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**ADVANCE DIPLOMA IN HEALTH, FAMILY WELFARE AND POPULATION  
EDUCATION (ADHFWPE), SEMESTER- II**  
**PAPER III: ISSUES AND PROBLEMS OF POPULATION**

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## INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Dear Student,

We once again welcome you to CDOE and the Advance Diploma in Health, Family Welfare and Population Education. This is a Paper-III (Issues and Problems of Population) of your Semester-II. This paper is of 100 marks, of which 80 marks are assigned to the term end University examination and 20 marks for internal assessment. For 20 marks internal assessment, you will submit an assignment of this paper for evaluation to CDOE. In this paper we introduce you to the various concepts relating to problems of population in India; relationship between population, quality of life and socio-economic development; and population problems of developing and developed countries of the world.

With best wishes,

**Dr. Sucha Singh**  
**Coordinator**  
**Department of Geography,**  
**Centre for Distance and Online Education**  
**(CDOE),**  
**Panjab University, Chandigarh**

## **SYLLABUS**

### **PAPER III**

#### **SEMESTER - III ISSUES AND PROBLEMS OF POPULATION**

**Marks : 80**

**Internal Assessment: 20**

**Total : 100**

**Time: 3 hours**

**Objectives:** The objective of the paper is to understand the innumerable problems related to population such as poverty, illiteracy, unemployment, ageing etc. and the intricate relationship between socio-economic development and the quality of life. The objective is also to discuss that population problems faced by both the developed and the developing countries.

**NOTE:**

1. There shall be nine questions in all.
2. A compulsory question containing 15 short answer type questions shall be set covering the whole syllabus. The candidates are required to attempt any 10 short answer type questions in about 25 to 30 words each. Each question shall carry 2 marks (Total 20 Marks).
3. The entire syllabus shall be divided into four units. A total of eight questions will be set out of the whole syllabus, at least two from each unit. The candidates will attempt four questions selecting one from each unit. These will be in addition to the compulsory question at serial number 1 and each question will carry 15 marks. The students shall attempt a total of five questions in all.

#### **UNIT – I**

1. The Problem of Population
2. Population Problems in India: Social Aspects (Ageing, Sex-Ratio, Illiteracy, Gender, Inequality)
3. Population Problem in India: Economic Aspects (Poverty, Employment, Unemployment and Food Security)

#### **UNIT – II**

4. Relationship Between Population Quality of Life and Socio-Economic Development
5. Regional Disparities in Socio- Economic Development

#### **UNIT – III**

6. Population Problems of the Developed and Developing Countries
7. Population Problems and Sustainable Development

#### **UNIT – IV**

8. Population Problems of Developed Countries: Japan, U.S.A. and Sweden
9. Population Problems of Developing Countries: China, Pakistan and Brazil

**Note:** Please refer to relevant website of Govt. of India and latest edition of the books given below:

### Essential Readings

1. Ahuja, Ram (2003) : Reports on Social Problems in India
2. Bose Ashish (1988) : From Population to People, Vol II, Delhi: B. R. Publishing Corporation
3. Bose Ashish&Premi M. K. (1992) : Population Transition in South Asia, New Delhi, B. R. Publishers
4. Chandna, R. C. (2010) : A Geography of Population (9<sup>th</sup> Edition), New Delhi, Kalyani Publishers
5. Chandna. R. C., (2008) : Regional Planning and Development, Kalyani Publishers, New Delhi
6. Mitra, A. (1967) : Levels of Regional Development in India, New Delhi, Indian Statistical Institute
7. Thomas, W. S. and Lewis, D.T. (1976) : Population Problems, Tata McGraw Hill, New Delhi
8. Weeks, John, (2002) : Population : An Introduction to Concepts and Issues, Wadsworth/ Thomson Learning Belmont, LA, USA
9. UN : Human Dev

### Further Readings

1. Agarwal, N. (1933) : Women Education and Population in India, Chug Publisher, Allahbad,
2. Clarke, John I. (ed) (1984) : Geography and Population, Approaches and Applications, Pergamon Press Oxford,
3. Demko., G.J. et. Al, (1971) : Population Geography: A Reader, McGraw Hill Books Co., New York
4. Dreze, Jean and Sen, Amartya : Development and Participation, New Delhi, Oxford University India, (2002)
5. Kayastha, S.L., (1998) : Geography of Population : Selected Essays, Rawat Publications
6. Manson, K.O. (1987) : The Impact of Women's Social Position on Fertility in Developing Countries, Sociological Forum, 718- 745.
7. Mehta, S.R. (1999) : Dynamics of Development, New Delhi, Gyan Publishing House.
8. Premi, MK. (1992) : India's Population 1991, B.R. Publishers, New Delhi.
9. Knowled, R. & Wareing, J., (2007) : Economic and Social Geography: Made Simple Books, Rupa & Co., New Delhi

10. Kulkarni, P.M. (2000) : Prospective Changes in the Size and Structure of India's Population-Implications of PFI Projections up to 2051". New Delhi, PHD House (Chamber of Commerce and Industry).
11. World Bank Report (1991) : Gender and Poverty in India
12. Zelinsky, W. and et. Al, (1970) : Geography and a Crowding World, University Press, Oxford
13. Larkin RP & Johnson, WK (2013) : Population Geography: Problems, Concepts and Prospects, Kendall Hunt Publishing, IA, USA
14. K. Bruce Newbold (2017) : Population Geography: Tools and Issues, Rouman & Littlefield Publishers, Maryland
15. W.T.S. Gould (2015) : Population & Development, Routledge, Oxon, UK
16. World Bank Report (2012) : Poverty and Social Exclusion in India- Women, The World Bank

# THE PROBLEM OF POPULATION

## Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Population Problem: Concept
  - 1.2.1 Focus and Concern
- 1.3 The Indian Scenario
- 1.4 Population Growth: Some Facts
- 1.5 Causes of Population Growth In India
- 1.6 Effects of Population Growth In India
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Further Readings
- 1.9 Model Questions

## 1.0 Objectives

After reading this lesson you should be able to:

- analyze the concept of population problem
- state the growth of population numbers in India
- discuss the factors responsible for the rapid growth of population.
- understand the impact of population growth on Indian society

## 1.1 Introduction

This is the first lesson of your curriculum for paper III, Sem. II. We will begin by explaining the concept of population problem per se and its basis. We shall then discuss the major population problem in India i.e. a high growth rate. Analyzing the factors responsible for the high growth rate of population we shall discuss the serious implications of increasing human numbers that is leading to various problems especially an imbalance between resource availability and resource utilization.

## 1.2 Population Problem: Concept

Population is defined as the total number of individuals of a species present in a particular area at a given time. The world population, which was around 2 billion (2000 million) in 1900 reached about 6 billion by 2000 and has already crossed the 7 billion mark in 2011. Rapid population growth over the past century has primarily resulted from a difference between the rate of birth and the rate of death. The scientific study of human population is called demography, which basically deals with three phenomena;

- (1) Changes in population size (growth or decline)
- (2) The composition of population and
- (3) The distribution of population in space.

Human World Population	
Year	Population
1700 A.D	0.6 billion
1850	1 billion
1930	2 billion
1965	3.5 billion
1975	4 billion
1990	5 billion
2000	6.1 billion
2011	7 billion

Population Figures of Five Countries of the World 2011		
Rank	Country	Population
1.	China	13,36,71,8015
2.	India	1,210,193,422
3.	United States	313,232,044
4.	Indonesia	245,613,043
5.	Brazil	203,429,773

Five 'demographic processes' namely fertility, mortality, marriage, migration and social mobility are continually at work within a population determining size, composition and distribution.

The rapid increase in population over a relatively short period of time is referred to as population explosion. This affects all people in the world through its impact on the economy and environment. The current rate of population increase is now a significant burden to human wellbeing. Within the past few years, vast changes have occurred in many aspects of life in practically every country of the world. Perhaps, the most significant has been the recognition that rapid rate of population growth influences every sector of economic and social development. World-wide interest in the problems evolving from rapid population growth has been promoted by two major considerations, an increasing concern about the relation between population growth and available resources and growing awareness that unrestricted population growth tends to impose a strong constraint on the standard of living, happiness and even survival of mankind through the increased consumption of fixed quantity of resources. Understanding the factors that affect population growth patterns can help us plan for the future.

### 1.2.1 Focus and Concern

Thus, when studying population problems the focus is essentially on the changes that are taking place in the size of populations, how these changes are happening, their significance from the standpoint of human welfare, changes taking place in the distribution of communities and areas occupied by them, and the kind of populations found and how do people groups comprising them differ from each other. Therefore, the study of the population problem is concerned with its size or numbers, its structure and characteristics, its distribution and the changes taking place in these over a period of time.

### 1.3 The Indian Scenario

India, as you are aware is a vast country, seventh largest in the world in terms of area and the second most populous after China. With a population of 1210 million in 2011, India accounts for 17.5 percent of the total population of the world.

The scale at which India's population is increasing is simply explosive. While the total population of our country in 1941 was 318 million, it increased to 361 million in 1951, 439 million in 1961, 548

million in 1971, 683 million in 1981, 844 million in 1991, 1030 million in 2001 and 1210 million in 2011. It is expected to reach 1260 million by 2016 and 1400 million by 2030 according to estimates of the Registrar General as well as according to a World Bank study. It needs to be noted that similar to all the countries undergoing socio-economic development, India also, is undergoing the process of demographic transition during the last five decades. It has been successful in bringing down its crude death rate from above 22 per 1000 before independence to 8 per 1000 in 1997 and to 7.1 per 1000 in 2011, but the pace of fertility decline has not been in keeping with this progress. Crude birth rate remained around 40 per 1000 even after three decades of independence and reached a level of 27 by early 1997, 21.8 per 1000 by 2001 and now 17.64 in 2011. The birth rate therefore, is much above the level of the crude death rate, as success in mortality control has not been accompanied by equal success on the fertility control front.

It needs to be understood that fertility decline is much more complex than mortality decline. Everybody likes to live a long and healthy life, while there can be differences of opinion as to how many children one should have. Secondly, some of the decisions affecting mortality can be taken at macro level (e.g. provision of safe drinking water by chlorination at source itself) but fertility is the result of micro level decisions taken daily by millions of couples scattered all over the country. Lastly, couples do not accept small family norm unless they perceive the decline in mortality and that more children are surviving. In short, fertility decline cannot be achieved unless we bring about a social change, a change in attitude of couples, which is a slow process.

A rapid decline in death rate (especially the maternal mortality rate (MMR) and infant mortality rate (IMR)), an increase in life spans following the spread of education, control of disease, advancement of agriculture, storage facilities, better transportation leading to better distribution, protection from natural calamities and efforts of the government, as also an increase in the number of people entering the reproductive age group, are probable reasons for the rapid rate of population growth in India. Although the last decade clearly registered a decline in the growth rate, an increase of 181 million people between 2001 and 2011 was recorded. At this rate India's population will double in around 30 years. Such an alarming growth rate if continued could lead to an absolute scarcity of food, shelter and clothing.

#### **1.4 Population Growth: SOME FACTS**

- a) India accounts for 17.5% of the worlds' population. And is the second most populous nation after China which accounts for 19.5% of the world population
- b) Every sixth person on the globe today is an Indian.
- c) India adds about 10 lakh persons to its population every fortnight.
- d) Addition to India's population is an equivalent of a Chandigarh a week, twice over the population of Bhopal a month and an Australia every eight months.
- e) During 1981-91, India added 163 million to its population, equal to the combined population of France, UK and Italy. Between 1991-2001 this figure increased to 180 million and and now approximately 181 million population was added between 2001-2011.
- f) As per the 2011 census, India's population of 1210 millions, is almost equal to the combined population of USA, Indonesia, Brazil, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Japan put together.
- g) By 2030, India would overtake China as the world's most populous nation. While the rate of annual population growth in India was 1.64 percent during 2001-2011 in China It is 0.53 percent. Thus while China's population would double in 60 years, India's population would double in 34 years.



- h) At the turn of the twentieth century the population of India was 238.4 million, which increased by more than four times in a period of 100 years to reach 1210 million in 2011.
- i) India's population grew by one and a half times in the first half of the century and three times over in the second half of the last century.
- j) Around 49 per cent of the increase in India's population in one decade is from four states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh (Known as BIMARU States).
- k) Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state and the population of Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra combined is equal to the population of United States of America.
- l) More than three times as many couples enter the reproductive span than those leaving it, with the fertility rate of the younger group being three times higher than that of those passing out of the reproductive range.
- m) The sex ratio stands at 940 females per 1000 males, a slight improvement from 933 females per 1000 males in 2001.
- n) The literacy rates have gone up from 64.83% in 2001 to 74.04% in 2011.
- o) There is a shortage of 18.78 million houses, with over 78 million people being homeless.
- p) Some 334 million do not have access to safe drinking water, more so in the rural areas.

A glimpse of these facts clearly shows that over population is one of the major population problems faced by India today. Over population leads to number of not only national but also individuals family problems. It becomes imperative therefore to understand and analyze the different factors which influence the growth of India's population such as social norms related to age at marriage, duration of fertile union, or issues related to migration, urbanization, fertility, and mortality.

#### **Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)**

##### **Fill in the Blanks**

- i) \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ are the five 'demographic processes' that determine the size, composition and distribution of population.
- ii) India is the \_\_\_\_\_ largest country in the world in terms of area and the \_\_\_\_\_ most populous after China.
- iii) In India success in \_\_\_\_\_ control has not been accompanied by equal success in \_\_\_\_\_ control.
- iv) \_\_\_\_\_ is the most populous state followed by \_\_\_\_\_.
- v) \_\_\_\_\_ is one of the main problems faced by India.

## **1.5 Causes of Population Growth in India**

An understanding of the causes of rapid population increase in India and the consequent population problems is important in order to enable the policy makers to have a better grasp of the complex factors determining India's population growth. Some of the causes of the rapid population growth are discussed.

- i) **Universality of Marriage and Low Age at Marriage:** In India marriage is a sacrament not contractual in nature and is considered essential to carry on the lineage. Indian law under the Hindu Marriage Act has defined the marriageable age of a boy and girl. Legally a boy in India needs to be 21 and girl needs to be 18 years of age at the time of marriage. Though, the mean age of marriage has been continuously increasing, yet a large number of girls even today marry at an age at which they are not ready for marriage either socially and emotionally or physiological and chronologically. A 2011 data sheet called 'The World's Women and Girls', released by the Washington-based Population Reference Bureau shows that 47% of women in India between the ages of 20 and 24 were married by 18. This is higher than the average for South Central Asia (45%), of which India is a part. If we relate fertility rates, average number of children born per woman with age groups, we find that as the age group increases, the fertility rate decreases. If the population growth is to be controlled, marriage of females (in rural and urban areas) is to be preferred in 21-23 or 23-25 age groups rather than in 15-18 or 18-21 age groups.
- ii) **High Illiteracy:** Illiteracy is another important cause of overpopulation. Those lacking education fail to understand the need to prevent excessive growth of population or the harmful effects that overpopulation has. They are unaware of the ways to control population. Lack of family planning is commonly seen in the illiterate lot of the world. This is one of the major factors leading to overpopulation. Due to ignorance, they do not take to family planning measures, thus contributing to a rise in population. Education makes a person liberal, broad minded, open to new ideas and rational. If both men and women are educated, they easily understand the logic of planning their family but if either of them or both of them are illiterate they would be more orthodox, illogical and religious minded. In India although the literacy rates have improved substantially and as per 2011 census 74.04% of the population is literate, there remains considerable gender disparity, as while literacy rate among men is 82.14%, for women it is 65.46%. Studies have shown that female literacy is a strong predictor of use of contraception thereby contributing towards population control, even if the women are not economically independent. According to 2011 census Kerala, which has an overall literacy rate of 93.91 percent and female literacy rate of 91.98 percent had the lowest decadal population growth rate i.e. 4.86% in the country.
- iii) **Religion and Fatalistic Attitude:** Children are considered 'gifts of god' and people believe that it is not for them to decide on how many children they should have. Similar views are expressed by most of the great religions thereby motivating high fertility. Some people regard family planning as an immoral act and anti-religious. Also religious institutions contribute towards promoting high fertility values. Further fatalistic attitude dominates the outlook of the masses and accordingly concern for family planning is dormant leading to increased population.
- iv) **Preference for Sons:** In most pre-industrial societies great importance is attached to the procreation of male children as the sons extend the family line. In India, amongst the Hindus having a son is essential as he can only kindle the funeral pyre and thus effect the salvation of his father's soul. He is also responsible for performing the religious services for his ancestors. In India, preference for sons therefore undermines desire for smaller families, slowing the decline in population growth. Despite the family planning programs and increasing preference for smaller families, women in India often have more children than they would like because of a longstanding preference for sons over daughters. In fact, it has been found that continued childbearing driven by son preference accounts for 7% of all births in the country. According to a study there exists a strong relationship between family size and the proportion of female children in a family. Son preference comes into direct conflict with the small family norm. The

desire for sons is a key driver of women having another child. Indian women without any sons are more likely to continue having children than those without any daughters. For example, women whose first child is a daughter is more likely to have another child than those whose first child is a son, and women whose first two children are daughters were more likely to have another child than those whose first two children are sons. As a result, Indian girls are likely to grow up in larger families with fewer resources available to each child. Since more value is attached to male children in families where there are sons and daughters, the girls are likely to receive a smaller share of the available resources than their brothers, leading to gender disparities in health, education and other outcomes. Challenging such perceptions that sons are more valuable than daughters and thereby reducing the preference and desire for sons, and enhancement of the status of women in society alone can lead to a decline in the role of such factors in population growth.

- v ) Belief in a Large Family:** Large families are perceived as an asset. Varying social customs and beliefs also favor large families and impede the process of change especially the adoption of birth control measures. Children are generally considered to add to the wealth and prestige of the family. Also, due to the presence of a joint family, the biological parent may not be called upon to provide for the basic needs of their children for the whole family is jointly responsible for all the children born. Thus, there is no economic motivation to restrict the number of children. Also the universal desire to have a son or more than one son is also a motivational factor for having large families.
- vi ) High Infant and Child Mortality:** When the infant and child mortality is high the people are motivated to have a large number of children, as the chances of survival of children to adulthood are slender. Since the poor have no economic asset other than their own labour, the more the number of earners in the family, the more the amount of family earnings. In the circumstances of high infant mortality rates and the prevalence of childhood killer diseases, parents prefer a greater number of children, in the hope that at least some will survive. Thus, when confronted with poverty, family planning measures fail to make any impact. India has experienced an impressive decline in infant mortality since the 1970s. From 130-140 deaths per 1,000 live births in the early 1970's, mortality levels have declined to as low as 50 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2011 and as per estimates this has further declined to approximately 40 per 1000 live births in 2013. However the absolute levels of infant and child mortality are still too high.
- vii ) Low Standard Of Living:** There are low levels of economic and social development seen in developing countries like India which leads to lower standards of living. This gives rise to an apathetic state of mind and people feel that the larger family size would mean more earning hands, which would eventually increase their incomes. But they do not realize that more earning hands would also mean increase in the number of people to be fed.

Thus, It may be noted that not just social or economics considerations but religious, educational and even psychological factors play an effective role in encouraging high birth rates.

## **1.6 Effects of Population Growth in India**

How has the population growth affected India? It is estimated that over 78 million people are homeless. Although the number of houses has increased from 52.06 million in 2001 to 78.48 million as per 2011 census there remains a shortage of 18.78 million houses. There is a decline in the houseless population, about 28% in the rural areas and 20% in the cities but still much remains to be done. In fact, 26% of the houseless population is concentrated in the five metros i.e. Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, Bangalore and Chennai.

As per 2011 census 334 million people lack access to safe drinking water, 244 million in rural India and 90 million in urban areas. 287 million adults are illiterate, 42.5 percent children below five years are underweight and the country as a whole has 135<sup>th</sup> position according to the 2014 Human Development Report (HDR) released on 24 July in Tokyo. The overcrowding of our cities has brought about a virtual breakdown of transportation, electricity and other services. It has also led to the rise of crime and an increase in violence in the urban and the semi-urban areas. All this has been directly fuelled by the addition of about 18 million people every year. If the population continues to increase at this rate, in a few years from now, we will have an army of unemployed, hungry and desperate people who will threaten the very foundations of the social, economic and political systems and institutions of the country.

The growth of population has a direct effect on the living standard of the people. That is why, despite our spectacular progress in the agricultural and industrial spheres, since independence, the per capita income has not risen appreciably. At the present rate of growth, life for most Indians would be unbearable- medical facilities would be difficult to provide, expenses on education, housing etc. would be enormous, technical and professional education would become the exclusive prerogative of the elite and the scarcity of food would once again plunge more than half of the nation below the poverty line.

Thus the major consequences of over population include poverty, shortage of food supply, unhygienic living conditions, unemployment, housing problem, education and pollution. However, one of the most serious consequences of rapid population growth is its adverse impact on the environment. The relationship is complex as subsequent increase in industrialization and urbanization lead to accelerating pollution levels. Deteriorating environmental conditions also adversely impact human health and the economy. India is one of the most degraded environment countries in the world and unless the problem of population is tackled seriously, the consequences are bound to be devastating.

### **Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)**

#### **State TRUE or False**

- i ) Universality of marriage and young age at marriage has little influence on population growth.
- ii ) Female literacy is negatively correlated with rapid population growth.
- iii ) High infant and child mortality motivates people to have smaller families.
- iv ) The growth of population has no direct effect on the standard of living of the people.
- v ) Major consequences of over population include poverty, unemployment and pollution.

## **1.7 Summary**

This lesson begins with an introduction to the problem of population and its basis. Thereafter the main population problem in India, high population growth, is discussed along with the causes responsible and the consequences and effects of the problem. In the next lesson, we shall study about the social aspects of the population problem such as ageing, sex ratio, illiteracy and gender inequality.

## **1.8 Further Readings**

1. Bose, Ashish (1988): From Population to People, Vol, II, Delhi: B.R. Publishing Corporation
2. Chandna, R. C. (2017): A Geography of Population (10th Edition), New Delhi, Kalyani Publishers

3. John F. May (2012) : World Population Policies: Their Origin, Evolution and Impact, Springer, New York
4. Kulkarni, P.M. (2000) : Prospective Changes in the Size and Structure of India's Population- Implications of PFI Projections up to 2051". New Delhi, PHD House (Chamber of Commerce and Industry).
5. World Population Policies (2013) at [www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/pdf/policy/WPP2013](http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/pdf/policy/WPP2013)

### 1.9 Model Questions

- Q1. State the major causes of population growth in India.
- Q2. Discuss the current population scenario in India in the context of the effects of population growth in India.

### Answers to Self Assessment Questions

#### Self Assessment Questions- 1

- i) Fertility, mortality, marriage, migration, social mobility; ii) Seventh, second; iii) Mortality, fertility;  
iv) Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra; v) Over-population.

#### Self Assessment Questions- 2

- i) False; ii) True; iii) False; iv) False; v) True.

## POPULATION PROBLEMS IN INDIA: SOCIAL ASPECTS

### Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Ageing
- 2.3 Imbalanced Sex Ratio
- 2.4 Gender Inequality
- 2.5 Illiteracy
- 2.6 Summary
- 2.7 Further Readings
- 2.8 Model Questions

### 2.0 Objectives

After reading this lesson you should be able to:

- specify the social problems related to population in India.
- define ageing, sex ratio, gender inequality and illiteracy
- explain the problems of ageing
- state the reasons for a sex ratio imbalance and its impact
- discuss illiteracy and gender inequality in the Indian context.

### 2.1 Introduction

Reeling under the impact of an explosive population growth India faces some major population problems. In fact, population explosion gives rise to a number of social problems ranging from overcrowding, clustering of people in metros, increased demand for housing, steep rise in the proportion of citizens over 60 years, uneven age structure i.e. dependent population in high ratio, a strain on medical and health care facilities. Education, literacy, standard of living are also adversely affected due to high population. Thus, innumerable social problems are intricately linked and have their basis in the rapidly growing population. The problems are indeed gigantic in dimension and intricate in their manifestations, having far reaching impact on the quality of life.

In this lesson we will introduce you to some social aspects of the problem of population. In this context we shall explain and analyze the problems of ageing of population, sex ratio imbalance, illiteracy and gender inequality.

## 2.2 Ageing

Ageing refers to the process of becoming older i.e. the biological ageing of human beings. It represents the accumulation of changes in a human being over a period of time, including physical, psychological and social changes. The demographic interest in the older population comes from the fact that as the population i.e. as the number and proportion of older people increase, changes come about in the organization of society. These changes are primarily the result of individual ageing where in people change biologically with age and societies react differently to older people. Moreover, the impact of population ageing will also be affected by the number/proportion of people who are a younger lot among the old and those who are older among the old. While in the first case impact of ageing on society is more social, in the latter the society must cope with the biological aspects of ageing.

Population ageing is on the increase in terms of the number and proportion of older people in society. In fact one of the most significant population trends and a challenge in the 21<sup>st</sup> century is ageing populations. Currently about 11% of the world population comprises of people aged 60 years and above and according to the UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund) estimates, by 2050 22% of the world population shall fall within this age group.

For many years population ageing was considered to be a phenomenon of the developed countries. As in several developing countries in India too until 1951, the sequence of high birth rates followed by high death rates kept the proportion of the persons aged 60 and above at a low level. However, since 1951 this population has grown steadily. In recent years, a steady decline in the birth rate has accelerated this ageing process. The elderly population in India accounted for 5.6 percent of the total population in 1971, increased to 6.3 percent in 1981, reached 7.7 percent in 2001, and now stands at approximately 8%.

The prime causes of population ageing include increased life expectancy related to falling death rates, a steady decline in birth rates, and migration. As death rates fall and life expectancy increases the older population increases as lower mortality increases the probability of surviving to old age.

As a result of better nutrition, sanitation, health care, education and economic well-being, life expectancy has been consistently rising first in the developed countries and is now a “global phenomenon” that is occurring very rapidly in the developing countries as well. In fact in some 33 countries of the world life expectancy at birth is over 80 years. In India too life expectancy has consistently risen from an average of 37 years in 1951 to 54 years in 1981 to 61 in 1991, 62.5 in 2001 to the current average of 64.2 years in 2011.

At the same time there has been decline in the fertility rates. As mentioned above, population ageing is driven mainly by low birth rates rather than by long life spans and since fertility levels in poor regions continue to drop, the momentum for developing world population ageing continues to build and graying could emerge as a factor directly constraining long-term growth and development. Although the proportion of India's elderly population is small compared with that of any developed countries, still it is very large in absolute members. In 1961, there were 24.7 million persons above the age of 60 in India. This number increased to 42.5 million in 1981 and was 77 million in 2001, 88 million in 2009. This is expected to rise to approximately 140 million by 2021 and 353 million by 2050. However, the percentage of 65 and older will only increase noticeably if fertility declines. Another factor that cannot be overlooked is the impact of migration on the growth of older population. Generally out migration trends to increase the percent of elderly population in an area, while in migration has the opposite effect.

In fact, rapid and pronounced population ageing may represent one of the least appreciated long-term risks facing many of today's developing economies. Also, as less developed societies go

through the process of modernization the number of aged is increasing consistently although their status is declining. It is often being stated that the elderly 'increasing numerically with each new cohort, are being left behind by the younger generation and forgotten by the rest of society'.

Consequently, as in the developed countries the median age is beginning to increase in developing countries in general with the sheer numbers of population increasing as in India too, leading to an older work force. Both these developments have their own social as also economic implications. There is no denying the fact that older people make vast contributions to society but an older work force also leads to incurring of greater expenditure on health-care and pensionary compensations. Compared to developing countries, India can be considered 'Young', with a vast majority of working age population, and so the dependency ratio is not unfavorable. But this 'Population Dividend' will gradually disappear within the next four to five decades, and the country will face the same type of situation that the developed countries are witnessing today, of a rapidly ageing society. This advantage gives us the time to plan and introduce policy initiatives and programs to address these issues and prepare the society for this demographic transition.

Moreover, ageing has a significant impact on society. Older people not only have different requirements but also different values than young people who can in fact push development, adoption of new technologies as also political and social change. These challenges vary for developing and developed countries, but a common and urgent concern is income security for which investment in pension systems must be ensured to provide 'economic independence and reduce poverty in old age'. The UNFPA states that, "Sustainability of these systems is of particular concern, particularly in developed countries, while social protection and old-age pension coverage remain a challenge for developing countries, where a large proportion of the labour force is found in the informal sector." Providing access to essential health and social services for all older persons are equally important.

The challenge is to ensure that the elderly are able to lead a healthy, stress-free and comfortable life ahead. They should have every opportunity to pursue the activities of their choice and be able to contribute to society even after retirement. It is the right of the elderly to be treated with respect and dignity and not be abused or exploited. The elderly form a rich repository of knowledge and experience, which no society can afford to ignore. They should not be marginalized, but should be encouraged to lead an active and participatory life.

In fact, rapid and pronounced population ageing may represent one of the least appreciated long-term risks facing many of today's developing economics. It is often being stated that the elderly 'increasing numerically with each new cohort, are being left behind by the younger generation and forgotten by the rest of society'.

The proportion of older persons in the more developed regions was much higher compared to the 8 per cent in developing regions. However, both groups are expected to have vastly increased proportions in the near future (33 per cent and 22 per cent respectively in 2050) with as many as 1,592 million older persons in developing regions. This is a huge population that must receive attention from policymakers and social scientists across the world. Over the coming decades a parallel, dramatic "graying" of much of the developing world also lies in store, and it promises to be a far uglier affair than the "crisis" facing affluent societies. The burden of ageing simply cannot be borne as easily by the low-income societies as their governments have fewer options available.

The projections by the Population Foundation of India (PFI) clearly reveal that the most significant changes in the future will occur in the size and share of old age population. The population in ages above 65 years is expected to be 243 million by 2051, nearly seven times the 1991 population of 36 million. The share of this age group will rise moderately initially, but steeply after 2026 and reach



14.8 percent in 2051. Consequently the old age dependency ratio will also rise from 10.9% in 1961 to 13.1% in 2001 and is expected to touch 22.3 percent in 2051.

