CHAPTER – 2
Review of Related Studies

The high degree of inequality of income and wealth, the high concentration of economic surplus in relatively fewer hands and the fragmented allocative mechanisms constitute the socio-economic problems in which powerful dynamic forces tend to perpetuate and even accentuate the low standards of living of the significant proportion to our population. Although India attained political freedom more than five decades back but the achievement of socio-economic equalities still remains a distant dream. The term economic inequalities refer to the unequal distribution of wealth and income due to which some are ‘poor’ and others are ‘not poor’. The social inequalities refer to the inferior status of some of the citizens on the basis of the caste in which they are born as well as the level of education. The benefits of economic development have not shared equally by the different socio-economic groups and as a result of it there exist a wide range of variations in their levels of living. This chapter deals with the review of related studies conducted at the national as well as the State level, in order to have an overview of the research work already done in the field as well as to judge the methodological limitations of these studies in order to incorporate improvements in the methodology of the present empirical investigation so as to eliminate the methodological limitations to the maximum possible extent.

The present chapter has been divided into two sections. The studies conducted on the levels of living and inequalities among the different socio-economic groups i.e. general caste, scheduled caste and scheduled tribe households at the national level and different States other than the State of Himachal Pradesh have been reviewed in section 2.1, whereas section 2.2 deals with the review of related studies conducted at the State level of Himachal Pradesh.

2.1 Review of Related Studies at the National Level

In this section, the studies conducted on the different aspects of the levels of living and inequalities viz. distribution of assets and income, pattern
of consumption expenditure, extent of indebtedness, magnitude of unemployment as well as poverty and the evaluation of government anti-poverty programmes etc. at the national level as well as State levels other than the State of Himachal Pradesh have been reviewed.

Jaiswal and Jha (1970)^1 carried out a study of 50 scheduled caste families in the two villages of Bhagalpur district of Bihar State. In these two villages scheduled castes constituted only the 11.7 percent of the total population. The living conditions of the scheduled caste population were found critical. They were residing in the huts or kuchha houses, most of which were in dilapidated conditions. Most of the families were landless following their own caste occupation. All the adult members were earning their income by adopting their own caste occupation or by working as labourers. About 40 percent of these families had annual income below Rs. 1000, 50 percent between Rs.1000 to Rs.2000 and 10 percent between Rs.2000 to Rs.3000. The average per capita income worked out to be Rs.198. Nearly 84 percent of heads of the selected households were illiterate. The health and sanitation conditions were miserable facing serious diseases and premature deaths. This study concluded that the problems of these people were both social and economic which require immediate policy measures to improve their levels of living. This study is based on small sample and data is collected at a particular point of time. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole. Further, no comparison can be made in the levels of living in order to assess whether the levels of living of these families has improved, remained the same or deteriorated over a period of time.

Ojha (1970)^2 conducted a study on rural and urban poverty for 1960-61 and at rural poverty only for 1967-68. He concluded that levels of living and levels of personal income are closely inter-related. Adopting a calorie norm of 2250 per capita per day for an average Indian, he assumed that 66 percent of this must be obtained from foodgrains, cereals and pulses in urban areas and 80 percent was the corresponding figure for the rural sector. In order to obtain these calories, foodgrains consumption of 518 grams and 432 grams per person per day in rural and urban areas
respectively were estimated. Ojha adopted these standard for measuring the incidence of poverty and found that nearly 51.8 percent of all persons in rural areas (184 million) and 7.6 percent in urban areas (6 million) fell below the poverty line. For the year 1967-68 he concluded that 70 percent of the rural population were below the minimum level of foodgrains consumption. The main limitations of the study are that Ojha in this study has excluded the expenditure on health, education and housing and thereby he has underestimated the magnitude of poverty in both the rural and urban areas. Secondly, he adopted the same minimum nutritional requirements i.e. 2250 calories per person per day for both rural and urban population without taking into account the differences in nature, type and intensity of economic activities carried out as well as the price differences between the urban and rural areas.

Banerjee (1970)\(^3\) studied the socio-economic conditions of scheduled tribes in Andhra Pradesh. This study concluded that the per capita income of all most all the tribals in the State varies from Rs.200 to Rs.250 per annum; against the State per capita income of Rs.400. Because of increasing expenditure on food and other essential commodities, the majority of the tribes were indebted and inspite of the existence of official credit institutions, their main source for borrowing were the non-tribal moneylenders in their villages. This study further revealed that 80 percent of the indebted families borrow from private moneylenders. The literacy level of these groups has risen to a considerable extent but at the same time their economic condition was not at all encouraging as the gap between the per capita income of these tribal groups and the State per capita income was quite high.

Sharma (1974)\(^4\) conducted a study on educational inequalities among scheduled castes in Rajasthan based on secondary data. The study revealed that scheduled caste population was 15.8 percent of the total population of the State and literacy rate of whole State was 15.2 percent, but among scheduled castes the percentage of literacy was only 6.2 in 1971. Among the various districts of Rajasthan, the level of literacy rate of scheduled castes varies widely, the highest being 13.7 percent in one district.
and the lowest being 2.1 percent in another district. There was low enrolment rate among scheduled castes at different levels of education. The enrolment of scheduled caste students was 9.1 percent, 13.6 percent and 5.0 percent for primary, secondary and higher secondary levels respectively in 1964-65. The higher the education level, the lower was the enrolment of scheduled castes. This clearly reflects the inability of most of the scheduled caste parents to send their children to schools and colleges particularly because of their very low family income. This study concluded that due to poor socio-economic standard, the available facilities for higher education and college/university education cannot be availed of by the weaker-sections among the scheduled castes. In this study the author has not established the relationship between the levels of living and the level of literacy rate, from which it could have been ascertained that low literacy rate among the weaker sections is also one of the major causes of poverty among them.

Ramaswamy (1974) by using the secondary data studied the benefits accrued from the different programmes to the scheduled caste households in Andhra Pradesh. This study revealed that at the State level about 24.6 percent of the scheduled caste workers were engaged as cultivators and 61.0 percent as agricultural labourers. But the proportion of cultivators is more in the arid regions where dry lands are plentiful and productivity was low and least in the fertile areas. The occupational pattern of the scheduled castes in urban areas was more varied than in rural areas. In urban areas, they have taken greater advantage of reservation in government jobs. But the greatest concentration of these castes was in the lowest paid jobs. Only 10.3 percent of the scheduled castes in the State were literate. In the rural areas 99.2 percent of the scheduled castes were illiterate. A prominent feature of the education pattern among the scheduled castes was successive and marked decline in the proportions of the students as they proceed from primary and secondary levels to higher education. In 1965, their enrolment in primary education was 14 percent of the total students, it decreased to 9.6 percent in middle school, 8.2 in higher secondary and 5.4 in higher education. The reasons for the low proportion
of school goers and the high drop-out ratio appear due to the poverty of the parents and prevalence of child labour. The study further revealed that the policy of preferential treatment to scheduled castes has barely scraped the surface of the problem. They are continuously engaged in traditional occupations in the rural areas. Similarly, they are still steeped in illiteracy and only a small proportion of the population of school going age actually attends school due to poverty. In this study the author has not related the literacy rate with the different income groups among the scheduled caste households.

Rajaraman (1974)\(^6\) by using the National Sample Survey Data found a deterioration in the levels of living and rise in the incidence of poverty in Punjab over the decade of 1960-61 to 1970-71. She measured the poverty by the percentage of population below the poverty line worked out specifically for the region by using linear programming techniques. Taking a figure of Rs.16.36 for 1960-61 and a corresponding level of expenditure of Rs.33.86 in 1970-71 as the poverty line, Rajaraman found that percentage of population below the poverty line has increased from 18.4 to 23.3 during the decade. The largest increase in poverty was among the agricultural labourers. In 1960-61 and 1970-71 agricultural labourers formed 17.5 and 23.2 percent of all rural occupational groups whereas they comprise about 22.6 percent of the households living in poverty in 1960-61 and 40.5 percent in 1970-71. Among the cultivators, the incidence of poverty showed a small decline.

Rayappa and Grover (1979)\(^7\) by using the National Sample Survey (NSS) and Census data studied the problem of employment and unemployment among the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in India. This study stated that this section of society face the problem of illiteracy, rurality, economic backwardness and social retardation. Nearly 88 percent of the scheduled caste population and 97 percent of scheduled tribe population lived in rural areas in 1971, and almost 90 percent of these groups were illiterate in 1961. The literacy level increased from 10.3 percent to 14.7 percent among scheduled castes and from 8.5 to 11.3 percent among scheduled tribes during 1961-1971. The NSS data shows that 62
percent of rural households and 47 percent of urban households among scheduled castes were in debt as against 52 percent in rural and 34 percent in urban areas among the non-scheduled households in 1960-61. In 1961, 69.3 percent of the male workers and 47.4 percent of female workers were engaged in agriculture among scheduled castes whereas these percentage were 62 percent of male workers and 78.3 percent of female workers among the non-scheduled population. In case of scheduled tribes 86.6 percent of total male workers and 89.4 percent of total female workers were engaged in agriculture in 1961. The work participation rates among these people were higher than the general population. The share of these people in the public sector undertaking was rather small as compared to their share in the population. They were mostly employed in class III and IV positions. Their share in class I positions was only 3 percent and 5 percent in class II of the total in 1971. The lower representation of these workers in class I and class II positions was attributed mainly to their low educational attainment. The study showed that the various schemes launched by the Government for raising employment and levels of living had no significant impact on these weaker-sections and these schemes were not conductive for the betterment of the lot of the poor. Finally, even though these schemes were meant to benefit the weaker-sections they may in actuality serve the better-off.

