

THE EVOLUTION OF CONCEPT OF POVERTY- AN EMPIRICAL DISCUSSION

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ABSTRACT:

India's national development goal, which aims to establish a just and equal society, is centered on the elimination of poverty, which has been a significant problem since independence. Since there aren't many resources available, accurately estimating poverty is the first step towards eliminating it as a fundamental contribution to the planning, execution, and oversight of anti-poverty initiatives. Measurement plays a crucial role in providing insight into the degree of strategy success for reducing poverty and promoting equitable growth. In this paper we study evolution of the concept of poverty as well as measurement of poverty in India. Here we focused various dimension of poverty in India. In this paper we collect all the information as well as data through secondary sources. No doubt various measurements of poverty as well as concept developed since independence but still more study is needed in the area of poverty to eradicate poverty from the society.

Key words: Poverty, measurement, evolution

INTRODUCTION:

Almost all nations throughout the world still struggle with poverty. Approximately 34% of the population of less developed nations (730 million), and 50% of South Asians Population (470 million) and 51% of people in low-income nations are struggling with poverty. However, poverty must persist at every level of economic progress since the process of development itself shows an improvement over unfavorable circumstances. Therefore, poverty is seen in the course of economic progress, either absolutely or comparatively. Indeed, poverty is what drives the cyclical development. Every corner of the third world is marked by a poverty status. Many issues, including poverty, unemployment, inequality, and underdevelopment, are present in less developed nations. Despite the fact that the issues vary from nation to nation, these are pretty universal curses for the growth of LDCs. The modern definition of LDC development relates to initiatives to eradicate poverty and establish distributive fairness. To create successful policies and programmes, one must first understand the different categories of poverty and their respective economic features. Without precise knowledge of the problem's location, scope, and characteristics, it cannot be immediately addressed. The degree of inequality and the average level of national income determine how severe and widespread poverty is in any given nation.

Identification of the poor is challenging because it is hard to define poverty in specific terms. A universal definition is also impossible due to the complexity of its several phases. Even yet, "The word "poor" describes a situation in which one has little or lack of funds, assets, or means of support ".

Generally speaking, poverty is a situation of both unfulfilled material and non-material needs. Poverty in India solely refers to the unmet desire for tangible goods. Non-material demands are either not regarded at all or are considered insufficiently. Another way to describe poverty is in absolute terms. In absolute terms, most of India's population is underprivileged. Contrary to absolute poverty, relative poverty is more a question of subjective characterization than of real circumstances. A person may have everything a typical human would have under such circumstances. Being needs: food, clothes, housing, and amusement, yet he can feel uncomfortable about his situation since he can't keep up with his neighbor. Therefore, status insecurity or relative deprivation are the main causes of relative poverty.

As a deprivation, poverty has some key characteristics. First and foremost, it is a lack of access to the fundamental essentials of existence, such as food, clothes, and housing, as well as other necessities like lack of access to education and intellectual stimulation, lack of access to culture and morality, also known as cultural poverty, etc. Then, the term "deprivation" refers to being denied something that one is legally entitled to, has a right to, or may obtain in order to live in reasonable comfort. Also, there are many levels of poverty, including the extremely poor, the very poor, and the poor. Lastly, deprivation incorporates its opposite, plenty, in that many people are denied their rights because others have more.

Relative poverty and the idea of inequality are strongly intertwined. There are two types of inequality measurements, objective and normative. The former uses statistical criteria to attempt to determine the total level of inequality, whereas the latter ties inequality to some normative idea of social welfare, such that a higher level of inequality equates to a lower level of wellbeing and vice versa.

Socio-economic system is also related to poverty, as Indian society not homogenous. Economic class and the institution of property are related. Land is the fundamental resource in rural societies. where large landowners, small landowners, and laborers who lack access to property are visible. Due to their understanding and vigilance in recognizing the government's plans, the large landowners are lucky enough to gain from the programmes of the government. If the wealthy dominate such programmes, they will not spread to the lowest social strata since they have no shared interest in them. The power or influence of various families active in various organizations is another factor in social stratification. The local panchayaths, where the wealthy once again predominate, are the key institutions that decide on different economic activity. The bulk of individuals lack all status and authority in society, whereas elites often control all economic, social, and political power. Therefore, the poor are not involved in decision-making.

Wealth assets and income are crucial economic elements. They mostly pertain to the ownership of tangible things, chances for earning money, and control over other resources. Poor individuals are those who lack such possibilities and things.

The connection between poverty and individual personalities has been studied by psychologists. Some people succeed in achieving economic strength against the backdrop of specific circumstances, while others do not; this could be because of psychological factors acting on the personalities, such as locus control, the need for accomplishment, the power motive, a willingness to change, leadership, cognitive

conditions, efficacy, attitudes, and rationality dimensions, among others. Additionally, poverty has numerous negative psychological impacts.

The causes of poverty may include ignorance and illiteracy. A person only becomes literate through the current school system, not professionals in any field of the economy. People are not prepared for productive job via education. Due to socioeconomic factors and the fact that the bulk of the population is illiterate, education is also not accessible to everyone. This leaves them out of the economic growth process.

The impoverished are chronically weak and ill because they lack access to regular nutrition, clean water, healthcare, shelter, and other amenities. Poor people who don't have enough calories to satisfy their physical and metabolic demands are trapped in a cycle of poverty.

Numerous factors determine poverty. This phenomenon has several dimensions. It is interconnected in several ways. As a result, it cannot be separated into different aspects. Some of the key factors of it are nutrition, basic necessities, economic inequality, education, health, and value systems.

EVOLUTION OF CONCEPT OF POVERTY

Given that poverty has multiple dimensions, it is actually very challenging to obtain a complete picture of its evolution. Economic factors cannot be applied to accurately define the idea. It is a statistical analysis and estimating task. As a result, the idea of poverty needs to be examined from a variety of multidisciplinary and interdependent perspectives, including macroeconomic and microeconomic ones. However, initiatives have been undertaken to advance India's understanding of poverty. The idea of poverty was developed by social scientists in a number of fields. Despite the fact that the notion is founded on the fields of food and medicine, social science literature has created the majority of the references.

