CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Numerous researchers have contributed extensively in the study of livelihoods, and have suggested policy alternatives. However the present investigation has spelt out the socio-economic and demographic livelihoods on food security, income stability, and social relations within households and in communities. The social relations and collective action at both household level and community level are based on the agricultural activities, migration pattern and development programs. Though the system produces a stable income through agricultural livelihoods, achievements depend on the individualistic performance of farmers. Limited crop choices and insufficient water resources pose a challenge to the farmers to achieve high outputs in agricultural and allied activities. Further the land use practices increases food production and produces higher flows of ecosystem services, and improves socio-cultural values of rural livelihoods.

Tamil Nadu has a glorious tradition of recognizing the importance of empowering women over several centuries now. The Government of India has made Empowerment of Women as one of the principal objectives of the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) and also declared 2001 as the year of ‘Women's Empowerment. It is one of the important women livelihood option.
Srinivas, M.N (1993)\(^1\) studied on India’s villages by M.N. Srinivas\(^1\) and other sociologists and anthropologists from India, the United Kingdom and the United States of America was effort to understand the social life of the villages in different parts of India. The study included villages in Mysore, Orissa, Kerala, the Himalayas, the Western Udaipur, Simla, Tamilnadu and Uttar Pradesh. It was observed that villages, even the neighborhood villages, differed considerably in economic, social, cultural, religious and political dimensions. In spite of several differences seen in the study, there was a thread of unity. The unity of the village through solidarity of caste was pointed out by authors. Unity in diversity, caste linkages and village self-sufficiency were the dominant themes that formed the core of this study. The study also revealed the tendency of the indigenous scholars to take important social realities for granted.

Scoones, (1998)\(^2\) studied livelihood processes by using the sustainable livelihood (SL) Approach. The study takes account of the various capitals; livelihood resources; institutions; livelihood strategies; and outcomes; and is concerned with both process and outcome, in the context of sustainability. Methodologically, the framework demands information gathered through a variety of methods in several disciplinary areas.

Robert Chambers, (1995)\(^3\) explores the different views of poverty and illustrate the poor people’s criteria. The paper discusses neglected dimensions of
deprivation including vulnerability, seasonality, powerlessness and humiliation and the need of objective in terms of replaced “employment” in jobs of livelihood.

L.K.Arun, et al., (2001) have investigated about the occupational bases of livelihoods of two tribal groups Western Ghats Mannas and Paliyans in the Periyar Tiger reserve by analyzing tribes’ livelihood activities and status. The study also indentified that there is increasing demand for fishing locality and family income from agriculture in both tribes is low, Their educational status also very low, despite the fact that their income level is relatively high.

Balaji, (2001) explored the sustained agriculture generate more employment, food and income. The study stresses on the role of Information and communication technologies (ICT) in the development of sustainable agriculture. The findings of the study showed that information network and the role of Information and communication technologies giving the knowledge on agriculture information.

Campbell (2003) found that most households in Southern Zimbabwe relied the cash and subsistence income from a number of sources such as dry and crop production, gardening, livestock production, woodland activities, wage or home industries and remittances/gifts. The author suggested three key drivers of change in rural livelihood; (a) rainfall, (b) macro-economic changes and (c) changing institutional arrangements and social processes.
Benjamin et al., (2004) explores natural resource management efforts in four communities in Mali’s Mopti Region to highlight applied and theoretical concerns related to the impact of decentralization on livelihood security and biodiversity conservation. This work focusing on relations between communities and the different organizations involved in decentralized Natural Resource Managements (NRM), including local government; and community experience in reconciling inconsistencies between local practices and natural resource policy under decentralization. The key argument is that institutional analysis of decentralized natural resource management must look at the interplay between institutions at different levels – community, local and national. Yet these policies give local elected officials great discretion in how they engage with communities and customary institutions. The livelihoods that decentralized local governments engage synergistically with communities depend on the political nature of their jurisdictions and the bargaining power of the communities.

Ian Cherstoplos, (2004) the study focused on extension of poverty and how far the system facilitates economic and social development among small and marginal farmers. It argues that official development assistance should play one essential role not just in helping farmers’ research global market but also in addressing the issues related to the wider livelihood of income households.

