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**ISSUES OF POVERTY AND ITS PLANNING IN  
DEVELOPING ECONOMY**  
(A Study based on Deoria District of Uttar Pradesh)

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**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY**

**PRABHAKAR MISHRA**

**CENTRE FOR THE STUDY OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT  
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY  
NEW DELHI - 110067  
INDIA**

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जवाहरलाल नेहरू विश्वविद्यालय  
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY  
NEW DELHI-110067


*Centre for the Study of Regional Development  
School of Social Sciences*


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## CERTIFICATE

Certified that this dissertation entitled "ISSUES OF POVERTY AND ITS PLANNING IN DEVELOPING ECONOMY (A Study based on Deoria district of Uttar Pradesh)" submitted by PRABHAKAR MISHRA in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy of Jawaharlal Nehru University is his own work and has not been previously submitted for any other degree of this or any other university.

We recommend this dissertation to be placed before the examiners for evaluation.

  
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PROF. G.K. CHADHA  
Chairperson

  
PROF. M.K. PREMI  
Supervisor

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# CONTENTS

	Page No.
CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION	1-23
CHAPTER II : POVERTY ITS CONCEPT AND MECHANISM	24 - 34
CHAPTER III : SECTORAL ANALYSIS OF POVERTY	35 - 51
CHAPTER IV : POVERTY STRUCTURE	52 - 59
CHAPTER V : CAUSES OF POVERTY	60 - 71
CHAPTER VI : POVERTY REMOVAL PLAN FOR THE STUDY AREA	72 - 83
CHAPTER VII : SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	84 - 94
BIBLIOGRAPHY	95 - 101

# Chapter - 1

## INTRODUCTION

In a modern scientific society, mankind have achieved tremendous opportunities in their path of development. However, a large proportion of population are still living under the condition of hunger and severe poverty. In the densely populated underdeveloped countries, the pressure of population on productive resources is often viewed as a major cause of continuing poverty. The literature available on poverty can be reviewed by deviding it into two parts: viz.

- (a) Socio-demographic and economic issues related with poverty.
- (b) Issues related to measuring poverty.

(a) Socio-demographic and economic issues related with poverty

Population vs Poverty: It is a very simple statement that population growth is both a cause and consequence of poverty. As king Birendra (1972) observed that in the context of economic development, if we fail to maintain some equilibrium between population growth and production, especially in the agricultural sector it is certain that all efforts at development will be nullified (quoted in the

workshop on "Population, Family planning and Development in Nepal; Berkeley, California, August 1975).

The political history and development pattern of a country is determined to a considerable extent by demographic behaviour of a society, while there is no clear-cut evidence of the negative relation between population growth and per capita income. Population control and development efforts depend on each other and common set policy measures, especially redistributive measures would help both. From various studies, income distribution has emerged as an important variable relating poverty and population growth (Kulkarni, Sumati - 1990). Most of the South Asia studies on poverty and population have found that only increasing population has not been a primary factor in generating the poverty. There are some indication in the literature that influence of household size on poverty may be positive i.e. larger household would be associated with more poverty. In this case Mahmud and McIntosh (1980) have found a positive relationship in Bangladesh, but Scott and Mathew (1983) have found no such relation in rural Kerala. While Kessinger's (1974) study shows a negative relationship in a long-run historical study of Punjab.

On the basis of various findings regarding interaction between population and poverty, it can be categorically stated as follows:

1. The link between poverty and migration is more important. Migration in some situation is a key household response (Irfan, Seddon 1989). Poverty may force the out migration to the whole household in search of new land because of decline in productivity and increase in indebtedness, or loss of access to land (Seddon 1989).
2. In ecologically vulnerable areas (e.g. the hills and mountains of Nepal, Seddan, 1989) population pressure is a major contributing factor to poverty, but it operates through social relationship. Population pressure leads not only to land fragmentation and reduction in the average size of landholdings, but to landless also (Choudhary, 1989).
3. Moreover, the impact of population on poverty is determined by the social relation of production, and showing the interdependence between population pressure, ecological change and pattern of social and economic inequality.

**Malnutriton and Poverty:** In an under-developed society, the nature of mass poverty is mostly characterised by malnutriton. In most of the poverty stricken region malnutrition is found in the form of protein and calorie deficiencies. It also reflects the other nutritional deficiencies including inadequate intake of vitamins, calcium, iron and other minerals. All these nutrients are

necessary for the maintenance of life and for human development. Calories are a source of energy required for the performance of bodily functions (Aylward and Jul. 1975). It is apparent in poor masses that most of the undernourished population have ultimately formed a vicious cycle of poverty.

In this connection the 'United Nations' Report on International Action to Avert a Food Crisis expressed the fear that unless people are fed adequately, their physical, social and economic development is likely to be completely arrested." (UN. 1968).

After independence, a series of studies have been conducted to incorporate the spatio-temporal in diet composition in different part of the country. In the sixties, the ICMR conducted some diet survey in India. However, the number of surveys carried out in each state were rather disparate, varying from one in Gujrat and two in Madhya Pradesh to over 100 each in Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal, over period 1960-69 (ICMR Report 1960-69). In 1975, the National Nutritional Monitoring Bureau (N.NIM.B) started a more systematic survey to collect data on the nutritional status of individuals, particularly pre-school children. In 1975, the average calorie intake in rural areas was 2296 which increased to 2408 by 1981 (ICMR Report). In 1982 the average intake seems to have declined again to 2243 (NNMB, Report of 1975 and



1982). The protein intake between 1975 and 1981 was more than 60 gms per capita per day but it also fell to 58.7 in 1982 (NNMB Report 1975 and 1982). The above mentioned facts reveal inadequacy of protein and calorie intake in an average man.

**Development and Poverty:** After independence, a new hope has emerged among the common masses of the country. During the freedom struggle, various segments of society participated to emancipate their exploitation and severe condition of mass poverty. The peak hour of movement was also influenced by the worldwide contemporary expanding political ideology of socialism. Under these political realities, India embarked on a programme of planned development. The professed objective of the government was to provide a sound foundation for sustained economic growth, to increase employment opportunities, to improve the living standards of the masses and to reduce disparities in the distribution of income wealth and economic power (Third Five Year Plan).

On the issue of poverty, although large number of publications and seminars have been incorporated since independence, but most of them mumbled on the problems of relative poverty and feel satisfaction over the reduction of absolute poverty. This intellectual hypocrisy will ultimately help the real exploitative causes of society. The tactics of developments in the poverty eradication war are meeting with stubborn resistance also from the granite

structure of social institution and the rock-like obduracy, of the archaic social philosophies and cultural values in the ancient societies with new statehood (Miller P. Herman 1965). Therefore it is necessary to recognise our poverty studies and finally the process of planning which is based on new scientific approaches.

Keeping this in view, the objective of academic studies as well as the planning process should have to fulfill the requirements of economic and social reality. These are Interrelated and require a people's oriented plan initiative. In economic aspect the studies require to formulate strategies for higher rate of growth, greater balance between industry and agriculture, better innovation and utilization of national and human resources and employment opportunities for the entire labour-force. Socio-cultural studies, on other hand, have broader goals, notably creation of scientific environment among orthodox and backward rural society. In this aspect, Tarlok Singh (1964) considered the social aspect of backwardness and divided these into following four categories:

- (a) Development of basic social services, such as education, health, and housing.
- (b) Social welfare, including provisions of minimum amenities and rural and urban welfare.
- (c) Welfare of the weaker and mono vulnerable sections of community; and

(d) Social security.

On Indian poverty, there has been an endless debate since pre-colonial periods. Under the impact of national liberation movement, economic nationalism had become an important issue for the political leaders as well as social scientists. Most of the contemporary literature on Indian poverty have observed that the colonial design of British ruler has ruined the self-supporting economy and generated the poverty and inequality. The important existing literature of poverty can be classified into two categories:

- (a) Poverty studies in pre-independence periods,
- (b) Poverty studies in post-independence periods.

Most of the contemporary literature on Indian poverty have observed that the colonial design of British rule has ruined the self-supporting economy and generated the poverty and inequality.

A pioneer work on poverty problems was done by the distinguished Indian economist and social worker Dadabhai Naoroji (1888). In his book entitled 'Poverty and Un-British Rule in India' he emphasized that the drain of wealth and capital from the country was responsible for poor development of India. According to him the drain consists of two elements first that arising from the remittances by European officials of their savings, and for their expenditure in England for their wants both, there

and in India: and second that arising from remittances by non-officials European (Dadabhai Naoroji 1888).

A noted member of the Indian Civil Services, RC Dutt studied the poverty problems of Indian society. In his study, he emphasized the inequality of land tenure system (under British rule) accompanied by a heavy taxation of the impoverished agriculture - resulting in the permanent poverty of Indian people (Dutt R.C. 1950). Marx (1953) also examined the poverty of Indian society in "Articles on India", New York's Daily Tribune: He observed, "the direct exploitation of Indian subcontinent by the colossal fortunes extorted and transmitted to England". The poverty of Indian society according to him, has been due to the destruction of entire framework without any attempt to build a new one.

#### Issues related to measuring poverty:

Several economists and organisations have worked on poverty line determination in India. The criterion of poverty line given by some important economists is as follows:

P.D. Ojha (1970) has determined poverty line on the basis of average calorie intake of 2,250 per capita per day (Ojha, P.D. 1970). In the terms of food grain it has been estimated that 518 grammes of foodgrains per capita per day is needed to get 80 per cent of total calorie requirements. This entailed monthly per capita consumption expenditure of

RS 15-18 (1960-61 prices) in urban areas and of Rs 8-11 in rural areas.

EPW De Costa (1970) has estimated poverty in three rings: 1. severe destitution, 2. Destitution and 3. poverty. The differences in these categories are based on the different amounts of expenditure required to meet the basic needs with the least for the severe destitutes, a little more for the destitutes and a still more for the poor. The three rings of poverty-level is defined by the three types of poverty-line on the basis of monthly per capita expenditure as indicated in Table 1.1.

**Table 1.1: Scale of Poverty Line (E.P.W. Da Costa)**

S. No.	Years (price-index)	Severe Destitutes		Destitutes		Poor	
		Rural (Rs)	Urban (Rs)	Rural (Rs)	Urban (Rs)	Rural (Rs)	Urban (Rs)
1.	1960-61	11	15	13	18	15	21
2.	1964-65	15	21	18	24	21	28
3.	1970-71	21	28	24	34	28	43
4.	1973-74	28	34	34	43	43	55

Source: N.S.S. Rounds 16th (July 1960-August 1961), 19th (July 1964-June 1965), 25th (July 1970-June 1971) and 28th (October 1973-June 1974).

B.S. Minhas (1971) has drawn the poverty-line on the basis of monthly per capita consumption expenditure of Rs. 20 at 1960-61 prices in rural areas. But Dr. P.K. Bardhan has questioned the validity of Q.H.P. deflector used by Minhas in his study. He used agricultural labour price

index as a more suitable deflator. Thus the poverty line has been drawn on the basis of monthly per capita of RS. 15 at 1960-61 prices using agricultural price index (Bardhan, P.K. 1971). Dahdekar and Rath have drawn the poverty-line on the basis of Rs. 15 per month per capita consumption for rural and Rs. 22 for the urban population at 1960-61 prices (Dandekar, V.M. and Rath, N 1971).

It is evident that the measuring scale of poverty line varies in different studies. The National Council of Applied Economic research (NCEAR) has defined the poverty line in 1970-71. According to this, poverty-line defined as the mid-point of the monthly per capita expenditure class having a daily calorie intake of 2400 per person in rural areas and 2100 in urban areas. At 1979-80 prices the mid points are Rs. 76 in rural areas and Rs. 88 in urban areas.

The studies which are of much importance though they differ on different aspects include. Dandekar and Rath (1971), Sukhatme (1968, 1973, 1977, 1978, 1980), Bardhan (1970, 1973)., Vaidhyanathan (1974), Lal (1976), Planning Commission (1972, 1978), RBI (1982), Desaic (1980).

#### **An Overview of Poverty Alleviation Scheme**

Since independence, the government have launched various programmes to tackle the problem of rural poor on the basis of the ground reality of the contemporary prevailing society various measures have been taken into consideration in various Five Year Plan. In fifties

emphasis were given to reform agrarian economy, especially on land reform. After that, in sixties increase in agricultural productivity was the primary agenda in planning process. Due to the induction of the capital and technology, agricultural output has increased remarkably. However, the problem of poverty and social-injustice continued to be serious. In seventies poverty problem has become an important issue in the struggle for power politics. 'Garibi Hatao' became the slogan of each political party. But the challenges remained unchanged. Broadly, the government sponsored poverty alleviation schemes can be listed in two categories:

1. Crash Scheme for Rural Employment and
2. The Development Agencies for Small Farmers and for Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers (SFDA and MFAL).

Considering the various emerging contradictions in development planning, especially in sixth and seventh Five Year Plans, National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and self employment scheme was launched to meet the challenges of poverty. To fulfill the nutritional deficiencies among poor masses the idea of direct food supplements has emerged in planning. For this the Applied Nutritional Programme was incorporated into the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS).