Different social and religious organizations have voiced various perspectives on poverty at various eras. Speaking about the Vedic era, poverty has always been an issue for us and has been from that time. The issue of "general" poverty was ingrained in Indian society's framework. The "Rigvedic" culture (1500 B.C.) was predominantly tribal, pastoral, semi-nomadic, and egalitarian; it subsequently transitioned to an agricultural society (1100–600 B.C.). Due to the weak output of the ancient agriculture, the rulers were unable to receive a large recompense from the peasantry at the price of their own costs.

Hindu mythology and Upanishads state that the wealthy members of society should contribute to By donating to the needy and impoverished, you can end poverty. The idea was even used by the institution of sacrifice, known as "Yagna Sanstha," In other words, this serves as evidence that poverty has persisted until the twenty-first century, having been passed down from legendary times. Absolute poverty, relative deprivation, a lack of access to health care, and a population that was vulnerable to disease were the conditions mentioned above that prevailed at the time to death as a result of many illnesses.

The development of a modern social philosophy, economic system, and social services in the west was largely influenced by Christianity. Christ, the messiah of the poor, the ill, and the needy, gave his disciples the command to care for the needy and impoverished in order to get closer to them. The church institutionalized throughout time, and the priest took charge of overseeing the impoverished people's services.

The destitute have been the focus of all religious ideologies. All four major world religions—Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, and Islam—demanded that adherents give a portion of their earnings to the poor's welfare. The examination of poverty that was done previously underlines the fact that there existed income disparity in the era, which was reduced by religious preaching. Since there was no functioning government and the populace believed in God, they practiced religion. This informs us that poverty, both absolute and relative, does exist.

Some selected foreign approach

The majority of eminent international scholars have examined poverty in the context of the socioeconomic circumstances in place at the time of their research. The key approaches that solely advance the notion of poverty and not its assessment and quantification are listed below.

Charlas Booth (1902):

He attempted to establish the poverty line using the results of his door to door survey of East London. The first is Booth's. Poverty line as defined by science. However, Author Young coined the phrase "poverty line" for the first time to measure poverty in the 18th century. According to Charlas Booth, the poverty line is determined by income. The poverty line may be determined at the income level which "means may be sufficient but are barely for independent life". Accordingly, the poor are individuals who struggle to afford basic necessities and make ends meet. He also indicates where the extremely poor fall below the poverty line, defined as when they have insufficient resources compared to the average standard of living in the nation. The really impoverished experience constant hunger.

S.Rowntree (1899) (1941 Reprint) (1917) (1941):

The first British scholar, Rawntree, to define the poverty in the UK. He calculated the poverty threshold based on typical dietary needs for a five-person family. In order to determine the poverty level of a sample of poor families, Rawntree estimated the cost of their needs for food, clothing, and other items. He used this information to conclude that the families are poor if their earnings are insufficient to cover even the most basic requirements for maintaining only physical efficiency. He also distinguished between fundamental poverty and secondary poverty. Primary poverty is defined as the condition in which there is insufficient money in the household to pay for the absolute necessities, such as food, clothing, shelter, and warmth, while secondary poverty is the condition in which there is an inappropriate and inefficient use of the family's money, such as the husband's gambling or drinking habits or the housewives' lack of knowledge of housekeeping, which prevents them from purchasing the necessities for their survival.

Gabried K. (1962):

One of the western methodologies created expressly to gauge poverty is this one. The notion of Gabried's poverty line is referred to as the "fixed amount method," and it is based on the price of necessities like food, clothes, and housing for a minimal level of life. The poverty line level of life is the bare minimum.

Gunnar Myrdal (1968):

Myrdal emphasized the impact of poverty on how the government operates. He contends that an inefficient, unpredictable, and corrupt government is to blame for poverty. Such a kind of government may hinder economic progress. On the other side, inadequate or underfunded financial resources are another contributing factor to poverty. Because of this, the government is unable to hire excellent candidates with the necessary qualifications to promote policies and enforce discipline. These states are known as soft states.

J.J.Palen (1980):

Palen calculated the minimal quality of life using a number of factors, including the nutritional need, social security, modern conveniences, etc. His study, which uses a more scientific methodology known as the poverty index, is well recognized. A family's size, sex, age, head of household, number of dependents, and other factors are taken into account when creating an index, including whether the families are urban or rural. To calculate the minimal level of life, he proposed a variety of indexes.

Harry Johnson:

Harry Johnson defined poverty in terms of a family's or person's level of life. In light of this, regardless of the means at their disposal, the individual or family are required to maintain a minimum socially acceptable level of life. However, in order to maintain an acceptable level of life, a certain quantity of resources must be taken into account. Families or individuals who lack the means necessary to maintain a quality of life that is considered to be socially acceptable may be referred to as being in poverty.

Morris and Alpin (1982)

The Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI) is an alternative way for calculating poverty levels. It gauges literacy levels, infant mortality rates, and average life expectancy. Each indicator for each country is given a score between 0 and 100, with 0 (zero) being the ultimate poorest performance and 100 denoting the very greatest performance. Social interactions, dietary state, general health, and family environments are all impacted by these factors. Changes in life and death patterns are impacted by changes in calories. This definition solely refers to PQLI, or fundamental necessities of life. It has not made any effort to take the demands highlighted by quality of life into consideration.

United Nation:

Fundamentally, poverty violates people's dignity by denying them options and chances. It denotes a basic inability to contribute to society in a meaningful way. It entails not having enough to feed and clothe a family, access to credit, a place to attend a clinic or school, a plot of land to raise one's own food, or a job to support oneself. It entails uncertainty, helplessness, and isolation of people, homes, and communities. It denotes a propensity for aggression and frequently suggests living in unsafe or unstable situations without access to sanitary facilities.

World Bank:

Poverty has various aspects and is clearly a lack of well-being. Low salaries and the inability to obtain the fundamental commodities and services required for humane survival are examples of this. Low levels of health and education, inadequate physical security, lack of voice, and a lack of opportunities to improve one's situation are all included in the definition of poverty.

A summary poverty statistic for a certain population is calculated using a variety of factors by Multidimensional Poverty Indices; a greater number denotes a higher level of poverty. The Oxford Poverty & Human Development Initiative (OPHI) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) created the Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) in 2010. It uses health, education, and standard of living indicators to assess the prevalence and severity of poverty faced by a population. Since then, it has been used to gauge extreme poverty in more than 100 developing nations. The Global MPI is published on the websites of UNDP and OPHI each year, along with the findings. The Human Development Report includes both the MPI and the Human Development Index (HDI).