Mishra (1979) conducted a study of 11 scheduled caste households in the three villages of Bangalore district of Karnataka in order to present their socio-economic conditions. The age-composition of the population revealed that 45 percent, 40 percent and 7 percent of the sample population belonged the age group of 0-14, 15-59 and 60 years and above respectively. The sex composition indicated that about 57 percent of the population was males and the rest were females. It was noted that most of the scheduled caste households manage to get one meal now in a day. Malnutrition and ill-health were found to be a common feature among them. The mortality rate was high in the age group of 0-5 livelihood. The study further revealed that about 55 percent of the scheduled caste households were landless and the rest had the land up to 5 acres. Most of the scheduled caste households were depend on wage labour for subsistence. The mode of bonded labour
employment also prevailed in the villages but in the form of being bonded to landlord through loans for consumption and marriage purposes. The bondage of labour to landlord/or bullock owner through bullock loans was another dimension of bonded labour. The study suggested that the socio-economic conditions will not improve unless some radical measures are adopted. The study was based on a very small sample and data was collected a particular period of time. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole. No statistical tools and techniques have been applied to the data with a view to workout specific and precise results.

Yadav and Mishra (1980) made an attempt to assess the impact of the Tribal Development Agency’s Project on employment, income and asset formation of the targeted tribal population in Dantewala and Konta tehsils of Bastar district of Madhya Pradesh. The sample of beneficiary and non-beneficiary families selected in equal number comprised of 50 families and all the families were selected from size group of holdings below four hectares. The study revealed that the overall employment opportunities of the beneficiary and non-beneficiary families increased during the period of study. The employment of the beneficiary families increased by 26.17 percent against 13.40 percent for the non-beneficiaries during the period 1974-75 to 1978-79. As regards income, a higher percentage of increase was noticed in the case of beneficiaries. The total income of an average beneficiary increased by 36.87 percent while that of non-beneficiary rose by 20.99 percent. More than two-third of the total income of both the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries originated from farming activities. Similarly, the programme contributes to the formation of assets of the beneficiaries. The sample size of the study was too small hence the results cannot be applied to the State as a whole.

Fahimuddin (1983) conducted a study to assess the indebtedness among the 50 tribal households of Umru Kalan village in Khatima block of district Nainital in Uttar Pradesh in the year of 1981-82. The study revealed that magnitude of indebtedness was very high in tribal economy as 60 percent of the total households were under debt. The position of landless
agricultural labourers, marginal and small farmers were very dismal as up to 66.67 percent of their households were under debt. The average amount of debt per indebtedness household was Rs.520, Rs.1000, Rs.1368, Rs.2668.75 and Rs.7880.00 on the landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers respectively and per household was Rs.371.43, Rs.666.67, Rs.820.80, Rs.1525 and Rs.4377.78 respectively. The reason for high indebtedness of agricultural labour households were lower wages and large unemployed in a year. The percentage share of non-financial institutions to total debt was 100.00, 55.00, 48.73, 10.07 and 12.70 percent and the share of financial institution was zero, 45.00, 51.27, 89.93 and 87.30 percent respectively on the landless, marginal, small, medium and large farm size groups. And the share of financial institutions (i.e. commercial banks, rural regional banks and co-operative societies) in the total credit was 82.90 percent while the share of non-financial i.e. professional money lenders, landlords and relative cum friends was 17.10 percent. The landless, marginal and small farm size households were taking loan for consumption purposes and source of credit was non-banking financial institution while the large farm households were taking the credit for agricultural purposes. The masses had been trapped in the vicious circle of poverty consequently their purpose of credit was to meet the requirement of consumption. The result showed that the overall percentage of defaulters in the village was 66.23 while the households with no outstanding overdues was 27 percent. This study is based on a small sample and data has been collected at a particular point of time. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole and no comparison can be made in indebtedness over a period of time.

Sen and Shah (1983)\textsuperscript{11} carried out a study of 61 landless agricultural labourers in Baheri block of Bareilly district in Uttar Pradesh in order to measure the extent of employment with the help of ‘time criterion’. The 300 gainful working mandays were considered as the full employment level in a year. This study revealed that there were only 14.75 percent landless labourers which came under the category of full employment. The rest 85.25 percent landless agricultural labourers were underemployed. They were
available for additional work or unemployed for 20 mandays per year on an average. There were 40.99 percent landless agricultural labourers employed for less than the average employment level of 276 mandays in a year. None of these landless agricultural labourers was employed in any other commercial establishments. No body was self-employed even for 20 or 30 days in the whole year. This study was based on a small sample and data was collected at a particular point of time. And the extent of unemployment has been worked out with the help of time criterion only. Moreover, the study is related only to the agricultural labourers, hence the results cannot be applied to the different worker categories in general.

Nayak and Parsad (1984)' studied the levels of living of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes vis-à-vis the non-scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in Karnataka and the inequalities in the levels of living among them during the years 1973-74 and 1977-78 by using the National Sample Survey data of the 26th and 32nd round and observed that in 1973-74, the mean consumption of the scheduled castes and tribes in the rural sector of Karnataka was Rs.40.20. The poverty line for India in 1973-74 as estimated by the Planning Commission was Rs.49.09 per person per month for the rural areas. As a matter of fact 79.9 percent of the rural scheduled castes and scheduled tribe population lived below poverty line. A comparison of the mean consumption of the scheduled castes and tribes and non-scheduled castes and tribes bring out the wide gap in consumption level of the two groups. In the rural sector, the mean consumption of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes was just 73 percent of that of the non-scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The inequality in real consumption was relatively less within the scheduled castes/scheduled tribes as compared to the non-scheduled population in all cases. The inequality in consumption has been found to increase over time. However, the inter-temporal increase was much higher for the scheduled castes and tribes than for the non-scheduled population. The study further pointed out the differences in the levels of education and occupational status of the households and has suggested that this might be a major factor accounting for the observed disparities in the levels of living. They concluded the
scheduled castes and scheduled tribes had a lower standard of living than the non-scheduled castes and tribes.

Reddappa (1984)\textsuperscript{13} conducted a study of 100 households of Gorpadu village in Chittoor district of Andhra Pradesh. The survey was conducted over a period of three months during the end of 1980 and the beginning of 1981 in order to examine the interaction between socio-economic structure and income, employment and levels of living of the village. The study revealed that the main source of employment and livelihood was agricultural activity in the village. Of the 100 sample households 66 were with land and 34 were without land. The small and marginal farmers were 47 percent and 19 percent were the large farmers. The work participation rates were calculated on the basis of 'Usual Status' employment data collected for the households. Of the total sample population of 554, the adult population accounted for 388 consisting of 208 males and 180 females. The overall work participation among the adult males was high, accounting for 87.50 percent whereas among the females was only 38.33 percent and for the entire it was 64.69 percent. The highest female participation was in case of scheduled caste households. Taking the Planning Commission's estimate of rural poverty line of Rs.76 per capita per month for 1979-80, the 48 percent of households were below poverty line. The incidence of poverty was highest with 76.47 percent in the landless households. All the households above 10 acres of land were above the poverty line. The incidence of poverty among the scheduled caste was as high as 61.11 percent as compared to other forward castes like Kamman and Raju, the incidence poverty was 25 and 50 percent respectively. The extent of inequality in the distribution of income at the village level was staggering while 30 percent of the lowest income households, accounted for only 6 percent of the total income. The top 10 percent of the households accounted for as much as 34.22 percent of the income and the bottom 10 percent of the households enjoy only the 1.25 percent of the income. The study is based on a small sample and data is collected at a particular point of time. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole and no comparison cannot be made in income, employment and levels of living. Moreover, the study is
based on the survey data of one village and all India level value of the poverty line has been applied to the data which seems to be unrealistic. The author should have work out the value of poverty line based on the consumption data and local prices prevailing in the study area in order to work out the percentage of sample population falling below the poverty line.

Parvathamma (1984) conducted a study on scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in Karnataka State in early 1970s. The number of households covered for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were 2583 in rural and 748 in urban areas. The study covered the various aspects of their social and economic conditions including demographic characteristics, caste and sub-caste composition, education background, residential pattern, economic conditions, occupational structure and awareness of constitutional benefits. The study showed that the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were predominately residing in rural areas of Karnataka. Nearly 40 percent were living in huts. However, in terms of area and other basic facilities they were in deplorable condition. More than 80 percent of scheduled castes and tribes were landless agricultural labourers working on others' land in the village. Those among downtrodden who own some land were dry land cultivators and the size of holding was very small. A large number of them were poor and did not possess the required implements and livestock for implementation. Majority of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the State were living in object poverty. Most of them were underemployed and otherwise exploited economically. Wages being usually low, they led hand to mouth existence. By and large financial institutions like banks and co-operative societies had no meaning for them. Those who take benefits from co-operatives were generally consisting of families availing consumer items. They were mostly depends upon money lenders for borrowing money to meet marriage expenditure or to meet the contingencies arising due to death. Apart from these, daily expenditure towards food items forced them to borrow. Most of them were illiterate. Poverty was the main reason for not sending their children to schools. By and large they had knowledge of various constitutional provisions of upliftment of the downtrodden including political reservation. But when it comes to utilization 95 percent had not
availed. By and large economic concessions like land, education, and employment with regular wages to these people were recommended by them as solutions for improving their present conditions. No empirical results have been worked out by using the statistical tools and techniques.

Reddy (1986)\(^{16}\) conducted a study on the socio-economic conditions of rural poor in Semiliguda block of Koraput district in Orissa. The study covered 350 households for survey, out of 350 households 117 or 33.5 percent belonged to tribal families, 29.4 percent scheduled castes and remaining 37.1 percent belonged to other caste communities. Besides, household survey, the data were also collected from various secondary sources. In 1981, the literacy rate of block was only 9.8 percent. This was much lower when compared to the district figure of 15.8 percent and 34.1 percent of the State's figure. The household survey showed that 1.2 percent of the total literates had pursued education upto matriculation or above. While 74.6 percent of the total literates have studied only upto primary level. 21.5 percent had studied upto middle level and the remaining 2.7 percent pursued education upto secondary level. More than 92 percent was engaged either as cultivators or agricultural labourers. The average annual family income for sample households was Rs.3680.58. In case of tribal households it was Rs.3542.53 and Rs.2853.24 for scheduled castes while it was Rs.3666.88 for other caste communities. The average annual per capita income was Rs.786.47, while for tribals it was only, Rs.742.63. Thus, per capita income in study area was lower than State average and all India figure. The household size was 4.8 and 78.9 percent households were living below the poverty line. While 83.5 percent among tribals were living below the poverty line. The study shows that the expenditure pattern was heavily weighed in favour of food grains and there was a little expenditure on items like education, medicine etc. The 29.1 percent were under debt as compared to Orissa State figure of 37.11 percent. The average debt per family was Rs.350.90. The total value of assets owned by sample households was about Rs.2,49,000. Out of this 38.3 percent of the assets were owned by tribals, 26.4 percent by scheduled castes and the remaining 35.3 percent of the other caste communities. It can be concluded that the
socio-economic conditions of the people in Senniliguda block did not show a promising life. Since, independence a number of welfare programmes had been introduced, but they had made very little impact on raising the living standards of the rural poor. As the study pertains to a particular block therefore due to inter block differences in topography, fertility of social, irrigation facilities, infrastructural development, climatic and socio-economic conditions the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole with hundred percent precision. Moreover, no statistical tools and techniques have been applied in the study with a view to work out the required estimates.