However, the various poverty eradication programmes, mentioned above, have failed to improve the condition of downtrodden masses. In this connection, a number of critical studies were done by eminent scholars and found that the feudal remnants and capitalist mode of development have formed a nexus against poor masses. Some of the important conclusions are as follows:

1. In 1963, the programme Evaluation Organisation (PEO) observed that by rural works programmes very little employment had been generated (Report of P.E.O. 1967). Due to this the problem of unemployment and underemployment became more serious in sixties and had increased poverty.
2. Development Scheme for small farmer and marginal farmer were critically examined by Programme Evaluation Organisation in 1974-75. It observed that there was a lack of co-ordination between state machinery and the project officers (Planning Commission 1979).
3. Bagchee and Kumudani Dandekar in their studies on Employment Gurantee Scheme (E.G.S.) observed that, in general, E.G.S. has been successful in preventing malnutrition among poor masses by providing employment in labour-intensive projects. However, the lower wage affected the poverty alleviation programme in another way



(Bagchee 1983, Kumudani D. 1983).

4. On other hand, I.R.D.P. programme has been criticised by scholars at various level. Nilkanth Rath (1985) examined the I.R.D.P. and concluded his finding as follows:
  - a. This programme consider the individual as target for poverty eradication rather than in integrated way.
  - b. The subsidy concept has encouraged corruption due to wrong identification, overvaluation of assets and distribution of poor quality assets.
  - c. The poverty eradication programme should be considered the wage employment as major anti-poverty strategy.

On the basis of several observations, it may be concluded that the structural problem of poverty has required a fresh attack on the overall system which breeding poverty from generation to generation. Keeping this in view, the poverty problems should be studied in a new dimension. In present work I have tried to incorporate the various aspects of poverty component.

Poverty is thee problem of deepprivation but not only deprivation. This deprivation may be multidimensional either eeconomic or cultural or social or psychological or a combination of all of them. The problem of poverty is

often conceptualised as a 'Socio-economic phenomenon' whereby the resources available to a society are used to satisfy the wants of the few while many do not have even their basic needs met. So poverty is essentially a social phenomenon and only recorderily a material or physical phenomenon and hence should be studeid accordingly.

Today, poverty is a moral challenge to all responsible persons - educationists, politicians, planners and social workers alike. The poverty of Indian masses, particularly those dependent on a;gricuture, is proverbial, its removal is the cardinal goal of the programme for national socio-economic reconstruction. Poverty is a complex phenomenon in its content and scope, and is not only widespread but also intense. It is instrinsically related to the existing socio-economic structures and is influenced by the economic and social policies. Hence it is necessary to study this problem from different perspectives.

#### Objective and Scope

At present the issue of mass poverty in an underdeveloped complex society is more debatable. Although eminent social scientists, politicians, and planners have devoted their study and activities on such emerging problem. But the extent and magnitude of issues remain unresolved.

In the present study the author has tried to examine the issues of poverty and planning for development in a

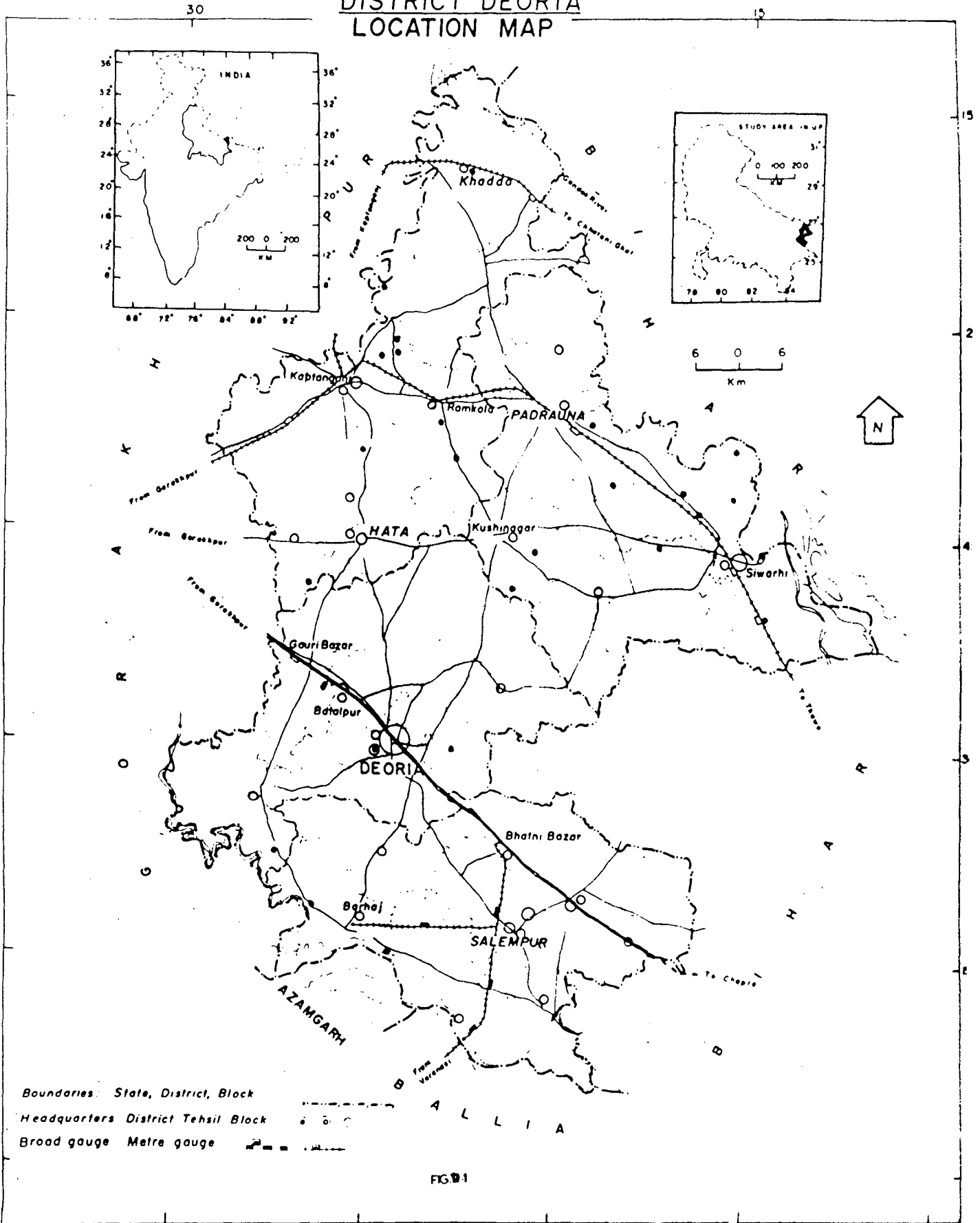
most poverty stricken region, like Deoria district of Uttar Pradesh. Objectives of the present study are very much relevant to highlight the problem in a systematic way. It is categorically stated as follows:

1. The conceptualization of poverty and preparation of model reflecting the mechanisation of poverty in a hypothetical framework.
2. Analysing the histo-genesis of agrarian poverty. From pre-colonial period to post independence period.
3. Identifying the study area and estimation of poverty based upon sample survey.
4. To identify the causes of poverty in the study area.
5. To suggest Poverty Removal Plan in the study area.

**Study Area:**

The district of Deoria (26°5'E) is situated in the extreme north-eastern part of Uttar Pradesh it forms a part of the Gorakhpur division. The extreme length of the district, from north to south, is about 120 km and the breadth, from west to east, about 72 kms. it is bounded on the east by the district of Sinean and Gopalganj of Bihar State, on the west by the district of Gorakhpur on the north by the district of Padraune and on the South by the districts of Azamgarh and Ballia. The boundaries on the

# DISTRICT DEORIA LOCATION MAP

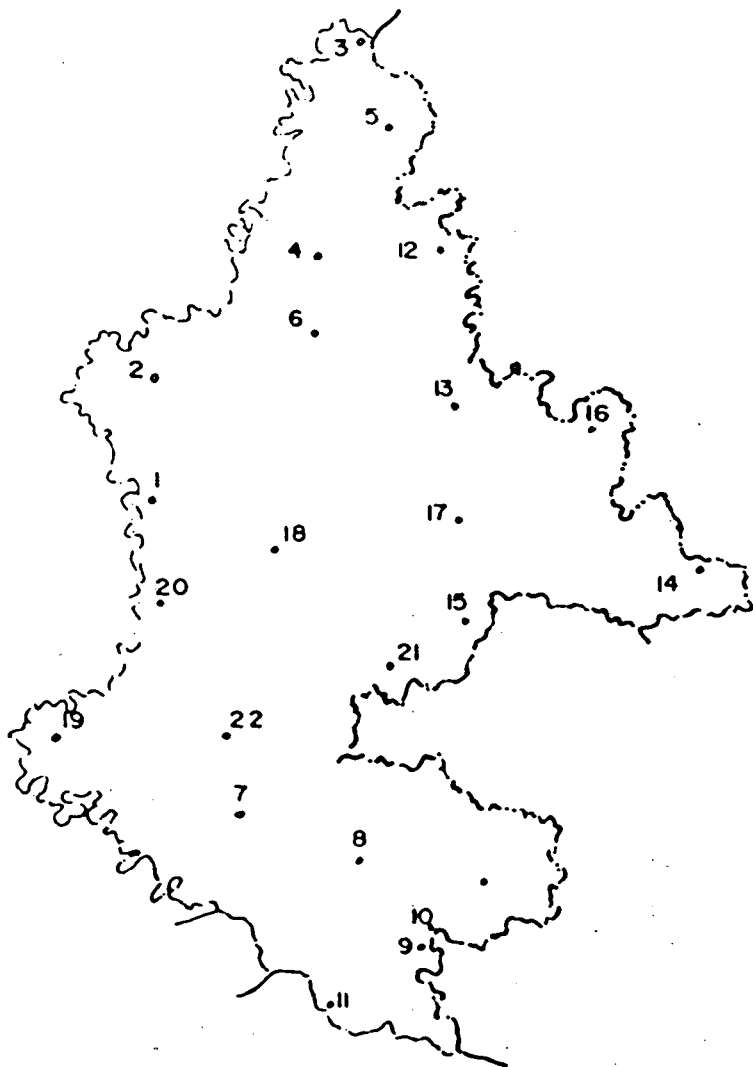


Boundaries: State, District, Block  
 Headquarters District Tehsil Block  
 Broad gauge Metre gauge

FIG. 1

# DISTRICT DEORIA

## LOCATION OF SAMPLE VILLAGES



Village Codeno.	Name of Villages
1	Sidhawan
2	Mehda
3	Marichaha
4	Kuiyan
5	Jwalapur
6	Indersenwa
7	Markara
8	Majhauri
9	Churia
10	Dugari Misir
11	Pipara Bhulli
12	Bishunpur Buzurg
13	Kanhwar Baklelahi
14	Birwat Kamawali
15	Bhatnahi Khurd
16	Amowa Digur
17	Asogwa Khurd
18	Marpaha
19	Paharpur
20	Pande Bhiswa
21	Pakarlar
22	Saraura

north and south are wholly natural formed by the river Badi Gandak, Rapti and the Ghaghra respectively, but on the west and east are partly artificial. On the west, the boundary forming rivers are the Choti Gandak, Mashna and the Rapti and on the east are a branch of the Badi Gandak, the Jharhi and the Choti Gandak.

**Social System:** The historical background of the study area reveals that the present disparities in the region is a deeprooted legacy from the past. Both primitive slavery and feudal conditions have prevailed in the area for several hundred years. Nazarana system has been very much in vogue in the past. It is the practice of levying a fine or premium, one land is widely leased or when a tenant is allowed to hold on and acquire occupancy rights, or when a collateral is permitted to succeed to an occupancy holding. A large part of the Tamkobi estate was leased on a seven years lease and 'salami', was extracted at the common court of Raja Satyanand of Baharas, each lease used to hold 4 villages near Bodawar in Pangaha Haveli, and collect 'Nazarana' from tenants which varied from Rs. 4 to Rs. 15 a bigha on a 7 years lease. Besides 'nazarana', all kinds of irregular levies were collected from time to time to meet the special needs of zamindars. These practice were particularly common in the estate of chatri babus. It was a widely recognised custom that a non-rsident zamindar while visiting a village used to receive a 'salami' of Rs.

1 from each of the more substantial tenants. In accordance to historical records, whenever the master wanted to add an elephant or horse to his stable, the tenants had to pay their shares (Gorakhpur Settlement Reports 1912). These facts explain the former feudal character of the society of Deoria district.

**Industrial Economy:** The industrial economy of the district is very inadequately developed. Its economic prosperity centres around its agriculture, which provides its people food and raw materials. Most of the residents follow their forefather's occupations, i.e., agriculture. The principle industry of the district concerns sugar factories, which are situated along the railway lines in cane producing areas.

The study area has two types of economy -

1. Large-scale and medium industry, and
2. Small-scale industries.

**Large-Scale Industries:** At present, there are 15 large and medium-scale industries, comprising 14 sugar mills and one distillery. The sugar industry is one of the oldest industries of the district. It has been attracted to this area due to abundance of raw material, i.e. sugarcane, within short distances. The cultivation of sugarcane is now concentrated in small areas where the factories are located.