The pattern of change is expected to be identical in all the states, a steep rise in population size, percentage share, and old age dependency ratio through the projection period. The degree of increase will vary, from a five-fold rise in Haryana to a nearly eight-fold rise in West Bengal. The old age dependency ratio will rise to 43.2 percent in Kerala and be over 30 percent in Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Gujarat, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh. It will be below 20 percent only in Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh.

Thus, the age distribution will undergo a major shift towards older ages. The steep rise in the size and share of old age population calls for major policy initiatives. The old age dependency ratio in some states will be well over thirty percent. Since many in the working age group will actually not be economically active and hence not in a position to support the elderly, the actual degree of dependency will be even higher. There is a need to develop mechanism for both financial security and personal care for the elderly. This should begin as early as possible, especially around 2021 when the rise in the population of the elderly will be very rapid. Raising the age of retirement would also relieve some pressure. Also old age security is an aspect that needs urgent attention.

The fastest-growing segment in the older age groups is the 80+ segment and by 2050, about 20 per cent of older persons will be 80 years and above. The chief characteristic, therefore of the coming decades will be the ageing of the aged. This will have significant implications for the older persons themselves, as well as the families and societies they live in.

To work towards "A Society for all Ages" is the message given by the UN Declaration on Ageing, known as the Madrid Declaration, 2002, the Plan of Action, Shanghai and also the Macao Plan of Action. The National Plan for Older Persons (NPOP) adopted by the Government of India in 1999 and the plans adopted by the various states also assert the need to ensure that the elderly lead a life of dignity, care and support. In this, apart from the government, the NGOs and also the civic society have to play a very important role. Finally, the need of the day is to encourage Active, Healthy, Participatory and Qualitative Ageing.

### **2.3 Imbalanced Sex Ratio**

According to the 2011 census the population of India stood at 1,21,01,93,422 comprising 62,37,24,248 males and 58,64,69,174 females with the sex ratio of 940 females per 1000 males.

Sex ratio refers to the number of females per thousand males. It is a valuable source for finding the population of women and what is the ratio of women to that of men in India. As is the case with all other parts of the world, more males are born than females. However, while in developed countries a high male mortality rate balances the sex ratio by 4 years of age, in the Indian context the male-females differential in mortality does not lead to any such balancing. Broadly speaking, most Asian countries show a paucity of females and their populations have more males than females. The sex ratio in India was almost normal during the phase of the years of independence, but thereafter it started showing gradual signs of decrease. Though the sex ratio in India has gone through commendable signs of improvement in the past 10 years, according to the 2011 census 940 females born for every 1000 males born is indicative of a continued trend towards an imbalanced sex ratio which is a consistent cause of concern.

Three basic factors really determine the sex ratio in any area i.e. sex ratio at birth, the difference in mortality rates of the two sexes at different ages and variation in migration characteristics. In the

Indian situation, it is the general neglect of females, high birth rate leading to high material mortality, low female life expectancy, and female infanticide that are largely responsible for a paucity of females.

Female mortality rates in India are high both in infancy and during the reproductive period when compared to male mortality rates. In fact, higher females mortality at all ages further widens the gap between the two sexes resulting in an imbalanced sex ratio. The general neglect of females in childhood, frequent confinements during the reproductive period and again neglect in their old age attributed to their relatively low status is responsible for a consistently imbalanced sex-ratio.

Also the sex ratio in India varies greatly from one part of the country to the other. The female-male ratio is particularly low in large parts of north India, especially the north western states (e.g. 879 in Haryana and 895 in Punjab) and comparatively high in the south (e.g. 996 in Tamil Nadu, and 993 in Andhra Pradesh,) (GOI 2011). In Kerala, the female-male ratio is well above unity, 1084 females per 1000 males.

The state of Kerala and union territory of Puducherry are only two places in India where sex ratio is above 1000 or exceeds female to male ratio. Another three states which have shown major signs of improvement in their sex ratio are Assam, Mizoram, and Nagaland. Densely populated states of Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and Sikkim have also shown improvement in female to male ratio. According to Census of India, all these states have taken necessary measures to improve sex ratio in urban and rural areas. Delhi and Chandigarh have also registered a sharp growth in sex ratio between 2001 to 2011 census. On the other hand, the states of Jammu and Kashmir and Haryana have shown no positive signs of overall improvement in their sex ratio. In fact, these two states have registered a decline in their sex ratio.

These regional patterns of female-male ratios are consistent with the gender relations in different parts of the country. The north-western states, for instance, are known for highly unequal gender relations, some symptoms of which include the continued practice of female seclusion, low female labour force participation rates, a large gender gap in literacy rates, extremely restricted females property rights, strong boy preference in fertility decisions, widespread neglect of female children and drastic separation of a married woman from her natal family. In all these respects, the social standing of women is relatively better in south India. Kerala has a history of a more liberated position of women in society due to success of expansion of female literacy, considerable dominance of women in influential social and professional activities and the prevalence of matriarchal society. (Dreze and Sen, 2002). Although this improvement is fair enough in a developing economy, but still there is a long way to go.

However this increase in the overall female-male ratio in the total population of India between 2001 and 2011 from 940 females per 1000 males as against 933 females per thousand males in 2001 has been restrained by a sharp decline in the female-male ratio among young children. For India as a whole, the female-male ratio of the population in the age group of 0-6 years has fallen from 927 girls per thousand boys in 2001 to 919 girls per thousand boys in 2011 and is one of the poorest in the world. The ratio has fallen very sharply in states such as Punjab from 895 to 874, Haryana from 879 to 861 and Maharashtra, from 929 to 922 which are among the richer Indian states. It is clear that this change reflects a rise in female vis-a-vis male child mortality, but a fall in female births as compared with male births is almost certainly connected with the spread of sex-selective abortion.

A low sex ratio is an indicator of female's low status and unequal roles prescribed to males and females in India. Efforts are being made by the government to improve the sex ratio by the introduction of programs such as the recently introduced 'Beti Bachao, Beti Padhao' (Save girl child, educate girl

child) program, a scheme launched by Government of India to improve efficiency of welfare services meant for women

S.No.	State/Union Territories	Males	Females	Total	Sex Ratio (Females per 1000 Males)
1	Andaman & Nicobar Islands <sup>#</sup>	2,02,330	1,77,614	3,79,944	878
2	Andhra Pradesh	4,25,09,881	4,21,55,652	8,46,65,533	992
3	Arunachal Pradesh	7,20,232	6,62,379	13,82,611	920
4	Assam	1,59,54,927	1,52,14,345	3,11,69,272	954
5	Bihar	5,41,85,347	4,96,19,290	10,38,04,637	916
6	Chandigarh	5,80,282	4,74,404	10,54,686	818
7	Chhattisgarh	1,28,27,915	1,27,12,281	2,55,40,196	991
8	Dadra & Nagar Haveli <sup>#</sup>	1,93,178	1,49,675	3,42,853	775
9	Daman & Diu <sup>#</sup>	1,50,100	92,811	2,42,911	618
10	Goa	7,40,711	7,17,012	14,57,723	968
11	Gujarat	3,14,82,282	2,89,01,346	6,03,83,628	918
12	Haryana	1,35,05,130	1,18,47,951	2,53,53,081	877
13	Himachal Pradesh	34,73,892	33,82,617	68,56,509	974
14	Jammu & Kashmir	66,65,561	58,83,365	1,25,48,926	883
15	Jharkhand	1,69,31,688	1,60,34,550	3,29,66,238	947
16	Karnataka	3,10,57,742	3,00,72,962	6,11,30,704	968
17	Kerala	1,60,21,290	1,73,66,387	3,33,87,677	1,084
18	Lakshadweep <sup>#</sup>	33,106	31,323	64,429	946
19	Madhya Pradesh	3,76,12,920	3,49,84,645	7,25,97,565	930

20	Maharashtra	5,83,61,397	5,40,11,575	11,23,72,972	925
21	Manipur	13,69,764	13,51,992	27,21,756	987
22	Meghalaya	14,92,668	14,71,339	29,64,007	986
23	Mizoram	5,52,339	5,38,675	10,91,014	975
24	Nagaland	10,25,707	9,54,895	19,80,602	931
25	NCT of Delhi <sup>#</sup>	89,76,410	77,76,825	1,67,53,235	866
26	Orissa	2,12,01,678	2,07,45,680	4,19,47,358	978
27	Puducherry <sup>#</sup>	6,10,485	6,33,979	12,44,464	1,038
28	Punjab	1,46,34,819	1,30,69,417	2,77,04,236	893
29	Rajasthan	3,56,20,086	3,30,00,926	6,86,21,012	926
30	Sikkim	3,21,661	2,86,027	6,07,688	889
31	Tamil Nadu	3,61,58,871	3,59,80,087	7,21,38,958	995
32	Tripura	18,71,867	17,99,165	36,71,032	961
33	Uttar Pradesh	10,45,96,415	9,49,85,062	19,95,81,477	908
34	Uttarakhand	51,54,178	49,62,574	1,01,16,752	963
35	West Bengal	4,69,27,389	4,44,20,347	9,13,47,736	947

**Source:** Family Welfare Statistics in India - 2011 & CensusIndia.gov

### Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)

#### Tick the Right Answer

- i ) The prime causes of population ageing include
  - a) Increased birth rate; b) Increased death rate; c) Increased life expectancy; d) Increased morbidity
- ii ) Increase in the proportion of old age population will lead to
  - a) High dependency ratio; b) Moderate dependency ratio; c) Low dependency ratio; d) Unchanged dependency ratio.
- iii ) According to the 2011 census the sex ratio of population in India was
  - a) 933; b) 948; c) 940; d) 914
- iv ) The highest sex ratio in India is found in

- a) Kerala;    b) Bihar;    c) Tamilnadu;    d) Karnataka
- v ) The female-male ratio among the states is the lowest in
- a) Punjab;    b) Haryana;    c) Rajasthan;    d) Himachal Pradesh.

## 2.4 Gender Inequality

Closely related to an imbalanced sex ratio is the issue and problem of gender inequality. The Indian subcontinent is one of the few regions in the world where there are more males than females in the population. Inequality between men and women is one of the crucial disparities in many societies and this is particularly so in India. This is reflected not only in such matters as education and opportunity to develop talents, but also in the more elementary fields of nutrition, health and survival. Indeed, the mortality rates of females tend to exceed those of males until the late twenties, and this - as we know from the experiences of other countries - is very much in contrast with what tends to happen when men and women receive similar nutritional and health care. One result is a remarkably low ratio of females to males in the Indian population compared with the corresponding ratio not only in Europe and North America but also in sub-Saharan Africa.

Many parts of the developing world have female-male ratios well below ninety, for example 0.98 in North Africa, 0.95 in west Asia, 0.95 in Bangladesh, 0.94 in China. In India and Pakistan the female-male ratio is among the lowest in the world - about 0.93 in both cases. There is much direct evidence, in India and in many other countries with a sharp 'deficit' of women, of relative neglect of the health and wellbeing of women (particularly young girls including female infants), resulting in a survival disadvantage of females vis-a-vis males over long periods.

As explained above gender composition is one of the basic demographic characteristics defined as number of females per 1,000 males. Changes in sex ratio largely reflect the underlying socio-economic and cultural pattern of society in different ways. Sex ratio is an important indicator to measure the extent of prevailing equity between males and females in a society at a given point of time. The uneven distribution of any one of the sexes can disturb the basic equilibrium within the society. The Indian society is highly masculine and continues to remain like that with minor changes in the percent of females. India's population has been marked by a low and declining sex ratio (SR) ever since the beginning of Census operations in the country. Declining gender composition is emerging as a serious threat to the socio-economic, cultural and ethical structures and values of Indian society. In 1951 there were as many as eleven states and UTs, which had sex ratio of more than 1000. This number declined to nine in 1961, three in 1971, two in 1981, and one in 1991. In 2001, the state of Kerala and UT of Puducherry only reported above 1000 sex ratio. As per 2011 census, despite an improvement in the overall sex ratio, the number of states and union territories below national average has remained constant over 2001. In fact, the sex ratio in Kerala has remained above 1000 from 1901 onwards. This is on account of the fact that first, Kerala has a matriarchal society which does not allow gender discrimination, and second, in Kerala since women received education and proper healthcare, their survival chances were as good as that of males.

In contrast, prosperous north Indian states, particularly Punjab and Haryana reflect adverse sex ratio. As per 2011 Census, the three southern states of Kerala (1084), Tamil Nadu (995), and Andhra Pradesh (992) recorded the highest value of overall sex ratio while among the UTs, the top three are Puducherry (1038), Lakshadweep (946) and the Andaman & Nicobar islands (878). The lowest sex ratio among the states was found in Haryana (877), followed by Jammu & Kashmir (883) and Sikkim (889), whereas among the UTs the lowest was in Daman and Diu (618), Dadra & Nagar Haveli (775) and Chandigarh (818). Among the major states only Bihar, Gujarat and Jammu & Kashmir and among the

UTs Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu and Lakshdweep experienced a decline in the overall sex ratio.

Thus it can be said that gender inequality and female deprivation is one of India's most serious social failures. There has been a growing awareness in recent years of the disadvantaged position of women in Indian society. That understanding of the victimization of women has to be supplemented by recognition of women as agents of social change. The suppression of women from participation in social, political and economic life hurts the people as a whole, not just women. Therefore, the emancipation and empowerment of women should be made an integral part of social progress, not first be considered a 'women's issue'. The number of females is more in urban areas as compared to its rural counterparts. It requires stringent action from Government authorities and mass movement to change the mindset and the unequal order of the patriarchal society.

## **2.5 Illiteracy**

UNESCO has defined a literate person as "one who can with understanding both read and write a short simple statement in his everyday life". Following UNESCO, the Census Commission in India in 1991 also defined a literate person as one who can read and write "with understanding" in any Indian language and not merely read and write. Those who can read but cannot write are not literate. However, formal education in a school is not necessary for a person to be considered as literate. Since long before independence, illiteracy in India has been regarded as an obstacle to development.

The illiteracy problem in India has complex dimensions attached to it. In India illiteracy is related to gender imbalance, income balance, caste and culture imbalance as also technological barriers all of which influence the literacy rates that exist in the country. In fact, although there has been considerable progress in the field of education since the 1950s, however, still literacy levels in India are below the world average of 84%. In fact, India possesses the largest illiterate population. 37% of illiterate adults live in India i.e. 287 million. Five out of every 10 Indians, three out of five women and eight out of ten tribal and the scheduled caste people cannot read or write. According to one estimate, of the total illiterate people about 19 to 24 million are children in the age group of 6-14 years (of whom 60% are girls) and about 122 million are adult illiterates in the age group of 15-35 years (of whom 62% are women).

Illiteracy therefore, is one of the major problems facing India and the other developing countries. Illiteracy which takes away from man the dignity, perpetuates ignorance, poverty and mental isolation, deters peaceful and friendly international relations and free democratic processes, hampers social advancement, economic growth and political maturity. In fact, illiteracy indirectly influences attributes of population such as fertility, mortality, mobility, occupation etc. and therefore is regarded as an effective and reliable indicator of socio-cultural and economic advancement, as also the pace at which socio-economic transformation of a society is taking place.

Thus, there is no denying that literacy and education are of crucial importance in the modern world, particularly for countries with a colonial legacy of exploitation and backwardness, for countries which aim to hold their own respectable position among the community of nations; for countries striving to transform their traditional feudal slowly growing economics into modern rapidly developing self-sustaining economics and that Illiteracy is a problem that needs urgent attention. The same is true in case of India.

Educationally speaking India is a backward country. After six decades of planned development more than a third of the population (37 percent) is illiterate. In fact, India is a country of paradoxes. It has the fourth largest trained manpower, third largest pool of engineers and doctors, is reaching to attain super power status in the world, is also the tenth biggest industrial power, and at the same time

roots of feudalism and serfdom run deep, there are caste based killings, the age at marriage, particularly of women, continues to be low, fertility levels are high resulting in high growth rate of population. The society is highly non-egalitarian and considerable sections of society continue to live in poverty. People live and work in unhygienic conditions. Health levels are poor and per capita productivity levels are low. The communal forces continue to play havoc with the life and property of citizens of India. One significant reason for this current state of society is the prevailing illiteracy.

In the constitution of India Directive Principle (Article 45) enjoins the state “to provide within ten years (i.e. by 1960) free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years”. This goal has still not been achieved. The state is also asked to ensure (Article 39) that “the tender age of children” is not abused and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation”. There is considerable child-labour in India, It is well established that low fertility is associated with a literate and educated society. It is the same in case of low infant mortality. Poor personal hygiene is often the result of ignorance. Female age at marriage is low because girls are not enrolled into schools so as to complete and education per capita productivity levels are low and wages poor, for illiterate and unskilled labour can do no better cannot get higher remuneration. The much sought after demographic transitions towards lower fertility and mortality, regimes and lower population growth is still and elusive target. Our most backward states - socially, economically and demographically are those with low literacy and education levels. These states namely- Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa are known as India's sick status. Low age of females at marriage and higher fertility are characteristic of those state. Higher proportions of population live in poverty in these states, and they also rank low in per capita income. High levels of illiteracy and poor educational levels are indeed the biggest road-block to India's development Education is a critical variable to reduce the acute pangs of poverty and population.

#### LITERACY RATE IN INDIA, CENSUS 2011

#	State	Literacy	Male	Female	% Change
-	India	74.04	82.14	65.46	8.66
1	<a href="#">Kerala</a>	94.00	96.11	92.07	3.14
2	<a href="#">Lakshadweep</a>	91.85	95.56	87.95	5.19
3	<a href="#">Mizoram</a>	91.33	93.35	89.27	2.53
4	<a href="#">Goa</a>	88.70	92.65	84.66	6.69
5	<a href="#">Tripura</a>	87.22	91.53	82.73	14.03
6	<a href="#">Daman and Diu</a>	87.10	91.54	79.55	8.92
7	<a href="#">Andaman and Nicobar Islands</a>	86.63	90.27	82.43	5.33

#	State	Literacy	Male	Female	% Change
8	<a href="#">Delhi</a>	86.21	90.94	80.76	4.54
9	<a href="#">Chandigarh</a>	86.05	89.99	81.19	4.11
10	<a href="#">Puducherry</a>	85.85	91.26	80.67	4.61
11	<a href="#">Himachal Pradesh</a>	82.80	89.53	75.93	6.32
12	<a href="#">Maharashtra</a>	82.34	88.38	75.87	5.46
13	<a href="#">Sikkim</a>	81.42	86.55	75.61	12.61
14	<a href="#">Tamil Nadu</a>	80.09	86.77	73.44	6.64
15	<a href="#">Nagaland</a>	79.55	82.75	76.11	12.96
16	<a href="#">Uttarakhand</a>	78.82	87.40	70.01	7.2
17	<a href="#">Gujarat</a>	78.03	85.75	69.68	8.89
18	<a href="#">Manipur</a>	76.94	83.58	70.26	10.33
19	<a href="#">West Bengal</a>	76.26	81.69	70.54	7.62
20	<a href="#">Dadra and Nagar Haveli</a>	76.24	85.17	64.32	18.61
21	<a href="#">Punjab</a>	75.84	80.44	70.73	6.19
22	<a href="#">Haryana</a>	75.55	84.06	65.94	7.64
23	<a href="#">Karnataka</a>	75.36	82.47	68.08	8.72
24	<a href="#">Meghalaya</a>	74.43	75.95	72.89	11.87
25	<a href="#">Orissa</a>	72.87	81.59	64.01	9.79
26	<a href="#">Assam</a>	72.19	77.85	66.27	8.94



#	State	Literacy	Male	Female	% Change
27	<a href="#">Chhattisgarh</a>	70.28	80.27	60.24	5.62
28	<a href="#">Madhya Pradesh</a>	69.32	78.73	59.24	5.58
29	<a href="#">Uttar Pradesh</a>	67.68	77.28	57.18	11.41
30	<a href="#">Jammu and Kashmir</a>	67.16	76.75	56.43	11.64
31	<a href="#">Andhra Pradesh</a>	67.02	74.88	59.15	6.55
32	<a href="#">Jharkhand</a>	66.41	76.84	55.42	12.85
33	<a href="#">Rajasthan</a>	66.11	79.19	52.12	5.7
34	<a href="#">Arunachal Pradesh</a>	65.38	72.55	57.70	11.04
35	<a href="#">Bihar</a>	61.80	71.20	51.50	14.8

Oeschli and Kirk while building indicators to describe the typical profile of a country at the different stages of demographic transition (using data from Latin America and the Caribbean) suggest that a marked decline in fertility among other things as associated with

- a) Literacy rate of 78 percent
- b) An expectation of life at birth of 60 years
- c) Primary school enrolment ratio of 65 percent
- d) Labour force in non- agriculture of 52 percent
- e) An urbanization rate of 40 percent
- f) Secondary school enrollment of 22 percent (Oeschli and Kirk, 1975)

We, in India, have yet to catch up with these indicators. Undoubtedly, the number of recognized primary and middle schools increased many times over as did the enrolment of students in the primary and middle schools. The total number of literates has also increased from 16.7 percent of the total population in 1951 to 52.11 percent in 1991, 65.38 percent in 2001 and now to 74.04 percent in 2012. In terms of the all India ranking in literacy rate, Kerala enjoys the first rank followed by Mizoram, Tripura, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Manipur, Uttarakhand, Gujarat, Punjab, Haryana, Karnataka, and Meghalaya. On the other hand (i.e. in terms of the lowest literacy rate), Bihar ranks the lowest followed by Rajasthan, Jharkhand, and Jammu and Kashmir (Census of India, 2011).

However, the attainment of the goal of universal elementary education appears to be difficult because we are spending at present only about 3.8% of our total annual budget on education in comparison to 19.9% spent by USA 19.6% by Japan, 11.2% by Russia etc.

The problem of illiteracy among women in India is particularly worse. Of every adult illiterate in India, 6 are females. In 2001, the overall literacy rate in India's population of 7 years and above was 65.4%, the male literate percentage being 75.9%, while the female literate percentage was 54.2 %. Compared to 1991, the overall literacy rate increased 13.2% points (11.7% for men, 14.9% for females). Further as per 2011 census while overall literacy has touched 74.04%, the male literacy touched 82.14% and female literacy 65.46%. The overall literacy rate has undoubtedly increased by 8.64% (male 6.2%, female-11.3%) Also the gap between male and female literacy rates has also decreased from 28.8% points in 1991 to 21.7% points in 2001 and to 16.68% in 2011. Thus, some improvements and progress can be seen in the field of education but much needs to be done. High literacy is important today for any nation to be at par on a global platform. In India despite the Supreme Court ruling in 1993 wherein education was declared a fundamental right, or the Right to Education in 2003, Sarv Shiksha Abhyan, 2001, extent of disparities is such that where one state has achieved a literacy rate of over 90% there remain states such as Jharkhand, Arunachal Pradesh and Bihar where the rates continue to be dismal. Rich households continue to have better access to educational facilities as compared to poor households who because of lack of knowledge and skills concentrate on unskilled labour and therefore, while the focus is high on earning the focus on any kind of educational attainment is near absent. Also where states allocate more funds to education achieve higher literacy rates as in Kerala. Inadequate school facilities, inefficient and unqualified staff, shortage of basic sanitation and drinking water facilities, even proper classrooms and black boards, ineffectiveness of primary schools enrolling and retaining students, non-conducive educational policies, allotment of funds are among the many reasons for poor literacy rates in several states and hence we continue to lag behind especially in the rural areas.

Thus basically illiteracy in India is attributable to

- i ) The high rate of population growth in relation to low rate of growth in literacy.
- ii ) Ineffectiveness of primary schools in enrolling and retaining students.
- iii ) Traditional outlook of the economically weaker sections in using the services of young children either for earning money or taking care of younger siblings.
- iv ) High incidence of poverty wherein literacy or education are not the focus and not the priority.
- v ) Low allotment of funds by the government for the education sector.

India is therefore home to almost half of the world's illiterates. There are also stark regional imbalances. State wise illiteracy points that the Hindi belt particularly the states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh (BIMARU) present a grim picture having more than one-fifth of the total illiterates. Also more than 60% of women are still illiterate and of the 14crore households, there is no literate woman in 8.4crore households. What is of greater concern is the fact that as per the 2011 census of the 164million children in the 6-14 age group, 82million i.e. 50% do not attend school. Thus the government is required to take concrete steps to tackle this major problem of illiteracy.

### **Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)**

#### **Fill in the Blanks**

- i ) Gender disparity in India is reflected even in the fields of \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.
- ii ) The uneven distribution of any one of the sexes can disturb the basic \_\_\_\_\_ within the society.
- iii ) \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ is one of India's most serious

social failures.

- iv ) Illiteracy in India has \_\_\_\_\_ dimensions and has been regarded as an obstacle to \_\_\_\_\_.
- v ) The problem of illiteracy among the \_\_\_\_\_ in India is particularly bad.

## 2.6 Summary

In this lesson we learnt about some of the social aspects of population problems such as ageing population and its associated problems, an imbalanced sex ratio, gender inequality and illiteracy. Each of the problems was analyzed and an attempt was made to underline the causes responsible. In the next lesson we shall discuss the economic aspects of the population problems.

## 2.7 Further Readings

1. Ahuja, Ram (2003), *Social Problems in India*, Jaipur, Rawat Publications.
2. Dreze, Jean and Sen, Amartya (2002) *India : Development and Participation*, New Delhi, Oxford University Press.
3. Agarwala, S.N. (1977), *India's Population Problems*, New Delhi, Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Company Limited.
4. Eberstadt, N. (2005), Old Age Tsunami, *The Wall Street Journal*, [www.opinionjournal.com/editorial/feature](http://www.opinionjournal.com/editorial/feature)
5. Kulkarni, P.M. (2000), "Prospective Changes in the Size and Structure of India's Population - Implications of PFI Projections upto 2051", New Delhi, PHD House ( Chamber of Commerce and Industry).

## 2.8 Model Questions

- Q1. Ageing is increasingly becoming a major population concern in the developed and developing countries. Discuss.
- Q2. Write a detailed note on the " Gender Inequality".

## Answers to Self Assessment Questions

### Self Assessment Questions- 1

- i) c) Increased life expectancy;      ii) a) High dependency ratio;      iii) c) 940;      iv) a) Kerala;  
v) b) Haryana

### Self Assessment Questions- 2

- i) Nutrition, health, education; ii) Equilibrium; iii) Gender inequality, female deprivation; iv) Complex, development; v) Women.

# POPULATION PROBLEMS IN INDIA: ECONOMIC ASPECTS

## Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Poverty
  - 3.2.1 Poverty: Indian Scenario
- 3.3 Employment Structure and Unemployment
- 3.4 Food Security
  - 3.4.1 Food Security/Insecurity in India
  - 3.4.2 Public Distribution System
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 Further Readings
- 3.7 Model Questions

## 3.0 Objectives

After reading this lesson you should be able to:

- specify the economic problems related to population in India.
- define poverty, employment, unemployment and food security
- explain the problems of poverty
- state the reasons for the problems related to employment and unemployment
- discuss food security in the Indian context.
- understand the concept and nature of Food Security/Insecurity
- analyze the causes and dimensions of Food Security/Insecurity
- specify the trends in Food Security/Insecurity in India
- discuss the Policies and Programs of Food Security in India
- describe the Strategies for Attaining Food Security

## 3.1 Introduction

In the last lesson we discussed certain social aspects related to the problem of population in India, such as ageing, sex ratio, gender inequality and illiteracy. In this lesson we will introduce you to some economic aspects of the problem of population. These include shortage of food, under-nourished population, poverty, existing and increasing wide gap between the haves and have-nots, uneven age structure wherein there is a high proportion of dependent population, unemployment, under-employment, and food security. In fact, these economic problems are intricately linked with and have their basis in the rapidly growing population. There is no denying that the problems are indeed gigantic

in dimension and intricate in their manifestations, impinging on the social economic and psychological structure of both the nation and individual.

In this context we shall explain and analyze the problems of poverty, employment, unemployment and food security.

### **3.2 Poverty**

Poverty refers to a situation when people are deprived of basic necessities of life. It is often characterized by inadequacy of food, shelter and clothes. India is one of the poorest countries in the world with many Indian people not getting proper diet and nutrition, good houses nor proper schooling for their children. Poverty, it can be said is a situation that gives rise to a feeling of a discrepancy between “what one has and what one should have”. Bernstein Henry (1992) identified the following dimensions of poverty, i) a lack of livelihood strategies, ii) inaccessibility to resources (money, land, credit), iii) feeling of insecurity, frustration and iv) the inability to maintain and develop social relations with others as a consequence of lack of resources.

These precepts are often used to define poverty;

1. The amount of money required by a person to subsist.
2. The life below a ‘minimum subsistence level’ and living standards prevalent at a given time in a given place.
3. The comparative state of well-being of a few and the deprivation and destitution of the majority in the society.

Whereas the first two definitions refer to the economic concepts of absolute poverty, the third definition views it as a social concept, i.e. in terms of the share of the total national income received by those at the bottom.

A variety of methods have been proposed to measure poverty in India. Prior to 2005 the government of India official measure of poverty was based on food security and was defined in terms of the per capita expenditure for a person to consume enough calories and be able to pay for associated essentials to survive. Since 2005 “Indian government adopted the Tendulkar methodology which moved away from calorie anchor to a basket of goods and used rural, urban and regional minimum expenditure per capita necessary to survive”. In India, the term poverty includes both income-based poverty and consumption-based poverty as well. Outside India, the World Bank and institutions of the United Nations use a broader definition to compare poverty among nations, including India, based on purchasing power parity (PPP)–Each state in India has its own poverty threshold to determine how many people are below its poverty line and to reflect regional economic conditions. These differences in definition yield a complex and conflicting picture about poverty in India, both internally and when compared to other developing countries of the world.