The study on the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Leslie Bank (2005) initiatives for encouraging growth and development in the farmer homelands, have not delivered on their promises, a new emphasis has crept into
policy debates: Food security and self-reliance are now placed much higher on the rural development agenda in South Africa. In this paper, argues that those who apply ‘sustainable livelihoods’ approaches to South Africa should not under-estimate the extent to which rural households in areas like the Eastern Cape have already moved away from household-based agricultural production and have embarked on new livelihood strategies. The paper argues that researchers and policy makers should recognize the social vulnerability and weakness of many rural households as they reflect on the capacity of rural households to driven local economic development in rural areas.

**M.S. Swaminathan (2005)** has studied the main causes of current agrarian crisis and many other problems is the rural–urban divided. He also highlights that the agriculture and livelihoods in India becoming knowledge intensive and setting up of Village Knowledge Centres (VKC) and the harness of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) improve the timeliness efficiency of form operation and enhance income generation producer oriented market.

**Andrew Ainslie (2005)** explores the role of cattle ownership in the fragile land and livelihoods, and the cultural politics of households in rural areas of South Africa. It presents the social, economic and cultural changes that affect relations both within households and concludes with some thoughts on the role of cattle-linked livelihoods in affording people a measure of economic and social autonomy at the household level.
Maithreyi Krishnaraj (2006)\textsuperscript{12} studied the livelihood of more than half of India’s working population involved in agriculture and its allied activities. Despite there being an increase in the quantity of food grains being produced domestically as well as in the imports of food grains, India has been unable to achieve food security. The group most adversely affected by this is women in agriculture: their contribution to farm labour is hardly recognized they are remunerated poorly and they suffer from chronic energy deficiency.

Zimmerer (2007)\textsuperscript{13} has studied about farm level economic diversification and the dynamics of agricultural process The paper analysis the pervasive role of agricultural as well as environmental institutions, organizations, and governance issues, the agency of nature that blends the roles of non-human organisms and the cultural and social practices of people both at the local. The adoption and application of these elements is successful also in avoiding the tendency toward just-so accounts or overly simplified stories of agrarian and environment successes of realities globalization and its impacts.

Jonathan Rigg (2007)\textsuperscript{14} reviewed the changes of rural life and livelihood, and discussed about their impacts on agriculture and reflects on their implications for rural development. Agriculture is being compressed by non-agricultural pursuits, aspirations are increasingly informed by a wish to avoid farming and the ‘household’ is being restructured as the genders and generations contest and their respective roles.
Joffe (2007) studied the health status, education status and livelihoods in low-income rural systems. He highlights that world population was living with hunger, food insecurity, and under nutrition has decreased, but the absolute number remains stubbornly large. An even larger number of people have enough to eat but suffer from severe micronutrient deficiencies. The predicament of poor households can be represented in terms of a self-reinforcing cycle involving nutrition, health, and productivity. The degree of poverty limits the quantity and quality of food intake. Macro- and micronutrient deficiencies interfere with child growth and development and impair immune function, resulting in a predisposition to infectious diseases. Health status strongly influences the quantity and quality of labor and achieved educational status. The high risk of child mortality prevents households from going through the demographic transition to smaller families and better-educated children.

Sushanta Mahapatra (2007) analysed employment generation, income of different categories of labour and the extent of indebtedness and earning, prevalent among rural landless labourers and agricultural house-holds in rural Orissa, with a view to understand their livelihood patterns. The evidence relating to rural labour households and agricultural labour households shows an explicit overall decline in employment both for male and female labour. There is also a decline in the average number of earning members per household. Clearly, the rural labour households and agricultural labour households in this state are characterised by low earning, decline in
income, low consumption and high debt, and remedies will have to be found to generate more employment and income.

**Rachel Sabates-Wheeler (2007)** studied the working pattern of a variety of forms of cooperation in agriculture. The findings highlight the safety net, labour specialisation, asset-pooling and service delivery functions of different groups that enable rural livelihoods to cope up with difficulties and also improve in situations of imperfect information, sluggish labour and land markets, and constrained capital markets. The research indicates that small and medium forms of cooperation provide the rural poor with predictable livelihood strategies under conditions of uncertainty.