**Table 1.2: Working efficiency of Large and Medium Scale Industries (1990-91)**

S. No.	Industries	No.	Employment	Capital investment (in lakhs)	Total	Average production
1.	Sugar Industry	14	10,000	888.96	1410.54	35 crores
2.	Distillery	1	125	11.86	51.29	28.44 lakhs

Source: District Industrial Centre, Deoria (1990-91).

The above table shows the poor status of the sugar industry, which is not in a position to achieve optimum production efficiency because of its out-dated machinery and adoption of backward technology, by the sugar mills. Consequently, the recovery of sugar from the cane is very low. The average annual production from these mills is about 85,000 tons of 'Shiva' and 16,000 tons of 'Khoa', which constitute raw materials for the distillery and paper mills respectively.

**Small-scale and Household Industries:**

The no. of registered small scale and household industrial units in 1990-91, was 370, employing a total capital of Rs. 4.5 crores. About 5,500 persons were engaged in small and household industries. Table 2 below gives the details of the small-scale and household industries in Deoria district in 1990-91.



**Table 1.3: Small-scale Industries, district Deoria  
(1990-91)**

S. No.	Industry	No. of Units	Percent of total no. of industries
1.	Based on agriculture	79	21.35
2.	General Engineering industry	115	31.08
3.	Chemical industry	40	10.81
4.	Electrical instruments	6	1.62
5.	Mineral based industry	15	4.05
6.	Textile industry	3	0.08
7.	Based on livestock	15	4.05
8.	Other	104	28.11
	Total	370	100

Source: District Industry Office, 1990-91.

The total amount of earnings from this sector is roughly Rs. 12 crores a year.

**Agriculture Economy:** In Deoria district, agriculture is the dominant economy which supplies food for the people and essential raw materials for manufacturing industries. About 70% of the people of this area derive their food directly from agricultural pursuits. With the accelerated increase in population in the recent past, more and more areas have been brought under cultivation with a view to grow more food for the maintenance of the increased numbers. But the

increase in cultivation activity can not go to an unlimited extent since it is conditioned by various factors, most important of which is limited land.

**Table 1.4: Trend of cultivated and cultivable area in Deoria district (1920-90)**

S. No.	Year	Total Cultivable area (acres)	Area actually cultivated (acres)	Cultivated area % of total cultivable area	% Increase
1.	1920-21	1,227,339	1,033,210	84.20	-
2.	1946-47	1,219,957	1,037,020	85.10	+ 0.90
3.	1962-63	1,205,017	1,102,062	91.46	+ 6.36
4.	1979-80	1,192,788	1,108,442	92.92	+ 2.36
5.	1989-90	1,182,532	1,113,341	94.15	+ 1.23

Source: District Land Record Office, Deoria.

Table 1.4 shows that the total cultivable area during 1920-90, has decreased due to extension of cultural landscape, but the cultivated area has increased from 84.20% in 1920-21 to 94.15% in 1989-90 of the cultivable land excluding current follows.

It is thus clear that there is little possibilities in any further extension in the cultivable area. Consequently, efficient methods of production and modern techniques have to be applied to achieve higher production from the limited land resources.

Growth of Population: The growth of population in any area often results in changing demand patterns of that area. Population growth occurs in two ways - either by natural growth or by immigration. In the present study, the growth of population has been discussed for a period of eighty years (1911-1991). Non-availability of reliable data forbids any useful discussion for the period prior to 1911.

From census reports, it is clear that the district population has increased remarkably during 1941-1991 (Table 4). But increase in population did not occur regularly. It increased mostly during 1931-91, but the rate of increase has been considerably low during 1941-51 (6.74%).

- (1) During 1911-41, the population increased at a continuously slow rate and net growth over this period, was 21.58% only.
- (2) The period 1941-51, evidenced a still slower rate of growth (6.74%).
- (3) Rapid population growth during 1951-91 when the net growth in this period was ~~83.5~~.

The decade of 1911-21 experienced only a slight increase of 2.08% in population. But the period of 1921-31 saw a relatively faster growth of 6.78%. The growth rate further increased to 11.53% during 1931-41. But during 1941-51, the growth rate came down to only 6.74%, this could be because of independence movement.

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In the post-independence period, there has been a phenomenal increase in the growth rate of population in Deoria district. It is noted that population increased from 6.24% in 1941-51 to 12.56% and 18.41% in the decades of 1951-61 and 1961-71 respectively. Population grew at a rate of 15.77% during 1971-81 whereas it grew at a very faster rate during the period 1981-91. Growth for this period was very high at 36.36%.

**Table 1.5: Growth of Population in Deoria district**

Year	Population	Change in population	Decennial growth in %
1911	1620214	-	-
1921	1653979	+ 33765	2.08
1931	1766188	+ 112209	6.78
1941	1969913	+ 203725	11.53
1951	2102627	+ 132714	6.74
1961	2375075	+ 271448	12.96
1971	2812350	+ 437275	18.41
1981	3255923	+ 443573	15.77
1991	4440024	+ 1184101	36.36

Source: District Census Hand Book.

**Data Base:** The study will mainly rely on primary data and the data already published would be used only as secondary and supporting material. The study will also use books, journals, documents, survey and other research studies by various organisations and political and social activists. The intensive investigation of the prospective/problamatic area will be done through sample studies at micro level. The collection of field data from primary as well as secondary sources and their interpretation will also be done at micro level.

**Research Design:** The proposed work will be devided into seven parts first part will be introductory and will define the importance, objectives, data base and plan of the study. In the second part the concept and mechanism of poverty will be analysed. Part 3 will deal with the sectoral analysis of poverty part 4 will deal with poverty structure. Part 5 will explain causes of poverty in the study area. Part 6 will suggest poverty removal plan for the study area and part 7 will be of summary and conclusion.

## Chapter - 2

### POVERTY : ITS CONCEPT AND MECHANISM

The problem of poverty in developing countries is not only a threat to political stability but also responsible for moral crisis among political leaders. It also creates social and environmental problems. Although several approaches have been outlined by government, politicians, intellectuals and other social institutions yet the issues have remained unresolved, more or less over years.

Several researches have been done on the poverty on third world countries but their major focus so far have been on the measurement of the extent of poverty. Here the causes of mass poverty have been much less investigated. To an astonishing degree, causes have been simply assumed (Galbraith - 1979).

Most of the studies on poverty problems have drawn their conclusion by poor physical endowment, climate, ethnic tendency and legacy of exploitation under colonial rule, institutional structure which are to condraine to development, in efficient governments, lack of capital, and trained administrative or technical talent, dominance of agricultural sector and high pressure of population on land resources. These causes are the consequences of the poverty. Hence rapid enhancement in G.N.P. and tool

production with sharp increase in poverty highlight the fact that problems facing most of underdeveloped countries are not merely a crisis of production but also one of distribution (Jacoby, 1973).

Considering the widening gulf between rich and poor, the process of development of the end of present century has been questioned at various levels. It has to be seen in various levels of socio-economic and political debate at global as well as local level, under the following broad categories.

1. Emerging conflict between : Developed vs developing countries in the form of new international order.
2. Challenges before national unity by the regional nexus in the form of sectarian movement.
3. Increasing violence between peasants and agricultural labourer in rural- eco systems.

Behind these unrest, poverty is main cases. Although several studies have been done to understand the poverty problem but their findings are mainly related to measurement of poverty. Some important findings are given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 : Findings of some important studies on poverty

S. No.	Researcher's name	Poverty norms Rs. per year at 1960-61 prices	Period	Population below poverty level
1	Ahluwalia	180	1956-57 1960-61 1965-66 1967-68 1970-71 1973-74	53.5 38.4 54.7 56.5 47.5 46.1
2	Bardhan	180	1960-61 1964-65 1967-68 198-69	38.0 45.0 53.0 54.0
3	Dandekar Rath	180	1961-62	40.0
4	Minhas	200	1956-57 1957-68 1960-61 1964-65 1967-68	52.7 50.2 46.0 39.3 37.1
5	Ojha	2250 calories per capita per day	1960-61 1967-68	52.0 70.0
6	Vaidyanathan	240 (NS5 data)	1960-61 1964-65 1967-68	59.5 60.4 67.8
7		Official data	1960-61 1964-65 1967-68	58.8 56.9 57.8

Source : S.A.R. Sastry, A survey of literature on poverty income distribution and development Artha Vijanana, XXII, vol. No.1, March 1980, Table III, Page p.86.



The above table shows considerable variations among the different estimates of the percentage of population below the poverty level as well as of trend in the incidence of poverty. Thus estimates of poverty percentage vary from about 38 percent (Auwalia and Bardhan) to almost 60 percent (Vaidyanathan on the basis of NSS data).

The problem of poverty, particularly after 1970 has assumed a political dimension and yet the poor have remained away from the centre of power politics. During these periods several studies have also been formulated to understand the problem in a sectarian way rather than integrated approach.

#### **Poverty and its Dimension**

Formulation of programmes to integrate poverty had required enough knowledge of the process of Socio-economic transformation. Empirical identification of poverty issues involved in defining the dimensions of poverty, the data constraints in measuring its incidence and other problems in estimating the socio-economic factors. As we know poverty is a complex social reality and each social science discipline looks at it from their own point of view.

On the contrary it requires multidisciplinary approaches. No single social science can claim that its approach is the only one in measuring and explaining poverty. On poverty several views have been incorporated by scholars at different times. Some have considered the

persistence and perpetuation of poverty as necessary aspect for maximum good of a minimum number of people.

#### CONCEPTUAL DIMENSION

Poverty has been defined by two different view points (1) culture view (2) Economic view. The cultural view defines culture of poverty among poor people who react to changes and adopt only those changes that are congruent with their culture (Lewis Oscar, 1968). Poverty creates pathologies (adaptation to deprivation, degradation, and destitution) that block the ability to adopt to non-pathological situation (Lewis, Hylan 1967).

Economically poverty has been defined by involving income and expenditure, employment, Gross National Product (GNP), production and distribution, demand and supply and supply and welfare measures including nutritional standards. For poverty there is no integrated body of economic knowledge to get at the perfect understanding about poverty. Consequently, like economic stability and growth, for want of a theory is lost in Economics (Schultz, Theodore W. 1965).

In India, the recommended Calorie intake, first formulated in 1944, was revised in 1958, 1968 and in 1980. It is now 2400 calorie for man and 1900 calories for women per day (Rao, V.K.R.V. 1982). But the nutritional criteria to define poverty have several limitations. There is no subsistence level which can be adopted to solve the problem

of poverty. this criteria is also disputed about using the average requirements, based on individual equivalence for age and sex, as the criteria for undergoing the nutritional status of an entire population (Rao, V.K.R.V. 1982).

Actually the problem of poverty can not be understood by any single norm, either by individual or economic deprivation approach.

It is complex phenomenon and has a structural linkage with a political economy in a society. It requires some systematic view. Physical aspect of poverty presenting itself as deprivation must be viewed in wider and deeper social context. In understanding poverty all the factors and forces, involved in ownership, control and utilization of resources should be examined (Kurien, C.T. 1978).

In this context poverty is conceptualised as the socio-economic phenomenon whereby the resources available to a society are used to satisfy the wants of a few while the many do not have even their basic needs met. (Kurien C.T. 1978).

So the concept of poverty is wider and includes not merely those who are unemployed and poor but also those who, fully or partly employed, have been very little because of the low productivity or low wages. (Draft Sixth Five Year Plan, Vol. II. P.6).

#### **Mechanism of Poverty**

Several social scientists have done their researches

which give different ideological perspectives on the poverty problems. Michel Lipton has argued that urban bias is the root cause of the failure of development to remove mass poverty (Michel Lipton, 1982, p. 89). Moynihan in his poverty study has drawn a vicious cycle of poverty. In his vicious cycle of poverty breeds poverty which occurs through time and transmits its effects from one generation to another. There is no beginning to the cycle, no end (Moynihan, P. Daniel 1962).

Marxists have analysed the poverty through historical forces that initiate and sustain poverty. They believe that historical forces result in the use of resources being divided almost exclusively by the ownership of resources, and that some stages of history are characterised by society being divided into those who own resources and hence are used by the former. In this context the marxist analysis comes closer to the problem of poverty. (Kurien, 1982. p. 18).

The primitive stages of Indian Society have shown the commune type of production. In Mahabharat period Bhishma analysed the social structure and nature of state in his statement. There was no kingdom and king, no punisher and no punished (Mahabharat, Shanti 58), In ancient periods, people protected each other and their derelictions were cured by public censure (Dange, S.A. 1972, p. 63).

In Kritiyuga the men did to distinguished between yours and mine. In Arajak or kingless state no body had ownership of property, Kautilya established these facts in his work. He says in a gana where Vairajya (described in the Aitareya Brahaman) exists. Nobody has a feeling of mine. (Kautilya in Arthshastra, 8-2). These facts have shown the initial stage of society. In such a society people have no right to accumulate the resources at his own command and equitable distribution of production were very common.

#### **Poverty in Feudal Society**

During the process of historical development the production was ruined. Certain groups have established their command on resources and means of production. In Mahabharata Bhisma had shown his anxiety over internal rivalry, great and the break-up of their unity in Gana Organisation (Dange, S.A. 1972. p. 63).