#### **3.2.1 Poverty: Indian Scenario**

Poverty in India is a historical reality. From late 19th century through early 20th century, poverty was incessant and reached its maximum in the 1920s in pre-independence times. The incidence of poverty in India was huge even at the time of independence (60%) and peaked in the 1960s post independence when it was reported to be 81%. However, rapid economic growth since 1991 led to sharp reduction in extreme poverty in India although the lack of basic essentials of life such as safe drinking water, sanitation, housing, health infrastructure as well as malnutrition continue to impact the lives of hundreds of millions.

In fact, India still suffers from a lot of poverty, which means that many people do not have enough money. In 2012, the Planning Commission of India (Tendulkar Committee) reported that 26% of all people in India fall below the international poverty line of US\$ 1.25 per day. India's official poverty line, in 2014, was rupees 972 (US\$15) a month in rural areas or rupees 1407 (US\$21) a month in cities. Further the average poverty line in India differs from each state's poverty line. For example, in 2011-2012, Puducherry had its highest poverty line of rupees 1301 (US\$19) a month in rural and rupees 1309 (US\$20) a month in urban areas, while Odisha had the lowest poverty thresholds of rupees 695 (US\$10) a month for rural and rupees 861 (US\$13) a month for its urban areas.

Over the last decade, poverty has witnessed a consistent decline with the levels dropping from 37.2% in 2004-05 to 29.8% in 2009-10. The number of poor is now estimated at 250 million, of which 200 million reside in rural India. According to the release from the Planning Commission, 25.7% of people in rural areas were below the so-called poverty line and 13.7% in urban areas. This is comparable with 33.8% and 20.9%, respectively, in 2009-10, and 42% and 25.5%, respectively, in 2004-05.

Poverty is not just an economic parameter it is a disease that sickens the society. As a phenomenon of disease it needs to be analysed in its larger socio-ecological context in which the disease agents such as occupation, social class, value orientations and location or residence of a group or a person, may have differential effects, depending upon their characteristics such as age, sex, life style, general physical conditions and social psychological capacities within the large socio-cultural environment (Mehta, 1988).

Poverty and population growth are intricately linked and deeply influence each other. If the incidence of poverty is higher, it may promote a large family size at the household level to produce more hands and provide a minimum level of living to a poor family. On the other hand, a large family size needs more food consumption and in the absence of sufficient and necessary production resources, the members of the family may be tilted towards poor living conditions. So there is a vicious circle through which poverty and population growth operates. The macro level situation is also similar, low income, unemployment, malnourishment, illiteracy, poor health, insanitary living conditions, shanty dwellings, physical and social incapacities are some of the important dimensions of poverty. Landlessness and small land holdings in rural areas are added dimensions.

In fact, high population growth rate is one of major reasons of poverty in India. This further leads to high level of illiteracy, poor health care facilities and lack of access to financial resources. Also, high population growth affects the per capita income and makes per capita income even lower. It is expected that population in India will reach 1.5 billion by 2026 and then India will be the largest nation in the world. But the economy is not likely to grow at a parallel pace as a result of which there will be a dearth of jobs available and a consequent increase in the number of poor. Further urban rural differentials will continue to increase. Just as in other developing nations the urban population is seeing a consistent rise. Influx from the rural areas to the urban areas in search of employment/ better economic opportunities is inevitable. The urban poor are more vulnerable as their incomes are unstable, and financial institutions are reluctant to support them. Five states that constitute around 40% of all urban poor people of India are Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Odisha, and Madhya Pradesh. Also around 35% of the total population of the four metro cities (Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai and Mumbai) consists of slum population wherein a large proportion of the people are illiterate, a setback to regular employment and hence continued poverty.

On the other hand, in rural areas, which are the true heart of India and where most of the population resides, the condition of the villagers is far from satisfactory and poverty is well marked. In

fact, according to the report on Socio-economic and Caste Census (2011) around 56 percent of village households do not own land, the major source of income being manual casual labour jobs and cultivation. Nearly 51 percent of all households are economically engaged in manual casual labour and nearly 30 percent of them is engaged in cultivation. Poverty is highest in the poorest states, as would be expected, although there are exceptions such as Kerala, which has per capita income below the national average but has high literacy and good access to infrastructure. Prominent among these states are Bihar, Orissa, Assam, Madhya Pradesh and to a lesser extent Uttar Pradesh. This is because they have yet to develop the manufacturing and service industries which can give an impetus to growth being observed in other states and also because governance provides relatively little encouragement to the private sector.

Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Odisha, and Madhya Pradesh account for 60% of the poor in India. A high proportion of tribal population, and vulnerability of these areas to either floods or droughts which hamper agriculture in which most people are engaged, are the prime causes responsible for the widespread poverty in these states.

As per the estimates of the Planning Commission, the percentage of population living below the poverty line decreased from 37.5 % to 29.8 % in 2009-10 and 21.9 % in 2011-12. The experts also expressed that minimum food intake is an incomplete measure of poverty as human dignity requires more than just food say shelter, medicine, primary education and transport. All plans in India have had the reduction of poverty as one of their prime objectives, and there have been substantial achievements. But as is noted above, despite food grain surplus, a major effort in primary education and basic health programs and an enormous multitude of special targeted interventions, the incidence of poverty remains unacceptably high.

India thus represents a dichotomy in development. 50% of Indians don't have proper shelter; 70% don't have access to decent toilets (which inspires a multitude of bacteria to host their own disease party); 35% of households don't have a nearby water source; 85% of villages don't have a secondary school; over 40% of these same villages don't have proper roads connecting them. Poverty is really a national problem and it must be solved on a war footing.

The causes of poverty differ from area to area and in some respects are the result of deeply engrained social or tribal characteristics that are not amenable to swift change. The attack on poverty thus has to be tuned to needs, which is the main reason why past plans have used such a wide variety of instruments. The 10th plan learnt from the experience of the past and implemented a comprehensive pro-poor strategy with the following elements.

- (1) To seek to attain the most rapid growth possible and sustain it over a decade so as to increase incomes and demand for labour. The tenth plan targeted GDP growth rate at 8%.
- (2) To ensure that the best attainable growth rates are achieved by the states and areas with the largest concentration of the poor to be helped by the implementation of the good governance actions.
- (3) To ensure that the pattern of output is as labour intensive and capital savings as much possible, without distorting the normal comparative advantage of products, which will maximize the demand for labour and avoid raising unemployment
- (4) To provide additional central resources for states which undertake effective reform programs.
- (5) To continue to give top priority to primary education enrollment and attendance, especially of girls.

(6) To similarly emphasize primary health care and adequate nutrition, especially of children and women.

(7) To implement area based programs where the problems of poverty are greatest or most intractable.

(8) To target vulnerable minorities who may be unable to benefit from other programs.

The focus on poverty alleviation has continued in the Eleventh Five Year Plan with the government having launched several poverty alleviation programs. The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) started in 2006-07 was extended to cover the whole country. Further under the poverty alleviation programs in the eleventh plan special efforts were made for the development of small and rural industries to provide employment in the rural sector in non-agricultural area, consolidating economic condition of marginal and small farmers, artisans and untrained labour, 100 days employment under NREGS within 15 days of enrolment and Aam Aadmi Bima Yojna which was launched on Oct.02, 2007.

In addition efforts included providing price support, food subsidy, land reforms etc. This encouraged self-employment reduced poverty and also empowered the poor.

In the Twelfth Five Year Plan which focuses on 'Faster Sustainable and More Inclusive Growth' ensuring an adequate flow of benefits to the poor and most marginalized is an integral part of inclusiveness. Thus, poverty reduction continues to remain an important policy focus. It is important to mention that although the percentage of population below poverty line has been declining, the numbers below poverty line remain very large. As per the Twelfth Five Year Plan according to the latest official estimates of poverty, as many as 29.8 percent of the population, that is, 350 million people were below the poverty line in 2009-10.

It is well established that the percentage of the population in poverty has been falling consistently but the rate of decline was too slow. The rate of decline in poverty in the period 2004-05 to 2009-10 was 1.5 percentage points per year, which is twice the rate of decline of 0.74 percentage points per year observed between 1993-94 and 2004-05. It is also hoped that the percentage of the population in poverty will decline significantly in the Twelfth Plan Period compared to 2009-10.

The World Bank's Global Monitoring Report for 2014-15 on the Millennium Development Goals says India has been the biggest contributor to poverty reduction between 2008 and 2011, with around 140 million or so lifted out of absolute poverty. One of the main reasons for record decline in Poverty is India's rapid economic growth rate since 1991. Another reason proposed is India's launch of social welfare programs such as Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act(MGNREGA) and Midday Meal Scheme in Government Schools. The government is taking a number of steps to mitigate poverty. Eradication of poverty would ensure a sustainable and inclusive growth of economy and society. We all should do everything possible and within our limits to help alleviate poverty from our country.



### Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)

#### Fill in the Blanks

- i ) Poverty refers to a situation when people are \_\_\_\_\_ of basic necessities of life and there prevails an inadequacy of \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.
- ii ) In India, the term poverty includes both \_\_\_\_\_ based poverty and \_\_\_\_\_ based poverty as well.
- iii ) Poverty and \_\_\_\_\_ are intricately linked and deeply influence each other.
- iv ) The causes of poverty differ but some are deeply engrained \_\_\_\_\_ or \_\_\_\_\_ characteristics that are not amenable to swift change.
- v ) According to the World Bank's Global Monitoring Report on the MDGs India has been the biggest contributor to \_\_\_\_\_.

### 3.3 Employment Structure and Unemployment

India's labour force is growing at a rate of 2.5 percent annually. Broadly analysing the employment structure in India, it is pertinent to note that about 48.2 percent of its work force is self-employed of whom many remain very poor. Nearly 30 percent comprise the casual workers who work only when work is available and on other days remain unpaid. In fact, only 17.47 percent of India's work force is regular employees, of which two-fifths are employed by the public sector.

Of the total, more than 90 percent of the labour force is employed in the 'unorganized sector' i.e. those sectors of employment which do not provide social security and other benefits as associated with the organized sector. This unorganized sector in the rural areas comprises essentially the agricultural workers, while in the urban scenario it is the contract, sub-contract and migratory agricultural labourers, who make up most of the unorganized labour force.

This has to be viewed in the context of a rapidly increasing population and a consequent burgeoning of the work force. As has been stated "India is on the brink of a demographic revolution with the proportion of working-age population between 15 and 59 years likely to increase from approximately 58 per cent in 2001 to more than 64 per cent by 2021, adding approximately 63.5 million new entrants to the working age group between 2011 and 2016, the bulk of whom will be in the relatively younger age group of 20-35 years". As a result unemployment emerges as a major population problem to reckon.

It would be relevant here to explain the term unemployment. A man has to perform many roles in his life, the most crucial of which is that of an earning member. It is crucial not because a man spends approximately one-third of his life - time performing this role but because it determines both his livelihood and status. No wonder, unemployment has been described as the most significant sociological and economic problem in society. An unemployed person is "one who having potentialities and willingness to earn, is unable to find a remunerative work". Sociologically, it has been defined as "forced or involuntary separation from remunerative work of a member of the normal working force (that is of 15 - 59 age group) during normal working time at normal wages and under normal conditions". The Planning Commission of India has described, a person as marginally unemployed when he/she remains without work for six months in a year. Against this, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) considers that person as unemployed who remains without work for 15 hours (2 days in a week of five days). This definition may be accepted in developed countries that provide social security to the unemployed but it cannot be accepted in a developing country such as India that has no Unemployment Insurance Scheme.

Some features of unemployment in India have been identified as

- i ) India has the largest population of youth in the world with about 66% of the population being under the age of 35 years.
- ii ) Education levels in recent years have improved greatly but skill development remains a crucial issue.
- iii ) Poverty limits access to skill based education and also work experience, major factors that lead to unemployment and under-employment.
- iv ) The incidence of unemployment is much higher in urban areas than in rural areas.
- v ) Unemployment rates for women are higher than those for men.
- vi ) The incidence of unemployment among the educated is much higher than overall employment.
- vii) There is greater unemployment in agricultural sector than in the industrial and other major sectors.
- viii) The growth of employment per annum is only about 2 percent

As per the Annual Employment and Unemployment Survey report 2012-13 released by The Labour Bureau under Union Ministry of Labour and Employment, among the states 'Sikkim has the maximum number of unemployed people where as Chhattisgarh has the minimum number of unemployed people in the country. Overall unemployment rate of the country is 4.7%. In Northern India, Jammu and Kashmir has the maximum unemployment rate followed by Himachal Pradesh, Delhi, Chandigarh, Punjab and Haryana. Unemployment rate in rural area is 4.4% whereas in urban area it is 5.7%'.

According to a National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) report too India's employment rate went down to 38.6% in 2011-12 (July-June) from 39.2% in 2009-10. With this unemployment rate had gone up from 2.5% to 2.7%. In 2004-05 the employment rate was 42%. Between 2004-5 and 2009-10 some 2.7 million new jobs were created compared to just 60 million in the previous five year period. As per the survey more women lost their jobs compared to men. Also the number of employed women declined from 18% to 16% between 2009-2012, whereas the number of employed men remained the same. Apparently small in terms of percentage, the actual figures are really daunting. In the rural sector too while about 90 lakh women lost their jobs in a period of two years, some 35 lakh women were added to the workforce in urban areas. In fact, the overall unemployment rate at 7.2% was more for females than the unemployment rate for men, which was at 4%. Among the large states, Kerala, with the highest literacy, had the highest unemployment rate, i.e, close to 10%, whereas rate of unemployment in West Bengal and Assam was 4.5% and 4.3% respectively.

The workforce engaged in the agriculture sector declined for the first time to below 50% and was at 49%, whereas 24% of the workforce was engaged in the manufacturing sector and 27% workforce in the service sector.

Employment has to be considered as a major driver of the economy. Economic growth in 2009-10 was 9.3% whereas in 2011-12 it came down to 6.2%.

Jobless youth are left with no other option but to be self employed and in case they are not skilled then only low paying jobs are possible. Therefore, the youth today are interested in the more remunerative skill-based jobs for which accessibility to skill based education is a must.

According to NSSO reports the lowest unemployment rates are found among the illiterates who are ready to do low paying jobs. It is the educated youth who is facing maximum unemployment indicative of lack of skill based employment opportunities in India.

The unemployment rate in India increased significantly since 1991- 94 from 6.0 percent to above 7.3 percent in 1999-2000. The corresponding unemployment rates for scheduled castes stood at 8.3 percent in 1993-1994 and 9.6 percent in 1999-2000. Of the more than 27 million unemployed 74% are in the rural sector with atleast 60% among them being educated. In some states in some sections of the labour force the unemployment rate has gone up to 25 percent e.g. in Kerala among the 15-29 years age group the unemployment rate exceeds 35% as against the national average around 13%.

Such a situation is obviously a great challenge. At the same time globalization, the revival of traditional technologies and advent of new technologies as also key economic reforms has led to the creation of new and additional job opportunities.

As mentioned earlier in India, unemployed persons are individuals who are without a job and actively seeking to work and the unemployment rate measures the number of people actively looking for a job as a percentage of the labour force.

A decline in the job creating capacity of growth fell from 2.7% per year between 1983 and 1993 to 1.07% per year between 1994 and 2000 despite the GDP growth rising from 5.2% to 6.7%. This was primarily responsible for the rising unemployment. During this period the employment generating capacity of the organized sector declined to near zero while that of the public sector has even been negative. According to several reports this was primarily because of the policy of shedding excess labour to meet the growing market competition, often known as right sizing; the trend of increasing capital intensity per unit of output; and the pattern of growth moving in favour of capital intensive sectors.

Further, outside the organized sector, agriculture, which was a major employment generating sector in the past, almost stopped absorbing labour. In fact the incidence of unemployment today has been somewhat controlled because of the significant slowing down of the labour force growth from 2.43% between 1983 and 1993-94 to 1.31% per annum between 1993-94 and 1999-2000. Both these issues of slow employment growth and increasing unemployment were of great concern especially for the backward regions, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, and other weaker sections especially women, and the educated youth.

Some positive trends however, began to be observed. India gradually has started getting tuned to meet the present needs in the context of growing competition and globalization. The labour force is becoming more skill and education oriented. At the same time in both the organized and unorganized sector, labour productivity is increasing. The rural non- farm sector is growing at a faster rate than the agricultural sector as a result of which the spill over of excess labour from the latter is being absorbed by the former. While casual labour is becoming more common, wages have improved as have the quality of jobs.

From 1983 till 2011, unemployment rates in India averaged 9 percent reaching an all-time high of 9.4 percent in December 2010 and a record low of 3.8 Percent in December 2011. The number of unemployed persons in India decreased to 39963 thousand in 2009 from 39974 thousand in 2007.

The fall in unemployment despite marginal growth in employment in 2009-10 could be due to the demographic dividend, as an increasing proportion of the young population opts for education rather than participating in the labour market. This is reflected in the rise in growth in enrolment of students in higher education following programs such as Sarv Shiksha Abhyaan as also the enactment of Right to Education Act. Employment growth in the organized sector, public and private combined,

has increased by 1.0 per cent in 2011, as against 1.9 per cent in 2010. The annual growth rate of employment in the private sector in 2011 was 5.6 per cent whereas that in the public sector was negative. The share of women in organized-sector employment was around 20.5 per cent during 2009-11 and has remained nearly constant in recent years. Employment Situation in 2011-12 as per the Fifteenth Quarterly Quick Employment Survey by the Labour Bureau indicates that the upward trend in employment since July 2009 has been maintained. Overall employment in June, 2012 over June, 2011 increased by 6.94 lakh.

The [Government of India](#) has taken several steps to decrease the unemployment rates such as launching the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme which guarantees a 100-day employment to an unemployed person in a year. The unemployment rate (per 1000) among the major states is the lowest in Gujarat(18) and highest in Kerala(73) and Bihar(73) in urban areas and the lowest in Rajasthan (4) and again highest in Kerala (75) in rural areas. The low unemployment rate in rural areas in Rajasthan may partly be due to high absorption of Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) funds in the state. Kerala, which has performed well in terms of most indicators, performs less well in terms of unemployment (both rural and urban). This may be due to the higher level of education in Kerala resulting in people not opting for manual jobs as observed by some studies.

Further diversifying agricultural production and increasing public investment in agriculture; stimulating tourism, housing and construction, real estate development, distribution and retailing, road transportation etc.; emphasis on support for oil-seeds, horticulture, dairying, poultry etc.; developing and encouraging technologies which are more labour and knowledge intensive and less capital intensive; and reviewing labour laws that restricting formal sector employment growth and strengthening the education and health services are some of the measures which should be adopted to tackle the employment and unemployment problems related to population.

To sum up the employment strategy for future, to meet the Plan's employment goals is to encourage the use of labour intensive and capital saving technology, in general and to rejuvenate the growth of the unorganized sector in particular, which at present contributes 92 percent to the country's employment and enjoys more than seven times labour intensity per unit of production, as compared to the organized sector. However, the unorganized sector needs to be made more productive to sustain itself against the domestic and international competition by proper choice of programs and policies compatible with India's economic reforms and the WTO rules.

### **3.4 Food Security**

The concept of food security/insecurity that emerged in the mid 1970s initially focused just on food availability but later came to include food access and utilization as well. As defined by the Food and Agricultural Organization in 1996 food security was the "physical and economic access, at all times, to sufficient, safe and nutritious food for all people to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life". In its composition it is identified with nutrition security and accessibility not only in terms of availability and concurrently with entitlement. Spatially, it moved from a geographic territory to household and, improving further, to reach down to all individuals within the household.

Food security can be of two types, i) temporal food security/insecurity and ii) spatial food security/insecurity. The former refers to a short term inability to meet the food requirement. This could be the result of unforeseen, unexpected circumstances such as drought, war, rainfall anomalies, or any natural or man-made calamity. It could also be cyclic in nature wherein a decline in access to minimum food requirement occurs in a regular pattern generally just before every harvest in the lean agricultural season. The main cause for cyclical food insecurity is the inability to produce sufficient and enough

food until the next harvest season due to poor land practices, poor agricultural inputs and backward farming systems.

Spatial food security/insecurity may occur at different levels such as at global, continental or national (macro level), regional and local food insecurity (meso level) and household and individual food insecurity (micro level).

There can be several cause of food insecurity such as environmental including drought, flood, crop diseases and pests, cyclone, tsunami etc.; economic such as food production, food consumption, per capita income, poverty etc.; social including population growth, urban growth, education, caste etc.; historical and geographical such as land tenure, terrain, climate etc.; and political including civil wars, racial conflicts, political instability, and even inappropriate agricultural policies etc. Food availability and vulnerability to food, sustainable livelihood and economic access to food, nutrition, food absorption and utilization as also the impact of globalization and policy responses to food security are some dimensions of the food security issue in India.

### **3.4.1 Food Security/Insecurity in India**

Food security in India can be viewed both at the national and also at the household level.

At the national level it will be pertinent to mention that prior to the green revolution India was faced with massive food shortages and depended heavily on food imports and aid. The current food scenario, however, is completely the opposite, where it is faced with the challenge of tackling huge food-grain surpluses that tend to accumulate as public buffer stocks to the extent that the government is subsidizing exports of grain. With the exception of edible oils and pulses, import dependence is extremely low for most agricultural commodities. Generally over the years while the net availability of cereals has been increasing, that of pulses has been on the decline. Also, since 1996 there is a decline in the per capita net availability of cereals and a secular decline in the per capita net availability of pulses as well.

Use of hybrid varieties of rice and wheat, an expansion of irrigated areas more than the expansion of cultivated area, as also government policies including subsidies on fertilizers, irrigation and power along with price support for the produce played an important role in achieving a phenomenal increase in production and hence self sufficiency in food-grains. India is now one of the world's leading producers of rice and wheat and has in the recent years emerged as a regular exporter of rice. However, it continues to depend on imports for its requirement of pulses and edible oils. It is the biggest producer of milk in the world and ranks among the top producers of fruits and vegetables. Its production of exportable horticultural products has risen sharply in recent years. India is a net exporter of agricultural products. Its exports include rice, oil meals, cotton, coffee, fruits, vegetables and marine products. Imports include edible oils, pulses, dried fruits and nuts.

However, currently, India faces a paradoxical situation where huge food surpluses at the aggregate national level co-exist with large under nourished and poor population. Due to the constraints on arable land, growth in output came from increased intensification of agriculture on irrigated lands, which had its side effects. Increased chemical fertilizers and pesticides use led to environmental degradation, including soil erosion, water logging and salinity. The green revolution technologies not only ignored environmental sustainability, but also failed to benefit the farmers in un-irrigated and marginal areas, where a large percentage of the population continues to be poor.

However, food availability at the aggregate level does not ensure food security at the household level due to lack of economic access to food. Lack of entitlements for households belonging to certain social groups in marginal lands is a major reason for household food insecurity. Identifying these

groups based on their socio-economic, demographic, and location characteristics would help in devising appropriate policies such as targeted food subsidies and employment generation programs.

Also in India the decline in poverty and increase in per capita income has not been accompanied by any rise in cereal consumption partly due to changing consumer preferences and dietary patterns leading to a switch from coarse cereals to superior and more expensive cereals such as rice and wheat, vegetables, and dairy products even when the incidence of nutritional deficiency is high. Calorie intake of consumers at the bottom level of income scale remains much below the RDA even though their intake shows a rising trend over the years. The low calorie and nutrient consumption by the poor indicates their poor state of well being and stresses the importance of keeping food prices low and having an effective public distribution system. This is particularly important for the deficit states where cereal production is insufficient to meet their demand requirements and where market price of food is higher than other states.

Food security has become a matter of great concern posing a multi dimensional crisis on account of the high growth rate of population, decreasing land productivity, increasing cost of production, debt condition of the farmers and socio-economic stratification of society on caste lines. The crisis of food security has led to decline in the farm-based livelihood of small and marginal farmers and landless labourers who constitute the bulk of India's population. It has put at risk the vulnerable living conditions of the poorest sections of the country by endangering their right to food. This crisis is the cumulative result of prolonged neglect of agriculture sector and wrong Govt. policies since independence.

In the past few years, the Indian farmers have been hit by steep rise of prices of diesel, fertilizers, pesticides and all other farm inputs with the price of most agricultural products either remaining stagnant or getting depressed, following rise in inflation. The large-scale suicides by heavily indebted farmers, food shortage and malnutrition area most shocking phenomena. The recurring cycle of droughts, cyclones, failure of crops, lack of adequate, timely and affordable credit, exploitation by money lenders, non-remunerative price, increased input cost, growing pest menace, failure of seeds, lack of necessary affordable insurance cover and un-assured supply of critical inputs like water, power, seeds and fertilizers at affordable prices have culminated into farmers miseries and making them food insecure in the country. Majority of the farmers and landless labourers who are food insecure presently reside in drought prone areas or dry-land farming areas of the country. They directly or indirectly depend on agriculture and their productivity and income is very low which is making them food insecure. The states which are most affected by food insecurity include eastern and south-eastern parts of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, West Bengal, Chattisgarh, parts of Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra.

To achieve and ensure food availability, accessibility and affordability leading to food security, India has adopted several policies and programs. These include

- i ) Public Distribution System and Targeted Public Distribution System–(PDS/TPDS) that aims to ensure food security at the household level. Currently under TPDS food-grains are distributed all over India through a vast network of around half million fair price shops at affordable prices, particularly to below poverty line (BPL)house-holds.
- ii ) The Antyodaya Anna Yojna (AAY) - a special scheme launched for the poorest of the poor in December 2000.
- iii ) Mid-Day Meal - a nationwide program launched on 15th August 1995 to consolidate earlier efforts to provide the mid-day meals in primary schools to supplement nutrition for children between 5-9 years (class I-IV) in the first phase and up to 14 years (Class V-VIII) in the second

phase to encourage them to enroll themselves in primary schools and to attend school regularly.

- iv ) Integrated Child Development Services- (ICDS) program aimed at providing integrated packages of nutrition, health and early child development services covering the whole country. It also provides nutrition services to children (0-6 years) and mothers, nutrition services which include supplementary feeding and growth monitoring.
- v ) Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojna and Employment Assurance Scheme—two nation wide employment schemes guarantying employment to workers who receive part of their wages in the form of food-grains.
- vi ) Employment Guarantee Scheme— for tackling seasonal malnutrition among poor rural households in Maharashtra.
- vii ) Integrated Rural Development Programme, Jawahar Rojgar Yojna National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme are anti-poverty programs which have been implemented by the government of India to ensure food security among the poor rural households in the country.
- viii ) National Food Security Mission launched in 2007-08 by the government of India to increase the production of wheat, rice and pulses in selected districts of the country.
- ix ) Integrated Cereal Development Program- Integrated Scheme of Oil Seeds, Pulses, Oil Palm and Maize —programs launched to enhance the production of cereals and pulses in the country.
- x ) National Food Security Act, 2013 – The National Food Security Act, 2013 (also Right to Food Act) is an Act of Parliament that aims to provide subsidized food grains to approximately two thirds of India's population. Implemented on 5<sup>th</sup> July, 2013 the National Food Security Act, 2013 converts into legal entitlements all existing food security programs of the Government of India. It includes the Midday Meal Scheme, Integrated Child Development Services scheme and the Public Distribution System. Further, the NFSA 2013 recognizes maternity entitlements. The Midday Meal Scheme and the Integrated Child Development Services Scheme are universal in nature whereas the PDS will reach about two-thirds of the population (75% in rural areas and 50% in urban areas). Under the provisions of the bill, beneficiaries of the Public Distribution System (PDS) are entitled to 5 kilograms per person per month of cereals e.g. rice at Rs. 3 per kg, wheat at Rs. 2 per kg and coarse grains (millet) at Rs. 1 per kg. Pregnant women, lactating mothers, and certain categories of children are eligible for daily free meals under this act.

### **3.4.2 Public Distribution System**

The Public Distribution System (PDS) is one of the instruments for improving food security at the household level in India where millions of poor suffer from persistent poverty and malnutrition. The government has been supplying six essential commodities through PDS: wheat, rice, sugar, edible oils, kerosene and soft coke. They are supplied at below market prices to consumers, the access to the system being universal.

The public distribution system and the available buffer stock are the two most essential components of the food security system in India. The major benefits of the public distribution system include stabilizing prices so that food is available at affordable prices. It also entails the supply of food from surplus to deficit areas in order to overcome hunger and famines. Moreover the prices are set keeping the poor households in mind while in certain regions income security is also provided to farmers. The agency involved in the process of procurement, transportation, storage and distribution are Food Corporation of India (FCI) and at the state level, the civil supply departments/corporations and fair price shops.

However, problem of hunger still exists in India. This is attributable to several factors. Food stocks in the granaries are generally stored well above the specified levels as a result of which there is deterioration in the quality of the stored food grains. Also the storage costs are high. Further the increase in the minimum support price has led to a shift from coarse grains to the production of rice and wheat. Widespread cultivation of rice has particularly led to environmental degradation, specifically the reduction in the ground water table.

With a consistently increasing population the following strategies can be adopted for attaining food security:

- i ) Sustainability of food availability
- ii ) Minimizing economic and environmental costs
- iii ) Restructuring technology delivery and support systems
- iv ) Social mobilization and group action
- v ) Affirmative actions and empowerment of women
- vi ) Ensuring adequate household income
- vii ) Crop intensification and farming systems diversification
- viii ) Promotion of rural employment and diversification
- ix ) Surveillance and food

In addition to the above, other strategies including check on commercial, industrial and residential encroachments of fertile agricultural land; alternative sources of food e.g. sea food, identification of new plant species for human nutrition from the floral world; population development and planning e.g. National Population Policy; trade and price policies e.g. export-import policy and minimum support price policy; and disaster mitigation e.g. disaster management committee's and institutions must be adopted in order to achieve food security and overcome the problem of food insecurity among all sections of population.

#### **Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)**

##### **State TRUE or False**

- i ) More than 90 percent of the labour force in India is employed in the 'unorganized sector'.
- ii ) The incidence of unemployment is much higher in rural areas than in urban areas.
- iii ) Food security can be temporal or spatial.
- iv ) The Public Distribution System (PDS) is one of the instruments for improving food security.
- v ) Social mobilization and group action do not impact food security.

