rather than architecture. The most well known building of his reign was the mausoleum he built for his father at Sikandra, near Agra, which is said to resemble the Panch Mahal at Fatehpur Sikri. At Agra Fort, Jahangir had installed life-size statues of the defeated Rana of Mewar, Amar Singh and his son, Kahan. The tomb of Itimad-ud-Daulah built by his queen Nurjahan near Agra is a specimen of architectural beauty. It is a magnificently carved monument, inlaid with semi-precious stones in marble, a technique known as ‘pietra dura’. It boasts of richly ornamented ceilings and finely carved marble screens.

Mughal architecture, after Akbar was profusely contributed by Shahjahan under whom it was at its zenith. During the reign of the former, it was marked by its grandeur while the stamp of lyrical quality and aesthetic touch it gained during the rule of the latter. The use of valuable marble of soft hues by Shahjahan in place of gaudy red colour used during Akbar’s reign allude to the diverse personalities of Akbar and Shahjahan. Shahjahan carried out excellent building works at Delhi and Agra. But the monument by which he is best known is the Taj Mahal, built in the memory of his wife, Mumtaz Mahal. The Taj Mahal monument aptly described as “a dream in marble” is a living unique example of the composite Indian
and Muslim style. It has also been described as “India’s tribute to grace of womanhood” and “a memorial to the romantic love of an emperor wrought in marble”.

After Shahjahan the growth of art and architecture witnessed a distinct decline. Aurangzeb is said to have concentrated on repairing old mosques, although he built a few new ones including those at Mathura, Varanasi and Lucknow.

**Patronage Under Nawabi Rule**

Old traditions of architectural activities, to some extent, were kept alive by the Avadh rulers as these were confined to Faizabad and Lucknow. Asaf-ud-daula’s Imambara, the mausoleum in Kaiserbagh, Lal Baradari, Shahnajaf, Husainabad Imambara, Chhatar Manzil, Moti Mahal, Kaiserbagh Palace, Dilkusha Gardens and Sikander Bagh are the most prominent buildings beside other beautiful palaces and mosques that were built under the Nawabi rule. Special features of these buildings are fish motifs at gates, domes with golden umbrellas vaulted halls, arcaded pavilions, underground chambers and labyrinths. Bara Imambara, built by Nawab Asaf-ud-daula is quite dignified and imposing. Its vaulted hall signifies typical pure Lucknow style and is said to be the largest hall of its kind in the world.

**The British Period and After**

Unlike the traditional constructions, British rulers took interest in the construction of secular buildings like schools, colleges, government offices, etc., rather than religious ones such as temples, mosques, etc. This radical change, indeed, ushered a new era in the history of architecture of the State.

**Paintings**

The roots of the art, which is today named as modern art or painting, have been existing here since ancient times.

Art has been modern in each age. Whatever new is created is always modern. Art in each age has been modern. Since ancient days, there existed venerable tradition of pictorial art. Hindus, Buddhists and Jains decorated their religious sanctuaries with carved and painted statues as well as with breathtaking splendour. Different styles of art such as Mughal, Bundel, Braj, Kandra, etc. were developed in the twentieth century. The modern painting, which has developed and flourished in the State in the last fifty years has acquired a national status. However, it is not completely free from the shadow of the styles of the gone by days. The prominent styles of painting, which flourished in the State are briefly brought out as under.

**Mughal Style**

This is also known as Agra style as it mainly developed at Agra particularly during the period of Jahangir, who was a connoisseur of drawing and painting and extended patronage to Abul Hasan and Mansur, the two great artists of his time. Earlier Abdus Samad, Mir Musavvir, Dost Mohammad and Mir Sayyed Ali were the four great artists patronized by Humayun. Likewise, among the major painters at Akbar’s court was Daswanth, who illustrated the Razinnama (the Persian translation of the Mahabhарат). Basawan was one of the prominent court artists. Men, women, buildings and natural scenes were depicted in this style of painting. Due to healthy patronage provided to artists, the art of painting scaled new heights in the Mughal period, particularly during Jahangir’s time.

**Bundel Style**

This style of painting was developed in Bundelkhand particularly in Jhansi and cities around it. This style is known for the depiction of might, strength and force through pictures.
**Braj Style**
This style was developed in Mathura and adjacent regions. This style focuses our revelation of emotions and sentiments and depiction of love in a live form. Krishna Chaitanya Bhatt, a devotee of Lord Krishna, is famous for his creations in the Braj style.

**Kandra Style**
Ancient painting found in the caves near Mirzapur helped in tracing out this style, which is also known as Mirzapur style. These paintings are reported to be the creations of great artists.

**Modern Style**
As indicated above, this style, in fact is a developed and refined form of traditional mode of painting. The modern style of painting has developed in the State after the attainment of freedom. The take-off stage development of modern painting in Lucknow or for that matter in Uttar Pradesh is traced back in 1911 when the College of Art and Craft was established at Lucknow and associated with Lucknow University. Later on, an autonomous organization of art, U.P. State Lalit Kala Academy was set up at Lucknow in 1962 followed by establishment of regional branch of Central Lalit Kala Academi at Lucknow in 1984, Shristi Kala Deergha in 1984 and formation of many such institutional framework.

The list of modern painters of Uttar Pradesh is too exhaustive to be presented here. Most prominent among them are Jagannath Murlidhar Ahilwari, an expert in several styles, Chaman Singh Chaman, an author of 80 books on painting and sculpture, Azmat Shah, known all over for his effective and emotional paintings, Badri Nath, Somanand, Nityanand, Ram Chandra, Mani Singh, Lalit Nag, Muzaffar Ali and Srikhande. Among the eminent poet-cum-painters, Mahadevi Verma, Jagdish Gupta, Akhilesh Nigam, Bipin Kumar Agarwal, Ghanshyam Ranjan and Viswanath Pratap Singh are worth mentioning.

**Music**
The history of music in Uttar Pradesh dates back to several thousand years. During the Vedic era music was deemed divine. The Upanishads refer to the singing of Samveda and also tell us about the number of musical instruments. The Ramayana repeatedly refers to dance, drama, vocal and instrumental musics. It also mentions about Yatis. Mahabharat tells us about seven swaras and Gandhar Gram. According to the Jatakas, Udayan the king of Kaushambi, who was contemporary of Buddha, was a beena maestro. Eminent names in the field of music in Uttar Pradesh from sixth to twelfth century were those of Kashyap, Shardul, Dattil Matangam, Abhirav Gupta and Haripal.

The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were very important for Uttar Pradesh in this context. During this period, Persian tunes were mingled with Indian music. Amir Khusarau had developed Sitar, which was improvised form of Triantara Veena. He had also visualised Khayal and created new Ragas having Indian and Persian musical influences. Fatehpur Sikri at that time was the centre of music, which had a number of eminent musicians live Janu Khan, Jorawar Khan, Gulam Rasool Khan, Chhote Pakhawaji, Madar Buksh, etc. The Ain-i-Akbari provides a list of thirty six highly skilled musicians at Akbar's court. The most well known among them was Tansen. Another great royal musician of that time was Swami Haridas, the Guru of Tansen, who used to stay at Vindavan. The contemporaries of Haridas was Baiju (Bawra) and others. Earlier, the Sharqi ruler of Jaunpur, Sultan Hussain Sharqi was also a great musician and had developed Bada Khayal on the pattern of Qawwali. Jahangir and Shahjahan also maintained an entourage of musicians. During the reign of Shahjahan, Jagannath, the great musician, was given the status of Panditraj. During the reign of Aurangzeb, however
music and its practitioners were made to suffer. During the period of Bahadur Shah Zafar, two famous Veena players Adarang and Sadarang, developed Bada Khyal introduced by Sultan Sharqi.

After the decline of the Mughal empire, many eminent artists came to Uttar Pradesh. The Nawab of Awadh gave them support and shelter. Faizabad and thereafter Lucknow being capital of the State during Nawabi period, became the centre of classical music and dance. Prominent musicians of Faizabad were Khushi Maharaj, who developed Tappa style in classical music, Mehndi Rahimudin Khan, Mustaribai, etc. Nawab Wajid Ali Shah, who himself was a musician, and a pupil of Thakur Prasad, the famous exponent of Kathak dance, was famous for providing state patronage to musicians.

Classical Dance
Kathak style of classical dance is a gift of Uttar Pradesh. The proponent of this style of dance was a Thakur Prasad, who gave it a new lease of life. Thumari, the musical expressions of thoughts (Bhav abhiyakti) and acting (Abhinay) was introduced in the concept of Kathak by Bindadin Maharaj, who was a nephew of Thakur Prasad. Apart from Bindadin Maharaj, Kalka Maharaj equally contributed to promote this style of dance, which was further refined, advanced and provided it a legendary form by his sons Achchan Maharaj, Lachhu Maharaj and Sambhu Maharaj as also by his grandson Birju Maharaj. The tradition was perpetuated by the sons of the latter as well. All credit goes to these experts for starting, refining and expanding this clan of dance, which is known as Lucknow Gharana or Lucknow School of Kathak. Besides Lucknow, Kashi has also been the home of many musicians and dancers of international repute. Bismillah Khan and Godaie Maharaj—the musicians and Sitara Devi and Gopi Krishna the dancers are the well known among such artists.

Folk Dances and Songs
Uttar Pradesh is said to be a gold mine of folk dances, which varies in different tribes, people and regions. Among various folk dances, Bhojpuri, Awadhi, Kannaui, Bundelkhandi, Kauravi and Braj are some of the popular folk dances as also various forms of folk music of the State. Both are inseparable. Dholak, Nagara, Ransinga, Regri, Ramoula, Kenkri, Manjeera, Hunduk, Jhanj, Kartal, etc., are the instruments, which are used in folk dances and songs in order to make them much more effective and attractive. These instruments were invented and developed in this State only.

Among various types of folk dances, Kalabazi (acrobatic skills), Jogini (at Ramnavmi), Natrivari (by Ahirs & Yadvas) and Dhobia (by Washermen) are very popular in Awadh, while Shaitra (at the time of crop harvesting), Khayal Gayan (on the occasion of birth of male child), Dhuriya Samaj Gayan (by Kumhars), Pai Panda (similar to Dandia Raas), Ras (at Janmastmi), Kartik Gayan (in Kartik month) and Devi (for the worship of goddess) are performed at various occasions in Bundelkhand region. Other folk dances are Charkula (a pitcher dance of Braj region), Pasi (a dance with seven body states performed by Pasi caste), Karma (by the tribes of Mirzapur), Chholia (prevalent in Rajput caste), Chhapeli (to express spiritual affection), etc. The famous folk songs13 of the State included Birha, Chaitua, Kajri, Rasia.

13. Birha: Songs are recited by Awadhi and Bhojpuri speaking people to highlight the feelings related to missing or meeting the beloved (Virah and Milan).
Kajri: Songs are sung in the rainy season.
Chaiti: A weather song recited in the period from Falgun Poornima to Chaitra Poornima (February-April).
Alha: A popular folk song of Bundelkhand. It is sung with a spirit of valour and patriotism.
Languria: These are the songs, mostly sung in Braj region to praise Lord Hanuman.
Rasia: A popular song of Braj region. Its main highlights are devotional feelings which are celestial, spiritual and ethereal in nature.
Alha, Languria, etc. The folk songs as also folk dances represent regional characteristics as well as bring out celebrations performed in various seasons, by different communities and at separate occasions. Among the Sanskar (purification) songs, Sohar and Vivah Geet are most famous folk songs. The former is performed to celebrate the birth of male child while the latter at the wedding ceremony. Similarly, Chaiti, Kajari and Holi are the popular weather songs. Specific folk songs are sung at the time of seed plantation and harvesting, particularly by the labour class. Likewise, religious songs, Mela (fair) songs and other such songs are meant for a particular purpose and activity.

In the development of classical music and dance, the main contribution has come from Lucknow, Faizabad, Allahabad, Varanasi, Moradabad, Saharanpur, Etawah, Agra, Rampur and other districts of the State. To cite a few, the founder of Agra Gharana was Haji Sultan, the son-in-law of Tansen. Rampur Gharana was established by Ustad Mustaq Hussain Khan, the prominent vocalist of classical music, who was awarded first Presidential medal for music in India. The internationally renowned Sitarist Pt. Ravi Shankar belongs to U.P. Likewise, credit goes to Uttar Pradesh for promoting and extending it to other parts of the country. Gauripur (Bengal) Gharana of Sitar was established by the famous Sitar maestro Nawab Inayat Khan who belonged to Etawah. Similarly, Jaipur Gharana of Kathak, was set up by Pt. Jailalji, who was pupil of Bindadin Maharaj of Uttar Pradesh.

**Fairs and Festivals**
The culture of a region or country is the quintessence of the traditions and customs and practices and usages prevalent in the past. The culture, as we have observed, has its different forms viz, religious culture, the spiritual culture, historical culture, rural culture and urban culture. All these aspects of culture are very beautifully, truly and amply represented through the colourful vibrancy of fairs and festivals.

**Fairs**
In Uttar Pradesh there are many fairs and festivals, which are celebrated with traditional gaiety and fervour to invoke divine blessings as well as for sheer joy of living. Microcosmic picture of the prominent of these is presented below.

**Ramnavmi Mela, Ayodhya**
Ayodhya Ramnavmi festival is celebrated on Navmi Tithi in month of Chaitra (April)— the birth date of Bhagwan (God) Ram and Melas (fairs) are organized all over the State. But Ramnavmi Mela of Ayodhya, the birth place of God Ram has special significance. Devotees not only from the State but from every corner of the country assemble at the Kanak Bhawan Ayodhya to worship and venerate their Lord.

**Devi Patan Mela, Balrampur**
This fair, dedicated to Goddess Patan Devi, is organized each year during Chaitra Navratra at Tulsiyar in Balrampur district. Various cultural programmes and religious ceremonies are performed in the Mela. Large number of people gather here to have darshan of the Maa and participate in these activities.

**Kumbh Mela, Prayag**
This fair is held in the month of Magh (January-February) alternatively after every twelve years (Maha Kumbh) and six years (Ardh Kumbh) on the bank of the Sangam (confluence) of three rivers— Ganga, Yamuna and Saraswati in “Tirth Raj” Prayag (Allahabad). Kumbh Mela of one month’s duration is one of the largest fair of the world. This mela attracts millions of pilgrims not only from the country but also from all over the world. They take bath in holy Sangam and perform rituals, some of them (known as kalpavasis) even daily for the whole month, with undaunted faith and devotion. Organisers of the Mela
Fairs and Festivals

The culture of a region or country is the quintessence of the traditions and customs and practices and usages prevalent in the past. The culture, as we have observed, has its different forms viz, religious culture, the spiritual culture, historical culture, rural culture and urban culture. All these aspects of culture are very beautifully, truly and amply represented through the colourful vibrancy of fairs and festivals.
make proper arrangement for the stay of pilgrims and other necessary facilities.

_Kampil Fair, Farrukhabad_

This mela is held for five days in the month of March each year. A large number of Jain devotees come here from every nook and corner of the country. There is a historical significance of Kampil, which was known as Kampilya in Mahabharat period. It was the capital of King Drupad, the father of Draupadi. It has valuable cultural treasure, viz. Mughalghat along the river Ganga constructed by emperor Aurangzab, Kapil Muni Ashram, Rameshwardham Temple, Jain Digambar Temple, Bhed Kund (where Arjun took aim at the fish here to wed Draupadi), etc. Also it happens to be the birth place of the 13th Tirthankar Brahman Vimal Nath. It assumed much importance for Jains after the visit of Lord Mahavir. Today, it is a small town in Tehsil Kayam Ganj of Farrukhabad district, situated on the bank of Ganga river.

_Bateshwar Mela, Agra_

Bateshwar, situated on the banks of Yamuna river in district Agra, has been named after the name of the presiding deity of the region, Bateshwar Mahadev. A large fair is held each year during October-November (from Shashti of the Kartik month to Panchmi of the Agrahayan month). A large number of devotees congregate here to worship Lord Shiva. Beside spiritual significance, Bateshwar is also an important cultural centre. It has 108 temples of Hindu gods and goddesses. The mela is also famous for a large scale marketing of livestock.

_Shravan Jhula Mela, Ayodhya_

It is a major fair, which is held in Ayodhya each year on the third day of the second half of Shravan and lasts till the end of the month. The images of the deities, particularly of Ram, Lakshman and Sita, are placed on the swings of the temples and also taken to Maniparvat, where idols are made to swing from the branches of the trees. Pilgrims all over the country and also from abroad throng here to perform worship and take holy dip in the river Saryu.

_Dadri Mela, Ballia_

Dadri is located at a distance of about 5 kms from Ballia town. It is the place where Dardar Muni, son of Bhrigu Rishi, mental son of Lord Brahma, undertook penance. In his memory, Ballia Municipal Board organises a two week long fair on Kartik Poornima. It is estimated that about 4 lakh people come in the mela from different parts of Uttar Pradesh and neighbouring states. Apart from a large amalgam of people, the cattle assembly in this fair is stated to be the largest in the State.

_Dewa Mela, Barabanki_

Dewa is situated at a distance of about 40 kms from Barabanki. A big fair is held every year in Kartik month on the occasion of the Annual ‘urs’ of the famous Sufi Saint Waris Ali Shah. A large number of people both Muslim as well as Hindu devotees come here from far and wide and offer ‘Chadar’ on his mazar.

_Purnagiri Mela_

It is situated at a distance of 24 kms from Tanakpur. A large fair is organized in the month of Chaitra each year. A puranic significance is attached to this place. According to Puranas, when Sati immolated herself and Lord Shiva passed from this place carrying her body, some parts of her body fell here.

Besides, there are many other important fairs in the State viz. Garh Mukteshwar Mela (Ghaziabad), Shaheed Mela (Hapur), Shivaratri Mela, Lodheswar (Barabanki), Radhashmti Mela, Barsana (Mathura), Dauji Mela (Mathura), Bithoor Mela, Kanpur, etc., which attract lakhs of pilgrims each year from all over the country.
Festivals
The cultural significance of each festival, whether it belongs to Hindus, Muslims, Sikhs, Buddhists, Jains, or Christians, is too obvious to be clarified. In nutshell, however, it may be mentioned that each festival teaches us about dedication, devotion, self-abnegation, love, and sacrifice. The children, too imbibe these values along with us. These are the qualities that are replicated more by example rather than mere teaching. Needless to emphasize that such values are vital not only for the family but also for the society and strengthen relationship through sharing and caring. Uttar Pradesh is quite rich in this respect as people of different religions reside in different parts of the State, where their festivals are celebrated with great zeal and enthusiasm. There are as many as 40 festivals belonging to different religions, that are celebrated in the State each year. Important Hindu festivals are Deepawali, Holi, Dashehra, Krishna Janmashtmi, Ram Navmi, Neg Panchmi, Hal Shashthi, Harkalika Teej, Pitra Vistarjan Amawasya, Karwa Chauth, Bhai Dooj, Devuthani Ekadashi, Kartik Purnima, Sankat Chauth, Makar Sankranti, Basant Panchmi, Shitala Ashtami, Raksha Bandhan and Shivaratri.

The Buddhists celebrate Buddha Purnima. Likewise, Jains celebrate Mahavir Jayanti and Sikh Gurus Nanak Birthday.

Ramjan, Id-uz-Zuha, Moharram, Id-ul-Fitr, Barawafat and Shabe-e-barat are the important festivals of Muslims. New year’s day, Good Friday, Easter and Christmas are the main festivals of Christians.

Important Cities and Their Life Style
Important places, towns and cities having historical significance have already been elaborated at necessary places in the previous chapter. However, there are a few cities, which represent our cultural heritage, life style such as Shame-a-Avadh (evening of Avadh), Subah-e-Banaras (morning of Banaras), etc., and are indeed centres of attraction for the tourists, pilgrims, artists and research scholars, have been briefly brought out here even at the cost of repetition.

Shaam-e-Awadh: Lucknow
Lucknow, the capital of Uttar Pradesh, extends along the banks of the river Gomti. The ancient city of Lucknow (known as Lakshmanpuri), according to legends, was founded by Lakshman, the younger brother of Lord Ram. There is still an old mound here, which is called Lakshman Tila. However, the founder of modern Lucknow was Nawab Asaf-ud-Daula, who beautified the city by constructing some breathtaking monuments like the famous Roomi Darwaja, the Imambara and other grand buildings such as Asafi Mosque, Daulatkhana, the Residency, Bibiapur Kothi and Chowk Market. The sixty feet Roomi Darwaja is a facsimile of one of the gates of Constantinopole, which was built to create employment opportunities during the terrible famine of 1784. Likewise, Asafi Imambara has the largest vaulted hall in the world. Incredibly, the enormous roof of the building (also known as Bara Imambara) is not supported by any beam or pillar. Thereafter, Nawab Ghazi-ud-din Haider, Mohammad Ali Shah and Nasir-ud-din Haider also beautified this city with a number of splendid constructions which remind us the legacy of the golden era. Besides these unforgettable buildings, the city became the centre of music and Urdu poetry, coupled with unique courtesy (adab & lahjeb). It reached its zenith during the reign of Nawab Wajid Ali Shah, the last Nawab of Awadh. A number of spacious and charming gardens are all around the city. The love and craze for gardens in the city can be gauged from the name of various Mohallas of the city which were suffixed with 'bagh' viz Qaiserbagh, Lalbagh, Sikanderbagh, Badshahbagh, Nazarbagh, Khurshedbagh, Charbagh, etc. Keeping this very fact in view regarding the availability of different varieties of plants and trees in the city, the National Botanical Garden
was set up here. Besides, Lucknow has highest number of research institutes viz, Central Drug Research Institute (CDRI), Industrial Toxicology Research Institute (ITRC), National Botanical Research Institute (NBRI) and Central Institute of Medical and Aromatic Plants (CIMAP).