This historical time was the transition period of primitive commune to feudalism in Indian society. In the perspective of historico-Social development the point has been clearly brought out by Kosambi that caste as an institution that grew up on the Indian Socio-Cultural Soil, primarily during the transition from tribal to feudal socio-economic formation, it survives as a precapital life formation (Kosombi, D.D. 1970). This process of historical development has divided the society in haves and haves not.

Thus poverty was generated into Indian feudal society.

#### **Poverty in Capitalist society**

In modern industrial society the capital oriented productive forces have destroyed the self-supporting Indian economy and dignity of labour forces. Due to this the fruit of development have gone in hands of few while many have lost their claim on production assets. Consequently mass poverty have been generated in social strata.

Marx (1853) analysed the poverty of Indian society. According to him Indian poverty has been originated due to the destruction of the entire framework without any attempt to rebuild. He examined the Indian poverty through the dialectics of historical materialism of economic development and observed that the destruction of the older would eventually lead to the establishment of the material basis for a new social order (Karl Marx, 1853).

During the British rule, the condition of people have become more impoverished. Percapita consumption expenditure have shown the decreasing trend during British colonial periods (Table 2.2).

**Table 2.2 : Per capita consumption expenditure (at 1938-39 prices)**

S. No.	Years	Rupees	S. No.	Year	Rupees
1.	1931-32	49.9	6.	1936-37	49.0
2.	1932-33	49.1	7.	1937-38	48.4
3.	1933-34	48.7	8.	1938-39	47.4
4.	1934-35	48.9	9.	1939-40	45.6
5.	1935-36	48.4	10.	1940-41	46.3

Source : Desai R.C. Standard of living in India and Pakistan, Bombay, 1953, p. 284.

**Table 2.3 : Distribution of Expenditure (in percent)**

S. No.	Group	India (1938-39)	England (1938)
1	Food	60.5	30.1
2	Housing	6.0	21.5
3	Others	33.5	58.4

Source : Desai R.C. Consumer expenditure in India 1931-32 to 1940-41, Journal of the Royal statistical society series, vol. XI, Part 4, 1948, p. 2777.

Table 2.3 shows the poor condition of Indian people in comparison to British people. The high expenditure in food (60.5%) shows the mass poverty in Indian society. Dadabhai Naroji (1870) concluded that the drain of wealth and capital from the country was responsible for poor development of India. He also examined two Indians as follows.

In reality there are two Indians one the prosperous and the other poverty stricken. Then prosperous India is the India of the British and other foreigners. They exploit India as officials, capitalists in a variety of ways and carry away enormous wealth to their country. To them India is ofcourse rich and prosperous. The second India is of the poverty stricken India mostly characterised by agrarian masses. (Quoted by mostly characterised by agrarian masses, Ganguly B.N.).

Considering the above mechanism of poverty at different historical future, the author has tired to find out model of poverty Fig. 2.1 and 2.2, present model of the poverty cycle and dynamics of poverty in feudal system. In this approach, the poverty cycle starts through socio-economic, cultural and political inequalities which increase poverty from one generation to another.



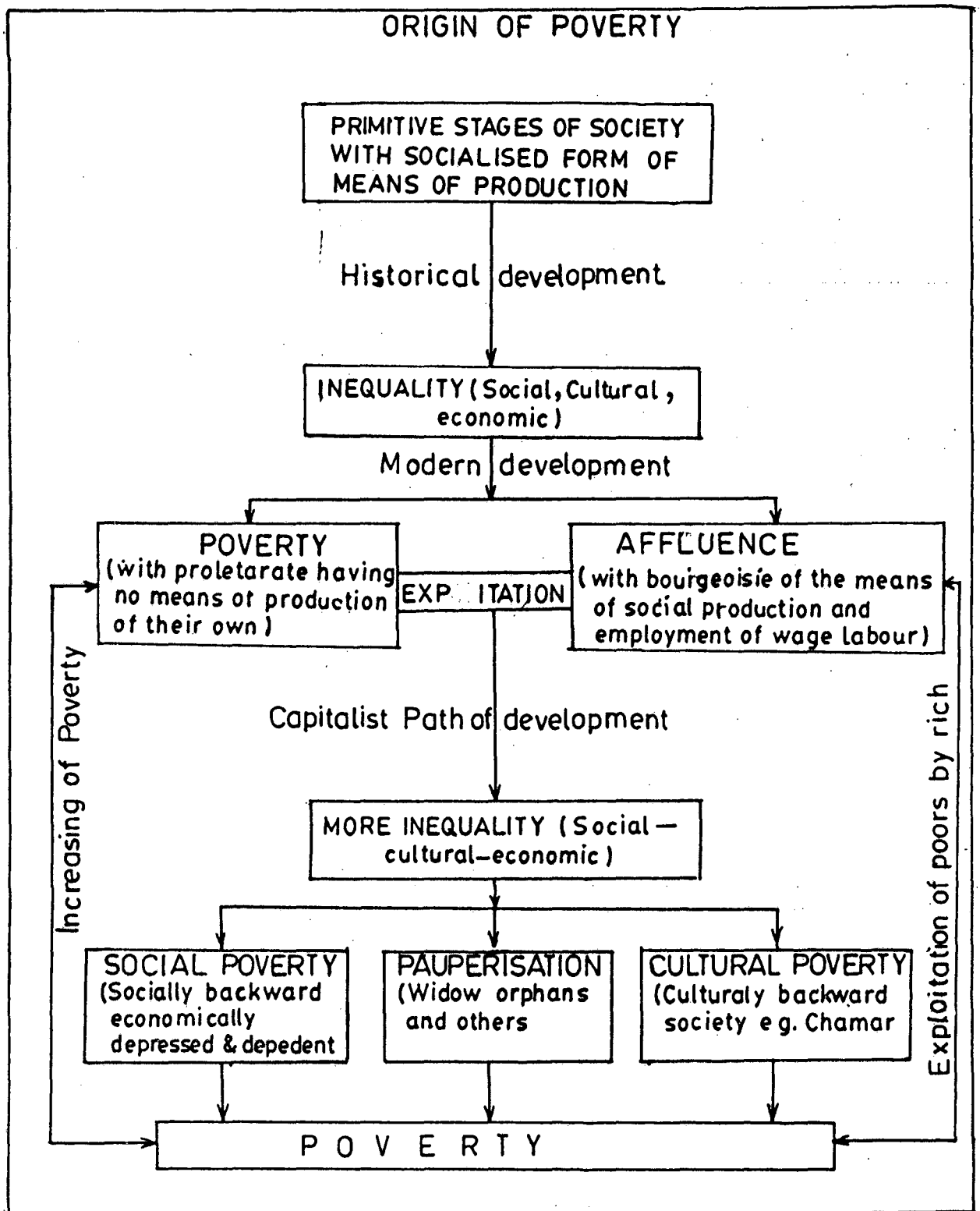


FIG. 2.1 POVERTY CYCLE

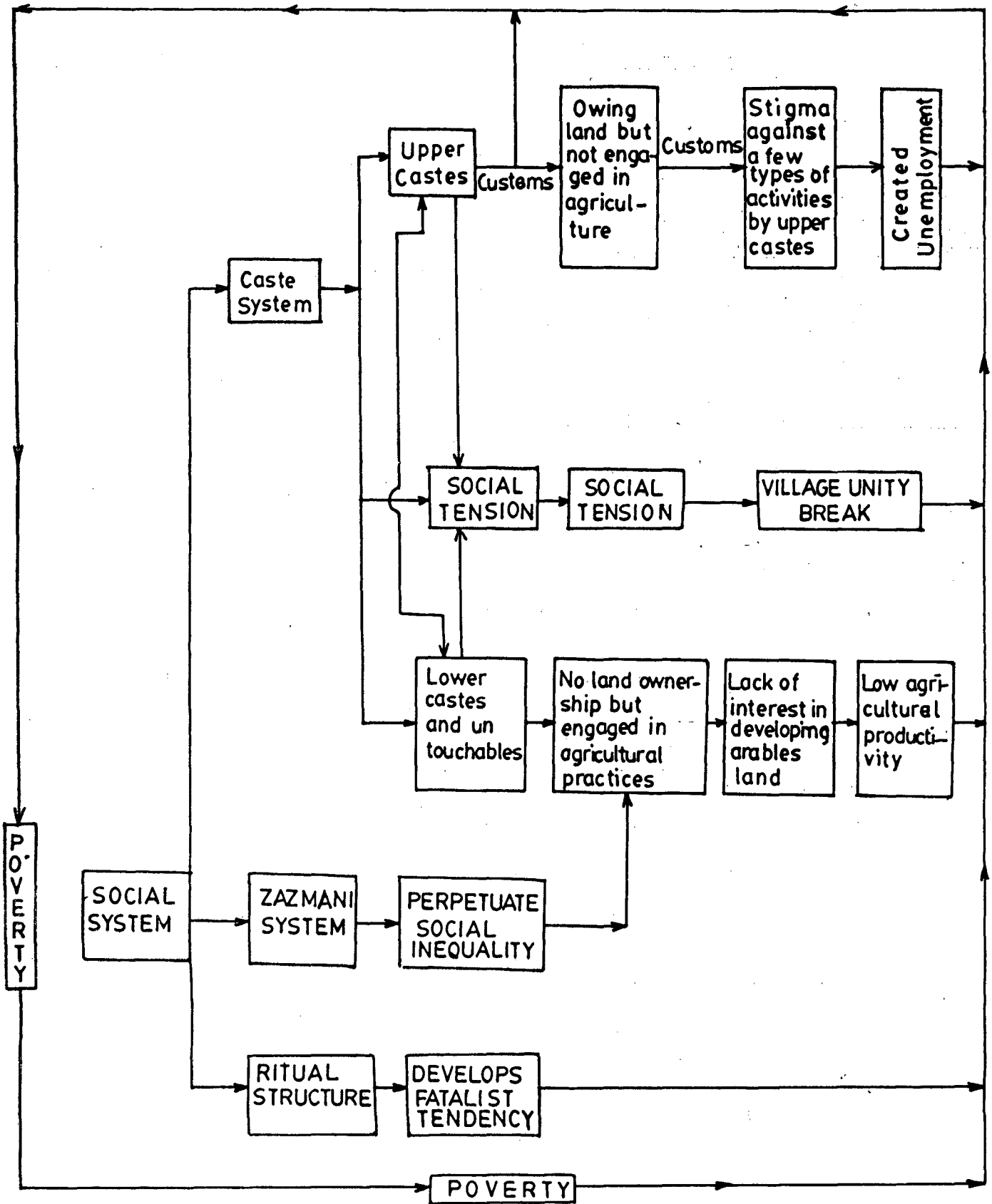


FIG. 2.2 DYNAMICS OF POVERTY IN FEUDAL SYSTEM.

## Chapter - 3

### SECTORAL ANALYSIS OF POVERTY

A multi-disciplinary study of the problem of poverty has become an important issue among the social scientists as well as political activists. The problems of poverty can not be solved through simple state mechanism. It requires a multi-disciplinary approach. Considering the multifaceted nature of poverty present study analyses the problem in a historic-socio-political way. Since, agriculture continues to be the main basis of livelihood of more than 70 percent of third world population, reorientation of agrarian studies is vital for giving a scientific shape to the problem of agrarian poor.

Most of the developing nations have shown an increasing trend of agrarian poverty because of the penetration of third world agriculture by international agro-business. This, is infact, just another aspect of the new international division of labour (Forbel V. 1979) increasing multinational investment in third world agricultural and the integration of the peasants of under-developed countries into the world economic system, has led many exploitative phenomenon in development process.

The increasing pre-occupation of international agencies and several national governments with anti-poverty

programmes is really only cosmetic because they deal with the symptoms and not the causes of the malady, with redistribution mechanism but not with restructuring the mode of production (Joshi, P.C. 1979). In most agrarian societies poor peasants and the landless labourers are in a close and unequal relationship with rich peasants and landlords, being dependent on them not only for access to the means of production but also for employment and loans at the times of hardship (Joanes, Steves, 1982). The development in the Third World Countries is being divided through various channels by several international development agencies and MNCs leading to a sort of exploitation and mass poverty instead of removing it.

Regarding poverty, several themes have come into existence through researches as well as empirical studies. One of the themes in post-world war literature on development studies is the poverty of certain countries because of low level of production which in term is a product of the low real incomes low savings and investment and the general deficiency of the capital stock (Rangar M. 1953).

In this connection , a historical perspective is essential for understanding the problem of poverty. The extent of social, political and economic structures and relations characteristic of imperialism persist today and hence their impact on poverty and underdevelopment has also

to be taken into account.

The class structure during the British period was highly unequal and dominant by a small section of the society, mainly the elite and their Indian collaborators (Angus Maddison, 1972).

### **Colonial Impact on Agrarian Poverty**

Considering the colonial impact on Indian economy, several distinguished economists and political leaders have formulated a theory on the problem. It was established that the drain of the wealth and capital from the country was responsible for the poor state of development in India. The drain consists of the two elements, first is, that arising from the remittances by European officials of their savings, and for their expenditure in England for their various wants, both there and in India, and second that arising from similar remittances by non-official Europeans (Naoroji Dadabhai, 1888).