### **3.5 Summary**

In this lesson, we learnt about some economic issues related to the problem of population in India. Specifically the aspects of poverty, employment and unemployment and the concern for food security were discussed. Beginning with poverty, its definition, causes, its relationship to the problem of high growth rate of population and government efforts to reduce poverty were studied. This was followed by an analysis of the employment and unemployment situation in India, its impact and the various programs being adopted to ensure a means of livelihood to the majority were discussed. Finally the various aspects of food security/insecurity in India, its concept, nature, causes and dimensions and



of the trends in food security/insecurity in India were analysed. The various programs for food security and the role of the public distribution system in providing food security in India as also strategies for attaining food security were taken up and explained. In the next lesson we shall study about the relationship between population, the quality of life and socio-economic development.

### 3.6 Further Readings

1. Mehta, S.R. (1988), *"Social Structural and Cultural Dimensions of Rural Poverty"*, Relevant Sociology, Vol. V, Nos. 1-2, pp. 1-13.
2. Punit, A.E. (1982), *Profile of Poverty in India*, Delhi, B.R. Publishing Corporation.
3. Agarwala, S.N. (1977), *India's Population Problems*, New Delhi, Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Company Limited.
4. Asian Development Bank (2010), *Agricultural, Food Security and Rural Development*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.
5. Chung, K., et. al. (1997), *Identifying the Food Insecure: The Application of Mixed Method. Approaches in India*; International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington.

### 3.7 Model Questions

- Q.1 Discuss the problem of poverty in India.
- Q2. Write short notes on the following
- i ) Underemployment and Unemployment
  - ii ) Food security
  - iii ) Measures adopted in India to overcome food insecurity

### Answers to Self Assessment Questions

#### Check Your Progress- 1

i) Deprived, food, shelter, clothes; ii) Income, Consumption; iii) Population growth; iv) Social, tribal; v) Poverty reduction.

#### Check Your Progress- 2

i) True;          ii) False;          iii) True;          iv) True;          v) False

## RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POPULATION, QUALITY OF LIFE AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

### Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
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- 4.10 Reconsidering Development
- 4.11 India: Human Development Reports and Quality of Life
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- 4.14 Model Questions

### 4.0 Objectives

After reading this lesson you should be able to

- understand the concept of socio-economic development in the context of both developed and developing countries.
- highlight the relationship between quality of life population growth and socio-economic development.
- explain the concept of sustainable development and relate it to population distribution.
- provide an account of poverty and population as problems affecting socio-economic development in India.

- specify the quality of life parameters and equate these with the socio-economic development in India.

## 4.1 Introduction

In the last lesson we learnt about the economic aspects of the problems related to a rapidly growing population in India with an emphasis on poverty, employment, unemployment and food security. In this lesson we shall discuss the relationship of population, quality of life and socio-economic development. A high population growth is a growing concern throughout the world and a challenge to countries' economies. The world population has already crossed the 7 billion mark and it is projected to rise to 9.2 billion by 2050 with almost all population growth projected to occur in the developing countries. Broadly speaking, according to economists, there can be three types of relationship between population growth and development, one that states that population growth helps a nation's economy by stimulating economic growth and development, another based on Robert Malthus' findings states that population increase is detrimental to a nation's economy due to a variety of problems caused by the increase in population. For example, overpopulation and population growth places a tremendous amount of pressure on resources, which result in a chain reaction of problems as the nation grows. The third school of thought is that population growth does have any impact on economic growth. In this lesson we shall discuss the relationship of population, quality of life and socio-economic development.

## 4.2 What is Socio-Economic Development?

Development is usually treated as a generic term counting growth, evolution, stage, inducement or progress. Economists operationalize development as growth in per capita Gross National Product (or a similar national accounts figure). But GNP or consumption per head does not measure the conditions in which people live. It is clear that the same goods and services may have very different effects on different people under varying circumstances. Secondly, wastage of various kinds occurring at production, marketing or consumption stages is often not accounted for in the national plans. Thirdly, due to misdistribution, the goods and services produced may not generate welfare for a large proportion of the population. And finally, some aspects of welfare (like leisure) the feeling of security etc. are not reflected in the national accounting. (Rodan) It has been emphasized that "apart from the economic problems" of producing goods and services, we have the social problems of using those resources in such a way as to improve the welfare effect of the economic activity. (Drewinski). Thus the social indicators of development should always be considered along with the economic ones. That is why, of late, it has been stated that development is not to be measured in terms of growth only but it is expressed as "social change" plus "growth". Development in the new perspective has been referred to as an overall process of transforming men and societies leading to a social order in which every human being can achieve moral and material well being.

## 4.3 Perspectives on Development

Development has also been referred to as an integral, value loaded cultural process encompassing, the natural environment, social relations, education, production and consumption and well – being. (FAO) The "Study Guide on Development" of the Food and Agricultural Organization states that, "the ultimate purpose of development is to provide everyone with ever increasing opportunities for a better life. It therefore, requires an equitable distribution of human and other social resources in order to promote justice and efficient production to raise the level of employment substantially, to expand and improve facilities for education, health, nutrition, housing, social and cultural well-being the qualitative and structural changes that development thus imposes on society must go in hand with economic progress while racial, ethnic and social inequalities must be substantially reduced. These are decisive factors in hastening development and hence must be handled with dynamism".(FAO, 1994).

Development means different things to different people. Laufer, states, “ It means dams and factories, roads and canals, bush clearing, electrification soil improvement, universities, secondary schools, primary schools, sanitation, research and a multitude of other activities and achievements. But, above all, development means people- the preparation and activation of people is the cause of economic and social development: (Laufer, 1967). For others, “national development objectives relate not only to a rate of growth, but also to income distribution and other social goals”(Hirschman, 1965.)

Development should spring from the heart of each society, which “relies first on its own strength and resources and defines its sovereignty, the vision of its future, cooperating with societies, sharing its problems and aspirations” (Development Dialogue, 1975). Self-reliance is the key to development especially for the developing countries. The developed nations should nevertheless shoulder major responsibility and fulfill a moral obligation to help the developing world with technical and financial resources for improving their environment and for further expansion of their indigenous resources.

#### **4.4 Population and Socio-Economic Development**

Population is a significant factor in development. Population change depends upon the surplus of births and deaths or vice-versa, plus the balance of in-migration and out-migration. A higher birth rate is usually accompanied by a higher death rate, which has been observed to vary with nutritional standard, sanitary conditions, level of medical knowledge and availability of medical facilities. There has been a decline in the death rate during the last century in the western countries and the birth rate also shows a similar trend. It is expected that in line with the transitional theory, a similar pattern of decline of death and birth rates will be observed in the developing nations.

Development may be considered as a necessary condition for population control though it may not be a sufficient condition in all situations. Reduction in population size may not be desirable for every kind of development. In certain situations, one may like to have huge man- power, resources for development purposes. Thus the interaction between development and population growth has been well recognized, as one may act as an antecedent to as well as a consequence for the other. In the context of the developing economies, it has been observed that growth in GNP has not been able to reduce the widespread poverty marked by technological backwardness of the agriculture sector. Further the incapacity of even technologically advanced sectors such as industry to absorb the fast growing labour force as a result of population growth resulted in increased unemployment. Again, due to rise in population the expansion of the education and health care in these countries, vital for human resource development were restricted. Population pressure in these countries also forced them to go in for foreign products, thus generating economic dependency. (FAO,).

#### **4.5 Problems of Population Growth: Development Crisis**

A review on population research indicates that there have been some differences of opinion with regard to whether population growth has retarded the social and economic development in absolute terms or has it been cited only as a non-trivial retarder (Berelson). However, most of the developing nations have gone in for population policies and are making concerted efforts to check or limit the population growth. These policies have largely been influenced by the availability of low price birth control technology, transferable from the developed world. In the recent past, the population policy, exclusively determined by demographic factors, has been questioned. The World Population Conference (Bucharest) and the World Food Conference (Revise) recognized that the solution to the population growth problem depended mainly on the socio-economic transformation of these nations. In other words, development was considered the best form of contraception for population control. It was emphasized that families must be provided both with motivation and means to limit births. Thus, in formulating population policy for the developing nations, there is a need to combine both the demographic and socio-economic parameters.

Economists have made many attempts to test the postulates of Thomas Malthus on food supplies and population and estimated that with appropriate technology and sufficient purchased inputs, 50 to 60 million could be provided with high quality diet or almost 100 million could be fed at minimum level of subsistence, but these global estimates or predictions hardly help the developing nations having inherent social, structural, cultural and psychological barriers to development. This would require shifting the analysis from macro to micro level.

Population growth takes place within the “family” or the “household” level and this operates mainly outside the market system. Both consumption and production side of the analysis are related to “family size” and “age structure” of its member. Children constitute consumption dimension of the family till they grow as adults and contribute towards the utility aspect of the family household. Their addition to the family would necessitate a readjustment of the household or family members may be motivated to maximise productivity. A change in the consumption behaviour of the household or family as a consequence of rise in population size would affect the production behaviour of the family by altering relationship between labour and capital endowments, between leisure and labour and by affecting the household budget. Thus, the demographic variables such as family size and age structure of the family members in interaction with the consumption and production side of the family or household shall have to be studied within the utility maximization model.

But do we have a model that combines the demographic and economic aspects of population growth for decision-making at the family or household level? In addition, the non-economic factors, both at the macro and micro level analysis determinants of fertility, have been observed to be significant. As such, it becomes necessary to look into some of the social-psychological perspectives on communication and decision making at the individual or family level in addition to the utility maximization model of economics, laying emphasis on cost-benefit analysis of children or preferences on the tastes of the people. Leibenstein, while explaining his theory on human fertility behaviour, admits the limitation of economic rationality theory in spelling out the ways in which decisions are made for want of information. Further, he asserts that without specifying the content of utility, is difficult to determine its relevance to the decision making process (Leibenstein). Thus examining the fertility behaviour with social-psychological perspectives becomes important.

#### **4.6 Population Health and Socio-Economic Development**

One significant point is that we need to get out of the game of numbers and improve the quality of population. Investment in health and education in the developing nations can go a long way in improving the quality of population. More specifically, the health and education of women are critical factors in improving the quality of population. Women’s health and their mothering skills can bring up healthy and productive children. Women have to be put first in the population policy. This would warrant gender equity, enhance women’s social and economic position by empowering them to take decisions on vital issues concerning them, women’s education and employment, women’s health and girl child care, providing holistic reproductive care to women, preventing female infanticide, putting an end to the social evils of dowry, child marriage and the dehumanizing practice of “Sati” and providing strong base of family life education to avoid broken marriages. It has been argued that for women to have economic and social status, they need to have independent land rights as employment opportunities for them are only complimentary and do not substitute for land (Agarwal, 1994).

On the other hand, men cannot be side tracked in traditional societies since because of patriarchal families in many of the developing nations most of the decisions lie in their hands. However with the transference of certain emerging roles to women, men cannot be ignored and change in their attitude is desirable. Further, a three pronged strategy needs to be evolved by the developing countries to stabilise the family size. First the health aspects of population, namely, reduction in maternal, infant

and child mortality through a sound reproductive health care system have to be strengthened. Secondly, family planning and information services need to be made accessible to all the families and finally, population education and effective communication programs should promote the small family norm in relevance with the religious and cultural values of people while respecting the principle of voluntary decisions.

### **Sefl Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)**

#### **Fill in the Blanks**

- i ) The \_\_\_\_\_ indicators of development should always be considered along with the economic ones.
- ii ) The ultimate purpose of \_\_\_\_\_ is to provide everyone with ever increasing opportunities for a better life.
- iii ) \_\_\_\_\_ is the key to development especially for the developing countries.
- iv ) In developing countries growth in GNP has not been able to reduce the widespread \_\_\_\_\_.
- v ) Investment in \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ in the developing nations can go a long way in improving the quality of population.

## **4.7 Sustainable Development: Socio-Cultural and Ecological Dimensions**

The focus now is to bridge economics and ecology with social life, in other words to attain sustainable development. Although the credit for promoting the concept of sustainable development goes to the World Commission on Environment and Development (Brundtland Report), the origin of the term can be traced to the World Conservation Strategy Document. However, the World Commission Report on Environment and Development defined sustainable development as paths of human progress, which meet the needs and aspirations of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs. This is easier said than done as it requires a fundamental change in mind set, the way we think, live, produce, consume and the way in which we behave towards each other. It is stated that to achieve sustainable development, the following are important:-

- a) Political systems that ensures effective citizen participation in decision-making.
- b) Economic systems to generate surpluses and technical knowledge on a self-reliant and sustained basis.
- c) Social systems that provide solutions to the tensions from disharmonious development.
- d) Production system to preserve the ecological base for development.
- e) Technological system that continuously search for new solutions
- f) An international system that fosters sustainable patterns of trade and finance.
- g) Administration systems that are flexible and self corrective.

Thus the efforts towards sustainable development cannot be static but rather ever-changing and dynamic, consistently adapting to various systems for meeting human needs and aspirations and not just of ant one country or region but for all humanity. At the same time also for future development of people, especially the increasing large number of the poor in the developing countries, through creating

ecological balancing and technological innovations for a sustained social life, not only for the present but for the future generations as well. This indeed is a formidable challenge that needs to be met with.

#### **4.8 Population and Sustainable Development: Inter-Linkages Affecting Quality of Life**

In September 1994, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) was held in Cairo, Egypt. This conference attracted greater participation and media attention than previous world conferences on population because this conference represented an important shift in the approach towards the population problem. It not only included discussions on the value of family planning programs for controlling population but also talked about the importance of sustainable development and improving individual's health and well being to tackle the population problem.

The world's population has been growing rapidly. Most of the current annual growth that is nearly 90 million people per year is occurring in the developing countries. According to the United Nations projections, by 2025 the total population of the world would have grown upto 8.3 billion approximately. The rapid population growth is a concern of government and citizens especially of those belonging to the developing countries because it hugely stresses the limited resources ultimately posing as a threat to the environment. Thus, the ICPD addressed population and women's rights issues within the context of responsible economic development, which is more broadly termed as sustainable development. Sustainable development in simple terms means economic growth that does not destroy resources. In other words, it implies that social and economic progress can occur without exhausting a nation's resources. There should be sustainability in production and consumption relating to all economic activities including industry, energy, agriculture, forestry, fisheries, transport etc. in order to maximize the use of resources and minimize waste.

It is estimated by the United Nations that due to rapid population growth there are already half a billion people in the developing countries who are unemployed or underemployed. To accommodate their growing populations, the developing countries must create some 30 million jobs each year to maintain their current employment levels. Unemployment, as a result of increased population, would lead to poverty and poverty in turn would be accompanied by illiteracy, poor health, low status of women and exposure to environmental problems such as overgrazed and overharvested land, air and water pollution etc. Thus, rapid population growth can bring about problems related to society, economy and environment.

The 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), held in Cairo therefore proved to be a turning point in international discussions on population. Whereas earlier world conferences on population had focused on controlling population growth in developing countries, mainly through family planning, the Cairo conference enlarged the scope of policy discussions as governments agreed that population policies should address social development beyond family planning, especially the advancement of women, and that family planning should be provided as part of a broader package of reproductive health care. Underlying this new emphasis was a belief that enhancing individual health and rights would ultimately lower fertility and slow population growth.

##### **4.8.1 Goals Articulated at Cairo**

The International Conference on Environment and Development Program of Action endorsed by 180 governments places population in a broad development context and calls for comprehensive government and private sector actions. Goals span the issues of women's rights, productive health, poverty and environmental protection. These are

- i) To bring about more equitable relationships between men and women, and empower women to participate more fully in development.

- ii ) To reduce and eliminate unsustainable patterns of production and consumption.
- iii ) To formulate and implement population policies as part of social and economic development.
- iv ) To take steps to eradicate poverty
- v ) To provide universal access to family planning services and reproductive health care.
- vi ) To improve the health of infants and children.
- vii ) To increase access to education, especially for girls.
- viii ) To improve the status of women, and expand opportunities for young women (education and job possibilities) and
- ix ) To involve men in childbearing responsibilities and family planning

Thus, the consensus in Cairo was that no single solution on its own is likely to produce the changes needed to slow population growth and mitigate the effects of rapid growth in society. Governments and population experts now recognize that a number of social interventions - when combined and sustained over a period of time will bring about lower birth rates, lower death rates, and ultimately a stable population. The policies to be pursued include sustainable development, education and empowerment of women, improved literacy, availability of contraceptives, and high quality health care especially reproductive health care.

#### **4.9 Poverty and Population Affecting Socio-Economic Development**

Poverty and population are the twin problems affecting sustainable development in the developing nations. Together these are eating into the vital organs of our society. Both have adverse affects on the environment as a result of which natural life support system is becoming weak. If the incidence of poverty is higher, that may promote a large family size at the household level to produce more hands and provide a minimum level of living to a poor family. On the other hand, a large family size needs more food consumption and in the absence of sufficient and necessary production resources, the members of the family may be tilted towards poor living conditions. So there, is a vicious circle through which poverty and population growth operates. The macro level situation is also similar. Low income, unemployment, malnourishment, illiteracy, poor health unsanitary living conditions, shanty dwellings, physical and social incapacities are path of the important dimensions of poverty. Landlessness and small land holdings in rural areas are added dimensions.

#### **4.10 Reconsidering Development**

To tackle the three-headed crises continuing existence of poverty on a large scale, threat to the natural environment and resource base and continuing rapid population growth interacting both with poverty and environmental damage, a rethinking on economic and development theory is important. Economic theory fails to tell us as how to eradicate poverty and there is a need to emphasize on human development for maximizing contribution and benefit directly at the individual, family or community level. Development theory needs revision not only for the developing but also for the developed nations whose per capita energy use is two hundred times greater. Needs of both the groups have to be emphasized and social development should become part of the development planning of all countries. Education, health care and balanced population growth, with special focus on the status of women, are crucial for a modern productivity oriented development.

To tackle poverty and the problem of population, food production, distribution and food security have emerged as significant controlling factors. The world population is increasing by about one million people every four days and by 2025, some 3000 million or more people will be added and need to be fed. This would require doubling the present food production if they have to be adequately fed. More



over, there is a rise in consumption with rising incomes. It is reported that the developed world directly or indirectly now consume nearly two and a half times as much cereals per person as developing countries and five times as much meat.

Besides food production and distribution, building social and psychological capacities of poor through education, training and health care, involving poor in planning activities that are relevant to their needs, altering land and debt relationships, Institution building for the poor, checking migration from rural to urban areas by bringing industry close to rural areas, appropriate technological solutions to tackle problems of the poor providing contraception technology to limit family size, providing clean technology to check pollution and wasteful effluents, infrastructural development and decentralization of power, may be the other contributing factors for sustainable development.

In other words, infrastructural, technological, institutional; participative and social service oriented changes such as education, health care and population control may form the bases for a paradigm on development especially rural population. The inter-linkages of poverty, population and sustainable development will have to be worked out in specific national or international or even at local settings, depending upon the compulsions of natural and human resources, time and space dimensions and availability of technological innovations.

The international population agenda has broadened-far beyond family planning. When population programs were focused on family planning, it was relatively easy to project needs and assess program outcomes. Evidence of specific program accomplishments such as rising contraceptive use or falling fertility is compelling both for elected officials - who need concrete successes to bring home to constituents and for program managers, who need to plan a specific set of inputs and activities. Since the new strategy calls for simultaneous investments in health, education and the empowerment of women in addition to the more narrowly focused contraceptive and reproductive health services, tensions will inevitably arise over how to allocate resources among agencies and programs. Some argue that it will lead to a dilution of program efforts and thus make it difficult to achieve measurable results in any one sector. Thus, the developing countries especially will have to find the right mix of politics and programs to bring about progress in as many areas as possible.

#### **4.11 India: Human Development Reports and Quality of Life**

The *raison d'être* of development is to improve the quality of people's lives by creating an environment for them to engage in a wider range of activities, to be healthy and well nourished, to be knowledgeable, and to be able to participate in community life. Sen (1985) calls these 'basic functionings'. However, aspects like democracy and freedom to participate in local level government decisions that impact our lives, and freedom from fear, which Sen refers to as 'complex functionings', are equally important dimensions of an individual's capability set. More practically, development is about removing obstacles to what a person can do in life: illiteracy, ill health, lack of access to productive (and consumptive) resources, or lack of civil and political freedoms. Following this approach, the quality of life in India can be gained from the examination of the Human Development Reports, which under the United Nations Development Program are being brought out since the 1990's when human development emerged as an important goal in itself. The concept of human development as per these reports is not merely restricted to income and wealth but also concerns itself with human capabilities and enlarging human opportunities, widening people's choices and the level of well being they achieve. According to the Report irrespective of the level of development the choices for the people are to lead a long and healthy life; to be knowledgeable, and to have access to resources required for a decent standard of living. These choices are represented by the indicators used, longevity, adult literacy and combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio and GDP (Gross Domestic Product per capita). In addition political, economic, cultural freedom, a sense of

community opportunities for being creative and productive, self-respect and human rights are other imperatives and sustainable.

The basis of the Human Development Reports is the human development index measured by life expectancy, educational attainment and adjusted income indicators which are closely linked to factors of nutrition, health, social achievements, knowledge and income which determine the quality of life.

According to the Human Development Report 2015 release by United Nations Development Program (UNDP), India ranked 130 among 188 countries up from 135 rank as per the 2014 report. "India's HDI value for 2014 is 0.609, which puts the country in the medium human development category, positioning it at 130 out of 188 countries and territories. "Between 1980 and 2014, India's Human Development Index (HDI) value increased from 0.362 to 0.609, an increase of 68.1 per cent or an average annual increase of about 1.54 per cent. The HDI is an average measure of basic human development achievements in a country. It is a summary measure for assessing long-term progress in three basic dimensions of human development — a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living. Life expectancy at birth increased to 68 years in 2014 from 67.6 in the previous year and 53.9 in 1980. The Gross National Income (GNI) per capita was \$5,497 in 2014 up from \$5,180 in 2013 and \$1,255 in 1980. India's GNI per capita increased by about 338 per cent between 1980 and 2014. However as per the report, the expected years of schooling is stagnant at 11.7 since 2011. Also, mean years of schooling at 5.4 has not changed since 2010. Between 1980 and 2014, India's life expectancy at birth increased by 14.1 years, mean years of schooling increased by 3.5 years and expected years of schooling increased by 5.3 years. According to the report, India's 2014 HDI of 0.609 is below the average of 0.630 for countries in the medium human development group and above the average of 0.607 for countries in South Asia. From South Asia, countries which are close to India in 2014 HDI rank and to some extent in population size are Bangladesh and Pakistan, which have HDIs ranked 142 and 147, respectively.

Globally Norway topped followed by Australia and Switzerland. As per the report, the HDI rank of Bangladesh and Pakistan was 142 and 147, respectively. Among the BRICS nations, India was ranked lowest. On the Gender Development Index (GDI) too both Bangladesh and Pakistan fared better than India.

India too publishes its human development reports the first of which was published its in 1999. The Human Development Reports in India indicate wide inter-regional and Intra-regional disparities among the states. As per the India Human Development Report 2011 "interventions in human capital and expansions of human functioning are key requirements for economic growth to be more successful in reducing income poverty and calls for an integration of social and economic policies". For example education as input can lead to better health, better nutrition and therefore better school attendance and better ability to learn. Also a healthy mother will bear a healthy child with better chances of survival and therefore will lead to fewer children, a lowering of fertility and greater per capita availability of resources which in itself leads to greater accessibility to education and health and will ultimately lead to a better standard of living and quality of life.

In India certain sections of society remain excluded and deprived, especially in terms of improvements in human capabilities and entitlements. It is therefore essential to bridge the gaps and ultimately eliminate all forms of discriminating social barriers on basis of caste or for tribal groups. The generally well performing states are Kerala, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Goa, and Punjab, which occupy the first five places through the last decade. On the other hand, Bihar, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, and Chhattisgarh appear at the bottom of the list. Although some improvements can be witnessed the inter se ranking over the years has not changed. The latest India

Human Development Report shows that the Human Development Index IHDR has increased by 21 per cent between 1999– 2000 and 2007– 8 and also that the increase in HDI in the states that are among the poorest has been much faster than the national average.

The improvement in HDI for a state could be driven by the Income Index, the Education Index, or the Health Index, or a combination of the three indices. Overall the improvement of 28.5 per cent in the Education Index during the period 1999–2000 and 2007–08 has driven India's HDI upwards, especially so in the educationally backward and poorer states of Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, and Bihar, which have shown the greatest improvement in the Education Index.

Despite the decline in recent years the Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) remains high at 50 per 1,000 live births (2009), Under 5 Mortality Rate (U5MR) is 64 per 1,000 live births (2009), and Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) is 212 per 10,000 births (2008). Thus, IMR, U5MR, and MMR continue to remain well above the MDG targets despite the decline seen in recent years. Malnutrition is considered to be the underlying cause for half of all child deaths.

Gender discrimination remains a problem and although the overall sex ratio has improved from 933 females per 1,000 males in 2001 to 940 females per 1,000 males in 2011, there was a decline in child sex-ratio from 927 in 2001 to 914 in 2011. As per the India Human Development report 2011 the launch of the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) and Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) around 2005– 6, 78 per cent of the total deliveries are institutionalized, contraceptive prevalence has increased among all socio-religious groups and outreach of immunization has also improved, however, the share of public expenditure on healthcare remains consistently low at just over one per cent of GDP (1.3 per cent). Consequently, the share of private expenditure in total health expenditure in 2008 was 72 per cent compared to 53 per cent in China. India fares the worst in terms of sanitation. Fifty per cent of the Indian households lack access to sanitation facilities and the situation is even worse in rural areas where around two-thirds of households do not have toilet facilities. However, the country has been successful in providing access to safe sources of drinking water to its population, both rural and urban. More than 90 per cent of households used improved sources of drinking water in 2008– 9, even in poorer states like Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, and Uttar Pradesh.

Within the social sector, education, which impacts all types of human development indicators like health, nutritional status, income, and family planning, has had the greatest influence, on not only knowledge, but also family size, health status, nutritional status, and healthy living conditions. India has achieved historically high levels of enrolment but on the downside, despite considerable improvement in the literacy status, India is home to the largest number of illiterate people in the world, accounting for about one-third of all illiterates. All these parameters provide an insight into the quality of life, which although showing definite signs of improvement still has a long way to go.

### **Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)**

#### **Match the Following**

- |                               |                      |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|
| i ) ICPD                      | a) Jharkhand         |
| ii ) Sustainable development  | b) Unemployment      |
| iii ) Rapid population growth | c) Kerala            |
| iv ) Well performing state    | d) Cairo             |
| v ) Poorly performing state   | e) Brundtland Report |

#### 4.12 Summary

In this lesson the relationship between various parameters of socio-economic development, sustainability of development and population has been spelt out and examined in detail. Also how socio-economic development especially in areas of education, health care, women empowerment and poverty alleviation effect and help to improve the quality of life of the population has been analyzed. In addition the case of India vis-a-vis socio- economic development and quality of life as brought forth by the Human Development Reports and Human Development Index has also been highlighted. Further in the next lesson we shall discuss the regional disparities in socio-economic development in India.

#### 4.13 Further Readings

1. Mehta, S.R (1997), *Dynamics of Development*, New Delhi, Gyan Publishing House
2. Rodan, R (1969) “ *Criteria for Evaluation of National Development Effort*”, Journal of Development Planning (1).p.5
3. Chakravarty, G. and Pal, S.P.(1995), *Human Development Profile of Indian States*, Working Paper No.52, National Council For Applied Economic Research, New Delhi.
4. Tilak, J.B.G. (1991) *Human Development For India*, Association of Social Sciences of India Quarterly, Delhi: ICSSR, Oct-Dec.
5. *United Nations Development Programme* (1990), 2001, 2011, 2015 Human Development Reports, New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

#### 4.14 Model Questions

- Q1. Write a detailed note on the population and sustainable development.
- Q2. What do you understand by the term ‘quality of life’? Explain the relationship between the quality of life and population growth.

#### Answers to Self Assessment Questions

##### Self Assessment Questions- 1

- i) Social;      ii) Development;      iii) Self reliance;      iv)Poverty;      v)Health, education.

##### Self Assessment Questions- 2

- i) d;      ii) e;      iii) b;      iv) c;      v) a

-

#### Lesson-5

## REGIONAL DISPARITIES IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

#### Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction

## 5.2 Regional Disparities: Introduction

### 5.2.1 Diversity, Disparity and Differential

## 5.3 Regional Disparities: Indicators

## 5.4 Regional Disparities in Socio- Economic Development

## 5.5 Trends and Patterns in the Regional Disparities in Socio- Economic Development

## 5.6 Disparities in Socio- Economic Development within States

## 5.7 Summary

## 5.8 Further Readings

## 5.9 Model Questions

## 5.0 Objectives

After reading this lesson you should be able to

- differentiate between developed and developing countries
- explain diversity, disparity and differential
- identify the socio-economic indicators of regional disparities
- describe the spatial patterns of economic development through the decades after independence
- indicate the factors that have been responsible for the regional disparities
- examine the regional disparities in socio-economic development within the states
- discuss the government efforts through Five Year Plans
- comment upon the existing situation in India

## 5.1 Introduction

In the last lesson we learnt about the concept of quality of life, which is determined to a large extent by parameters of socio-economic development. In this lesson we shall discuss the inequalities that exist in India at the inter- and intra-regional levels. We shall in the process of understanding regional disparities in socio-economic development learn to identify the indicators of socio-economic development and the factors responsible for the existing regional disparities in India. We will also be examining the trends and patterns in the regional disparities in socio-economic development through the decades since independence. This shall help you to gain an insight into the widespread imbalances that continue to plague the socio-economic development scenario in India.