The Lucknow shot to fame during the period of the Nawabs of Avadh. The evening of Avadh (Shama-e-Avadh), represented by the city of Lucknow, during those days was well known for its beauty, pleasantness and commotion. The echoes of musical sounds were heard all over in the chowk, the main market, which was very famous for its elaborate cuisine and chikankari or exquisite shadow work embroidery on fine muslin cloth. The other well known market was Aminabad, which is so even today. Two types of sweets Revari and Gazak as also two kinds of ice-creams namely Kulfi and Falooda were the main attractions of this market. Hazratganj was yet another sophisticated marketing centre developed by Nawabs. People of the city in their traditional costumes seldom missed any chance to visit and pass their evenings in these markets coming mostly on horse driven vehicles viz. Tanga (a two-wheeled carriage) and Bagghi (a four wheeled carriage). These vehicles may be seen even today particularly in old Lucknow.

Subah-e-Banaras: Varanasi (Kashi)

Like Lucknow, which is famous for its Sham-e-Avadh, Varanasi is well known for its Subah-e-Banaras. The poet and authors have described the beautiful morning of Banaras, now known as Varanasi (located between river Varuna and Assi, therefore named Varanasi). The ancient name of this sacred city is Kashi. It commands the same status as the Rome and the Mecca. As regards its classical tradition, it surpasses all the civilizational centres of the world.

It is said that a person who dies in Kashi attains Moksha(cession) from the circle of life and death.

According to Pandit Gopinath Kabiraj, the spiritual air of this place is such that his soul leaves the body and goes straight to Brahmmanda, while at another place, it is carried away by the wind of one's own Karma and so many other factors. There are many legends about this mysterious city, which underline that whosoever came here was captivated by its charm; the river Ganga has changed her natural course and began to flow from south to north (uttaravahini); when mango, the king of fruits, came to Banaras became lame (langara aam) so that it may not go elsewhere; and when Harish Chandra, the most illustrious and truthful king whose adherence to his words is proverbial, came to Varanasi, he was sold to a Doma. Whatever exaggeration, ethnocentricism and superstition, these old romances may carry, they certainly give an idea of an ineffable charm, reverence and affection, the Hindus of different classes and from different linguistic regions of India have for this puzzling sacred city.\textsuperscript{14}

In the morning, crowds of pilgrims followed by rapacious Pandas (Brahman guide) on the various Ghats, particularly on the Dasashwamedha Ghat situated on the banks of the river Ganga, offer a very charming scene. One can also enjoy the wrestling of the two young robust Ahirs on Akhara Gadhant Nath, which is at the right side of Dasashwamedha Ghat. Also there are a number of Akharas (wrestling arena) named after various sanyasis and naga. Those who take holy dip in the Ganga or do wrestling practice speak Har Har Mahadeva and \textit{Lam Bam Bholey}.

There are numerous temples and shrines in Kashi viz, Vishwanath Temple, Annapurna Temple, Sankat Mochan, Durga Temple, Tulsi Manas Mandir, the University Vishwanath Temple, Sakshi Vinayak Temple, Panchratna Temple, etc. Among the 'Kunds' and 'Vapis', the notable ones are Durga Kund, Puskur Kund, Pishach Mochan, Pashupati Mochan.

Kapildhara, Lolark, Mansarovar and Mandakini. It has many ghats, famous among them being Assi, Tulsi, Harish Chandra, Ahilyabai, Dashashwamedha and Manikarnika. But most popular is the Vishwanath temple which was constructed by Rani Ahilyabai of Indore in 1777. Later on, in 1839, Maharaja Ranjeet Singh of Punjab gilded this temple. Another temple of Vishwanath enshrined in the campus of the Banaras Hindu University is also very attractive. It represents the most modern phase of sacred tradition in Kashi. Sankat Mochan, which houses the image of the deity Hanuman, attracts large crowds of devouts.

People of Banaras has unique culture popularly known as Banarasi culture and have self-identification. A person belonging to the Banarasi culture has a distinct life style identifiable by his dress, food, drink, dialects, manners, sense of humour and habit. Masti, Phakaran and Akharpan denote the basic cultural characteristics of a Banarasi. These terms have been used as such since they hardly have any substitute in any language. Similar uniqueness one can find in Banarasi pan (betels) and sweets, for which they are famous all over the world.

\textbf{Tirthraj Prayag: Allahabad}

Prayag is a Sangam Nagri which means the city of confluence of river the Ganga, the Yamuna and unseen river the Saraswati. The ancient name of Allahabad is Prayag. At sangam, a grand fair, known as Kumbh Mela is organized after every twelve years, which attracts around a crore people from all over the world.

It acquired much significance during the period of Maharaj Harsh and Ashok and later during the reign of emperor Akbar who had got a fort re-built here, which still exists. Further, it became the first capital of the State during British rule which added more value to this city. University of Allahabad was the first university of the province established by the Britishers. Allahabad is also the native place of Nehru family, whose parental residence, Anand Bhavan exists even today. Besides sangam, these monuments attract the visitors from far and wide.

\textbf{Taj Nagri: Agra}

The Taj Nagri, where the world famous the Taj Mahal is located is the other name of Agra. The old name of Agra was Akbarabad, which was the capital of Mughal empire till Shahjahan shifted the seat of power to Delhi. The Taj Mahal was built by Shahjahan three and half centuries ago in the memory of his beloved queen Mumtaj Mahal. It was constructed in about twenty two years (1632-1653) and fifty lakh of rupees were spent in those days to complete it. This unique monument, called ‘a dream in marble’, is still rightly regarded as one of the seven wonders of the world for its beauty and magnificence. It still stands in all its glory on extensive grounds on the bank of Yamuna river and attracts thousands of visitors from all over the world.

Apart from the Taj, the city boasts of the famous fort, built by the emperor Akbar, the Jama Masjid, built by princes Jahan Ara, the tomb of the Etmaiduddaula and the tomb of Akbar at Sikandara near this historical city. Fatehpur Sikri is yet another centre of attraction, where Akbar had temporarily shifted his capital and built a number of beautiful buildings beside a big fort.

The state government organizes Taj Mahotsav in the month of November each year in which a large number of people from all corners of the world come and see it. Apart from historical significance, Agra has now become an industrial centre, particularly of leather and shoe industry and foundry industry.

\textbf{Great Seat of Learning: Aligarh}

Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh is not only the prestigious university of the State but most reputed seat of learning well known all over the world. In order to
propagate English education amongst the Indian Muslims, Sir Sayyad Ahmad Khan, a great reformer and educationist, founded Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh in 1875, which was provided the status of university in 1920, called the Aligarh Muslim University. It has produced many talented young Muslim graduates of great ability and erudition.

Today, Aligarh Muslim University, like all other major universities all over the world, has all academic facilities. However, it is particularly known for its departments of History and Urdu, which are considered to be unmatched. It is also known for its Women's College, which is a mini university.

Apart from the great seat of learning, Aligarh town is well famous for its lock and biscuit industries, besides being centre of handicrafts and metalware.

Manchester of the East: Kanpur

Kanpur situated on the banks of river Ganga, is the largest industrial city of the State. It is also known as "the Manchester of the East" on account of a large number of textile factories located here. Besides the textile industry, leather, plastic, and other industries have made it most prominent commercial and industrial centre of Uttar Pradesh.

Kanpur, which was called Cawnpur during the British rule, is well known for its historic, religious and cultural past. It happened to be the headquarter of a large Indian garrison during the Independence War of 1857.

Krishna Janmasthili: Mathura

Mathura is the birth place of Lord Krishna. It is one of the seven great holy cities of India. Lakhs of pilgrims come here every year to visit the famous Dwarikadhish Temple and Vishramghat. Besides these and various other temples, an oil refinery set up here, have enhanced the significance of Mathura.

District Mathura has indeed a treasure of religious centres such as Vrindaban, Nandgaon, Govardhan, Barsana and Dauji, which are situated at a distance of about 10 km to 48 km from Mathura city. These places are so attractive and culturally rich that any visitor going to Mathura can hardly escape these places. To mention briefly, Vrindaban situated on the banks of river Yamuna, alone has as many as 4000 temples, the most famous being Govind Dev Temple, Rangnath Temple, Behariji Temple, Radha Vallabh Temple, Radhavaman Temple, Gopinath Temple, etc. Nidhivan and Sewakunj are famous forest resorts and Vanshivat, Kalidah and Keshayghat are important ghats of the river Yamuna in Vrindavan. Nandgaon is situated at foot of hillock, where Nand Baba had his house. On the top of the hillock is a big temple, considered by the Hindus as a sacred place. A Govardhan, there is a beautiful temple of Haridev, built by Raja Bhagwan Das of Amber during the reign of Akbar, near the vast lake, known as Manasi Ganga. Barsana has the distinction of being the birth place of Radha, the beloved of Lord Krishna. Its original name was Brahma Sarini. Barsara is situated on the slope of a hill. Four prominent peaks are said to symbolize divinity and adorn the temples constructed in honour of Ladhiji, a local name of Radha. A fair is held every year on the occasion of Radhashtmi. The celebration of Holi festival in Barsana is a peculiar one, which is called 'Lathmar' Holi. On the occasion of this colourful festival ladies and gents assemble in groups and the ladies strike with sticks their counterpart gents. Yet another attraction is of Dauji. In the centre of the town is the famous temple of Baldev (Dauji), the elder brother of Lord Krishna. Two fairs are held here every year one on the sixth day of the bright fortnight of Bhadrapada, known as Deochat and other on the Purnima (full moon) day of Agravahan.

Ram Nagri: Ayodhya

Ayodhya, situated on the banks of river Saryu in district
Faizabad, is among the seven great cities of India and most important place of pilgrimage for Hindus. It has the distinction of being the birth place of Lord Rama. It remained the capital of famous Ikshwaku dynasty kings for long. There are a number of places in Ayodhya which are said to be associated with Lord Rama, Sita and Dasrath. Ramnavmi Festival celebrated each year in the month of April in Ayodhya is very famous, which pulls people from far and wide to Kanak Bhawan to venerate their Lord Ram.

POLICY AND DEMOCRATIC DECENTRALISATION

Polity constitutes as a basic input for the development of a society. A system of government, which ensures people's active participation and fullest realization of individual capabilities as well as institutional and communities capacities, is considered as the best form of human government. It is in this perspective that this chapter attempts to present, in brief, the constitutional set-up, the frame-work of executive and judiciary as also the process of democratic decentralisation in the state of Uttar Pradesh.

Constitutional Set-up
Under the constitution of India, the state of Uttar Pradesh is an integral part of the Indian Union. Accordingly, the State has a Governor and a bi-cameral Legislature since 1937. The Lower House is called Vidhan Sabha and Upper House, Vidhan Parishad.

As per constitutional provisions, the executive power of the Government is vested in the Governor. He is appointed by the President of India, holds office for five years. Any Indian citizen, who is not less than 35 years of age is eligible for appointment as Governor. His pay, allowances, powers and privileges are as per provisions of the Constitution of India.

The Constitution provides a Council of Ministers, with a Chief Minister at its head, to aid and advise the Governor in the exercise of his functions. The Governor appoints the Chief Minister and other Ministers are appointed by the
Chief Minister. The Council of Ministers is collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly of the State.

Vidhan Sabha
The Uttar Pradesh Vidhan Sabha has a total of 404 members including one Anglo-Indian member who is nominated by the Governor. Prior to 1967, it had a strength of 431 members including one nominated Anglo-Indian member. According to the Delimitation Commission, which is appointed after every census, the State has been divided into 425 Vidhan Sabha constituencies. After the formation of separate Uttarakhand State, this has reduced to 404. The term of Vidhan Sabha is five years unless dissolved earlier. The election for it is held on the principle ‘One Adult One Vote’. The Vidhan Sabha has the power to frame rules for regulating and laying down the procedure for the conduct of its business. All the matters coming before the House are decided by majority of vote. The quorum of the House is one tenth of its membership.

House Committees
A number of Committees have been set-up to examine the matters in detail which comes before the House. These are as follows:

Delegated Legislative Committee
It examines rules and by-laws framed by the Government under power vested in it under the various Acts and the Constitution.

Estimates Committee
It examines the estimates presented in the House.

Public Accounts Committee
It examines the report of the Comptroller and Auditor General (CAG) of India relating to the State and sees whether the money spent was actually available or not and had been spent for the purpose for which it was earmarked by the House. Uttar Pradesh is the first State to accept the principle that the Chairman of Public Accounts Committee should be from the Opposition. The State has been following the convention since 1948, while it was adopted by the Lok Sabha only after 1967.

Public Undertakings and Corporation Committee
It was set up only recently after the establishment of several public sector undertakings in the State. In order to ensure accountability of public sector undertaking to the Legislature as also to preserve their autonomy, it examines their working and gives them directions so that they may function efficiently, economically and without any unnecessary interference from the Government.

Special Committees
Besides the aforesaid Legislative and Financial Committees, there are other committees to assist in the conduct of the business of the House. The Assurance Committee examines the assurances given by the Government in the House. The Privileges Committee examines cases of violation of privileges raised in the House, while Petition Committee looks into the petitions submitted to the Vidhan Sabha. House Committee deals with the boarding and lodging facilities of the members. The Business Advisory Committee allots and regulates time for business before the House.

Uttar Pradesh has also the distinction of setting up of a Parliamentary Studies Committee to study parliamentary affairs and give its suggestions. There is another committee to look after the welfare of Scheduled Castes/Tribes and Denotified Tribes to advise the ministers.

Vidhan Parishad
Vidhan Parishad is a permanent House. Its members are elected or nominated for six years and one-sixth of them
retire every second year. It has 108 members, 12 of whom are nominated by the Governor. Thirty-nine members each are elected by the Vidhan Sabha and Local Bodies and nine each by the teachers and graduates. The presiding officers of Vidhan Parishad are known as Chairman and Deputy Chairman. They are elected and hold office like the presiding officers of Vidhan Sabha. Members of both the Houses and Committees have the same privileges and powers as those of the members of the House of Commons in the United Kingdom.

Both the Houses of Legislature have their own separate Secretariats and Secretaries. Both the Secretariats, independent of State Government Secretariat, have been divided into sections, which look after parliamentary, accounts and committee work. There is also a library for the use of the members of the Legislature. It is the biggest library in the country.

Leader of Opposition
An important and pioneering contribution made by Uttar Pradesh in the democratic process is the provision of office of the Leader of Opposition by an Act. Under the new dispensation, he has been given a status, pay, allowances residential and other facilities at par with that of a minister. According to the act, the leader of the single largest recognized opposition party, having strength to make up the quorum is recognized as the Leader of Opposition.

The Executive
There is a separate Government Secretariat, headed by a Chief Secretary, in Lucknow to assist and advise the Council of Ministers. Other Principal Secretaries and Secretaries function as the head of their respective departments, assisted by Special Secretaries, Joint Secretaries, Deputy Secretaries, Under Secretaries and other officers. The disposal of departmental work is mainly the responsibility of the Minister, who issues standing orders and directives.

Most departments of the Secretariat have heads of departments and heads of offices under their administrative control, who function as the executive authorities of the Government. All the Government orders are issued in the name of the Governor but are signed by the Secretary or officers under him down to the rank of Under Secretary. The work of Government is conducted in Hindi, in Devnagri Script. The Principal Secretaries, Secretaries, Special Secretaries, Joint Secretaries and Deputy Secretaries are appointed from the Central or State Administrative Services. Mostly, Under Secretaries and some Deputy, Joint and Special Secretaries are also appointed from the officers of the permanent Secretariat Services. Officers in Judicial and Legislative Departments are appointed from the Judicial Services.

Divisional Administration
Divisional Commissioner, after the Secretariat and Heads of Departments, occupies an important place. He is fully responsible for law and order, revenue administration and other matters pertaining to his division. He has to exercise supervision over the district officers, local bodies and planning and development work. At present, there are 17 Divisional Commissioners in the State.

District Administration
Each division consists of certain districts. Each district is under the administrative charge of District Magistrate or Deputy Commissioner. He is fully responsible for the law and order in his district and has extensive administrative, police and revenue powers. Besides, he has also to look after planning and development and land reforms. The district is further divided into tehsils, blocks and villages for administrative convenience, revenue collection and development works.
The Judiciary
In respect of civil and criminal cases, the High Court is the highest court in the State. Article 277 of the Constitution provides the High Court, the power of superintendence over all other courts and tribunals. Records, i.e. works and proceedings of the High Court serve as perpetual evidence, which cannot be challenged in any lower court. As a court of record, it has also the power to punish persons guilty of its contempt.

The Chief Justice of the High Court is appointed by the President of India on the advice of the Supreme Court of India and the Governor of the State. Other judges are appointed by the Governor on the advice of the Chief Justice. A person, who is citizen of India and has practiced in any High Court as an advocate for at least ten years or held office in any Judicial Service for the same period, is eligible for the post of High Court Judge. The High Court is empowered to write to any person or officer for protecting the fundamental rights enshrined in the Constitution.

Subordinate Judicial Service
The Subordinate Judicial Service has been divided into two parts — the U.P. Civil Judicial Service and the U.P. Higher Judicial Service. The former consists of Munsifs and Civil Judges including Small Cause Court Judges and the latter of Civil and Session Judges (now Additional District Session Judge). At the district level, District Judge is the controller of Subordinate Judicial Service. The Jurisdiction of District Judge extends to more than one revenue district in some cases.

The Munsif’s Court is the lowest court in the civil matters. The next higher court is that of the Civil Judge. The highest court at the district level is that of the District Judge. In criminal cases, the Munsif has the powers of a Judicial Magistrate. From October 2, 1967, the Judicial Magistrates, who were hitherto under the Government, have been placed under the High Court. Thus, there is now complete separation of judiciary from the executive except for revenue matters. On the revenue side, there are Assistant Collectors, above them are Additional Collectors and Collectors, who have appellate jurisdiction. Higher ups are Divisional Commissioners and Additional Commissioners, who exercise appellate jurisdiction. The Board of Revenue is the highest court in revenue matters.

Nyaya Panchayats
Under the Uttar Pradesh Panchayat Raj Act, Nyaya Panchayats have also been set up. On the civil side, they can hear certain specified cases up to a value of Rs. 500. In minor criminal cases, they are competent to impose fine up to Rs. 100 under the IPC other laws. However, they are not empowered to give prison sentence.

U.P. Public Service Tribunals
Uttar Pradesh Public Service Tribunal was set up in 1976 with an objective to render speedy and cheaper justice to the government servants.

Lok Ayukt
Lok Ayukt is an independent officer, who is generally, a retired High Court Judge. The State Lok Ayukt was appointed on 14 November, 1975 under the Uttar Pradesh Lok Ayukt and U.P. Lok Ayukt Act, 1975 to investigate complaints against the public servants of the State, including ministers of government, legislators, governments of all categories, notified authorities of local bodies, public officials of corporations, etc. The Uttar Pradesh Lok Ayukt and U.P. Lok Ayukt (Amendment) Act was passed in 1989 through which this authority was invested with the power to investigate into the cases of appointments made in violation of the reservation quota for the members of the SC/ST.

Lok Ayukt is particularly of help to the persons belonging to the weaker sections, who do not want to go to the Court, or are unable to engage a lawyer due to lack of
funds but can patiently wait for sometime. The objective of Lok Ayukt is to help aggrieved parties with limited resources.

**Democratic Decentralisation**

The institution of Gram Panchayat in the country in one form or the other was prevalent since time immemorial. Uttar Pradesh happens to be a pioneer state in establishing these institutions as early as 1947 with an enactment known as Panchayati Raj Adhiniyam 1947. However, it is through 73rd and 74th amendments in the Constitution of India that a historic change was brought in the process of democratic decentralization, bestowing administrative and financial powers to Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). These constitutional amendments promised institutionalization of a third stratum of Government at the local level.

In compliance of Mandatory Provisions of 73rd Constitutional Amendment Part-I, following steps were taken by the government of Uttar Pradesh towards the process of decentralization:

- Provision made for reservation for SC/ST and women.
- Term of Panchayats made for five years. Any Panchayat if dissolved before the expiry of its term, fresh election within six months.
- PRIs of all the three levels i.e. village, block and district level elected and constituted, first in 1995 and thereafter in 2000. The constituted three tier Panchayati Raj bodies included 52028 Gram Panchayats (Village level), 813 Kshetra Panchayats (Block level or intermediary level) and 70 Zila Panchayats (District level).
- Indirect election of Chairperson of intermediary and District Panchayats.
Lotus Foundation, Fatehpur Sikri

Bhyore College, Allahabad
As regards compliance of Optional Provisions (subject to the discretion of the State Government) of 73rd Constitutional Amendment, Part-IX, following measures have been taken:

- Transfer of functionaries, functions and funds.
- Powers to Gram Sabha.
- Mode of election of Chairperson of Panchayat at village level.
- Reservation of OBCs.
- Authorisation of panchayats to decide taxes, duties, tolls and fees.
- Provision for maintenance of accounts and auditing of panchayats.