Actually, the British colonial penetration gave the people of India peace but not prosperity that the manufacturers lost their industries and that the cultivators were ground down by a heavy and variable taxation which precluded by saying, revenues of the country were to a large extent diverted to England and that recurring and desolating famines swept away millions of population (Dantwala, M.L. 1973). Moreover, the inequality

of land tenure systems and heavy taxation of the improvised agriculture had resulted in permanent poverty among Indian people (Dutt R.c. 1950). Following one of a few illustrations of the activities of the British colonisers in Bengal and certain other parts of India, which were the first under the colonial influence (Roslaviw 1892. p.11 x B.H. Baden - Powell,ww-346).

1. In the first 18 yrs of its existence, the East-India company made an annual profit of 175 percent.
2. The seizure of Bengal (1757) was accompanied by the expropriation of the ruling classes, the theft to treasure, precious metals and stones, and the confiscation of the princedons of Satara, Jhansi and Gandota.
3. Tax-collectors used terrorist methods before British rule was established, the total sum of land tax levied in Bengal was 14,245 thousand rupees in 1748 and 14,704 thousand in 1757.
4. From 1765 to 1771, tax collection alone in Bengal provided the East-India company with an income of 40 million rupees.
5. 87 percent of the income of British East-India company consisted of land taxes.

The extent and magnitude of exploitation of peasantry under colonial value was not fully reflected in any statistical figure. The actual tax burden was much

greater than they indicate since the collection of the land tax was carried out by tax-farmers who were undoubtedly not particularly honest.

**(a) Structural change**

The British colonial rule in India had followed the gradual penetration of capitalism in economic structure. This phenomenon of imperialist domain provided infrastructures towards exploitative changes in the mode of production and distribution systems. In this regard many activities observed that capitalism which has included the colonial villages into its systems of taxation and trade apparatus, and which has overturned pre-capitalist relations, do not thereby liberate the peasants from the yoke of pre-capitalist forms of bondage and exploitation, but only the latter a monetary expression - which still further increases the suffering of the peasantry. (Ulyanosky R 1928, p.16).

Due to colonial impact Indian agrarian population of villages had mostly ruined and transformed the status of peasantry into landless peasants and paupers. The number of landless peasants grew like this. It was 8 million in 1875, 34 million in 1901, 50 million in 1921 (Ulyanowsky r. 1981 p-49). Over 50 years, the number of parasitic rent-receivers increased 10 fold (Agrarian problem 1928 p. 85). In the same period average area of peasants holding was falling rapidly (Table 3.1).

**Table 3.1: Profile of Rent-receivers (million) in India**

S. No.	Year	Rent received in Millions	Year	Per-peasant holding
1.	1872	1.0	-	-
2.	1881	2.5	-	-
3.	1891	4.0	1891	1.28
4.	1901	6.0	1901	1.24
5.	1911	8.5	1911	1.00
6.	1921	10.0	1921	0.86

**Table 3.2: Landownership Structure in the Bombay Province**

S. No.	Area of holdings (acres)	Number of holdings		Change in number of holdings
		1916/17	1921/22	
1.	Less than 5	991,234	1041,245	+ 50,011
2.	5-15	610,851	640,236	+ 29,385
3.	15-25	269,652	266,378	- 3,274
4.	25-100	269,710	260,559	- 9151
5.	100-500	34,391	34,117	- 274
6.	Over 500	3,207	3,369	+ 162

Source: Census of India, 1921, Vol. VIII, Calcutta, 1923, p. 215.



**Table 3.3: Landholdings Distribution Pattern in Bombay Province [1921-22]**

S. No.	Area of holdings (acres)	Total cultivated area		Total number of landowners	
		Area of cultivated land (acres)	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1.	Less than 5	2,024,461	8.6	872,485	46
2.	5-15	4,932,266	21.0	529,649	29
3.	15-25	4,337,143	18.4	221,449	12
4.	25-100	8,854,114	37.7	206,143	11
5.	100-500	3,333,598	14.3	18,824	2
<b>Total</b>		23486612	100.0	1848,450	100

Source: Census of India, 1921, vol. VIII, Calcutta 1923.

Table 3.2 and 3.3 show that small and marginal farmers have lost their land and became landless. On the other hand some have got more land through the process of accumulated capital from other sources. This contradictory phenomenon has led towards a growing number of middle links of peasantry, medium and small landowners were washed away. Due to this the class differentiation increased in the Indian village economy. In 1921, there were 3.7 million able bodied rent receivers in British India, 74.7 million peasants and 21.7 million farm servants and field labourers (Ulyanosky R. 1981 P. 51). Under British imperialist

patronage a strong nexus was formed to increase the power of feudal and semi-feudal upper crust.

Under these circumstances, rapid ruin of the small cultivating landowners had started and also created share-croppers without rights. Under the system of share-cropping with rent in kind "the tenants makes Rs. 19 profit per acre only, whereas the landlords makes Rs.30. Batai tenancy is usually found where the landlords is dominant. It is not the choice of the tenants, it is due to the power of the landlord to insists on it" (Royal Commission on Agriculture in India 1927 p-26). Hence the landlords were not interested to improve the agricultural productivity but were interested in the expansion of their holdings. It was common practice that owners of large areas of agricultural lands, when they get much go to live in town and loose touch with real agriculture (RCAI 1927 p. 587).

Occupational change:

The colonial penetration in Indian self-supporting economy has adversely affected the traditional occupational structure. In this context table 4 shows that in colonial period a large section of traditional working population crossed the border lines set out by the traditional way of Indian life, economic and occupational nature (Shaha K.B. pp. 242).

Table 3.4: Occupation per thousand worker in bengal

S. No.	Caste	Caste Occupation	Non-cast occupation	
			Agriculture	Other occupation
1.	Kumbhkar	691	211	98
2.	Barai	553	297	150
3.	Dhobi	505	344	151
4.	Napit	485	343	172
5.	Jigi	435	354	211
6.	Karmkar	397	289	314
7.	Chamar	284	304	412
8.	& Mochi	250	466	290
9.	Goala	190	377	433
10.	Badiya	204	403	291
11.	Bhuimali	188	401	411
12.	Brahman			

Source: K.B. Shaha pp. 242.

In this connection Marx observed that the poverty of Indian Society has been due to the destruction of the entire native framework without any attempt to build a new one. The main cause of the poverty was the loss of old world without no gain of a new one, imparting a particular kind of melancholy to the present misery of India (Marx 1981, p. 101). Also through colonial penetration, the class structure in Indian countryside has changed remarkably.

Over 20 years there was a rapid growth of parasitic upper crust of land owners by 2.5 times, and of tenant landowners 28-fold. At the same time, there was a drop in the number of peasant landowners in rural India (Table 3.5) (Pillai pp. 1925, p. 114).

**Table 3.5 : Class Structure of Rural Population in india per thousand**

Sl. No.	Class Structure	Years		
		1901	1911	1921
1.	Non-Cultivating landowners	19	23	49
2.	Non-Cultivating tenants	1	4	28
3.	Peasants landowners	484	426	381
4.	Cultivating tenants	151	207	225
5.	Farm servants and field labourers	345	340	317

Source: P.P. Pillai, Economic Conditions in India, George Roufledge and Sons, London, 1925, p. 14.

### Agrarian Poverty in Post-Independence Period :

After colonial rule, the agrarian society of India has experienced tremendous changes. Most of the developmental planning was based on only growth-oriented programmes and equal distribution system were kept away from planning process. This simple mechanism of planning created severe threat towards our social harmony. The post-independence scenario has revealed significant development in agriculture. About 2.7 per cent per annum growth rate of agricultural output between 1949-50 and 1973-74 was impressive compared with the similar rate for some developed countries and also even compared to the Indian economy's virtual stagnation during the first half of this century. Net domestic production of food grains nearly doubled between 1951 and 1971 (IESSR 1980).

It is observed that growth in real states of Punjab and Haryana, but the extent of poverty in these states had not decreased proportionately (Bardhan P.K. 1986 p. 51). In spite of remarkable growth in agriculture, the average daily earnings in agricultural operations by men in agricultural-labour households, has been defeated by the ever increasing consumer price index. The per capita income of agricultural labourers, declined during the periods of 1964-65 to 1974-75 (Rural Enquiry Reports) by 12 per cent.

The unevenness of agricultural growth has played a major role towards regional characteristics of poverty.

Several studies have revealed vast differences in agricultural yields across the country. Out of a study of about 282 distt. 69 districts accounted for 20.5 per cent of cultivated area in 1970-73 but contributed 36.4 per cent of national output. At the other extreme, 83 districts accounts for 31.74 per cent of total cultivated area but accounted for only 15.68 per cent of total output. During the period 1962-65 and 1970-73 the output grew from 4.5 to 7.5 per cent in 48 districts, from 1.5 to 4.5 per cent in 102 districts. The remaining 70 districts had growth rates from 1.5 to 3.0 per cent and covered more than a quarter of the cultivated area (Bhalla G.S. and Alagh Y.K. 1979).

The spatio-temporal variations of agrarian poverty shows district characteristics of agrarian economy. The impact of planned development towards the agrarian economy has been questioned by many of various stages. The inherent character of feudal bourgeois developed machinery did not mobilise resources for the upliftment of down trodden people. Infrastructural development, through investment in irrigation, rural electrification, HYV seeds, fertilizer and other modern input in agricultural sector, has induced the development process. In post-independence era, especially, under green revolution programme, this process has raised the per capita income in a general way. But, the uneven holdings of agricultural assets, land, modern technology, social strata and capital have created the

process of resource accumulation in a few hands.

### Green Revolution and Poverty

After independence, Indian agrarian economy revealed a significant rise in per capita and per unit area production. Under the impact of green-revolution, the total foodgrains production rose from about 82 million tonnes in 1960-61 to 121 million tonnes in 1975-76. The rates of growth achieved in Indian agriculture since 1960-61 are significant not on account of their magnitude but mainly on account of the fact that they involve for the first time a number of administrative, technological, social and structural changes and innovations which have begun to penetrate rural India and made a dent into its traditional concept of changelessness (Government of India: 1978 p. 11-14). These factors of green revolution have changed the agrarian economy at various levels.

It is observed that the agricultural growth and productivity improvements, in general, tend to help, in the rise of incomes all around, but certain types of growth processes generate negative forces for the poor particularly in an institutional setting of highly unequal distribution of assets and access to resource (Burdhan P.K. 1982). It is evident that the rural poverty ratio is greater in regions where the proportion of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe population and of agricultural labour are the highest. In this connection it is pertinent to

mention that the modern input in agriculture would stimulate the large farmers to enlarge their operational holdings through the purchase of small farmers or tenant eviction.

The modern development in agricultural sector has increased the index number of production sharply. Since 1969-70 the Indian agriculture has shown remarkable increase in its production. The cereals and foodgrains production rose to double in the periods of 1969-70 to 1986-87. But their increased agricultural production has failed to meet the requirements of poor. The apparently negative impact of green revolution on poverty is evident through the points listed below:

1. The growth of agricultural production has been neutralized by population growth, so the agrarian economy has become more or less stagnant.
2. Agrarian growth has been uneven, the science and technology mostly helped large farmers and better-developed regions. This phenomenon has widened inter-regional and inter-class disparities.
3. Agricultural development has failed to alleviate rural poverty and malnutrition in the poverty stricken regions.



### Institutional Impact on Agrarian Poverty

The prevailing institutions - social, cultural and economic - have adversely affected the development processes and led to accentuation of poverty among agrarian people in most of the Indian sub-continent. The agrarian economy is characterised by semi-feudal pre-capitalistic mode of production. The backward social institution of an underdeveloped area prevents the different social forces to participate in the process of economic activities. These underdeveloped production forces gave legitimacy to the acceptance of poverty as a natural phenomenon, and god-given and to be shared by both the haves and have-nots alike. In a primitive social strata agrarian poverty considered as a natural process, provides the back-ground for "conservative philosophy" which upholds status of poverty as something natural and god given.

In agrarian societies the status of individuals is generally determined by the social status of the group in which they are born. Caste pervades religious rites of worship and prayer. It also acts as a check in dining together, not only between 'touchables' and 'untouchables' but even between the various touchable castes. Caste considerations also stand in the way of certain economic activity. For example, members of upper caste do not engage themselves in occupational fields like poultry, piggery, fisheries etc., inspite of their great profit potential.

The prevailing orthodox social system prevent the people to act as rational human beings and have generated many harmful tendencies such as the dowry systems. Extravagance in marriage and death ceremonies, restrictions on women's participation in socio-economic development. Consequently after independence, the agrarian poverty in India, especially among small and marginal farmers and landless agricultural labourers, has continued to remain the same. Numerous studies have documented this fact.

finally the following aspects emerge out of the present as well as to previous studies on the subject.

1. Production of agricultural crops has grown in post-independence periods, for foodgrains it is about 2.54 to 3.40 per cent.
2. The land productivity has grown at a trend rate of 1.3 to 1.6 per cent the same cannot be said about labour productivity. The gains in agricultural workforce in agrarian output are being wiped out due to a very large increase in the agricultural workforce in agrarian regions.
3. In spite of industrial development the proportion of labour force density in agriculture grew annually by about 0.8 to 1.0 per cent.
4. The agrarian economy is marked by growing inequalities, both interpersonal and inter-regional.

