

Chapter 2

Survey of Related Literature

Amartya Sen (1985) explained Living Standards in his lecture at Cambridge University. According to him, the idea is full of contrasts, conflicts and even contradictions. Within the general notion of the living standard, divergent and rival views of the goodness of life co-exist in an unsorted bundle. There are many fundamentally different ways of seeing the quality of living and quite a few of them have some immediate plausibility. When we tend to find out the value of objects then the more immediate end of the question lies in the direct and intrinsic relevance of these objects in the assessment of the standard of living and this relevance has to be distinguished from irrelevance on one hand and indirectly relevant to the other. In order to clarify the contrast, we need to take a look of the standard of living as pleasure as this would highlight the pleasures of different types, which are the objects of value and the standard of living consists of pleasures. It may possible that high income is not an object of value itself or good health. These things may influence one's standard of living but that influence must work through some object of value.

However, it may be witnessed if an enhancement some variable increases the standard of living, when everything else remains the same, then the variable is clearly and object of value in the evaluation of the standard of living. Nevertheless, it is suitably broad view of pleasure that we must seek in order to give any kind of plausibility to the pleasure-view of well being and living standard. It is also arguable that to think of satisfaction or happiness or pleasure as some kind of homogenous magnitude is simply a mistake and it is quite easy to be persuaded that being happy is an achievement that is valuable and that in evaluating the standard of living, happiness is an object of value.

Sen also explains the relation of desiring and valuing. He states that desiring and valuing is not the same thing and people cannot value what they desire. It is not only that poor person can offer less money for what he or she desires compared with a rich person but also that even the strength of the mental force of desiring is influenced by the contingency of circumstances. Hence, the metric of desire does not have much fairness nor it can reflect the strength of valuations,

especially what a person would value on serious and fearless reflection. In short, for assessing the well-being and the standard of living of a person, happiness may have direct and unconditional relevance, happiness may have direct and unconditional relevance and it is clearly one among various objects of value but the value of desire has to be assessed as a person's desire for something one cannot value at all or may not be a good ground for counting it in the evaluation of that person's well-being or living standard. Therefore, it becomes clear that the fulfillment of a person's desires may or may not be indicative of a high level of well being or of living standard.

The author also explains the connection between choice and valuation. Choice is obviously a very different type of activity from valuation and in so far as it has any connection with valuation, this must partly arise from choice being a reflection of desire. It is also argued that disappointment, frustration and suffering from a sense of failure may well reduce a person's well being; his pre decided achievements carried less importance in such situation. In short, it can be clearly stated that happiness is an object of value in the living standard and desire and choice do have some evidential importance in giving information on valuation. According to him, the living standard is not just a matter of opulence, even though there are some casual connections. Additionally, the particular way of characterizing opulence that would be most suitable for living standard analysis through casual and other associations may not be the most useful for the other purposes to which national accounting has to cater.

There is need for more specialized accounting when investigating the living standard. It is also important to know that opulence in form of commodity possession is undoubtedly important in enhancing the standard of living. With this, one can live goodness of life. The needs of commodities for any specified achievement of living conditions may vary greatly with various physiological, social, cultural and other contingent features. Hence, the value of living standard lies in the living and not in the possessing of commodities that has a derivative and varying relevance. On basis of achievements, it is useful to see the distinction between a person's over-all achievements and his personal well-being. The different notions may be distinguished: agency achievement, personal well-being and the standard of living. The distinction between agency achievement and personal well-being arises from the fact that a person may have objectives other than a person well-being. He further states that in order to assess the standard of living of a person, the objects of value can sensibly be taken to be aspects of life that one succeeds in living, the

various achievements a person makes, are relevant to the evaluation of that person's living standard.

The standard evaluation approach is a good technique to explain the extent of poverty in a community in terms of 'contemporary standards'. Contemporary standards regarding poverty have been determined on the basis of extensive questionnaires, yielding considerable uniformity of answers regarding the need for particular commodities and the related functioning. The identification of poor is an exercise in which the focus is on the minimum living conditions, but the same approach of using contemporary standards can be used to rank the over-all living standards of different personas and groups. The essential feature of this general approach is the reliance on some uniformity of judgments on the respective importance of different objects of value. Henceforth, the standard-evaluation approach can be used in many different ways for studying living standards, for e.g. the self-evaluation approach is concerned with each person's assessment of one's own living standard. The valuation of objects in the assessment of the living standards may raise some complex issues. As the use of accepted social standards have both subjective and objective features. Sometimes, the assessment of particular components of the standard of living may be of no less interest.

However, if an improvement is noticed then it becomes an interesting enough assessment, even when we are unable to decide whether this indicates an improvement or deterioration. The author finally puts his views about the relation of functioning and income. Here, he made some comparisons of living standard on basis of distribution of GNP and GDP because these are commodity-based measures and he finds them nicely aggregated and conveniently complete. Moreover, he has made some attempts for establishing the relationship between capability and functioning. Capability is known as an ability to make achievements and functioning is an achievement. If the achievements can be functioned in one's life smoothly then his living standard will arise.

Pradhan (2000) carried a research on primary household data obtained a survey on income, expenditure, poverty measures for 1994-1995 and human development indicators for 1996 in rural and urban India as a part of the project Micro Impact of Macro and Adjustment Policies (MIMAP). Empirical results show wide disparities in levels of living in terms of economic and social indicators in rural and urban India. The need to know the differential impact of macro adjustment

policies across different group of population at the micro level is increasingly being realized by planners and policy makers. The adverse effect of such policies on the vulnerable groups could then be corrected by designing proper compensatory programmers.