## 5.2 Regional Disparities: Introduction

The concern for regional disparities is not new. Growth is necessarily imbalanced in that growth does not appear everywhere and all at once; it appears in points or at development poles, with variable intensities; it spreads along diverse channels and with varying terminal effects for the whole economy' (Hansen, 1981) is a reality. Till about 1925 regional disparities in development were well marked in several developed countries such as U.S.A. Canada, U.K., France, Netherlands and Sweden. It was only after World War II that this showed some signs of disseminating 'though most of them showed a tendency towards convergence' since 1981.

In the developing countries too regional disparities in development have been and remain a

major issue. India is no exception.

Moreover, after the end of the Second World War, a major development with far reaching consequences was the onset of the process of decolonization. This led to the long awaited political emancipation of several Afro-Asian countries, which till then were under colonial rule of some European country or other. The emergence, therefore, of independent nations of the Third World and the newly attained sovereign status raised the hopes and aspirations of the people to eliminate poverty and increase the standard of living of the people to usher in an era of better quality of life comparable to the West. Thus a new era of planning for development dawned in these countries (including India) and the atmosphere was charged with new terms such as Five Year Plans, Planning for Development, Economic takeoff etc. As the national leadership made promises for development the focus and accepted goal for the world's less developed countries during the early 1950s became economic development. Economic growth was the chief concern of development and economists held sway in formulating theories and policies. The GND or gross national product was equated to economic growth. At this stage several western scholars such, as Higgins, Levis, Simon Kuznetz, W. W. Rostow, Neurkse etc. offered models for economic development for Third world countries e.g. Neurkse put forth the Vicious Cycle Theory while W.W. Rostow presented the Historic Model wherein the analogy of an airplane was taken to explain development in terms of five stages in task formation.

However, during the late 1950's the role of social factors in human development became evident. Social development came to be considered a pre-requisite for economic development. The importance of social structure and socio-economic behaviour of the people as having positive or negative impact on development came to be recognized. Institutional and structural changes as agents of economic growth were emphasized and the need for the integration of social policies in the national development policies was accepted. By mid-sixties focus on the social relevance of economic development was well entrenched and over time disparities in socio-economic development became the focus of planners, policy makers and academicians.

### **5.2.1 Diversity, Disparity and Differential**

It would be relevant here to first clarify the often inter-changeably used terms-diversity, disparity and differential. We know that all-places are not the same and differ in terms of endowment of natural resources. This variation in the natural endowment of resources is referred to as diversity and is fundamental to differences in development between areas. The term disparity essentially compares the effort of the people in using the available natural resource base. In other words it refers to the variations in human effort. The term differential refers to the differences within the same factor such as rural literacy. In this lesson focus is essentially on disparities.

#### **Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)**

##### **Give One Word for the Following.**

- i ) Widespread and chronic absolute poverty and high and rising levels of unemployment are characteristic of such countries.
- ii ) A model for economic development wherein the analogy of an airplane was taken to explain development.
- iii ) Variation in the natural endowment of resources.
- iv ) A term that refers to variations in human effort in using available natural resources.
- v ) A term that refers to the difference within the same factor.

### 5.3 Regional Disparity: Indicators

Disparities can be measured through different indicators. As you know development has several dimensions economic, social, cultural, political, technological and environmental. Naturally therefore, indicators to measure disparities in development vary with varying focus. In this case the focus being socio-economic development and the fact that social or economic are not virtually visible we must select and rely on certain proxy indicators. Indicators are innumerable but for the selection of indicators the following factors need to be kept in mind:

- (i) Output indicators and input indicators should not be clubbed together and either of the two could be selected.
- (ii) The indicators must be selected according to the scale of study as indicators for say India as a whole may not be effective or meaningful at block-level, e.g. per capita income is an effective indicator for economic development at the state level but not so at the block level.
- (iii) The purpose of study, if general the kind of indicators selected could be simple, while a composite index may be more suitable for academic purposes.

However, some of the indicators are distinctly considered to be more effective as indicators for socio-economic development and its disparities. Among the social indicators female literacy is a strong indicator as literacy among women affects household factors such as the number of children, health awareness, education of children, quality of life for the family; as also community factors such as women employment, empowerment and participation. Another social indicator is the mortality level especially infant mortality level which reflects the health condition and quality of services for mother and childcare.

Among the economic indicators per capita income is the most widely used as also the most expressive. It is an effective substitute for many others. The percentage of rural non-agricultural workers is an equally meaningful economic indicator being indicative of diversification of economy. Extent of urbanization, which again is linked to industrial development and hence economic diversification, development and modernization, is also a significant indicator. Generally data for these indicators, of socio-economic development are easily and universally available and as such are commonly used.

### 5.4 Regional Disparities in Socio-Economic Development

In this lesson we shall, on these bases examine the regional disparities in socio-economic development in India and the trends and patterns in regional disparities over time. India, as you know, represents a case of wide disparities at low level of development among population groups and among different regions. In the Indian context rural, social and economic parameters of development are critical and there is widening inequality here.

In terms of economics according to the latest government estimates 21.9% of India's population is below poverty line (2011-2012). The figures are 57.2% of people in Orissa and 48.6% in Madhya Pradesh are below poverty line. In terms of numbers in Uttar Pradesh 73.5 million, in Bihar 48.5 million and in Maharashtra 39.3 million people live below poverty line. These interstate and regional disparities in poverty levels are further enhanced by increasing gaps between the, rural and urban population e.g. while 70% of India's population lives in rural areas, 70% of the amenities and facilities such as hospitals are in the urban areas.

With a majority of the rural population engaged in agriculture, it may be mentioned that food grain output shows a declining trend. A sharp decline in prices of agricultural products, lack of comprehensive price structuring, import liberalization and predominance of WTO have driven the entire agricultural sector in India to the brink of a crisis.

It may also be noted that according to Planning Commission Report nearly 269.8 million people (2011-12) in India live below poverty line: 40% of children in India are malnourished, although reserve stocks of food grains pile up, more than 25% of India's population goes without adequate food. As per the latest Economic Survey, 150 million hectares of land is affected by water and wind erosion, arable land is shrinking and investment in agriculture declining. This in the face of a high annual growth of population presents a grim scenario.

Inequality in terms of social indicators is still greater. To begin with, the sex ratio (940 females per 1000 males) remains negative. Social and caste discrimination is rampant and the general literacy rate is still at 74.04%. In terms of health, education, food security and habitat gender based marginalization is common. Even access to safe drinking water, electricity or toilet especially in the rural areas is not universal leading to widening gap in the rural-urban divide. Also it may be mentioned that government support for the social sector has either remained stagnant or has been declining. Poverty remains a stark challenge. Although there has been a steady decline in poverty due to rapid population growth, the number of poor is almost constant.

Thus, we find that despite considerable development in agriculture and Industry since independence, actual gains per capita remain modest. This situation is attributable to not just a vast rapidly growing population but also to evident inequalities among people which has kept a vast majority of the socially weaker sections of society bereft of proper education, health and productive assets.

These inequalities have their roots in the feudal structure of Indian society, which was exploited by the British to their advantage and which after independence curbed individual initiative. This greatly curtailed the development process.

With the means of production not only meager but unequally distributed, technological advancement was somewhat restricted to few areas of economy such as industry and services, while the primary sector (mainstay of Indian economy) including agriculture, forestry, fishing; mining, livestock rearing remained bereft of it. Moreover, development in terms of technological advancements and subsequent benefits were confined to metropolitan cities. Cottage industry in rural areas or agriculture were only marginally influenced, a fact that further accentuated inequalities. As such optimum utilization of available natural resources was hindered and not uniform.

All along the Indian governments focus has been economic development with social justice through series of Five Year Plans. Agriculture being the mainstay of Indian economy the First Five Year Plan (1951-56) accorded the highest priority to agriculture, including irrigation and power projects. Industrialization became the prime focus of the second Five Year Plan (1956-61), while the 'Third Five year Plan (1961-66) emphasized balanced growth of agriculture and industry. The Indo-Pak war in 1965, drought in 1965 and 1966 created the situation of Plan Holiday. During the Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-1974), raising the living standard, education and employment of the masses, became the main aim. The Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79) was effective only for four years and was followed by two annual plan in 1978-79 and 1979-80 wherein self reliance and improvement of those below poverty line was the focus. Removal of poverty was the mantra of the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) while, 'food, work and productivity' were center stage to the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90). The Eighth and Ninth (1990-95 and 1995-2000) Five Year Plans reveal a shift in emphasis from just economic growth to socio-economic justice. The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007) aimed to achieve an economic growth of 10% on an annual basis and also recognised that in addition to increased economic growth and per capita income, enhancement of human well-being was also important. As such reduction of poverty ratio by 5 percentage points by 2007; providing gainful and high-quality employment at least to the addition to the labour force over the Tenth Plan period, schooling to all children, reduction in gender gaps in literacy and wage rates, reduction in the decadal rate of population growth between 2001 and 2011 to 16.2 per cent; increase in literacy rates to 75 per cent, reduction of infant mortality rate and



Maternal mortality ratio (MMR), increase in forest and tree cover to 25 per cent by 2007; providing access to potable drinking water to all villages within the Plan period; and cleaning of all major polluted rivers by 2007 were some of the specific aims. Balanced development in all states was the focus. The Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-2012) aimed at achieving social inclusiveness and addressed itself to the challenge of making growth both faster and more inclusive. This included 'reviving dynamism in agriculture and building the necessary supportive infrastructure in rural areas, expanding access to health and education, especially in rural areas, undertaking programmes for improving living conditions for the weaker sections and for improving their access to economic opportunity. It also included a major thrust for infrastructure development in general, which is a critical constraint on our development. The theme of the current Five Year Plan (2012-2017) is "faster, sustainable and more inclusive growth". As per the Planning Commission twenty-five core indicators that reflect the vision of rapid, sustainable and more inclusive growth:

#### **"Economic Growth**

1. Real GDP Growth Rate of 8.0 per cent.
2. Agriculture Growth Rate of 4.0 per cent.
3. Manufacturing Growth Rate of 10.0 per cent.
4. Every State must have an average growth rate in the Twelfth Plan preferably higher than that achieved in the Eleventh Plan.

#### **Poverty and Employment**

5. Head-count ratio of consumption poverty to be reduced by 10 percentage points over the preceding estimates by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
6. Generate 50 million new work opportunities in the non-farm sector and provide skill certification to equivalent numbers during the Twelfth Five Year Plan.

#### **Education**

7. Mean Years of Schooling to increase to seven years by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
8. Enhance access to higher education by creating two million additional seats for each age cohort aligned to the skill needs of the economy.
9. Eliminate gender and social gap in school enrolment (that is, between girls and boys, and between SCs, STs, Muslims and the rest of the population) by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.

#### **Health**

10. Reduce IMR to 25 and MMR to 1 per 1,000 live births, and improve Child Sex Ratio (0–6 years) to 950 by the end of the Twelfth Five Year Plan.
11. Reduce Total Fertility Rate to 2.1 by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
12. Reduce under-nutrition among children aged 0–3 years to half of the NFHS-3 levels by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.

#### **Infrastructure, Including Rural Infrastructure**

13. Increase investment in infrastructure as a percentage of GDP to 9 per cent by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
14. Increase the Gross Irrigated Area from 90 million hectare to 103 million hectare by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
15. Provide electricity to all villages and reduce AT&C losses to 20 per cent by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.

16. Connect all villages with all-weather roads by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
17. Upgrade national and state highways to the minimum two-lane standard by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
18. Complete Eastern and Western Dedicated Freight Corridors by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
19. Increase rural tele-density to 70 per cent by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
20. Ensure 50 per cent of rural population has access to 40 lpcd piped drinking water supply, and 50 per cent gram panchayats achieve Nirmal Gram Status by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.

### **Environment and Sustainability**

21. Increase green cover (as measured by satellite imagery) by 1 million hectare every year during the Twelfth Five Year Plan.
22. Add 30,000 MW of renewable energy capacity in the Twelfth Plan.
23. Reduce emission intensity of GDP in line with the target of 20 per cent to 25 per cent reduction over 2005 levels by 2020.

### **Service Delivery**

24. Provide access to banking services to 90 per cent Indian households by the end of Twelfth Five Year Plan.
25. Major subsidies and welfare related beneficiary payments to be shifted to a direct cash transfer by the end of the Twelfth Plan, using the Aadha platform with linked bank accounts."

### **Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)**

#### **Fill in the Blanks**

- i ) Indicators should be selected according to the \_\_\_\_\_ of study.
- ii ) \_\_\_\_\_ is a strong social indicator.
- iii ) Economic and social inequalities have their roots in the \_\_\_\_\_ structure of Indian society.
- iv ) All along Indian government's focus has been \_\_\_\_\_ with \_\_\_\_\_.
- v ) Development has been largely affected through the governments \_\_\_\_\_.

Thus, ultimate objective of all planning efforts is development, rather human development that is all inclusive, keeping in mind the resources available for human development and the human and natural resources available for such development.

## **5.5 Trends and Patterns in the Regional Disparities in Socio-Economic Development**

Having stated briefly the socio-economic scenario we shall discuss the regional disparities and also the trends and patterns in the regional disparities in socio-economic development.

In India undoubtedly there exist marked disparities in socio-economic development over different parts of the country. In fact- areas, (sometimes contiguous) having a similar socio-economic structure as also level of development can be observed. This generated interest in a closer look at the issue of regional disparities. Among the first scholars to do so was Joseph Schwartzberg who examined the spatial patterns of economic development during the early 1950's.

He identified six areas characterized by (i) isolated tribal economy as in northeastern Himalayas, central Indian belts, and in some parts of the Western Himalayas and Western and Eastern Ghats; (ii) subsistence peasant economy, encompassing a large part of India; (iii) incipient

commercialization, associated closely with peasant economy; (iv) advanced commercialization as in Punjab, Haryana plains, Western U.P., Ganga Deltas, Malwa plateau, Gujarat plain, upper parts of Maharashtra, Godavari -Krishna delta and parts of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka; (v) economic diversification as evident in Kerala, Saurashtra, Delhi- Amritsar belt and around some cities: and (vi) large scale economic organization as found in industrial concentrations such as Kolkata, Mumbai, Ahmedabad. Also these are isolated development, nuclei such as Kanpur, Hyderabad and Jaipur which reflect a level of growth different from their surrounding areas.

Mitra (1967) classified the districts of the country into four groups on the basis of their development in an attempt to examine the situation regarding regional disparities. According to him the most backward districts were in the Himalayas, Rajasthan, Middle Ganga plain, central India and much of interior peninsula region. On the other hand the more developed districts were in Punjab, Haryana plain, Western U.P., around Kolkata, Malwa plateau, Gujarat plain, Mumbai-Nagpur and Mumbai-Pune belts, southern Karnataka, Godavari-Krishna delta and Cauvery basin. While the positive factors observed were that regional disparities in development were not along ethnic lines, nor was there any north-south polarization; it was found that the public sector enterprises in Bhilai, Rourkela and Durgapur had not succeeded in positively affecting their surrounding area. Further, despite out-migration and contact with the developed districts the Middle Ganga plain had impetus for internal growth.

Regional disparities in socio-economic development in the early seventies were detailed and analyzed by Raza (1978). Agricultural development, industrialization and space organization were the criteria used to examine disparities in 58 National Sample Survey Regions. As per him the Green Revolution has only widened the regional disparities in agricultural development as the central parts of India continued to remain under-developed while north-western India gained considerably. Also the process of industrialization remained concentrated around metropolises or along certain tracts e.g. Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata, Delhi, Ludhiana-Jalandhar or Jamshedpur-Dhanbad, but it failed to generate overall growth of the regional economics. Also in terms of organization of space in the hierarchical rural-urban set up, the pig cities were ineffective in promoting development in their surrounding areas.

Bhardwaj (1982) shares the observation and conclusions drawn by Raza. According to her the existing regional disparities in development in India find explanation in its colonial history wherein areas more convenient and directly useful to the British were developed in priority while large areas were neglected and so remained under-developed. Social and political tensions drawn from deepening inter-regional disparities were a matter of concern.

In terms of per capita net domestic product Punjab, Haryana, Gujarat and Maharashtra have continued to rank high among the sixteen major states, each exceeding a population of five million. All under-developed states were primarily agricultural. According to Bhardwaj there was no correspondence between urban and rural consumption level of different states indicating there by little co-ordination between 'industrial and agrarian growth'. The states such as Punjab, Haryana and Gujarat have a generally high living standard were characterized by better coordination between industrial and agricultural grants. While several states have lost their rankings such as West Bengal, Assam, Kerala and Uttar Pradesh, others such as Tamil-Nadu have moved up. However, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar have continued to rank low, with Bihar consistently being at the bottom.

Gopal Krishan in 1989 analysed the trends in regional disparities (by districts) through the eighties on the basis of urbanization, female literacy, rural non-agricultural work are representing economic, social and rural development. According to him the number of very backward districts was far above the developed ones. In fact, while only one-seventh of the districts ranked higher than the national average for each of the indicators, thrice the number ranked below the national average.

According to him it was observed that

1. The peripheral coastal areas, primarily non-Hindi speaking were better developed than the mainland states. This may be attributed to their locational advantage providing access to both land and sea resources, deep linkages to their hinterlands as also better exposure to external influences leading to development of 'trade, industry, agriculture, urbanization and education', e.g. the deltaic tracts of the Ganga, Mahanadi, Krishna Godavari and Kaveri, as also areas where port facilities were available such as Bombay and Madras. For the rest, mainland India served both as the source of raw material as also market for manufactured goods, an ineffective hinterland serving the ports of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Karachi during the British rule. As a result industrial development failed to take off in the heartland which remained dependent on agriculture. There were only few exceptions, such as Punjab, Haryana and Western U.P. where the Green Revolution led to widespread development in agriculture and few pockets around Delhi, Lucknow-Kanpur, Indore-Ujjain and Kota where some industrial development took place.
2. The British administered areas were more developed (Punjab, Bombay, Madras, Bengal) compared to the princely states such as Hyderabad, Rajasthan and Jammu and Kashmir. 'The economic activities of the British did represent a measure of spread of economic expansion' (Myrdal, 1971, p. 52). The British developed industries at places, provided educational and health facilities, laid railways and maintained law and order. On the other hand most of the princely states, in addition to having locational constraints were deprived of the above advantages and were at the same time exploited by their rulers. There were, however, few exceptions such as Mysore, Baroda, Travancore-Cochin where the rulers gave priority to the welfare of the masses, education, roads, etc. It is also true that several areas of the Ganga plain and Orissa coast suffered under wrong British policies and continued to remain backward.
3. Tribal areas remained backward primarily due to their isolation as the northeastern Himalayas, central India, Western and Eastern Ghats and parts of western Himalayas. Although Christian missionaries made some positive impact (as in Mizoram) especially in the spread of literacy, for the most part the tribal remained cut off from the main-stream of life and development.
4. New trends observed include (i) diffusion of the development process especially in areas of commercial agriculture as in Punjab, Haryana, Western Uttar Pradesh and also the Godavari-Krishna delta and Cauvery delta tracts, leading to a decline in urban-rural disparities; (ii) the development of an incipient form of corridor especially along the trunk railway lines linking Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata and Chennai; (iii) a gradual reduction in the development level of the British administered and princely states; (iv) the rapid progress in terms of socio-economic development of the union territories due to increased investment by the centre; and (v) a stark contrast between the patterns of social and economic development e.g. Punjab was ahead of Kerala in economic development but not in terms of social development (Krishan, 1986).

Increasing urban-rural disparities has been a disturbing trend in the development process in India. As the growth rate of agriculture has been just half of the industry's growth rate the ratio of urban to rural per capita net domestic product has only increased over the decades.

Since independence efforts, through planned development, have been made to reduce the existing regional disparities; to begin with, the completion of various multipurpose projects, the setting up of public sector iron and steel plants in backward regions, introduction of separate plans for the hill and the tribal tracts and special assistance to areas industrially backward or stricken by drought or floods led to positive results and an evident trend of declining regional disparities by the mid-sixties.

This healthy trend however, did not last long. A decline in the share of public sector investment and thereby the relative share of the government investment in development plan was responsible for

this reversal to some extent. The private sector was more interested in investment in the already development areas. Secondly, the Green Revolution despite its boost to the agriculture sector benefited more areas where infrastructure for irrigation already existed and thereby seemed to widen regional disparities. However, the public sector industrial investment in backward areas where rich resources existed led to a decline in regional disparities vis-à-vis industrialization.

The eighties again signified a reduction in regional disparities. It may be noted that the development of an area developed more on the structure of its economy than the volume of investment. Thus, development efforts have always seemingly been more successful in area where infrastructure facilities already existed.

Further, an analysis of the 1991 census data on the basis of per capita income, percentage of literate females, percentage of urban population and percentage of rural non-agricultural workers revealed that regional development disparities continued to prevail. The coastal areas vis-a-vis the mainland areas as in the case of Maharashtra, the better place non-tribal areas vis-a-vis the tribal belts as in case of Madhya Pradesh, and the former British administered areas such as the parts of Punjab are areas of higher levels of socio-economic development.

Also the western part of Himalayas, the Ganga plain and the Deccan are also better developed than their eastern counterparts that are otherwise rich in resources. As pointed out earlier, the Hindi speaking belt largely dependent on agricultural economy and controlled by the caste class hierarchy has remained backward although the western part reveal better development than its eastern section which is more densely populated.

Of the 23 'million city' districts it was found that not in all the cases was there a cascading effect of development to the surrounding districts. Cities located, on the coast (Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Kochi), or having very large population size such as Delhi, Ahmedabad, Hyderabad, Pune and those agriculturally developed areas such as Ludhiana, Coimbatore and Madurai were more effective in spreading the effects of development to the peripheral districts. This may be attributed largely to the development of transportation links with the surrounding areas and also the absence of any physical locational constraints.

However, in some cases the peripheral areas have remained backward, as is the case of Patna vis-a-vis its surrounding area. Also in case of Lucknow, Jaipur, Kanpur, Bhopal, Varanasi, Indore and Vishakhapatnam the development level of surrounding areas was well below the national average. Sometimes limited interaction due to physiographic constraints with the surrounding areas have lead to curtailed effect of development in the urban centers onto the peripheral rural areas as in the case of Bangalore, Nagpur, Surat and Vadodara.

The World Bank and other international agencies have characterized India as one of the fastest growing economies of the world. After the economic reforms in the early nineties the economy has not only consistently improved but even when the global financial crisis hit the world economy during 2008-2010, it has shown great resilience and maintained an average growth rate of 6%. Currently in the Twelfth plan the target is 8%. Undoubtedly the country has made major strides in poverty alleviation, health and education sectors. The economy too has got diversified significantly and the share of the service sector in employment and incomes improved considerably but the distributional impacts of these gains have not been uniform. Disparities in economic and social development across the regions and intra-regional disparities continue to exist. While efforts to reduce regional disparities were not lacking, achievements were not often commensurate with these efforts. The accelerated economic growth and economic reforms have further widened the regional disparities. Concentration of poverty in certain pockets of the country continues and as per the poverty estimates(2004-05 and 2011-12) during this period, more than half of the total poor live in six states viz., Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. For the entire period 1980-81 to 2009-10, the primary

sector demonstrates the highest variability in growth rates across states, followed by the secondary and tertiary sectors. Human development outcomes also continue to differ widely across states.

## **5.6 Disparities in Socio-Economic Development within States**

Marked disparities in socio-economic development exist within states, especially within the large states. In fact Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh being large as also less developed revealed greater intra-state disparities, while the large but developed states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu the intra-state disparities are not as pronounced. The small and developed states showed least intra-regional disparities as in case of Kerala, Punjab, Haryana and Himachal Pradesh. These variations are largely rooted in the social, political, and economic history of these states as also their locational advantages.

Undoubtedly, the principal justification for the introduction of Five Year Plans and establishment of the Planning Commission was to work towards and ensure regionally balanced development. It also cannot be decided that through public and directed private investments as also governmental policies this goal has been pursued for six decades but not with all round success. However, now with the initiation of economic reforms in 1991 with, economic decentralization in favour of the market through policies of liberalization, privatization and globalization the stage has changed. Infact a disturbing trend that became apparent over 1991-2001, was the widening socio-economic disparities across states. Balanced regional growth was adversely hit, private investments preferring relatively developed regions having better social, economic, physical infrastructure and better governance. Thus, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh accounting for less than one-third of India's population account for two-thirds of the investment proposals.

As observed in earlier studies development has been more pronounced in the better developed western and southern regions of the country as compared to the northern and eastern sections. As per the National Population Commission (NCP) there exist wide socio-economic disparities among the major Indian states on the basis of a composite index of socio demographic progress. Of the 569 districts covered by the report 190 belong to the eight major states including five economically better performing states such as Punjab, Haryana, Kerala, while 299 districts belong to the groups of backward states, seven economically backward states of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal, Rajasthan, Orissa and Assam. While all districts of Kerala and Tamil Nadu ranked within 100, those of Bihar and Rajasthan ranked below 300. Further, in terms of per capita income, gap between the poor and rich region has only grown e.g. the per capita income in Maharashtra was 3.8 times that of Bihar in 1998-1999 as against 2.8 times in 1990-91. All the backward states had per capita income below the national average. Also during the 1990's growth of per capita income among these states, with the exception of West Bengal, was also below the national average. This was primarily due to the facts that while on one hand incomes of these states grew at a lower rate than the national average, the population growth was also significantly higher than in the better developed states.

Still with a vast section of Indian society 'illiterate', 'ill-fed' and 'ill-clad' dissipation of regional disparities in socio-economic development remains a major issue. A stronger boost to the process of development in the underdeveloped areas is a must; an overall improvement in their development management would be crucial in addition to enhanced financial allocations. Also administrative reorganization by way of smaller states and to meet the requirement of development planning has been significant as demonstrated by the carving out of smaller states from within Bihar (Jharkhand), Madhya Pradesh (Chhattisgarh) and now Andhra Pradesh (Telangana). A strong emphasis on local level planning based on local ecology, technology and management is also considered imperative. However, all this as also social justice, optimum resource utilization, and consideration of environmental and technological factors in addition to institutional ones must focus on a reduction in regional disparities

but without slowing down the growth in the relatively developed areas. The prime focus of the Eleventh Five Year Plan, inclusive development and now of the Twelfth Plan being faster, inclusive and sustainable growth and development will go a long way towards convergence and in removing the existing disparities in socio-economic development.

### **Self Assessment Questions-3 (SAQ-3)**

#### **State True or False**

- i ) There exist no marked disparities in socio-economic development in India.
- ii ) The peripheral coastal areas, primarily non-Hindi speaking, were better developed than the mainland states.
- iii ) After the economic reforms in the early nineties the economy of India has not improved.
- iv ) Development has been more pronounced in the western and southern regions of the country as compared to the northern and eastern.
- v ) Local level planning based on local ecology, technology and management is not considered important to overcome socio-economic disparities.

## **5.7 Summary**

In this lesson we learnt how even after over sixty years of independence vast regional disparities in socio-economic development continue to exist in India both with and between different states and regions. Some economic and social indicators were identified and examined as the basic criteria to identify socio-economically developed or backward areas. The factors that have been responsible for the continued existence of regional disparities were discussed while learning about the decadal changes in the trends and patterns of socio-economic development. Also concerted efforts on the part of the government especially through planned development and the Five Year Plans to reduce the disparities and aim at faster, inclusive and sustainable development were also discussed. In the next lesson we shall learn about the population problems of the developed and developing countries.

## **5.8 Further Readings**

1. Gosal, G.S. And G. Krishan (1984). Regional Disparities in Levels of Socio-Economic Development of Punjab, Kurukshetra, Vishal Publication
2. Joshi, B.M. (1987), 'Inter-State Disparities and Economic Development', Yojana, Vol. 31, No. 4, pp 4-10
3. Krishan G. (1989), "Trends in Regional Disparities in India", Astan Profile, Vol. 17 (3), pp. 243-261.
4. Mitra, A. (1967), 'Levels of Regional Development in India', New Delhi: Indian Statistical Institute.
5. Five Year Plans, Planning Commission Reports, New Delhi: Government of India

## **5.9 Model Questions**

- Q1. What are the major reasons for regional disparity in socio-economic development in India?
- Q2. Discuss the trends and patterns in the regional disparities in socio-economic development.

### **Answers to Self Assessment Questions**

#### **Self Assessment Questions- 1**

i) Developing; ii)W. W. Rostoro's Historic Model; iii) Diversity; iv)Disparity v)Differential

#### **Self Assessment Questions- 2**

i)Scale; ii)Female literacy; iii)Feudal; iv)Economic development, Social justice  
v)Five year plan.

#### **Self Assessment Questions- 3**

i) False; ii) True; iii) False; iv)True; v) False.

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### **Lesson-6**

## **POPULATION PROBLEMS OF THE DEVELOPED ANDDEVELOPING COUNTRIES**

### **Structure**

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Developed and Developing Countries
- 6.3 Developed Countries: Prevailing Scenario



- 6.3.1 Demographic Scenario
- 6.3.2 Economic Scenario
- 6.3.3 Health Scenario
- 6.4 Population Problems of the Developed Countries
- 6.5 Man Land Ratio
  - 6.5.1 Declining Numbers
  - 6.5.2 Man- Resource Relationship
- 6.6 Fertility Levels
  - 6.6.1 Declining Fertility Levels
  - 6.6.2 Illegitimacy
  - 6.6.3 Patterns of Nuptiality
- 6.7 Persistence of High Mortality
- 6.8 Age Structure of Population
- 6.9 Sex Composition
- 6.10 Urbanization
- 6.11 Immigration
- 6.12 Developing Countries: Prevailing Scenario
  - 6.12.1 Demographic Scenario
  - 6.12.2 Socio-Economic and Health Scenario
- 6.13 Population Problems of Developing Countries
- 6.14 Growth Rates
- 6.15 Age Structure
- 6.16 Fertility Rates
- 6.17 Mortality Rates
- 6.18 Conclusion
- 6.19 Summary
- 6.20 Further Readings
- 6.21 Model Questions

## **6.0 Objectives**

After reading this lesson you should be able to

- state the characteristic features of the developed and developing countries.
- describe the demographic, economic and health scenarios prevailing in the developed as well as developing countries.
- list the population problems faced by the developed countries.

