

UNIT II

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION DENSITY AND GROWTH –THEORETICAL ISSUES:CLASSICAL AND MODERN THEORIES IN POPULATION GROWTH – MALTHUS,OPTIMUM THEORY,RICARDO AND DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION- WORLD PATTERNS AND THEIR DETERMINANTS-INDIA : POPULATION DISTRIBUTION DENSITY AND GROWTH PROFILE

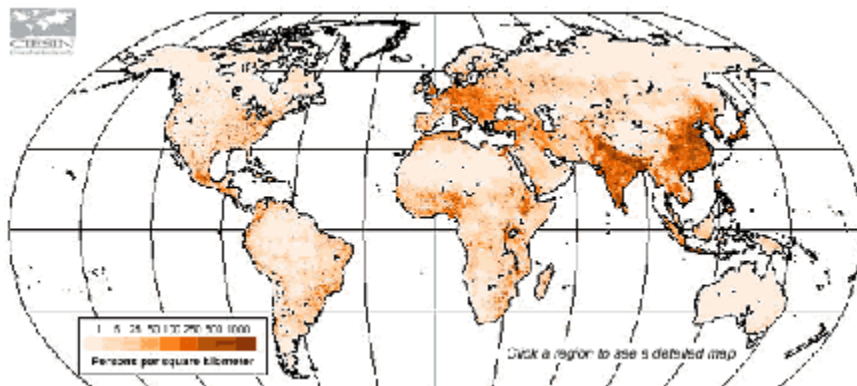
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Population distribution means the pattern of where people live. World population distribution is uneven. Places which are **sparsely** populated contain few people. Places which are **densely** populated contain many people. Sparsely populated places tend to be difficult places to live. These are usually places with hostile environments e.g. Antarctica. Places which are densely populated are habitable environments e.g. Europe.

Population Density

Population density is a measurement of the number of people in an area. It is an average number. Population density is calculated by dividing the number of people by area. Population density is usually shown as the number of people per square kilometer. The map below is a choropleth (shading) map and illustrates population density. The darker the colour the greater the population density.



Source: Columbia University's Center for International Earth Science Information Network
Page URL: <http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/plue/gpw/index.html?main.html&2>

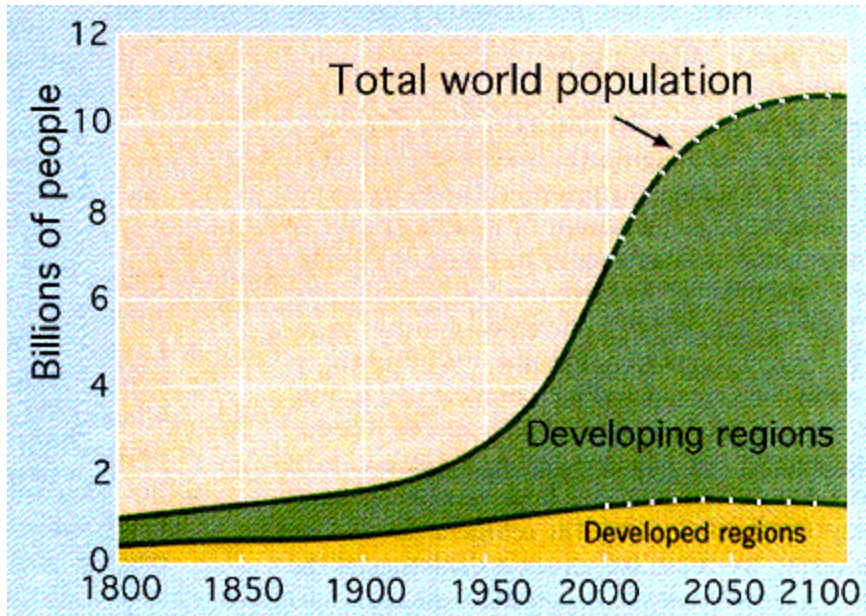
The map above shows that world population distribution is uneven. Some areas have a high population density while others have a low population density. Areas of high population density tend to be located between 20° and 60°N. This area contains a large land area and a relatively temperate climate.