**Jatiket (2007)** studied the farming communities using natural biodiversity in and around their farms for many livelihood functions including food, income, home tools and materials, and cultural activities. The degradation of farmland bio-diversity stems from farming methods which negatively alter the physical habitat of various plant and animal species, expansion of urban boundaries into farm areas, and pesticides. As a result, some important species have disappeared or their populations have become drastically reduced forcing communities to look for other sources of income, buy foods which they normally had for free and purchase other essentials that they previously were able to collect on their own farmland. Participatory Action Research (PAR) is embedded in the learning process with the intention to produce community habitat action plans by research.
Siribut (2007)\textsuperscript{19} carried out to determine the socioeconomic contributions of agro-biodiversity to the livelihoods of smallholder farmers in three sites with different land use systems in Chiang Mai province Northern Thailand. The socio-economic impacts on food security, income stability, and social relations within households and in communities were emphasized. The highest was observed in the agro-forestry based system, which also showed the highest achievement in social relations where collective action was embedded. The biodiversity vegetable-based system produced stable and high farm income, but achievement was more individualistic. The irrigated rice-based system, with its limited crop choices, was vulnerable to price changes. It was generally observed that agro-biodiversity enhancing land use practices can increase food production and produce higher flows of ecosystem services, and can improve socio-cultural values, but the extent of these contributions has yet to be quantified.

Chianu et al., (2008)\textsuperscript{20} studied the livelihoods and wealth distribution among farm households in western Kenya. Agriculture is the main source of livelihoods. Labour is mainly allocated to crop enterprises; with household were the most important staple/traded food crops. Poultry, followed by cattle dominated livestock enterprises. Few households diversified into small businesses, employment and artisan to enhance livelihoods. Lack of cash and limited land access are the most important factors constraining agricultural development. Although, most households prefer selling the produce in markets where prices were better, many not only sold
produce but purchased inputs from nearest towns due to high costs of accessing better price markets.

Richardson (1975) studied livelihood activities of two villages namely Bejucal and Debe consisting food production, cash cropping and wage labourers. The two villages evolved along the margins of swamp lands in area poorly suited for cane cultivation. But improvement projects like Roads and trail between plantations helped to eliminate seasonal isolation.

Rigg (1998) studied how agriculture and industry is dependent on rural labourers in all the developing countries of south East Asia. The diversification of the household economy and the interpenetration of rural and urban have created multiple hybrid ties where individuals and households shift between agricultural and industrial pursuits and cross between rural and urban areas, the article reviews these changes to rural life and livelihood and their impacts on agriculture and reflects on their implications for rural development.

Rengasamy et al., (2001) have focused on rain fed rather than irrigated agriculture system - i.e. the sharp end of rural development in India, and that the focus was very much on the micro-level, looking at policy as seen from the ground Thaan Vuzha Nilam Tharisu: the land without a farmer becomes barren: policies that work for sustainable agriculture and rural livelihood.
Vepa (2005)\textsuperscript{24} studied the agricultural pattern and animal husbandry of the rural livelihoods security system. However, the contribution of agriculture to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has been stealing declining over the year. But the share of agriculture in providing employment has been static. Thus, the responsibility of providing employment and livelihood to a majority of the population continues to with agriculture, in the diversification of economic activity. Agriculture progress is the best safety net against hunger and poverty, as it offers effective social protection. Indian agriculture is, therefore, not just an instrument for producing food for the urban population, but is the major source of livelihood opportunities in the country. Recently, the mainstreaming of the ecological dimension is the assessment of security acceptance by policy makers. The Agriculture only can be sustainable to Rural, Urban and country. The goal of food security should be pursued and achieved through sustainable use of environment resources. The natural resource of the country should be sufficient to sustain the livelihood of local population and satisfy their economic and domestic needs in the future, including that of agriculture crop production of livestock. If natural resources are destroyed, it will not be possible to sustain livelihood for long time.

Lídia Cabral (2005)\textsuperscript{25} studied the concept of Sustainable Agriculturally based Livelihoods, which includes five interconnected elements: Sustainable agricultural intensification - with emphasis on resource conserving and regenerative technologies, optimal use of external inputs, full participation of key actors; viable and equitable
regional economies involving the development and strengthening of rural social enterprises, security of tenure for land and rights, and improved retention of economic surpluses; sustainable managed natural resources including integrated approaches to natural resource management, the enhancement of landscape and amenity value, and the conservation of biodiversity; enabling institutions focusing on the strengthened capacity of local groups, the reform and reorientation of external support agencies and the enhancement of linkages between public and private sector organizations; and, supportive policy environment of the formulation and implementation of policies and policy instruments that enhance and support the spread of sustainable agriculture and rural regeneration.

Hajdu (2006) examined through extensive fieldwork in two villages in rural livelihood strategies using a bottom-up perspective, changes in livelihoods and the processes involved in choosing between and combining various types of livelihood activities are analyses. The Livelihoods are conceptualised as consisting of subsistence agriculture combined with monetary incomes in the forms of state pensions and remittances from migrant labourers. This view is challenged by the results of the study, showing that local jobs are the major components of livelihoods in the studied villages. While pensions also do make important contributions to livelihood, the significance of agriculture, livestock keeping and various forms of natural resource use is shown to be relatively low and that important recent changes in livelihoods have taken place. These results were also used to critically examine
concepts such as ‘multiple livelihood strategies’ and the tendency to generalize about rural livelihood across regions, countries or even continents.