- understand the problems faced by the developing countries
- analyze and discuss each of the problems.

## 6.1 Introduction

In the previous lesson we learnt about the regional disparities in socio- economic development. All that we have studied so far has equipped us to identify and analyze the population problems of the developed and developing countries. In this lesson we shall first learn about the criteria on the basis of which the countries of the world are categorized as developed and developing countries. We shall then learn about the population problems of the developed and developing countries in general in the backdrop and context of the specific existing demographic, economic and health scenarios in these countries.

## 6.2 Developed and Developing Countries

It is customary to classify the countries of the world into two categories, developed countries and developing countries. The countries are classified in accordance with certain indicators of social and economic development, such as, per capita income, level of literacy and educational attainment, proportion of urban population, life expectancy, facilities for medical and health care, means of transportation and communication, housing facilities, per capita availability of proteins and calories. The countries having better level of these indicators and also low levels of fertility, very low levels of infant and child mortality, low levels of population growth and high percentage of 'aged' population are classed as the developed countries. On the other hand, developing countries, though diverse in culture, location, size, population numbers, physical and humanresources, economic conditions and social and political structures by and large share certain characteristics. These include widespread and chronic absolute poverty, high and rising levels of unemployment and under-employment, wide and growing disparities in the distribution of income, significant dependence on agricultural production, lower-level of agricultural productivity, sizeable and growing imbalances between rural and urban levels of living, high level of illiteracy, a very large percentage of rural population, inadequate facilities for medical and health care, poor and inadequate housing conditions, low per capita availability of proteins and calories and low per capita income.

The developed countries are usually socio-economically advanced while the less developed countries are socio-economically backward.

It is usually understood by majority of us that various population issues are associated largely with socio-economically backward or the developing countries, but what is not known widely is that most of the developed countries too are facing population problems. As such by virtue of the highly varied demographic, economic and health scenarios existing for each, the nature of the population problems faced by the developed and developing countries are contrastingly different. Therefore beginning with the prevalent specific and unique demographic, economic and health scenarios the population problems of the developed countries followed by those of the developing countries will be discussed separately.

## 6.3 Developed Countries: Prevailing Scenario

According to the United Nations, the following regions of the world are included in the category of developed countries (1) North America (2) Europe (3) Japan (4) Australia and New Zealand and (5) Common Wealth of Independent states (former U.S.S.R). All of these are advanced nations and as mentioned above share some common features. To begin with, therefore, we shall discuss the prevailing demographic, economic and health scenario in these countries in order to understand their population related problems.

### 6.3.1 Demographic Scenario

Although the population growth rate of the developed countries was far ahead of that of the countries of the less developed world until 1950, the sudden spurt in the population growth rate in the developing countries in the post 1950 period has completely reversed the situation. It is interesting to know that the population of the developed countries grew at the rate of 0.6% per annum during 1750 to 1850 while that of the developing countries grew by only 0.4% per annum. During 1850 to 1950 the growth rate of both the developing and developed countries improved while the developed countries was only 0.6 % per annum. However during 1950-1970 the annual growth rate of the developed countries increased to 1.1% and that of developing countries increased to 2.2 %. Thus the year 1950 emerges as a significant demographic divide. The recent statistics, however, show that the growth rate of population in case of the developing and developed world has declined recently. During 1980-85, while the developed world recorded a growth rate of 0.6% per annum, the growth rate in case of developing countries was 2.0% per annum, which has declined to 1.5% for developing countries and 0.4% for developed countries between 2000-2005 and is likely to decline to 0.08% for the developed and 1.03% for the developing countries by 2020-2025.

These countries differ considerably in population size and population density per sq. km. The Netherlands, Belgium and Japan are the most densely populated countries with population density of 411, 355 and 337 persons per sq.km respectively. On the whole, it can be stated that Europe is the most densely populated continent. In the European continent Western Europe has recorded the highest population density. These countries are more or less homogeneous in respect to other demographic parameters such as crude birth rate, crude death rate, rate of natural increase and expectation of life at birth. As per WHO reports (2013) these developed countries have recorded very low birth rates varying between a crude birth rate of 8.5 per 1000 for Germany and 10.8 per 1000 population for Poland. The exception is Israel where crude birth rate was found to be 20.3 per 1000 population. As far as fertility parameters are concerned, Israel and Ireland with a crude birth rate of 15.4 per 1000 are out of tune with other developed countries. The death rates also vary only marginally between 8.4 per 1000 population for Japan to 10.6 and 13 per 1000 population for Germany and Hungary respectively. These countries are experiencing the lowest rate of population increase. In fact, even negative rates of growth have also been recorded there. For example, in three countries namely Denmark, Germany and Hungary, deaths out-number births resulting in negative rates of population increase. Again in three more countries namely Austria, Belgium and Germany the population has ceased to grow (zero rate of growth) as their births rates are equal to their death rates. In the rest of the countries, the rates of population growth are very low and are further declining. The total fertility rates which indicate the average number of children that would be born to a woman if she gives birth according to an age-specific fertility schedule throughout her reproductive span, are at their lowest. In the developed countries, which have been in the lead with respect to fertility declines, though the starting points of fertility decline were quite diverse, the post-war fertility rates in these countries are remarkably similar. The differences in the crude birth rates and total fertility rates among developed countries have narrowed and the rates are converging at very low levels. The decrease in fertility seems to be largely due to the emergence of new family size ideals wherein a large majority of couples prefer a family size that does not surpass two children.

The developed countries are also homogeneous in the average life expectancy of the population, which is in the vicinity of 80 years (2013).

### 6.3.2 Economic Scenario

On the whole, the developed countries are more urbanized (except Portugal), consume more energy and are richer than the underprivileged developing countries. Moreover there are wide

variations among the developed countries with respect to economic indicators such as percentage of urban population per capita GNP and per capita energy consumption. With the exception of Israel and Ireland, the percentages of child population in developed countries are below 25, indicating that these countries have higher percentages of elderly population and consequently higher burden of old people on the working population.

The developed countries enjoy development and its associated advantages. They also have higher levels of popular education with virtually all children in primary schools and a large proportion in secondary schools.

### 6.3.3 Health Scenario

The people in the developed countries enjoy long and healthy life; the average life span being in the vicinity of 80 years. The infant mortality rates per 1,000 live births have reached practicable minimum level within available socio- economic and medical - technological advancement. As per United Nations Population Division tables 2015 Singapore, Iceland and Japan recorded the lowest infant mortality rates in the world with 1.77, 2.03 and 2.2 deaths per 1,000 live born babies respectively. Sweden and Switzerland closely follow Japan with their infant morbidity rates of 2.8 and 3.68 respectively. Child deaths (deaths among children ages 1- 4) have no more remained a problem with the countries of North- Western Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand and Japan.

With affluence and plentiful food supply the daily per capita calorie supply for the developed countries 132 percent of the requirement. On the other hand, for the developing countries the daily per capita supply of calories is only 91 per cent of the requirement. For developing countries such as India, Bangladesh, Kenya, and Ethiopia per capita availability of caloric supply is still less.

Regarding the availability of physicians in a population, on an average one physician was available for about 300 persons. In contrast in the low income countries one physician was available for between 2000 to 6000 persons.

Thus, the developed countries seem to be the favoured countries enjoying affluence, very high standards of living, high education levels, very good health care and long lifespans.

Thus, broadly speaking tradition bound societies still relying for the major part of their earnings on relatively non- modern agricultural and related activities are less developed countries. On the other hand, the nations that have made sufficient and judicious use of scientific advancement and technological progress in their productive activities may be agriculture or cattle rearing or industry, are the developed nations. Australia is still a nation that heavily relies upon agriculture and cattle rearing but it is a developed country, just as is the case with New Zealand, even though it is not industrialized to the extent Anglo-American countries and West European countries are. Thus it shall not be correct to say that countries dominated by primary occupations cannot be developed and advanced countries. With this background we shall now focus on the population problems being faced by the developed countries.

#### Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)

##### Fill in the Blanks

- i ) Low levels of fertility and high percentage of 'aged' population are two significant characteristics of the \_\_\_\_\_ countries.
- ii ) The less developed countries are generally \_\_\_\_\_ backward.
- iii ) The average life expectancy of the population in the developed countries is around \_\_\_\_\_.

- iv ) With the exception of \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, the percentages of child population in developed countries are below 25.
- v ) Although a developed nation, \_\_\_\_\_ relies upon agriculture and cattle rearing as its major economic pursuits.

#### 6.4 Population Problems of the Developed Countries

The process of demographic transformation originated in West European countries about 200 years ago. By now, all the developed countries have completed their process of demographic transformation. By comparison, the demographic transition, in the less developed countries started in early decades of the 20th century, first in the small sized countries and later in the big sized countries. However, none of the less developed countries have so far succeeded in completing the demographic transition. *It signifies that the population problems of the developed countries are contrastingly different from the less developed countries.*

#### 6.5 Man-Land Ratio

The demographic situation in the developed countries, where the standard of living is generally high is also characterized by a number of problems that warrant immediate attention. As mentioned above the developed countries are mainly spread over Europe but also include the countries of Anglo-America i.e. USA and Canada, the CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States), Argentina, Uruguay, Australia, New Zealand and Japan. Thus, the developed countries of the world vary greatly in population and territorial size. At one end of the scale are the CIS nations with 280 million and the USA with 316 million people and on the other side of the scale are micro states such as Iceland, Malta etc. with less than one million inhabitants each. Such disparities also exist in their territorial size, a factor of considerable significance as it affects the relative importance of migration and natural change in population dynamics as well as other aspects of population. On the whole, large countries such as the USA, the CIS and Australia, tend to contain most of their inhabitants within their own territories, while small countries experience greater amount of external migration. In other words, the large countries tend to have greater demographic stability than smaller ones. However, the enormous areas of the macro states also affect their population, their pattern of population distribution and city location, their attractiveness for external migrants, the character of internal migration, their population structures, and their attitudes towards population size and growth. The basic differences within themselves in terms of population and territorial size invariably mean difference in their man-land ratios. On the one hand there are high densities prevailing in Japan and many European countries (Belgium, Germany, U.K. Netherlands) and low densities prevailing in countries outside of the European cultural realm.

In other words, the developed countries account for about 1/5th of the total world's population. Thus, the average density in case of the more developed countries is much less than that in the less developed world. While on an average, there were 35 persons per sq.km. for the world as a whole, the corresponding figure for the more developed realm was only 19 persons per sq.km. Not all the developed countries are sparsely peopled. In fact the large sized developed countries displayed very low average densities and the small sized developed countries exhibited very high densities of population e.g. U.S.A had an average density of 34.8 persons, CIS 13 persons, Sweden 21.7 persons, Poland 123 persons, Japan 336 persons. Broadly speaking, European countries displayed higher densities than the non-European countries except Japan. Such contrasts also exist with agricultural and nutrition densities and with number of agriculture workers per square kilometer of agricultural land. Thus, it shows that even developed countries cannot be treated as one unit. There exist vast differences within themselves with regard to their population attributes and hence, with regard to their population problems. However, for the convenience of understanding here we shall treat them as one

unit while discussing problems faced by them. Let us take up various population attributes one by one and examine the type of problems being faced by such countries with regard to that particular attribute.

### **6.5.1 Declining Numbers**

As regards numbers, out of the 7 billion inhabitants of the world only 24.5% live in the more developed regions, while three-fourths live in the less developed realm. It is interesting to note that the share of the developed countries in the world's total population is gradually declining because the population of the less developed countries is growing rapidly while that of the developed world is growing only slowly. Since most of the developed countries have reached the final stage of their demographic evolution, therefore, they are experiencing either stagnation or slow growth in their population.

Most of these countries are experiencing low fertility and low mortality rates. The average annual growth rate for the world as a whole, during 2000-2010 was 1.1%. The developed countries on an average, exhibited an average annual growth rate of 0.36%. By comparison, the less developed countries displayed a growth rate of 1.44% per annum.

Within the developed countries there were wide regional variations in average annual growth rates. While USA, the CIS (the former U.S.S.R.) and Poland portrayed an average annual growth rate of 0.8, 0.2 and 0.1 respectively. Japan had an average annual growth rate of 0.2% while Sweden had reached near zero population growth rate stage. Some of the developed countries, in fact, were threatened with negative growth rate.

Consequently, the comparative numerical strength of the developed countries is declining which carries its own socio-economic, psychological and political implications of which many of the big advanced countries are rightly conscious.

### **6.5.2 Man- Resource Relationship**

These numbers when considered in the context of the area they occupy become much more significant as they become a crude index of the man resources relationship. Whereas on an average in the world as mentioned earlier there were 35 persons for each square kilometer, in case of developed countries the corresponding figure was 19 persons. When viewed in the light of share in the world's total resources, the more developed countries seemed to be in a favorable situation as the developed countries contribute nearly 85% of the gross national product of the world. Nonetheless when examined at the micro level most of the developed countries suffered from very high densities. As stated above this is more true of the European world and less true of the non-European developed countries. It was under pressures of the then high densities that European countries experienced two of the most significant events of their history, the industrial revolution and emigration and colonization of the new and the old worlds alike. Both these developments helped the highly densely populated countries of Europe to enhance their supporting capacity and thus maintain their high standard of living. Since now no more new areas for their settlement are available and their old colonies have also been lost, their high densities of population assume greater significance. With every increase in their population each of the developed countries particularly of the European world, suffer from additional burden on their resources. Thus, the decolonization process during the second half of the last century has increased the pressure of population in most of these developed countries following the independence of most of the colonies under European countries, as resources of the colonies are no longer available to these countries.

## **6.6 Fertility Levels**

The situation in the developed countries of the New World is, of course, different. Their resources are abundant and their densities are low. The man/land ratio did have its impact upon the fertility behavior of these countries. While on an average, the total fertility rate per woman in the world was 2.43 children (2015), the corresponding figure for the developed countries was only 2 or less i.e. below replacement level fertility rates. For example, Germany it is 1.4, Belgium 1.8, and Sweden 1.9.

### **6.6.1 Declining Fertility Levels**

During the last thirty years or so the developed countries were reaching the end of a long transition that began a century ago. In most of the developed countries the fertility levels have declined significantly and were below their fertility levels of the last century. In 2012, the average birth rate of the world was 19.15 births per 1000 total population, which has come down from 30 per thousand in 1970s to 25 per thousand in 1999-05 and 20.09 in 2007. However, in some countries, the birth rate increased slightly during the late 1970's. In east Europe also the fertility rates rose during early 1970's but then resumed an earlier decline. The temporary increase in fertility in some of the European countries may have been the result of their national policies that combined incentives to increase fertility. The subsequent decline in the fertility (of most of the East European countries testifies that it is very difficult to reverse the fertility) trends through policy actions. Moreover, the low birth rates reached in many of the developed countries are inseparable from other social and economic transformations inherent in mature urban-industrial societies where powerful cultural changes are leading to a change in familial values and functions. In Western Europe the nationalist attitudes of the government have weakened and legal restrictions against contraception and abortion have been relaxed. Furthermore the attitude of the Church in regard to such matters has changed radically. Social and economic forces have contributed to make female labour force participation more acceptable and child rearing more expensive. It may, therefore, be safe to presume that below replacement fertility levels will continue to prevail in the developed countries unless the continuing deficit to births in relation to deaths provokes strong action by the governments to support and encourage high fertility.

### **6.6.2 Illegitimacy**

Another problem concerning fertility in the developed countries that deserves mention here is the increasing incidence of illegitimacy. There are countries where the proportion of illegitimate children is alarmingly high. This has its own socio-economic implications. The children who are not owned by their parents generate many psychological and social problems in a society. In fact most of the developed countries are already facing such problems. The role of marriage in the developed countries has undergone a rapid change. However, this revolution in customs has had different manifestations and appears in varying degrees in different countries. In some countries legal marriage may no longer be the appropriate framework within which to analyze fertility. However, it is difficult to predict whether these reflect a permanent decline in the role of marital status in determining fertility. The 'youth revolution and the 'liberation of women' are some of the factors that have contributed to these developments. Equally important is the increased availability of effective means of contraception, which have reduced the risk of unwanted conception. The proportion of children born outside marriage is rising in all EU countries, North America and Australia. In Europe, besides the low and declining levels of fertility rates and the delay of motherhood, another factor that characterizes fertility is the growing percentage of births outside marriage. In the EU this phenomena has been on the rise in recent years and in countries such as Norway, Sweden and Finland, accounts for a majority of the births. For instance, in Sweden, 55% of the total births in 2007 were to unmarried women as compared to 40% in 1980. In 2012, 40% of all births in the 28 countries of EU were illegitimate compared to 27.4% in 2000. In most countries the proportion of extra-marital births today either hovers around 50% or exceeds that. Similarly, in the United States in 2009, 41% of children born were to unmarried mothers, a significant rise from just 18% in 1980. In USA most births to teenagers (86% in 2007), 60% of births to women in

20-24 and nearly one-third of births to women 25-29 were non-marital. The increasing incidence of illegitimacy has its own socio-economic implications. It leads to many social and psychological tensions in society. The increasing incidence of divorce and consequence broken families was also adding to the social and psychological problems of developed societies. The incidence of out-of-wedlock births is less common in the Asian countries.

### **6.6.3 Patterns of Nuptiality**

Another aspect of these new patterns of nuptiality is a widespread increase in the mean age at marriage, reversing a regular decline. In most European countries marriage still occurs earlier than was the case upto 1930, after which a decrease of permanent celibacy and a decline in the age at marriage was observed in most of the developed countries except Japan. The recent statistics points to later marriage. The mean age at first marriage for women in developed countries ranged between 21 and 28 years during 1970's. This recent increase in the age at marriage of women in the developed countries, however, does not necessarily signify a corresponding delay in the birth of a first child to a woman. For instance in Sweden the mean age of women at first marriage has increased from 22.5 years in 1970s to 27.6 years in 1980 and now 35.6 years in 2011, yet 37 per cent of the first children were born to women at the age of 20 to 24 before they actually married. It is interesting to note that in most of the developed countries the age at first marriage is increasing, the incidence of permanent celibacy is decreasing, the incidence of illegitimate children is increasing, the proportion of unmarried couples living together is increasing and the divorce rate is increasing. The fertility behavior and future trends of these countries must be examined in the light of such a socio-cultural background.

## **6.7 Persistence of High Mortality**

The persistence of high mortality is one of the most shocking signs of the failure of development. It seems that widespread ecological crises, economic depressions and political conflicts can make the projections of mortality appear optimistic. It was in 1962 that the United Nations had hoped that within a decade or two, the vast majority of the world's population will have a life expectancy of 65 years or more. In 1974 the World Population Conference suggested the targets of 62 years and 74 years by 1985 and 2000 respectively. These declarations were based upon the assumption that the life expectancy in the developed world will eventually stabilize at a level fixed by biological factors and the less developed countries shall also ultimately reach that goal. Fortunately, there is little to differentiate between the mortality rates of the developed countries and the less developed countries. In case of the former countries it is below 10 per thousand and in the case of the later it is in the vicinity of 10 per thousand. Recent mortality trends in more developed countries have been favourable. After 1970's the decline has been more rapid. Female mortality rates have declined more rapidly than the male mortality rates. In fact a typical feature of the demographic structure of the developed world was that their female mortality rates were lower than male mortality rates, Biologically, females constitute a stronger sex and in the event of an equal care and nourishment males are prone to die in much larger numbers than the females at all ages. This is true of the developed countries, whereas, reverse is true of the less developed realm.

However, there are wide variations within the developed countries in the pace of decline in the mortality rate. The progress of public health, in developed, countries, together with relatively high standard of living and welfare systems provides a safety net against the consequences of destruction and against infectious disease. That is why within a developed country one can have a glimpse of mortality differentials between various socio- economic groups inhabiting that country. For example, in 1978 in the United States the life expectancy among the whites was 5 years more than that among the others including the blacks. These mortality differentials among various socio-economic groups inhabiting the same country persist due to some other factors, the fact that the poor and the manual



workers are exposed more to environmental risks and accidents. Data pertaining to France, England, Wales, Japan, Australia and New Zealand show mortality differentials by occupational groups. It is interesting to note that in the developed countries a total elimination of mortality below 50 years of age would add only 3 to 5 years in their average life expectancy. Under such circumstances, continued reduction in mortality makes it essential that the people be encouraged to retain their socio-economic usefulness and their physical and intellectual vigour well after the present age of retirement.

## **6.8 Age Structure of Population**

The trends in fertility and mortality determine the age of structure of population. As a consequence of slow growth, the proportion of young population is low in the developed countries. Only, about the one-fourth of their population is below the age of 15 years. Since, in developed countries, life expectancy is around 80 years, the proportion of population above the age of 65 years is steadily increasing. When the size of the older segment of a population increase in relation to the younger segment, the population is said to be ageing. Such a process has been in operation for a long time in the developed world. Thus, one of the most common problems faced by all the developed countries is that of ageing often referred to as the 'graying of population'.

Since in the developed countries, the future progress in extending the life expectancy will in all probabilities be directed towards the elderly population, such mortality declines shall further increase the ageing process in these countries. The major change anticipated for the more developed regions is thus, in effect, a transfer of population from the working ages to ages 65 and over. Consequently, the median age of the more developed regions, which was only 29.0 years in 1950, is projected to rise to more than 45 years by 2050. This also reflects a rise in the dependency ratio. The dependency ratio relates the number of children (0-14 years old) and older persons (65 years or over) to the working-age population (15-64 years old). As fertility levels continue to decline in the developed countries, the dependency ratios increase because of the proportion of working age starts declining and the proportion of older persons continues to increase. As populations grow older, increases in old-age dependency ratios are indicators of the added pressures that social security and public health systems have to withstand.

## **6.9 Sex Composition**

The sex composition of the population of developed countries also presents a typical problem of a deficiency of males. The value for the entire world population is 1.01 males/female, with 1.07 at birth, 1.06 for those under 15, 1.02 for those between 15 and 64, and 0.78 for those over 65. Almost all of the developed countries have a gender ratio in the range of 0.95–0.98 for the total population, of 1.05–1.07 at birth, of 1.05–1.06 for the group below 15, of 1.00–1.04 for the group aged 15–64, and of 0.70–0.75 for those over 65. Males are in minority in Europe and also in the CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States) notably in the wake of World War I in western Europe and World War II, particularly in the erstwhile Soviet Union. This is borne out by the sex ratios of the age of those people who were in their twenties at the time of the World War II. In case of Western Europe, the deficiency of males may be associated with the ageing of population due to low fertility and low mortality. In North America the paucity of males may be the outcome of the relative high male mortality rate.

## **6.10 Urbanisation**

The industrially advanced countries of the more developed world are highly urbanized. About 72 per cent of the population of the developed countries lives in urban centers. Not only that, the urban

centers of the more developed countries are very large in size, some of them reaching mega city or the mega polis level. A mega city is an urban agglomeration of 10 million or more inhabitants, composed of several district units, each having its own administrative boundaries. Such big cities pose their own threat to human life through environmental pollution and through increased urban vices. The problems that the highly urbanized countries face in the big cities include over congestion, emergence of shanty towns (urban slums), high cost of living, air, water and noise pollution, and high incidence of crime and accidents.

### 6.11 Immigration

Another significant population problem confronting the developed countries is that of migration. Since the developed countries have about 80% of the world's resources and about 20% of the world population and are fortunate in having advanced technology at their command, therefore, the standard of living in these countries is contrastingly higher than that in the rest of the world. No wonder, the developed countries continue to attract migrants, on a large scale, from different parts of the world. In earlier days when the developed countries of the New World and a few such countries of Europe were in the need of unskilled labour, these countries encouraged immigration. But as their labour requirement decreased, their immigration laws and regulations became more and more stringent. But now most of the developed countries have enacted immigrations laws and policies most suitable to their countries' requirements. Moreover, immigration by and large is being restricted for several, social, economic, political and security reasons. However, today immigrants make up 3.1% of the world's population, up from 2.9 in 1990. Many developed countries, especially in Europe, have ageing populations and low birth rates, so they depend on immigrants, both legal and illegal. As countries become more interlinked, movement across borders has become relatively easier and inexpensive. But a major problem arises as 10 to 15 percent of all immigrants in developed countries are there illegally. In USA alone there are some 11.1 million illegal immigrants of a total of 42 million immigrants. Similarly there are 2 million to 4 million illegal immigrants living in the European Union as per 2008 estimates. Immigrants typically move, legally or illegally, in search of better jobs and more opportunities. Today however, situations have considerably changed and are in constant state of flux. Immigration moves in step with the economy. It increases when the economy is strong and drops when it is weak. Today, with high unemployment in most developed nations, there are no jobs for immigrants, so they stay home and wait to seek work in wealthier nations. The trend among nations affected by illegal immigration is increased enforcement. Most developed nations have implemented multiple measures to control immigration. Yet completely effective solutions remain elusive.

Thus, the major problems confronting the developed world include slow growth of population, ageing at the apex, paucity of males, inadequacy of unskilled labour, urban congestion and immigration.

#### Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)

##### State True or False

- i ) Population problems of the developed countries are contrastingly different from the less developed countries.
- ii ) The share of the population of the developed countries in the world is increasing.
- iii ) Decolonization during the second half of the last century led to increased population pressure in most of the developed countries.
- iv ) The sex composition of the population of developed countries presents a deficiency of

females.

v ) Immigration is not a problem of the developed countries.

## 6.12 Developing Countries: Prevailing Scenario

Since the end of the Second World War there has been a remarkable rise in interest in various population issues specifically in the developing countries. Two important developments, one, the unprecedented decline in the death rates of the developing countries mainly due to public health programs and measures taken to control the communicable diseases, and two, the political emancipation of several Afro-Asian countries which till then, were under the colonial rule of some European country or the other were responsible for generating this interest. The newly acquired independence raised the hopes and aspirations of the people to remove poverty and increase the standard of living of the people and ensure for them a better to quality of life. Thus, a new era of planning for development dawned in these countries and new terms such as Five Year Plan. Planning for Development, Economic Take off etc. become widely known. The planners of the developing countries while preparing plans for social and economic development realized that spectacular declines in the death rates had been responsible for accelerating the rate of population growth, as birth rates in these countries remained unchanged. The developing countries, on the whole, are still experiencing higher rates of population increase as compared to the developed countries. The rapidly increasing population, it was realized, acts as a brake on development and brings in its wake several other problems. Such realization attracted the attention of development planners and policy-makers towards the population problems in developing countries and measures to contain the population problem were initiated.

The world population crossed the seven billion mark in 2011 and today stands at 7.4 billion (2016). Of this approximately 80percent is in the developing countries. This share is to increase further to 84 per cent by the year 2025 according to the medium variant projection done by the United Nations. The annual population growth rate for the developing countries was 1.24 per cent during 2000-2005 while for the developed countries it was only 0.28 per cent. This difference in the population growth rate explains the contribution of the developing countries to the world's population. But on the other hand, if one looks at indicators which assess the socio- economic well-being of the population such as daily caloric supply, literacy levels, per capita income levels, doctor population ratio, etc. it is found that for the developing countries, these indicators are on the negative side at the present population size. As a result of this, any further growth of population would put more pressure on the meager resources available for investment in improvement of the living standard of the population. So one of the major problems facing the developing countries is its population growth. Rapidly increasing population has been a major concern for development planners, policy makers and administrators of many developing countries.

Before coming to the problems being faced by the developing or less developed countries, it is necessary to be acquainted with the population situation and socio-economic conditions of the developing countries in the world for a better understanding of their population problems.

### 6.12.1 Demographic Scenario

Developing countries vary greatly in terms population size and population density or the number of persons per square kilometer. The Peoples Republic of China with a population size of 1,372 million leads the world in population size followed by India with a population of 1314 million, Indonesia 256

million, Brazil 205 million, Pakistan 199 million Nigeria 182 million, and Bangladesh 160 million. (Source: Population Reference Bureau, 2015 World Population Data Sheet)

The developing countries vary in the density of population also. Bangladesh with a population density of 1114 persons per square kilometer is the most densely populated country in Asia. African countries have lower densities. The developing countries are characterized by high fertility. The birth rates in the developing countries are generally at very high levels ranging between 12 per 1000 population for Cuba and 26.40 per 1000 population for Kenya (2015). Except Cuba all other developing countries having a population of 10 million or more have birth rates of more than 20 per 1000. The developed countries have on an average the birth rate in the vicinity of 10 per 1000 and for the developing countries, excluding China, the average birth rate has been 26.9 per 1000 and including China 23.5 per 1000 population. In the whole discussion, average data for the developing countries including China and for developing countries excluding China has been considered. China, being a highly populous country, influences the over all characteristics of the developing countries. Recently, during the past 12-14 years China has taken big strides in reducing its fertility (crude birth rate 21 per 1000 in 1987 declined to 12.49 in 2015) and population growth (rate of natural increase from 14.78 per 1000 population in 1987 to 5.43 per 1000 population in 2015). It has also curtailed mortality level and raised the life expectancy. There are very few developing countries with birth rate less than 20 per 1000 population and very few developed countries with birth rate more than 20 per 1000.

The death rates in the developing countries are also on the higher side relative to the more developed countries. The highest crude death rate is observed in Afghanistan (13.89 deaths per 1000 population) and the lowest for Cuba (7.72 deaths per 1000 population) (2015). The differences in the death rate of the developing and developed countries are less substantial than the corresponding differences in birth rates. Consequently, striking differences between the developing and the developed countries are observed in the rate of natural increase. Except Cuba, South Korea and Sri Lanka the rates of natural increase (difference between birth rates and death rates) are more than 2 per cent. With the natural rate of population growth of 2.4 per cent (excluding China) the population of the developing countries will double in just 29 years, whereas population of the developed countries will take 128 years to double. The level of fertility in the developing countries has been much above the replacement level of the population. In both situations fertility is proving to be a problematic factor.