Table 1: Dimension of Multidimensional Poverty Index

Dimension	Indicators	Deprivation Cutoffs
Health	Child mortality	Deprived if a child under the age of 18 years has died in the family In the five years preceding the survey.
	Nutrition	Deprived if any adult or child, for whom there is nutritional information, is undernourished.
Education	Years of schooling	Deprived if no household member has completed six years of schooling.
	School attendance	No household member aged 'school entrance age + six' years or older has completed six years of schooling.
Standard of living	Cooking fuel	Deprived if the household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal.
	Sanitation	Deprived if the household's sanitation facility is either not improved (according to MDG guidelines), is shared with other households. or both.
	Drinking water	Deprived if the household does not have access to improved drinking water (according to MDG guidelines) or improved drinking water is more than a 30-minute walk from home round trip.
	Electricity	Deprived if the household has no electricity.
	Housing	Deprived if at least one of the three housing materials for roof, walls and floor are inadequate: the floor is of natural materials and/or the roof and/or walls are of natural or rudimentary materials.

	Assets	Deprived if the household does not own more than one of these assets: radio, TV, telephone, computer, animal cart, bicycle, motorbike or refrigerator and does not own a car or truck.
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Source: Berenger, V. (2016). "Measuring Multidimensional Poverty in Three South East Asian Countries using Ordinal Variables". ADBI Working Paper Series. 618.

To define the poverty line, Booth, Gabriel, and Kristel have made attempts. In reality, because it establishes the cut off point, it is feasible to define the poverty line in relative terms. Instead of being a qualitative idea, cut off point is essentially a quantitative one. These three academics agree on how to define the phrase "poverty line." The only distinction between Gabriel and Kristel is that. Gabriel used the Fixed Amount Approach, whereas the latter used the Fixed Percentage Approach to quantify the idea of poverty.

Rein, Miller, and Roby have used poverty as a direct result of inequality as the foundation. According to Townsend, the foundation of poverty is relative deprivation. Similar to how Miller and Roby examined PCI of the lowest individuals, Rein stressed the basic requirements of a man to retain health and functioning capabilities. Thus, this is where the Rein and Miller and Roby diverge.

Rowntree, Paien, and Orshanky have defined poverty in terms of absolute minimums for basic needs, natural requirements, and food expenditure. In actuality, the condition that follows from relative estimating is absolute estimation. The determination of minimal or natural requirements is quite challenging. Natural or minimal needs refer to the fact that the necessities are widely distributed across the population. We try to establish the minimal need based on this. As a consequence, the relative estimation of the measurement of inequality's resulting state is the absolute estimation. Lewis and Johnson have differing perspectives on how to conceptualise poverty.

Indian approach of poverty

Following a study of a few key and fundamental Western ideas of poverty, we will now go on to a review of studies on Indian poverty. In essence, the mental foundation for the idea of poverty was laid in the 19th century. Social scientists that have been around for a while have made significant contributions to the fundamental notion of the concept of poverty, either in the form of causes of poverty or in the form of impacts of poverty.

Here first, we'll look at the opinions on the idea of Indian poverty at the time of British India that Karl Marx, Dadabhai Nauroji, R.C. Desai, V.K.R.V. Rao, W.H. Moreland, Banerjee, etc. articulated during. Karl Marx argued that exploitation essentially results in poverty. Karl Marx said in his essay for the "New York Daily Tribune" that "the immense wealth extorted and conveyed to England" were "the direct exploitation of that nation (India)." Huge quantities of raw materials were gathered in India during the colonial era and brought to England for use in their industries; the finished goods were then sent back to India as imports under the British administration in India.

Dadabhai Nauroji observed that a tremendous amount of produce was exported to England, which was cited as the cause of India's poverty. The excess of exports over imports was the source of this outflow. England maintained the extra perks for its own gain. The commercial and land policies also had a negative impact on Indian circumstances, which tended to encourage the exploitation of Indians. Dadabhai's analysis was the first effort which explored the fact that poverty was due to the British rule

in India.

As a scholar and official in the Indian Civil Service, R.C.Dutt emphasized that under British rule in India, there was a significant degree of disparity in the ownership of land as well as greater taxes on agriculture. India experienced prolonged poverty as a result of unfavorable trade and land laws.

In terms of peasant society and non-peasant society, Tarlok Singh discussed poverty. The wealthier peasantry constantly denigrated, depressed, and* exploited the less fortunate members of the peasantry. Exorbitant rent was demanded from the renters at will. The victims of this abject poverty were the villages and the workers. Therefore, social structure and unhealthy relationships between the peasant and non-peasant classes of society were to blame for poverty.

With reference to this, it is generally agreed upon that colonial authority in India was responsible for the imbalances in the macroeconomic variables. Foreign trade imbalances were brought about by British policy toward India. A void in India's economic development was caused by the export of its raw materials. The colonial regime was to blame for the unemployment, resource waste, and over exploitation of development potentials.

The degree of fundamental necessities that are necessary for human existence or survival have been assessed by certain prominent researchers. They discussed the level of life to explain poverty. D.H.Moreland, R.C.Desai and Dr.Banerjee etc. had observed the poverty in India during the British rule was because of lack of basic necessities and low standard of living.

Moreland defined impoverished families as those that lacked adequate shelter, furnishings, and food. He also noted that the ordinary Indian peasant's nutrition was far inferior to that of Europe. Moreland highlighted the importance of meeting basic necessities and contrasted the standard of living between Europeans and Indians.

R.C. Desai defined poverty as not having access to necessities like food, shelter, and other necessities. He too contrasted India's consuming habits with those of England. India therefore spent twice as much on food goods as England did.

Dr. Banerjee has previously discussed poverty in terms of a lack of necessities. In light of this, owing to a shortage of nourishment and basic necessities, a huge percentage of Indians were afflicted with different ailments. Due to the drought and failed crops, they had no reserves. As a result, age after generation saw an increase in the physical degeneration of the populace. Strength and stamina were diminished as a result of physical frailty. In this group of analyses, it is found that a lack of food and other basic necessities of life causes poverty. The biological needs of the human being are the necessities of life.