Narayana, Murthy and Reddy (1987) carried out a study to enquire the socio-economic status of agricultural labourers among scheduled caste and scheduled tribe households in the two villages of Mahabubabad Taluk Warangal district in Andhra Pradesh. A sample of 64 households (26 belong to scheduled castes and 38 to scheduled tribes) was selected and data collected through a structured questionnaire. This study showed that the average size of family of scheduled castes was 5.5 and 6.2 in case of scheduled tribe households. The 42.31 percent of scheduled caste labour households and 31.58 percent of scheduled tribe labour households were landless. The landlessness was more pronounced among scheduled caste households. The average size of the land among landed scheduled castes was 0.75 acres and scheduled tribes was 0.96 acres. The average debt of scheduled caste was Rs.666.67 and in case of scheduled tribes it was Rs.888.89. The average value of assets possessed by scheduled castes was Rs.1250 and the corresponding figure for scheduled tribes was Rs.1500. Among the 26 scheduled caste households, 20 lived in thatched huts and only one household had a tiled house. Similarly, out of 38 scheduled tribe households, 36 were having thatched huts. The average amount of expenditure on food items in the case of scheduled caste households was Rs.199 per month and in case of scheduled tribe it was Rs.229. Nearly, 61 percent of income was spent on food items in case of scheduled caste labour households and 47.68 percent in case of scheduled tribe households. It is clear that a major portion of the earnings of labour
households was still allocated for food and related items, indicating the extent of low standard of living. Therefore, an appropriate strategy was necessary to improve the levels of living and socio-economic conditions of these labourers on permanent basis. This study is based on a quite small sample of two villages. The result of which cannot be applied to macro level situations. Moreover, no statistical tools and techniques have been applied in order to work out more precise and specific results.

Patel and Patel (1987)\textsuperscript{17} by using the secondary data studied the literacy rate and nature of occupations among tribals as well as the strategies adopted for the tribal development in Gujarat. The study revealed that the literacy rate among the tribal population of the State was 14.12 percent according to 1971 Census, as against 11.69 percent according to 1961 Census. The literacy rate among the tribal males was 21.83 percent, whereas in the case of tribal females it was 6.15 percent. The Census data of 1971 indicated that out of total tribal population of the State, 40.35 percent were classified as workers and 56.95 percent as non-workers. The largest number of tribals were engaged as cultivators (48.34 percent) and agricultural labourers (42.33 percent), which accounted 90.67 percent of the total tribal workers. For the development of the tribals, government had started different schemes in the State from fifties. These schemes were in the form of Special Community Development Projects, and Special Multipurpose Projects etc. In the beginning of the Fifth Five Year Plan, Tribal Area Sub-Plan was adopted for the development of tribal people. Basic objective of this plan was to raise the level of development in tribals. For raising the levels of living and socio-economic development, the Gujarat Tribal Development Corporation has been established. The corporation through government and other agencies provided loans to the tribals and tribal organizations for establishment of poultry breeding centres, consumer co-operatives, small scale and cottage industries etc. The study further revealed that the results of these schemes were not satisfactory for raising the levels of living and improving socio-economic conditions of the tribals. The author does not evaluate the impact of government programmes initiated for the socio-economic development of the tribals. This study is
explanatory in nature. No statistical tools techniques have been used to workout the value of specific indicators of the levels of the tribals. Further the author has neither pin-pointed the limitations in the implementation of government policies and programmes nor have suggested any measures for improvement in the levels of living of tribals through the effective implementation of the government policies and programmes.

Julka and Soni (1988)\textsuperscript{18} conducted a study of 252 households in inequalities of income, land ownership and associated assets among cultivating households of Patiala district in Punjab for the year 1979-80. The regression coefficient and Gini-coefficient were used to measure the inequality. This study revealed that the top ten percent of the households accounted for over 38 percent of net household income, 34 percent of crop output, 25 percent of milk output and 35 percent of total farm output as compared to 0.5 percent of net household income, 4 percent of crop output, 7 percent of milk output and 3 percent of farm output in case of the bottom ten percent of the households. Given an almost equal proportion of consumers and biological units in the two polar classes, the level of inequalities in per capita disposable income was really appealing. This study revealed that the top income bracket had 30 percent of land, 33 percent of modern production assets, 22 percent of milch cattle, 30 percent of liquidity, 38 percent of tractors and 17 percent of total engines/motors, whereas the bottom rung of the ladder had just 7 percent of milch cattle, 6 percent of liquidity, 0.54 percent of tractors, 8 percent of engines/motors and a meagre 4 percent of modern productive assets. The computation of Gini index revealed that over 40 percent of the income inequality got attributed to land area with the number of farm workers and milch cattle accounting for another 25 percent and 6 percent respectively. This study supported the view that widespread inequalities of income in the rural areas had their genesis in an unequal distribution of land and other productive assets. A radical redistribution of productive resources, particularly land had been found to be the single most important factor for reducing the widespread inequalities of income in the rural areas. This micro level study is based on a small sample of district Patiala and the data is collected at a particular point of time. Therefore, due
to heterogeneous level of agricultural development in the State, the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole.

Paul (1989) conducted an empirical investigation in order to estimate the magnitude of income inequalities among the rural households in the State of Haryana during 1983-84. This study was based on cross sectional data of 432 farm, non-farm and labour households. In order to measure the inequality in the distribution of income four measures namely, concentration ratio, share of bottom and top quintiles, coefficient of variation and standard deviation of logarithms of income have been used. This study revealed that in the case of farm households, agriculture constituted the single most important component of household income of claiming 68.37 percent of the total household income of this category. Salaries and livestock with 12.33 and 9.22 percent shares respectively, were in next in order. All other components of income were less significant. In case of non-farm households among the relatively more important components, salaries and business/crafts and professions accounted for 26.59 and 23.21 percent of the total household income respectively. Agriculture followed by wages was also significant and they constituted 19.38 and 15.42 percent shared respectively. Income generated by house property in this group accounted for 7.56 percent of the total household income. In case of labour households, wages (agricultural as well as non-agricultural) constituted the single most important component of income claiming 79.59 percent of the total income, followed by livestock income with 13.74 percent as its share. This study revealed that agriculture contributed half the total household income and occupied a markedly predominant position vis-à-vis other sources of income. On the income scale, the farm households occupied the most significant position with a 65.46 percent share in the total income and as much as 68.37 percent of their income came from agriculture alone. The annual income of 49 percent households as a whole was less than Rs.7500 and their share in total income was only 18 percent. The bottom 20 percent share was only 5.44 percent of total income and top 10 percent share was as much as 46.72 percent. The state of income inequality was more pronounced among the farm households than the non-farm households.
This study was based on a small sample of rural households and data was collected at a particular point of time and due to diverse agro-economic conditions prevailing in the different districts/areas of State the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole.

Shankar (1990) carried out a study on the pattern of land ownership, asset structure and income distribution in three villages of Eastern Uttar Pradesh. The first hand information have been collected from a sample of 390 households during the agriculture year 1983-84. The data revealed that 6 percent of the households were completely landless. Sub-marginal farmers (less than one acres) constituted 19 percent of the households but they accounted for 4 percent of the owned land. Marginal farmers (1-2.5 acres) constituted 40 percent of the households but accounted for 25 percent of the land. Small farmers (2-5 acres) constituted 20 percent of the households and accounted for 25 percent of land. Semi-medium farmers (5-10 acres) constituting 12 percent of the households accounted for 20 percent of land while medium farmers (10-25 acres) constituting 2 percent of the households accounted for 12 percent of land. Large farmers (25 acres and above) constituted only 0.26 percent of the households but they accounted for more than 2 percent of land. The value of per household assets ranged from Rs.6827 in case of landless labourer to Rs.429505 in case of highest category of ten acres and above. Land was the most important constituent of assets among the land owning households. For all the households it constituted 69 percent of the assets followed by building (22 percent), agricultural machinery and implements (4 percent), livestock (3 percent) and consumer durables (0.76 percent). Financial assets accounted for slightly more than 1 percent of the total value of assets. There was considerable disparity in the ownership of assets. The assets of top 2 percent of the households were nearly equal to the assets of the bottom one-half of the households. The data revealed that per household income was Rs. 2757 in case of agricultural landless labourers and Rs.4660 in case of other landless. The per household income among sub-marginal farmers was Rs.4358 and same was Rs.6109 in case of marginal farmers. The same stood at Rs.9557 and Rs.15756 in case of small and semi-medium farmers.
respectively while the same was Rs.32557 in case households in the size category of ten acres and above. For all households the average income was Rs.8098. The household income increased with an increase in the size of holding. Only one fourth of the households were indebted but among landless labourers the incidence of indebtedness was quite high at 57 percent of households. The incidence of indebtedness was lowest at 10 percent among other landless. The same was also quite low at 11 percent among farmers in the category of 10 acres and above. The debt per indebted household was Rs.1200 among landless labourers and was highest at Rs.9945 among semi-medium farmers. It was considerably lower at Rs.4000 among the farmers in the highest category. For all the indebted households the average debt was Rs.3015. Almost 60 percent of the debts was incurred in order to meet out the agricultural needs including purchase of livestock. Marriage and consumption needs accounted for 14 and 9 percent respectively of the outstanding debts. This study is based on a small sample. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole. In this study, inequality measures like Gini-coefficient, Lorenz curve, Head Count Ratio etc. have not been used to measure the extent of inequality in land ownership and income distribution. The data have been collected at a particular point of time hence, no comparison can be made in the value of different economic variables.