5. Due to modern input in agriculture, there has been a definite increase in the dimension between the land and the smaller peasantry.
6. There has been stagnation in the growth of agricultural market, indications of which are available in the reduced off take of food, cloth and other essentials due to mass hunger and a continued recession.

Summary:

Through the facts stated in preceding pages comes out that agrarian poverty is deep-rooted in Indian Society due to exploitative nexus of feudal and colonial network. The primitive nature of underdeveloped agrarian economy had generated 'natural poverty' which led to poor peasantry, to consider poverty phenomenon as god gifted instead of system generated problem. This inherent character of poverty was reflected by contemporary Indian economy at different levels. However, poverty is related to the mode of production rather than an individual or social phenomenon. After independence, the capitalist mode of production as well as foreign capital investment directed the genuine path of development of Indian economy. The agrarian economy in India has confronted with increasingly inequitable resource distribution alongwith economic and political contradiction. These emerging trends in Indian economy require a fresh outlook towards the poverty problems.

## Chapter - 4

### POVERTY STRUCTURE

Poverty structure of a particular region is important in understanding the levels and distribution of poverty. Hence efforts have made to formulate the poverty structure of the study area.

The 20 sample villages were selected on the basis of specific consideration, such as physiological condition, so no economic and cultural variations from area to area, size of village, population structure and distances of villages from town etc. These villages are noted as below:

1. Flood affected villages: Marichahnea, Sidhway, Bishunpur, Buzurg, Amwagur, Bhatani Khurd, Papara Misir, Pipara Bhully, Digari Misir, Ratanpur.
2. Village located near town: Saraura, Majhauri.
3. Village with Primary Occupation: Mehda, Kuiyan, Markara, Baurdih, Khanwarbakelahi.
4. Village with SC population: Asoguea khurd, Pandey Bisuea, Pakanar.

It was also considered in the selection of the sample villages that these villages should depict the ideal structure of poverty of the study area. Survey was done in the year 1993.

**Poverty among Different Strata of Society:**

Through extensive field study in sample villages it is clear that the nature of distribution of poverty is based on caste and occupation structure of society (Table 3).

It is obvious from these facts that the level of poverty varies from caste to caste. In upper caste the percentage of population below the poverty line is minimum (38.56%), and in SC it is maximum (83.05%). The occupation structure has also favoured the same trend, primary occupation has maximum percentage of population below the poverty line (76.54%) and tertiary occupation with minimum percentage (23.22%). Thus caste structure has great influence on poverty level among the rural people. This is mainly due to the nature of land holding and socio-cultural obstacles.

**Table 4.1 : Average picture of poverty on the basis of caste and occupation structure relation**

S. No.	Caste Structure	% of population below poverty line	Occupation structure	% of population below the poverty line
1.	Upper caste	38.56	Primary	76.54
2.	Backward	57.15	Secondary	43.01
3.	Scheduled caste	83.05	Tertiary	23.22

Source: Based on field survey.

### **Nature of Poverty:**

Some important conclusions on the nature of poverty through the analysis of field-study data, are as follows:

1. The percentage of population below the poverty line increases in the flood affected village (Marichahwa, Sidhaway, Amwa Digur etc.) with SC labourers (Mehda, Pandey Bhiswa, Asogwa Khurd etc.) being dominant.
2. The percentage of population below poverty line declines in these villages, which are situated near town and have transport and communication facilities. It is due to shifting is occupation structure from primary to tertiary activities. This explains poverty as found in Majhauri, Sorauna and Markara villages.

### **Estimation of Poverty in Deoria:**

To understand the level of poverty in Deoria district, it is necessary to conduct intensive rural field survey regarding per capita income, monthly per capita expenditure, consumption and other socio-economic survey. But it requires much more time and resource availability. The author has therefore, used the data of sample villages and district census handbook and has thus evaluated the level of rural poverty in Deoria district.

The author has tried to estimate approximately the percentage of population living below the poverty line. There are possibility of error in the process of economic surveying of monthly per capita consumption-expenditure due to the hypocrisy in rural society, which does not permit the people to show the real consumption pattern and other socio-economic picture, i.e. indebtedness percapita income. So it has always been tried to minimise the percentage of error in the process of poverty estimation. The picture of poverty in the study area has been projected on the basis of average net result of poverty level obtained by sample village study.

Level of Poverty:

Though the estimates are debatable but it may undoubtedly be said that the percentage of the people living below poverty line is more than the all India average level of poverty. For the rural area the figure is 71.41%, and the figure regarding national level is 39.1%. This shows that the study area has extreme level of poverty in comparison to the national average as well as the other parts of the country. The three rings of poverty in the area, based on E.P.W. Da Costa poverty line concept, is as follows:

**Table 4.2: Percentage of people below the poverty line**

S. No.	Poverty Structure	Percentage to total population
1.	Severe	9.08
2.	destitutes	16.78
3.	Destitutes	21.12
4.	Poor	71.41
	Below the poverty	

Source : Based on Survey

Table 4.2 reveals that the average destitute-type of poverty has little influence in the study area because of changing nature of the Indian rural society after the national independence and Zamindari abolition programme, destitutes have little more influence (16.78%) than severe destitutes. But the poor and persons below the poverty line have very great influence on rural society. This may be due to the prevailing conditions of underdevelopment, unemployment and vicious cycle of poverty.

**Expenditure Pattern:** On the basis of sample village study, it is clear that the average expenditure in favour of foodgrains and clothing. The expenditure pattern is revealed by the table 5.



**Table 4.3 : Average Expenditure Pattern (1993)**

S. No.	Items	Percentage to total expenditures
1.	Food	84.25
2.	Cloth	4.75
3.	Marriage, birth, death and other customs	10.00
4.	Education and other	1.00

Source: Based on Survey.

From the above table 4.3 it is clear that the large proportion of consumption expenditure have been spent on food and social customs. Expenditure on education and other development process in a very little amount prove the prevalence of extreme poverty in the area.

**Land-Holding Pattern:**

The land-holding pattern also expresses the nature and level of poverty in the area. According to Prof. East, 21/2 acres per capita is the minimum needed to produce an adequate diet for one person. Keeping this in view the large proportions of families have lands less than 2.50 acre and because of this they failed to fulfil the calorie requirements. The holding pattern of the study area is expressed by the following table:

**Table 4.4 : Land-holding pattern (1993) in Study area**

S. No.	Size of holding (acres)	Percentage of families
1	0 - 1.25	62.64
2	1.25 - 2.50	21.18
3	2.50 - 5.00	13.21
4	5.00 - 12.50	2.73
5	12.50 - 25.00	0.23
6	25.00 and above	0.00

Sources: Based on Sample Study.

From the above table it is clear that most of the land holdings have fallen under the group of 0.0 to 2.50 acres (about 84 per cent). This shows high population pressure and uneconomic holding of lands. It is also observed in the study area that big size of land holdings (12.50 - 25.00 acres) has been found in very rare cases, and its percentage of areal coverage to the total cultivated area is very low. This is a peculiar feature of land holding in the study area, and it has resulted mass poverty in the rural society due to the low availability of per capita arable land.

**Housing Condition:**

The houses were found to be at least 2-roomed with or without a kitchen. A poor family cooked within the room, while the better off had a verandah or a separate kitchen. They were generally of brick or stone in mud construction

with stated tiles used as roof, cement plaster, or paving was noticed in rare cases where the household was quite affluent. Almost everyone had an animal-shed. The housing condition of the study-area is revealed in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5: Housing Condition: (1993)**

S. No.	Types of Houses	Percentage to the total Houses
1.	Pukka with Cemented roof	10.75
2.	Kuchcha (roof with tiles and with mud or brick)	75.05
3.	Other (hut and others)	14.00

Source: Based on sample study.

## Chapter - 5

### CAUSES OF POVERTY

Poverty has been rooted deeply in the prevailing structure of the rural social system. A brief analysis of the prevailing structure of the rural society reveals the following causes of poverty:

1. Geographical factors (floods and droughts).
2. Institutional factors (social customs of the rural society).
3. Economic Condition.
4. Political set-up.

1. **Geographical Factors:** The geographical calculations, including climate, soil, geology and population explosion have all contributed to the backwardness of the study area. The district of Deoria is surrounded by the Badi Gandak and the Rapti in the north, the Ghaghra in the south, the Choti Gandak, Majhna and the Rapti in the west and a branch of the badi Gandak - the Jharhi and Choti Gandak in the east.

#### Impact of Drought on Poverty:

The report of the Irrigation Commission (vol. 1, 1972, p. 157), Considers the area receiving less than 75 cm of rainfall, per annum is liable to drought. The study-area has faced the problem of drought on several occasions.

According to an estimate, the piece of ruined agricultural products, due to drought, in Deoria district in 1988-89 was about Rs. 20 crores, which accounted for the low returns from the agricultural sector.

Similar droughts are known to have taken place in the district in the years 1948, 1954, 1968, 1972, 1978, 1979, 1982 and 1985 causing considerable devastation to the predominantly agricultural economy in the region. Severe drought was experienced in 1990 and the tehsils of Salempur and Deoria, affecting 198 and 160 villages respectively, were the worst hit. The pattern of drought in Salempur Tehsil was more aggravated due to its dependence solely on the monsoon.

#### **Floods as Impoverisation Factor:**

Deora is traversed by a large number of big and small streams, namely, the Ghaghra, Rapti, Gandak, Majhna, Kurna Nala, Kasili Nala which overflow their banks in the rainy season but remain waterless during the rest of the year. High rainfall and sometimes its high intensity in the catchment of these streams results in floods in the study-area. Flood is an important agent in the impoverishment of the area.

Heavy floods occurred particularly in the years 1898, 1916, 1923, 1934, 1945, 1948, 1951, 1956, 1960, 1971, 1974, 1980, 1983, 1986 and 1992 causing considerable devastation

in the area. Occurrence of floods usually after a gap of 2 to 3 years, creates extensive damage to standing crops, property, land, cattle and sometimes, even human life. In some years, the crops are partially or totally destroyed due to floods while the agricultural practices get delayed in other years. These have made agriculture problematic and have added to the poverty of the agriculturists in general.

An approximate estimate of the flood losses in the year 1992 can be made from the Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Effects of Flood in Deoria district in 1992**

1.	Total no. of villages affected	1030
2.	Number of villages surrounded by waters	655
3.	Total population affected	7,58783
4.	Total area flooded in hectares	61532
5.	Total cultivated area affect (in hectares)	55389
6.	Estimated loss in Rupees	189231600
7.	Number of collapsed houses	2943
	(a) Completely collapsed	992
	(b) Partially collapsed	1951
8.	Loss due to the collapsed houses (Rs)	883200

Source: Unpublished data obtained from the Central Flood Control Office, Government of Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow, and District Flood Control Divisional Office, Deoria.

The loss due to collapsed houses alone is more than Rs. 88 lakhs and total loss of agricultural production is around Rs. 19 crores. This, to a large extent, accounts for the low per capita income of Deoria district. As devastation due to floods has continued since time immemorial, it has resulted in a 'vicious cycle of poverty'.

**Table 5.2: Impacts of Floods on the Agricultural Economy of Deoria district (1992)**

S. No.	Crop	Flood affected Net Solid area (in ha.)	Cost in Rs.
1.	Paddy	22,458	6,75,07,110
2.	Maize	8,398	2,53,04,000
3.	Jwar	863	7,14,940
4.	Millet	1,917	1,20,52,250
5.	Arhar	13,012	5,02,02,900
6.	Sugarcane	4,388	3,12,20,400
7.	Others	4,359	21,50,000
Total		55,389	18,92,31,600

Source: District Flood Control Division

Moreover, the flood also affects the public health as it often leads to outbreak of various diseases like gastroenteritis, cholera, malaria, and skin diseases. It also affects the cattle health.

Social System: A brief analysis of the social and economic relationships in rural society reveals the nature of the rural poverty. The mutual relationship between or among the individuals is regulated and controlled by various institutions of society. The Indian traditional social set-up has divided the Hindu Society into various major groups. The problem due to caste system and caste inequalities, and oppression and prejudices have become extremely acute in the rural society. It pervades religious rites of worship and prayer, as also rites connected with birth, baptism, marriage and death. Caste injunctions prescribe dining together, not only as between, 'touchables' and untouchables but even between the various touchable castes (Sardesai, S.E. 1982).

Traditionally, the vocations of every person is prescribed and determined by his caste. The weaver, the smith, the washerman, the shoe-maker, the trader, the priest and the whole host of professions and occupations in the Hindu society generally go by caste. In view of the socio-economic basis and origin of the caste system, the status of the individuals is generally determined by the social status of the group in which they may be born. Caste



rules, virtually over all major aspects of life (Schwartzberg, J.E. 1955).

Acceptance and continuity of the social system has been also responsible to increasing poverty in the rural social system, more so for the depressed classes. The main social causes of rural poverty in Deoria district are as follows:

#### Traditional social values against certain economic activities

The socio-cultural factors have adversely affected the economic development processes, caste considerations stand in the way of certain economic activity. For example, members of upper caste do not engage in occupational fields like poultry, piggery and fisheries, etc., though there is a great potentiality for their development in the area.