Provisions have also been made to review the status of PRIs in respect of conduct of panchayat elections, devolution of financial powers, transfer of funds, functions and functionaries, empowerment of Gram Sabha and committees for execution of functions.

Part-IX of the Constitution intends to bring about ‘devolution’ type of democratic decentralization. Keeping in view the spirit of decentralization and proper functioning of panchayats, 6 committees, viz, Planning and Development Committee, Education Committee, Construction Work Committee, Health & Welfare Committee, Administrative Committee and Water Management Committee, have been constituted at every tier of Panchayat to look after their specific function. At least one member each from SC/ST, OBC and women shall represent in every committee. The members of the committee will be nominated by the Panchayat from its elected members.

In the above context, it needs mention that Constitution of Planning and Development Committee for the formulation of development plans and their execution at each level of Panchayats marks the beginning of the process of participatory planning at every level of Panchayats, which will go a long way in achieving the
long cherished goal of growth with social justice. Provision has also been made for imparting training to Panchayat officials so as to enable them to understand their duties and functions and to perform the same according to rules and to properly maintain the records.

**Urban Local Bodies**

As a follow-up action of the 74th Amendment Act 1992, the Government of Uttar Pradesh has initiated the system of democratic governance up to the grass root level in Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) through bringing an act known as Uttar Pradesh Local Self Government Laws (Amendment) Act, 1994. Important features of this Act are as under:

- U.P. Town Area Act, 1914 repealed.
- Three category of ULBs (628) created:
  - Nagar Nigams (Municipal Corporations) - 12
  - Nagar Palika Parishads (Municipal Boards) - 195
  - Nagar Panchayats (Town Panchayats) - 422
- Functional domain expanded:
  - Providing water supply for domestic, industrial and commercial purposes.
  - Establishing, maintaining and assisting maternity centre and child welfare and birth control clinics and promoting population control, family welfare and small family welfare.
  - Regulating tanneries.
  - Construction and maintenance of parking plots, bus stops and public convenience.
  - Promoting urban forestry and ecological aspects and protection of environments.
  - Safeguarding the interests of weaker sections of society including handicapped and mentally retarded.
  - Promoting cultural, educational and aesthetic aspects.

- Constructing and maintaining cattle ponds and preventing cruelty to animals.
- Slum improvement and upgradation.
- Urban poverty alleviation and facilities such as gardens, public parks and playgrounds.
- Powers regarding the framing and making bye-laws delegated.
- The power of making rules for Nagar Palika and Nagar Parishad, which was earlier vested in the State Government, has now been delegated to the Divisional Commissioners.
- Financial powers of ULBs enhanced as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ULBs</th>
<th>Authority</th>
<th>Before 74th Amendment</th>
<th>After 74th Amendment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nagar Nigam</td>
<td>Nagar Ayukt</td>
<td>upto Rs. 10,000</td>
<td>upto Rs. 1,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagar Palika Parishad</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>upto Rs. 10,000</td>
<td>upto Rs. 50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagar Panchayats</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>upto Rs. 3,000</td>
<td>upto Rs. 15,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Devolution of State Revenues substantially increased.
  - 7 per cent of tax receipts of the State Government transferred. Respective shares of ULBs are—Nagar Nigam- 3.12%, Nagar Palika Parishads- 3.12% and Nagar Panchayats- 0.76%.
- Imposition of all types of taxes enumerated in the Act made compulsory since September 23, 1998.
- In conformity with the spirit of 74th amendment, the system of Self Tax Assessment introduced in 12 Municipal Corporations in the first place.
- Provisions made to constitute District Planning Committee for the formulation of development Plan of the District.

**Decentralisation of Planning Process**

With the aforesaid initiatives and measures taken by the
State Government to implement the obligations, both mandatory as well as optional of the 73rd and 74th amendments, not only the process of democratic decentralization has been strengthened but the active participation of PRIs and ULBs in the system of decentralized planning has also been ensured by according constitutional status to Panchayats and their participation in the plan formulation and implementation at all the three-tier Panchayati Raj System viz. Gram Panchayat, Kshetra Panchayat and Zila Panchayat would prepare development plan for its area each year.

7

INFRASTRUCTURE

Introduction
A proper and adequate development of infrastructure both economic as well as social is considered as a sine-qua-non for a higher and sustained growth of an economy. It is so because of high backward and forward linkages, the growth of infrastructure induces commodity producing sectors and other key sectors of the economy. Since infrastructural activities involve huge costs and have a long gestation period, infrastructural facilities in the Keynesian model of development, are supposed to be made available by the public sector. The concept of public sector monopoly in developing the basic infrastructure for social welfare became now obsolete with the structural reform policies being adopted all over the world. In contrast, it is argued that economic rationality of efficiency based competitive market structure should govern the economic activities. Its rationality has now been accepted in the country also and accordingly a number of policies initiatives have been taken both by the Central as well as State Governments.

In consonance with the national policies and strategies of infrastructural planning for higher economic growth, the State government has been promoting its infrastructure. Prior to analyzing the physical achievement in respect of important economic and social infrastructures in the State during various plan periods, it appears relevant to briefly look upon their respective shares in the total outlay of various plans, in view of the fact that creation of such
Table 7.1
Plan Expenditure in Uttar Pradesh During Different Plan Periods (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Heads</th>
<th>First Plan</th>
<th>Second Plan</th>
<th>Third Plan</th>
<th>Fourth Plan</th>
<th>Fifth Plan</th>
<th>Sixth Plan</th>
<th>Seventh Plan</th>
<th>Eighth Plan</th>
<th>Ninth Plan</th>
<th>First to Ninth + Plan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Economic Infrastructure</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Power</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Irrigation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Transport* Roads</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Social Infrastructure</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Education</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Medical &amp; Health</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Water supply &amp; Sanitation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Others</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Plan documents, Uttar Pradesh
* including roads
+ including annual plans 1966-69, and 1990-92.
Bracketed figures denote total expenditure in Rs. crore.

Economic and Social Infrastructure
The combined share of economic infrastructure in the Fifth Plan, a level which was in the Sixth Plan to 44% in the Ninth Plan, has consistently increased from 41% in the First Plan to 65% in the Fifth Plan. But thereafter, it shows a decreasing trend going down to 50% in the Sixth Plan to 57% in the Seventh Plan. The economic infrastructure is now an area of critical need and it is imperative that due importance be given to it in future plans.

The highest (66%) share of economic infrastructure is in the Major Component sub-schemes of the Fifth Plan. But thereafter, it shows a decreasing trend going down to 40% in the Sixth Plan to 44% in the Seventh Plan. The highest (66%) share of economic infrastructure is in the Major Component sub-schemes of the Fifth Plan. But thereafter, it shows a decreasing trend going down to 50% in the Sixth Plan to 57% in the Seventh Plan. The economic infrastructure is now an area of critical need and it is imperative that due importance be given to it in future plans.

In this context, it is important to note that the share of education in the Sixth Plan has increased from 15% in the Fifth Plan to 17% in the Sixth Plan, as well as in the Seventh Plan. Average share for the whole period under analysis comes out to be 14%. The share of education and medical and health sub-sectors has substantially reduced, the former from 13% in

The contents of the table 7.1 indicate an increasing trend in the share of economic infrastructure from 44% in the Sixth Plan to 50% in the Seventh Plan. It is important to note that the share of education in the Sixth Plan has increased from 15% in the Fifth Plan to 17% in the Sixth Plan, as well as in the Seventh Plan. Average share for the whole period under analysis comes out to be 14%. The share of education and medical and health sub-sectors has substantially reduced, the former from 13% in...
the First Plan to 7% in the Ninth Plan and the latter from 9% to 3% in the corresponding period. Water supply and sanitation has been accorded comparatively higher priority in the recent past. Its share during the Ninth Plan was highest 6%, which was just 1% in the Second Plan. Other sectors of infrastructure, although, present a zig-zag trend in the overall period, its share being 45% in the Second Plan and lowest of 25% in the Fifth Plan, yet the share of other sectors rising consistently from 25% in the Fifth Plan to 41% in the Ninth Plan, does indicate an increasing trend, which is not a healthy sign because resources on these sectors were not meant for creation of assets and were not contributing to capital formation, as these were primarily meant for discharging other obligations of the State.

Power
Among the economic infrastructure, power is considered as the most critical sector in view of its forward linkages with economic activities in general and agriculture and industry in particular. The first Power Station (a hydro station) in Uttar Pradesh was established in Galogi (Mussoorie) district in Dehradun, now in Uttarakhand State, in 1906. However, the development of power was slow and confined to urban areas only. The planned growth in power sector started since the First Five Year Plan in 1951-52, with the allocation of 15% of total expenditure to power sector. This allocation consistently moved upward being 24% in the Second Plan, 28% in the Third Plan and highest of 38% during the Fourth and Fifth Plans. However, thereafter, the share of power slid down in the subsequent Plans so much so to the lowest of 17% in the Ninth Plan.

Since the First Plan, the Government of Uttar Pradesh has invested huge amount of capital of about Rs. 17,238 crore till the end of the Ninth Plan to generate, transmit and distribute power through the U.P. State Electricity Board, set up in 1959. It has also encouraged the private players as well as the central public sector undertakings like NTPC, NHPC, to come to the State to produce electricity in the State. However, these efforts failed to yield desired results. Looking no improvement in the health of U.P.S.E.B., the State Government has now ushered the corporatisation of production, transmission and distribution of power under U.P. Electricity Reforms Act 1999. Accordingly, the UPSEB has been split up into three corporate entities, each dealing with production, transmission and distribution. Likewise, the Kanpur Electricity Supply Authority (KESA) has also been corporatised. Besides, the generation and distribution of power, the Greater Noida area has also been privatised. Policies and programmes in the energy sector of the State are being carried out under two broad categories viz. (i) Power Development through Uttar Pradesh Jal Vidyut Nigam Ltd. for Hydro generation and renovation and Uttar Pradesh Rajya Vidyut Utpadan Nigam Ltd. for thermal and U.P. Power Corporation Ltd. for transmission, distribution and rural electrification, (ii) Non-Conventional Sources of Energy through Non-Conventional Energy Development Agency (NEDA). The Electricity Regulatory Commission has been set up in 1998. Electricity supply code 2002 (distribution code) is under implementation and four distribution companies have been formed.

The power situation in the State has not been satisfactory, particularly in the recent past as demand of power has far exceeded the supply. When supply is lesser than the demand, rostering is only option to overcome the shortage. The intensity of power shortage in the State can be gauged from the fact that hours of rostering has more often out-numbered the supply hours, particularly in the rural areas. It is unfortunate that power generation in the State having reached the highest level of 10.1% of the total generation in the country in 1975-76 declined to an all time low of 5.9% in 1992-93. It is still a little above 6%.

The total installed capacity of power at the end of the Ninth Plan (1997-02) was 7821.82 MW, including 789.59
MW of Hydel and 7023.23 of Thermal. In this context, it needs mention that installed capacity of hydro power stations is very low as compared to that of thermal power against the prescribed standards. The situation has still worsened after bifurcation of Uttar Pradesh as major hydro-power potential (1004.28 M.W. out of total available capacity of 1520.78 M.W.) has gone to Uttarakhand. The creation of Uttarakhand State has also changed the State's share in the central sector projects. Hydro generation in the State is now possible only by constructing canal based small power stations utilizing the available falls on various canals. As regards thermal power, 8 of the 28 units are closed and the remaining are over 25 years old, barring those of Anpara which were commissioned in the early 1960s. The transfer of Tanda Thermal Station to NTPC has further aggravated the power crises in the State. The last decade has seen no new power plant come up in the State. Improvement in the present grim situation hardly appears in sight in the years to come as the proposed projects of power including 3700 M.W. Dadri Project, are still at the initial stages.

Apart from inadequate infrastructure of power generating capacity in the State, higher levels of inefficiency in capacity utilization of thermal plants, also known as plant load factor (PLF), and transmission and distribution losses have made matter still worse. The PLF of thermal plants during the Sixth Plan (1980-85) and Seventh Plan(1995-96) was around 37%, which rose upto about 48% in the Eighth Plan (1992-97). Recent estimate of PLF of Uttar Pradesh Raiya Utpadan Nigam plants put it about 60% while that of National Thermal Power Commission (NTPC) stands around 80%. The main reason behind the low PLF in the State, as indicated earlier, is the too old plants and non-availability of funds, which has obstructed the much needed over-hauling of these plants.

The problem arising from inadequate infrastructure of power generating capacity coupled with a lower PLF have been further compounded by higher transmission and distribution losses. These losses during the period 1984-85 to 1994-95, averaged at 24.6%, which stood highest among the 14 major states except Haryana (25.2%). At the beginning of the Ninth Plan (1997-02), it was 25.52% which increased to about 37% at the end of the Plan (2001-02).

The aforesaid situation has led to shortage of power in the State which is well reflected in the data regarding demand and supply of power contained in table-7.2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>1992-93</th>
<th>1996-97</th>
<th>2001-02</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Demand of Power</td>
<td>MU</td>
<td>32910</td>
<td>42528</td>
<td>51685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Availability of Power</td>
<td>MU</td>
<td>29403</td>
<td>35882</td>
<td>41838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Gap (1-2)</td>
<td>MU (%)</td>
<td>(-) 3507 (10.7)</td>
<td>(-) 6646 (15.1)</td>
<td>9847 (19.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Plan documents, Uttar Pradesh.

It is evident from the table-7.2 that shortfall in the availability of power, which was 10.7% in the beginning (1992-93) of the Eighth Plan (1992-97) increased to 15.1% at the end (1996-97) and further to 19.1% at the end of Ninth Plan (1997-02). The shortfall would, obviously, be far higher against the peak demand.

As a sequel to incommensurability in the creation of power generating capacity in relation to requirement, inefficiency in the utilization of created capacity coupled with high transmission and distribution losses, the per capita consumption of electricity, programmes of village electrification and energisation of tubewells/pumping sets have been adversely affected. This is the sufficient reason as to why about 43% villages of the State are devoid of village electrification (according to L.T. Mains revised definition of rural electrification) facility even more than
half a century's of planned development, while many of the States already have the distinction of covering their cent percent villages under rural electrification.

As regards per capita consumption of electricity, U.P. with 188 kwh was placed at the 13th place among the 14 major states in the country in 2002-03. The corresponding average for all-India was nearly double being 373 kwh and in the states like Punjab was as high as 870 kwh followed by Gujarat (838), Tamil Nadu (645 kwh), Haryana (580 kwh), Maharashtra (538 kwh) and Karnataka (463 kwh). It is all the more detestable to learn that per capita consumption of electricity in the State has declined over the years. In 1998-99 this magnitude was 199 kwh.

The rural electrification programme in the state has covered 56.9% villages by the end of 2002-03, whereas all the villages in southern states, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Haryana and Punjab have already been saturated under the rural electrification. The corresponding average for the country works out to 83.8%. Similar situation emerges in respect of energisation of tubewells/pump sets. By the end of 2002-03, number of energized tubewells/pump-sets was 8,00,463 while 8 years earlier i.e. 1994-95, this achievement in Maharashtra was more than double being 19,21,446 followed by Andhra Pradesh (16,05,807), Tamil Nadu (14,88,169) and Madhya Pradesh (10,89,487). Due to non-availability and irregular supply of electricity, farmer's preference for diesel operated tubewells/pump-sets have tremendously gone up in U.P.

The above analysis clearly brings out the poor network and coverage of electricity in the State which has well reflected in the low growth rates of the State's economy particularly in the recent years.

Irrigation
The other important economic infrastructure is irrigation. The criticality of irrigation is too evident to need any fresh elaboration. However, in the context of role and significance of irrigation in an agriculture based economy like that of Uttar Pradesh, it does need mention that irrigation works as catalytic agent in the adoption and extension of new technology. In the present state of agricultural development in the State, desired increase in the agricultural production is possible only through intensive agriculture because area sown is almost stagnant for the last two decades. Hence, per hectare more yield, better results from per unit of chemical fertilizers and possibilities of double or multiple cropping, which are unavoidably necessary in the present scenario, would solely depend on adequate and assured irrigation. Keeping these bare facts in view as also the fast increasing demand, this State has formulated "State Water Policy" on the pattern of National Water Policy to ensure optimal use of bountiful water resources, which the State is endowed with. Under the State Water Policy, participatory irrigation management has been initiated for the best use of water on the State irrigation canal system. Under this system, all the farmers of minors will be the member of the Water User Association (WUA). The working committee of WUA has been constituted. The required training of the farmers would be imparted by the Water and Land Management Institute (WALMI). The entire management of minors shall be transferred to WUA in three phases.

The State Government has undertaken massive investment in irrigation and drainage to the tune of Rs. 10259.20 cr. from the First to the Ninth Plan period. A number of major and medium projects and minor irrigation works have been executed under various five year plans for which assistance has also been taken from the Central Government and international agencies. From the table 2.8, presented earlier, it is observed that irrigation and flood control sector was accorded high priority in the First Plan, when the share of this sector in the total plan expenditure was 21%. However, in the Second and Third Plan, it reduced to nearly half, being only 11%. In the
Fourth (16%), Fifth (20%) and Sixth Plans (22%), it again witnessed successive improvement. But thereafter, again substantially reduced to 16% in the Seventh Plan, 11% in the Eighth Plan and 13% in the Ninth Plan. The average share for the whole period from the First to the Ninth Plan works out to 14%. The reduction in the share of irrigation is definitely not a healthy sign for an agriculture based economy like Uttar Pradesh.

Prior to adopting the process of plan development in the State i.e. 1950-51, total irrigation potential created was about 45 lakh ha. and the level of utilization was 98%. However, data relating to creation of irrigation potential and its utilization provided in table-7.3 (p. 130) present a discouraging picture, particularly in the recent past.

The table 7.3 reveals that irrigation potential consistently increased from about 45 lakh ha. in 1950-51 to 90 lakh ha. by 1968-69 and further to 208 lakh ha., and 308 lakh ha., by 1990-91 and 2000-2001 respectively. However, percentage utilization shows a substantial shortfall from about 98% in 1950-51 to 97% in 1968-69 and still touching low level of 86% in 1990-91 and 64% in 2000-2001. Notably, the maximum shortfall in utilization is observed in the State Minor Irrigation works which was about 48% only in 2000-01 against 91% in 1968-69.

The potential of State tube-wells, numbering 28381 in 2001-02, was 37.05 lakh ha. against which, the net irrigated area and gross irrigated area stood at 4.49 lakh ha., and 5.90 lakh ha., indicating a utilization of only about 12% and 15% respectively. The net area irrigated by canals, which is the cheapest source of irrigation, was 27.19 lakh ha. against the net area irrigated of 128.28 lakh ha. by all sources. Its share, thus, works out to about 21%, which is far lower than about 43% in 1997-98. Thus, utilization of the potential created through huge investments made in the State’s canals and tube-wells is grossly lacking.

As regards private minor irrigation, its performance both in the creation of potential as well as its utilization has been much better. Its share in the irrigation potential created during 2001-02 stood at about 61 per cent.

It emerges from the above description that in spite of planned efforts of more than five decades, the development of irrigation infrastructure has not been up to the mark. Besides, optimum utilization of created capacity has also not been satisfactory, both from the view point of our requirements as well as time tested standard. As a result,

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Table 7.3
Level of Irrigation Potential Creation and Utilisation of Different Sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Item</th>
<th>Minor Irrigation</th>
<th>Major &amp; Medium Irrigation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-51</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>25.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilisation</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>25.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(85.27)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
<td>(98.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td>18.18</td>
<td>35.37</td>
<td>36.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilisation</td>
<td>16.57</td>
<td>35.37</td>
<td>35.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(91.14)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
<td>(97.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>36.94</td>
<td>103.75</td>
<td>67.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilisation</td>
<td>18.08</td>
<td>103.75</td>
<td>57.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(48.94)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
<td>(84.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>38.72</td>
<td>190.97</td>
<td>78.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilisation</td>
<td>18.80</td>
<td>114.04</td>
<td>63.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(48.55)</td>
<td>(59.72)</td>
<td>(81.34)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Plan documents and Statistical Diary of various years, U.P.
Note: Bracketed figures denote percentage utilization from potential created.
the agriculture, which is the backbone of our economy and likely to remain so in the years to come, is devoid of assured irrigation as could be evident from the data provided in table-7.4.