Pawar, Sale, Chaudhary and Yadav (1991) conducted a study on employment, income and expenditure pattern of tribal farm families in Maharashtra. The study was based on the micro level data obtained from the sample of 36 large, 36 small farm and 36 landless labour families drawn from 6 villages in tribal area of Jalgaon district in Maharashtra. The multiple regression equation was used to find out the functional relationship between income and consumption. The study found that the average male and female workers of large and small farm families were mostly employed on their own farms, while workers of landless labour family were mostly engaged in farm activities on wages and off farm employment. The unemployment for average tribal female worker was 77.57 to 127.68 days. The share of income from farm business in total income was more than 50
percent in case of small and large farm families, while the contribution of wage earnings to the total family income was the highest (80.43 percent) in case of landless labour families. The consumption expenditure worked out to Rs.8484.37, Rs.5200.86, and Rs.3098.44 per family and Rs.898.77, Rs.742.98 and Rs.539.80 per capita per annum in case of the large farm family, small farm family and landless labour family respectively. The expenditure on food shared the largest proportion (62.26%) of the total family expenditure followed by expenditure on clothing (18.24%). The study concluded that the present occupation of the tribals were incapable of providing adequate employment and income opportunities. On the other hand, the consumption expenditure of the tribal families exceeded the family income and tribal families had deficits in their economy. In order to meet out the basic requirements the tribals helplessly opted mostly for the private loans from the moneylenders even in the face of exhorbitant rates of interest and thus they were heavily indebted. This study is based on a small sample of tribals of Jalgaon district of Maharashtra and the data has been collected a particular period of time. Due to the differences in natural climatic conditions, topography, fertility and productivity of soils, social and economic development of the different tribal areas the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole. Moreover as the data pertains to a particular period of time therefore no comparison can be made with a need to find out whether the socio-economic conditions of the sample households has improved, deteriorated or remained the same.

Karuppainyan and Jothy (1991)²² made an attempt on the educational facilities for the tribals of Tamilnadu. The study found that the educational status of the tribals, both male and female, in Tamilnadu was very low despite the Government's efforts through various development programmes in post-independence India. Education was one of the important development programmes to ameliorate the economic conditions of the tribals. The tribal literacy in Tamilnadu was 4.50 percent in 1961 and it was marginally increased to 20.45 percent during 1981. The decadal growth rate of tribal literacy during 1961-1971 was 100 percent and 127 percent during 1971-81. The male literacy rate was higher than the overall literacy rate.
The male literacy was 6.87 percent in 1961, 13.34 percent in 1971 and 26.72 percent in 1981. The female literacy rate was poor. It was 2 percent, 4.48 percent, 14 percent for the years 1961, 71 and 81 respectively. Inspite of various Government programmes, the desired result could not be achieved and the literacy level among the tribals has remained lower than expected, this was due to the low economic standard of tribals and lack of infrastructure and administration for education inputs. In this study only the single variable i.e. literacy percentage among the tribals has been studied and no other economic variable has been taken into consideration. In this study even the author has not evaluated the impact of Government programmes by pin-pointing the limitations and suggesting measures for effective implementation of Government programmes.

Raju (1993) conducted a study to analyse the impact of IRDP in eliminating poverty among the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in Anantpur District of Andhra Pradesh. The beneficiaries who were provided assets during 1989-92 had been selected and the survey was conducted. For this purpose in the first stage a Census survey of 658 beneficiaries were conducted to find out the number of beneficiaries who conducted to find out the number of beneficiaries who retained the assets and in the second stage a sample of 285 beneficiaries had been identified who retained the assets and utilized for generation of income and employment. This study revealed that only 30.82 percent scheduled caste beneficiaries had retained the given assets and properly utilized the assets and 69.18 percent had sold their assets. With regard to scheduled tribes, 53.75 percent had retained the assets and 46.25 percent had sold their assets. The survey also disclosed that the majority of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were provided animal husbandry and other productive assets and the main reasons for selling these assets under animal husbandry were diseases of animals accounting for 34.76 percent of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and 23.26 percent of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes had disposed of the assets provided under the Government programmes. The main reasons responsible for it were lack of skills, market facilities and working capital. Only 14.34 percent of the scheduled castes and 37.50 percent of
scheduled tribes had crossed the poverty line. The study suggested that if the Government provides suitable assets to the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes considering the local conditions and also agricultural and minor irrigation assets, this IRDP will definitely eliminate the rural poverty among the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the district. The study was based on a small sample and data was collected at a particular point of time. Therefore, the result of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole. As the data pertains to particular period therefore no comparison is possible. The author has neither pinpointed the limitations nor has suggested the measures for the effective implementation of the Government programmes.

Mehta (1995) conducted a study on the role of education in economic opportunities between scheduled castes/tribes and general castes based on primary data collected from a sample of 200 households in the urban and rural areas in Lucknow. The findings of this study revealed that the enrolment rates of general castes were significantly higher than the scheduled castes/tribes. Enrolment rates of girls, both from general castes and scheduled castes/tribes were always lower than boys at all levels of education. Very small proportion (8.79 percent) of girls from scheduled castes/tribes as against general castes (20.67 percent) were found in higher education. The dropout rate was 81.25 percent for scheduled castes/tribes whereas it was 60.46 percent for general castes at all levels of education. The data revealed that the incidence of unemployment was about 10 percent among workers from general castes as compared to only 4 percent among scheduled caste/tribe workers. He found that scheduled castes/tribes has a slight advantage over general castes in securing employment and a disadvantage of about 15 percent in earnings. As a cumulative result of these processes, the gains of scheduled castes from education were only 46 percent of those derived by the people belonging to general castes. Thus it was quite evident that among the scheduled caste/tribe workers those who had the benefit of higher education stand more or less on an equal level with general caste workers in terms of earning. This indicated that education, particularly higher levels of education,
can be an equalizing factor in the pattern of economic opportunities between scheduled castes/tribes and general caste populations. This study is based on a small sample hence the results of this study cannot be applied to State as a whole. The data pertains to a particular period of time hence no comparison can be made with a view to judge an changes in the socio-economic variables over a period of time. Further, the author does not relate this study with socio-economic factors like the unequal distribution of assets particularly land, among the general castes, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes etc. which account for the major causes of the low level of literacy among the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

Grover (1996) by using the secondary data has studied the issues in demography, work participation, employment and upliftment of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes vis-a-vis the non-scheduled population in India. He found uneven spatial distribution of the scheduled groups among the States. The decadal growth of scheduled group of population has been found higher than the general population. The data revealed that over four decades (1951-91), the general population was increased 2.3 times, the scheduled caste population 2.5 times and the scheduled tribe population 3 times. This was due to higher fertility among scheduled groups. The sex-ratio was lowest for scheduled caste population and this was very close to that of non-scheduled population, whereas the scheduled tribe had comparatively a much higher sex-ratio. In 1991, the level of literacy was found lowest among scheduled tribe population which was 24 percent followed by scheduled castes 30 percent and 48 percent for non-scheduled population. Female literacy among scheduled groups was found very low. Levels of urbanization were lowest for scheduled tribe population, intermediate for scheduled castes and highest for the non-scheduled population. Work participation rate was higher for scheduled groups than non-scheduled population. Overtime, work participation rate had declined for all groups. In 1961-81 period, the scheduled caste population dependence on agriculture increased from 72 to 76 percent. During 1981-91, dependence on agriculture of non-scheduled population declined from 66 to 59 percent, 76 to 74 percent in case of scheduled castes and in case
of scheduled tribe population there was no change (87 percent). Four and half decades of planned development had not reduced scheduled group dependence on agriculture due to slow pace of economic development, high population growth and still higher growth of labour force. The reservation policy had been partially successful to provide employment opportunities. With economic reforms, liberalization and declining Government spending on employment generation the employment future of scheduled group could even become worse. The various employment generating schemes such as Jawahar Rozgar Yojana and Employment Guarantee Scheme were ad-hoc and did not offer any long term and permanent solutions.

Rayappa and Sekhar (1996) studied the development and disparities among scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward groups in the State of Karnataka by using secondary data. The study dealt with population size, measures initiated for promoting their welfare, representation in Government services and local bodies, and the consequent changes. The study revealed that large disparities existed between scheduled and non-scheduled population at the time of independence but due the implementation of several measures, disparities have now narrowed down to some extent in some selected fields. The literacy rate among scheduled castes was only 13.89 percent in 1971, but it increased to 38.06 in 1991. For scheduled tribe it was 14.85 in 1971 and increased to 36.01 percent in 1991. Whereas it was 31.52 percent in 1971 and 56.04 percent in 1991 among general population. The work participation rate of scheduled caste population was 44.66 and scheduled tribe population was 47.80 in 1991, which was higher than the general population. 78.83 percent scheduled caste main workers were engaged in primary sector, 10.43 percent in secondary sector and in tertiary sector. For scheduled tribes, it was 85.29, 6.44 and 8.27 percent respectively. Most of them were engaged in highly traditional, time consuming and less remunerative occupations. In 1971, the percentages of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in State Government services were only 8.47 and 0.92 respectively and it has increased to 14.62 and 2.80 in 1994 due to reservation policy and other government measures but the representation of
these groups was highest in last grade services (Group D). It was quite evident that these deprived communities had started asserting themselves and taking advantage of constitutional provisions and various Government programmes. Their progress in the areas of education and employment was considerable but much remains to be achieved. The author does not explain the causes of faculty implementation of the Government measures initiated for the betterment of the weaker-sections, which resulted to their low levels of living.