Factors Affecting Population Density
 There are a range of **human** and **natural** factors that affect population density. The tables below illustrate this.

Physical Factors	High Density	Low Density
Relief (shape and height of land)	Low land which is flat e.g. Ganges Valley in India	High land that is mountainous e.g. Himalayas
Resources	Areas rich in resources (e.g. coal, oil, wood, fishing etc.) tend to densely populated e.g. Western Europe	Areas with few resources tend to be sparsely populated e.g. The Sahel
Climate	Areas with temperate climates tend to be densely populated as there is enough rain and heat to grow crops e.g. UK	Areas with extreme climates of hot and cold tend to be sparsely populated e.g. the Sahara Desert

Human Factors	High Density	Low Density
Political	Countries with stable governments tend to have a high population density e.g. Singapore	Unstable countries tend to have lower population densities as people migrate e.g. Afghanistan.
Social	Groups of people want to live close to each other for security e.g. USA	Other groups of people prefer to be isolated e.g. Scandinavians
Economic	Good job opportunities encourage high population densities, particularly in large cities in MEDCs and LEDCs around the world.	Limited job opportunities cause some areas to be sparsely populated e.g. Amazon Rainforest

Population Change
 The world's population is growing very rapidly. In **1820** the world's population reached **1 billion**. In **1990** it reached **6 billion** people.



This rapid growth in population has been called a **population explosion**.

The major reason for population changes, whether in an individual country or for the whole world, is the change in birth and death rates. The **birth rate** is the number of live babies born in a year for every 1000 people in the total population. **Death rates** are number of people dying per 1000 people. When birth rates are higher than death rates the population of an area will increase.

Over the past 150 years improvements in **health care** and **sanitation** around the world have led to a drop in the death rate. While birth rates have dropped in MEDCs, birth rates are still high in LEDCs. Therefore the number of people in the world has grown rapidly.

Life

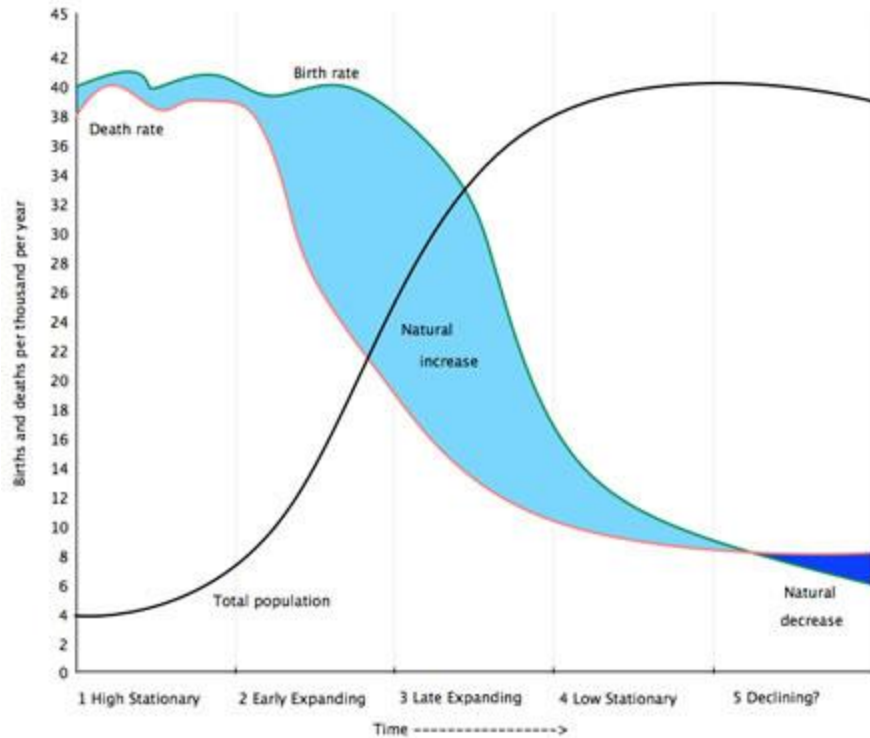
Expectancy

Life expectancy is the average age a person can expect to live to in a particular area. Life expectancy can be used as an indicator of the overall 'health' of a country. From this figure you can determine many features of a country e.g. standard of living. As a general rule the higher the life expectancy the more healthy (or developed) a country is.