**Sushanta Mahapatra (2007)**\(^{27}\) analysed the two agro-ecologically distinct rural communities in eastern Nigeria, the determinants of livelihood diversification away from agriculture and the manner in which agro-ecological differences affect such diversification. The probability of participating in non-agricultural activities was estimated in an endogenously controlled, profit model employee data on household assets, demographics, human capital, as well as a proxy for differences in agro-ecology. Results show that not many households remain undiversified as they combine activities within farming, commerce, skilled non-farm and low skilled non-farm sectors. Both human capital and the agro-climactic variables were found to determine the nature of diversification. Policies thus should be aimed at both agricultural and non-agricultural activities. Policies based on the assumption that agriculture is no longer relevant will hurt farming and retard development.

**Nelson (2007)**\(^{28}\) evaluated the livelihood strategy for people of all social classes in peri-urban zone. However, because the peri-urban zone is one of transition from rural to urban and urban to rural, it tends to undergo more pronounced changes in land use over time than do the city and rural area it borders, examines recent changes in agriculture, land use and livelihoods. This paper argues that structural adjustment policies and changing land tenure regimes are impacting the presence and
practice of agriculture in future and hence it is an essential part of the livelihood strategy for middle and upper class residents of peri-urban areas.

**Jager, (2007)** studied the participatory innovation in soil fertility management to improve the rural livelihoods in East Africa. He showed that, once smallholders are equipped with knowledge and the capacity to learn, are empowered in organizations and connected to markets and the private sector, they can substantially improve their rural livelihoods. Therefore a focus on experiences show that the sustainability of group learning processes increases considerably when the groups engage successfully in commercial activities at the same time. Innovations in soil fertility management were most successful and had the greatest impact on livelihoods in areas with both high agricultural potential and access to large urban markets. Investments in soil management or other technologies can be realised more easily by smallholders when they have opportunities to generate cash through commercial sales and value-addition, or when they have access to non-farm income. In more marginal areas most investments in inputs and technologies were financially unattractive or risky. In these areas priority needs be given to creating a more conducive environment for smallholders to do business and explore alternatives to food crop production.

**Laura K. Schmitt (2007)** studied soil erosion in developing world which was poses a threat to rural livelihoods, to the sustainability of the agricultural sector, and to the environment in the rural Philippines. The model predicts an annual loss of
2.7 million cubic meters of sediment to waterways such that by 2050 more than 416,000ha of agricultural land will be rendered unproductive due to erosion.

**Onduru et al., (2008)**[^31] studied the access to sustainability of dryland farming systems of Eastern Kenya based on farmers' perceptions of their farming environment and the implications for rural livelihoods. The study showed that soil fertility and yield of staple food crops (maize) have declined in the past decade and that current farming systems are not able to produce adequate food and income to the dependent households. Thus, the farming system is showing symptoms of unsustainability. Improving farming system sustainability in this dryland area will ultimately require integration of technical and policy options that take cognizance of farmers' abilities, opportunities and socio-economic circumstances.

**Araceli Bjarklev et al., (2008)**[^32] studied the possibilities and limitations that Mexican small-scale farmers are facing to enhance sustainable livelihoods in the amaranth value chain. The study reveals that amaranth, as an alternative crop and livelihood, is perhaps one of the most complete endogenous natural resources that small-scale farmers have to combat the abovementioned problems. The study identified several local and regional barriers for increasing the level of farming, production, processing and consumption. A striking and paradoxical limitation is the monopolization practices developed by some of the associations in relation to knowledge and technology transfer, seeds distribution and contact to potential national and foreign buyers.
Zachary Kinaro (2008) studied the situation where part of wetland is converted into large-scale agriculture by a multinational company, resulting into a conflict and controversy amongst key stakeholders and sought to investigate livelihood impacts this transformation has for the local community. It employs the concepts Stakeholder Analysis (SA) and Sustainable Livelihood Approaches (SLA) to assess the livelihood situation in terms of socio-economic conditions, rural infrastructure, income diversification, food security and environmental issues. It is evident that assessment of the key stakeholders in relation to this natural resource is of utmost importance. Besides being cause to a conflict and controversy over control of and access, the conversion has resulted into both negative and positive short-term and long-term livelihood impacts to the local community.