Singh (1996) by using the secondary data studied the inequalities in the social structure which has adversely affected the implementation of various protective legislations and development programmes undertaken for the upliftment of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in India. The 1991 Census revealed that even after four decades of development planning, the literacy level among scheduled tribes was only 23.6 percent and among scheduled castes only 30.1 percent against the level of 47.7 percent of other groups. Female literacy was even lower being 19.3 percent for scheduled castes and 14.5 for scheduled tribes as compared to literacy level of 37.0 percent for others. Similarly only 7.4 percent of scheduled tribe population and 18.7 percent of scheduled caste population was living in urban areas, whereas this proportion was 29.2 percent for the other groups. In 1991, only 25.4 percent of scheduled caste workers were classified as cultivators against the figure of 39.7 percent for other groups, though the position of scheduled tribe was relatively better in this respect (54.51 percent). On the other hand, 32.7 percent of the scheduled tribes and 49.1 percent of scheduled castes belonged to the category of agricultural labourers against the figure of 19.7 percent for other groups. The data revealed that only 12.8 percent of scheduled tribe workers and 25.5 percent of scheduled caste workers were engaged in the non-agricultural sectors against the figure of 40.6 percent for other groups. Moreover, most of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the secondary and tertiary sectors were engaged in low paid and precarious activities in the informal sector. The limited access of the scheduled castes to land was revealed by the fact that their share in operated area was only 7.8 percent against their share of 12.4 percent in
operational holdings. The average size of holding in 1984-85 was only 1.05 hectares for scheduled castes, 1.72 hectares for other groups and 2.25 hectares for scheduled tribes, relatively better as compared to other groups but they suffered from other handicaps of inaccessibility and lack of infrastructure. He concluded that in the existing setup these groups were denied their fair share in educational opportunities, economic assets and political power, which are the major avenues for social and economic progress.

Singh (1996) by using the secondary data studied the socio-economic profile of scheduled castes in Punjab. He concluded that the State had the highest proportion of the scheduled caste population which constituted 28.31 percent of the State population in 1991. The decadal growth rate of scheduled caste population in the State had been more than the general population. Nearly 80 percent of the scheduled caste population resided in the villages and only 20.45 percent lived in urban areas. The literacy rate for scheduled castes in 1991 was 41.09 percent as compared to 58.51 percent for general population. In 1981 this percentage was 23.85 and 40.86 respectively for scheduled castes and the general population. The literacy rate has increased overtime among scheduled castes but the gap between male-female was still wide. The work participation rate for scheduled caste population was 30.71 percent in 1991 as compared to 31.44 percent for general population. The data indicated that 65.4 percent of scheduled caste main workers were engaged in the primary sector, 12.92 in secondary sector and 12.62 percent in tertiary sector. It showed that the status of scheduled caste population had somewhat improved during the decade, still much more was needed to improve their levels of living, as their work participation rate was declined during the decade and a large number of them were still engaged in agricultural related activities.

Lalwani and Thomas (1997) made an attempt to estimate the incidence of both absolute and relative poverty in Meghalya for the year of 1991-92. A sample of 4701 households has been selected with the help of multi-stage random sampling. The Head Count Ratio and Poverty Gap Ratio were used to estimate poverty. At the total sample level (4701 households)
as many as 1965 households forming 42 percent of the total sample were below the poverty line. Not only was the incidence of absolute poverty sizeable, low income had also a high degree of instability around the mean income as reflected in the high Gini-coefficient. There were sharp inequalities in the incidence of poverty at the village level. Such glaring inequalities were not visible at the district or block levels. The study revealed that poverty eradication measures adopted by various Government agencies had heavily relied upon the State totals, thereby turning a total blind eye to inter-district/inter-block/inter-village deviations from the State-level averages. This was also evident from the study, where high poverty (head count) ratios had been observed in relatively richer districts and vice-versa. Disaggregated poverty estimates at block and village levels would give us, therefore, a better understanding of the problem and would pave a way for more effective poverty-alleviation programmes. The study showed that Megalaya had a sizeable level of poverty ratios in tune with the national experience.

Singh (1997) by using the NSS and Census data studied the changes in the socio-economic status and levels of living of scheduled castes in Uttar Pradesh during 1971-91. The study revealed that only 11.80 percent of scheduled caste population lived in urban areas, while the corresponding figure for the other groups was 22.03 percent. About 81.41 percent of scheduled castes were engaged in agriculture sector as compared to 69.42 percent for other groups. Nearly, half the scheduled caste workers were landless where as this proportion was less than one-fifth for other groups. Only 18.59 percent of scheduled caste workers, whereas 38.58 percent of other groups were employed in non-agricultural occupations. Moreover, most of the scheduled caste workers in the secondary and tertiary sectors were engaged in low paid and low skill jobs in the informal sector. Per capita monthly expenditure for scheduled caste households amounted to Rs.88.57 in rural areas and Rs.117.14 in urban areas in 1987-88. As many as 71.31 percent of scheduled caste households made an expenditure level below Rs.100 per month against 56.61 percent for all groups. It was estimated that 56.49 percent of scheduled caste in the
rural areas and 57.2 percent in urban areas were living below the poverty line in 1987-88 as against 38.43 percent and 43.74 percent for all groups respectively. Only 55.15 percent of scheduled castes had access to safe drinking water, electricity only to 11.39 and toilet facilities only to 6.87 percent families. The literacy rate was only 32.27 percent for scheduled caste males and for other it was 48.07 percent in 1991. It was 8.31 percent of scheduled caste females and 23.16 percent of non-scheduled caste females. The dropout rate was higher in the scheduled castes than general population. Thus it can be concluded that more efforts were needed to improve the levels of living of scheduled castes than general population. In this study, the statistical tools and techniques have not been used to obtain the specific results.

Diwakar (1999) examined the inequality and exploitation of dalit castes (particularly scheduled castes) and classes of North Bihar based on secondary data. The study focused mainly on inequalities in terms of land and employment status and exploitation reflected in depressed wage rates. This study clearly revealed the distribution of operation holdings in Bihar was highly inequitable. About 12 percent of the holding covered 0.2 percent of the area, with an average of holding of 0.10 hectare, which amounted to almost landless status. The average size of operational holding was as low as 0.31 hectare. More than 88 percent of holdings covered only 47 percent of area under operation and the remaining 53 percent of operational land area was owned by only 12 percent of the medium and rich farmers. Seventy-nine percent of the scheduled groups were agricultural labourers who depended totally on selling their labour power for their survival. Per capita land owned and operated by scheduled caste households was less than that of non-scheduled castes. The scheduled castes constituted more than 61 percent of agricultural labourers, 55.6 percent of cultivating agricultural labourers and poor middle peasants about 54 percent. Middle peasants and big peasants coming in this group were only 20 percent and 1.6 percent respectively. The majority of labourer households with no option but to hire out their labour power irrespective of the wage rates. The earning of these people was still insufficient to sustain their livelihood. The per
capita annual incomes of the scheduled castes were significantly lower than those of non-scheduled castes. This led to the minimum level of essential consumption. Despite the fixation of minimum wages by the Government, scheduled castes were yet to receive depressed money wage rates in rural areas. This was due to the lack of employment opportunities and unorganized labour force of scheduled castes. In this study no statistical tools and techniques have been applied to measure the inequality of land.

Pant (2000) conducted a study to spell out the current status of literacy among scheduled castes in three districts of Bihar namely, Bhojpur, Rohtas and Muzaffarpur. The study selected a total of 54 villages, that is, 18 villages from each districts, base on stratified random sampling technique. The study revealed that about 27.2 percent of the total population was engaged in agricultural activities. And the highest percentage of scheduled caste workers were engaged in the agricultural sector. The overall literacy rate was 39.6 percent. The dropout rate was highest among the scheduled castes followed by scheduled tribes which was 15.2 percent of boys and 16.3 percent of girls for two categories in the age group of 6-11 years. The dropout rate was lowest among the upper caste students which was only 3.0 percent of the boys and 4.7 percent of girls. The highest proportion of children from scheduled caste and scheduled tribe communities did not attend school. More than 69 percent of boys and 70.2 percent of girls of these communities did not attend schools. The upper caste has the lowest proportion of children not attending schools. The study revealed that due to lack of gainful employment, social status, poverty, the available facilities of education and employment could not be availed of by the majority of scheduled castes. This study is based on a small sample of three districts in Bihar and the data was collected at a particular point of time, therefore due to varied socio-economic development and differences in infrastructural facilities the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole with hundred percent accuracy.

Mohanty (2001) studied the land distribution among scheduled castes and tribes in 13 major States in India by using secondary data. The study revealed that agriculture was the prime source of livelihood for a vast
majority of people living in rural and tribal areas in India, land continued to be
the pivotal property in terms of both income and employment, around which
socio-economic privileges and deprivations revolve. A majority of scheduled
castes (77 percent) and scheduled tribes (90 percent) were landless, without
any productive assets and sustainable employment opportunities. Around
87 percent of land holders of scheduled castes and 65 percent of scheduled
tribes in the country belonged to the category of small and marginal farmers
(Agricultural Census 1990-91). According to 1991 Census, 64 percent of
scheduled castes and 36 percent of scheduled tribes main workers were
agricultural labourers as against 31 percent of others. According to Planning
Commission (Ninth Plan), 48 percent of scheduled castes and 51 percent of
scheduled tribes were below the poverty line. The study shows that
scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were the most disadvantaged in
respect of land, which largely accounted for their perpetual poverty and
made them vulnerable to injustice and exploitation. The government had
made a systematic endeavour to protect and promote their rights with regard
to control and use of land through land reforms and allied measures. The
study concluded that even after 50 years of planned initiatives and policy
measures, there has not been substantial improvement in the land holding
status of scheduled groups. In this study no statistical tools and techniques
have been used to work out the specific empirical findings of inter-caste land
distribution pattern.

Sharma (2001)\textsuperscript{34} conducted a study on the composition and
distribution of assets of cultivator households in Haryana. The study focused
particularly in the inequality of assets and the determination of the demand
for assets. This study is based on cross-section data collected through
survey method with the help of pre-tested schedule for the year July 1989 to
June 1990. The study analysed 320 households, 71 large farmers, 66
medium farmers and 183 small farmers, taken from 66 villages spread over
the entire State. The various methods such as Gini-Ratio, Share of bottom
quintle, Share of top quintle, Coefficient of variation of assets, Standard
deviation of logarithms of assets and Theil Index were used to measure
inequalities in the distribution of assets. This study showed that land, with a
share of 78.46 percent, constituted the predominant asset of all the cultivator households taken together. Building accounted for 7.58 percent followed by agricultural implements and machinery (4.74 percent) and livestock (3.09 percent). Land dominated the total assets of all the three of farmers, but the share of large farmers was the highest (81.68 percent), followed by the medium farmer (78.63 percent) and small farmers (71.71 percent). The data showed that 10 percent of cultivators households in rural Haryana hold about 37 percent i.e. about two-fifths of total assets and the bottom 10 percent a mere two percent. Category-wise the share of the top 10 percent large, medium and small farmers was about 26 percent, 16 percent and 21 percent respectively and that of bottom 10 percent of the same categories was about 5 percent, 7 percent and 4 percent respectively. The study shows that there was wide disparities in assets holding among the all households and large farmers. This study is based on a small sample and data is collected a particular point of time. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be applied to State as a whole with hundred percent precision.