However, the limitation of surveys conducted by National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER) is that they can't even estimate of income distribution across India. In India, the government always ensures to make poverty reduction the main objective of the five-year plans. According to authors, economy would not reduce poverty substantially unless the spread of additional income goes more in favour of the depressed classes along with the improvements in social indicators. Therefore, a study of the impact of policy reforms on income distribution and poverty is of special importance as these factors are crucial for public policy

Smitha (1998) main objective of his research is to discover the changing pattern of rural housing of a small village of Ambala district by surveying the seventy one families living in the settlement area of the village. In recent past, the population has increased with a great speed in India. The growth of population has naturally had a far reaching influence on the various aspects of rural life. The object of this study is to examine the influence exercised by the phenomenal growth of population on one particular aspect of rural life that is housing accommodation. Furthermore, the author finds out that it is important to study the present day trends in various aspects of rural housing and the changes that have been coming about in past few decades. By this survey, the author has found the impact of population growth on the housing conditions in the rural settlement of the village Fatehpur. He collected this information by an extensive field survey. The factors which were found to determine the mode and extent of the extensions of the housing in the village during the period were the growing tendency towards the nuclear family, the less common reverse tendency on the part of a grown-up son to cling to the old ancestral house of the family to avoid loss of the share in the old ancestral property thereby reversing the process of extension, the influence of contact with urban life, the diversion to the occupation other than agriculture, the desire to own property, the sex of the children in the family, the nature of the family (joint or nucleus) and the sentimental attachment with old houses impeding extension/new construction.

The survey has also revealed that the illiterate people of the village have been living in the last three generations under deplorable conditions still as far as housing is concerned. They show only little evidence of a dynamic outlook seeking a betterment of their lot. The shabby insanitary

existence they continue to lead generation after generation. Smacks the stagnation and does little credit to our country. There is a very crucial need to correct the miserable state of affairs by creating awareness among the people and by taking suitable remedial measures in order to ensure a better and happier life for them.

Rao (2000) has highlighted the issue of declining demand of food grains in India and stated that some this decline indicates an increase in consumer welfare. The decline has been sharper in rural areas where improvements in infrastructure make other food items and non-food commodities available. Rao clearly stated that since per capita income is rising, this would have led to some rise in per capita demand in food grains. Moreover, the prices of food grains relative to the index of non-food grains prices have declined over a greater part of the last two decades, which would also have resulted in some rise in the demand of food grains. It has also been found out in National Sample Survey that per capita consumption of pulses has also been declining. Over a period of two decades that is between 1972-73 and 1993-94 the per capita consumption of cereals has shown a steeper decline (by around 12 per cent) in rural areas.

Moreover, this is also understandable as the rural poor have to buy a good part of their cereal requirements from the market while rich meet their requirements from their own produce. For poor people one more thing also becomes negative that prices of basic food items also become costlier due to transport costs and traders' margin. It is also recognized that in rural areas, the requirements of food grains for calories can be expected to be higher in comparison to urban areas due to heavy manual or physical labour involved in agriculture arising from the labour intensity of operations as well as harder physical environment. Since expenditure and price elasticities of demand for cereals are higher for the poor, if there had been a significant increase in their employment, income and wages and if the cereal prices faced by them relative to those faced by their urban counterparts were lower as in the case of top 30 per cent of population, the per capita consumption of cereals among them would have been substantially higher. However, it also appears that the saturation point in regard to the consumption of cereals would soon be reached even among the poor.

This is evident from the significant decline in per capita consumption of cereals among the middle 40 per cent of population. The purpose of this note is to illustrate the higher per capita consumption of cereals in rural areas on account of greater manual labour requirements, the higher

cost of obtaining urban goods of consumption in rural areas and higher per capita consumption of cereals in rural areas attributable to the cross elasticity of demand with respect to the prices of urban goods of consumption. It is also observed that the higher cereal intake in rural areas, on account of higher manual labour put in is the single largest component of the rural-urban difference in per capita consumption of cereals. Additionally, the actual outcome would depend upon the pace of development of rural areas. It will depend crucially on the development of market infrastructure in rural areas for the sale of non-food grain items of food and other urban goods and services.

T Hansted, T Haque, R Nielsen (2008) India has the largest number of rural poor as well as landless households in the world. However, it is widely considered that landlessness is considered the best indicator of rural poverty in the country. As per statisticians, landlessness – more than caste or illiteracy, is the best indicator of rural poverty in India. Since independence, the country leaders have introduced many policies for resolving this landlessness problem and produced many land legislation policies. Land reform legislation is within the states' jurisdiction. After independence, India's states have employed several land reform tools, including reforming tenancy, imposing land ceilings and distributing the land that is under government but not used for cultivation. In this article, Hasted, Hague and Nielsen, have attempted to identify the causes of failure of these land reforming policies and build a discussion with a hope that the process will ultimately lead to concrete action benefiting India's rural poor. Tenancy reformation law was implemented in every state of India. Tenancy laws granted landowners generous rights of resumption for personal cultivation. As a result, landowners took control of tenanted land, leaving a population of evicted tenants in their wake. It was also found that most states rewarded tenants who remained on non-resemble tenanted land with their ownership rights. Some states allowed owning the tenanted land after they paid a price decided by government.

However, in most of the places, voluntary surrenders of tenancy rights by tenants reduced the impact of these places. Such coercive tactics of landlords became widely recognized and on this, national Planning commission recommended that states amend their legislation According to the Indian government statistics, 12.4 millions tenants of 15.6 million acres of land had benefited either by having ownership rights conferred upon them or by having their rights protected. As per the studies done by P S Appu, tenant families were ejected from as much as 33 per cent of India's

agricultural land as a result of tenancy reform legislation. In this article, Hans tad etc have suggested some ideas where Land legislation policy can be made more beneficiaries. State government which are using land ceiling as a tool, they must increase the compensation amount provided to the landowners who lose ceiling surplus land. It may not be market value but it must be meaningful. Prohibition of selling land under legislation law must be removed. States with permanent prohibitions should consider revising their laws to provide for time-bound restrictions of perhaps 10-15 years. Allocation of government wasteland must be meaningful. It must not be on paper as physical possession is mandatory.

Moreover, law must be strong to punish the powerful people who have evicted the beneficiaries from their lands. Small plot yield also brings benefits to poor. As per researchers, the plots that are larger than 0.03 acre can help in improving the well being of poor. This research has been conducted by Rural Development Institute and the University of Agricultural Sciences, Bangalore. On purchased land by government and existing government land, it will be useful to create new colonies of one-tenth acre household and garden plots for distribution to landless laborers.