The study on Indian village by Connell et al. (1976) found that unequal, villages had the highest rates of out-migration. It is likely that not only ‘objective’ inequality, but also people’s perceptions are a determinant factor. Migrants come from a variety of backgrounds, and different groups this study concentrated on specific occupations; migration streams are strongly segmented. They belong to various ethnic groups, castes, and are both landless and landowners. Although there is some evidence that the landless migrate less - because they cannot afford the necessary investment - this seems to be context specific: in some areas they migrate less, elatedly, migrants come from a variety of districts, not necessarily the poorest. Some areas have developed a tradition of migration, and once certain patterns of
migration exist, they do not change easily. Data on expenditure and income of migrants as compared to non-migrants confirm the diversity of migration experiences.

Papademetriou, (1991)\textsuperscript{35} studied labour migration that leads to the absence of people, mainly of young men, but occasionally women alone, core or extended families, or whole households.

Christopher McDowell (1997)\textsuperscript{36} pointed out that the links between migration and sustainable livelihoods, looking in particular at the institutional factors that connect the two. The study concludes that migration should be seen as just one of the livelihood strategies open to households, that it is often combined with other strategies, and that it is frequently a two-way process in which migrants maintains close links with their areas of origin over a much longer period than is frequently assumed.

The study by De Hann (1997)\textsuperscript{37} on sustainable livelihood research suggested that number of ways of analysing and understanding rural development processes but with a consistent focus on poor households and the decisions people take about how to achieve successful sustainable livelihoods. It seem to that the impact of disaster and forced displacement on the livelihoods reconstruction and main objective of focus on the role of institutions and association and other forms of social relationships mediating people access to and control over resources necessary to rebuild livelihoods.
Rogaly B, (1998) studies seasonal and temporary out-migration of manual work from India's rural areas. Seasonal migration in different parts of India is considered, while the author argues the need for a better understanding of social and economic relations and the circumstances under which migration can affect them to the benefit of poor migrant workers. Seasonal migration is both a part of and an outcome of those social and economic structures in the Indian countryside.

The research paper by Deshingkar and Start (2003) briefs about how India have succeeded in entering accumulative migration pathways while others have been excluded. The author adopts a social exclusion and livelihoods approach in analysing the livelihood implications of season migration. It finds that migration patterns are determined by people’s access to resources, the environment, intra-household relations, wider social relations, and not just the productivity and demand for labour in an area. The paper concentrates on migration in the states of Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh. Important migration factors in AP and MP include the historical development of the different regions. The author also highlights the importance of livelihood options that are complementary to migration, the availability of surplus labour within the household, as well as decisions related to children’s education. A strong correlation is found between Scheduled Caste and being poor, illiterate and asset less, as well as being discriminated against by employers and contractors. The paper also finds that migrant sugarcane cutters, earth workers and agricultural labourers from remote and poor villages of AP and MP have improved their standard of living significantly through migration, and are investing their savings in agriculture and education.
Michael Cameron and Steven Lim (2005)\textsuperscript{40} studied the composition of rural households influenced by the migration of adult household members to urban locations in search of employment. Children may be left in the care of their mother alone or in the care of grand parents when both parents have migrated. The study conducted by using representative data from a household survey conducted in rural. The findings suggest that household types other than nuclear families result in some significantly worse child nutritional outcomes. The implication is that governments should protect the welfare of the children of migrants, either through targeted programs or through increased opportunities for employment in rural areas.

Lakhwinder \textit{et al.}, (2007)\textsuperscript{41} studied rural economy of Punjab which has been undergoing structural transformation. But the dependence of rural population in general and rural labour in particular for earning livelihood from the rural economy continues. This process of rural transformation has perpetuated the distress among the rural workforce. It is strange phenomenon that migrant labour continues to pour into the rural areas. The rural economy of Punjab, due to wage gap, continues to attract huge amount of inflow of people from other poorer states of India. Rural-rural migration, which is largely seasonal and stay of workers in most cases, is less than six months. The majority of the migrants (more than 90 per cent) are able to find work in agriculture. It has wide ranging implications for the rural-rural migration and level of living of the families of the migrants.
Haas (2007)\textsuperscript{42} reviewed the empirical literature on the relationship between remittances and various dimensions of social development in the developing world within a broader conceptual framework of migration and development theory. Empirical and theoretical research highlights the heterogeneous nature of migration-remittance-development interactions. Notwithstanding the potential benefits for individuals, households and communities, migration and remittances cannot solve more structural development problems. If states fail to implement general social and economic reform, migration and remittances are unlikely to contribute to nationwide sustainable development. Migrants and remittances can neither be blamed for a lack of development nor be expected to trigger takeoff development in generally unattractive investment environments. Therefore, policies aimed at increasing people’s welfare, creating functioning markets, improving social security and public services are also likely to enhance the contribution that migration and remittances can make to social development.