Table 7.4
Irrigation and Cropping Intensity in Different Years in U.P.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Net area sown (lakh ha.)</th>
<th>Net Irrigated area (lakh ha.)</th>
<th>Irrigation intensity (%)</th>
<th>Cropping intensity (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>173.05</td>
<td>72.19</td>
<td>116.7</td>
<td>134.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>172.99</td>
<td>105.42</td>
<td>140.1</td>
<td>147.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02</td>
<td>168.50</td>
<td>128.28</td>
<td>142.03</td>
<td>152.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Various Draft Plans, Uttar Pradesh.
N.B. Bracketed figures denote percentage of net irrigated area to the net area sown

It would be observed that net area sown in the State after remaining constant for the two decades (1970-1990) at 173 lakh ha. has started gradually declining. In 2001-02, it stood at 168.50 lakh ha. However, the percentage of net area irrigated, despite the net area sown has decreased, is still about 76%, leaving about one-fourth of the net cropped area unirrigated. The situation emerges even more deplorable looking at the level of net irrigated area as percentage of net area sown in 1997-98 in the neighbouring states of Punjab and Haryana, being as high as about 93% and 77% respectively. Similarly, the cropping intensity in Uttar Pradesh stood at 152 in 2001-02, whereas it had already touched a level of 194.3 in Punjab and 168.1 in Haryana in 1997-98. Thus, the State of Uttar Pradesh necessitates more efforts than what has been so far for the optimum use of land and water resources.

Roads
Under the transport sector, roads sub-sector occupies most significant place on account of its pre-dominant share in freight and passenger traffic and also because majority of the State’s population resides in the rural areas. Since expansion of agricultural, industrial and trading activities mainly depend on roads infrastructure, only this component of transport sector has been considered relevant for analysis.

Data provided in table-7.1 (p.122) indicate that roads infrastructure was accorded a high priority from the very First Plan in which its share in the total expenditure was 3.6% which barring Third Plan (5%), consistently increased in each Five Year Plan, the highest (12.7%) being in the Ninth Plan. The average share from the First to the Ninth Plan works out to 10.5% against the corresponding average of 12% of the overall transport sector. By the end of the Ninth Plan, total expenditure on roads and bridges worked out to be about Rs. 7730 cr. Although, an encouraging trend emerges from the financial analysis, but the physical achievements prove to be incommensurate. As a result, the development of roads network in the State stands not only less than that of other major states but also below the norms fixed for roads infrastructure.

A review of the development of roads in the State from the First Plan onwards does not indicate a happy going. In this context, it would appear relevant to mention that under the Bombay Plan, which was for a period of 20 years (1961-81), a target of constructing metalled road of a length of 94,200 kms. was fixed for the State, against which the achievement even by the end of the Eighth Plan (1992-97) was only 91,279 kms. A similar road plan, known as “Lucknow Plan” for the next 20 years i.e. 1981-01 envisaged road construction of 2,76,101 kms. including 4,818 kms. N.H., 27,807 kms. S.H., 46,980 Kms. MDR and 1,96,496 kms. ODR & VR. However, achievements at the end of 2001, stood at 3,811 kms N.H., 9,939 kms S.H., 7,198 kms MDR and 1,84,310 kms ODR & V.R. making a
total road length of 2,05,078 kms. This shows a maximum shortfall in S.H., being 17,868 kms. Even by the end of 2003, the total road length (2,15,255 kms) constructed fell short of the target (2,76,101 kms), the shortfall is only against the S.H.

On the basis of the assessment of the achievements of the Lucknow Plan (1981-01) and keeping in view the present and future needs of country, India Road Congress has formulated the “vision 2021” for the development of roads in the first two decades of the 21st century for the country as a whole. Although, the vision 2021 has not laid down specific targets for the different states, however on the basis of area of U.P. and the country, the targets for the State have been deduced, which are as follows—7.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Roads</th>
<th>Target of the country as (kms)</th>
<th>Proportion target of U.P. (kms)</th>
<th>Existing road Length as on 31.03.2002 (kms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Highways (NH)</td>
<td>80000</td>
<td>6087</td>
<td>4,931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Highways (SH)</td>
<td>16000</td>
<td>12174</td>
<td>9,098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major District Roads (MDR)</td>
<td>32000</td>
<td>24,348</td>
<td>7,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56000</td>
<td>42609</td>
<td>21320</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Against the target of roads construction, the Tenth Plan envisages a target of upgradation of about 20,000 kms of different categories of roads including N.H. and construction of 9,236 kms of additional village roads.

As regards village connectivity, the State has not been able to cover even 50% of villages so far. By the end of the Ninth Plan (1997-02), the number of villages connected by all-weather metalled roads stood at 43,437 (44%) out of the total number of 98,248 villages in the State. Thus, at the beginning of the Tenth Plan, 54,811 (56%) villages of U.P. remained unconnected. In this context, it needs mention that according to norms laid down in the road development plan, all the villages should have been connected by all-weather roads by the end of 2001.

A comparative inter-state data brings out the extent of inadequacy of roads infrastructure in the State. In 1989, the length of surfaced roads (maintained by P.W.D.) per lakh of population in U.P. was 63.6 against 198.9 kms in Punjab, 142.4 kms in Rajasthan, 115.5 kms in Haryana, 96.8 kms in Tamil Nadu and 81.2 kms in Karnataka, the all-India average being 85.6 kms. Similar picture emerges when one looks at availability of roads per 100 sq. km. of area. In Uttar Pradesh in 1989, it was 35.8 kms. while it was as high as 95.5 kms in Punjab, 53.5 kms in Kerala, 52.1 kms in Haryana and 45.3 kms in Tamil Nadu.

A major step has recently been taken towards boosting Private Sector participation in roads and bridges sector by constituting U.P. State Highway Authority on the pattern of National Highway Authority of India. The amount incurred by the private agencies in the maintenance and upgradation of the State Highway shall be recovered from toll collection. In case, complete recovery is not possible through toll collection, the partial cost shall be met by the State Government on the basis of “Capital Contribution Viability Gap Funding”. However, the aforesaid analysis is suggestive of the massive efforts required to be put into for raising the accessibility levels by enhancing roads network in the State in general and rural areas in particular in order to raise level of economic activities and ensure enhanced integration with the national economy.

Social Infrastructure
The analysis of the progress and present status of economic
infrastructure, which is inevitable for increasing productivity or efficiency of capital, has already been brought out. However, social infrastructure, which raises the productivity of human beings, also have significant bearing on the pace of development because it is the role of human beings of the area that really matters in the whole process.

It has already been observed in Table-7.1 (p.122), which contains share of major components of social infrastructure viz. education, medical and health and water supply and sanitation, that education and medical and health sub-sectors had a share of 13% and 9% respectively in the total expenditure of the First Plan, which stood highest upto the Ninth Plan. Their respective shares in the Ninth Plan were 7% and 2%. The share of water supply and sanitation in the total expenditure was only 1% in the Second Plan which increased to 6% in the Ninth Plan, which underlines the higher priority to this sub-sector of social infrastructure. From the First Plan to the Ninth Plan, the average share of social infrastructure was 14% and that of education, medical and health and water-supply and sanitation was 7%, 3% and 5% respectively.

Physical progress of these sub-sectors, particularly relating to educational and medical and health facilities, in terms of population growth, birth rate, death rate and infant mortality rate, literacy rate and trends in urbanization and that of water supply and sanitation in terms of the extent of coverage of rural and urban areas under safe drinking water facility, is brought out in the following sections.

Population
A higher growth in population has generally been found to precede poor educational and medical and health facilities and so is the case with higher rates of death, birth and infant mortality. As regards population growth in the State, a brief description of the situation right from 1951 onwards, has already been made in the initial chapters. In the present context, comparative analysis of only two decades viz. 1981-91 and 1991-2001 appears relevant. In 1981-91, the annual growth rate of population in the State worked out to be 2.27% against all India average of 1.94. Notably, State's growth rate in population was less than corresponding growth rates in Madhya Pradesh (2.38%) and Maharashtra (2.29%) and almost similar that in West Bengal (2.21%). However, these states have been quite successful in bringing down growth rate in their population in 1991-2001 decade during which, it was 2.18% in Madhya Pradesh, 2.06% in Maharashtra and 1.65% in West Bengal, while in U.P., instead of declining, it registered an increased growth of 2.33% in its population. Kerala is the most successful state with a population growth rate of only 0.90%.

Urbanisation is an index of growing economy and its diversification. It is accompanied by higher shares of secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy. The share of urban population in the State’s total population increased from 14% in 1971 to 17.9% in 1981, 19.8% in 1991 and 20.8% in 2001 as against national average of 19.9%, 23.3%, 25.7% and 27.8%. It would, thus, be seen that rate of urbanization in U.P. is still lower than the country attained two decades earlier i.e. 1981. Tamil Nadu had highest (43.9%) share of urban population followed by Maharashtra (42.4%) and Gujarat (37.4%).

Birth, Death and Infant Mortality Rates
In case of demographic variables, birth rate, death rate and infant mortality rate, achievements in the State from 1951, when respective rates were 41.5, 24.9 and 127.8 per thousand appear quite low and more so in comparison to other states. In 1994, birth rate, death rate and infant mortality rate per thousand was 35.4, 11.0 and 88 respectively in the State, which declined to 31.6, 9.7 and 80 as per provisional estimates of 2002. The corresponding figures for 2002 for most of the states are much lower. In respect of birth rate Kerala has a minimum of 16.8, which
is less than half than that of U.P., followed by Tamil Nadu (18.5), while West Bengal (20.3), Maharashtra (20.2), Punjab (20.8), Karnataka (22.0) and Haryana (26.5) have also exercised much better control than U.P.

Kerala again with a death rate of 6.4 per thousand is placed in the bottom followed by West Bengal (6.6) and corresponding achievements in progressive states like Haryana, Punjab, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu were also quite impressive being 7.0, 7.1, 7.2, 7.3 and 7.7 respectively. Among the 14 major states U.P. with a magnitude of 9.7 is placed at 12th place.

In respect of IMR, the lowest magnitude is observed in Kerala (10) against that of U.P. (80), which is eight times higher. The corresponding figures for Maharashtra (45), Tamil Nadu (44), West Bengal (49), Punjab (51) and Karnataka were also far lower than that of Uttar Pradesh.

Thus, Kerala emerges as the most advanced state having lowest birth, death and infant mortality rates as also lowest growth rate in population, whereas Uttar Pradesh with highest population growth rate in the country and among the 14 major states with 14th rank in respect of birth rate and 12th in death rate and infant mortality rate, comes out to be as one of the most backward state.

Medical and Health Facilities
The poor show of Uttar Pradesh in respect of demographic variables as analysed above is, to a great extent, on account of inadequacy of medical facilities. The inter-state situation as on 1.1.2001 indicates that number of hospitals and dispensaries per lakh of population in Uttar Pradesh was only 3 as against 10 in Maharashtra and 7 in Punjab and Kerala. Achievement of Gujarat in this regard was as high as 22, which was six years earlier i.e. on 1.1.1995. The situation with regard to availability of beds per lakh of population emerges still worse, which was 34 in Uttar Pradesh against 309 in Kerala, 165 (1.1.1995) in Gujarat, 111 in Maharashtra, 98 (1.1.1998) in Andhra Pradesh and 80 (1.1.1998) in Kerala.

Educational Facilities
Education is considered as one of the most crucial factors for sustainable development. The comparative levels of development in education are reflected, to a very large extent, in rates of literacy. These two aspects when seen in case of Uttar Pradesh, the emerging situation hardly stands upto expectations or requirements.

As regards educational infrastructure, it is observed that number of Junior Basic Schools (Primary Schools) per lakh of population is 2001-02 in Uttar Pradesh was 53 against 64 in the country and 114 in Orissa and 102 in Madhya Pradesh. The corresponding number of Senior Basic Schools (Middle Schools) in the State was 12 and that of Higher Secondary Schools 9, while all-India average was 21 and 13 respectively. The corresponding figures for Karnataka (52 & 20), Orissa (31 & 20) and Maharashtra (25 & 16) were much higher.

Besides, the inadequacy of schools, teachers in these institutions, whose role in the development and extension of education is highly significant, are not in sufficient numbers. The teacher-pupil ratio in JBS in the State in 1999-2000 was 1:42, whereas this ratio stood at 1:32 in Karnataka, 1:35 in Maharashtra, 1:36 in Tamil Nadu and 1:37 in Orissa. Similar situation is noticed in case of SBS in which the corresponding ratio in the State was 1:30 against 1:18 in Punjab and 1:25 in Haryana. The all-India average was 1:43 and 1:38 respectively.

Literacy
As a result of poor education infrastructure, Uttar Pradesh continues to be the lowest in literacy among the major states of the country. The achievements in this respect has been comparatively very slow. In 1951, the overall literacy rate in the State was only 12.05%, male literacy and female literacy being 19.71% and 4.07%, which increased to 57.36%, 70.23% and 42.98% respectively. The corresponding all-India average was 16.67%, 24.95% and 7.93% and
65.38%, 75.85% and 54.16%. Obviously the gap in overall literacy rate between the State and all-India, which was only 4.6 percentage points in 1951 has doubled being 9.0 in 2001. It is because of the fact that other states have made comparatively faster progress in literacy achievements in 2001, Kerala with a literacy rate of 90.9% was on the top followed by Maharashtra (77.3%), Tamil Nadu (73.5%), Punjab (69.9%) and Gujarat (69.9%). Here, it does need mention that among the 14 major states, Uttar Pradesh in terms of literacy rate has all along been at 12th place. Only Rajasthan and Bihar being at the 13th and 14th places respectively. However, Rajasthan, in 2001, with a literacy rate of 61.03% has pushed Uttar Pradesh at the 13th place.

Emerging status of social development in U.P. over the years and vis-a-vis other states of the country presents comparatively much backward situation. It also needs mention that the social development is associated mainly with the infrastructure related to education and health. As observed in the foregoing analysis, relatively lower level of performance of both these sectors viz., education and health in the State could basically be attributed to lower per capita expenditure in these sectors. Per capita expenditure on education and medical and public health in 1978-79 & 1998-99 presented in Table-7.6 bring out comparative levels in 14 major states.

It would be seen that per capita expenditure on medical & health in Uttar Pradesh in 1978-79 was only Rs. 9, which was lowest barring Bihar (Rs. 6). Punjab with Rs. 21 per head was on top. After two decades i.e. 1998-99 the magnitude in the State increased to Rs. 63. However, it again remained lowest and its rank slipped to 12th from 9th in 1978-79. Punjab maintained its one number position with Rs. 211. The situation with regard to per capita expenditure on education emerges almost similar. Uttar Pradesh with Rs. 23 was found at the bottom leaving Bihar (Rs. 20). Kerala with Rs. 61 claimed first position. However, in 1998-99, State’s relative position further deteriorated as it was placed at 13th rank with Rs. 316 while Bihar with Rs. 373 was at the 10th position. Haryana with Rs. 744 stood at the highest position followed by Kerala (Rs. 692) and Punjab (Rs. 636). Other states like Tamil Nadu (Rs. 583), Rajasthan (Rs. 550), Maharashtra (Rs. 536), Gujarat (Rs. 533) and Karnataka (Rs. 521) had much higher level of per capita expenditure on education than U.P.

Table 7.6
Per Capita Govt. Expenditure on Medical and Public Health and Education in 1978-79 and 1998-99

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Major States</th>
<th>Per capita government expenditure (Rs.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Medical &amp; Public Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>13 (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>6 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>16 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>19 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>14 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>17 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>12 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>16 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>12 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>21 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>17 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>15 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>9 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>16 (4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (1) Regional Dimensions of India’s Economic Development
(2) Economic Survey, 2000 NSS, Govt. of India.
(N.B. Bracketed figures denote ranks.)
It would thus be noticed that southern states and Punjab and Haryana, where per capita expenditure or medical and health and education was higher, performance in respect of literacy and demographic variables viz. birth rate, death rate and infant mortality rates has been relatively far better and as a consequence they have been able to lower down growth of population. The analysis is, therefore, suggestive of bringing much needed improvement in medical & health and educational services both in quantitative as well as qualitative terms. In view of the paucity of resources with the State, it is the qualitative aspect and better utilization of capacities already created in these sectors, rather than proliferation in the network of infrastructure in public sector, which requires far greater attention and deployment of whatever resources are available in U.P.

Water Supply and Sanitation

Drinking water supply and sanitation are considered as the basic necessities of life. These facilities are also crucial in the context of the goal of “Health for all”. Initially, drinking water and sanitaional facilities were confined to urban areas of the State. But with the increase in population, focus gradually shifted to rural areas and allocation of funds also witnessed step-up accordingly over the years. As already observed that share of water supply and sanitation in the total expenditure, which was only 1% in the Second Plan, with minor fluctuations in the subsequent Plans, increased to 6% in the Ninth Plan. This shows concern and priority of the State to cover more and more areas under these services.

The status of urban water supply emerges quite unsatisfactory as in most of the towns, the availability of safe drinking water is not as per prescribed norms. There are 623 towns in the State, out of which 425 towns had population less than 20,000 as per 1991 census. The progress in respect of these towns by the end of the Ninth Plan indicates coverage of 117 towns with adequate water supply, 73 towns already covered under the augmentation scheme, were under execution and of the remaining 235 towns. Water supply as per norms was available in only 40 towns.

In case of rural water supply, habitation, as per guidelines of the Government of India, is considered since 1991-92 as the unit of coverage instead of village. In Uttar Pradesh there are 243633 habitations (excluding Uttarakhand), out of which 243508 habitations spread over 97134 villages have been found to be habited and available for coverage. Looking at the status of coverage, it is found that all the 243508 habited habitations of the State have been fully covered with water supply as GOI norms of 40 liters per capita per day by providing through source (Hand Pump or Piped Water Supply) per 250 persons by the end of the Ninth Plan. However, about 26.68 lakh population of quality problem habitations still do not have access to safe drinking water.

As regards sanitation status, it emerges to be poor in urban as well as rural areas. Out of 623 towns in the State, only 46 towns have partial sewerages system. Out of these 46 towns are in the population bracket of more than 5 lakh while 38 towns having population less than 5 lakh. In case of rural sanitation, there are still 80% rural families without toilet facilities. Besides, as many as 42000 primary, upper primary and higher secondary schools have no toilet facility so far.
THE ECONOMY

Introduction
The status of Uttar Pradesh, which was at its zenith, and had been the centre of attraction of the whole country in the past for its advancements in the religious, cultural, spiritual and philosophical spheres, has become an issue of serious concern for all the economists, the sociologists, academicians and politicians both at the State as well as country level for its present deplorable economic and social backwardness. Per capita income being the single composite index of development, it appears pertinent to refer that this State, not long back but only prior to the beginning of planning era (1950-51) in the country, its per capita income (Rs 260), at the constant prices of 1948-49 was above that of the national average (Rs 248). But ominously enough, it slid down year after year so much so that it is, at present, placed almost at the lowest ebb among the major states of India. The situation becomes all the more worrisome in view of the fact that largest population of about 17 crore people, which is about one-sixth of the country’s population, the same proportion, which the latter has in the world population, it inhabitates alone. Some demographic and economic features of the State are given in Table-8.1.

Obviously, the prevailing socio-economic situation is bound to adversely affect the growth parameters of the country as well. It is not difficult to imagine the place, which the national economy would have attained had the States per capita income been at least at par with that of the former if not above it.

Table 8.1
Demographic and Economic Features of Uttar Pradesh

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (cr) 2001</td>
<td>16.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical area lakh sq km. 2001</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population density (per sq.km.) 2001</td>
<td>6.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest area (lakh ha.) 2001-02</td>
<td>16.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culturable waste/user land (lakh ha.)</td>
<td>11.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallow land (lakh ha.) 2001-02</td>
<td>16.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage share in total workers (2001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Agriculture</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Manufacturing</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Others</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage share in state income (2002-03)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Agriculture</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Manufacturing</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Others</td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation Potential against ultimate potential (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Surface Water</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ground Water</td>
<td>68.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village Connectivity(%) as on 31-3-02</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village electrified (%) 2002-03</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


A logical question arises as to what factors have been responsible for such a u-turn situation of the State. It might be several but broadly, emerging situation may be attributed more to internal factors rather than external ones. It is not due to lack of potentials but primarily on account of under-utilization of the former. The situation although appears somewhat complicated yet quite interesting as well. This chapter seeks to present available potential, basic characteristics and constraints, past performance and present status of development and emerging issues of the State's economy.

A universal truth tells us that all which ensures and sustains life on earth viz., sunlight, air, water and food
come from nature. Real wealth is not in coins and currency but in natural resources that are so necessary for our very sustenance. The same holds good, to a great extent, for an appropriate development of an economy. In this context, it may be referred to the initial chapters wherein the distinctive characteristics of the State with regard to its physiography resources, area, population have elaborately been brought out. Besides, it has also been analysed that this State is so generously and magnificently been gifted by the nature (external factor) with all the basic assets and requisites that provide an edge over other states and a solid basis for the sound and sustainable development of its economy (Let us recapitulate in the present context). Because of its suitable geographical location, it has several natural advantages viz, maximum sunlight (solar energy), its paramount significance in the context of critical shortage of electricity and rising prices of petrol and diesel is self explanatory, sufficient monsoon rains and a number of perennial and prestigious rivers like the Ganga, the Yamuna, the Ghagra, the Gandak, the Gomti, the Rapti, the Sone, etc. (profound water resources), most fertile soil of Ganga-Yamuna Doab and Ganga-Ghagra Doab (a basic factor for agricultural, horticultural and other primary outputs), a huge variety of flora and fauna (basic raw material for most of final goods), and last but not the least largest and capable man power (the most important factor for the production of various goods and services) in addition, the State has a highly rich and eventful cultural heritage and an appreciable social and intellectual base (a fundamental requirement for a stable and harmonious development of a society). These conditions are best suited to an agrarian economy of Uttar Pradesh, indicating vast potentials of growth of the State’s economy in general and development of agriculture sector in particular, which through its high backward and forward linkages with other sectors may ensure and lead to over all development of the State.