The Demographic Transition Model

The **Demographic Transition Model** attempts to show how population changes as a country develops.

The model is divided into four stages.



Stage 1 Birth rate and death rate are high - low natural increase - low total population

Stage 2

Birth rate is high - death rate is falling - high natural increase (population growth)

Stage 3

Falling birth rate - low death rate - high natural increase (population growth)

Stage 4

Birth rate and death rate is low - low natural increase - high total population

The Demographic Transition Model does not take into account migration.

Population Structure / Population Pyramids

The population structure for an area shows the number of males and females within different age groups in the population. This information is displayed as an age-sex or population pyramid. Population pyramids of LEDCs (Less Economically Developed Countries) typically have a wide base and a narrow top. This represents a high birth rate and high death rate. Population pyramids of MEDCs (More Economically Developed Countries) typically have a roughly equal distribution of population throughout the age groups. The top obviously gets narrower as a result of deaths. Population pyramids for every country in the world can be found . Population pyramids are used to show the structure of the population according to age and sex. to see the three major types of population pyramid.

The Malthusian **Theory of Population** is the **theory** of exponential **population** and arithmetic food supply growth. The **theory** was proposed by Thomas Robert Malthus. He believed that a balance between **population** growth and food supply can be established through preventive and positive checks.

Sidgwick, **Edwin Cannan**, Robbins, Dalton and **Carr-Saunders** have rejected the **Malthusian** theory of population. They proposed the modern theory called “The optimum theory of population”. Optimum Population– Car-Saunders defines optimum population as “that population which produces maximum economic welfare”.

Demographic Theories

Sociologists have long looked at population issues as central to understanding human interactions. Below we will look at four theories about population that inform sociological thought: Malthusian, zero population growth, cornucopian, and demographic transition theories.

Malthusian Theory

Thomas Malthus (1766–1834) was an English clergyman who made dire predictions about earth’s ability to sustain its growing population. According to **Malthusian theory**, three factors would control human population that exceeded the earth’s **carrying capacity**, or how many people can live in a given area considering the amount of available resources. Malthus identified these factors as war, famine, and disease (Malthus 1798). He termed them “positive checks” because they increase mortality rates, thus keeping the population in check. They are countered by “preventive checks,” which also control the population but by reducing fertility rates; preventive checks include birth control and celibacy. Thinking practically, Malthus saw that people could produce only so much food in a given year, yet the population was increasing at an exponential rate. Eventually, he thought people would run out of food and begin to starve. They would go to war over increasingly scarce resources and reduce the population to a manageable level, and then the cycle would begin anew.

Watch the following video about Malthus’ *Essay on the Principle of Population* to learn more about his theory.

Of course, this has not exactly happened. The human population has continued to grow long past Malthus’s predictions. So what happened? Why didn’t we die off? There are three reasons sociologists believe we are continuing to expand the population of our planet. First, technological increases in food production have increased both the amount and quality of calories we can produce per person. Second, human ingenuity has developed new medicine to curtail death from disease. Finally, the development and widespread use of contraception and other forms of family planning have decreased the speed at which our population increases. But what about the future? Some still believe Malthus was correct and that ample resources to support the earth’s population will soon run out.

Zero Population Growth

A neo-Malthusian researcher named Paul Ehrlich brought Malthus's predictions into the twentieth century. However, according to Ehrlich, it is the environment, not specifically the food supply, that will play a crucial role in the continued health of planet's population (Ehrlich 1968). Ehrlich's ideas suggest that the human population is moving rapidly toward complete environmental collapse, as privileged people use up or pollute a number of environmental resources such as water and air. He advocated for a goal of **zero population growth** (ZPG), in which the number of people entering a population through birth or immigration is equal to the number of people leaving it via death or emigration. While support for this concept is mixed, it is still considered a possible solution to global overpopulation.