The study by Brauw (2007)\textsuperscript{43} used instrumental variables techniques to explored the effects of seasonal migration on agricultural production in rural Vietnam during the 1990s. It also finds the migration that shapes agricultural production in several ways. Although there are no effects of migration on aggregate production, there is weak evidence that migrant households move somewhat out of rice production and into the production of other crops. Inputs used by migrant households also decrease relative to similar non-migrant households.
Mitra et al., (2008)\textsuperscript{44} analysed the district level rural to urban migration rates (both intra-state and the inter-state) among males and females separately. Both the rates are closely associated irrespective of whether the migrants originate from the rural areas within the state or outside the state. This would suggest that women usually migrate as accompanists of the males. Though many of the relatively poor and backward states actually show large population mobility, which is primarily in search of a livelihood, the mobility of male population is also seen to be prominent in the relatively advanced states like Maharashtra and Gujarat. Rapid migration of rural females within the boundaries of the states is, however, evident across most of the regions. The social networks, which play an important role in the context of migration are prevalent among the short distance migrants and tend to lose their significance with a rise in the distance between the place of origin and destination though there are some exceptions to this phenomenon. As regards the effect of factors at the place of destination, prospects for better job opportunities are a major determinant of male migration. Low castes and minority groups tend to pull migration through network effects. Among females also these effects are evident though with the inclusion of the male migration rate they become less significant.

Frank Ellis (1999)\textsuperscript{45} studied the livelihoods diversification as a survival strategy of rural household in developing countries and the status that diversity is closely allied to flexibility and stability of Natural capital, Human capital, Physical capital, Social capital and Financial capital. The paper suggests that practical
application of the sustainable livelihoods framework need to place diversity high on policy agenda and recognized the benefits of diversity.

Sunethra Thennakoon (2001) studied regional imbalances in socio-economic development and its impact on the imbalances are caused by the availability of livelihood assets, level of government development intervention and the variation in physical environment. The study is based on primary data collected from four villages in Sri Lanka with special emphasis on capital assets and strategies. The livelihood status of villages is summarized in terms of a pentagon depicting the five assets and marked differences were observed within and between villages. Villages those were highest status of livelihoods assets except natural and social. The study also highlights the implications for policy for sustainable livelihoods.

Leo J. de Haan (2002) studied globalization, localization and sustainable livelihood represented five vital capitals i.e. human, natural, physical, financial and social capital. Livelihood sustainable if it is capable of adequately satisfying self-defined needs and securing people against shocks and stresses put on capitals by structural factors. Livelihood strategies develop in ground of conflicting or co-operating actors. Because livelihood strategies are multiple, individuals may belong to different interest groups and therefore social inclusion and exclusion is never rigid. Globalization-localization has important consequences for livelihood. The importance of the international and the local level will increase to the detriment of the national level. On one hand, livelihood will become increasingly world wide and therefore
multi-local. The will become increasingly global and livelihood strategies will become more homogenous. On other hand, certain local characteristics of the arena remain or will even become more marked, and consequently livelihood strategies will need to become more specific too. Nevertheless, it is doubtful whether social exclusion will become a thing of the past. Therefore, global governance should have an important role in promoting sustainability of livelihoods. Global governance is explained as a global co-ordination by supra-regional and international governmental institutions of national governments balanced by an emerging international 'civil society'.

M. S. Swaminathan, (1994)\textsuperscript{48} pointed out the Gandhi concept of antyodaya provided a sarvodaya society characterized by social synergy without happens of individual economic development through opportunities.

Ian Scoones (2003)\textsuperscript{49} studied a framework for analysing sustainable livelihoods, in relation with five key indicators (natural, economic, human and social capitals) and it briefly considers some of the practical, methodological and operational implications of a sustainable livelihoods approach.

Gopinathan Nair et al., (2004)\textsuperscript{50} studied development effect on livelihoods strategies of Tribes communities – Irular, Mudugas and Kurumber in Attapady district, Kerala. The study indicates that perusal of the ownership possession of these assets indicate that development programmes not succeeded in building up the
minimum basic requirements of tribes folk. The study suggests that the tribes should have more access to education, health care facilities, Mid-day meals and also assistance to improve farm income and self employment opportunities to be created.