Basic Characteristics and Constraints
The State’s economy is pre-dominantly an agrarian one. Agriculture sector still commands highest share both in State income as well as in employment. However, there exists imbalance of a high order in these shares. Its share in the total work force is unproportionately higher than its share in state income. The relevant data of the previous decades distinctly show the tendency of a rising gap between the share of agriculture in state income and total work-force. The contribution of agriculture in the total state income, at current prices, was 57% in 1971, which came down to 50% in 1981 and further to 41% in 1991, while its share in total work-force in the corresponding years was about 78%, 75% and 72.90% respectively indicating a fast reduction of 16% in the former during a period of twenty years (1971-91) as compared to only marginal decline of 5.1% in the latter. In 1991-2001 period, its corresponding share in State income, at current prices came down to 35.5% and that in total work-force to 66% showing a decline of about 5.5% and 6.9% respectively. It reveals two important noticeable points a far higher segment nearly three-fourth of State’s workers with a much lower share in state income, is engaged in the agriculture sector and growing imbalances in the distribution of income whereby the average income per worker of agriculture sector, with largest work force having to support the largest section of population, is far less as compared to the average income per worker in manufacturing and rest of the sectors of the economy. This is not a healthy sign for the State economy that heavily depends on agriculture as the demand for goods and services, which is the most vital stimulant to growth of an economy, is deplorably sluggish and discouraging from the largest segment of State’s population, whose mainstay is obviously agriculture and allied activities.

Agriculture sector of the State’s economy is characterized by preponderance of marginal and
uneconomic and non-viable holdings than one hectare, which is about 73 per cent. Land is undoubtedly the basic and significant input for agriculture but its availability for agriculture in the State, after remaining stationary for several years, is not diminishing as demand for land for uses other than agriculture is progressively increasing. With the fastly rising population, it clearly underlines the pressure of population on land. The net area sown per cultivator was 0.84 hect. in 1990-91. The latest figure of net area sown for 2001-02 is 168.12 lakh hect. against 173 lakh hect. in 1990-91. In view of the rising trend of the number of cultivators in the State and more so net area sown in 2001-02 being lesser than that of 1990-91, the net area sown per cultivator, has further slipped down to 0.76 ha., if we take 2001 census data of cultivator (221.73 lakh) and net area sown of 2000-01 which is 168.25 lakh ha. Obviously, prorata of census figures have their own implication while taking lesser net area sown of 2001-02 into account. This, indeed, emerges as the major constraint for the growth of agriculture sector.

Availability of irrigation in time as well as in adequate magnitude is considered inevitable for agriculture. However, State’s agriculture, still largely depends on monsoon. The net area irrigated as percentage of net area sown in the State was 72.2 in 1999-00 against corresponding levels of 94.5 in Punjab and 81.3 in Haryana. Obviously, more than one fourth cultivated area in the State, even after more than five decades of planned development, being devoid of assured irrigation, has to desperately look for the mercy of Rain God. As a consequence, irrigation intensity, cropping intensity and agricultural productivity in the State is far behind the national average and still much below the neighbouring states of Punjab and Haryana.

Here, it does need mention that despite such a discouraging situation, the State agriculture contributes about one-fifth (21.6%) to the total food-grains production of the country, which is highest among all states. Likewise, highest contribution to the total production of sugarcane and potato of the country is made by the State, the respective magnitudes being 35.5% and 38.4% respectively. It is not difficult to imagine the height and pride of the State agriculture, if it is released from the shackles of aforementioned debilitating constraints and bottlenecks. The sooner it becomes a reality, the better would be for the State as well as for the country.

The process of diversification of agriculture from low value crops to high value crops and from agriculture to other allied activities, which is considered essential for mitigating the problem of disguised unemployment, for raising the income levels of an over-whelmingly large section of population dependent on agriculture and for changing the present appearance of countryside to a more pleasing sight, during the four decades ending 1990-91 has practically been negligible. The average annual growth rate of area under non-food crops or commercial crops works out to be 2.19% during 1950-51 to 1970-71 period, which receded to 1.71% in 1970-71 to 1990-91 period. However, during the decade 1990-91 to 2000-01, this sector registering a growth rate of 3.03% under non-food crops, has passed through a number of encouraging phenomenon. It has shown healthy changes both in food crops and non-food crops, improvement in the genetic materials of cereal crops specially in rice and wheat, introduction of new crops like soyabean, sunflower, floriculture, herbal crops and a number of high-value crops like mentha, etc., and general awareness of the farmers for adoption of improved technology of crop production. As a result, the State made great strides in the production and productivity of food and non-food crops in the more recent past.

Industrial base of the State is weak and there is a general slow down in the industrial sector. During 1991-98, it grew by a mere 21% against 137% during 1979-91. Employment generation also in manufacturing fell from
2.6% in the seventies to 1% in the beginning of the nineties. Rural industries particularly handloom and handicraft are decelerating and workers engaged in those industries also suffer from under-employment. Growth rate in the manufacturing sector is not adequate and that too is mainly confined to western region of the State. The share of this sector in the State income has a rising trend—9.6% in 1980-81, 12.3% in 1990-91 and 17.3% in 1999-2000. However, its share in employment generation has comparatively been very low, which was 7% of the total work-force of the State in 1971 and after two decades in 1991, only marginally higher being 8% and now it has become still more discouraging particularly in the organized industries. Thus, output as well as employment in the industrial sector, which is second most important sector, are much below the healthy levels.

The expansion of manufacturing activity, barring Noida and some of its other neighbouring centres, has not been possible in the rest of the State leaving them mostly undeveloped, although there exists a vast potential of the development of rural industries. Locally available variety of raw materials look for the establishment of processing units, while resources available in the rural areas wait for their conversion into capital and large number of individuals as entrepreneurs. However, lack of appropriate facilities, entrepreneurial and investment efforts emerge cogent factors, which inhibit the required transformation of industries, may bring in opportunities and smoothen the process for the opening of new units as also pave the way for the existing ones to survive and thrive all over the State.

Economic infrastructure such as power, irrigation, roads, transport etc. and social infrastructure viz: schools, hospitals, water supply, sanitation, etc., are considered the fate lines of socio-economic development. Economic and social infrastructure have significant bearing on the pace of development because former is inevitable for increasing the productivity or efficiency of investment while the latter is sine qua non for raising the productivity of human capital and matters in the whole process. However, in case of Uttar Pradesh, these are quite inadequate. Lack of required economic infrastructure, particularly power has been one of the potent factors responsible for the low productivity in agriculture and industry. The inadequacy of social infrastructure is well reflected in low literacy rate, particularly among women, high magnitude of birth rate, death rate and infant mortality rate. As a sequel to these, the growth rate of population continues to be very high which, in turn, keeps the per capita income and consumption low resulting in a high incidence of poverty in the State, particularly in its rural segments of population.

Amongst different regions of the State viz, Western, Central, Eastern and Bundelkhand, there exists large disparities in their geophysical condition as well as in the level of development. Eastern and Bundelkhand regions, which account for about 48% of the total area and 45% of the total population of the State, are chronically backward in almost all critical parameters of development. Obviously enough, with these significantly large shares, the course of development in these regions is bound to influence the overall development of the State, the same linkage the latter has with development performance of the country.

The State's economy is the worst affected by floods in the country, where vast areas are inundated from year to year causing colossal loss to crops, cattle and human life. Anti-flood measures cause heavy financial and administrative burden on the State besides dislocation of normal activities. The recurrence of floods blunts the zeal and enthusiasm of the farmers and bring instability to agriculture production, which practically determines the overall growth of the State’s economy. Besides, State has to incur heavy expenditure on repairs and maintenance of public utilities and relief operations.

Apart from aforesaid bottlenecks, this State acutely
lacks investment, which is widely considered as a function of development. Flow of investible resources both from the public sector and private sector is considerably low. Public sector investment comprises plan outlay, which is aggregation of State's resources and Central assistance, and the investment by the Central government in its non-departmental undertakings. The trend and status of investment in the State will be brought out later while discussing State's financial resources. However, it needs mention here that the investments from all these sources have been too inadequate to enable the State to create necessary infrastructural facilities both economic as well as social, for an optimal utilization of its potentials and build up of an environment conducive to growth and development. This explains the paradox of this State, which continues to be one of the most backward states in spite of its several favourable and positive features.

As we have already stated that Uttar Pradesh is richer in natural resources than most of other states, its soil is best suited to agriculture and water abundantly available both for irrigation and hydro-power. Besides, the State has most talented manpower of thinkers, planners and policy makers comparable with anywhere in the country. The quality and content of State Plans have been appreciated by the Central Planning Commission. Nevertheless, the State suffers from the vicious effects of inadequate capital. Its strength and vitality remain idle and dormant. Economic activities remain stagnant at a low level. In order to revitalize the economy of the size of Uttar Pradesh and keep it on a perpetuum mobile, a massive investment appears inevitable. Hence, attempts, at the present level of investment to make a break through are met only with insurmountable difficulties. Boiling of water does need as much quantity of fuel that provides it the required temperature of 100°, below which it matters little, how long it is put on fire. As a result, the State economy is ominously trapped in the vicious circle of low investment-backwardness syndrome. With the passage of time, it is realized that the vicious circle is getting only more vicious.

Past Perforrformance and Present Status of Development
The State economy, which initiated the process of planning for its faster and balanced growth along with the country in 1951-52, after completing nine rounds of five yearly and seven annual plans, is now in the midst of the Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-07). The economy has, thus, covered a long period of more than five decades of planned development. The basic goals of the State's economy viz, achieving faster growth in income with equity and justice, raising standard of living, mitigation of poverty, generation of employment and reduction in unemployment and removal of regional disparities, have remained unchanged since their inception. Changes, of course, have been in the strategies, thrusts and priorities in the respective plans. For example, some aspects viz, the target group orientation in plan's resource allocation, an increasing decentralization in planning process, an integrated approach to employment, education and manpower planning, increased emphasis on providing basic minimum needs to improve the quality of human capital, etc., have received increasing importance during various plan periods.

The State economy, during its more than half a century's journey of planned development, has undergone several sweet and sour experiences. There has been considerable betterment in the socio-economic conditions of its people and notable achievements in the fields of agriculture, floriculture, horticulture, a welcome shift from traditional and agro-based industries to the latest industries. As mentioned earlier, the State now produces about 21%, 22% and 38% of the country's total production of

* Low investment: low productivity- low income (backwardness)- low investment.
food-grains, vegetables, fruits and potatoes respectively. It has the largest livestock in the country and milk production also stands highest. It ranks number one in the country in the production of food-grains, pulses, sugarcane, potato, milk and sugar. Its industrial sector has stepped into modern industries of electronics, petro-chemicals, aeronautics, etc. However, its basic problems of low growth rate of state income, which averages around 3% per annum about half or even less than the targeted ones—so far since the inception of planning era in the State, low per capita income, which continues to be low, with increasing magnitude, not only in relation to that of the country but, barring Bihar, all the 14 major states also. Low productivity, inadequacy of economic and social infrastructure, etc. on the one hand, unbridled fast growing population, high rates of birth, death and infant mortality, high incidence of poverty and unemployment, etc. on the other still pose "most challenging and formidable task".

Table 8.2 (p.155) brings out comparable levels of development of the State vis-a-vis the country.

In the above backdrop, a stock taking of the performance and present status of development of the State's economy, both overall as well as sectoral, against the major parameters of socio economic development has been attempted in succeeding analysis.

**Overall State's Economy**

Prior to looking at the performance of the State economy, it appears logical to give a brief introduction of the planning organisation available at the State, Division and Block levels. The State of Uttar Pradesh has one of the best planning machinery in the country. Besides Planning Department under State administration almost on the pattern of the Central Planning Commission, it has State Planning Commission headed by the Hon'ble Chief Minister, a full time Deputy Chairman and specialists, experts, and reputed persons as its members. Its basic function is to
formulate Five Yearly and Annual Plans of the State and provide necessary guidance to development departments in this regard, to review the progress of plan programmes and to ensure speedy and appropriate implementation of the plan with an optimal utilization of physical, financial and human resources. Besides, there is another important Govt. organization—State Planning Institute, U.P. to provide necessary data and feedback based on research studies and surveys and to assist in plan formulation, project appraisal, programme evaluation, plan monitoring, etc. with its nine specific divisions viz Economics and Statistics Division, Perspective Planning Division, Area Planning Division, Manpower Planning Division, Project Formulation and Appraisal Division, Planning Research and Action Division, Plan Monitoring and Cost Management Division, Evaluation Division and Training Division. Recently (2003), in order to frame development policies and boost the attitude and magnitude of investment, a State level organization State Development Council has been set up. Its present Chairman is renowned industrialist-cum-politician Sri Amar Singh with status of a cabinet rank minister. Sri Anil Ambani of Reliance Industries, Sri Bajaj, a famous industrialist, Sri Amitabh Bachchan, a world known actor and other such reputed dignitaries are its members.

At the district level too, the planning organization is quite sound. Economic and Statistics Division of the State Planning Institute, U.P. has one Economics Officer and one Statistical Officer in each district to collect necessary data and formulate District Plan under the supervision of Deputy Director at the Divisional level, besides an A.D.O. (Statistics) in each Development Block.

Growth in Total Income
As regards the assessment of the overall performance of the State economy, it may be done mainly from two angles viz. actual achievement in relation to the targeted growth rate and status of the State vis-à-vis the national level. The relevant data of the annual growth rate of total income and that of per capita income from the First Five Year Plan onwards provided in table-8.3 gives an interesting picture as also a valuable insight to comprehend the movement and dynamism of the economy.

Table 8.3
Annual Growth Rates of Total and Per Capita Income of U.P. and India During Various Plan Periods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan Period</th>
<th>Growth Rates Percent: Per Annum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Income U.P.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Five Year Plan (1951-56)</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Five Year Plan (1956-61)</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Five Year Plan (1961-66)</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Annual Plans (1966-69)</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74)</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79)</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth Five Year Plan (1981-85)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90)</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two Annual Plans (1990-92)</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97)</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002)</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenth Five Year Plan 1st Yr. (2002-03)</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Yr. (2003-04)</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997-98 to 2003-04</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Annual Plan 2004-05, Uttar Pradesh Vol-I.*
The contents of the table amply demonstrate that during the First Five Year Plan, the State’s economy did achieve a moderate growth rate of 2.0 per cent but its strength thereafter appears to have been successively receded during the Second and Third Five Year Plans and Three Annual Plans when annual growth rates are found to be 1.9%, 1.6% and 0.3% respectively. Although, growth targets of state income were not quantified up to the Third Five Year Plan, yet the achieved growth rates by any standard underline the poor show of the economy. The corresponding growth rates of the national economy has been nearly double or even still higher. For the Fourth Five Year Plan, the growth rate was targeted at 5-6%, but the growth rate actually achieved (2.3%) was less than half of the target. Point to be noted here is that even this achievement, which was slightly better than that of the First Plan (2%), is only because of extremely low base.

The growth rate achieved during the Fifth (5.7%), Sixth (3.9%) and Seventh Plan (5.7) does appear to be sound and respectable but stood below the respective targeted growth rates of 6.5%, 6.0% and 6.0%. The achievement is significant as the State’s growth rate during the Fifth Plan (5.7%) was a little above the corresponding growth rate (5.3%) for the country. Likewise, the growth rate of the Seventh Plan period (5.7%) was also almost at par with the national average (5.8%). Thus, Fifth Plan emerges as the turning point in the economic history of the State since when State’s economy shows an appreciable step-up in its performance.

Looking at the growth rates achieved in the recent past, it may be observed that the average annual growth rate of the State’s economy for the Eighth and Ninth Plan periods was only 3.2% and 2.3% respectively against the corresponding much higher achievement of 6.8% and 5.5% at the country level. The level of performance of the State’s economy sounds far from satisfactory in view of the stipulated annual growth rate of 6.0% for the Eighth Plan and 7.0% for the Ninth Plan. The latest estimates of income reveal that the State’s economy achieved a growth rate of 0.3% in the first year (2000-2003) and 5.4% in the second year (2003-2004) of the Tenth Five Year Plan against an all time high targeted growth rate of 8%. The average annual growth rate during the more recent past (1997-2004) i.e. from the Ninth Plan to the first two years of the Tenth Plan, works out to be 3% against nearly double (5.9%) for the country, again a come back of the similar situation, in which the State’s economy passed through from the First Plan to the Fourth Plan.

Based on the aforesaid analysis, the macro-economic performance of the State’s economy in terms of average annual growth rates, barring 1974-90 period, during the whole planning period of more than five decades has hardly been encouraging being much below the targeted growth rates as also those observed at the national level. A silver line that emerged at the horizon of the State’s economy during the Sixth and Seventh Plans could not be sustained thereafter as economy’s growth considerably decelerated in the successive plans.

**Growth in Per Capita Income**

The growth rates of per capita income in U.P. vis-à-vis all-India present a similar trend. As a consequence of slow growth in the total income, the per capita income in the State could grow with an annual growth rate of 0.5% in the First Plan, which stands highest in 1951-74 period i.e., upto the Fourth Five Year Plan. Besides, State’s per capita income even registered negative growth rates in the Third Plan (-0.2%) and Three Annual Plans (-1.5%). The highest growth rate of 3.3% in the per capita income was achieved during the Fifth and Seventh Plans. The situation thereafter went from bad to worse as growth rate in per capita income slipped to 1.4% in the Eighth Plan, (-) 0.1% during the Ninth Plan and still down (-1.3%) in the first year of the Tenth Plan. Against this, the national per capita income
grew with substantially higher margins. While the main reason behind this deplorable situation has been slow movement of State income, the high upsurge in population, particularly after 1971, has also been responsible to a great extent. The average annual growth rate in the State’s population was about 1.6% during 1951-61, 1.80% during 1961-71, 2.30% during 1971-81, 2.27% in 1981-91 and 2.33% in 1991-01 period.

Table 8.4
Gap in the Per Capita Income of Uttar Pradesh and All-India in Various Five Year Plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>At the end of</th>
<th>India</th>
<th>Uttar Pradesh</th>
<th>Gap (2-3)</th>
<th>Gap as Percentage of India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1950-51</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Plan (1955-56)</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Plan (1960-61)</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Plan (1965-66)</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Plan (1973-74)</td>
<td>871</td>
<td>669</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th Plan (1978-79)</td>
<td>1253</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th Plan (1984-85)</td>
<td>2504</td>
<td>1784</td>
<td>720</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th Plan (1989-90)</td>
<td>4347</td>
<td>3087</td>
<td>1260</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th Plan (1996-97)</td>
<td>11601</td>
<td>7501</td>
<td>4100</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9th Plan (2001-02)</td>
<td>17947</td>
<td>9753</td>
<td>8194</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Year of 10th Plan (2002-03)</td>
<td>18825</td>
<td>10289</td>
<td>8536</td>
<td>49.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Provisional


Gap in per Capita Income

In the context of national commitment of removal of regional imbalances, it is worthwhile to draw a comparison between the per capita income of Uttar Pradesh and All-India. More so, because it has been State’s prime obsession in the past as also at present to bring its per capita income at par with that of the country. However, figures provided in table-8.4 belie the efforts done so far in this direction.

It may be observed that at the end of 1950-51 or at the beginning of the First Five Year Plan, the gap between the per capita income of the State and that of the country, at the current prices, was only Rs. 8 (3%) which continued to increase year after year so much so that it registered a more than five fold increase (16.5%) at the end of the First Plan itself. Barring the Third Plan, when the gap came down to 12.4%, its rising trend is witnessed all along the period under analysis, with a mild step-up upto the Seventh Plan. But thereafter, it widened sharply to become 35.3% at the end of the Eighth Plan and further to 45.7% by the close of the Ninth Plan (2001-02). The gap in the per capita income of the State and country galloped to nearly 5.0% in an interval of just one year i.e. by the end of 2002-03 when it shot upto 49.5%. In terms of money, a gap, which was confined to Rs. 8.0 only, when the State went for a planned development to wipe out this gap, has, after completing nine rounds of five yearly and seven annual plans, mounted upto a staggering magnitude of Rs. 8536 at the end of 2002-03, the mitigation of which does not appear in sight in the near future. This per capita income gap would appear still far wider if compared with the 14 major states of the country. The comparative figures of per capita income available for the year 2001-02 show that Uttar Pradesh with a per capita income of Rs. 9753, stands, barring Bihar, at the bottom. The corresponding per capita income of Punjab was as higher as Rs. 25652 followed by Maharashtra (Rs. 24736), Haryana (Rs. 24575), Kerala (Rs. 21310), Gujarat (Rs. 21276) and Tamil Nadu (Rs. 20975).
The main reason, as indicated earlier, has been inadequate growth in the state income and much of it has been neutralized by the high growth in its population. The analysis, on the one hand, underlines the gravity of the State’s under development because of its per capita income being extremely low and progressively getting distanced from the all-India average and more so in relation to other major states and utter necessity of urgent corrective measures on the other, lest the situation becomes unmanageable.