Rogaly (2006) has done an analysis of trends in agriculture, to the diversification of rural livelihoods, including through temporary labour migration, to decentralization and to an approach to policy that has become known as ‘social protection’ in this article. As per his report, on the basis of his survey, he found out that in that region two-thirds of household income in the villages surveyed was directly on agriculture. His report shows that while agriculture makes up the largest proportion of rural income for most workers, the same sector has seen the slowest growth in incomes.

The data also tell the same story of the concentration of employment growth in units. More than half of rural workers are in the unorganized manufacturing work in three sectors: food products, textiles and wood products. He also did an analysis of migrant livelihoods and it shows variation in the extent of migration by individuals and households. It suggests that important changes have taken place over time in migration routes, with a process of improvement in employment terms and conditions, such that several long-established routes have become ‘regular and accumulative paths to engaging in high return labour markets’. However, as per Ruthven and Kumar increased reliance on migrant labour is one of the factors that leads to a generally less

favourable situation for labour in future. Whether a decent living can be made by the increasing numbers of migrant labourers will depend in part on ‘the resolve and determination of labourers to migrate’.

However, the author finds out that labour migration is portrayed much more positively as a livelihood option than some of the evidence of precarious journeys, living conditions. The authors have also considered informal social protection, including credit, gifts and practical assistance provided by neighbors and relatives. By these people insure themselves against any risks include ‘reliance on immediate or extended family, wider kinship, caste networks, borrowing from money lenders and relatives, the sale of assets and drawing down of savings and whatever formal mechanisms may exist for accessing subsidized food or credit and insurance and pensions. The author has also noticed that the greatest single expenditure by households is marriage, followed by major health costs, and then the costs associated with death and funerals.

Rajpal (2006) electricity is considered human’s basic needs and it has now been accepted every household must have access to electricity. The electrification of rural households would not only provide better living conditions but also it can help in eradication of unemployment among rural masses. The Power Ministry has been entrusted with the responsibility of providing electricity to the uncovered villages the programme instrument named, Rajiv Gandhi Grameen Vidyutikran Yojana. A sum of 23 million households will be provided with electricity under this plan according to Rajpal In order to achieve this objective, Rural Electricity Distribution Backbone will be set up as village electrification infrastructure.

The scheme of deployment of franchisee system has also been made mandatory in order to bring revenue sustainability in the rural distribution system. According to the definition of village electrification adopted in October, 1997 – ‘A village will deemed to be electrified if the electricity is used in the inhabited locality, with in the revenue boundary of the village for any purpose whatsoever.’ However, the author found this definition incomplete so in 2004-05, a new definition was declared, ‘Basic infrastructure such as Distribution Transformer and Distribution lines are provided in the habited locality as well as Dalit Basti where it exists. Electricity is also provided to public places like schools, Panchayat office, health centers, dispensaries and community centers etc. and the number of households electrified should be at least 10% of the total number of households in the village.’ Panchayat has to certify this effect. Indian Government launched a new

scheme, RGGVY in Apr 2005 and its main objective is to provide access to electricity to all households by 2009. This goal will provide access of electricity to 7.8 crore rural households including 2.34 crore BPL households by 2009. For making it a successful programme, government also approved a capital subsidy of Rs. 5000 crore during the 10th plan.

Additionally, deployment of franchisees for the management of rural distribution in projects financed under the scheme and the provision of requisite revenue subsidies to the State Utilities as required under the Electricity Act, 2003. The scheme would be implemented through the Rural Electrification Corporation (REC). Government also decided to provide electricity to un-electrified households with a finance facility of 100% capital subsidy as per norms of Kutir Jyoti Programme in all rural habitations. The success of this programme within decided time-frame would not only bridge the between urban and rural India but would also transform the attainment of the economic growth of over 8% per annum into reality.

Sangwan and Sangwan (2000) have explained the difference between rural-urban households on basis of their size. They further elaborate it by identifying that where the rural household size is bigger than urban, these are considered developed areas because of a strong tradition of joint family system and sizeable in-migration of educated persons with small families and marginal in backward regions which are at a low level of development and urbanization. In contrast to this, where the urban household size is bigger than its rural counterpart, are more peculiar of the areas where local endogamy is prevalent in south India and dominance of Muslim population in urban areas exists as in north India particularly in the states of Utter Pradesh and Bihar.

The authors have described it as an empirical investigation of the rural lag in literacy, urban lag in sex ratio, size of household etc in relation to the economy, society, urbanization, industrialization, modernization and educational history of different parts of India. Rural-urban differences are essentially a function of the differential rate of change occurring in towns and villages. In order to calculate rural-urban differentials and their trends of the social variables, secondary sources of data were collected. Most of the data required for the study were on district level and at some places where district level data were not available; they were examined for state level so that relevant ratios can be described.

In India, the death rates declined at a faster rate than the birth rates, revealing that our performance in controlling death was much better than that in checking birth rate. It is also found that the rural-urban differentials in fertility existed ever since and rural fertility always remained higher than urban. The low urban fertility had been caused by unbalanced sex ratio, high living standards, economic insecurity and unemployment, social capillarity, occupational status, female employment, educational facilities and the availability of clinical aids towards family planning. However, in rural areas many of these facilities are not available. It is noticed that infant mortality rates and crude death rates have declined both in rural and urban areas as result of improvement in living standards in later decades in some of the states like Punjab, Harayana and Utter Pradesh. The fertility rate is increasing in the states of Orissa, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, and Assam and declining in rest of the states. If we have spatial look on rural-urban differentials, this is found high in north-east India as well as West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh but low differential was noticed in most of the south Indian States. If we talk about the rural-urban mortality differentials in the country, they are at decline in India; it has been evidently noticed in all the states and union territories.

The authors also did an examination of the sex ratio and it revealed that right from the beginning of census operations, the sex ratio has been adverse to women in India and it has declined consistently throughout the century except during decades of 1941-51 and 1971-81. The sex ratio got reduced to from 972 females per 1000 males in 1901 to 927 females per 1000 males in 1991. Hence, it can be concluded that male mortality rates have declined much faster than female mortality rates. The rural-urban differentials are declining continuously but at a varying rate. In case of literacy, it is widely noticed that India has a bright history of rich tradition of universal literacy and education but at present, half of the country's population still continues to live in the darkness of illiteracy. At present, Liberalization and Globalization have impacted the economy hence; some future research can be done in order to review the various aspects of rural-urban differentials according to Sangwan and Sangwan .