The use of contraceptives among couples where wife is in the reproductive age group has been at a lower level in the developing countries in comparison with the developed countries. While the percentage of contraceptive users among currently married women in reproductive age groups, in the developing countries is less than 40 per cent, among developed countries more than 50 per cent of the currently married women in the childbearing ages are using contraceptives. Among the regions of the world, highest percentage of contraceptive users is found in East Asia, because of China and Japan.

Average life expectancy in less developed regions including and excluding China is 64.1 and 62.0 years respectively. This is much lower than the average life expectancy of the developed countries, which has stands at 80 years. In some African countries such as Sudan, the life expectancy is 63.68 years, Ethiopia 61.48 years, Cameroon 57.93 years, and Nigeria 53.08 years. The lowest life expectancy is observed for Afghanistan, 50.87 years and the highest has been observed for Cuba 78.39 years. The infant mortality rate (the risk of a baby dying between birth and one year of age) is two per 1,000 live births in Iceland, a developed nation, compared with over 120 per 1,000 live births in Mozambique, a developing country. In fact three-quarters of all deaths of under-fives are concentrated in just two regions of the world: 46% in Africa and 28% in South-east Asia. More than half of all these deaths were clustered in only six countries: China, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, India, Nigeria, and Pakistan.

### 6.12.2 Socio- Economic and Health Scenario

A majority of the less developed countries cannot supply the minimum required calories necessary to maintain adequate health.

Medical care also seems to be a scarce service in most of the developing countries. For China while 1.49 physicians were available to 1000 population, in India it was just 0.7. However for many of the developing countries the situation remains quite grim with less than 0.05 physicians being available for 1000 population. Moreover disproportionately larger facilities are available for urban areas in which only about one-third of the population stays. For example, in India roughly 80 per cent of the medical facilities are in the urban areas where only a quarter of the population lives. In the Baseline Surveys conducted in five states of India, namely Bihar, Rajasthan, Orissa, Gujarat and Maharashtra, it was observed that even where medical facilities existed in the rural areas, the extent of utilization of ante natal care services has been very meager. Less than 10 percent of the pregnant women utilized ante-natal care services even in the rural areas where there were primary health centers or sub-centers.

In most of the developing countries on account of persistently high birth rates, the percentage of child population under age 15 is very high. The age structure of the less developed, high birth rate countries therefore, is "young". This can be clearly observed in the age pyramids for developing and developed countries. While the age pyramids for developing countries are broad based and tapering at the apex, those of the developed countries are rectangular because they have fewer children and large number of elderly people above the age of 65 years. In most of the developing countries the average percentage of children is more than 40 per cent without China and 57 per cent with China. Subsequent to the adoption of one child policy in 1979, China's birth rates have drastically reduced in the past 12-15 years, the percentage of children below the age of 15 in China being just 17.5% in 2014 from 28% in 1987 and 28.6% in 2000-2005. In Kenya, 42.4% of the total population was under 15. In the developed countries a little more than one fifth of the total population is child population below age 15. As a result of higher percentage of child population the active labour force of the developing countries has to support proportionately almost twice the number of children as it has to in more developed countries.

Thus, the age wise distribution of population distinctly impacts the dependency ratio. This shows the relationship between persons who bear the responsibility to support in society and those who depend on them for their upbringing, education and well being (viz. the young (0-15) and old (65+) population). The proportion of young dependents is more in the developing countries than in developed countries. While the situation is exactly the opposite in the case of old dependents, the projected level of dependency ratio shows a slight increase in old age dependency.

The children and the older population is often referred to as an economic burden in the sense that being non-productive members of the society they are to be supported financially by the country's labour force. Further, many developing countries experienced slower growth in their gross national product, which as it is about 11.5 times lower when compared with the developed countries. In fact, a wide and growing gap exists between the rich and poor nations and also considerable disparity is seen even within a single developing country especially in terms of the distribution of income. In addition the developing countries are also facing the problem of inadequate utilization of labour force, manifest in their rates of under-employment and unemployment. Large majorities of the people in the developing countries are primarily engaged in agriculture, followed by industry and service.

Regarding literacy and educational attainment also the developing countries were much backward. The average literacy rate among developing nations was less than half when compared to that of the developed countries. Further, per capita expenditure on education in the developing countries was negligible as compared to that in the developed countries.

### 6.13 Population Problems of the Developing Countries

Population problem has been defined as a current or a future situation viewed by planners as a “problem” and whose cause is recognized as having some major demographic component. Thus the “view” of the situation is significant. While scholars, development planners and even environmentalists may view the population situation as a problem, the countries concerned may not do so. In 1987, the United Nations sought the governmental view in current population situation from various governments. It was observed that some countries, such as Iraq and Saudi Arabia, with a population growth rate then of 3.3 and 3.1 respectively, considered it to be low, and Jordan and Iran with population growth rates of 3.7 per cent and 3.2 per cent considered them as ‘now satisfactory’. However, today it can be seen that a decline in the population growth rates has distinctly set in and as per 2013 estimates the growth rate for Iraq is 2.35%, Saudi Arabia 1.52%, and 1.25 for Iran. In the context of the demographic, health and economic scenario prevailing in the developing countries, the common problems faced by them include high growth rate of population, high fertility levels, mortality levels and a host of economic problems especially poverty and inadequacies of basic amenities, education and health care.

### 6.14 Growth Rates

Population grows according to the law of “compound interest” wherein each year’s growth is added to the principal i.e. size of population. Population growth rates continue to remain high in most of the developing countries leading to the doubling of population within a period of two to three decades. The increase in population numbers negates any gains through development leading to the continued prevalence of poverty, illiteracy, low standard of living, low incomes, inadequate housing, poor health, limited education, high infant mortality, and low life expectancies. In the contemporary world, “rapid” population growth connotes annual increase in the neighborhood of 2 per cent or more. Kenya, with population growth rate in the vicinity of 2.6% will double its size in about 20 years and India with a growth rate of 1.62 will take about 35 years for doubling its population.

Only in a few developing countries the population growth rates have fallen below 2 per cent a year during the last two decades. In many developing countries, for example the whole of Africa, West Asia, South East Asia and in Latin America excluding the Caribbean, the population growth rates are found to be more than 2 per cent per year.

The average population growth rates in the developing countries increased from 2 percent in 1950 to 2.4 percent in 1965. The average rate of natural increase for all the developing countries now is about 2.1 per cent. This fall in the average growth rate of the developing countries is due almost entirely to the birth rate decline in China that alone accounts for a third of the total population of developing countries. Birth rates have also fallen (by more than 30 percent) in other East Asian countries such as Hong Kong, Thailand, and Philippines. In Indonesia, the birth rate has declined by a little more than 20 per cent.

In the Indian subcontinent comprising India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Nepal and Sri Lanka, an impressive decline in the birth rate has been noticed except in Sri Lanka. In Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nepal the current rate of natural increase is now around 2 percent which means that the population of these countries will double in 28 to 35 years i.e. within a life time of any individual. India’s current rate of natural increase, which is 1.6 percent indicates that Indian population would be double within 35 years.

In Cuba, Columbia, Jamaica and Peru, the birth rates have also declined substantially. In Cuba the decline has been the largest, about 52 per cent. In contrast high birth rates still persist in Africa and much of the Middle East (except Egypt, Lebanon, Tunisia, Morocco and Turkey). The growth rates here are generally in the vicinity of 3 percent.

### 6.15 Age Structure

One major implication of high birth rates and falling infant mortality rate is the young structure of the population. In countries such as Kenya where the birth rate has been around 50 and is now (2000-2005) 39% the percentage of children below 15 was found to be more than 42.6%. The 'young' age structure means a high young dependency burden in the developing countries and it also indicates that the labour market will be flooded by new-entrants in the new two decades in developing countries and the labour-force replacement ratios will be around 2 i.e about two persons will replace one retiree. For countries where fertility started declining in the middle of 1960s the rate of growth of labour force, has started declining very recently. The absolute number of new workers, however, will continue to increase until after the middle of this century.

The young age structure of the population is also responsible for a continuation of high birth rate for some time even if each mother has fewer children. Thus population growth has a built-in mechanism wherein population continues to increase for sometime even after birth rates drop. This aspect of population growth is known as population momentum.

The world population reached the 7 billion mark in 2011 and stands at over 7.3 billion today. Almost 97% of this increase took place in the developing countries.

### **6.16 Fertility Rates**

The high growth rates are essentially the result of high fertility rates. The two most readily available and reliable indicators of fertility are the crude birth rate and the total fertility rate. The crude birth rate during the period 2000-2005 was 23.5 per thousand population for the developing countries, according to the medium variant projections made by the United Nation in the Population Prospects, and is projected as 18.6 for 2020-25. While in the developed countries it was 11.1 in 2000-2005 and is expected to be 10.0 by 2020-25. Fertility is still high in most of the least developed countries and although it is expected to decline, it will remain higher than the rest of the world. In the rest of the developing countries, fertility has declined markedly since the late 1960's and is expected to reach below replacement level by 2050 in the majority of these countries. Replacement level fertility is the level of fertility at which a population exactly replaces itself from generation to generation. Various factors affect the fertility rates such as improvements in health care, sanitation and diet that lead to a drop in infant mortality rate. For example, The Democratic Republic of Congo has a total fertility rate of 6.91 and 0.088 doctors per 1000 people. High birth rates occur to compensate a high infant mortality rate e.g. Nigeria with a birth rate of 5.16, whereas reduced infant mortality rate reduces the need for lots of children for security.

Another factor is the availability of contraceptives for couples with knowledge and desire to use it as in Rwanda, where 10% of women practice modern methods of family planning and where the total fertility rate is 5.12. On the other hand in Brazil, 70% of women practice modern methods of family planning and the total fertility rate is 2.21. Fertility is also high in countries such as Afghanistan where access to both health care and education is limited and hence with just 0.17 doctors per 1000 population and a female literacy of 13% the total fertility rate can be as high as 7.7. The levels of education has an important bearing on fertility as especially higher female literacy rates lead to improved knowledge of birth control, more opportunities for employment and more choice leading to lower fertility rates. Further, in many parts of the developing world, religion/tradition demand high rate of reproduction and are also opposed to the use of birth control. The status of women too has a great impact on fertility as women in some countries are obliged to produce as many children as possible e.g. Nigeria where the total fertility rate is 4.9. Some other factors influencing fertility in the developing countries also include the low cost of bringing up children and as mentioned earlier a large proportion of young population.

It can be concluded from the above that fertility levels in the developed countries have reached a plateau and that there can be further reduction, while in the case of developing countries the levels are still high but there has been a decrease over the years. Further on the decrease is to be more drastic as the projected figures in some regions show that there has been a consistent reduction, while, other have a still higher fertility levels.

Among the developing regions, Africa with a crude birth rate of 37.7 during the period 2000-2005 has the highest rate as when compared with other regions.

The other indicator of fertility viz the total fertility rate, which is the hypothetical number of children that a woman will have at the end of her reproductive period, shows similar trends. The developing countries have an estimated total fertility rate of 2.90, which is projected to be 2.40 during the period 2020-25. In the case of the African countries the TFR is 6.24 and is expected to decline to 3.04 during 2020-25.

### **6.17 Mortality Rates**

The indicators used for describing the mortality conditions are crude death rate (CDR), life expectancy at birth and the infant mortality rate. The rapid growth of the world's population over the past 100 years is not the result of a rise in the crude birth rate; instead it has been caused largely by a decline in crude death rates, especially in the developing countries. More people are living longer and fewer infants are dying as a result of increased food supplies and distribution, better nutrition, improvements in medical and public health technology (such as immunizations and antibiotics), improved sanitation and personal hygiene, and safer water supplies (which has curtailed the spread of many infectious diseases), although much improvement remains to be achieved.

The crude death rate for the developing countries is estimated to be more than 10 per 1000 population, while in some of the African countries it continues to be in the vicinity of 14.

The life expectancy at birth for the developing countries as a whole was 71 years during the period 2010-13 and is projected to reach 74 years during 2020-25. Africa is the region having the least expectancy at birth of 52 years among the developing countries.

The infant mortality rate for the developing countries is 78 and is expected to reduce to 33 during the period 1985-90 and 2020-25 respectively. Again Africa having the infant mortality rate of 103 and the projected figure being 48 is the region having the highest rate.

Despite the various pockets of developing countries having high levels of mortality, the decline of mortality has been spectacular in most of them. The decline has been largely due to the control of the epidemic and endemic diseases through public health measures.

The major factor for the increase in the population of the developing countries is due to fact that the decline in fertility level is not that steep as that of the mortality levels and as a result of which the population size increase.

### **6.18 Conclusion**

In most of the developing countries the social, economic and the health status is not anywhere near to those in the developed countries. The increase in population has to be in conjunction with the availability of requisite standard of living. But in most of the developing countries this is not the case, as a result of which the population is subjected to miserable conditions of living. Most of developing countries are striving hard to stabilize their population growth as early as possible.



Thus it can be stated that higher levels of fertility rates resulting in high rates of population increase and young age structure of the population are the major problems of the developing countries of the world. The developed countries, on the contrary, are facing exactly opposite population problems i.e. low levels of birth rates, lower population growth rates and increasing gray population. As some of the developing countries have already large population bases the population problems for them assume large dimensions.

The problem of population growth is not simply a problem of numbers but it is a problem of human welfare and development and should be viewed from that angle. It should be mentioned that up to a point population growth could be accommodated. It is the experience of many countries that they had, during the past three decades, managed to raise their average income despite their rapid population growth. But the goal of the development is to improve people's lives and not just to accommodate the ever growing population. If 'development' connotes the improvement in the levels of living of the people 'their income' health, education and general well being and if it also encompasses their self-esteem, respect, dignity and freedom to choose, then the really important question about population growth is: How does the contemporary population situation in many Third World Countries do or detract from their chances of realizing the goals of development, for not only the current generation but also for future generation.

The important issues related to the basic issue of rapid population growth and the quality of life are: Will the developing countries with their current and prospective levels of population growth:

- (1) Be able to feed adequately the every growing number of people in coming decades and also improve nutritional levels of the diets?
- (2) Be able to improve the levels of living or provide basic essential services such as: housing, transport, sanitation and security to the people?
- (3) Be able to expand the coverage and improve the quality of their health and educational systems so that everyone can have a chance to get adequate health care and basic education?
- (4) Be able to cope up with the vast increase in their labour forces in the future?

There are two conflicting views among the development scientists regarding the economic consequence of rapid population growth in the developing countries. According to one group the problem is not population growth but some other issues. According to them "the key to economic growth is people and through people the advance of human knowledge."

Several other development scientists, chief among them is the World Bank, are of the view that rapid population growth is a serious problem for the developing countries and rapid population growth at rates above 2 per cent acts as a brake on development. The consequences of rapid population growth may vary from country to country depending on the institutional, economic, cultural and demographic setting. However it slows down the development of a country and the poorest of the developing country are the worst suffers. According to the World Bank, rapid population growth is above all a development problem.

### Self Assessment Questions-3 (SAQ-3)

#### Match the Following

- |                                     |                                  |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| i ) Persistent high birth rates     | a) Human welfare and development |
| ii ) Age structure                  | b) Developing countries          |
| iii ) Population growth impact      | c) Economic burden               |
| iv ) Falling mortality rates        | d) Dependency ratio              |
| v ) Children and old age population | e) Greying of population         |

### 6.19 Summary

In this lesson we learnt about the population problems of the developed and developing countries. Beginning with the different characteristics of the developed and developing countries, the specific demographic, socio-economic and health scenarios prevalent were discussed. This was followed by a discussion and analysis on the population problems of first the developed countries and then the developing countries. In the next lesson we shall discuss population problems and sustainable development.

### 6.20 Further Readings

1. Thomas, W. S. and Lewis, D.T. (1976): Population Problems, Tata McGraw Hill, New Delhi
2. Bose Ashish & Premi M. K. (1992): Population Transition in South Asia, New Delhi, B. R. Publishers
3. Chandna, R. C. (2017): A Geography of Population (10th Edition), New Delhi, Kalyani Publishers

### 6.21 Model Questions

- Q1. Write a comparative note on the population problems of developing and developed countries.?
- Q2. Discuss the population problems of the developing countries in the context of their demographic, economic and health scenario.

### Answers to Self Assessment Questions

#### Self Assessment Question- 1

- i) Developed; ii) Socio-economically; iii) 80 years; iv) Israel, Ireland; v) Australia.

#### Self Assessment Question- 2

- i) True; ii) False; iii) True; iv) False; v) False.

#### Self Assessment Question- 3

- i) b; ii) d; iii) a; iv) e; v) c.



# POPULATION PROBLEMS & SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

## Structure

- 7.0 Objective
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Population Dynamics
- 7.3 Environmental Impact
- 7.4 Sustainable Development
- 7.5 Population Issues and Sustainable Development
- 7.6 Conclusion
- 7.7 Summary
- 7.8 Further Readings
- 7.9 Model Questions

### 7.0 Objective

After reading this lesson you should be able to

- recognize major trends and issues in global population dynamics;
- define sustainable development
- clarify the importance of population issues in relation to sustainable development;
- understand the dynamic population-environment-development interrelationship;
- state the relationship between population problems and sustainable development
- express how development can be made sustainable

### 7.1 Introduction

In the previous lesson we studied about the population problems being faced by both the developed as well as developing countries. Broadly speaking if in the former case, the problem is of declining numbers but high consumption levels, in the latter it is essentially large numbers and therefore large consumption at low standard of living. Either way the burden is on finite resources, the rapid exploitation and utilization of which to meet the needs of the burgeoning world population, is undermining the earth's carrying capacity leading to unsustainable uses of resources thereby jeopardizing the sustainability of development. In this lesson we shall study how unsustainable patterns of consumption and production are depleting natural resources and causing environmental degradation, and also leading to social inequity and poverty. We shall then discuss the challenges for development in the context of population problems that requires to meet the needs of present generations and improve their quality of life in ways that do not compromise future generations' ability to meet their own needs.

## 7.2 Population Dynamics

Human Population and the environment share a dynamic and complex relationship. The human population uses the environment as its habitat and is dependent on it for its survival. The environment in fact, is constantly changing as a result of human activities that lead to various problems such as forest depletion, soil erosion, droughts, climatic change, pollution etc. As the number of people increases, their resource use also increases. The situation becomes more alarming due to population pressure and over-exploitation of the environment both literally undermining the earth's ability to sustain life. Hence, population growth specifically is seen as a cause of natural resource depletion and environmental degradation.

The growth of human population is a continuous process, and today the world population is over 7 billion. However, it may be noted that the world attained the first billion of population in the early years of the nineteenth century. During 1918-1927 the second billion was reached and the world population increased to 3 billion in 1960, 4 billion in 1975, 5 billion in 1987, and it crossed the six billion mark in 1999. The world population has recorded an unprecedented growth during the last two hundred years and has more than doubled in just 40 years. In fact, the world population is growing by more than 90 million per year of which 93% is in the developing countries i.e. Africa, Asia and Latin America. If these trends continue then these regions, which have the lowest per capita Gross National Product, but the highest population growth rates, will contain nearly 86% of the world population by 2025. On the other hand, the remaining 15% population of the developed nations shares 79% of the global income.

There are many evidences to show that world population growth contributes to world problems. It has led to famines in areas where food production has not been able to keep pace with the increase in population, political unrest where disparities in availability of resources, jobs, food etc. exist; environmental degradation-erosion, deforestation, and pollution to name a few, as a fall out of human activities. This impact of population growth on the environment is directly related to:

- An increased use of natural resources in the process of consumption and enhanced generation of waste and pollution in the process of production.
- An extension of agriculture onto ecologically weak areas, such as semi-arid regions, soil degraded lands and steep hill slopes;
- The rapid cutting of forests to meet the demands of the increasing population for more arable land, and wood for fuel and construction material;
- Faster utilization and exhaustion of mineral and power resources such as coal, petroleum, iron ore etc.

## 7.3 Environmental Impact

The damage to environment has its own negative effects on population i.e. its increased dependence on ecologically degraded lands, exposure to air and water pollution, scarce fuel and constraining the future expansion of food harvests. Strategies unfriendly to ecology reduce the inherent production capacity of the natural resource base. Ultimately food production suffers - a typical population-food-environment trap. Further, malnutrition, poor sanitation, crowding, exposure to air and water pollution leading to a variety of diseases etc.; are responsible for deaths of millions in the developing countries. It may be pointed out here that although population growth is low in the developed countries, their high level of consumption, indiscriminate use of technology and over-exploitation of the environment are equally detrimental to environmental health and responsible for problems such as ozone depletion and global warming.

Added to this are the rising aspirations of the people even in the developing countries and

increased consumption following development in agriculture, industry, transport and urbanization. The natural capital is declining, as natural resources are not recouped at the rate of their utilization. The excessive demand on soil leads to infertility while over irrigation in some areas has led to water logging; water supplies are scarce in several parts of the world. Similarly, deforestation, overgrazing and extension of cultivation onto marginal lands have disturbed the ecology of several areas. The biodiversity of certain ecosystems too stands threatened e.g. forests in the Western Ghats and Himalayas, wetlands of the Ganga delta and coral reefs close to oceanic islands.

The problem of population growth demands greater attention because

- (i) The world population has recorded an unprecedented growth during the last 100 years;
- (ii) The pressure on food resources of the world has increased tremendously;
- (iii) The disparity between the income levels of more developed and less developed countries has widened;
- (iv) All over the world the environmental damage is increasing; and
- (v) The less developed world is experiencing great stress on its limited resources and on the processes of socio-economic development.

Nature has provided mankind with a protective cover as also a supportive resource base, but both stand impaired today. This is primarily the result of the lifestyle dominated by greed and mode of development followed by mankind characterized by indiscriminate and over exploitation of the resource base, industrialization and urbanization that has undermined the ecosystem, leading to degradation of the environment. The negative impact is unmistakable. Moreover, the focus of the prevailing pattern of development is 'infinite growth in a finite environment'. This naturally leads to reckless exploitation of natural resource. While in the former these problems are intimately linked with production and consumption, in the latter they are associated with burgeoning population and poverty. Thus, in every society, preserving the environment is of utmost significance.

The human population continues to grow. While at one time more people were looked upon as assets and the source of "more ingenuity, more talent and more innovation", today it simply implies "less for each". As per the United Nations projections "there will be more than four billion people living in nations defined as water-scarce or water-stressed by 2050, up from half a billion in 1995; at less than six tenths of an acre, global per capita cropland today is little more than half of what it was in 1961; the atmosphere's capacity to absorb green house gases is greatly reduced leading to global warming, energy and food are scarce and there are fewer jobs available resulting from economic vagaries. Meeting the requirements leads to greater exploitation of resources and as production and consumption increases so does generation of waste leading to pollution of the support system and dramatic environmental impacts. "Population growth constantly pushes the consequences of any level of individual consumption to a higher plateau, and reductions in individual consumption can always be overwhelmed by increases in population. The simple reality is that acting on both, consistently and simultaneously, is the key to long-term environmental sustainability". The sustainability benefits of declining human population are extremely vital and cannot be ignored.

So whether it is an addition of 17 million people per year in India against 3 million in the United States, the consumption levels in the United States being nearly five times higher than in India, with such large disparities, the cause of sustainability will be better served "if the Americans emulated Indian consumption than if India emulated U.S. population". The environmental challenges of population growth, however, cannot be reduced to assigning blame.

Population dynamics underpin sustainable development, which in turn rests on the strength and stability of environmental, economic and social systems. Population dynamics, particularly fertility, affect the availability of natural resources, biodiversity, climate change, household poverty and many other development priorities. At any level of development, human impact on the environment is a function of population size, per capita consumption and the environmental damage caused by the technology used to produce what is consumed.

As per the United Nations Population Fund report "The impact of population growth in rural areas can push communities into unsustainable practices, such as the burning and cutting down of tropical forests in order to plant crops, over-cropping and subsequent depletion of fragile arable land and over-pumping of groundwater. In rapidly growing cities, people without access to running water and basic sanitation are vulnerable to diseases borne by contaminated water and animal pests. And the intersection of rural and urban areas is a kind of battleground, with farmland nearly always the loser".

## **7.4 Sustainable Development**

The Brundtland Commission in its Report entitled "Our Common Future" used the term sustainable development for the first time in 1987. Sustainable development was very aptly defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs".

Global unsustainability is essentially the result of two factors:

- i ) The rapidly increasing population and the consequent increasing pressure on natural resources and life support systems of the Earth, and
- ii ) The declining physical resources of the Earth, the regeneration of which is unable to match the pace of mans' indiscriminate use.

For the sake of human survival itself there is an urgent need to shift focus to holistic sustainable development. It is imperative therefore, to shift from a wasteful consumption based society to a sustainable low waste society. Qualitative growth must be achieved within the limits of the supporting capacity of the ecosystem. Planning processes for the more judicious and effective use of resources and energy, developments of less resource-intensive sectors, efficient environment management through policy intervention, are some strategies to achieve development goals without environment/ecological degradation.

Earth is perhaps the only planet in the universe where life is known to exist. However, the supporting capacity of this planet is progressively being reduced because of the growing population coupled with the increasing per capita consumption demand due to the changing life style. The result is the shrinking of the available land and other- resources for use by man. The world population has already crossed seven billion. The combined destructive impact of the poor majority struggling to stay alive and the affluent minority consuming most of the earth's resources are undermining the very means on which the survival and welfare of mankind depends

With increasing population and fast changing life style, the sustainability of the resource base remains a question. Thus, if we do not conserve our natural resources and the environment, we will soon exhaust our resources and completely destroy the environment. Mankind needs to develop in a manner that progress and development remain a continuous process for the present and the future.

It must be understood that in order to achieve sustainable development we need:

- i) to prevent excessive depletion and degradation of all natural resources,
- ii) to use energy more efficiently,

- iii) to shift from polluting fossil fuels to renewable sources of energy as derived from the sun,
- iv) to stall the pace of renewable resources to the rate at which they can be regenerated and replaced,
- v) to curtail all wastage of non-renewable resources and to recycle and reuse materials,
- vi) to reduce waste and pollution generation to levels at which they can be biodegraded and rendered harmless,
- vii) to slow down and ultimately stabilize population growth, and,
- viii) to reduce poverty that leads people to use resources unsustainably.

### Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)

#### Fill in the Blanks

- i) Human population and environment share a \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ relationship.
- ii) Population growth specifically is seen as a cause of natural resource \_\_\_\_\_ and environmental \_\_\_\_\_.
- iii) The natural \_\_\_\_\_ is declining, as natural resources are not recouped at the rate of their \_\_\_\_\_.
- iv) The Brundtland Commission in its Report entitled \_\_\_\_\_ used the term sustainable development for the first time in 1987.
- v) For human survival itself there is an urgent need to shift focus to \_\_\_\_\_ development.

## 7.5 Population Issues and Sustainable Development

The report prepared by the United Nations Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs on designing the development agenda post 2015 recognizes the importance of integrating population issues into sustainable development. (Part of the report is reproduced below)

“The central challenge in designing the post-2015 development agenda is to ensure that efforts to improve the quality of life of the present generation are far-reaching, broad and inclusive but do not compromise the ability of future generations to meet their needs. Accomplishing this goal hinges on the ability of the international community to ensure access to resources for growing numbers of people, eradicate poverty, move away from unsustainable patterns of consumption and production and safeguard the environment. In designing and implementing the new development agenda it is important to understand and account for the demographic changes that are likely to unfold over the next 15 years. While much remains unknown about the rate of transformation of the global economy or the speed at which technological advancements will be needed to improve efficiency and reduce Humanity’s environmental footprint, the speed and direction of population change, at least in the near future, is far more predictable. The report focuses on the demographic changes that are projected to occur over the next 15 years and discusses what they imply for efforts to achieve sustainable development”.

### “Discussion and recommendations

- i) The growth of the world’s population over the past 60 years has been unprecedented. World population reached 7.3 billion in 2015, twice the number of people that were on the planet in 1969, reflecting the progress that has been made in combating infectious and childhood



diseases and in reducing the burden of premature and avoidable deaths, especially in the poorest countries of the world. Nevertheless, the rapid growth of the world's population, in combination with increasing prosperity, higher standards of living and unsustainable patterns of consumption and production, has led to growing concerns about the impact of human actions on the environment. While the relationship between population size and growth, consumption, technology and the environment is far from simple, lower population growth combined with more responsible patterns of consumption and production would ease pressure on ecosystems to generate food, preserve natural resources and allow the world more time to identify and adopt new technologies.

- ii ) In addition, continued rapid population growth in some countries complicates and exacerbates the challenges associated with delivering basic services and ensuring that no one is left behind. Slower population growth would enable families and Governments to invest more in the health and education of each child, creating a virtuous circle with benefits for the economic, social and environmental dimensions of sustainable development. At the same time, there are a number of countries in which population growth is already very low, or is even starting to decrease, a situation that poses an entirely different set of challenges for achieving sustainable and inclusive growth.
- iii ) The future size of the world population depends greatly on the course of future fertility and in particular the speed of decline in those countries where fertility is still high. Probabilistic projections produced by the Population Division indicate that there is a 95 per cent probability that the population of Africa will increase over the next 15 years by between 98 million and 168 million and a 95 per cent probability that the population under age 15 will be between 567 million and 646 million in 2030. Achieving universal access to sexual and reproductive health care for women and adolescents remains one of the most critical components of the unfinished agenda of the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development. Not only is it essential for fulfilling the human rights of women, it also has implications for the development of countries and the success of poverty alleviation strategies. Worldwide, at least 1 in 10 women who are married or in a union still have an unmet need for family planning information”.

Integrating population issues into sustainable development and services is also recognised as equally important. As per the report

- i ) “Closing the gap between childbearing desires and contraceptive use would help to avoid unwanted pregnancies, including adolescent pregnancies, and reduce maternal and child mortality. Rights-based approaches, such as ensuring universal access to sexual and reproductive health care and reproductive rights, and the elimination of child, early and forced marriage, allow women to have control over the number and spacing of their children and thereby contribute to slowing population growth at the global level.
- ii ) Per capita material consumption in the richest countries of the world is now far above a level that would be sustainable for everyone in a growing world. While slowing population growth would benefit sustainable development, there also needs to be a significant improvement in global resource efficiency and consumption patterns. Governments need to develop infrastructure for more efficient transportation, energy, water and waste management, and good practices in managing such resources must be exchanged between countries in order to improve energy and resource efficiency. Food waste and the inefficient use of freshwater will also need to be addressed in order to eradicate poverty, combat hunger and end food insecurity.