Shariff, Buragohain and Ghosh (2001) studied the levels of household income and material well-being among scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and landless wage earners in rural India. Income differentials had been estimated from National Council of Applied Economic Research’s (NCAER) Human Development Indicators data 1994. The study shows that among landless others only 42 percent were wage earners as compared to 63 percent among scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. As much as 63 percent of scheduled castes owned land less than one hectare as compared to all India rural average of 46 percent and 43 percent among scheduled tribes. Agriculture and allied activities contributed 55 percent of the household income as against 38 percent and 56 percent respectively in case of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and only 3 percent in case of landless and landless wage earners. The study revealed that the both household income and per capita income were substantially lower among the landless and landless wage earners belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in comparison with the national levels. All Government efforts to improve the socio-economic conditions of scheduled castes and
scheduled tribes fall short of the desired impact. This study suggests that a comprehensive scrutiny of the policies followed so far, both their formulation and their implementation was perhaps needed to locate the factors inhibiting the progress rate.

Narayanamoorthy (2001)\textsuperscript{36} made an attempt to study the incidence as well as extent of indebtedness among the agricultural labour households belonging to scheduled castes by using the State-wise cross section data pertaining to five time points (1974-75, 1977-78, 1983, 1987-88 and 1993-94) available through Rural Labour Enquiry Reports. The study covered the 17 major States of India. It was found that the share of institutional debt in the total debt of scheduled caste agricultural labour households was increased from 5.76 percent in 1974-75 to 30.10 percent in 1993-94. Similarly, the share of debt for productive purposes to the total debt of same group had also increased from 8.81 percent to 21.63 percent during the same period. While the incidence of indebtedness had declined between 1974-75 and 1993-94 in most of the States, the same was found to be higher than the national level average among the agriculturally advanced States at all time points. The average amount of debt had increases from Rs.556 in 1974-75 to Rs.860 in 1993-94 at the national level. It appeared from the analysis that the extent of indebtedness of agricultural labour households was higher in those States that had higher percentage of landless labour households.

Nadkarni (2001)\textsuperscript{37} carried out a study on the impact of development programmes on the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes population in Maharashtra in early 1980s by using the data collected from 54,833 households i.e. 10863 scheduled caste (19.81 percent), scheduled tribe 7199 (13.13 percent), and non-scheduled caste and scheduled tribes 36771 (67.06 percent) covering 219 villages from 25 districts in Maharashtra. The study revealed that nearly 62 percent and 54 percent of scheduled caste and scheduled tribes were landless while among non-scheduled caste and tribes the percentage of landless was only 30. The assistance programme of the Government intended for agriculturists, however small, simply could not reach more than 60 percent of scheduled castes and more than 50 percent
of scheduled tribes in the State. Non-scheduled castes/scheduled tribes were much less disadvantaged in this respect. While 35 percent of non-scheduled caste and scheduled tribe households with land had some irrigated land, only 20 percent of scheduled caste households and 14 percent of scheduled tribe households with land had any irrigation facility. The percentage of beneficiary households among scheduled tribe was 72 percent which was much higher than that among scheduled caste or non-scheduled caste and scheduled tribes (55 percent). Furthermore, within scheduled caste/tribes, the benefit increased with the size class of holdings, whereas, among non-scheduled castes/tribes the medium and large category benefited the most, with the benefit to the marginal and small categories being, more or less, at par.

Kamalraj (2003) studied the dimensions of Poverty in India by using data from National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) 55th round (July 1999 – June 2000). The poverty ratio has been estimated at 27.09 percent in rural areas and 23.62 percent in urban areas and 26.10 percent for the country as whole. The incidence of poverty expressed as a percentage of people living below poverty line which witnessed a steady decline from 55 percent in 1973-74 to 34 percent in 1993-94 and 26 percent in 1999-2000. State-wise poverty ratio have increased a secular decline from 1973-74 to 1999-2000. Though poverty has declined at macro level, rural-urban and inter-State disparities were available. The coefficient of variation of poverty ratios among the States for the year 1999-2000 was calculated as 68 percent. Though there was declining trend in the poverty ratio, it was highly unpleasant and painful to accept the fact that more than 26 crores of Indian population were living below the poverty line.

Mandal (2004) conducted a study in order to work out the impact of poverty alleviation programmes in Hooghly district of West Bengal. This study had undertaken a comparative analysis of the socio-economic status of households assisted under the small Farmers' Development Agency (SFDA) and Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). This study revealed that the lower caste marginal farmers or agricultural labourer households with small-size family and with lower educational and
occupational status, have benefited the most by getting assistance under anti-poverty programmes (i.e. IRDP) under the empowered situation, which was lacking under small Farmers Development Agency. On the other hand, the dominant caste households having more than two hectares of land with large families having higher and medium educational and occupational status had benefited the least. He concluded that empowerment improved targeting performance of anti-poverty programmes, but at the same time, relatively better-off among the poor got higher benefits from anti-poverty programmes and this benefit go on decreasing with an increasing vulnerability of the poor. The limited operation of empowerment resulted in iniquitous poverty alleviation. This study is explanatory in nature and no statistical tools and techniques have been used to work out the empirical results.

Louis (2005) by using the secondary data examined the discrimination and inequalities among dalits and tribals in the Indian economy. This study revealed that although the literacy rate has improved considerably from 24.02 in 1961 to 52.21 in 1991 percent of total population, 10.27 to 37.41 among scheduled castes and 8.54 to 29.60 for scheduled tribes respectively. The percentage of literacy has improved but this percentage was lowest among scheduled categories as compared to the total population. The study further revealed that inspite of special provisions aimed at the upliftment of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, about 60 percent of the agricultural laboures among the scheduled caste households were living below the poverty line in 1993-94. The poverty ratio has decreased from 50.07 and 34.37 in 1987-88 to 48.14 and 31.29 in 1993-94 among the scheduled caste and others respectively, whereas this percentage was decreased from 72.4 percent to 58.4 percent among the scheduled tribe population. The percentage of poverty was highest among the scheduled caste and scheduled tribes mainly due to the lack of regular sources of income, lack of occupational mobility, lack of productive assets, low literacy percentage, lack of productive assets and lack of finances. Moreover they have not been able to avail the benefits of the Government Anti-Poverty Programmes initiated for their betterment. He concluded that
in order to reduce discrimination and inequality, the Government should implement the poverty alleviation programmes in such a way so that most needy and poor people can be benefited the most under the employment creating and income generating programmes.

2.2 Review of Related Studies at the State Level of Himachal Pradesh

This section deals with the review of related studies conducted on the various aspects of the levels of living and inequalities at the State level of Himachal Pradesh.

Government of Himachal Pradesh (1972) conducted an evaluation study of 215 sample households (157 from Lahaul block and 58 from Spiti block) scattered over 22 villages of the Lahaul and Spiti district of Himachal Pradesh. This study indicated that the literacy percentage was 30.5 percent in Lahaul block and 17 percent in Spiti block. Out of the total sample households 14 percent households were under debt in the Lahaul block, whereas no household was found under debt in Spiti block. The average debt per indebted family amounted to Rs.2102. About 43.5 percent loans were taken for the consumption expenditure, 26.0 percent were taken for house construction and rest of loan taken for other purposes. About 56.5 percent of the loans were obtained from moneylenders, 21.7 from friends and relatives and only 17.4 percent of the loans were taken from the Government. Nearly 88.4 percent of the total loans have been taken during the last five years which were outstanding at the time of study. The study further revealed that about 95.5 percent houses were semi ‘pucca’ and the remaining 4.5 percent were ‘kucha’ in Lahaul block, whereas all the selected households had ‘kucha’ in the Spiti block. This study concluded that the income conditions of the people in the Lahaul block was better than that in the Spiti block. In the Lahaul block out of total sample villages 16 i.e. about 37.5 percent villages were found to be electrified, whereas no village was having electricity in the Spiti block and only two villages in Lahaul block and one village in Spiti block had a health dispensary. The sample size in this study is quite small therefore its results cannot be generalized to region as a
whole. The data has been collected at a particular point of time hence no comparison can be made over a period of time.

Government of Himachal Pradesh (1975)\(^42\) conducted a survey on the socio-economic conditions of Chhota and Bara Bhangal, a tribal area of Kangra district of the Himachal Pradesh. The average size of holdings in Bhangal area was 1.84 hectares which was higher than the average size of holdings in the district. During the period 1966-67 to 1973-74, there was significant changes in the cropping pattern. About 80 to 90 percent of the total farm produce was used for self consumption. The average number of livestock possessed by households worked out to 19 but there was no veterinary hospital available in the area. The percentage of children between 6-14 years age group attending school in the sample area was only 18.4 percent. Out of 294 sample households 134 (i.e. 46 percent) were indebted. This study revealed that the average income per household per annum was about Rs.2700 and average per capita income was Rs.505. This figure was very low as compared to per capita income of Himachal Pradesh which was Rs.890 for the corresponding period. The per capita consumption was Rs.545 per annum. The survey further revealed that the entire population of this area was living below the poverty line. The data has been collected at a particular point of time, hence no comparison of the socio-economic status of the sample household can be made over a period of time.