Hiremath (2007) has given his findings in the article how and when changes occurred in Indian Economy and how it has impacted the livelihoods in India, especially rural livelihoods. According to his research, the concept of livelihoods and livelihoods analysis emerged in mid nineties and it was closely associated with the power reduction strategies. Understanding the livelihood systems

of the poor is crucial to effective poverty reduction strategy. Livelihoods of poor can be understood if it is measured on various logical aspects – economic, social, technical, cultural and political. It is more than just a set of physico-economic preconditions for continued existence. It also encompasses psychosocial dimensions of experience of living. Hiremath did a comparison study of contribution in gross domestic product (GDP) from agricultural sector, industrial sector and services sector during the tenth five year plan and it was 2.3 per cent, 8 per cent and 9.5 per cent respectively. Agricultural sector contribution has fallen as it was 3.2 per cent in 1990s and 4.4 per cent during 1980s. However, production of milk has increased from 84.4 m tones (2001-02) to 97.1 m tones (2005-06). A steep rise was also found in production in eggs as it increased from 38729 million (2001-02) to 46231 million (2005) according to Ghatak (2007).

Now, it can easily be noticed that availability of milk, fruits, vegetables and fish have increased. While there was a decline in agricultural production due to diminishing land resources, factor productivity decline, threatened loss of bio-diversity, natural resource degradation and widened economic inequality. It has laid some serious impacts on the livelihoods of poor. Indian agriculture has come under significant adjustment pressure due to market liberalization and globalization. According to views of Sainath (2007), food security at the national level, state of district level does not automatically ensure food security at the household level.

Today, commercial crops are being recommended by Agriculture Departments to improve the economic status of farmers without giving much consideration to their households level of food security however, Sainath (2006) found in his research that the rebirth of jowar would have helped farmer, soil and food security. Moreover, it is widely observed that suicides are far higher among cash crop farmers than among food crop growers in India. Jowar is also helpful in maintaining and increasing the livestock as it is widely used as fodder. Hiremath also supports these evidences and states that livelihood security has to be understood from a farmer's perspective. Food security is a subjective concept defined as an individual farmer's own perception as to whether he has been able to support the family's food and fodder requirements adequately throughout the year using all resources under his control. Livelihood security encompasses food security, social security and psychic security.

The author further elaborates the government's contribution in alleviating poverty. Central and state governments have made some provisions of education, health, sanitation, and other

facilities in order to promote capacity building and well-being of poor. However, these social protection programs have not reduced poverty as the government planned. The benefits of globalization process have also largely accrued to the urban sector growth and rural sector growth has been left behind. Slowdown in agricultural growth and productivity, changing cropping patterns, increase in distress migration, changing consumption patterns, government policies favoring industrial houses have seriously undermined the food and livelihood security of the poor households. Henceforth, an integrated, multidimensional, and holistic approach to poverty eradication efforts is crucial to preserve and enhance the livelihoods of the poor.

Jhunjhunwala and Ramchander (2007) have presented their views about 'rural telephone connectivity'. Rural connectivity is no longer a challenge as department of Telecommunications and many private telecom operators are making significant contributions towards connecting rural India. In mid-Eighties, telephone was considered a luxury item but the introduction of the Standard Trunk Dialing and Public Call Offices (STD-PCOs) in the late Eighties marked the first telecom revolution in India. Despite these developments, the total number of telephones was still under 10 million in 1994 and was growing at the rate of about a million lines per year. India has a little over 630,000 villages, each with an average population of roughly 1200.

The distribution of telephones within India is highly inequitable, with rural teledensity being below 1.5 per cent as against 20.7 per cent for urban areas in 2004. Over the past the past 15 years, the department of telecommunications and BSNL as well as many private Telecom Operators have made significant contributions towards connecting rural India, by laying fibers to almost all (taluka) county. Hence, technologies for rural connectivity are no longer challenge. Nearly 85 per cent of Indian villages are situated within a 15-20 km radius of these taluka towns and therefore a wireless system with a radius of coverage of about 20 kms deployed at these towns would be able to connect nearly all these villages. It is also wonderfully described how these efforts of connectivity and telecommunications revolution have benefited farmers and villagers however in terms of a nation with 700 million rural people, the use of Internet connectivity for development is still very much at a very nascent stage. However, in order to utilize the tools of ICT effectively to make changes that can scale there is a lot of very hard work that remains. India's telecom revolution will be incomplete until this happens.

Punam (2010) did this study in order to examine the state of economic disparities measured in terms of income distribution and many other socio-economic factors, number of earners, age of chief earner, and education of chief earner and size of family in rural Haryana. According to her, the income distribution has remained unsatisfactory and controversial, even when economists remained pre-occupied with the issues involving personal and functional income distribution. Indian economy is a developing economy and the long term relationship between income distribution and development has been one of the most closely investigated issues in developing economies. In his path breaking article Kuznets (1955), 'Economic Growth and Income Inequality', he formulated a hypothesis that early economic growth increases inequality while later economic development narrows it. However, Rawls' book (1971) drove a different theory which emphasized the criterion of maximizing the benefits to least advantageous members of the society who have been ignored.

In India, the economy is based on the socialistic pattern of society and the planners have given more importance to their objective of reduction in inequalities in the distribution of income and wealth but the goals are not yet achieved however, a sustained growth in agricultural has been observed in India. The researcher has devoted her study to examine the current trend of inequality in the income distribution among the rural masses in Haryana. For this, she chose to do her study on one district of each four divisions and these four districts have been chosen on basis of different socio-economic and agro climate conditions.

The main objective of this study was to examine the composition and disparities in the distribution of income among and within each category of rural households along with the impact of certain socio-economic factors causing such variation in income distribution and to suggest measures to bring about more egalitarian distribution of income. In Indian economy, the important sources of income for different categories of rural households are considered agriculture, livestock, rent including imputed of self-occupied houses, pensions, business and wages/salaries. The researcher has used five measurers/ indicators of inequality in order to measure inequalities in the distribution of income and these are named as concentration ratio, standard deviation, co-efficient of variation, share of bottom and top quintiles and Theil index.