Because of the significant changes in development philosophy and the definition of poverty since independence, the prior analysis of the literature study on poverty under British rule is no longer valid. Most famous researchers attempted to determine the poverty line in the 1950s using national income and PCI as the sole standards acceptable to gauge the degree of progress. Later, the notion of gauging poverty as a function of national income was abandoned as a tool for doing so. Many scientists and institutes have produced various notions. In general, the definition of poverty may be based on three norms: the income norm, consumption norm, and calorie norm. The physical quality of life index has recently been

embraced as a way to evaluate life satisfaction. This indicates that one key standard for diagnosing development is the quality of life. The poverty and development indicators provided by the economy are insufficient.

Income Approach:

Income is a compensation for any labour put in throughout the producing process. To meet all of a person's needs, they must earn a certain minimum quantity of money. Any inability to get the necessary revenue to satisfy necessities may be categorized as impoverished. Similar to this, a household is said to as miserly if it lacks a specific standard of basic comforts, regardless of its wealth. A person who has an acceptable salary but declines to use some basic facilities while having the means to do so is not considered poor by conventional standards since he has an appropriate income.

The income method takes into consideration several forms of income, such as national income, per capita income, personal income, disposable income standards, etc. when measuring poverty. These are the several categories of national revenue. A different way to examine the problem is through income inequality. When income is much below the necessary level, it is referred to as being poor or in poverty. The per capita GNP is frequently used as a quick indicator of the population's relative economic well-being. The most popular way for determining the general state of economic progress is to utilize the GNP itself. A typical standard of life is shown by PCI. Average income does not indicate the extent of poverty. The idea of inequity has therefore been formed. The incidence of poverty will increase with increasing income inequality for any given amount of per capita national income. Similar to this, for every given distribution, a higher incidence of poverty is shown the lower the average level of income.

An average per capita income has also been employed as a standard by several researchers and organisations, including Dandekar and Rath, B.S.Minhas, Balakrishnan, M. Zaheer, and IRDP, to define the poor. They took into account the base level of income or expenses for each individual.

The cut-off points and the poverty line have been determined by all of the aforementioned researchers. At prices from 1960–1961, Dandekar and Rath suggest Rs. 180 as the cutoff point income or consumer expenditure. According to B.S. Minhas, the poverty line income during the years from 1956 to 1967 was Rs. 200. According to the per capita income for the years 1968–1969 to 1973–1974 M. Zaheer also defined poverty. Balakrishnan evaluated poverty for the years 1974–1975 to 1977–1978 using the same number as Dandekar and Rath.

Few academics and organisations have taken household income into account when calculating the poverty line or classifying the poor. The household income criterion have been applied by J.P. Narayan, F.H. Hydall, K.R. Randive, and Seventh Plan. Poverty is defined as a family's household income falling below a particular threshold.

Additionally, the income inequality standard has been mentioned by several writers and organisations. Analysis of income inequality shows the size of the population's lower and upper income classes. Using empirical evidence, some research have highlighted how severe inequality is. Personal income distribution inequality demonstrates poverty and the evolution of the income distribution pattern through time. In this regard, contributions have been made by F.H. Lydall, RBI, Iyenger, Mukherji, Mahfooz Ahemad, Ojha, and Bhatt, S.S. Madalgi. Numerous quantitative techniques, including range, relative mean deviation, variation and coefficient variation, standard deviation of logarithms, gini coefficient, lorenz curve, Theil's Entrophy measure, Dalton's measure, Atkinson's measure, head count measure, and

income gap ,etc. have been used to explain inequality. Some writers used statistical methods to quantify inequality. Due to the scholars' adoption of various techniques to measure the disparity, automatically, their estimated numbers differ. The accompanying chapters provide a thorough explanation of this. The majority of academics have analysed the NSS and C.S.O. data as their primary sources. Additionally, in order to quantify inequality, every scholar has adhered to standards like disposable income, personal income, saving money, family income, and household income. These are all the many elements of the revenue strategy.

Consumption expenditure norm

Compared to the PCI method, consumption expenditure is thought to be a more relevant indicator of poverty. The cost of consuming determines a person's or a family's level of living. The family's expenses are covered by cash flow or borrowings. The minimal requirements of a household can be understood based on consumption spending. Spending on consumption is the real money used to purchase and consume goods and services. Men's demands are frequently described in terms of a meal basket that meets specific calorie requirements. To reach a consumption basket, a minimum level of income or consumption expenditure is required.

The 15th Labour Conference (1957) looked at the costs of meeting the absolute necessities, which are determined by necessity. The conference's resolution states that it must address the human needs of industrial employees. The conference took into account a family's needs for food, clothes, shelter, fuel, and lights. The industrial employees were subjected to this standard. The poverty line has been assessed and estimated based on the demands of employees residing in different industrial sites. Later, the issue of the minimal needs cutoff point was addressed.

The Planning Commission formed the Study Group in 1962 to provide recommendations about the individual's minimal requirements. The study group focused on the absolute necessities of existence and left out health and education because these are given by the state for free. Therefore, calculating the entire consumption expenditure is not required. The Group determined Rs. 20 as the ceiling price in 1960–1961 pricing.

B.S.Minhas lessened the cut off point determined by the Study Group. He measured the cut-off point for the rural people and estimated the population below poverty line.

According to Dandekar and Rath, India's poverty issue is a result of a low national income and its unequal distribution. Based on the number of calories needed for a man to live a healthy life in both urban and rural settings, they computed the consumption expenditure. They assessed the number of people living below the poverty line using NSS data on consumption expenditures on foodgrains and other subsistences in 1988.

P.K. Bardhan calculated the proportion of people living below the poverty line using a cut-off point akin to those proposed by Dandekar and Rath. Bardhan calculated the poverty rate for several years. His assessment is described in later chapters.

A. Vaidyanathan employed a cutoff threshold that was comparable to the one adopted by the Planning Commission Study Group. In order to determine the population that is below the poverty line, he used

information from the NSS and Official National Income series. For various years, Montek Ahluwalia conducted research on the prevalence and trends of rural poverty in India through The World Bank's Development Research Centre. Ahluwalia set the cutoff point in this passage for both urban and rural regions. In comparison to rural places, he advised a somewhat higher cut-off point for metropolitan areas.

Using the calorie standard and per capita consumer expenditure, P.D. Ojha examined poverty. Using the NSS data, he took into account both food and non-food products for rural and urban locations.

The poverty line was established in the Fifth Five Year Plan Document using consumption expenditures. It determined the cut-off point and took into account the monthly per capita consumption spending. With the assistance of a predetermined cut-off point, the prevalence of poverty has been calculated.