**Sectoral Growth**
The overall growth rate is the outcome of the combined growth rate of goods and services i.e. commodity producing sectors (agriculture and industry) and non-commodity producing sectors (services).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8.5</th>
<th>Average Annual Growth Rates in Broad Sectors of the State’s Economy (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>Agriculture &amp; Animal Husbandry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. 1950-51 – 1970-71</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 1970-71 – 1980-81</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 1980-81 – 1990-91</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 1993-94 – 2001-02</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.B. Estimates at sl. 1 & 2 are based on 1970-71 prices and those at sl. 3 and sl. 4 on 1980-81 and 1993-94 prices respectively.


It would, therefore, be worthwhile to disaggregate the overall growth performance of the State’s economy in these sectors and see their movement rates in the economy.

The relevant data for these major sectors of the economy from 1950-51 to 2001-02 are provided in the table-8.5.

It would be gathered from the table that average annual growth rate in the manufacturing sector, barring 1993-2001 period, has all along been more than twice of that in agriculture sector. However, the growth of agriculture sector emerges as the main determinant of the growth of the overall economy. The average annual growth rate of the economy has closely followed that of agriculture sector. The average annual growth rate of agriculture sector registered a mild but consistent step-up; 1.5% in 1950-51 to 1970-71, 2.0% in 1970-71 to 1980-81 and 3.2% in 1980-81 to 1990-91 period. Its impact is well reflected in the industrial and services sectors as also in the overall economy as their respective growth rates also depict the same tone. In the period from 1993-94 to 2001-02, when the annual growth rate of agriculture sector declined to 2.3%, the corresponding growth rates of industry, services and overall economy also slid down to 2.6%, 4.7% and 3.8% respectively. It, therefore eloquently speaks the significance of the agriculture sector. However, these growth rates, based on different prices, are not comparable in strict sense, these estimates does provide an insight of the direction towards which the economy has been moving.

**Structure of the State’s Economy**
Growth pattern of an economy has a definite impact on its structure. A balanced growth brings successive reduction in the share of primary sector, which includes agriculture and animal husbandry, forestry, pisciculture and mining, and progressively rising share of the secondary sector, which comprises manufacturing, construction, electricity, gas and water supply, followed by tertiary sector, which is composed of various services viz., transport, roads, communication, banking, public administration and other services. The structure of income and changes in it are indicative of the direction in which the economy is transforming itself.
### Sectoral Composition of Income

The various pace of growth exhibited by different sectors, as already discussed, is in line with the structural change, which the economy has gone into over the years, is brought out in Table 8.6 (p. 164).

It may be seen that share of agriculture sector at 1980-81 prices, during the period 1950-2002, has continuously declined. Its share from about 63% in 1950-51 came down to about 37% in 2002-03 indicating a reduction of about 26 percentage points, which has disproportionately been shared between manufacturing and services sectors, the former claiming about 6 percentage points while the remaining about 20 percentage points going to the latter. As a result, the combined contribution of commodity producing sector i.e., agriculture and industry, which was about 69 per cent in 1950-51 has decreased to about 49 per cent indicating a reduction of 20 percentage points.

It transpires from the aforesaid analysis that this trend of structural change is indicative of the fact that the economy of the State is gradually moving towards diversification from agricultural to non-agricultural pursuits, particularly to services sector. However, this pattern of change is in contravention with the conventional behaviour of sectoral movement. Conventionally, the development and expansion of the services sector takes place only after the substantial industrialization of the economy. The demand for services are to grow in relation to commodity output. It obviously means that exogenous component has out-weighted the induced component in the growth of services. Since most of the income generated in the services sector is in the form of wages and commodity producing sectors viz. agriculture and industry are not commensurately coming up, this situation may create inflationary conditions.

### Work-force Distribution

For proper understanding the structure of the economy
analysis of the sectoral distribution of work-force appears relevant along with the aforesaid analysis regarding sectoral composition of income. In this context data of work-force distribution of 1981 and 1991 censuses have been used as data relating to earlier censuses are not comparable due to changes in the definition of workers. The relevant data are provided in the table-8.7 (p. 166).

A perusal of the data contained in the above table reveals that out of 3.24 crore main workers in the State, as per 1981 census, there were 74.5% workers (58.5% cultivators and 16.0% agricultural labourers), who were engaged in agriculture and allied activities. Of the remaining workers (25.5%), 9% were engaged in industry and 16.5% in other activities and majority of them, in various services sectors. The corresponding figures as per 1991 census are found to be 72.2%, 7.8% and 20.2%. A comparison of work-force distribution of 1981 and 1991 indicates a reduction of 2.3% workers in agriculture sector and 1.2% in the industrial sector, while an increase of 3.5% in rest of the sectors. While analysing the sectoral contribution of income, it was observed that contribution of agriculture sector to total income has gone down by about 10% from 52% in 1981 to 42.7% in 1991, which is indicative of under-employment of workers, who, in absence of any other gainful pursuit, are forced to work in agricultural activities of the State.

Thus, there is gross imbalance in these major sectors of the economy. In case of agriculture sector, unlike other sectors, its share in total workers is far higher than its share in total income. As a consequence, the average income per worker of this sector is far less than that of other sectors. The average income per worker in agriculture sector, at current prices, in 1971 was Rs. 1166 against Rs. 1904 in the manufacturing sector and Rs. 3458 in rest of the sectors. By 1991, this inter-sectoral difference in the average income per worker has considerably mounted being Rs. 6912, 21464 and 27227 respectively. The consequences of this on

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>1981</th>
<th>1991</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Total Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Total Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>17615</td>
<td>19958</td>
<td>2337</td>
<td>22031</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22031</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Agriculture Labourers</td>
<td>4188</td>
<td>5177</td>
<td>6096</td>
<td>7833</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7833</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>2022</td>
<td>2914</td>
<td>2914</td>
<td>3205</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3205</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Rest</td>
<td>25950</td>
<td>3139</td>
<td>25950</td>
<td>3139</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3139</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Office of the Registrar General, U.P.
N.B. 1. Bracketed figures under col. 2 & 3 and 5 & 6 denote percentages from total population.
2. Bracketed figures under col. 4 & 7 shows the percentages of workers from total main workers.
mentha, herbs, flowers, etc. besides development and expansion of improved technology of crop production. As a result, production and productivity of food crops as well as non-food crops witnessed substantial growth as evident from the data provided in the Table 8.8:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Food Crops</th>
<th>Non-food crops</th>
<th>All crops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Area (%)</td>
<td>Production (%)</td>
<td>Productivity (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-51 to 1970-71</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71 to 1990-91</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91 to 2000-01</td>
<td>(-) 0.14</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall 1950-51 to 2000-01</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>2.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-51 to 1970-71</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71 to 1990-91</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91 to 2000-01</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>(-) 0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall 1950-51 to 2000-01</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on data from Uttar Pradesh Ke Krishi Ankre of different years.

N.B. Food crops include cereals and pulses and Non-food crops include sugarcane, oilseeds, potato and other crops.

The contents of the table indicate some interesting trends in the State agriculture. The total cultivated area in the State increased with an annual growth rate of 0.79%,
in 1950-51 to 1970-71 period, which stands highest in the
whole period under consideration, as it substantially
reduced to 0.42% in the next two decades i.e. 1970-71 to
1990-91 and went negative (0.07%) in 1990-91 to 2000-01
period. Almost similar trend is observed in the growth
rates of area under food crops. But the area under non-
food crops has increased with a far greater pace in the
overall period (1950-51 to 2000-01), being more than five
times (1.69%) as compared to that of the former (0.33%).
This, indeed, is a welcome feature of increasing inclination
of State farmers towards cash crops. The growth rate
registered in non-food crops, although depicts the same
trend as that of non-food crops, but the growth in the
production of the latter is sharper than that of the former,
while reverse is the situation of the growth trend in case of
their production.

Table 8.9
Production and Productivity of Selected Crops in 1950-51 and
2002-03 in Uttar Pradesh

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crops</th>
<th>Production (lakh M.T)</th>
<th>Productivity (Qtl/ha.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1950-51</td>
<td>2002-03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foodgrains</td>
<td>117.75</td>
<td>382.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>26.21</td>
<td>236.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>19.99</td>
<td>95.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulses</td>
<td>30.23</td>
<td>21.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oilseeds</td>
<td>7.79</td>
<td>8.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugarcane</td>
<td>294.88</td>
<td>1150.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potato</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>104.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Plan Documents, Uttar Pradesh

The analysis reveals two significant facts—diversification
of agriculture from low-value crops to high-value crops
and eroding possibilities of extensive agriculture as cultivated
land slipping towards other uses under ever rising pressure
of population.

Foodgrains production carries the same significance in
the total agricultural production as agriculture sector in
the overall State’s economy as it accounts for as high as
about 80% of the gross cropped area of agriculture sector
and major proportion of the total income of agriculture
sector is contributed by foodgrains. The other important
crops are sugarcane, oilseeds and potato. In the succeeding
analysis, only these crops have been dealt with.

An increase of more than three fold in the foodgrains
production as well as its productivity registered between
1950-51 and 2002-03 in the State, the former rising from
117.75 lakh M.T. to 382.16 lakh M.T. and the latter from
6.89 Qtls./ha. to 19.97 Qtls/ha. The production of wheat
shows a tremendous increase from about 26 lakh M.T. to
236 lakh M.T. and that of rice from about 20 lakh M.T.
to 96 lakh M.T. Their respective productivites more than
trippled from about 8 Qtls/ha. to 26 Qtls/ha. and from 5
Qtls/ha. to about 18 Qtls/ha. The production of oilseeds
has registered an increase of about 1.08 lakh M.T. only
during this period. However, the production of pulses has
gone down by about 29%. The production of sugarcane
shot up from about 295 lakh M.T. to about 1151 lakh M.T.
registering nearly four-fold increase but increase in its
productivity has been even less than twice, being about
291 Qtls/ha. in 1950-51 and 550 Qtls/ha. in 2002-03.
Here, it needs mention that while in case of total production
of sugarcane the State is placed at number one, while in
terms of productivity at number seven. The potato
production in the State shows substantial increase of
nearly 100 Lakh M.T. in 2002-03 (104 lakh M.T.) over 1950-
51 (6.41 lakh M.T.). Its present productivity level is 238
Qtls/ha., which is highest in the country, the next being
Gujarat (218 Qtls./ha.).

It would, thus, be clear from the aforesaid analysis that
state made laudable achievement in the production of
foodgrains, particularly, wheat and rice as also that of
sugarcane and potato. At present, the State produces
about above 21% of total foodgrains, 36.25% of total wheat, 41.30% of sugarcane and 43.53% of total potato. However, barring potato its productivity levels of wheat, rice and sugarcane are much below as compared to progressive states. The productivity levels of wheat in 2002-03 in Punjab was as high as 42 Qtls/ha. followed by Haryana (40.53 Qtls per ha.) and that of rice was 35.10 Qtls/ha. and 27.24 Qtls/ha. respectively. Likewise, productivity level of sugarcane in Tamil Nadu was as high as 1067.68 Qtls./ha. followed by Karnataka (843.61) and Gujarat (693.51 Qtls./ha.). So, there emerges considerable improvement in the productivity levels of not only food crops but cash crops also and that is only option left for augmenting production in future as there is little possibility of bringing more land under cultivation in the State.

Industry
As observed earlier, industrial sector after agriculture sector emerges as the second most significant sector of the State's economy. For the development of various kinds of industries viz. large and medium industries, small and cottage industries, khadi and village industries, handicrafts, handloom, etc., there is a strong and extensive framework of government organization including Directorate of Industries at the State level and District Industries Centres at the district level. Their main function is to attract new industries and rehabilitate the old ones. Besides, various institutions like UPSIDC, PICUP, GIDA, BIDA, etc., are to develop and upgrade infrastructural facilities, encourage industrial investment and to develop entrepreneurship. In order to develop and strengthen handicraft sector, an autonomous organization - U.P. Institute of Design (UPIID) has recently (11.2.04) been set up in the State with its registered office at Lucknow. For export promotion, Software Parks have been established at Noida and Kanpur. UPSIDC has taken up development of Agro Parks at Lucknow and Varanasi in the first stage and Hapur and Saharanpur in the next stage. Industrial township TRONICA city at Ghaziabad on a land of 1306 acres has already been established. With a view to ensuring participation of private sector in the big industrial projects, Infrastructure Initiative Fund has been created. In addition, concrete measures have been initiated to establish seven industrial corridors in the first stage to make full use of available industrial potentialities in the State. Likewise, a number of promotional steps have been taken by the Government of U.P., as per its Industrial Policy, to expand industrial activities all over the State. The number of registered factories in the State in 1950-51 was only 1862, which increased almost ten times by the end of 1990-91 (17539). The number of SSI units at the end of the 2001-02 was estimated as 4.31 lakh.

As a result of persistent efforts of the State Government coupled with its natural advantages, U.P. has been able to attract a number of new industrial units around the industrial complexes promoted at different locations. Over the years, about 129 industrial areas and industrial estates, extending over an area of about 38,000 acres have been developed in the State. The integrated industrial townships particularly Noida and Greater Noida have attracted a number of industries both from India as well as abroad. However, in spite of such advantage, while the country leap frogged into a growth range of 6 per cent per annum and major states scoring even more, the big state of Uttar Pradesh of 16 cr. people, continue to languish.

This paradox becomes more revealing when one looks at the impact of economic reforms of the nineties, which were industry centric. Strangely enough, industrial growth rates in the pre-reform period substantially outpaced that of post reform period. It has already been brought out that the State recorded an annual growth rate of 9.4% during the Fifth Plan (1974-79) as well as the Sixth Plan (1980-85) and still higher of 10.9% during the Seventh Plan period (1985-90). But after the introduction of economic reforms
in 1990-91, the average annual growth rates depict a nose-dive situation, being 1.1% in the two Annual Plans (1991-92), 4.2% in the Eighth Plan (1992-97) and (-) 3.3% in the Ninth Plan (1997-02). The average annual growth rate in the states like Gujarat during 1997-02 period was as high as about 20% followed by Madhya Pradesh (14%) and Maharashtra (10%), the all-India average being 9%. It is quite obvious that positive impulses and related benefits of industrial reforms, which were extra ordinary and far reaching at the national level, could not be taken to the cutting edge in Uttar Pradesh, because of certain inherent constraints, which would be discussed a bit later. Contextually, it appears relevant to look into some other aspects as structure, composition of output and investment.

Structure
While looking at structural composition of manufacturing sector, it is found that its highest share in SDP of the State was 15.7% in 1996-97, which has come down successively to about 12% in 2002-03. The share of registered and unregistered industries in the total income of manufacturing sector in the corresponding years was 10.5% & 5.2% and 6.3% & 5.9%, indicating a shortfall of 4.2 percentage points in the contribution of the registered industries.

The work-force in the manufacturing sector in 1971 was 19.92 lakh, which was almost equally shared by household industries (9.90 lakh) and non-household industries (10.02 lakh). In 1991, in the total work-force of the manufacturing sector of 32.05 lakh, their respective shares were 9.97 lakh (13%) and 22.08 lakh (69%) showing a successive decline share of household industries. It has further gone down to 5.6% in 2001 as per provisional results of 2001 census. It is also noticed that as compared to 1971, there has been an addition of about 13 lakh workers in 1991. But the share of manufacturing sector in the total main workers in 1991 (7.8%) has decreased from that in 1981 (9.0%). This underlines a further deterioration in the already weak industrial base of the State as even in 1981, the share of manufacturing sector in the state like Gujarat (15.4%), Tamil Nadu (15.2%) and Maharashtra (14%) was much higher. The structural composition of the industrial sector, which shows slippage both in terms of its percentage share in total income as well as employment, does not augur a healthy going for the economy in the years to come.

Composition of Output
As regards composition of output, it may be mentioned that in 1951-52, when the State embarked on planned development, it had only conventional industries like sugar, food processing, woolen and textiles, leather, oil, etc., and the situation did not materially change till the Fifth Five Year Plan. But, thereafter one finds striking change in the composition of industrial output, consisting of not only varieties of consumption goods but basic and capital goods also. The industrial sector has now virtually gone under metamorphosis moving from agro-based industries to latest and modern industries of electronics, petro-chemicals, aeronautics, chemical fertilizers, plastics, etc. The industrial production index (1970-71=100) of electrical machinery shot up to about 2769 in 1996-97 from about 389 in 1980-81 followed by other machinery, its index in the respective years being 805 and 286, chemicals other than petroleum and coal (564 & 104), transport equipments (869 & 224) and non-metallic mineral products (349 &188).

However, the present industrial development scenario of the State presents a disquieting situation and has become a cause of worry. It is because of the fact that a number of aforesaid traditional industries, which were set up at different locations of the State are at the verge of closures due to various structural problems. Of late, the overall industrial growth has also become sluggish due to multifarious constraints and declining industrial climate. It hardly needs mention about its induced impact on S.D.P.
and other sectors, which have high linkages with the industrial sector.

**Investment**

Inadequate investment has been found as the prime reason for the backwardness of the State’s economy in general and industrial sector in particular. Industrial growth is the outcome of combined investment from public sector, through the Central & State government, and private sector through financial institutions and entrepreneurs. It hardly needs mention that public sector among all the partners, happens to be the major partner to share in the total investment of the industrial sector, particularly in the initial stages.

A perusal of the magnitude of investment made by different agencies right from the First Plan onwards reveals discouraging trends. Among the public sector, Central Govt. had the sole responsibility, as per the Industrial Policy of 1948, of developing large and medium industries in the State. Although, the Central Govt. made an investment to the tune of Rs. 694 cr. during the First and Second Five Year Plans in the country, not a single Central Sector project was established in the State. Further, in an investment of Rs. 3000 cr. in the Central Undertakings upto 1968-69, U.P.’s share works out to be Rs. 129 cr. constituting only 4.3% of the total investment, against its share of nearly one-fourth in the area and, one-sixth in country’s population. The situation hardly suggests any meaningful improvement till the end of the Sixth Plan, when Central Sector investment in the State still stuck up to 5.9% of the total investment made in the country as a whole. The comparative figures of Central Sector investment in different states indicate U.P.’s share as 8.6% against Maharashtra’s share of 19.2% whereas their respective shares in the country’s population, being 16.4% and 9.2% point out the allocation in a just reverse direction.

Apart from central investment, industrial development depends, to a large extent, on the State Plan outlays allocated for the industrial sector. Reasons apart, even the State Govt. could not make adequate provisions for the industrial sector. Plan-wise relevant figures of outlays are presented in table-8.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan period</th>
<th>Outlay (Rs cr.)</th>
<th>Share of Industry (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First (1951-56)</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>153.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second (1956-61)</td>
<td>12.92</td>
<td>233.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third (1961-66)</td>
<td>20.84</td>
<td>560.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Annual Plans (1966-69)</td>
<td>17.52</td>
<td>450.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth (1969-74)</td>
<td>40.41</td>
<td>162.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth (1974-79)</td>
<td>182.87</td>
<td>2858.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth (1980-85)</td>
<td>331.10</td>
<td>6200.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh (1985-90)</td>
<td>626.10</td>
<td>1345.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighth (1992-97)</td>
<td>595.50</td>
<td>22005.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ninth (1997-02)</td>
<td>526.65</td>
<td>46340.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenth+ (2002-07)</td>
<td>1262.46</td>
<td>59708.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Agreed outlay source: Plan documents of Uttar Pradesh.

It may be observed that percentage allocation of outlays for the industrial sector in the pre-Fifth Plan period indicates a declining trend, the highest (5.54%) being in the Second Plan when priority was accorded to heavy and basic industries. The lowest share of 3.48% was observed in the Fourth Plan. In the Fifth Plan, the outlay of industrial sector with 6.4% share emerges as the highest in the overall period from the First to the Tenth Plan. However, it declines to 5.34% in the Sixth Plan and remained almost at the same level (5.52%) in the Seventh Plan. But a sharp
reduction is noticed thereafter in the successive plans i.e. Eighth, Ninth and Tenth Plans during which its share has been heavily slashed down to 2.71%, 1.14% and 2.11% respectively.

The trend emerging from the above analysis is indicative of the fact that industrial sector failed to receive an encouraging treatment in the past as also at present. Obviously enough, the Government's role appears to be confined to infra-structural support only leaving not only the industrial sector but also other sectors of the economy to find resources from financial institutions and other sources. An all time highest share of about 65% has been envisaged for the private sector in the estimated aggregate investment of Rs. 3,64,645 cr. for the ongoing State's Tenth Five Year Plan.

As regards private investment in the recent past through credit advanced to the State by the scheduled commercial banks and other financial institutions, particularly All-India Financial Institutions, emerging situation is also not encouraging. An inter-state comparative data reveal that in 2000-01 State's credit-deposit ratio in the scheduled commercial banks of 28.82% was the lowest, barring Bihar among the major states, against All-India average (58.53%) being more than double. In Tamil Nadu, it was as high as 90.60% followed by Maharashtra (85.39%), Andhra Pradesh (63.28%) and Karnataka (59.33%). It is worth mentioning that although rate of growth in deposits in this State was fairly higher than many of the states but that of credit was much lower. One can imagine the colossal loss the economy is persistently being subjected to on account of such a meagre C-D ratio. In case, the disbursement of credit to a big state like U.P., which ranks first in terms of population and fourth in area, is effected at least equal to the national average i.e. 58.53%, the credit amount works out to the order of about Rs. 50,000 cr. on the present (2001) level of deposits of Rs. 85057 cr.