She found out in her research that the chief earners who are relatively better educated are economically better off than others. The average income of households is positively co-related

with the level of education. It shows that the households with no formal education have the lowest average income and evidently, the chief earners who are graduates/ postgraduates have the highest average income. The study also reveals that there are wide income disparities in rural Haryana. The bottom 20 per cent share only 3.28 per cent of the total income and the top 20 per cent share 57.34 per cent hence, it is clear that income inequality is more pronounced among farm households than non-farm households. Moreover, it is also found that the household income increases with the change in socio-economic variables, namely number of earners, family size, education and age of chief earner.

Panikar (1970) has examined some salient features of the Indian rural sector which are apt to influence the saving performance of its households. According to 1961 census, in the rural population, literate and educated population formed 18.9 per cent and 85.7 million persons were self-supporting. A little over 80 percent of the self supporting population in the villages was in agriculture business and 20 per cent were making their living by non-agricultural methods. The 1961 census adopted a different classification of population. According to this census, rural population comprised 45.07 per cent 'workers' and 54.93 per cent 'non-workers'. Workers were further classified into nine industrial categories such as cultivators, agricultural labour etc.

In Panikar opinion, it is really difficult to estimate the income of rural families because a good amount of the output of the rural sector in India does not enter the market at all. It is either consumed by the producers themselves or bartered for other commodities or services. It becomes further more complicated when the majority of producers have vague notions of the quantity of output or value it. More critically, there are also major statistical data gaps. The Government did some efforts for estimating and increasing rural people income and saving. For this purpose, the All-India Rural Credit Survey (RCS) was started and its main objective was to assess credit needs and credit availabilities of farmers. Henceforth, the estimate of family income derived from the results of this enquiry is only a crude approximation. The simple arithmetic mean of the difference between total receipts and total operating expenses per farm family amounted to Rs 444 for the period April 1951 to March 1952).

However, it was also noticed that production expenses included are fairly exhaustive which are incurred in cash as well as kind. There were some chances of double counting too in this estimation. On the contrary to this, there were some omissions too. The Committee of direction

also doubted these figures. Indian Statistical Institute also conducted a survey in order to estimate average income per rural family in 1950-51 and it was Rs 607.

Interestingly, according to the National Sample Survey organized under the direction of Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, all-India average of annual production for rural families at Rs 1334.93. On the basis of above results, disparity can be noticed in the result of these surveys. The main reasons were identified that RCS covered only cultivating families while the NSS covered all rural families. It can be said that the data on production and income as presented by these various surveys were not satisfactory.

The Reserve Bank of India also conducted a survey in order to estimate the size and structure of assets in India rural households in 1962. It was found out in this survey that the average value of these tangible assets per rural family came to Rs 5,267. Among cultivators, the value of tangible assets added up to Rs 6,609 and among non-cultivators to Rs 1,574. However, this survey also did not collect information on inventory of farm produce, seed and manure and other items of farm supplies as well as cash holdings therefore it can be claimed that the picture of asset position is incomplete. It has analyzed the proportion of cash and non-cash components of consumption, production, investment and income of rural households and found out that the rural sector of Indian Economy has a low degree of monetization. Cash expenditure on consumption as a proportion of total consumption outlay in rural households in India is seen to have been 62.3 per cent during April-June 1951. In rural households, food accounts for a very high proportion of consumption expenditure. Consequently, the proportion of cash expenditure to the total under this category affects the overall degree of monetization of consumption expenditure. Agriculture is the most important way of income in rural sector and it is a major activity.

The overall degree of monetization in this group of activities depends on the proportion of labour and material costs in the production and the respective ratio of monetized transactions in them. On the basis of above findings, it can be concluded that factors like demographic and occupational patterns, income levels and the degree of monetization in the rural sector of India are not very helpful to high rates of saving by the rural population.

S.G. Dube (1955) the author has done a study in a village community and found out six major factors that contributes towards status differentiation in the village community. These are religion

and caste, landownership, wealth, position in government service and village organization, age and distinctive personality traits. Indian rural society is known as agricultural rural society hence, it becomes natural to expect possession of land and cattle would contribute greatly to an individual's social status.

Moreover, shining brassware, items of furniture and other similar objects add to the prestige of a family. The significance of gold and silver ornaments possessed by women is also very great in this respect. Clothing, food and type of work done by its members largely show the financial strength of a family. Hence, in determining the social status of a family, due consideration must be given to these factors also. Age is also another important factor of the status differentiation. It is a standard rule that aged and elderly people should be respected. They have the authority of grey hair and wide experience of vicissitudes of life. Moreover, ability to talk persuasively and impressively is regarded as a definite asset. An individual's success or failure in inter-personal relations, as well as his advancement in society in general would depend to a considerable extent to this factor. In order to examine the living of rural people, they have been placed in different categories on basis of their earnings and earnings help in increase the standard of living. Moreover, division of labour in the community is governed by a variety of factors. Important among them are: caste, sex, age and social status. Household work, agricultural activities, traditional craft or occupation of the family and socio-religious rites and ceremonies are all marked by the division of work on basis of sex. It is necessary to mention that work to be done by the household group depends on their earnings too as rich household group get their work done by labour.

In addition to this, it is widely expected that women cannot men's tasks however middle-aged women and widows can do some men's work without social censure. As per author's research, it is also found that the standard of living of a family is judged very often from the quality and quantity of its food. The difference in standards of living is judged by the quantity and kind of rice eaten, the frequency of meat intake in the diet and by the use of spices, fats and oils, jaggery and sugar in the food. Milk and ghee are greatly valued but indeed very few people can claim to have them as a part of their everyday diet. The families in different categories were examined on the basis of nutrition and it was found that there is mild sub-nutrition in the rich and well to do families but mild mal nutrition was found in the average and poor families. The protein

intake is slightly inadequate. This is more apparent in the families classed as average and poor. In the lower income brackets the intake of fats is also insufficient.