#### Ownership of Arable land by non-cultivators

Most of the agricultural and other lands of the district are owned by members of the upper castes but social customs do not permit them, particularly the Brahmins, Thakurs and Kayasthas to handle the plough consequently, the landlords among these castes depend on hired or attached labour for most of the agricultural operations. According to one estimate the landlords of the study area much more than 70% of available land, but they

do not participate in agricultural practices. In 1991, attached labourers accounted for 40% of the total labour force in Deoria, which is far greater than in the western regions of the state with no prospect of getting the ownership of land, the hired labourers or sharecropper cultivators do not have enough interest in the improvement of land by putting sufficient inputs. Consequently, the arable land in the study area is being impoverished.

#### Uneconomic size of holdings

Occurrence of very large proportion of uneconomic holdings in the district has also added to its poverty. The uneconomic size of holdings is a direct consequence of heavy population pressure. With heavy increase in population land gets divided and sub-divided among a large number of people and as a result the size of holdings correspondingly goes on diminishing, thereby forcing their owner to join the rank of poors.

#### Ritual Structure and Poverty

Diseases and famine are attributed to supernatural forces. Small pox, Cholera and Plague are always attributed to the wrath of various goddesses. For these diseases, worship is regarded as the only remedy, and no medicines are administered to the patients.

Another local ritual, which is most common among the people of Deoria district, is fasting on certain days in honour of a particular god and goddess for the satisfaction of a specific desire. In this ritual participation by women is far greater than by men. When wishes are not fulfilled, people curse their luck, blame their own past actions and reconcile themselves to the unfavourable attitude of the gods. Prevalence of this type of ritual structure in the study area has not only resulted in the development of fatalist tendency among the rural masses but also to the disappearance of fighting faith against mass poverty. Cultural poverty is generally fostered by socio-cultural backwardness of any area. It often leads to the exploitation, by the elites or the rich, of the poor and illiterate poor masses. Thus, mechanism of poverty generation has been very much in vogue in the study-area.

#### Economic Condition

Economic growth is brought about by a judicious application of labour and capital to natural resources (Datta, Ruddra, Sundaram, KPM, 1982) lack of capital, sometimes, may be an important factor in the economic backwardness of an area. In Deoria district, large amount of capital is invested in either unproductive land or low priority buildings or jewellery. The vicious cycle of poverty - low income, low capital and hence low level

thinking - has been unhelpful in the process of development. It has been noted earlier that the economy of Deoria district is largely dependent upon primary activities, namely agriculture. About 70% of the working population is engaged in agriculture but the average income from the agricultural sector is only 45% of total average income. The tertiary activities mainly exists in a few urban centres such as Deoria, Salempur, Padmuna, Hata, Lar, Bhatni, Kasia, etc. There is a total lack of large workshops or factories, public work's programmes or private construction activities which could generate additional income and generate income to the district's population. Some important aspects of the economy and their impacts in perpetuating poverty in the area and noted as follows:

#### Poor Agricultural Economy

In spite of green revolution sweeping the country, the agricultural practices in Deoria district are still largely dependent on primitive types of technology. Consequently, there has been only slight improvement in agricultural productivity.

It is to be noted that the average per-hectare yield has increased considerably, since 1977, particularly in case of wheat, maize, jowar, and rice, because of the popularisation of hybrid, high yielding varieties of seeds, greater application of chemical fertilizers and application

of scientific methods of cultivation, but is still much lower than in the western irrigated parts of the state. The cause of low productivity of agricultural crops in Deoria district can be examined under the following heads:

(a) General factors

(b) Institutional Factors, and

(c) Technological factors

(a) General factors: About 70% of the population is dependent on agriculture. High pressure of population on agricultural land has led to subdivision and fragmentation of holdings. The decline in per capita land (0.474 acre per person) has led to disguised unemployment in the agricultural sector.

Prevailing customs and social institutions in rural areas have made the farmers fatalistic in attitude so much so that many of them are still satisfied with their primitive system of cultivation.

Lack of finance, credit and marketing facilities have adversely affected the agriculture in Deoria district.

(b) Institutional Factors: The average size of holding in the study area is very low, less than 2 hectares. Not only agricultural holdings are small, but they are fragmented too. This type of

holdings leads to great waste of time, labour and cattle power, difficulties in proper utilisation of irrigation facilities and other improvement processes. The existence of small holdings is one of the several causes for the poor agricultural yield.

Even though the Zamindari system has now been abolished and tenancy legislation has been enacted, most of the tenants are not the owners of the lands which they might be cultivating. Consequently, it should not be expected of them to increase the agricultural productivity.

- (c) Technological Factors: As most of the farmers are tradition-bound and poor, they still use the old and inefficient methods and techniques of production. The use of farm manure, and chemical fertilizers in Deoria district is still quite low as compared to western U.P. and Punjab.

Agriculture is rain-fed and, therefore, uncertain. Though 64.3% of the agricultural land of the district is irrigated but the mode of irrigation is not very dependable. There is also areal variation in agricultural facilities, with a maximum of 87.4% in Patherdewa block to a minimum of 20.97% in Khaddak block. Non-dependable irrigation facilities also account for

low productivity in agriculture.

Industrial Economy: Sometimes, industrial development above can provide a continuing and secure basis for rapid growth in income. But the poor industrial economy of Deoria district has also been partly responsible in its low per capita income.

The district suffered from low rate of capital formation and unemployment problems due to its poor industrial development. It has further accentuated mass poverty among the rural people.

An analysis of the industrial economy of the Deoria district reveals that the relatively more industrialized blocks of Captanganj, Khadda, Ramkola, Deoria and Rudrapur have higher per capita income as compared to other blocks.

- i) Mass poverty has not favoured the growth of a strong middle class which, in developed areas, usually provides enterprising leadership for industrial development.
- ii) The competition between big capitalists and local entrepreneurs have limited the scope of industrial development in the study area.
- iii) Institutional deficiencies such as lack of banking and credit facilities is also responsible for the economic backwardness of the rural Deoria. This has also accentuated rural poverty.

## Chapter - 6

# POVERTY REMOVAL PLAN FOR THE STUDY AREA

Two basic pre-requisites of a poverty eradication programme for Deoria district are (i) reorientation of the agricultural economy as well as the re-establishment of Industrial economy, and (ii) Radical changes in the present social structure of the district. The details of the poverty removal plans are as follows:

### Planning for Agricultural Economy:

In providing meaningful employment opportunities to the people, agriculture should be assigned its rightful place in the strategy for development. The first thing that needs to be done is to accord higher priority to agriculture with a view to achieving higher production, reduction in inequalities and self-sufficiency. Through development of the agricultural base, it should be possible to generate more surpluses for the non-agricultural sectors as also for exports.

The second thing needed is to mould a suitable production strategy that not only raises production, but in the process generates employment and income to the



unemployed and the underemployed. Such a strategy should normally comprise the following: quick creation of large irrigation-potential, optimal utilisation of land and water as also other local resources, including human resources, mixed farming, animal husbandry, forestry and fisheries, etc.

The implementation has to be so conceived that the delivery system in the area is able to provide the goods as per social priorities. For example, it is necessary that the resources allocated to the agriculture are fully spent, and that the targets of production are fully achieved. It is also necessary that the benefits meant for the poor farmers reach them.

#### Planning for 'Increasing Agricultural Growth Rate'

To increase agricultural growth rate, the author feels that the study-area faces severe and intense problems. The following measures can help to enlarge the agricultural growth rate in the study-area.

#### Use of Scientific Techniques:

To increase the agricultural growth rate, it is necessary to introduce modern scientific technology in agriculture. Mechanization of agriculture has elsewhere resulted in increased agricultural production and reduction of costs. In the study-area, the farmers still use the old

and inefficient methods and techniques of production. Efforts are needed to help small and marginal farmers to increase their production. For this, they should be provided with interest free loans with easy terms and conditions so that could buy tractors, pump-sets, harvesters, and similar equipments. Loans should be given in kind, i.e. in the forms of high yielding varieties of seeds, fertilisers, pesticides, etc. It is also necessary to increase the irrigation intensity in the area by establishing more tube-wells and canals.

The agricultural growth rate can be increased by applying inputs in a more intensive ways and by adopting modern methods of production through the use of improved technology. The following measures are to be taken for achieving agricultural growth:

- (a) Irrigation
- (b) Rural electrification
- (c) Organic manures and chemical fertilizer
- (d) Improved seeds
- (e) Plant protection measures
- (f) Agricultural implements
- (g) Soil conservation and flood control measures

**Irrigation:** To increase the agricultural facilities, it is necessary to have a thorough planned irrigation system in the area. Both major and medium irrigation works in Deoria district have not been properly maintained. Minor

irrigation works, particularly tanks and open wells have been largely neglected. To remove this important defect, it is necessary to undertake extensive rehabilitation, renovation and modernisation of existing irrigation system.

**Rural Electrification:** Rural electrification is one of the most basic needs for transformation of the rural life and agricultural production, it is a key factor in the development of rural economy. The cost of irrigation by electricity is less than that by diesel or any other means. Therefore, electricity in rural villages must be regarded as a vital need rather than amenity or luxury. Thus continuous supply of electricity should be ensured in the rural areas.

**Chemical Fertilizers:** In any scheme for boosting agricultural output, the use of chemical fertilizers has an important role. With population rising at a fantastic rate, the use of larger and larger doses of chemical fertilizers is the only way to augment foodgrains production. Agricultural strategy should be based on increasing the use of fertilizers. To stimulate the use of fertilizers, the following programmes can help -

1. Training of village workers,
2. Organisation of fertilizer festivals,
3. Strengthening of the existing soil testing laboratories,
4. Provision of credit in kind such as fertilizers,

agricultural implements etc.

5. Provision of increased credit facilities,
6. Opening up of more retail selling points at panchayat level,
7. Provision of proper transport and distribution of domestic and imported fertilizers.

**Improved Seeds:** Measures needed to fulfil the maximum use of improved seeds can be following:

1. Research in evolving better seeds suitable to the local geographical condition of the study area.
2. Production of quality seeds, their proper use, popularising them and making suitable arrangements for their distribution.
3. Provision of adequate credit facilities to enable even the poorest farmer to purchase and use quality seeds.

**Plant Protection Measures:**

In the study area, crops are damaged not only by insects, pests and diseases of crops but also by wild animals and natural calamities. To check their harmful effects, it is necessary to pay special attention to plant protection measures.

**Agricultural Implements:** The tools and implements used by farmers in the study-area, are comparatively few in number,

smaller in size, crude and antiquated in character and simple in kind and very insignificant in value as compared to the most up-to-date farm implements used by farmers in the western part of the state and other agriculturally advanced parts of the country.

The development of improved implements should take into account the following conditions:

- (i) These should be simple, as illiterate and semi literate farmers have to use them.
- (ii) Their prices should be within the means of average local farmers.
- (iii) The implements and machines should be highly resistant because these are to be used by farmers under difficult conditions.
- (iv) The design of the implements should be such that these could be repaired in villages and their spare parts available in the study area.
- (v) The implements should be light so that these could be transported from village to the fields and back, these should be suitable for the use with animal power as well.

**Soil Conservation and Flood Control Measures:**

The poverty removal plan has to take into consideration, the problems of soil erosion and floods which have a great bearing on rural poverty in the study

area. The following measures are to be adopted to minimize soil erosion:

1. Initiate contour farming, especially on sloping river banks and adjoining areas. Contour farming reduces run-off and soil losses and increases soil moisture for crop production and consequently crop yield.
2. To develop a pattern of crop rotation. Rotation of cropping pattern reduces soil losses and preserves productivity, because the productive elements that are removed by one crop are added to the soil by another crop grown in succession.
3. Encourage the cultivation of such crops like peas, jowar, bajra, gram and other fodder crops like clover, berseem on the shifting sand while erosion inducing and soil depleting plants like, tobacco, maize, arhar, and potato should be excluded from being cultivated on erosion-prone lands.

In order to control floods the following short term plans can be envisaged -

1. Construction of new embankment.
2. Raising and strengthening of the existing ones.
3. Improvement of natural drainage.

#### Planning for Industrial Development:

Attempts have to be made to design and apply new and

more advanced technology in the field of industry. The poverty in the area has two distinct features (i) the low level of productivity, and (ii) the great inequality between the rich and the poor. As the problem of low productivity can be solved only through advanced scientific technology, development of industries is of primary importance in the strategy for poverty removal in the area.

Industrial development of the area should be given a high priority. In recent years, as a new industrial climate has been created in the backward areas of Uttar Pradesh which is attracting entrepreneurs from other states. This has helped in speedy development of industries and strengthening of the infrastructural base with more emphasis on promotion of industries in systematic manner in backward areas.

The industrial development of the area can be achieved by the following measures:

Establishment of large-scale industries has to follow the following procedure:

- (i) Encourage the capitalists of the country to establish their factories in the poverty-stricken areas of the state including the study area.
- (ii) Creation of favourable climate for industrial development in the study area by the government and voluntary organisations.

- (iii) Block-level development of a composite rural industrial structure appropriate to local conditions and resource endowments, in which agriculture and industry are planned together as a system along with the necessary economic and social overheads.

Implementation of the above mentioned measures is bound to lead to the establishment of large and medium scale industries in the area, which will reduce poverty by raising the per capita income and job opportunities.