David Ricardo, (born April 18/19, 1772, London, England—died September 11, 1823, Gatcombe Park, Gloucestershire), English economist who gave systematized, classical form to the rising science of economics in the 19th century. His laissez-faire doctrines were typified in his Iron Law of Wages, which stated that all attempts to improve the real income of workers were futile and that wages perforce remained near the subsistence level.

Ricardo was the third son born to a family of Sephardic Jews who had emigrated from the Netherlands to England. At the age of 14 he entered into business with his father, who had made a fortune on the London Stock Exchange. By the time he was 21, however, he had broken with his father over religion, become a Unitarian, and married a Quaker. He continued as a member of the stock exchange, where his talents and character won him the support of an eminent banking house. He did so well that in a few years he acquired a fortune, which allowed him to pursue interests in literature and science, particularly in the fields of mathematics, chemistry, and geology.

Ricardo's interest in economic questions arose in 1799 when he read Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*. For 10 years he studied economics, somewhat offhandedly at first and then with greater concentration. His first published work was *The High Price of Bullion, a Proof of the Depreciation of Bank Notes* (1810), an outgrowth of letters Ricardo had published in the *Morning Chronicle* the year before. His book refueled the controversy then surrounding the Bank of England: freed from the necessity of cash payment (strains from the wars with France prompted the government to bar the Bank of England from paying its notes in gold), both the Bank of England and the rural banks had increased their note issues and the volume of their lending. The directors of the Bank of England maintained that the subsequent increase in prices and the depreciation of the pound had no relation to the increase in bank credit. Ricardo and others, however, asserted that there indeed was a link between the volume of bank notes and the level of prices. Furthermore, they argued that the price levels in turn affected foreign exchange rates and the inflow or outflow of gold.

It followed, then, that the bank, as custodian of the central gold reserve of the country, had to shape its lending policy according to general economic conditions and exercise control over the volume of money and credit. The controversy was therefore critical to the development of theories concerning central banking. A committee appointed by the House of Commons, known as the Bullion Committee, confirmed Ricardo's views and recommended the repeal of the Bank Restriction Act.

At this time Ricardo began to acquire friends who influenced his further intellectual development. One of these was the philosopher and economist James Mill (father of John Stuart Mill), who became his political and editorial counselor. Another friend was the Utilitarian philosopher Jeremy Bentham. Still another was Thomas Malthus, best known for his theory that population tends to increase faster than the food supply—an idea that Ricardo accepted.

In 1815 another controversy arose over the Corn Laws, which regulated the import and export of grain. A decline in wheat prices had led Parliament to raise the tariff on imported wheat. This provoked a popular outcry and caused Ricardo to publish his *Essay on the Influence of a Low Price of Corn on the Profits of Stock* (1815), in which he argued that raising the tariff on grain imports tended to increase the rents of the country gentlemen while decreasing the profits of manufacturers. One year before his Corn Law essay, at the age of 42, he had retired from business and taken up residence in Gloucestershire, where he had extensive landholdings.

Later, in *Principles of Political Economy and Taxation* (1817), Ricardo analyzed the laws determining the distribution of everything that could be produced by the “three classes of the community”—namely, the landlords, the workers, and the owners of capital. As part of his theory of distribution, he concluded that profits vary inversely with wages, which rise or fall in line with the cost of necessities. Ricardo also determined that rent tends to increase as population grows, owing to the higher costs of cultivating more food for the larger population. He supposed that there was little tendency to unemployment, but he remained guarded against rapid population growth that could depress wages to the subsistence level, which would thereby limit both profits and capital formation by extending the margin of cultivation. He also concluded that trade between countries was influenced by relative costs of production and by differences in internal price structures that could maximize the comparative advantages of the trading countries.

Although he built in part upon the work of Smith, he defined the scope of economics more narrowly than had Smith and included little explicit social philosophy. In 1819 Ricardo purchased a seat in the House of Commons, as was done in those times, and entered Parliament as a member for Portarlington. He was not a frequent speaker, but so great was his reputation in economic affairs that his opinions on free trade were received with respect, even though they did not represent the dominant thinking in the House. Illness forced Ricardo to retire from Parliament in 1823. He died that year at the age of 51.