Likewise, the credit advances to the State during 1998-99 by the Central Financial Institutions viz. IDBI, ICICI, IFCI, LIC, NABARD and REC works out to about 6% of the total such advances made in the country. The situation hardly suggests any improvement in the succeeding years. For the state of U.P., which carries the highest burden of the country's population, the credit disbursement at this rate, by any reckoning emerges to be hopelessly low.

The policy of economic liberalization initiated in 1991 brought a sense of competition amongst the states in attracting investments. Although Uttar Pradesh, which was the most sought after state in 1991 from investment point of view, had ranked first leaving behind Maharashtra and Gujarat yet the trend thereafter became discouraging. In 1991, Uttar Pradesh had highest share of 17.25% in total Industrial Entrepreneurial Memorandum (IEM) filed in the country followed by Maharashtra (14.33%), Gujarat (9.47%), Andhra Pradesh (5.54%) and Tamil Nadu (4.44%). However, the very next year (1992), the State slipped down to third place with a share of 11.72%, while the share of Maharashtra and Gujarat rose upto 18.61% and 17.69% respectively. Thereafter a successive reduction is observed in U.P.'s share, being 7.38% in 1993 and 6.48% in 1994. It picked up a little in 1995 (7.74%) and in 1996 (10.78%) but continues to trail behind Maharashtra, Gujarat and Tamil Nadu. In May 2002, its place with regard to IEM in the country was third.

Similar trend is observed in case of Letters of Intent (L.O.I.) also. In 1991, the State with 16.52% share in total L.O.I.'s issued at the all-India level, was placed on top followed by Maharashtra (15.85%) and Gujarat (10.07%) but since 1993 till 1996, it slipped to fourth place and in May 2002 further to fifth place.

The IEM's and L.O.I. issued in the seven years period from 1996 to 2002 yearly indicate a sharply decreasing trend both in number and investment in the State as evident from the data provided in the table-8.11 (p. 180).
Table 8.11
Trend of IEM and LOI During 1996-2002 Period in the State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>IEM issued</th>
<th>LOI issued</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Investment (Rs Cr.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>6504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>5155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>3244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>5403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>2775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002 (up to Feb)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistical Diaries of different years of Economics and Statistics Division, S.P.I., Lucknow.

Aforesaid analysis clearly brings out that industrial sector of the State’s economy in spite of striving hard and having substantial potentials, is practically starving of investment, which is not adequately available either from the public or private sector. The pertinent question arises as to what is the reason of such a low flow of investment in the State. As regards public sector, the State is confronted with a serious resource crunch because state budget mobilizes only about 6% of SDP as taxes and there to only less than 6% of expenditure is allocated to capital expenditure as most of the resources are consumed in revenue expenditure.

So far as investment from the private sector is concerned, it is severely constrained by the extremely low profitability ratios of industrial investment in the State, which the entrepreneurs don’t find attractive at all. An inter-state data of industrial profitability ratio reveal that average profitability in U.P. works out to about 5% as against more than four times in Tamil Nadu (21.6%) and Maharashtra (21.5%). Even the national average is more than twice, being 12.7% as brought out earlier that in the event of a straight-jacket situation of the State’s financial resources, the economic transformation critically depends on the private investment, which is solely driven by the profitability or returns on investment. The substantial flow of investment by the entrepreneurs in the states like Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu is only on account of far higher returns.

Obviously enough, this is a case of double whammy, where public investment is constrained by low mobilization of resources coupled with every swelling revenue expenditure and private investment remains limited by low profitability. Low investment results in low growth in income, which leads to low mobilization of resources and low investment. It, thus, creates a vicious circle of low investment and low growth. The situation is suggestive of a pressing necessity of bringing improvement in the profitability ratios so as to attract adequate private investment, which is the only way out to get the economy out of this vicious circle and put on the high growth path.

Financial Resources
The analysis of the growth performance of U.P. vis-à-vis all-India and some major states brought out earlier, has underlined the criticality of investment in determining the rate of growth of the economy. In this regard, it would be appropriate to have a look on the growth performance of the BIMARU (Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh) states, which have comparatively lower investible capacity than developed states. In the absence of state-wise data of investments for different plan periods, resort had to be taken to certain potent factors to assess the investible capacity.

Tax and Non-tax Revenue
In the above context, it would be interesting to note that these poor performer states have registered an average
annual growth rate in the range of 2.69% to 3.58% in the 1990s with exception of Rajasthan, and M.P. has increased from 3.18 in 1990-91 to 3.59 in 1996-97. Similarly, figures for respective years (2.08 & 2.14) in Orissa also indicate improvement. But in case of Uttar Pradesh, the corresponding level being already almost at the lowest ebb (1.57%) has further dipped to 0.97%. There is a wide ranging percentage share of income which states are capturing through taxes for augmenting their revenues. We have southern states viz. Kerala (13.68%), Tamil Nadu (11.56%) and Karnataka (11.48%) with higher percentages on the one extreme and Uttar Pradesh with corresponding lowest figure of 5.21% on the other.

It is, thus, evidently clear that investible capacity of the State is not only relatively low but it has deteriorated over the years, which has adversely affected its growth performance. Hence, it is in the interest of the State to emulate those states, which are more progressive and have forward looking vision in raising and mobilizing more and more resources for accelerating its pace of development.

Plan Expenditure
Apart from other sources of investment, plan expenditure plays a very crucial role in development. A comparison of per capita plan expenditure of the State in different five year plans with those of all state’s average indicates substantial shortfalls in the successive plans. The per capita plan expenditure in Uttar Pradesh during the First Plan was Rs. 25 against all states average of Rs. 38, indicating percentage of U.P. to the latter as 65.8. This gap of 34.2% successively narrowed down till the Fourth Plan, when percentage of U.P. to all states was 93 showing a gap of only 7%. However, after the Fourth Plan, situation sharply deteriorated in the following plans so much so that in the Ninth Plan percentage of U.P. to all states average slid down from 93 in the Fourth Plan to 59.1 in the Ninth Plan, thereby the gap shot upto 41.9%, which is even higher than the First Plan. In other words, the gap which was of only Rs.13 (38-25) has mounted to Rs. 1222 (Rs.2988-Rs.1766) by the end of the Ninth Plan. The per capita plan expenditure in case of progressive states viz. Haryana, Punjab, Orissa, Gujarat and Karnataka in the Eighth Plan was as high as Rs. 3462, Rs. 3239, Rs.3159, Rs.2784 and Rs. 2735 respectively against corresponding figure of Rs. 1559 for Uttar Pradesh.

Financing of the State Plans
The financial situation of the states get well-reflected by the pattern of financing its plans. Table-8.12 brings out the financing pattern from the Fifth to Eighth Five Year Plan.

Table 8.12
Financing Pattern of Five Year Plans in U.P.
(Percentages to total)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>State’s Own Contribution</td>
<td>32.56</td>
<td>34.22</td>
<td>14.04</td>
<td>(-)20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Total Borrowing</td>
<td>22.49</td>
<td>27.06</td>
<td>41.30</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>State’s Total Resources</td>
<td>55.05</td>
<td>61.28</td>
<td>55.34</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Central Assistance</td>
<td>44.95</td>
<td>38.72</td>
<td>45.66</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Total Resources (3+4)</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Plan documents, Uttar Pradesh.

It would be seen that balance of current revenue (BCR) i.e. State’s own contribution, which was about one-third of the total resources in the Fifth and Sixth Plan, reduced to 14% in the Seventh Plan and further went down in the Eighth Plan being a little above (-) 20%. The situation may be attributed to the fact that borrowed plan funds are
being used to meet out non-plan revenue expenditure. As a result, the percentage of borrowings, which was about 22% in the Fifth Plan has more than trippled (69.5%) by the Eighth Plan. The mounting trend of borrowings underlines the worsening fiscal situation of the State. Certain interesting features of the State’s financial position are as follows:

- It is expected that after meeting out current expenditure from the State revenues, the balance would substantially contribute towards financing plans. This surplus of current revenues over non-plan current expenditure is known as BCR (balance from current revenues). When this is positive, it contributes along with borrowed resources to finance the plan. However, it is a painful reality that State’s resources in relation to plan requirements, after the Fifth Plan, have successively deteriorated and ultimately the BCR turned out to be negative in the Eighth Plan. In all probability, the same trend continues further. There are possibly two main factors responsible for this adverse situation. On the one hand, the revenue expenditure of the State has tremendously increased from Rs. 2761 cr. in 1983-84 to 26075 cr. in 1998-99 indicating almost ten-fold increase and corresponding State’s own revenue, which was already half of the revenue expenditure, increased from Rs. 1397 cr. to 9387 cr. showing an increase of nearly seven times in the corresponding period. The percentage of revenue expenditures in the total expenditure of the State, which was 59% in 1970-71 has continuously been increasing year after year to become 80% by 2000-01 (BE) leaving only 20% for capital expenditure. Similarly, the share of non-plan expenditure in the total expenditure increased from 57% in 1978-79 to 72.4% in 2000-01.

- There are serious implications of BCR being negative.

The government has to finance the negative BCR through borrowed resources, which ought to be necessarily utilised in the plan for creation of capital assets. Hence, further borrowing is needed in order to meet latter requirement. This process has a cumulative effect on borrowings. It is well reflected in mounting indebtedness of the State. The total outstanding debt liability on the State, which was about Rs.17966 cr. in 1990-91 has increased to Rs.91182 cr. in 2002-03. Revised estimates of outstanding loan in 2003-04 has been to the tune of Rs. 106434 cr. and in 2004-05, it is estimated to 115255 cr. Thus, no sign of let up in mounting debt is expected in coming years, which is a matter of serious concern and need to be addressed.

- The contribution from public sector enterprises, comprising State Electricity Board and Road Transport Corporation, is another important component of State’s resources. However, it has been negative in all the five year plans under review.

- The State is confronted with a peculiar situation, whereby, it has serious resource crunch and at the same time, huge amount of resources are lying idle in the form of dead stock/non-functional inventories. As per estimates of the Planning Department, U.P., the total non-functional assets/resources of the State Government in 1999-2000 was to the tune of approximately Rs. 21,000 crore, which is a substantial amount to meet plan expenditures.

- The central assistance is an important resource for plan financing. However, this has also not been commensurate to the State’s requirements relating to social and economic facilities, which are as observed earlier, desperately needed. The gap between the per capita central assistance to U.P.
(Rs. 13.35) and all-India (Rs. 23.31) was confined to Rs. 10 only, which increased in different plan periods and reached to Rs. 237 at the end of the Eighth Plan.

Thus, in such a grim fiscal situation of the State, while there is a pressing need of genuine efforts to mobilize additional resources through tax as well as non-tax revenues coupled with effective control on revenue expenditure, private investment on a larger scale appears prime necessity to get through the kind of financial crisis, the State is confronted with.

Poverty
A successive improvement in the standard of living and quality of life of the people, particularly of privileged and weaker sections of population has been one of the basic objectives of economic planning in the State. An analysis of the data relating to incidence of poverty in the State revealed that during a span of 20 years (1973-93), the incidence of poverty decreased from about 57% in 1973-74 to about 41% in 1993-94 indicating a reduction of 16 percentage points in this period. The corresponding reduction in the rural and urban areas was about 14% and 25% respectively. However, in terms of number, the population below the poverty line in 1993-94 (604 lakh) was higher by about 100 lakh than that of 1977-78 (about 504 lakh), out of which increases in rural and urban areas were 89 lakh and 11 lakh respectively.

According to 55th round of NSS the number of persons living below poverty line indicates a substantial decline of about 10 percentage points from about 41% in 1993-94 to about 31% in 1999-2000. The corresponding percentages in rural areas and urban areas were 31.22% and 30.89%. Of the total 530 lakh persons living below the poverty line in U.P., the share of rural and urban population was 412 lakh and 118 lakh respectively. The achievement of the State in this regard is undoubtedly laudable but the relative position of other states emerges far better. The corresponding magnitude was found to be about 6% in Punjab, 9% in Haryana, 13% in Kerala, 14% in Gujarat and 15% in Rajasthan.

It may also be mentioned that number of persons below the poverty line in 1973-74 was 535.73 lakh in the State, after 26 years i.e. in 1999-2000, the number remains almost the same being 530 lakh. Thus, the problem of poverty in the State emerges as the chronic one.

The problem of poverty as indicated earlier, arises mainly on account of inadequate growth in income and its distribution among different segments of population. However, certain factors, which ultimately lead to the former, assume an overwhelming significance from policy point of view as revealed by a study done by the Perspective Planning Division of the State Planning Institute, U.P. The study used the data of poverty for 1973-74 and 1987-88 U.P. and other states and those relating to certain variables viz. rate of population growth, percentage of cultivators and agricultural workers to the total main workers, literacy rate, percentage of small holdings and foodgrains production for 1971, 1981 and 1991.

The study brought out that low literacy rate, higher population growth, excessive dependence on agriculture coupled with a very high percentage of small holdings and lower growth rate of foodgrains production than that of population are the crucial factors, which have led to a high incidence of poverty in Uttar Pradesh. While these very factors being favourable in neighbouring states of Punjab and Haryana, the incidence of poverty in these states has come down more than half in 1987-88, what it was in 1973-74. These factors, therefore, imperatively need to be looked into with a much more attention and care in order to have any meaningful dent on this chronic problem of poverty in the state of Uttar Pradesh.
### Employment and Unemployment

The problems of poverty and unemployment are interrelated. Broadly speaking, the twin problems have cause and effect relationship i.e., latter is the cause and former is the effect. After having analysed the incidence of poverty as above, it appears relevant and logical to look into the size and trend of employment generation and unemployment in the state.

### Employment Generation

As regards employment generation, a regular and authentic information of different sectors of the economy is thrown up by the census after each decade. Relevant data of 2001 census are yet to be out. However, data available from 1951 to 1991 at various decadal points are summarised in table 8.13.

In the ideal situation, the growth rate of employment generation is expected to have an edge over the growth rate of population. However, the trend emerging from the data present altogether different picture. The annual growth rate of population in the decade 1951-61 was 1.55%, which continuously increased to 1.89% in 1961-71 period, 2.30% during 1971-81 period and almost the same 2.29% in 1981-91. As against this, the growth rate of employment generation has, barring the last decade, been below the former, being 0.7%, (-) 0.6%, 1.7% and 2.5% respectively.

Looking at the employment trend in broad sectors viz, agriculture, industry and other sectors together with the aforesaid trend for the overall economy, it is observed that increase in employment generation has mainly been concentrated in agriculture sector, being about three-fourth workers or even more than that engaged therein. It is interesting to note that between 1981 and 1991, there has been addition of about 90 lakh in the total main workers, of which about 57 lakh workers have increased in agriculture sector alone, while corresponding increases in industry and rest of the sectors are found to be only 3 lakh.

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**Table 8.13: Trends in Employment Generation in Major Sectors of the State's Economy at Different Points of Time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Labour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>29864</td>
<td>(74.5)</td>
<td>(8.6)</td>
<td>(17.1)</td>
<td>4585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>28580</td>
<td>(75.2)</td>
<td>(7.8)</td>
<td>(17.0)</td>
<td>4902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>27334</td>
<td>(77.4)</td>
<td>(7.8)</td>
<td>(15.3)</td>
<td>4163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>32807</td>
<td>(74.1)</td>
<td>(6.9)</td>
<td>(18.0)</td>
<td>3580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>41651</td>
<td>(72.2)</td>
<td>(7.7)</td>
<td>(19.1)</td>
<td>3035</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Bracketed figures in Col. 1 indicate growth rate in population and those in Col. 3, 4 and 5 denote percentages to the total workers.

Source: Various Plan Documents, Uttar Pradesh.
and 30 lakh respectively. It would, thus, be seen that although the percentage of workers engaged in agriculture shows a decline from 74.87% in 1981 to 72.2% in 1991 but the number of workers has, in fact, substantially increased.

It is quite evident from the above that concentration of surplus work-force in agriculture sector appears to be per force on account of inadequate job opportunities in other sectors particularly manufacturing, in which annual growth rate of workers, barring 1971-81, has registered sharp deceleration. Excessively mounting burden on agriculture is indicative of vast under-employment in this sector in view of the fact that decline in the percentage of workers in agriculture sector (2.1%) is much less than the shortfall (17.9%) in its share in the total income of the economy during 1951-91 period.

In this context, inter-state data indicate a close relationship between growth rates of income and number of workers. Broadly, it emerges that states with higher annual growth rates in income had also higher increase in the number of workers. In Punjab, Maharashtra, Haryana, Gujarat and Karnataka, in which growth rates of income during 1971-81 were 4.85%, 4.6%, 4.5%, 3.5% and 3.1% respectively, the corresponding increase in their workers was 26%, 32%, 45%, 31% and 34%. As against this, in Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Kerala, where growth rates of income were comparatively low being 3.1%, 3.0% and 2.2%, the respective increase in the number of workers was also found to be 13%, 19% and 9% respectively. Similarly, in 1981-91 period, Rajasthan with highest growth rate of 7.5% in income witnessed maximum increase of 33% in the workers also, followed by Haryana, Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh, the respective figures being 6.4% & 29%, 5.9% & 28% and 4.9% & 28%. Correspondingly, the lowest growth rate in income of 3.0% is observed in case of Orissa, where increase in workers was also minimum being 20% followed by Kerala, which has annual growth rate 3.3% in income and 22% in workers. It has also been observed that states which could achieve comparatively higher increase in their workers, could do so mainly because of higher growth rates in secondary and tertiary sectors particularly in the former. The trend is, therefore, suggestive of the fact that since capacity of agriculture sector to provide employment is severely constrained, additional employment opportunities in the State will have to be created in the secondary and tertiary sectors to reduce incidence of unemployment/under-employment and thereby poverty.

Employment Trend in the Organised Sector
Available data relating to employment in the organised sector at four points of time indicate a decreasing trend as presented in table-8.14.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total (lakh)</th>
<th>Public (lakh)</th>
<th>Private (lakh)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>18.47</td>
<td>13.79</td>
<td>4.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>22.91 (2.18)</td>
<td>17.38 (2.34)</td>
<td>5.53 (1.68)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>26.78 (1.43)</td>
<td>21.42 (1.92)</td>
<td>5.36 (.026)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>26.58 (-0.15)</td>
<td>21.17 (-0.23)</td>
<td>5.41 (0.19)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Director of Training & Employment, U.P.
Note: Bracketed figures denote annual growth rates.

A declining trend in generation of employment is observed both in public as well as in private establishments of the organised sector. The growth rate in total workers of the organised sector in 1970-80 period works out to 2.18%, corresponding growth rate in public and private sector being 2.34% and 1.68%. In the next decade i.e. 1980-91, the corresponding growth rates in the public sector reduced
to 1.92% and became negative (-0.26%) in the private sector. As a result, growth rate of the overall organized sector shrank to 1.43%. In 1991-96 period, private sector although witnessed a nominal increase but the growth rate in the greater segment i.e. public sector being negative, the overall organized sector also had negative growth rate (-0.15%).

According to Employment Exchange statistics, there were about 15.48 lakh persons registered seeking for employment on the live register in 1981 which increased to 31.19 lakh in 1990. However, thereafter, it has consistently been declining being 25.48 lakh in 1995 and 18.64 lakh in 2001. A declining level of registration may be attributed to lack of job opportunities in the organized sector. The share of organized sector employment in the total workers of the State (55th round of NSS for 1999-2000) indicates only 5% of persons working in the organized sector. According to census 2001, this share is only about 4%.

Clearly enough, in such disquieting situation of employment in the organized sector, there appears remote possibility of the absorption of rising labour force in the State. As a sequel to lesser availability of employment in the organized sector of the State coupled with inadequacy of entrepreneurial skill, the incidence of unemployment in the educated youth has considerably increased. The unemployed persons registered on the live register statistics for 2003 shows that of the total unemployed persons, 14.98 lakh (77.7%) were educated (4.67 lakh High School, 6.32 lakh Intermediate, 3.14 lakh Graduate and 0.85 lakh Post Graduate) and only 4.31 lakh (22.3%) uneducated (below High School). Technical persons i.e. Diploma (18.76 thousand), Degree (3.29 thousand) and Post Graduate (0.15 thousand). Engineers are included in respective general category of education i.e. intermediate, graduate and postgraduate.

Unemployment

The problem of unemployment like that of poverty continues to remain a challenging task with all seriousness before the State. In fact, the problem of unemployment, on the one hand, is linked with the demand of labour and its supply on the other. The difference between the labour force (supply of labour) and employment (demand of labour) provides magnitude of unemployment. In other words, excess of labour supply over its demand is the cause of unemployment. In a developing economy like Uttar Pradesh, this is the real situation which exists since long. The supply of labour depends on the growth rate of population and labour participation rate and its demand is given by the employment elasticity with respect to income growth. As regard to supply of labour, it has been very high as observed while discussing population. In case of demand, employment elasticity to income growth shows a declining trend, being 0.52 during 1980-81 to 1990-91 period, 0.40 during 1995-96 to 1997-98 and 0.38 during 1993-94 to 1999-2000. Thus, on both the counts, the situation emerges quite unfavourable to U.P.'s economy. As a result, the size and trend of unemployment has been on the increase, particularly in the recent past.