Government of Himachal Pradesh (1980)\(^43\) conducted an evaluation-cum-economic status study of scheduled caste land allotters in Himachal Pradesh. The results of this study revealed that more than 39 percent of the households were engaged in the agriculture, 52 percent households earned their livelihood through manual labour, 2 percent through household industries and 7 percent households were engaged in other occupations. The average annual income per household from various sources was worked out Rs.2134 in 1979-80. Out of this total income, Rs.304 and Rs.260 were derived from agriculture and animal husbandry respectively. The average annual income from village industries had been worked out Rs.242 per household. The study further revealed that the major share of
annual income per household was derived from other sources which was estimated Rs.1328, of which Rs.1161 from manual labour, Rs.36 from trade and commerce, Rs.38 from remittances and Rs.53 from all other sources. In this study data has been collected for a particular point of time, hence no comparison can be made about the socio-economic status of scheduled caste households over a period of time.

Sharma (1982) by using the secondary data assessed the extent of poverty in the rural areas of Himachal Pradesh by applying the Normative approach to the National Sample Survey consumer expenditure data of 1972-73 (2391 households) and 1973-74 (368 households). By deflating/inflating the poverty line expenditure (the value of minimum requirements i.e. 2400 calories per person per day) by the price rise or fall between 1972-73 and 1973-74, he worked out the value of poverty index (per capita per month) to be Rs. 46.50 and Rs.55.86 respectively. On the basis of the value of poverty index for 1972-73 and 1973-74, the extent of poverty has been worked out 31.53 percent and 47.01 percent for the two years respectively.

Thakur (1985) conducted a study of 109 sample households in the rural areas of Himachal Pradesh for the year 1980-81 with a view to workout, the inequalities in the distribution of income and consumption expenditure as well as the extent of poverty and unemployment with the help of multidimensional approach. He concluded that the bottom 35 percent of the sample population was sharing 20 percent of the total income, whereas 20 percent of the total income was shared by the top 5 percent of the population. About 70 percent of the population was spending 60 percent of the total expenditure on food items, whereas the top 30 percent of the population was spending about 40 percent of the total consumer expenditure on food items. On the basis of the value of poverty index Rs.52.93, the percentage of poor has been worked out 71.06, 50.65 and 26.34 percent on the marginal, small and medium size of holdings respectively. The ratio of non-food expenditure to the food expenditure has been worked out Rs.24.68 per consumer unit per month for the poor. Hence the value of poverty index based on per consumer unit per month value of both food and non-food
items which come out Rs.77.61 (i.e. Rs.52.93 on food items + Rs.24.68 on non-food items). On the basis of the value of this index the percentage of poor has been worked out 71.31, 45.97 and 41.08 percent on the marginal, small and medium size of holdings respectively. According to the positive approach, the percentage of poor has been worked out 61.15, 36.59, 29.24 and 27.02 according to Head Count Ratio (q), Gini-coefficient (G), Sen’s Measure 1973 (Ps) and Sen’s Measure 1976 (Ps*) respectively. The percentage of under-employment with the help of time, income, willingness and productivity criteria was highest on the marginal size of holdings and it shows a decreasing tendency with an increase in the size of holdings whereas, the percentage of seasonal unemployment is lowest on the marginal size of holdings and shows an increasing tendency with an increase in the size of holdings. The percentage of voluntarily unemployed mandays has been worked 0.55, 0.93 and 2.11 percent on marginal, small and medium size of holding respectively. Although the author has worked out different estimates of poverty and unemployment by using the different statistical tools, techniques, norms and methods yet the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole due to small sample size. The data has been collected at a particular point of time, hence no comparison can be made in the magnitude of poverty and unemployment over a period of time.

Government of Himachal Pradesh (1987)\textsuperscript{46} conducted an evaluation study of Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) in Bilaspur and Mandi districts of Himachal Pradesh. A sample of 42 households had been selected which include 24 marginal farmers, 3 small farmers, 3 agricultural labourers, 2 rural artisans and 10 others. This sample included 42.9 percent scheduled castes, 9.4 percent scheduled tribes and the rest 47.6 percent households of other communities. This study revealed that prior to providing the benefits, the average annual income per beneficiary was Rs.1505 which has been raised to Rs.5310 per annum. The percentage increase in the household income has been worked out 252.8 percent. Nearly 83.3 percent beneficiaries were deriving income from the assets and about 28.6 percent of the beneficiaries have crossed the poverty line. Of the total sample
households 7.1 percent families have been provided employment under National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) and 11.9 percent beneficiaries have received benefits under Training for Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM). And about 16.6 percent households have been reported problem in obtaining benefits. Ancillary benefits have been provided to 19.9 percent families in terms of compulsory primary education scheme and family welfare planning scheme. The sample size in this study is quite small hence, the results of this study can not be applied to the State as a whole. Moreover the results have been worked out in terms of percentage and averages and no statistical tools and techniques have been applied in order to work out the precise and specific results.

Himachal Pradesh Institute of Public Administration (1988) has collected primary information on indebtedness from a sample of 480 Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) beneficiaries in all the 12 districts of Himachal Pradesh. This study revealed that out of 480 selected IRDP beneficiaries 175 i.e. 36 percent were found under debt. Out of total indebted families about 47 percent belonged to scheduled castes and 23 percent to scheduled tribes. These two categories constituted 70 percent of the total indebted families and the remaining 30 percent indebted families from other castes. Of the total beneficiaries, 35 percent had been found to be indebted to the shopkeepers. The rural poor generally made purchase for domestic consumption from the shopkeepers and a part or whole of loan was returned on the harvesting of crops. About 25 percent families had reported indebtedness to their relatives followed by friends (12 percent). About 16 percent beneficiaries had reported their indebtedness to the village moneylenders. The study further revealed that 79 percent of the total families had taken loan for non-productive purposes whereas, only 11 percent of families taken loan for the productive purposes like purchase and improvement in land and purchase of livestock. Loans for construction and repairs of houses had been found only in 7 percent families. About 38 percent of the indebtedness families had quoted the source of repayments of loans through wage income, 37 percent families through the income
generated through IRDP assets, 12 percent through harvesting of crops, 7 percent through the income of livestock, 3 percent through the income from various sources and 3 percent of the indebted families were not sure as to how they would repay the outstanding loan. Although this study is based on a sample scattered over all the districts of Himachal Pradesh yet the sample size is quite small and the data has been collected at a particular point of time. Therefore, neither the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole with 100 percent precision nor any comparison can be made over a period of time with a view to find out that whether the value of the economic variables have increased, decreased or remained the same.

Sharma and Moorti (1989) conducted an empirical investigation of 128 farm households scattered in eight villages of Kalpa block in District Kinnaur with a view to study the sources, pattern and inequalities in the household income by size class of holding. The Gini-index and Lorenz Curve have been used to work the inequalities in the distribution of income. This study revealed that about 56 percent income was earned from farm sources and 44 percent form non-farm sources. In the farm income, field crops and horticultural crops constituted the major share and nearly 20 percent of total household income earned from livestock activities as well as services, business, household industries etc. were the major sources of non-farm income. The value of Lorenz and Gini-concentration ratio showed that about 52 percent of the total household income was shared by the 80 percent of the households and remaining 48 percent of the household income was enjoyed by the 20 percent of the households in the study area. This study is based on a small size of sample and the data has been collected at a particular point of time hence, the results of this study can be applied to State as a whole.

Thakur (1991) conducted an empirical investigation of 218 sample households (137 rural and 81 urban sample households) in the low hill zone areas of Himachal Pradesh in order to analyse the socio-economic conditions of the weaker-sections with a view to find out the nature, type and magnitude of inter-class and inter-caste wise socio-economic inequalities in both the rural and urban areas during 1986-87. This study revealed that in
the rural areas the percentage of dependents, average family size as well as illiteracy percentage was high among the households falling on the marginal size of holdings as compared to the small size of holdings as well as among the scheduled caste households as compared to the non-scheduled caste households. According to the ‘time criterion’, the percentage of unemployment was highest on the marginal size of holdings (i.e. 25.10 percent) as compared to the small size of holdings (i.e. 9.43 percent) as well as this percentage was highest among the scheduled caste households (i.e. 23.37 percent) as compared to the non-scheduled caste households (i.e. 9.16 percent). The negligible percentage of voluntary unemployment was prevalent among the sample households in the rural areas. The percentage of total household consumption expenditure spent on food items was higher on the marginal holdings (i.e. 66.00 percent) as compared to small size of holdings (i.e. 63.71 percent) as well as this percentage was highest among the scheduled caste households (i.e. 66.35 percent) as compared to the non-scheduled caste households (i.e. 63.63 percent). The percentage expenditure on non-food items was lowest on marginal holdings (i.e. 34.00 percent) as compared to small holdings (i.e. 36.29 percent) as well as this percentage was lowest among the scheduled caste households (i.e. 33.65 percent) as compared to the non-scheduled caste (i.e. 36.37 percent). The per capita burden of debt was highest on the marginal holdings as compared to the small holdings in the rural areas. This study concluded that only the better-off sections had taken the benefits of anti-poverty programmes as compared to poor or needy sections due to biased attitude of panchayat representatives and corrupt administration at lower levels in the rural areas. The study further revealed that in the urban areas, the percentage of dependents and illiteracy was highest on the lowest income group as compared to the low income group. The per capita value of household assets was lower among the lowest income group and scheduled caste households as compared to the low income group and non-scheduled caste households. The percentage of unemployed, according to time criterion, was lowest on the lowest income group (i.e. 15.64 percent) as compared to households falling on the low income group (i.e. 16.37 percent). Similarly,
this percentage was lowest among the scheduled caste households (i.e. 9.13 percent) as compared to non-scheduled caste households (i.e. 23.31 percent). The percentage of willingness for additional work, according to 'willingness criterion' was higher on the lowest income groups as compared to the low income group among the scheduled caste and non-scheduled caste households in the urban areas. The percentage of consumption expenditure on food items was highest among the lowest income group as well as scheduled caste households as compared to the low income group as well as non-scheduled caste households. The per consumer unit per month burden of debt was highest on the lowest income group as compared to the low income group. The study further revealed that benefits of Government schemes have been taken mostly by the better-off households and least by the worst-off households in the urban areas. This study is based on a small sample and data has been collected at a particular point of time, hence, the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole.