For the purpose of determining the augmented poverty line, the Seventh Finance Commission used the NSS household consumption expenditure data and added the public spending benefit to the private consumption expenditure norm. Each state government allocates funds under the following heads of spending: health and family planning, water supply, sanitation, education, administration, roads, and social welfare, in addition to the per capita monthly public expenditure standard.

In the Eighth Five Year Plan, the poverty line was likewise set and established using interstate inequalities in consumer spending. A group of experts has also been formed by the Eighth Five Year Plan to explore the problems associated with the definition and assessment of poverty. On 24-7-93, the Expert Group on Estimating the Proportion and Number of the Poor submitted its findings. In September 1989, the Planning Commission established the group (D.T. Lakudawala as Chairman). Accordingly, the Task Force on Projections of Minimum Needs and Effective Consumption Demand's suggestions were used by the Planning Commission to estimate the proportion of the impoverished in rural and urban India separately at the national and state levels (1979). These estimates have been released for the year 1972- 73, 1977-78, 1983-84 and 1987-88. NSSO, Study Group of Planning Commission, , Vaidhanathan, IIPPO and 5th and 8th Plans have actually emphasized the consumption expenditure as an effective way to identify the poverty.

Darkak Lal The similar approach used by Dandekar ad Rath and Bardhan has been used by Rajakrishan. In an effort to determine the poverty level, P.K. Per capita consumption spending has been implemented by Vyas. The prevalence of poverty in rural and urban areas was assessed by Ahuliwalia. De Costa divided the spending on consuming into three rings. However, in 1989, Dutta and Ravallion introduced the poverty gap and poverty line.

Calorie intake norm

Food typically consists of carbs, lipids, and proteins. Food is necessary for human survival. The body is fed by food. Choosing the right foods keeps one healthy. Strength, endurance, and effectiveness are all intimately associated with good health. In food contents, nutritional balance comes as standard. Food functioning in the body is what is meant by the term nutrition. The body need nutrients in enough levels in order to develop, reproduce, and live a normal, healthy life. Nutrients are dietary ingredients. Water, proteins, lipids, carbs, minerals, and vitamins are all examples of nutrients. A supply of important nutrients that is in the right proportions is what is meant by adequate, ideal, and good nutrition.

A daily energy expenditure of 3200 calories for the reference man and 2300 calories for the reference woman was recommended by the First and Second FAO Committees on these needs. For the reference man and woman, these numbers were decreased by 3000 and 2200 calories, respectively, in the Third

FAO Committee report, which was published in 1973 and whose findings are still considered authoritative. Malnutrition has been quantified in several nations throughout the world using this cut-off threshold. World Bank (1979) used the distribution of calorie consumption to quantify malnutrition in several nations.

The recommended threshold for caloric intake was put out by Dandekar and Rath in 1971. They asserted that the Indian population needs no more than 225 calories per day. On the basis of calorie intake, they evaluated the consumption expenditure. However, calorie intake and consumption expenditure vary from state to state, according to Dandekar and Rath. Cut-off point has been used to describe poverty below the poverty level.

Sukhatme proposed 2200 calories per person per day as the population cutoff for India. Poor people are those whose energy expenditure falls below this threshold and cannot support the required caloric intake. Sukhatme calculated the calorie deficit based on how people distribute their intake and spending.

By defining poverty in terms of a healthy diet and a respectable level of living, V.K.R.V. Rao. explain a lack in the overall standard of life. Additionally, the entire standard of life takes into account not just the energy needed, but also the need of a healthy food. And for human existence to be bearable, other elements of fundamental necessities are also necessary. The most recent FAO recommendation of 2300 calories per day per person (consumer) was endorsed by Dr. Rao. He calculated the cutoff threshold using household consumption expenditures, and he described the range of calorie intake using the average consumed by families.

P.D. Ojha calculated poverty using the average daily caloric intake. He agreed and endorsed 2250 calories per day as a minimum need for an ordinary Indian. He has also highlighted the food grain requirements in terms of calorie consumption. This was calculated to be the equivalent of 518 grams of cereal grains per day for rural people and 432 grams per day for an average urban individual.

According to the guidelines of the dietary needs of 2400 calories for rural regions and 2100 calories for urban areas, the Sixth Plan establishes the poverty level. The poverty line was calculated based on consumer expenditure, which was used to determine the cutoff point. The nutritional needs were calculated using age-, sex-, and activity-specific considerations, among other recommendations made by the nutrition expert group in 1958.

Numerous writers have put forth various calorie estimates. The varying calorie intake is a result of the various methodologies used up to this point. As a result, the evaluation of poverty differs. The idea of poverty in terms of inadequate nourishment solely considers a person's biological requirements. But it should be highlighted that, in addition to the biological requirements for food, water, and shelter, clothes, and shelter, education also play a crucial role.

Besides this three norms some others norms also used, which are

Minimum needs norm

The term "minimal requirements norm" describes the facilities needed by a person to live a healthy, productive existence. This method of defining poverty was given particular consideration by D.R. Gadgil, Amartya Sen, R.R. Singh, and the Fifth Plan.

According to D.R. Gadgil, a level of life below a specific threshold qualifies as being poor. Some tangible and intangible commodities and services are necessary to sustain a minimal quality of living. However, if a person or family cannot meet those basic demands, it is considered that they are poor.

According to R.R. Singh, the bare necessities for leading a healthy life in a certain social setting are thought to have been met. However, a person is considered to be in extreme poverty if he or she is unable to fulfil even his or her most basic needs. Additionally, he provided a relative definition of poverty. Some people have access to more products and services than others. The definition of poverty and the poverty line can also be determined using an inequality of income and wealth norm.

Amritya Sen used the terms "nutritional poverty line" and "cultural poverty line" to describe poverty. The former refers to those who are malnourished and the latter to a level of money sufficient to abide by what Adam Smith called the "established law of decency." Amritya Sen examined poverty in light of Adam Smith's widely accepted standards of decency. In terms of elementary, secondary, and tertiary needs, he described poverty. It met all requirements, both material and immaterial. Society is impacted by these needs not being met.