National Sample Survey also provides an important information with regard to unemployment situation. According to this information, the rate of unemployment based on current daily status thrown up by different rounds of NSS are provided in table-8.15 (p. 194).
The data contained in table-8.15 depict and an increasing trend in the rate of unemployment, which was 3.75% in 1972-73, continuously increased to 4.33% in 1977-78 and further to 4.71% in 1983. Although, it did decline in 1987-88 (3.73%) and in 1993-94 (3.46%) but again increased to 4.48% in 1999-2000. Here, it needs mention that decline in the unemployment rate does not necessarily mean an improvement in the employment in the State as NSS approach is directly related to intensity in terms of work, but not wages for employment. It has already been observed that agriculture sector of the State’s economy has registered a decline of about 2% in its share in total workers in 1991 (72%) from 1981 (74%). But its share in the GDP has reduced by 10 per cent. This is a clear indication of reduction in the real income of workers or in other words, a situation of under-employment.

Under-employment
On the basis of several approaches, the number of under-employed is estimated to be between 90 lakh and 120 lakh in the State. But, it is general observation that there is no work for about 100 days in the rural areas. Thus, about 27% agricultural workers have practically no work. On this basis, the total under-employed in the State can worked out to be about 99 lakh. However, it is worth mentioning that from the pragmatic point of view, there lies hardly any difference between unemployed and severely under-employed.

Job Requirement in Past
Estimates of job requirements in the State’s economy to wipe out the backlog of unemployment and to provide employment to the new entrants to the labour force are prepared and brought out in each Five Year Plan document. A look on these figures provided in table-8.16 may be relevant in this context.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Five Year Plan</th>
<th>Backlog of unemployment at the beginning of the plan</th>
<th>New entrants to labour force</th>
<th>Total job requirement (2+3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>54.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1974-79)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>13.44</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>61.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1980-85)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventh</td>
<td>20.77</td>
<td>51.24</td>
<td>72.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1985-90)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighth</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>54.00</td>
<td>70+76*=146.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1992-97)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ninth</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>66+93*=159.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1997-02)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenth</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>59.00</td>
<td>89+112*=194.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2002-07)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Concerned Plan Documents, Uttar Pradesh.
It would be seen that job requirements have consistently been increasing from one plan to another. Backlog of unemployment fluctuated between 13 lakh to 21 lakh during the Fifth to the Seventh Plan but thereafter, it also exhibited an increasing trend being 16 lakh in the Eighth Plan, 18 lakh in the Ninth Plan and all time high of 23 lakh at the beginning of the Tenth Plan. The magnitude of new entrants to the labour force is also found to be on the increase being 35 lakh in the Fifth Plan, further to 54 lakh in the Eighth Plan and 59 lakh in the Tenth Plan. It, therefore, follows that planned efforts made so far to attain the level of full employment has not been adequate even to reduce the size of unemployment. As a result, job requirement, which was only 54 lakh in the Fifth Plan, has nearly trippled to 159 lakh in the Ninth Plan and further to a new height of 194 lakh in the Tenth Plan. Besides, it also attracts our attention towards another fact, which is, perhaps, more significant related to severely under-employed, depict an upward trend, being 76 lakh in the Eighth Plan, 93 lakh in the Ninth Plan and 112 lakh in the Tenth Plan. Obviously enough, the size of the problem of under-employment is much bigger than that of unemployment. The problem of employment and under-employment when taken together pose a serious challenge. Hence, tackling this problem is indeed quite a formidable task before the State government in the years to come.

Emerging Issues
So this is all gaunt and grim scene today as transpires from the foregoing analytical account of the trend and pattern of development performance of U.P.’s economy, which hardly indicates any prospects of tomorrow other than bleak and dark. It is evidently so, as insolence of the major problems not only still remain almost unloosed, instead some have rather assumed daunting proportions.

To recapitulate, population upsurge, on the other hand, has gone unbridled from a modest rate of 1.55% in 1951-61 period to highest of 2.33% in 1991-2001, although Uttar Pradesh was the first state to initiate family planning in the First Plan itself and growth rate of S.D.P., during the whole planning period, has averaged around 3% per annum on the other, against the targeted growth rate ranging from 5% to 8%. As a result, per capita income gap between Uttar Pradesh and all-India, which was only 3% in 1950-51, even after more than half a century’s planned efforts, has widened to almost uncontrollable limits reaching to about 49% by the end of 2002-03. Further, power, irrigation, roads and literacy, which are considered as the chief drivers of the economy, being in deplorable state, have proved to be the main stumbling blocks in the socio-economic progress of the State. When the neighbouring states of Punjab and Haryana and all the southern states have already electrified their all the villages, corresponding achievement in Uttar Pradesh is still on the brink of 57%. Similarly, about 44% of State’s population in general and 57% of female population in particular are still away from literacy. As regards irrigation, in spite of available potential, nearly one-fourth of the net area sown still depend on the mercy of Rain God. Today, more than 55% villages desperately wait for all-weather roads. The problem of poverty and unemployment has become sticky. The incidence of poverty in the State since three decades is hovering around 5 crore plus magnitude. The quantum of unemployed and under-employed is multiplying with such a fast pace that job requirement has quadruplicated to be around a figure of two crore at the beginning of the Tenth Plan, which was only 54 lakh in the Fifth Plan. Such a type of poor outcome of developmental efforts is bound to be as it is, after all, it is the perceptible performance that counts and not the perennial promises, which emerges from the whole story of planned development in Uttar Pradesh.

However, there always lies a silver lining amidst the dark clouds. Hence, several milestones attained by the State’s economy in the process of planned development
can not be dismissed altogether. To do so would be to ignore the basic trend of history and to deny hope for the future. There has undoubtedly been improvement in almost all the dimensions but its pace has been too slow to make any meaningful dent on the socio-economic parameters of development. Obviously, the task ahead is very challenging, tough and toilsome since the expectations and exigencies of the hour, particularly the most crucial issues relating to creation of employment opportunities, alleviation of poverty and saturation of population by literacy hardly leave any soft options further. Therefore, if, on the one hand, sufficient measures take care of the weaknesses of the economy as also to optimally exploit its strengths are taken and justice, both social as well as economic, and balance between planning and execution is ascertained on the other, there would be such a release of human energy for constructive and ameliorative purposes that transformation of Uttar Pradesh into much hyped “Uttam Pradesh” could become a reality.

In the above context, some basic issues relating to key infrastructures, commodity producing sectors, financial resources, population, etc., which emerges from the analysis deserve the consideration to form the basis of development strategy for the economy of Uttar Pradesh. These are mentioned as follows:

**Infrastructure**

- A necessary build-up of infrastructural network is considered crucial not because of its direct impact on final output and its distribution but also because it permits and, in fact, invites direct productive activities to come in. In view of investment starved economy of Uttar Pradesh and overwhelming significance of physical and human resources in the whole process of development in general and production and distribution in particular, their optimal exploitation has to be ensured. In this regard, light and knowledge i.e. power and literacy assume top priority since these two variables have proved to be the engines of growth. They play the same crucial role in a developing economy as that of lungs and mind in human body. The smooth functioning of the other organs of the body is only possible if these two are strong and sound. Acute paucity of resources in the State underlines the need of adopting a hardline approach for arresting the current trend of indiscriminately sprinkling of resources everywhere, which has brought the economy in the ‘Jack of all and master of none’ situation. A collective and orchestrated effort both from the public sector, inclusive of both State and Central Governments and Private sector is, therefore, crucially needed to make sure that power generation and literacy expansion do not suffer any more. Sooner it is done better would it be for a faster pace of development.

- The present shortage of power in the State would be about one and half times higher, i.e. 14500 MU by 2011 as per energy policy of Uttar Pradesh. An investment of around Rs. 78,000 cr. would require to meet this gap. Obviously enough, this is beyond the capacity of the State alone to manage such a huge investment. While it needs substantial support from the Centre, a large private investment will have to be roped in like that of Rs. 11,000 cr. in Dadri Power Project although, it has also been postponed now. The point in question need to be emphasized that if this state has to attain its wealth worth, availability of adequate power has to be made sure with which its growth is closely tied up.

- Literacy is the internal trigger of growth. However, the Census 2001 indicates that as many as about 7 crore people (42.6%) in the State are still illiterate and more than half (57%) of the female population in the State is devoid of education. Clearly enough, results underline the need of making literacy programme still more extensive in order to enable different segments of the
population to justifiably share the fruits of development. However, in this situation, serious challenge of illiteracy is bound to persist in the current century also, an allocation of 6% of GDP, as was underlined in the National Education Policy (1986), therefore, ought to be positively implemented.

- In view of historically proved positive correlation between literacy and development, it is implicitly required that both the State as well as Centre must fulfil their obligation to eradicate illiteracy, which is a blot and a drag on the nation. Considering the characteristics and implications of liberalization and globalization, it is all the more necessary that gap between knowledge and communication is closed soon if the development process is to be really stimulated.

- The situation drives towards a wholesome strategy under which the State should muster all its strengths and resources for making Education for All Programmes a decisive, all pervasive and successful movement. Hence, the formulation of an intensive and integrated programme of basic education and its execution need to be given foremost priority in the education sector. The active participation of educational and voluntary organisations, particularly women, would be utmost necessary.

- The other crucial infrastructures viz., irrigation and roads claim next priority in the allocation of resources. However, while allocating resources to irrigation, first and foremost priority should be accorded to utilization of potential already created then and only then for creating fresh ones. For ensuring optimum utilization of irrigation potential already created, the programme relating to Command Area Development Agency (CADA), Watershed Management and Diversified Agriculture Support Programme need to be integrated. Besides, for maximum use of water for irrigation, drip and sprinkler irrigation ought to be promoted in a big way. As regards allocation of resources to road sub-sector, construction of rural approach roads deserves highest priority to ensure saturation of village connectivity with all-weather roads as early as possible. Resources to other programmes under the road sub-sector should go only for maintenance or otherwise crucially needed till the village connectivity is saturated.

- In the current process of liberalisation and globalisation, availability of top quality of these infrastructures, has become the most decisive factors in determining the location of industries and extent of investment. Hence, development, strengthening and upgradation of existing infrastructures in the State, particularly in its Eastern and Bundelkhand regions, which are deplorably lagging behind in this respect will have to be provided preference in order to realize its full economic and industrial potential, which it is abundantly endowed with. Since creation of infrastructural facilities in general and high quality in particular is considerably costly affair requiring huge investment, participation of private sector on a larger scale would be unavoidably necessary.

**Agriculture**

- It is well established fact that agriculture has been the life-line of the State’s economy in the past and its predominance is likely to continue for a fairly long time in future also. Its over-riding significance in the State’s economy lies on account of its contribution to GDP as well as highest share in the total work-force. A higher growth in this sector emerges, therefore, utmost necessary for a faster growth in the overall economy as also for reduction in the incidence of poverty, which is mainly in the rural areas.

- Agricultural strategy should continue to be pre-occupied with high yields. Preference should go to only to those programmes, which provide push to productivity and cropping intensity as also to those which protect the
interests of marginal/small farmers and landless labourers, who dominate the agricultural economy of the State. It is particularly necessary to those regions, where levels of productivity is comparatively low, need to be brought at par with the Western region, which favourably compares with neighbouring developed states of Punjab and Haryana. Besides, diversification with agriculture from the low value crops to high value crops and from farm to non-farm and remunerative activities is pressingly called for in order to boost up rural economy.

Industry
- Apart from agriculture, industry is other constituent of the commodity producing sector. In the present scenario, agriculture no doubt emerges as the main determinant of growth of the overall economy, however, industrial growth, taking a long term view, has to constitute State’s drive for economic development till its agriculture driven economy turns into a pre-dominantly industrial one. Hence, industrialisation at a rapid rate along with sound agricultural growth has to be main plank of development strategy for the State’s economy. The development strategy of industrial sector, therefore, must take care of consolidating the hard earned gains, utilising potentials, available in sufficient magnitude in terms of a number of agricultural products, raw materials, minerals, cattle wealth, technical and non-technical human resources and thereby progressively steering the industrial venture ahead.
- In the above context, the spectacular strides made by the Madhya Pradesh, which happens to be one of the “BIMARU” states like Uttar Pradesh are worth mentioning. In the Fifth Plan, the rate of industrial growth in M.P. was just 1.3% against U.P.’s corresponding growth rate of 9.4%. Similarly, growth rate in agriculture and animal husbandry sector in the former was 1.6% against 5.7% in the latter. In the next Plan i.e. Sixth, Madhya Pradesh with 7.8% growth rate in industrial sector was still below that of 11.8% in U.P. However, in agriculture, M.P. went far ahead with a growth rate of 12.2% against 9.7% in U.P. In the Seventh Plan, M.P. surpassed in both the sectors i.e. industry as well as agriculture with respective growth rates of 11.4% and 3.0%, whereas corresponding achievements U.P. were 10.0% and 2.7%. Uttar Pradesh was left much behind in the Eighth Plan during which M.P. demonstrated an all time highest performance by achieving a growth rate of 13.9% in the industry and 5.5% in agriculture, while respective achievements were only 4.2% and 2.7% in U.P. In the Ninth Plan, industrial sector in U.P. witnessed a negative growth rate of (-) 3.3% while M.P. moved ahead with a rate of 5.8%, the growth rate in agriculture being 0.8% in the former and (-) 1.7% in the latter. Apart from other factors, it is the availability of power that has made all the difference. The per capita consumption of power in 1994-95 in M.P. was 334 kwh, which increased to 398 kwh in 1998-99 whereas corresponding figure in U.P. went down from 194 kwh to 179 kwh. This amply demonstrates that, a faster movement of industrial sector has to be substantially backed up by power and growth in agriculture sector. Besides, this also underlines the amount of effort which is urgently required particularly in respect of power generation, in the similar states like Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. A higher growth in industrial sector is possible only when there is a much higher growth in power. For the transformation of Uttar Pradesh, which is at present “Krishi Pradesh” into “Uttam Pradesh”, it has to become Udyog Pradesh first because a state like Uttar Pradesh where the percentage of population dependant on agriculture for its livelihood is much larger than what it can sustain leading to gross under-
employment and low income of this work-force, may be attributed to low profile of industrial sector both in respect of its contribution to income as well as to employment. The prevailing situation calls for a rapid growth in manufacturing sector, which could provide new avenues for more gainful employment to surplus work-force engaged in agriculture sector and in the process of those left behind in agriculture will also be fully employed.

- While State will have to create conditions for a balanced and harmonious growth of all segments of the industrial sector such as heavy, medium, small and tiny sectors, among the organised industries, consumer goods industries, as compared to intermediate and capital goods industries need to be preferred in view of their higher potential for employment and income generation. As regards choice of industries according to scale, small scale industries have definite edge over large scale industries because of inherent advantages arising out of its low overhead costs, vast employment potential at a relatively low per unit of investment, flexibility with regard to location, less gestation period and simple techniques of production. However, it may not be advisable to restrict the entry of large units in the areas where SSI sector is unable to withstand international competition due to globlisation and liberalization.

- Most important for the development of industrial as well as agriculture sectors are the traditional industries like sugar, textiles and oils, which have thrived in the State for centuries need to be suitably supported, strengthened, augmented and made competitive in terms of quality, technology, design, packing and marketing with necessary provisions of inputs, incentives and services. Besides these agro-based industries, the welcome strides taken by the State in the fields of electronics, information technology, petro-

chemicals, aeronautics, fertilizers, plastics, etc., will have to be further boosted and expanded. Together with this, formulation of industry specific tailor-made packages would also be necessary to respond to the needs of specific segments of industry.

- Similar significance is claimed by the Small and Marginal Enterprises, which are about 29 lakh in the State as per Economic Census of 1998. Of these units, about 53% are located in the urban areas and remaining 47% in the rural areas, employing about 42 lakh persons in the former and about 29 lakh persons in the latter. In view of such a large population engaged in these SMEs, it becomes an implicit need that adequate facilities are extended for the proper marketing of their products, to fulfill their credit and other requirements so that their growth goes unhindered.

Financial Resources

- It has already been observed that as a result of progressive erosion in its own resources coupled with inadequacy of central assistance, dependence of the State on loans have been on the excessive increase. Considering the acute financial constraints, the State, on the one hand, has to tighten its belt for additional resource mobilization and ensure best and fullest use of its hard earned resources on the other.

- The propensity to spend must have to be matched with that of mobilization of resources. Own resources of the State will have to be augmented by way of enlarging tax base to the possible extent, enhancing tax collections and encouraging public sector undertakings to finance capital expenditure by their own savings.

- In order to fulfill long cherished national goal of removing regional disparities and also considering State's financial constraints, the Central Government will have to come forward in a big way to release greater central assistance and provide higher sanctions for market borrowings so
as to enable the State to manage the resource gap. Besides, genuine efforts are needed from the Centre to award more and more externally aided projects to Uttar Pradesh.

- The Central Assistance to economically weaker and backward states like Uttar Pradesh, should be on the basis of 50% loan and 50% grant, with a larger repayment period and lower rates of interest.

- In the present liberalized environment, the flow of private investment, which has become inevitable in the State, could only be attracted if basic socio-economic infrastructural facilities are created far and wide in the State. In this context, it would be quite necessary as also logical that adequate funds are managed and earmarked by the Central Government for necessary build-up of infrastructural facilities in the poorer states. The efficient use of the proceeds of privatizing existing Central Public Undertakings would be in expanding and strengthening infrastructures in such states, which in turn, would be the best way of leveraging a greater flow of private investment. Without proper and adequate infrastructural facilities, the backward states like Uttar Pradesh can hardly be expected to avail the advantages of economic liberalization. That is what the present situation underlines.

- On the part of the State, it is equally required that such measures are taken on priority basis to arrest wasteful expenditure. Besides, in the context of economizing and ensuring a much more efficient use of resources, activities serving same purpose and population need to be identified, consolidated and converged. It has been observed that due to lack of inter-departmental coordination, programmes/projects are designed without ensuring inter-sectoral and intra-sectoral linkages and priorities, which ultimately creates problems in implementation and optimality of expenditure. Besides investment and other factors responsible for economy’s poor performance, the lack of sectoral convergence, sectoral linkage and inter-departmental coordination has emerged as the significant ones. Therefore, these crucial aspects are to be seriously looked into at the stage of formulation of plan schemes as also while their execution.

- The trend of ever rising revenue expenditure has to be effectively checked so that adequate funds are available for capital expenditure. Besides, use of borrowings should strictly be for financing capital expenditure. Therefore, the present process and practices ought to be reviewed and rationalized.

- Only most crucial subsidies such as subsidies on SGSY schemes, should be retained, which should also be only explicit, direct and meant for people living below poverty line. Similarly, the question of subsidies has also to keep in view the interest of small and marginal land holders, who are engaged in sustenance farming and need continued State support.

Population

- A very high and continuous upsurge in State’s population have almost neutralized developmental efforts. As per the last census of 2001, Uttar Pradesh added about 3.4 crore people to its population. The incremental population is more than the total population of nine major states of India. Hence, an effective control on population growth becomes unavoidable. Unless the population is checked and checked fast enough, the enormous developmental efforts may prove to be meaningless. It is now felt essential that shortcomings in the approach, adopted so far, are sorted out and plan of action framed accordingly.

- It is welcome feature that State Govt. has recently launched an independent population policy, containing a number of measures to control population growth.
However, State will have to strive hard to convert the envisaged policies into action. In this context, special emphasis is needed on education, which has vital role in controlling population. Family planning programmes have relatively been more successful in the regions/states, where literacy rate has been comparatively higher. The examples of the state of Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Goa, etc. are before us where rate of population growth has been found to be lowest because of high literacy rate. Hence, whether it is a matter of population control, health security, productivity increase or social welfare, it could go ahead only with the increased literacy rate.

**Good Governance**

- In addition to strategic points as outlined above, one common and most crucial point relates to the need of good governance, which could bridge the gap between planning and execution. So far as planning aspect is concerned, it needs mention that State’s Plans have been adjudged as one of the best plans in the country by none other than the Planning Commission, Govt of India. But it is the poor execution that has grossly belied the planned efforts, for which ever growing inefficiency and extremely deteriorating value system of our functionaries has largely been responsible. More than half a century’s old boil of inefficiency is now suppurated and has become all pervasive in the system and it needs no substitute other than urgent surgery lest it becomes cancerous. Although, in order to improve the quality of good governance, the State Govt. has taken a number of initiatives, as per its commitment, to enhance transparency, check corruption, and to develop new work-culture. However, what is essentially needed in this regard is to ensure accountability, performance-monitoring, compensation linked to efficiency and citizens redress against bureaucratic mal-functioning supplemented with specific checks and balances. Otherwise, for the people at large, the whole government machinery will continue to be venal and egregious. It also needs mention that Uttar Pradesh has irreparably suffered from a stereo-typed image, over the last many years, as an insecure and inefficient state. In the context of attracting private investment, which has become a *sine qua non* for the State’s economy, adequate steps are promptly needed on the one hand, to ensure creation of an atmosphere of assured security of life and property, and a clean, efficient and responsive administration on the other, so as to arouse confidence amongst the entrepreneurs.
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