Sharma (1994) conducted a study of 200 tribal households in district Kinnaur of Himachal Pradesh in order to analyse the magnitude of poverty, unemployment and inequalities among the tribal households as well as to evaluate the impact of Anti-Poverty Programme on the levels of living of tribal households. The data had been collected during the year 1988-89. This study revealed that the percentage of literacy as well as labour force indicated an increasing tendency, whereas the percentage of dependents showed a decreasing tendency with an increase in the size of holdings. The percentage of poor with the help of Nutrition Approach had been worked out 44.64, 29.80 and 27.60 percent on the marginal, small and all holdings together, whereas, the percentage of poor with the help of Nutrition Plus Approach was worked out 47.72, 32.61 and 29.64 percent respectively. The relative magnitude of poverty was worked out 32.06, 19.51, 17.30 and 9.91 percent with the help of Head Count Ratio, Gini-coefficient, Sen's Measures of Poverty 1973 (Ps) and 1976 (Ps*) respectively. The percentage of unemployed had been worked out with the help of 'Multi Dimensional Approach' i.e. time criterion, willingness criterion and income
criterion. The percent of unemployed revealed a decreasing tendency with an increase in the size of holdings. The percentage of voluntarily unemployed mandays had been worked out 1.41 and 3.89 percent on the medium and large size of holdings respectively, contrary to it, the percent of mandays willing for over employment came out 2.82 and 1.69 percent on the marginal and small size of holdings respectively. The study further revealed that the value of Gini-coefficient and Lorenz Curve for the distribution of household assets, income and consumption expenditure indicated higher inequalities on the larger holdings as compared to smaller holdings. The per capita burden of debt was Rs.604.35, Rs.551.15, Rs.287.54 and Rs.147.08 on the marginal, small, medium and large size of holdings respectively. Further he stated that only the better-off households had benefited the most, whereas the least better-off households benefited the least under the Anti-Poverty Programmes in the study areas. The study is based on a small sample of tribal households of district Kinnaur of Himachal Pradesh and the data has been collected at a particular point of time, hence the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole.

Sharma (1997) conducted a study in order to analyse the variations in poverty among the tribal and non-tribal sample households in the Chamba district of Himachal Pradesh during the year 1993-94. With the help of multi-stage random sampling a sample of 120 tribal households and 180 non-tribal households had been selected. The magnitude of absolute poverty had been worked out with the help of Nutrition Approach as well as Nutrition Plus Approach and relative poverty has been worked out with the help of Head Count Ratio, Lorenz Curve, Gini-coefficient, Sen's Measures of Poverty 1973 (Ps), 1976 (Ps*) and 1981 (P). On the basis of 'Nutrition Approach', the percentage of poor was worked out 53.36, 47.16 and 10.67 percent among tribal and 49.27, 41.12 and 8.46 percent among non-tribal marginal, small and medium size of holdings respectively. Among all the households together the percentage of poor come out 42.96 percent in tribal areas and 37.08 percent in the non-tribal areas. With the help of 'Nutrition Plus Approach', the percentage of poor among tribals has been worked out 57.14, 49.76 and 14.24 percent, whereas among non-tribals this percentage
was 51.71, 43.44 and 10.37 percent on the marginal, small and medium size of holdings respectively. Among all the sample households together the percentage of poor was worked out 45.37 percent in the tribal areas and 39.36 percent in the non-tribal areas. With the help of ‘Head Count Ratio’ the percentage of poor among tribal and non-tribal households came out 54.65 and 46.10 percent respectively. The value of Gini-coefficient and Lorenz curve for distribution of household consumption expenditure as well as the distribution of income was lower among the tribal households as compared to the non-tribal households. According to Sen’s Measure (1973 Ps), the magnitude of relative poverty was worked out 33.03 and 29.66 percent among the tribal and non-tribal households, whereas according to Sen’s measure of poverty 1976 (Ps*) this percentage come out 31.99 and 27.53 percent respectively. The percentage of poor among tribal and non-tribal households, according to Sen’s measure of poverty 1981 (P) came out 22.55 and 18.47 percent respectively. These results show that the magnitude of poverty was higher among the tribal as compared to non-tribal households. The study further reveals that the per capita burden of debt was higher among the tribals as compared to the non-tribals and this revealed a decreasing tendency with an increase in the size of holdings. The benefits of anti-poverty programmes had been taken only by the better-off households among both the tribal and non-tribal households. The sample size in this study is quite small and data has been collected at a particular point of time, hence the results of this study can not be applied to the State as a whole.

Sharma (1999)\textsuperscript{52} conducted a study of 216 sample households (i.e. 153 non-tribal and 63 tribal households) in two districts viz., Mandi district (non-tribal district) and the Lahaul and Spiti district (tribal district) in the State of Himachal Pradesh for the year of 1997-98. The Lorenz curve and Gini-coefficient techniques have been used to work out inequality in the distribution of operational holdings and the indices of diversification was calculated to estimate the magnitude of occupational diversification. The unemployment was measured by using the time, income and willingness criteria respectively. The magnitude of absolute poverty had been worked
out by taking into consideration both the minimum food and non-food consumption expenditure. The study revealed that the magnitude of agricultural diversification was higher for non-tribal sample households (69.31) as compared to tribal sample households (50.23). According to the ‘Nutrition Approach’ the percentage of poor/unemployed among the non-tribals marginal, small and medium holding groups was worked out at 35.21, 28.61 and 11.39 percent respectively while in the case of tribal households, this percentage was 25.17, 15.36 and 5.63 percent for marginal, small and medium holding groups respectively. The overall percentage of poor/unemployed persons among all the holdings was 26.86 and 16.58 percent for the non-tribal and tribal sample households. After providing due allowances to the minimum non-food items, the overall percentage of poor/unemployed was increased from 26.86 to 27.67 percent among the non-tribals and from 16.58 to 17.83 percent among the tribal households. According to the time, willingness and income criteria, the percentage of unemployed was highest on the marginal holdings and it shows a decreasing tendency with an increase in the size of holding among the tribal and non-tribal sample households. The percentage of voluntary unemployed was worked out 3.27 and 4.84 percent on medium holding among the non-tribal and tribal sample households respectively. The value of Gini-coefficient for the distribution of operational holding was highest among the non-tribal sample households (i.e. 0.6265) as compared to tribal households (i.e. 0.5354). The study further revealed that the tribal households registered much more increase in the net change of household assets, employment and income levels vis-à-vis the non-tribal households. This study is based on a small sample size and the data has been collected at a particular point of time, hence the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a whole.

Gupta (2002) conducted an empirical investigation of 270 tribal households in Chamba district of Himachal Pradesh in order to work out the poverty and economic inequalities among tribal households during 1999-2000. The extent of poverty and inequalities was worked out with the help of Head Count Ratio, Lorenz Curve, Gini-coefficient, Sen’s Measures of
Poverty 1973 (Ps), 1976 (Ps*), 1981 (P) and with the help of Normative Measures of Poverty. With the help of ‘Nutrition Approach’ the percentage of poor was worked out 57.09, 38.27 and 24.90 percent among tribal marginal, small and medium size of holdings respectively, whereas among all the holdings together this percentage came out 47.55 percent in the tribal areas. The magnitude of poverty with the help of ‘Nutrition Plus Approach’ came out 58.65, 45.18 and 30.24 percent among the tribal marginal, small and medium size of holding, whereas among all the holdings together this percent was 51.35 percent. The value of Gini-coefficient for the distribution of food items had been worked out 0.1839, 0.2178, 0.2612 and 0.1998 on the marginal, small, medium and all households respectively, whereas the value of Gini-coefficient for the distribution of food and non-food was worked out 0.1898, 0.2266, 0.2673 and 0.2018 respectively. The relative poverty was worked out 38.37, 22.81, 22.52, 39.96 percent with the help of Head Count Ratio, Sen’s measure of poverty 1973(Ps), 1976 (Ps*) and income gap ratio respectively whereas, the percentage of poor with the help of Sen’s measure of poverty 1981 (P) was 15.79 percent. The percentage of unemployment with help of time criterion was worked out 19.96, 29.15, 23.88 and 25.12 percent on the marginal, small, medium size of holdings and all holdings respectively, whereas with the help of willingness criterion this percentage was 26.13, 31.16, 13.16 and 26.17 percent respectively. The value of Gini-coefficient for the distribution of household assets revealed an increasing tendency with an increase in the size of holdings. The per capita burden of debt was Rs.693.00, Rs.576.00 and Rs.433.00 on the marginal, small and medium size of holdings, whereas among all the holdings together this value came out Rs.567.33 in the tribal areas. This study concluded that due to faulty implementation of Anti-poverty programmes in the tribal areas, the percentage increase in the value of household assets, income and employment was lowest among the households falling on the smaller size of holdings as compared to households falling on the larger size of holdings. This study is based on a small size of sample and data has been collected at a particular point of time hence no comparison can be made over a period of time. Moreover the results of this study cannot be applied to the State as a
whole due to different topography, climatical as well as socio-economic conditions etc.

Thus it can be concluded from the above mentioned studies that the existence of inequalities in the levels of living among the different socio-economic groups is mainly due to unequal distribution of productive assets (mainly land), differences in productivity of agriculture and availability of modern techniques, inequalities in the per capita income and per capita consumption, absence of marketing facilities, lack of regular gainful employment, lack of subsidiary occupations as well as other socio-cultural inequalities. All these studies show that the various Government Policies and Programmes initiated to improve the levels of living of the weaker-sections mainly the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other poor have not proved successful to the desired extent. This is due to the lack of trickle down effect of these policies and faulty implementation of the schemes.

It is clear from the above discussion that the studies conducted on the levels of living at the national level as well as the State levels suffer from one or the other limitations. The studies conducted by using the National Sample Survey (NSS) data and Census data are based on large sample size but the results have been worked out by using the averages and percentages only. In most of these studies no statistical tools, techniques and methods have been used. Hence the precision of results in specific disaggregated cases is doubtful. Contrary to these macro level studies, the micro level studies conducted mainly by the individual scholars in which the sample size is quite small but the primary data collected by these studies have been analysed by using the statistical tools, techniques, methods and norms. Due to small sample size used in these studies the results cannot be applied at macro level to the State/region as a whole with hundred percent precision.
References