The Fifth Five Year Plan's blueprint took into account the minimal requirements for the country. The provision of drinking water, housing sites for the homeless, village roads, primary education for rural poor people, health services, expanding rural electrification, slum environmental improvements, nutrition for the undernourished, adult education, domestic cooking energy, rural sanitation, public distribution system, etc. are all included in the list of national minimum needs. The necessities for a decent existence are all covered by the minimal requirements. In reality, the family's access to essential amenities and services determines the level of life as much as their money does. The Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Plans have merely examined the fundamental needs of society. However, the Fifth Plan did not examine how poverty affects society

Distribution of Land Holdings, Assets, Structure of the society, Famine, Draught and Poverty:

In rural areas, the size of the land that a household owns and manages has a significant role in determining the level of income. Disparities in land ownership already exist. NSS 61 emphasises the information on land ownership. Marginal and tiny farmers are classified as impoverished based on their landholdings. The Ministry of Agriculture's publications Agricultural Situation in India (1981) and Agricultural Statistics at a Glance (1990) both explain the pattern of disequilibrium of operational land holdings.

The scenario of asset ownership in India has been described in the sixth five-year plan. In reality, the families are classified as poor in the Draft Sixth Five Year Plan if the value of their assets was less than Rs. 1000 per year in 1961 or increased to Rs. 2500 per year in 1971. Since independence, there has been a rise in the proportion of these households. The study also notes that a significant section of the population continued to live in poverty due to a lack of resources like land, agriculture equipment, animals, etc.

R. Mukherjee examined the poverty group in light of Indian society's economic structure. He determined what was considered to be below the poverty line by taking into account the socioeconomic groups.

According to Mukherjee, landless labourers and impoverished farmers of different sorts who simply lack a clearly defined occupation—such as many tribals and harijans—stand at the lowest strata of society and are typically destitute.

Estimate of poverty in India:

Estimate of poverty on the basis of income approach:

Similar to B.S.Minhas, M. Zaheer adopted Rs. 200 per person per year at 1960–1961 prices as the poverty line threshold. For the years 1968–1969 through 1972–1973, Zaheer calculated the poverty rate as

Table 2: Rural Population below the Poverty Line

YEAR	No. of poor(In millions)	IORP %
1974-75	232	50.1
1975-76	252	47.7
1976-77	216	45.2
1977-78	211	43.5

Source : M.Zaheer 1976

Table 3: Population below poverty line (1968-1973)

Year	Population below Poverty line (in millions)	Per cent to total population
1968-69	166	38.6
1969-70	161	36.7
1970-71	159	36.3
1971-72	161	36
1972-73	171	37.6

Source: S. Balkrishan 1981

Balkrishan (1981) estimated the poverty on the basis of Rs. 180, as cut-off point of PCI which was recommended by Dandekar and Rath at 1960-61 prices. Applying the incidence of rural poverty (IORP) percentages to this base, the number of rural poor-Rural Population below the Poverty Line

Another estimate made by B.S. Minhas on the basis of NSS data revealed that if one regards the level of

per capita annual consumption expenditure of Rs. 240 as the bare minimum, then 50.6 percent of the population lived below poverty line in 1967-68. During the period 1956-57 and 1967-68, the proportion below the poverty line among the rural poor seems to have fallen in good harvest years but shot up again

in bad harvest years. However, there has been a steady decline in the proportion of below poverty line i.e. from 65 percent in the 1956 to 50.6 percent in 1967-68. In other words 210 million people in rural areas in 1967-68 and the corresponding number in the earlier years varied between 206 and 221 million. [Source :B.S.Minhas, Planning and Poor (1970)]

Mr. P.D. Ojha estimated the number of persons below the poverty line on the basis of an average calorie intake of 2,250 per capita per day. This entailed monthly per capita consumption expenditure of Rs.15-18(1960-61 prices) in urban areas and Rs. 8-11 in rural areas. On basis Ojha estimated that 184 million persons in rural areas [51.8 percent of total rural population] and 6 million persons in the urban areas[7.6 percent of urban population] lived below the poverty line. For the country as a whole 190 million persons could be classed as poor in 1960-61. For 1967-68, Ojha, estimated that 289 million persons[70 percent of total population] lived below poverty line. So Ojha concluded that nutritional deficiency is more in rural areas than the urban areas.

At prices from 1960–1961, Dr. V.M. Dandekar and Mr. Nilkanththa Rath raised the minimum percentage requirements for rural and urban areas to Rs. 180 and Rs. 270, respectively. According to these cut-off values, it was projected that in 1960–1961, 40% of the rural population and 50% of the urban population, respectively, lived below the ideal minimum cut-off point. They have calculated the comparable prices for rural and urban locations in 1968-69. Accordingly, the cutoff criterion for consumer spending per capita per year is set at Rs. 324 for rural areas and Rs. 486 for urban areas. On the basis of these cut-off points they have estimated that, in 1968-69, about 40 per cent of rural population (i.e. 166 million) and 50 per cent of urban population (i.e. 49 million) was living below the poverty line.

Bardhan worked out on the estimation of below poverty line on the basis of Rs.180 as annual per capita expenditure at 1960-61 prices. Bardhan estimated the extent of poverty in increasing since 1960-61.

Table 4: Poverty Line estimate by Bardhan

Year	Percentage of poor in rural population	Consumer price index	Current Value of goods worth Rs.15 (per month) at 1960-61 prices.
1960-61	38	100	15
1964-65	45	144	21.6
1967-68	53	200	30
1968-69	54	196	29.4

Source : P.K.Bardhan (1970)

In the years 1960–1961 through 1968–1969, poverty was seen to have risen. This demonstrates the prevalence of poverty at a high level. On the contrary, Minhas projected a decrease in the number of people living in poverty. This controversy is intriguing.

From 1956–1957 through 1973–1974, Montek Ahluwalia researched the trends in the prevalence of rural poverty in India. He applied the same definition of the poverty line, which was set at Rs. 15 per person in rural regions and Rs. 20 per person in urban areas in 1960–1961. The most significant aspect of Ahluwalia's analysis is the obvious change in the incidence or degree of rural poverty over time. The percentage of rural poverty first decreased from over 50% in the mid-1950s to around 40% in 1960–1961, but dramatically increased through the mid-1960s, peaking in 1967–1968. In the years 1967–1968, almost 235 million people were considered to be poor.

The Sixth Plan had 5 designated the poverty class in order to end poverty. The poor were divided into three groups by the IRDP, according to their annual per capita income: (a) up to Rs. 300; (b) between Rs. 301 and Rs. 500; and (c) between Rs. 501 and Rs. 700. The first category is referred to as being extremely poor, the second as being very poor, and the third as being in the poor class.