J. C. Mehta (2010) Modern society views education as an important resource and a mean of achieving the goal of egalitarianism and it is a channel of social mobility. In India, the inequality of educational opportunity has drawn considerable attention of educational researchers in the context of constitutional provisions for educational development for masses. Mehta explains the basic elements of the socio-economic structure of Indian society and these are caste, gender and accessibility to economic resources in the form of landownership. These are considered the major factors that lead to inequality of educational opportunities.

Here, the author has examined all these forms of disparities in Indian by doing a research in Haryana. The author has prepared this article on the basis of data obtained from the Department of Education, government of Haryana, Census of India and survey conducted by NSSO and N.C.E.R.T. The author claims that the situation of Haryana is equally glaring than that of India as a whole. The literacy rate in Haryana has increased from 26.9 percent in 1971 to 67.91 percent in 2001 but there is an imbalance in rural-urban, between castes and also between genders. As it was only 39.22 percent in Scheduled Castes and in rural Haryana, it was 49.85 percent against 73.66 percent in urban Haryana. Gender discrimination is also big problem in Haryana as literacy rate of males was 78.49 percent and 55.73 percent for females according to census 2001. Haryana ranked 23rd state out of 35 states in the female literacy rate and 10th in variation in literacy rate.

However, if we compare the data for last thirty years, the literacy rate has narrowed down the disparity ratio between male and female literacy, though it is still lower to male counterpart. It can be said because the female SCs in the rural areas are at the bottom of the literacy ladder. The low literacy rate of socially deprived sections of the population indicates that the instrument of social policy adopted so far largely proved to be inadequate. Government in Haryana has emphasized on the education of girls. Consequently, at primary level, the share of girls' enrollment increased from 28.9 percent in 1970-71 to 47.2 percent in 2000-01 and the corresponding figure at middle level was 21.8 percent and 44 percent according to directorate of Primary and Secondary Education.

This increment in number of girls' enrolment became possible as several strategies were adopted to promote education of girls as an integral part of the planned socio-economic development of the country. This is a provision of separate institution or schools exclusively of girls. Besides this, education is free up to graduate level in Haryana. However, the author argues that enrollment ration increases for all the school stages during above mentioned period but it decreases as one goes to successive stages of schooling. This decrease is more for girls as compared to boys. Therefore, gender gap in enrollment is lowest at primary level but it widens at the high school/senior secondary level. This dropout is possible because of secondary and higher secondary schools are not located within accessible distances.

Moreover, there is shortage of female teachers in rural areas while urban schools are overstaffed and crowded with women teachers. According to NCERT survey conducted in 1998, the enrollment percentage of SC students also increased at both the school stages for both the sexes in rural as well as urban areas during the period 1986 to 1993. However, as per the census of 2000-01, the rate of drop-out among SC students was significantly high. More than one-fifth of the total enrolled children and more than one-third of SCs enrolled children dropped out from school before completing their primary education. Significantly, the percentage of girls' dropout was more than the boys. Moreover, another form of caste inequality can be in the availability and accessibility of schools within the habitation. NCERT survey (1998) shows that only 41.25 percent of habitations predominantly populated by SCs were covered by upper primary school while figure of the other habitations was 65 percent.

It was also further found that the schools are mainly located in higher caste habitations within a larger village. According to Nambissan and Sedwat (2002), it becomes essential to understand whether schools are socially accessible for Scheduled Castes children even when they are located at officially prescribed distance. On the basis of his findings, the author has concluded that in spite of increasing number of schools, the progress of literacy and educational development is not satisfactory. Definitely, literacy and enrolment has improved and it has been made possible by narrowing disparities across and within regions as well as between socio-economic groups.

However, it can be seen that caste and gender disparities still exist to a great extent. The lower caste and female children still lag behind in terms of accessibility of quality of education than their upper caste and male counterpart respectively. Further, female SCs in rural area are the

worst sufferer. Reducing caste disparities will take some time due to long history and tradition. However, gender inequality can be eliminated by educating women. If the women are educated then they will take interest in the education of children, and consequently society will become educated. The author also suggests that different agencies like government social welfare agencies, mass media, NGOs and other stakeholders of education come together to reduce or rather eliminate the gap between various segments of population in education and finally, achieving the constitutional target of universal elementary education.

N Sharma (2009) the development of rural areas and poverty alleviation has been the major issues of national policy agenda for more than 50 years. Since independence, the importance of reduction in poverty and provision for other basic needs have been emphasized in all the five year plans. Though so many efforts have been made but rural poverty still continues and it is a major issue to be paid attention. The anti-poverty programmes' have been strengthened in the successive years since fifth five year plan however; still a large section of rural population is living under poverty line. It has identified that the provision of credit and generation of savings are considered essential elements in any rural development strategy. Credit facilities play an important role in the modernization of agriculture but its role in reduction poverty has been seldom recognized.

In short, poverty is the effect of lack of income and access to credit. It is also widely observed that on a broad scale, rural financial services have been controlled by rich farmers. They use their large endowment base and influence within the local power structure and avail loans at very advantageous structure. It is also evidenced that credit policies are mostly made for land-based agricultural production programmes' and they neglect off-farm activities in which the poor are mainly engaged. The government has also introduced many national rural development programmes' in the form of integrated efforts and cooperatives in order to increase the availability of financial services and adopt procedures to help rural clients but due to open membership of these cooperatives, most of them have come under the control of well being and powerful farmers and have failed to make major contributions in the alleviation of poverty.

According to Sharma's research, among the landless and the marginal size of holdings the per capita per month income falls short of per capita per month consumption expenditure and as a result of it the per capita per month savings become negative. It has been evidenced that extent of per capita per month negative savings is higher among landless households and lower among the

marginal size of holdings. Additionally, the extent of per capita per month savings is higher on medium size of holdings and lower on small size of holdings. The author has also measured landless, marginal, small and medium size of holdings on indebtedness scale and found that it is 1474.63, 1270.90, 814.59 and 655.23 respectively and it indicates that per capita the burden of debt is higher among the households falling in the category of landless and marginal farmers and lower among the households falling on the small and medium size of holdings. According to his research, it can be concluded that the rural credit agencies lack the required mechanism to assess the credit needs of the poor in the study area and meet their specific requirements at specific points on time. The majority of sample households in the study area have low or little savings due to low productivity of agriculture.