Despite his relatively short career and the fact that most of it was preoccupied with business affairs, Ricardo achieved a leading position among the economists of his time. His views won considerable support in England despite the abstract style in which he set them forth and in the

face of heavy counterfire from his opponents. Although his ideas have long since been superseded or modified by other work and by new theoretical approaches, Ricardo retains his eminence as the thinker who first systematized economics. He also treated monetary questions and taxation at length. Writers of various persuasions drew heavily upon his ideas, including those who favoured laissez-faire capitalism and those, such as Karl Marx and Robert Owen, who opposed it.

India's population is 17.5 per cent of the world's **population** which is randomly distributed over 3.8 million square km of our country, **India**, which is actually 2.4 per cent of the world's area. **Population of India**, as per the Census 2011, is 1,210,193,422 compared to a total of 1,028,737,436 in 2001-11.

Population distribution, growth, and structure Population refers to the total number of persons inhabiting in a country or region. India is the second most populous country of the world. The country covers only 2.4 per cent geographical area of the world, whereas it is home of the more than 17 per cent of the world's population. The country's 68 per cent populations live in rural area while the rest populations reside in urban areas. The studies concerning population distribution, growth and structure has a huge significance for less developed countries like India, because in their case the force of demographic transition have a direct bearing on the direction and pace of the process of development. In this section, we will discuss about the growth, distribution and structure of population of India. Population Growth in India The increase in the number of people living in a country or region during a specified time period is known as population growth. Population growth is the change in population over time and can be quantified as the change in number of individuals in a population per unit time. The term population growth can technically refer to any species, but almost always refer to humans. The growth of population may be expressed in terms of absolute number and percentage increase per year. The population growth of India can be studies under the following four phases. (1) Phase of stagnant or slow population Growth (1901-21): During this period, population increased by 1.29 crore only. If we break this period in accordance with the two censuses, we find that during 1901-11, the decadal growth rate was only 5.75 per cent, as the natural growth rate of population was low. But in the next decade (1910-21), the growth rate of population declined to -0.3 per cent. This was due to high death rate (47.2) on account of famines and epidemics like plague, cholera and malaria which took a heavy toll of human lives. The year 1921 is, therefore, known as the year of Great Divide. (2) Phase of steady population growth (1921-51): From 1921 onwards till 1951 there was a steady growth of population. During these years, population increased by 2.8 crore in 1931, to 4 crore in 1941 and to 5 crore in 1951. But the decadal growth rate in 1951 census was 0.9 percentages less than in the 1941 census due to the Partition of India in 1947. The main reason for the steady increase in population was the decline in death rate from 36.3 to 27.4 and of birth rate from 46.4 to 39.9 over the period. This resulted in an average natural growth rate of 12.2 during this phase of 30 years. (3) Phase of Rapid Population Growth or of Population Explosion (1951-81): This was the period

of rapid population growth when population increased by 32.5 crore as against about 12 crore during the last 50 years from 1901 to 1951. The average annual growth rate of population increased from 1.25 per cent to 2.2 per cent in 1981. The main reason was a large decline in the death rate from 22.8 to 15 due to better medical facilities while the birth rate fell slowly from 41.7 to 37.2 over the period. This led to population explosion in the country. (4) Phase of High Growth with Declining Trend (1981-2011): During this phase, a definite declining trend of population growth is visible. Total population increased by 34.37 crore during 20 years. But the average annual growth rate had definitely declined to 1.93 per cent in 2001 as against 2.2 per cent in 1981. However, the trend of population explosion still persists even now. The declining trend in the annual growth rate is positive indicator, to the effect of various population control measures taken in our country. However, there is consistent growth in the population also. It is estimated that, India may overtake china in 2045. United Nations has estimated that the world population grew at an annual rate of 1.23 percent during 2000-2010. China registered a much lower annual growth rate of population (0.53 percent) during 2000-2010, as compared to India (1.64 percent during 2001-2011). Census Year Total Population (in million) Decadal Growth 1901 238.40 - 1911 252.09 +5.75 1921 251.32 - 0.31 1931 278.98 +11.00 1941 318.66 +14.22 1951 361.09 +13.31 1961 439.23 +21.51 1971 548.16 +24.80 1981 683.33 +24.66 1991 846.42 +23.87 2001 1028.74 +21.54 2011 1210.85 17.70 Source: Census of India, 2011