Table 5: IRDP Estimate of the Rural Poor

Category	Million	Percentage to total
Very very poor	21.85	8.6
Very poor	108.23	42.8
Poor	122.75	48.6
Total	252.00	100

Source : Prasad Kamat, Planning for Poverty, Alleviation.

Table shows that, nearly 48 per cent people were belonging to the poor class in 1977-78. This classification gives the incidence of the poverty in rural India.

The Fifth Plan took into account a consumption threshold of Rs. 40.6 per person per month. According to this cutoff point, it has been calculated that in 1972–1973, 33% of the population, or close to 77 million people, were living in poverty.

The Dandekar and Rath standard was adopted by the Seventh Finance Commission, which also incorporated governmental spending to individual consumer spending to determine an increased poverty threshold. The poverty level was calculated by the Finance Commission in 1970–1971 using the increased poverty line. Accordingly, 277 million people, or approximately 52% of the entire population, lived below the poverty line in 1970–1971; of them, 225 million people resided in rural regions and 52 million people lived in cities.

The level of poverty has been calculated for the years 1972–1973 and 1977–1978 based on the Sixth Plan's cutoff point. The Task Force established cut-off points based on forecasts of Minimum Needs and Effective Consumption Demand based on calories of 2400 and 2100 for rural and urban regions, respectively. For rural and urban regions, respectively, the monthly mid-point expenditure is determined at Rs. 76 and Rs. 88 at 1979–1980 rates.

According to the Seventh Five Year Plan, the poverty line is projected to be Rs. 49.09 per person per month at 1973-74 prices, which equates to the daily calorie needs of 2400 calories in rural regions and Rs. 5.66 for 2100 calories in urban areas. For 1983–1984, poverty was calculated (Provisional). As a result, about 37% of the population spent the year living below the poverty level.

The Task Force's 1979 recommendations were carried out by the Expert Group in 1989. As a result, the poverty line has been established as the amount of per capita consumption expenditure at which, based on the behaviours noted in the NSS consumption survey conducted in 1973–1974, the average calorie intake has been determined to be 2400 for rural areas and 2100 for urban areas. In order to account for variations in pricing throughout all of India, poverty lines calculated at 1973–1974 prices were translated to those at current values in a particular year. For both rural and urban regions, the Task Force's suggested poverty line, at 1973–1974 prices, is set at Rs. 49 and Rs. 57, respectively. The Pinning Commission's procedural work, new consumer price indices, and uncorrected NSS distribution were used by the Expert Group on Poverty Estimation-1993 to estimate the incidence of poverty for all of rural India. The Expert Group calculated the last portion of the data based on the head count ratio, which shows that there has been a little drop in the number of people living in poverty, from 311 million in 1973–1974 (the 28th NSS cycle) to 302 million in 1987–1988. (43rd NSS round).

Using NSS data, World Bank employee Gaurav Datt studied poverty in India from 1951 to 1992. The nutritional norm per capita daily consumption in urban regions is 2100 calories, whereas it is 2400 calories in rural areas. At 1973–1974 prices, this suggests that the per capita monthly expenditure for the rural poverty level is Rs. 49 and the urban poverty line is Rs. 57. The study finds that the national head count ratio decreased from 53 percent to 38 percent using the consumer price index for industrial employees and agricultural workers for all of India over the survey period. Rural poverty decreased from 55% to 39% during this time, while urban poverty decreased from 43% to 33%.

The Suresh Tendulkar-led Tendulkar Committee (2009) made suggestions regarding a move away from calorie-based poverty measurement, A standard poverty line basket (PLB) for all of India, correction of geographical and temporal problems with the price adjustment process, and inclusion of private spending on health and education for calculating poverty. Instead of using the Universal Reference Period as previous committees had done, the committee chose the Mixed Reference Period. Using this criteria, the committee determined that the poverty line for urban areas was Rs. 578.80 per capita per month in 2004–2005 and Rs. 446.68 per capita per month in rural regions. In 2009-2010 it was Rs. 859.6 in urban areas while it was Rs.672.8 in rural areas. In 2010-2011 it was Rs. 1000 for urban and Rs. 816 for rural areas

Planning commission created a new panel on poverty estimation 2012 lead by C Rangarajan known as C Rangarajan committee would suggested that

1. Provide an alternate method to identify poverty levels
2. Examine divergences between the consumption data provided by the NSSO and the National Accounts aggregates
3. Review of international poverty estimation methods
4. Recommend how these methods can be linked to eligibility for various poverty elimination schemes created by the government of India

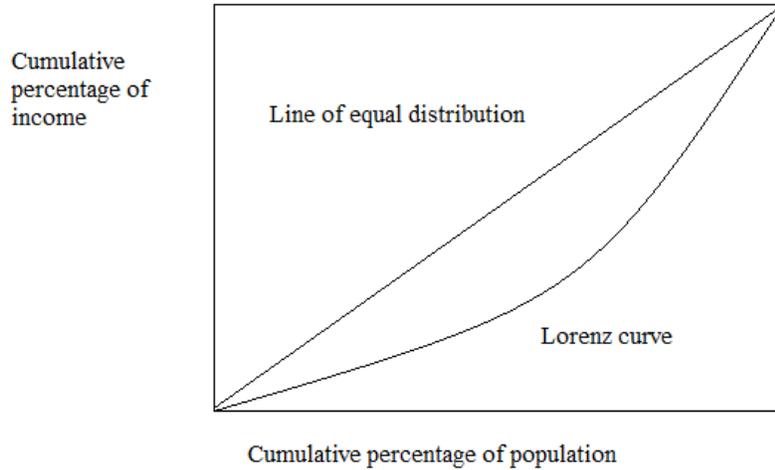
The committee's final report for 2014 was submitted. The Tendulkar Committee's assessment of India's poverty level was rejected in the report. According to the research, that number was 29.5% of the population in 2011–2012, or three out of every ten persons in India.