_Nair (2005)_\(^{51}\) studied the microfinance in India of women's Self Help Groups (SHGs). The study shows that SHGs groups collect savings from their members and provide loans to them. However, these groups also obtain loans from banks and on-lend them to their members. The findings suggest that federations could help SHGs become institutionally and financially sustainable because they provide the economies of scale that reduce transaction costs and make the provision of these services viable. But their sustainability is constrained by several factors—both internal, related to the federations themselves, and external, related to the other stakeholders.

_Raghav Gaiha and Arul Nandhi (2007)_\(^{52}\) have assesses the benefits of microfinance through self-help groups, based on a specially designed survey in selected villages in Pune district. While the benefits in terms of higher income, consumption, and savings matter for the poor, the focus here is broader, as an attempt is made to also assess some key dimensions of women's empowerment—defined broadly as expansion of freedom of choice and action to shape their own lives. While the targeting of microfinance through SHGs was unsatisfactory in terms of an income criterion, it was better in terms of other indicators of deprivation such as low caste, landlessness and illiteracy. What is, however, noteworthy is that the loans were used largely for health and education of children and for production-related expenses-
especially by the disadvantaged. Using different methods and data sources, various dimensions of empowerment were confirmed. Some of the mechanisms involved in it were identified and assessed. Not only do SHGs benefit from the presence of networks, the former also contribute to trust, reciprocity and associational capital (e.g. through strengthening of local institutions). Domestic violence was reduced. However, greater responsibilities for women also involved longer hours of work.

Tanya Jakimow (2007)\textsuperscript{53} explores two self-help group (SHG) programme in Tamil Nadu, India. Two types of claims are made about the benefits of self help programmes. The first one is that self-help participants more so than other externally directed or implemented programmes. The second less vocal claim is the compatibility of self-help with cost-reduction strategies: both in terms of material costs and costs to the prevailing social and economic structure. The study argues that although empowering outcomes are stated as the rationale for self-help, these are often neglected in favor of achieving cost-reduction ones. This is an outcome of the concept of self-help being absorbed into the practices and discourses of the dominant development paradigm. Self-help has thus been divorced from its role in enabling self-direction, and has become the rationale for pressuring the marginalized to take responsibility for improving their condition within a non-negotiable economic and social structure.
Berglund (2007)\textsuperscript{54} have studied microfinance and micro-credit practices in Andhra Pradesh. These practices target primarily women, who are encouraged to construct self-help-groups in order to have a social basis for raising collateral and for receiving financial services. Microfinance has been perceived by the public as inducing strong positive effects on women’s empowerment and as strengthening the democratic. From these standpoints, expansion and effects, it has been evaluated and analysed that microfinance can empower women and if empowered women can make a difference in women’s and societal issues.

Sanjeev Kapoor and Raj Kumar Ojha (2004)\textsuperscript{55} have studied the vulnerability in rural areas to a broad range of risks and crises that directly affect its livelihood. These risks directly affect the level and sources of income and productive assets of these households. The study aimed to identify the most common risks and crises that rural households face; ways and means of households’ response to such crises and risks; and potential demand for micro insurance in rural areas. Although the study identifies variety of risks and crises, which are faced by rural households in Uttar Pradesh, death, sickness, agriculture and livestock related shocks are ranked high not only in terms of financial pressure experienced by the poor, but also in terms of their frequency of occurrence. The study argues that there is clear demand for providing the poor with insurance services to help them better manage risk both ex ante and ex post. The lessons of micro credit products should be extended to insurance products also.
Ian Cherstoplos and John Farsington (2004)\textsuperscript{56} analysed the relevance of agriculture is extension of poverty and how far the system facilitates economic and social development among small and marginal farmers. It argues that official envelopment assistance should play one essential role not just in helping farmers’ research global market but also in addressing the issues related to the wider livelihoods of income households.

The study by Stephen Devereux \textit{et al.}, (2007)\textsuperscript{57} explored the nature of vulnerability such as agriculture vulnerability, economic vulnerability, monetary and subjective indicators of vulnerability in Malawi. Policy priorities derived from this analysis include: stabilise food prices, enhance access to agricultural inputs, and identify labour-saving technologies for labour-constrained households. More generally, social protection and livelihood promotion measures, together with an enabling environment, are central to addressing vulnerability in Malawi.