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irrigation. The scope for developing primary and secondary activities is quite large if the facilities are provided in this area. For example, at the time of independence Chhotanagpur region was a sparsely populated area but development in the field of mining and industries in this part of the country has been mainly responsible for moderate density of population in this region. (iii) Areas of Low Density: All the remaining parts of India having a density of population less than 200 persons per square kilometre may be classified under this category. The States and Union Territories falling under this category include Arunachal Pradesh, Mizoram, Sikkim and Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Low density population areas are characterised by rough terrain, low rainfall or unhealthy climate. Agriculture cannot be developed in too dry or cold areas. Difficulties exist not only in transport and communication in the 5 hilly and mountainous areas but also in the overall levels of economic development. That is why the density of population in all these areas is low. States Population Density (Census 2011) Bihar 1,102.40 West Bengal 1,029.20 Kerala 859.1 Uttar Pradesh 689 Haryana 573.4 Tamil Nadu 554.7 Punjab 550.1 Jharkhand 441.5 Assam 396.8 Goa 393.8

Population Composition

Age Composition: Age composition refers to the number of people that are included in different age groups. Three basic determinants of age composition are: (i) nasality, (ii) mortality, and (iii) mobility. These are interdependent, and any change in one may influence the other two. It is through these variables that the socioeconomic conditions influence the age structure. It is the fertility rate that determines the proportion of population in different age categories. That is why; most of the countries in Asia (excluding Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong and South Korea), Latin America and Africa have high fertility. Since the longevity and life expectancy in these countries is short, the proportion of population in the old age group is also not very large. The population of a nation is generally divided into three broad categories. They are:

Children (below 15 years): This group is considered as unproductive and uneconomic as they have to be provided with food, clothing and medical care. They do not contribute towards the economy of the nation. The proportion of population in this age group in any country is determined by the stage of demographic transition it is passing through. This proportion is large if the country is passing through the first or the second stage of demographic transition. It starts declining as the country approaches the late stage. It is the minimum when the country is in the final stage of demographic transition.

Working Age (15-59 years): This age group is economically productive as they are the working population of the country and contribute towards the economic growth of the country. The adult age group is biologically the most reproductive, economically the most productive and demographically the most mobile (migratory). It supports the bulk of other age groups; it carries the burden of feeding, clothing, educating the young age group and of looking after the old age group. The developed countries have relatively high proportion of adult population.

Aged (above 59 years): This age group is a retired workforce. However, they may be economically productive if they work voluntarily. The proportion of people in this age group, by and large, increases as the population of a country completes its demographic evolution. Children and aged affect the dependency ratio as they are not economically productive. The age composition of the Indian population is as follows: Children constitute 34.4% of the total population Adults constitute 58.7% of the total population, and Aged people constitute 6.9% of the total population

The number and percentage of a population found within the children, working age and aged groups are notable determinants of the population's social and economic structure. From the above statistics, it is clear that the adults constitute more than half of the population of India. This age group is economically productive and thus contributes towards the economic growth of the country. According to other statistics, Adolescent population(between 10-19 years) constitute one fifth of the total population which means that in coming years, India will benefit from a young

work force compared to other countries like China and Japan which in coming years will have an ageing population. Sex Composition (Sex Ratio): Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per 1000 males in the population. This information is an important social indicator to measure the extent of equality between males and females in a society at a given time. The sex ratio in the country has always remained unfavourable to females. Sex ratio in India is substantially low as compared to Russian Federation (1,140), Japan (1,041), the USA (1,029), Brazil (1,025), Nigeria (1,016) and Indonesia (1,004). The Sex Ratio in the country which was 933 in 2001 has risen by 7 points to 940 in 2011. The increase in rural areas has been 1 point from 946 to 947. The same in urban areas has been 26 points from 900 to 926. Kerala has the highest sex ratio in total (1084), rural (1077) and urban (1091). In rural, Chandigarh (691) and in urban, Daman & Diu (550) show the lowest sex ratio in the country respectively. Eight states namely Jammu & Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra, Karnataka and 1 UT Lakshadweep show fall in the sex ratio in rural area and 2 UTs Daman & Diu and Dadra & Nagar Haveli in urban areas. State Sex ratio (Census 2011) Kerala 1084 7 Puducherry 1037 Tamil Nadu 996 Andhra Pradesh 993 Chhattisgarh 991