The study also shows that a major portion of credit borrowed by the poor households was consumed to meet domestic requirements in terms of food, medicine, marriages, litigation, paying of old debts and other social obligations. Financial institutions have not entered this particular credit market because of the existing framework of guidelines does not permit such requirements. Hence, it can be concluded that knowledge level and motivational factor need to be created among the farmers and landless agricultural laborers for the alleviation of their poverty through proper utilization and not merely availing them the institutional credit.

Singh (1995) presented his theory in context of non-agricultural working force in rural Haryana. He found that rural economy of Haryana is relatively more diversified in comparison to the national scene. Within Haryana, there are significant spatial variations. The author attempts to highlight the disparities in level of diversification of rural economy in state of Haryana. According to 1981 census, the non-agricultural working force in rural Haryana comprised 24.52 per cent while in India it constituted 19.02 per cent. It indicated that every fourth rural worker and every fifth in India was engaged in non-farm pursuits. In short, the proportion of rural non-agricultural workers in manufacturing, construction, transport, and communication and miscellaneous services is higher in the State than the national average while, in livestock, fishing, forestry, mining, quarrying and household industries as also in trade and commerce the proportion of workers displays reverse picture.

The author also finds out in his research that ten out of thirty nine tensile had more than 30 per cent of rural workers in non-agricultural occupations. It is also evidenced that the state

diversification of rural economy is associated with factors such as small size of land holdings which compelled the rural people to engage themselves in non-farm occupations, well developed transport network which intensified the mobility of ruralities and rural urban interaction, high literacy rate and high degree of urbanization and presence of big industrial towns with respective industries. These manufacturing plants provide employment to considerable number of workers from the adjoining rural tract. Commuters from nearby rural areas and sizeable immigration from distant parts of the state to seek employment and prefer rural residence for reason of high cost of living in urban places added to high degree of diversification of rural economy in these areas.

Since 1966, Haryana government has achieved a considerable progress at all fronts of economic development but could not keep pace with it at social front. Singh found the existence of some salient features in rural economy of Haryana in his analysis. The rural economy is less regionally oriented in Haryana as compared to India. Tertiary sector of economy shared more than secondary one in the state. In spatial terms, eastern parts of the State are characterized with more diversified rural economy than the western parts. Areas with high degree of diversification are confined to two major pockets; the adjoining region of Delhi and district of Ambala. By contrast, low degree of diversification is witnessed in the western flood plain and desert tract adjoining Rajasthan. It can easily be concluded that rural electrification, proximity of big urban centers, dense road network, socio-economic conditions of people are crucial factors in diversification of rural economy.

S Mukharjee, J F Levesque (2010) it is widely found in the study of NSS that average cost of inpatient care has grown at much higher rate than the prices of essential food items even in government hospitals. Mukherjee and Levesque have examined inequalities in age-adjusted mortality rates, child mortality rates, incidence of chronic illness and self reported health status. They have also examined the distribution of healthcare, variable across different socio-economic and demographic sections of the population as utilization of healthcare services is often considered an important process indicator of healthcare systems. However Selvaraj and Karan (2009) identified there are limited studies on the inequality in health care utilization at the macro level in the Indian context and few have looked into the dynamics of inequality.

Hence, in this paper the authors have focused on utilization of inpatient care, rural India and its objectives are to assess the level of inequality in the inpatient care utilization across Indian

states, to assess the changes in inequality in inpatient care utilization over time, and to explore the characteristics of the states that have experienced different levels and changes in inequality. For this, Mukherjee and Levesque have compared the average level of utilization across population subgroups based in socio-economic or demographic characteristics e.g. castes, income/expenditure classes, sex and age groups. However, Wagstaff et al (1991) stated that a health inequality measure should ideally satisfy certain criteria. It must incorporate and reflect the socio-economic or demographic characteristics of the health variable.

In the article, the authors have collected data from two surveys that were conducted by NSS 1996 and 2004. These surveys have covered the entire country with few exceptions, adopted multistage stratified samplings and collected detailed information on morbidity, utilization of healthcare, and health care expenditure. In these surveys, it was found when a health sector of a state is not able to provide adequate inpatient care services to meet the needs of a larger population, the rich and affluent are likely to corner a disproportionately high share of healthcare because of better access and higher purchasing power. In other words, inequality in the distribution of health care is expected to be higher in those societies which provide little healthcare.

The authors here are not able to provide more details on the linkage between suppliers' induced demand for inpatient care and high rate of inpatient care utilization. It is observed that there is a negative relationship between the rate of inpatient care utilization and the rate of poverty. Moreover, it is also identified that both poor and rich segments of the population reduced their dependence on government hospitals for inpatient care between 1995-96 and 2004. The states where the rural poor significantly reduced their dependence on government hospitals were Bihar, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan. Especially there is no such evidence to suggest that their living standards have improved so remarkably as to prompt a profound shift in behavior.

It is widely accepted that the cost of inpatient care at private hospitals is likely to grow at faster rate than at government hospitals however, the median cost of inpatient care at government hospitals grew faster than that at private hospitals in some states and there are Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. Because of this increased cost, the households have been pushed in poverty too in these states as they lose income too due to ill health.

Raina (2000) has highlighted the seasonal rural problems in India. She found that agriculture is highly seasonal. Seasonality with low mean incomes, is one of the primary causes of distress in rural livelihoods. She has emphasized on use of meaningful information, within the framework of seasonality of rural livelihoods as a crucial input for sustainable agricultural development. It is also notified that information for development must be generated and used by rural population, by integrating different sources of information starting with people's perceptions.

The author also highlights the scope for participatory monitoring and evaluation of development projects. Henceforth, an integrated participatory seasonal observation system (IPSOS) is a desirable institutional change for rural empowerment. Seasonality continues to be a major stumbling block in rural development in every less developed country (LDC) where agricultural and rural livelihoods depends on seasonal fluctuations in access to food, employment, income and seasonal changes in status of health/morbidity. Here, the incidence of poverty and seasonal industries is high and the market and state infrastructure favors the consumer more than the producer. If there are changes in temperature that will impact crop yields more than the effects of an overall change in climate.