The scope for employment in small-scale industries is much greater. But at present only a few small scale industries exists in this area. Also high pressure of population has resulted in latent unemployment in the rural society. Consequently development of small-scale industries is suggested as a part of the plan for removal of poverty in the area. Development of infrastructural facilities such as rail and road transport, banking and market are basic requisites for attracting large-scale industries. Centralisation of money in few hands often takes place in case of large-scale production under the capitalist system, thus creating inequality among people.

Considering the above view thus decentralisation of economic activities is also necessary. For decentralisation of economic activity small-scale industries are eminently suited, of course, it may not be possible to establish such



industries in every village, because even small-scale industries are subject to business law. Hence a group of villages can be made the basis for setting up of these industries

The following measures can help the development of small-scale industries:

1. Only such small-scale industries are to be selected for development which hold out promise for further growth and which can in the long run stand on their own feet. For example, vegetable oil factor, rice mill, bone crushing mills and mixing and finishing operations like footwear, knitwear, etc. The Khandsari industry is most suitable for development in the area.
2. To provide industrial education and training to people working in these industries.
3. Every production activity requires finance to grease its wheels. The government, therefore, has to ensure that a certain reasonable proportion of the total industrial finance goes to the small-scale industries sector in the area.
4. Provision of marketing facilities for the products of small-scale industries through government authority and co-operative societies.

It is necessary that the above mentioned measures should be viewed together and applied simultaneously.

Planning for some other social facilities:

Availability of prompt financial support plays a vital role in the development of a region. The study area, however, suffers from lack of adequate credit facilities. Therefore establishment of a commercial bank is proposed at block and 'Nyaya Panchayat' level. In the last few years, co-operative societies have been entrusted to supply essential commodities like, sugar, kerosene, wheat, controlled cloth, fertilizer, etc. to the farmers. Those societies should also offer financial support and induce establishment of small scale industries.

Establishment of a government owned agro-service centre can be recommended at block-level. This centre should be provided with facilities of tractor line and grain storage. Rural electrification has to be ensured within a few years, because it is the most essential facility in the development of both the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors.

It is rather amazing that certain age-old poverty stricken communities like the mushars, bhars, chomars, dome etc. have not yet benefitted from the numerous schemes run by the government. To help such people a vigorous effort to eliminate the loopholes hindering the flow of benefits to the poorest section of the population should be immediately initiated.

To provide fuel, fodder, timber, flowers, and fruits

to the people of area, a social forestry scheme with assistance from world bank should be encouraged in the area. This scheme of plantation will fulfil the purpose of maintaining ecological balance, control soil erosion, reduce environmental pollution, conserve energy, provides fuel, fodder and ordinary timber of common use. To encourage this scheme, the public land can be given to the landless people for planting trees and arrangements should also made to give certificates to them to utilize flowers, fruits, fuel, wood etc. from the trees so planted.

Co-ordination in the preparation of the plans should invariably follow co-ordination in implementation. The developmental programmes of panchayats and other development departments have to be co-ordinated at the village levels. Hence the problem is not only of structural and organisational changes and alternation in procedure but also radical changes in the attitude of the public servants and the people's representative and the promotion of decentralised real self-governing popular institutions. The present nexus between the bureaucrats, landlords, capitalists, sahkars and politicians can be broken only by creating the people's development council. Unless the structure of the development council is not revolutionised, it will not be possible to implement any plan for poverty eradication.

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## Chapter - 7

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Nowadays, poverty has become a moral challenge to all responsible persons-educationist, politicians, planners and social workers. The poverty of Indian masses is mainly on related with rural economy and in order to implement plan to eradicate it. It is necessary to understand its concept and mechanism, which I have done in. Second chapter Poverty is normally a relative expression and its nature differ from time to time and from place to place.

Poverty can be defined in both the relative and absolute terms. Absolute poverty can be defined by the insufficiency of the basic necessities for a healthy life, while relative poverty implies that some have more goods and sources at their command than others, to put it in another planer's terms - some are poor relative to others. Poverty in economic terms is defined as a state wherein an individual can not satisfy his minimum wants for healthy living in a given social order.

Poverty is the problem of deprivation and this phenomenon of deprivation could be multidimension. The various aspects of this phenomenon could either be economic or cultural or social or psychological or a combination of all of them. Poverty is often conceptualised as socio-

economic phenomenon in a society in which resources of the society one need to satisfy the wants of few while many do not have even the basic necessities of livilehood met.

As study area has limited resources, high population has put tremendous amount of pressure on land resources of the area. In spite of having highly fertile land, other natural resources particularly water forest and livestock the rural masses of the study area has expressed destitute condition by lack of proper management. The high population pressure on land and the poor state of human resources as have accentuated mass poverty in the district. 70% of the areas population is engaged in agriculture and this population has access to less than 40% of the total income of the district and thus the focus of increase poverty in on this section of population.

Marx (1853) had pointed out that the genesis of Indian poverty was due to the destruction of self-supporting entire framework of the pre-colonial without any attempt to build a new one.

Dadabhai Naoroji (1870) was the first Indian genius, who worked on Indian poverty and point out that the genesis of the Indian poverty was due to two aspects (i) one arising from the remittances by European officials of their savings to England for their various expenditure or wants both there and in India, and second that arising form similar remittances by non-official Europeans.

In Deoria, district, three types of poverty has been recognised, (i) Social Poverty : as a consequence of the prevailing customs, norms, rules and regulations of the social system, and maintained by prevalence of caste-system, untouchability, orthodoxy in life etc (ii) Pauperism : Created by higher dependency (70%), poor housing facilities, the landless and the unemployed besides social recognition begging by some, and (iii) Cultural Poverty : represented by the backward : rituals and customss i.e marriages and death ceremonies.

The sequence of historical development has also added to the inequalities among the rural masses in pre-independence period, when feudalism exercised a dominant influence on the prevailing social system the 'Nazarana' was very common. Most of the Zamindars had maintained their luxurious living at the cost of their tenants who constituted an exploited lot.

The industrial economy of Deoria district is inadequately developed. There are about 15 large and medium scale industry including 14 sugar mills. The sugar industry is not able to achieve optimum production efficiency due to the outdated backward technology.

The agricultural economy of Deoria district is in the stage of transition with backwardness. About 70% of the people of this area have derived their substances directly from agricultural persuits. As almost whole cultivable



land has been utilized and it is not possible to extend the area under cultivation. The units of holdings are everywhere small and uneconomic. The land holdings have two distinct features (i) holdings tend to be very small, and (ii) individual holdings tend to become broken up into a number of separate plots.

Uneconomic holdings are not only responsible to the low productivity per hectare but also have acted as obstacles in introducing the scientific farming practices. Specialised commercial farming has not been practised in the area because of social inhibitions and high population pressures.

It is noted that the poverty in the study area has been engendered by geographical, institutional, economic and political conditions. Floods and droughts are the main geographical factors causing mass poverty. The vagaries and the changing nature of the stream courses have often created problem of flood and soil erosion and sometimes converted fertile land into sanding.

The study area has faced the problem of drought on several occasions. According to an estimate, the price of the ruined agricultural product, due to drought in 1988-89, was about Rs. 20 crores, thereby accounting for low returns from the agricultural sector.

Flood is an important agent in the impoverishment of the area. A study of the long term (1892-1992) flood

records show that a large part of the district has experienced serious floods from time to time in the recent past. Heavy floods occurred particularly in the years 1989, 1961, 1923, 1934, 1945, 1948, 1951, 1956, 1960, 1671, 1974, 1978, 1980 and 1983, 1986 causing considerable devastation in the area. It is , therefore, concluded that in the flood affected 'Deoria' region people engaged in agriculture are hardly able to find subsistence from the land with the result that there are areas of chronic poverty. An approximate estimate of the flood losses in the year 1992 has been done in Table 5.1.

Rural poverty is rooted deeply in the present structure of our rural society. The mutual relationship between or among the individuals is regulated and controlled by institutions as well as social interaction and behaviour are all based on certain social values. Acceptance and continuity of the social system has been also responsible for increasing poverty in rural areas, more so among the depressed classes.

The main social causes of rural poverty in Deoria district are as follows :

1. The socio-cultural factors have adversely affected the economic development processes. Caste considerations and feudal norms have created constraints in the way of certain economic activity.

2. Most of the agricultural land and other resources of the district was owned by members of the upper castes. With no prospect of getting the ownership of land; the hired labourers or the share-cropper cultivators do not have enough interest in the improvement of the land by putting sufficient inputs. Consequently, the arable land of the study area is being continuously impoverished.
3. The Indian society is a faction-ridden society. The negative function of the caste structure is revealed in constant breaks of violence against persons and property, lack of co-operation and evergoing insecurity. Besides, discontent, illiteracy, ignorance, caste rivalries, social tensions, chronic under-employment characterised the rural society. These social factors have impeded agricultural production.

Rural indebtedness, resulting from rituals and ceremonial expenditures has greatly increased the poverty of the rural masses. Social customs like marriage and birth celebrations, deaths rites, etc. have created 'cultural poverty' in Deoria district.

The prevailing customs and social institutions, high population pressure, lack of finance, credit and marketing facilities have adversely affected the agricultural economy of Deoria district. Low rate of

capital formation, coupled unemployment problems and poor state of industrial development resulting in mass poverty, has not favour the growth of a strong middle class, which usually provides enterprising leadership for industrial development. Institutional deficiencies such as lack of adequate banking and credit facilities is also responsible for the economic backwardness of rural Deoria.

Most of the villages of the study area are characterised by two distinct features, which are as follows :

1. Increase the population below the poverty line has been particularly noticed in villages either affected by floods (Marchahwa, Sidhaway, Amwa Digur etc.) or dominated by scheduled castes (Pande - Bhiswa, Asogwa Khurd etc.) or engaged exclusively in primary occupation (Mehad).
2. Decline in the population below the poverty line in villages, situated near towns and provided with transport and communication facilities.

Production-oriented approach of planning without changing the mode of production has not solved the problem of poverty and inequality. The poverty eradication strategy has to concern more with institutional changes and other forms of direct attack on poverty than individual-beneficiary-oriented programmes. Planning from below or

democratic decentralized programmes. Planning from below or democratic decentralized planning with a strong political will power is necessary for any poverty removal plan. The poverty removal plan in the study area should have the following four-fold objectives:

- (i) Maximization of agricultural and industrial productions so as to achieve high levels of percapita income;
- (ii) to reduce inequalities of income and wealth by equitable distribution of the fruits of production; and
- (vi) To provide social justice.

In this connection, the first thing that needs to be done in the study-area is to accord the highest priority to agriculture with a view to obtaining maximum production, full employment, removal of poverty, reduction in inequalities and self-sufficiency. The measures to be adopted for rapid growth in agriculture are as follows :

1. Provision and improvement of irrigation facilities, rural electrification, organic manures and chemical fertilizer, improved seeds, plant protection measures, improved agricultural implements, soil conservation and flood control measures, and land reforms.

To increase agricultural productivity, it is necessary to introduce mechanical farming in the area. The problem of uneconomic holding is directly related to be problem of

poverty and mechanization. In this context, the following measures are suggested :

1. Consolidation of scattered holdings in every decade.
2. Strict implementation of the ceiling Act.
3. Farmers with extremely small holdings must be induced to give up their lands and shift to other remunerative occupations in rural areas.
4. Regrouping of fragmented holdings through co-operatives.
5. Ban on fragmentation of land holding in future.

For this purpose, the present system of land ownership has to be changed so that the transfer of land below the minimum size is made illegal.

The problems of malnutrition, poverty and unemployment in Deoria district can be solved to a considerable extent by the introducing improved and planned methods of livestock raising, poultry, farming and fisheries through government authorities and other agencies. Efforts are needed to help the small and marginal farmers to increase their income by engaging in secondary occupations like dairing and animal husbandry, horticulture, piggery, poultry farming, fishing etc. Interest free loan should be made available to the poor sections of the population for developing of few secondary occupations.

The two important features of the rural poverty are as

follows :

1. Low level of productivity and inequality between the rich and the poor. The .problem of low productivity can be solved through advanced technological developments in the poverty regions.

Establishment of large scale industries based on local situations have to be undertaken by national planning committee. The industries that could be established and developed in the area are fertilizers, sugarcane, paper and agro-industries. The State Government should establish a co-operative financing department especially for the most poverty stricken regions. A composite rural-industrial structures appropriate to local conditions, needs to be developed for each block.

Industrial co-operatives should be established for fastering the growth of small scale industries based on improved method of production and modern implements. Arrangements should be made for the repair and maintenance of their implements at block headquarters. Provision for industrial education and training to workers engaged in small industries will help to produce quality products. Moreover, it will be necessary to ensure the marketing of the products of small scale industries through government authority and co-operative societies.

To ensure that distortions take place in schemes for the amelioration of the poor, the poverty eradication

programmes should put under the charge of 'Panchayats' and special development councils be set up with majority representation from the small and marginal farmers, the artisans and landless labourers. Unless the structure of the development council is not revolutionised, it will not be possible to implement any plan for poverty eradication. The present nexus between the bureaucrats, landlords, capitalists, sahkars and politicians can be broke only by creating the above mentioned type of people's development council. This should form the fulcrum of the poverty eradication strategy in the area.



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