Size and Distribution of Population In terms of area, India stands seventh preceded by Russia, Canada, China, the United States of America, Brazil and Australia. Barring China, the total population of these large five countries is far less than that of India. The total area of these five countries is over sixteen times whereas their total population is much less than that of India. It can also be revealed from the fact that the total population of North America, South America and Australia added together is less than the population of India. On the top of it, we are adding over 17 million people each year. It is more than the total population of Australia. In fact the net addition to Chinese population each year is less than ours. India's population is 17.5 per cent of the world's population which is randomly distributed over 3.8 million square km of our country, India, which is actually 2.4 per cent of the world's area. Population of India, as per the Census 2011, is 1,210,193,422 compared to a total of 1,028,737,436 in 2001-11. In absolute terms, the population of India has increased by more than 181 million during the decade 2001-2011. Population of India, at the turn of the twentieth century, was only around 238.4 million and has increased by more than four times in a period of one hundred and ten years to reach 1210 million in 2011. 2001-2011 is the first decade (with the exception of 1911- 1921) which has actually added lesser population compared to the previous decade. Uttar Pradesh with a population of 199.5 million (2011) is the most populous state of India, which is more than the population of Brazil. Uttar Pradesh holds 16.5 per cent of our country's population. The combined population of Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra (the second most populous State), at 312 million, is substantially greater than the population of USA. While Rajasthan, the state with largest area contains 5.66% (2011) of the total population. States Population (in millions) Population Share Uttar Pradesh 199.6 16 Maharashtra 112.4 9 Bihar 103.8 9 West Bengal 91.3 8 8 Andhra Pradesh 84.7 7

Population Explosion: The population problem of India is one of rapid population growth or population explosion. This is due to high birth rate and low declining death rate. During 1901-1951, the population grew by 12.3 crore, while during the next 50 years from 1951 to 2001, it increased by 66.6 crore, that is by more than 5 times. The two main causes for this rapid growth of population have been high birth rate and a large decline in death rate which are discussed as under: Causes of High Birth Rate in India Even though the birth rate in India had declined from 41.7 in 1951-60 to 25 per thousand in 1991-2001, it is still very high. There are various social, economic, climatic and religious factors which are responsible for the high birth rate in the country. • Hot Climate • Universality of Marriage • Child Marriage • Social Customs and Religious Superstitions • Joint Family System • Rise in Natural Fertility Rate • Low Level of Education • Lack of Entertainment

Facilities • Low Level of Family Planning Practice Causes of Decline in Death Rate in India There has been a rapid decline in death rate in India since 1921. It has almost approached the rate which obtains in the developed world. The world average death rate in 1999 was 9 per thousand. During the period 1911-20, the death rate was 48.1 per thousand whereas in 1991-2001 it was 8 per thousand. The major causes of declining death rate of India is mainly due to medical facilities, high standard of living, delay of marriage, high rate of literacy and awareness. Factors affecting the distribution of Population Uneven population distribution is characterized by massive difference in the density of population across various geographical locations. There is extremely high density of population at some places such as Delhi, Mumbai, etc. whereas; the state of Arunachal Pradesh has very low population density. Hence, there is uneven distribution of population in India. 9 The list of factors responsible for the uneven distribution of Population are given below – Physical Factors • Relief • Climate • River System • Geographical Location • Soil • Mineral • Vegetation Economic Factors • Agriculture • Industries • Transport & Communication Minor Factor • Government policies • Historical factors • Religion factors • Political factors *****

Population growth of India per decade^[58]

Census year	Population	Change (%)
1951	361,088,000	–
1961	439,235,000	21.6
1971	548,160,000	24.8
1981	683,329,000	24.7
1991	846,387,888	23.9
2001	1,028,737,436	21.5
2011	1,210,726,932	17.7