According to Rosenberg (1992), there is adequate information available how climate changes affect plants and animals and the agricultural resources of water, soils and its biological components. It is important to realize that in a world with changed climate, there will be a changed world and there is a highly complex and dialectic relationship in the world (of agricultural) and the climatic factors that affect it. Hence, seasonality is accepted as a central concern in poverty and underdevelopment problem in LDCs. Plenty of attempts have been made to analyze and explain the relationship between seasonality and employment, under-nutrition, poverty, health, working capacity/stress and gender bias, but as per author, little efforts have been made to translate these explanations/conclusions into tangible counter-seasonal development strata. A counter-seasonal development project has to ensure that meaningful information is collected and used. The meaningful information has been defined as that sub-set of the complex network of information flows which is directly crucial actors to formulate, implement, monitor and evaluate a counter-seasonal development project. A counter seasonal strategy demands an absolute dissolution of donor/sponsor power. Solutions may exist within the village and may not demand massive resources. They may be inaccessible or underdeveloped or subject to seasonal bottle-necks:

policies, administrative procedures, environmental factors that do not fit into time sequence of the basic village resources.

However, sometimes it is difficult for a development agency/sponsor to get to respond to the time factor involved in a particular crop layout or cropping sequence. In location, specific information or technologies conveys the spatial context, leaving the time or seasonal context often unrepresented. Rural people have their own local sources of information that help them devise survival strategies to minimize the influence of seasonal fluctuations be it on morbidity, income or nutrition but this information is contextualized within the epistemology of rural livelihoods and hardly enters any of the secondary resources of data that the state or any other agency generates or even the regular primary surveys. Integration of information within a systems perspective must consider the systems information concepts:

Information about the rural system must reveal the independence among elements as well as the reciprocal dependence, where an action within a system causes other actions. Information about rural livelihood must be dynamic. The systems and its elements grow, alter, decay, and die over time and through interventions. The information components must be clear, specified at the outset and changed over time. Components include information on people, environment, inputs, structure, process, outputs, boundaries etc. The information packages must be flexible enough to map and explain the interactions of or changes in each of these components with respect to their environment. When the information is used for participatory development decisions, the possibility of equifinality must be explored. Once the seasonal problems are identified, information for identification and formulation of counter-seasonal projects can be developed. In these kinds of projects, participation of rural population is very important for them to succeed.

Jha (2007) has highlighted in this paper that equivalent growth of consumption in rural India has been much lower than average real per capita consumption growth – indeed, in some cases, it has been negative. It points out to the poor performance of consume perceived average welfare in India's rural sector and should be a matter of urgent policy concern. India's rural sector has been subject to many and repeated bocks over time – floods, droughts, epidemics, erosion of top soil, lowering of water table etc. Whereas it has been written about the evolution of real state gross domestic product (SGDP) of the states, relatively little has been stated about the behavior of consumption and welfare implies henceforth.

Many economists also recognize that a household's sense of well-being depends not just on its average income or expenditures, but also on the risks it faces. Consumption growth is widely linked with the living standards of households hence there welfare in policies must be given critical importance. The ICRISAT data set used by Gaiha and Imai is unusual in that it traces the same households over period of time. In the case of the NSS, however, this is not the case. Nevertheless, the NSS data sets have the advantages that they cover the whole country not just the semi-arid parts as the ICRISAT data set does and that the NSS rounds survey a much larger number of households than the ICRISAT data set. In the case of NSS data set, then, two routes are open to assessing vulnerability of consumption growth.

However, it would not be very much reliable to arrive at comparable measures of the evolution of vulnerability over time. Alternatively, a new technique that focuses on the aggregate data can be used. This ignores distributional considerations but has the advantage that it provides consistent measures of vulnerability that are comparable over time. This methodology also involves computation of a rate of growth of real consumption with no uncertainty that would give a representative consumer the same utility as the expected consumption growth.

Rao and Seetharaman (2006) Ministry of Rural Development has run a new programme, 'Bharat Nirman' and it has decided to build over 6 million houses in next four years however,) feel that the emphasis on building houses under this scheme must be on using raw materials available in rural area which are more environment friendly and this would generate employment in those areas too. He also suggests building houses in accordance with the specific needs of different occupational groups residing in the village. A new programme also came in to existence under the Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY) on April 1, 1999 that is dedicated to the development of rural infrastructure at the village level and is being implemented by the Gram Panchayatas. Its primary objective is to develop a demand driven community village infrastructure including durable assets at the village level with a view to enable the rural poor to have more for permanent and better employment.

In Sept. 2001, this programme was named as Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana and it takes care of food security and additional wage employment. However, still shortage of houses can be felt due to population explosion and constant migration of people from rural areas to cities in search of jobs. The government has a set a target of building two million houses year, in which

emphasis is given on the poor and deprived. The present National Housing and Habitat policy aims at identifying specific housing shortages, prepare District Housing Action Plans for rural areas, providing quality and cost effective housing and shelter options to the citizens, namely the vulnerable group and the poor. In contradiction to this, studies tell us that only 36 per cent of rural houses are pucca and 64 houses require frequent maintenance and eventual replacement over a period of 5 to 10 years. In case of urban houses 77 per cent are pucca. According to 2001 census, an estimate of essential facilities of safe drinking water, toilet and electricity indicate greater attention required for improving the housing infrastructure needs in rural area

The author also identifies that the Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY) is considered the most popular rural housing scheme in India where funding support of Rs 25000 to plain areas and 27,500 for hilly and difficult areas have been provided. This scheme is populated by the District Rural Development Agency at the district level. The author also recommends that the beneficiary should be involved in the construction of the house. Committees of the beneficiaries are expected to coordinate the work with least involvement of a contractor. Moreover, emphasis is also laid on the utilization of maximum possible extent, local materials and cost-effective technologies. The IAY housing is primarily meant to help construction of dwelling units by the members of SC/ST, freed bonded laborers and also rural poor below the poverty line by providing them grant-in-aid. Rao and Seetharaman (2006) further elaborate that India has vast rural populace and their housing needs are huge hence forth, rural housing would keep playing a critical aspect of rural development strategy. It is also expected that Panchayati Raj Institutions, Community Based Organizations and the NGOs should work closely with the Government agencies to address and fulfill the need.