N. J. Kurian (1989)\textsuperscript{58} To issues which are being much debated today in the context of the Eighth Plan are decentralized planning and the involvement of panchayat raj bodies at various levels in the implementation of anti-poverty programmes. These are vital issues which can make a spectacular difference to the effectiveness of the anti-poverty programmes. The focus of this article is on the Integrated Rural Development Programme
A. N. Oza, (1988)\textsuperscript{59} this paper examines the Indian experience of developing entrepreneurship via the Integrated Entrepreneurship Development Programme (EDP). The author highlights the reasons for the low priority assigned to developing entrepreneurs during the first two decades of development planning, the problems of financing small industries which led to the introduction of EDPs in Gujarat in the 1970s and the extension of EDP activity in the country during the 1980s. The content of the generally accepted Integrated EDP is outlined. In addition, the problems facing EDP activity are discussed and remedial measures are outlined.

B. Bowonder et al., (1987)\textsuperscript{60} made a study on the impact of dairy development on nutrition and income has been a matter of great interest to policy-makers. The proponents of the dairy development programme feel that such activity does indeed raise the level of income and hence, the nutrition of the rural poor. As such the dairy development programme needs to be encouraged through positive government policy. In contrast its critics assert that spread of dairying in rural areas is leading to transfer of items of nutrition from the rural poor to the well-to-do in the urban areas. Even otherwise the contribution of dairy development programmes to incomes in rural areas is marginal. The study attempts to examine the following hypotheses: (i) Dairy development has positively contributed towards the improvement of the economic and nutritional status of the rural areas; (ii) The lower income groups in rural areas derived positive benefits from dairy development in terms of food intake and income; (iii) There has been a shortage of fodder in rural areas with dairy development
programmes because of lack of integration of dairy development with other economic activities needed to support dairying.

Bourdieu Pierre, (1986), studied the forms of capitals influenced by three fundamental capitals as economic, which is immediately and directly convertible in to money and may be institutionalized in the forms of property; cultural capital, which is convertible, on certain condition, in to economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of educational qualification. Social capital, made up of social oblications which is convertible, in certain condition, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of title of mobility.

Cultural capital can exist in three forms: in the embodied state, i.e., in the form of long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body; in the objectified state, in the form of cultural goods (pictures, books, dictionaries, instruments, machines, etc.), which are the trace or realization of theories or critiques of these theories, problematics, etc.; and in the institutionalized state, a form of objectification which must be set apart because, as will be seen in the case of educational qualifications, it confers entirely original properties on the cultural capital which it is presumed to guarantee.

Symbolic capital, that is to say, capital – in whatever form – insofar as it is represented, i.e., apprehended symbolically, in a relationship of knowledge or, more precisely, of misrecognition and recognition, presupposes the intervention of the habitus, as a socially constituted cognitive capacity
Sainath (1996), in his book which is a devastating portrait of how the Indian governments development policies have gone awry and are used entirely to promote rural journalism, so that people in the villages can tell their own unfiltered stories. His work which has been translated into three Indian languages as well as Swedish and Finnish, is now in its eighth printing. It remained the number one non-fiction bestseller by an Indian author for over two years. Covering India’s ten poorest districts, Sainath traversed close to a 100,000 kilometers. The author has received international recognition for this after he spent two and a half years bicycling through India’s poorest districts, filing reports about a class of people.

Conclusion

The reviews covered in the present studies are related to the social, economic and cultural aspects of rural livelihoods. The concept of sustainable agriculture and animal husbandry of social and food security system were predominantly in rural livelihoods. The analysis and understanding rural development processes in livelihoods, the processes involved in changes in rural livelihoods and wealth distribution among farm households are largely debuted in literature.

The studies also covered the links between migration and livelihoods, determinant factor of temporary out-migration in rural areas, the effects of seasonal migration on agricultural production in rural area and social exclusion and livelihoods approach of season migration. Further it covered the influence of migration in rural
households, rural to urban migration rates, foreign domestic workers’, conceptual framework of migration and development theory. The studies covered that the determinants of livelihood, livelihood practices, livelihood strategy, livelihood processes, livelihoods diversification and structural transformation in rural economy. It also covered the vulnerability in rural areas to a broad range of risks, crises lack of educations that directly affect its livelihood. The studies related to policies for sustainable agriculture and rural livelihoods, smallscale agriculture and forestry, the economic reforms programme, the microfinance and micro-credit practices in Self Help Groups in various settings, the benefits and function of self help programmes.
NOTES AND REFERENCES


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