SOME OTHER STATISTICAL MEASURES TO CALCULATE POVERTY

These historical studies show how pronounced the income disparities were in the nation. Due to variances in the methods used to compute the data, these estimates are not identical to one another. The poorest 20% of the population, for example, had a low proportion of income when using the same estimates. In contrast, the wealthiest 20% of the population had about 50% of the income, showing a severe concentration of wealth at the top. Such disparities cause relative impoverishment. Both urban and rural regions exhibit disparity, and as a result, the populace is living in poverty. The level of the poverty line was not determined by the inequality research. Consequently, it is challenging to gauge poverty just by the analysis of inequality of income. Poverty is more than the mere meaning of the inequality. To quantify the inequality, certain mathematical and statistical methods have been employed. Prof. Sen has employed the Head Count ratio and the poverty gap or income gap ratio as two different measurement methods. On the one hand, there are measures that are objective in the sense that they typically use statistical measures of relative variation in income. Examples of these statistical measures include range, relative mean deviation, variation, coefficient of variation, Gini coefficient, Sen's index of poverty (Ps), etc.

- Lorenz Curve: The Lorenz curve, where x ranges from 0 to 100, displays the percentage of income that the poorest x percent of the population receives. In the Lorenz curve, the size of the items and their frequencies are both cumulated, and the different cumulated values are computed by taking the sum as 100 %. The points would be on a straight line if the frequencies throughout the range of values of a variate were distributed proportionately equally. The curve would be away from the line of equal distribution if the distribution of the items is not proportionately equal.

Figure 1: Lorenz Curve

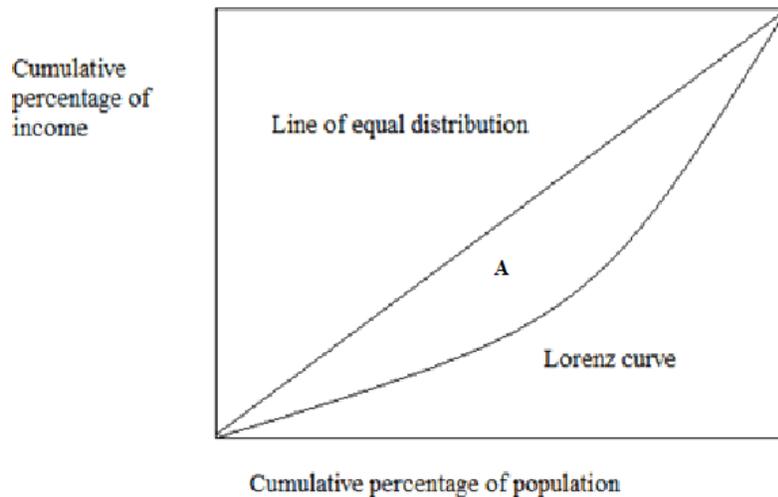


Source: *Thakur D.S., Poverty Inequality and Unemployment in India*

- Gini Coefficient:

The welfare function is denoted by the Gini Coefficient. The rank order of the individual in the ranking by income levels determined the weights in this weighted average of the various people's income levels. Greater inequality is indicated by a higher Gini coefficient (G), which results in lower wellbeing. Gini coefficient can be state as

Figure 2: Gini Coefficient



Source : *Todaro P. Michael Economic Development in Third World*

In the diagram, Gini Coefficient

=Area A/ Triangle of lower portion

In the Gini coefficient, the ratio of the "area" between the diagonal and the Lorenz curve divided by the total area of the half-square in which the curve is located may be used to determine the degree of income inequality. Take into account the ratio of area A to the entire triangle's area, aBc. The Italian statistician C. Gini created this ratio in 1912, and it is known as the "Gini Concentration Ratio." Gini coefficients, an overall measure of inequality, range from 0 to 1.

- The Sen's Index of Poverty :

The most popular index of 'absolute' deprivation is the head count ratio. The count ratio of the number of people with income $Y_i < z$, to the total population size n . This index is represented as follows:

$$H = q/n$$

where q is the number of poor

n = The total population

The simplest and most often used indicator of poverty is the headcount. The percentage of a population whose income is below the poverty line is identified. It should come as no surprise that this is how poverty is most frequently determined. Policymakers and academics can follow the most direct aspect of the human scale of poverty thanks to the metric, which actually counts heads.

The headcount is calculated by comparing the income y_i of each household to the poverty line z . (The index $i = 1 \dots M$, where M is the total number of households in the sample.) Concretely, an indicator variable is constructed for each household, taking the value 1 when income falls below the poverty line or 0 if income is greater

$$I(y, z) = 1 \text{ if } y_i \leq z$$

$$I(y, z) = 0 \text{ if } y_i > z$$

The headcount index is simply the sample average of the variable $I(y, z)$, weighted by the number of people in each household n_i . The measure is calculated by first counting the number of poor individuals, G ,

$$G = \sum_{i=1}^M I(y, z)n$$

[total household size, n , is used even where income and the poverty lines are designated in terms of adult equivalents]

Total population of the sample can be calculated similarly as

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^M n$$

and the overall headcount is then the ratio of the two numbers:

$$H = G / N$$

If everyone in poverty earns the same amount of money, the combination of these two indices would offer a thorough assessment of poverty. If this is not the case, Sen contends that a poor individual is poorer if others have a shortfall that is lower than this for a particular income-poverty difference. In order to complement these two indices, a measure of relative deprivation among the poor is needed.

Given the axioms of a ranked 'relative' deprivation (i.e. the weight on the income shortfall of a person is given by the income rank of the person among the poor) and a normalized 'absolute' deprivation (i.e. if all the poor have the same income then overall measure of poverty is given by $P = HI$).

Sen shows that, the only poverty measure which satisfies these axioms is given by $P = H(I + (1-I)G)^3$

The poor are defined conventionally as those whose incomes fall short of a specified level.

CONCLUSION:

In the discussion of Indian poverty, there are two important points of contention. One has to do with measuring poverty. The second has to do with effectively ending poverty. Poverty measurements evaluate the degree of undesirable disadvantages by comparing members of a society. However, every poverty indicator has flaws of its own. Two main causes of imperfections are limited data and the diversity of human lives being evaluated, which is especially true in a large country like India. Furthermore, opinions about what constitutes fundamental human needs differ greatly depending on a number of variables, including socioeconomic status, political views, and degree of development. Because of this, opinions on how to define the poverty threshold differ greatly. This complicates the process of selecting a poverty line. The definition of poverty must be adjusted to account for shifts in pricing, consumption trends, and income. Poverty assessment in India has frequently sparked divisive discussions over the poverty level. Despite these drawbacks, the notion of a poverty line and associated poverty estimates serves to focus the conversation about public policy around a set of numerical values and to monitor the advancement of the fight against poverty.

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