- iii ) Many countries need to anticipate and plan for significant urban growth over the next 15 years. Higher population density often affords local governments the opportunity to lower the per capita cost of providing infrastructure and basic services to urban residents and may also be beneficial for minimizing the effect of the population on local ecosystems. Nevertheless, as cities grow, managing them becomes increasingly complex. The speed and sheer scale of the urban transformation over the next 15 years will present formidable challenges, yet if these challenges can be overcome, the returns for the achievement of sustainable development would be significant.
- iv ) The new development agenda will also have to take into account the fact that the world population is ageing rapidly. By 2030, 1 in 6 people will be over 60 years of age, and in Europe, North America and parts of East Asia that fraction will be greater than 1 in 4. Rapid ageing is already putting pressure on pension and social systems. In many middle-income countries, population ageing is occurring at the same time as many other economic and social transformations, raising concerns about the possible weakening of traditional family value systems. In such cases, greater attention will need to be given to providing higher levels of coverage in terms of social protection, including through pensions and health care, as well as to policies that are sensitive towards and supportive of the family.
- v ) Policymakers should prepare for higher levels of international migration over the next 15 years and implement policies and programmes aimed at facilitating orderly, safe and regular migration, while enhancing the benefits of migration and addressing migration challenges. Respecting and promoting the rights of migrants and reducing the costs of migration are essential to ensure the well-being of migrants and that migration meets its full development potential. Future international migration may also be affected by environmental change, as people with the least resources are likely to be the most vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change”.

“The further implementation of the Programme of Action, as well as achievement of the sustainable development goals, will depend on integrating population issues into sustainable development, forging new and stronger partnerships with the active engagement of Governments, civil society, the private sector and the United Nations system. Strengthening evidence- and rights-based development strategies, programmes and policies depends on the availability of reliable, robust, accessible and timely population data. Many countries currently lack the capacity to collect and disseminate data and statistics that are timely and disaggregated by age, sex and other characteristics relevant to national contexts. Such data are essential to support the monitoring of the implementation of the sustainable development goals and to assure accountability so that no one is left behind.

The Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development emphasizes the close-knit interrelationships between ongoing population dynamics, sustained economic growth and sustainable development and provides a comprehensive set of objectives and actions to promote social justice, eradicate poverty and protect the environment in order to meet the needs of both current and future generations”.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

The natural growth of population continuously presents problems for the preservation of the environment, and adequate policies and measures to address these problems have to be adopted to protect the interests of the people should be adopted. As stated in the Brundtland Report, “Our Common Future”, “We recognize that poverty, environmental degradation, and population growth are inextricably related and that none of these fundamental problems can be successfully addressed in isolation. We will succeed or fail together.” That in order to achieve a better quality of life for all and sustainable

development, the world will have to either reduce or completely eliminate unsustainable patterns of production and consumption while at the same time supporting and promoting appropriate demographic policies is imperative.

### **Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)**

#### **State True or False**

- i ) Lower population growth and more responsible patterns of consumption and production would ease pressure on ecosystems.
- ii ) Slower population growth would enable families and Governments to invest more in the health and education.
- iii ) Rapid and increasing urbanization in future is now not a challenge.
- iv ) Environmental changes are not likely to impact migration in future.
- v ) Ongoing population dynamics, sustained economic growth and sustainable development require a close-knit relationship.

## **7.7 Summary**

In this lesson we learnt about population problems and their inter-relationship with sustainable development. Beginning with the problem of increasing human numbers in the world and the increasing stress on the natural resources, the existing life style dominated by production and consumption patterns that are exploitative and their impact on the environment were discussed. This was followed by the significance of sustainable practices for development and inclusion for a better life for all humanity. In the next lesson, population problems being faced by some of the developed countries, Japan, United States of America and Sweden shall be discussed.

## **7.8 Further Readings**

4. Thomas, W. S. and Lewis, D.T. (1976): Population Problems, Tata McGraw Hill, New Delhi
5. Bose Ashish & Premi M. K. (1992): Population Transition in South Asia, New Delhi, B. R. Publishers
6. Chandna, R. C. (2017): A Geography of Population (10th Edition), New Delhi, Kalyani Publishers

## **7.9 Model Questions**

- Q1. What is the impact of population on the environment?
- Q2. Sustainable development is the need of the hour. Discuss in the context of integrating population issues with sustainable development.

### **Answers to Self Assessment Questions**

#### **Self Assessment Questions- 1**

- i) Dynamic and complex;      ii) Depletion, degradation;      iii) Capital, utilization;
- iv) Our Common Future;      v) Holistic, sustainable.

#### **Self Assessment Questions- 2**

- i) True;      ii) True;      iii) False;      iv) False;      v) True.

## POPULATION PROBLEMS OF DEVELOPED COUNTRIES JAPAN, USA AND SWEDEN

### Structure

- 8.0 Objective
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Japan
- 8.3 Population Problems
- 8.4 United States of America
- 8.5 Population Problems
- 8.6 Sweden
- 8.7 Population Problems
- 8.8 Summary
- 8.9 Further Readings
- 8.10 Model Questions

### 8.0 Objective

After reading this lesson you should be able to

- Discuss about the demographic history of Japan, USA and Sweden
- Specify the specific population problems being faced by each of the countries
- Explain the causes of the problems
- State the impact of the problems on the demographic profile of these countries.

### 8.1 Introduction

After having discussed the population problems of the developed countries in general, in this lesson we shall attempt to examine and analyse the population problems specifically being faced by developed countries such as Japan, United States of America and Sweden.

### 8.2 Japan

In order to understand the population problems of Japan, it is essential to have an idea of the country's demographic history. The island country of Japan suffered from self-imposed isolation until 1868. It was only after the Tokugawa Regime (1537-1867) that Japan opened up to the rest of the world. Its population was estimated to be around 30 million in 1850. By 1925 the country's population had increased to about 60 million. The traditional society of Japan was known for its deliberate control over population growth in the form of group infanticide. However, in the 1920s the Japanese government decided to encourage large families, with a view to colonizing the rest of the world, but the

Second World War came too early and so came the country's defeat. The policy of encouraging large families could no longer be propagated. Instead, the unprecedented post war baby boom, in the country, necessitated legalization of abortion. However, by 1950 the country's population had reached 83 million. Since then the growth of population has been rather slow. In recent years, in fact, it has primarily decreased, because of falling birth rates and almost no net immigration. Further, the high sanitary and health standards have led Japan to have one of the highest life expectancy in the world at 84.46 years. The proportion of persons aged 65 and above has been increasing gradually. In 1920, it was only 5.3 with an index of aging being 14.4%. In 1980, the proportion of persons aged 65 and above increased to 9.1 and the index of aging increased to 38.7%. At present the proportion of persons aged 65 years and above is touching nearly 40 % of the total population.

The country has since long completed its demographic transition. At present, the country has a population of 127.3 million (2013), equivalent to 1.72% of the total world population and ranking 11<sup>th</sup> in the list of countries by population.

### **8.3 Population Problems**

In view of the above the major population problems faced by Japan include low birth rates and low fertility rates, increasing death rates, ageing of population, and the distribution of population.

The transformation of age-structure is governed mainly by changes in fertility and mortality. Japan has experienced sharp decline in its total fertility rate in the post-war period due to legalization of abortion. The total fertility rate of Japan declined by 50% between 1947 and 1955 when abortion was legalized. It was perhaps the fastest pace of fertility reduction in the history of human population anywhere in the world. After 1955, the country's total fertility rate remained almost stable until the oil crisis of 1973. The post 1973 period witnessed a further decline in Japan's total fertility rate. On an average, women must have 2.1 children in their lifetime for a society to replenish itself. At present the fertility rate in Japan is only 1.14. Consequently, the birth rates are so low that there aren't enough young people entering the work force. The population started declining in 2005 as the 1067 million births were exceeded by the 1077 million deaths. If this trend continues and with no major change in immigration policies the 2005 population of 127 million will decline to 100 million in 2050 and 64 million in 2100.

Thus a major problem is the decline in Japanese fertility. Japanese traditional disapproval of children born to unmarried mothers and the trend toward later marriage and mothers not having their first child until they are in their late 30s, are some of the contributory factors towards declining fertility. Japan's birth rate has been dropping since the 1970's, and in 2014 slumped to an all time low of 8.07 births per 1000 population. As per the health ministry figures there had been 9000 fewer births in 2014 compared to 2013. This fall was the fourth in consecutive years. It will be pertinent to mention that Japan has one of the lowest infant mortality rates in the world i.e. 2.13 deaths per 1000 live births. On the other hand the death rate has been increasing over the last decade from 8.34 in 2001 to 9.16 in 2006 and 9.38 in 2014, primarily the result of declining fertility resulting in an ageing population. The birth rate is usually the dominant factor in determining the rate of population growth, while the death rate is only a rough indicator of the mortality situation but clearly indicates the current mortality impact on population growth. If such a situation continues Japan's population by 2050 will be 30 million lower. Bringing about revolutionary changes in the Japanese traditional society and attitude will take many years and may not necessarily lead to the creation of birth-rates that will achieve a stable population.

This decline in the growth of Japan's population is perhaps one of the most crucial population problems being faced by Japan today as it has varied social and economic implications. A lowering of the number of people aged between 15-64 years i.e. the economically productive work force is predicted to lower Japan's potential economic growth and the gross domestic product as well. This is to

be seen in view of the fact that another decline in the number of children is inevitable as the proportion of population in the reproductive age group continues to decline. Also four decades of falling births have eaten away at the number of workers, resulting in labour shortages, which again impact the economy.

At the same time even though the death rate is rising, Japan has one of the highest life expectancy in the world with an average of 84.46 years (2014), which 'makes fewer people paying, more claiming social security, more spending on healthcare and pensions'. Moreover, in order to address labor shortages before the children reach working age the "Japanese society as a whole will have to decide that they have to embrace the idea of immigration." According to the Japanese government "If birth-rates and immigration levels stay low, by 2060 only 51 percent of Japanese will be of working age, while 40 percent will be 65 years or older.

In 1990 one-eighth of the people in Japan were aged 65 years or more. Although lower than most developed European countries, this proportion was the highest in Asia. In fact, in Japan, the pace of aging is faster than in any other country in the world. At this rate it is envisaged that by 2025 one in four of Japanese population will be aged above 65 years. It is also now the nation with the oldest average age on the planet and 21.2% of its population elderly.

Thus, we see that the aging of population was brought about by a combination of low fertility and high life expectancy. A number of factors contributed to the trend towards small families: late marriage, increased participation of women in the labour force, small living spaces and high cost of child education.

Further, the ageing of population has its own problems. It also leads to aging of labour force wherein the proportion of young workers gradually declines and that of old workers gradually increased which requires modernization of various sectors of economy.

In the coming decades, one of Japan's major difficulties will be to deal with the costs of supporting an ageing population. Providing pensions, outlays for medical care will need more funding. A related problem would be providing adequate housing for the elderly. The traditional society of Japan was characterized by the extended family (joint family system). Modern society is however, becoming more and more nucleated. The aged people whose number is fast increasing in Japan are facing the problem of loneliness. Therefore, old age welfare schemes, suitable recreational infrastructure, and medical facilities are becoming a part of Japanese society and a necessity.

As is true of all patriarchal societies, in Japan too, the traditional attitudes of a male-dominated society granted relatively low status to women. However, there have been efforts on the part of the government, to make provisions in the constitution of the country that grant equal status to men and women. Although more and more women are getting involved in the work force, it has had a negative impact on the birth rate. Women need to know that if they take time off to have babies they will not lose out in the competition for promotion as they do at present in most Japanese companies. Also attitudinal change is necessary for men to be more participative in domestic and household chores.

Population distribution and density in case of Japan present major areas of concern. Population in Japan is highly unevenly distributed and primarily concentrated in the limited plain areas. A vast majority of the population lives in the areas to the south of 37°N latitude, while areas north of 37°N latitude, mainly mountainous, are almost devoid of population. Not only that, but even in the areas lying to the south of 37°N latitude, the population is concentrated in the few level plain areas. The Kanto and Kinki plains of Honshu thus, have the largest concentration of Japanese population. The population distribution in Japan is governed by the factors of climate, availability of agriculture land and urban-industrial development. A vast majority of Japanese population has an urban residence. Although,

average density of population in Japan is about 340 persons per sq. km. the high degree of urbanization, 91%, exerts acute population pressure on the limited level

Thus Japan faces major demographic challenges. The population has begun to decline and the proportion of people of working age continues to decrease. The birth-rate is well below replacement level. Japanese people are aging fast while life expectancy continues to increase. The decline in the number of young Japanese people has all round impact, for high schools and universities as well as for industry and commerce. It also means that it will become more and more difficult to fund pensions for old people and to find carers for them. Another problem to tackle is to alter Japan's deep-seated prejudice against immigration but which will alter significantly Japan's homogeneous population with its shared values and harmonious consensus.

### Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)

#### Answer the Following Briefly

i ) Why was abortion legalized in Japan post the world war?

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ii ) Has Japan completed demographic transition?

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iii ) Why is the decline in Japan's fertility a major problem?

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iv ) What is the average life expectancy in Japan?

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v ) Why is population distribution in Japan a matter of concern?

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## 8.4 United States of America

At the beginning of 2016, USA had a population of 322 million i.e. 4.4% of the total world population, making it the third most populous country after China and India. It has an average density of 33 persons per sq. km (85 persons per sq. mile). The country has completed its demographic transition and is characterized by low average annual growth rate of about 0.7% per annum, which is infact, one of the highest natural growth rates in any industrialized, developed country in the world. The U.S. population is growing by over 2,500,000 people per year, about half from new births and half from immigration. The fertility rate currently stands at 1.9, while the average life expectancy was 79 years (2013). The female life expectancy in the country is 81.30 years while for males, the life expectancy is

76.30 years. The infant mortality rate in the U.S.A. is one of the lowest in the world at 5.87 per 1000 live births. Nearly 91% of the population lives in urban areas. Literacy in the country is universal. Since the country is endowed with rich resources it is greatly attractive to immigrants. Similar to other developed nations it faces several problems related to population issues.

## 8.5 Population Problems

On the demographic front some of the population problems being faced by USA include racial discrimination, a high incidence of illegitimacy of children, high divorce rate and associated problems of broken families, illegal immigration and an increase in population numbers. The USA has sizable component of Black population concentrated mostly in the southern parts. The Blacks constitute the socially and economically backward segment of American society. Therefore, the crime rate in areas having sizeable concentration of Black population is relatively high. The south is generally considered to be more conservative as far as inter-race relationships are concerned than the north. No wonder, there has been a tendency amongst the Blacks to move to the north which is less discriminatory. Recently, the racial discrimination amongst the Americans has been on the decline. How far the fanning out of the Blacks from the south to the north has been responsible for may be difficult to commit.

In USA, like any other developed country, society is characterized by high and increasing incidence of illegitimacy of children. It is estimated that the number of unmarried couples living together in the USA doubled during just one decade from 1970 to 1980. The increasing number of such couples multiplies the number of illegitimate children rapidly. Not only this, matrimony itself is also not considered very sacrosanct. Divorces are too frequent and too many consequently, the number of broken families increases rapidly.

In 2009, 41% of children born in the United States were born to unmarried mothers, a significant increase from the 5% of half a century earlier. In April 2009, the [National Center for Health Statistics](#) announced that 'nearly 40 percent of American infants born in 2007 were born to unwed mothers, that of 4.3 million children, 1.7 million were born to unmarried parents, a 25 percent increase from 2002. Most births to teenagers in the USA (86% in 2007) are non-marital; in 2007, 60% of births to women of age 20–24 years, and nearly one-third of births to women of age 25–29 years were non-marital. In 2007, teenagers accounted for just 23% of non-marital births, down steeply from 50% in 1970. All these contribute to a large variety of psychological and social problems. Many of the social tensions of the U.S. society may have their origin in this social background of the society.

The USA is one of the highly urbanized countries in the world. Urban areas — “defined as densely developed residential, commercial and other nonresidential areas -- now account for 80.7 percent of the U.S. population, up from 79.0 percent in 2000”. The Census Bureau identifies two types of urban areas, “urbanized areas” of 50,000 or more people and “urban clusters” of at least 2,500 and less than 50,000 people. In the USA there are 486 urbanized areas and 3,087 urban clusters nationwide. The population within the nation's 486 urbanized areas grew by 14.3 percent from 2000 to 2010. For any given urbanized area, population increase may be attributed to a combination of internal growth, outward expansion to include new growth, and outward expansion encompassing existing communities that previously were outside the urbanized area.

Of the nation's four census regions, the West continued to be the most urban, with 89.8 percent of its population residing within urban areas, followed by the Northeast, at 85.0 percent. The Midwest and South continue to have lower percentages of urban population than the nation as a whole, with rates of 75.9 and 75.8, respectively.

As per the U.S. Census Bureau overall the nation's urban population increased by 12.1 percent from 2000 to 2010, outpacing the nation's overall growth rate of 9.7 percent for the same period. The



nation's most densely populated urbanized area is Los Angeles-Long Beach-Anaheim, California, with nearly 2700 people per square km (7,000 people per square mile). Thus almost 91% of its population is concentrated in urban, industrial towns. Many of the American cities have grown to megalopolis status. The problems associated with high degree of urbanization such as land insecurity, shanties, poor living conditions, urban congestion, employment problems, high crime rates and environment pollution, are, thus, common to the U.S.A. as well. In fact, environmental pollution has become a major area of concern for the environmentalists of U.S.A.

As is true of a society, which has completed its demographic transition, so too in USA ageing of population is becoming a major problem to contend with. About 14% of the country's population was above the age of 65 (2013), and the proportion is likely to go up to 20.3% by 2030. The ageing of population results from rapid declines in fertility. In case of USA the fertility rates declined from being at their highest in the 1950s at 3.8 to now at just below replacement level to 1.9 (2013). On the other hand the mortality rates have declined only marginally and for the past several years have remained almost stationary at 8 per thousand. As has been discussed earlier the ageing of population has its own demands on society in that it increases the dependency burden as it warrants more of social welfare schemes, and greater expenditure on social security and medical facilities and care for the aged.

Further, the richness of the country's resources, relatively low density of population and high per capita income, and a very high standard of living have made the country an attractive destination for immigration. Immigration into the United States fluctuated throughout the 20th century because of varying economic conditions. But the changes made by the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 drastically increased the number of immigrants allowed into the United States. This in turn has had a negative impact on the quality of life of many Americans today due to the mass increase in population. Moreover, the United States has mass illegal immigration and the incidence of illegal immigration continues to increase despite strict restrictions. Mexico, the neighboring country to its south is perhaps the largest contributor to illegal immigrants into the country. U.S.A. has had a consistent immigration policy, which restricts the entry into the country to a large extent. However, despite its strict immigration policy a large number of illegal immigrants do succeed in getting access to U.S.A. In a recent survey 92% of Americans looked upon immigration as a problem, with 77 percent of them rating the matter as either "very serious" or "somewhat serious" in scope. There are many problems associated with [illegal immigration](#) and [illegal immigrants](#), such as lost jobs, depreciated wages, stolen taxpayer resources, and increased numbers of crimes and domestic terrorism, which have serious implications. More than 10 million illegal immigrants currently reside in the U.S. They primarily come for better jobs and in the process add value to the U.S. economy. However, 'they also take away value by weakening the legal and national security environment' and being unaccounted for are a profound potential security threat, which is a daunting problem today and needs to be addressed.

In addition to the above issues related to population problems, there is an emerging concern among a section of society about increasing numbers and relatively rapid growth of population in the USA. Looking back, when the US reached a population of 100 million in 1915 it was seen as a sign of the nation's economic clout. The 200 million mark in 1967 was also celebrated, but the population crossing the 300 million mark recently received a more muted welcome. Today, the USA is above among advanced nations in its population growth, which increased by 13% during the 1990s (Census Bureau). This is five times the average of other industrialized countries. Although some are looking upon the already huge population and its continuing rapid growth as the most serious problems leading to several others, many Americans are unaware of the population problem in their country. However this population growth driven as much by immigration as by births according to some groups is leading to over-crowding and also depletion of quality of life. It is being felt that if present trends are allowed to continue, the USA will join China and India as a country with a massively large population before too

long. The major cause of concern is the impact of increasing numbers. It will be pertinent to mention that the average American consumes a much larger amount of total resources than the average person from a developing country. Therefore, fewer Americans would mean more ample resources, less pollution, healthier ecosystems and a more sustainable future. The U.S. population is using renewable resources twice as fast as they can be regenerated. At the current population growth rate, the U.S. population will double in the next 100 years. That will mean more greenhouse gas emissions and other pollution of land, water, and air; less open land; more overcrowding; and more species loss and habitat destruction. Thus sustainability is a crucial problem.

## **8.6 Sweden**

Sweden has the distinction of having a long recorded history. With population statistics available from 1749 Sweden clearly reveals the change from stage one to stage four of the demographic transition. The early period was dominated by high birth rates exceeding 40 per thousand but death rates were equally high. The population in 1750 was just 1.7 million and the average life expectancy was only 31.2 years for men and 37.6 years for women. Primarily an agricultural society characterized by a rigid, hierarchical class system was dominated by low income. Famines were periodic and infant mortality was high.

The period from 1750-1850 marked the second stage in the demographic transition. The population doubled to 3.5 million as life expectancy increased to over 39 years for males and 43 years for females. After 1850, following advances in medicine and improved sanitation, death rates declined rapidly. A population boom followed with increased life expectancy leading to fears of overpopulation and emigration. But by 1930 attitudes had changed and birth rates began to decline, although average life expectancy improved. The gap between the rich and poor widened in all respects. Infant mortality rates ranged from 49 per thousand in low income group families to 14 per 1000 in high income families. By 1940 Sweden's population was 6.4 million.

Between 1940 and 1985 Sweden's population increased from 6.4 million to 8.3 million. The early 20th century trends led to decreasing growth rates and a significant part of the population increase was the result of immigration. Fertility rates declined rapidly from the average woman bearing only 2.22 children in 1955 to 1.55 by 1985. As such Sweden's population grew at a rate of 0.01% between 1980 and 1985 and ever since has showed consistent decline.

The total population in Sweden was recorded at 9.8 million people in 2014 from 7.5 million in 1960, changing 31 percent during the last 50 years. Population in Sweden averaged 8.49 million from 1960 until 2014, reaching an all time high of 9.75 Million in 2014 and a record low of 7.47 Million in 1960. The average annual growth rate is below replacement level and among the lowest in Europe.

Today, Sweden with its population almost touching ten million has a low average population density of 21 inhabitants per square kilometre (54/sq mi), with the highest concentration in the southern half of the country. Broadly speaking Sweden has a low population density except in its metropolitan areas. Density there is extremely high as approximately 85% of the population lives in urban areas, which take up only 1.3% of the total land area. In fact, the rate of urbanisation i.e. the annual rate of change between 2010-15 period has been 0.6%. Generally the citizens enjoy a high standard of living and the country is perceived as modern and liberal.

Sweden is characterized by very efficient health services, a good educational system and an efficient economy. Both the birth and death rates are low, the birth rate being 11.78 births per 1,000 population and the death rate being 9.37 deaths per 1,000 population. Therefore, the annual population growth rate in Sweden is 0.93%. Sweden also has an infant mortality rate of 2.75 per thousand live births, which is currently among the lowest in the world. On the other hand, fertility levels are also the

lowest in the world (1.94 children born per woman). At the same time the average life expectancy at birth is high at 81.18 years, being 78.86 for males and 83.36 years for females. In 2010 the total fertility rate was recorded as 1.94 children born/woman. The net migration rate stands at 6.75 migrants per 1000 population.

Thus, as per the report Future Challenges for Sweden, 'From once having been a relatively poor and homogenous rural country with low life expectancy, Sweden has become a rich and heterogeneous country with one of the highest rates of life expectancy in the world. This is a triumph for Sweden. At the same time, it represents a major challenge for the future. This has to do with the way demographic development impacts both on socioeconomic development and on the financing of the welfare state and skills supply in the private and public spheres'.

## **8.7 Population Problems**

In this context, the largest demographic issues facing Sweden today is the 'dearth of births', therefore too few children and very many old people as Sweden has a very high life expectancy. The fertility rate in Sweden is low because women work in professions and this means that they usually spend their potential childbearing years getting a University education and starting their career. This means that by the time they get around to having children, they have less time to do it. As a result the mean age for a first time mother has gone up from 24 in 1975 to 28 in 1998. Women in professions also affect the fertility rate as having children affects the lifestyle, and so many women choose to have small families. Subsequently the growth rate of population is low, almost below replacement level. Despite government support and encouragement the trend has not reversed. A result of this is that there is not much of a young dependency load.

With women as economic equals with men it has become socially acceptable for young people to live in stable relationships without having children. Liberalization of abortion too has contributed to declining birth rates. Further, divorce is common.

Recently there has been a tendency among Swedish society to consider even matrimony as an encroachment upon personal freedom. The number of unmarried couples living together has thus been increasing in Sweden in recent years. May be that in times to come the children of such couples face some social/psychological problems. However, as yet they enjoy social approval of society.

Sweden has the distinction of having the largest proportion of its population above the age of 65, comparison to other developed countries. In 1980, about 17% of its population was in this category, which has increased to 18.8% currently and is likely to go up to 20.5% in 2020 and to 25.3% by 2060. The problem of ageing has its own demands on society. Old age welfare schemes become essential for such societies particularly when the incidence of nuclear family is very high since the dependency ratio in such societies becomes very high. Despite that, there is a high dependency load because there is a low death rate, and high life expectancy at birth. There are many elderly people, who rely on government pensions. Because there are so few children, there will be a smaller workforce and tax base in a few years, in fact, In Sweden, in about 20 or 30 years there will be a lack of working age people. Therefore taxes will increase dramatically so that the small working age community can support the enormous dependency load.

Essentially, the largest demographic problem in Sweden is the combination of a low birth rate and low death rate. This creates a massive aged population. A spurt in per capita productivity too becomes imperative. In a country like Sweden, that has completed its demographic transition since long and where the fertility and mortality rates equal each other at a low level, the major problem on the demographic front is that of slow population growth. If this trend continues the country may face a

situation of negative growth. The revival of large families also becomes difficult in a highly socially and economically awakened society like that of Sweden.

### Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)

#### Fill in the Blanks

- i) In the United States of America nearly \_\_\_\_\_ of the population lives in urban areas.
- ii) The ageing of population increases the \_\_\_\_\_ burden and therefore warrants greater expenditure on \_\_\_\_\_ security and \_\_\_\_\_ facilities.
- iii) A high per capita income, and a very high standard of living have made the country an attractive destination for \_\_\_\_\_.
- iv) In Sweden the citizens enjoy a high \_\_\_\_\_ and the country is perceived as \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.
- v) The largest demographic problem in Sweden is the combination of a low \_\_\_\_\_ and low \_\_\_\_\_.

### 8.8 Summary

In this lesson, we learnt about the specific population problems of Japan, USA and Sweden. The prevailing demographic scenario in each of the countries was first discussed followed by the identifiable problems related to population issues. In the next lesson we shall be dealing with the population problems of specific developing countries i.e. China, Pakistan and Brazil.

### 8.9 Further Readings

1. Chandna, R.C. (1999), *Population Geography*, Ludhiana: Kalyani Publishers
2. Jackson R. and Hudman L. (1990). *Cultural Geography*, St. Paul : West Publishing Co
3. Gordon, Patrick (2003). *Japanese Population Problems and Internationalization in Japan Population Issues*.
4. Prime Minister's Office, Sweden (2013) *Future Challenges for Sweden: Final Report Of The Commission On The Future Of Sweden*, Stockholm

### 8.10 Model Questions

- Q1. Discuss the major population problems being faced by Japan.
- Q2. What are the population problems faced by the United States? Discuss the problem of immigration in detail.

### Answers to Self Assessment Questions

#### Self Assessment Questions- 1

- i) The unprecedented post war baby boom in the country, necessitated legalization of abortion;
- ii) Japan has long completed its demographic transition and is characterized by declining fertility rates as well as very low mortality rates, with a tendency towards consistent decline in population.

- iii) Declining fertility is perhaps one of the most crucial population problems being faced by Japan today as it has varied social and economic implications. The fertility rate in Japan is only 1.14 and hence the birth rates are so low that there aren't enough young people entering the economically productive work force, which may lower Japan's potential economic growth.
- iv) Japan has one of the highest life expectancy in the world with an average of 84 .46years.
- v) In Japan population distribution and density are areas of concern as population very unevenly distributed. It is primarily concentrated in the limited plain areas to the south of 37° N latitude, while areas north of it being mountainous, are almost devoid of population. The Kanto and Kinki plains of Honshu have the largest concentration of Japanese population.

### Self Assessment Questions 2

- i) 91%;      ii) Dependency, social, medical;      iii) Immigration;      iv) Standard of living, modern, liberal; v) Birth rate, death rate.

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## **POPULATION PROBLEMS OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES CHINA, PAKISTAN AND BRAZIL**

### **Structure**

- 9.0 Objective
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 China
- 9.3 Population Problems
- 9.4 Pakistan
- 9.5 Population Problems
- 9.6 Brazil
- 9.7 Population Problems
- 9.8 Summary
- 9.9 Further Readings
- 9.10 Model Questions

### **9.0 Objective**

After reading this lesson you should be able to

- discuss about the demographic history of China, Pakistan and Brazil
- specify the specific population problems being faced by each of the countries
- explain the causes of the problems
- state the impact of the problems on the demographic profile of these countries.

### **9.1 INTRODUCTION**

After having discussed the population problems of the developing countries in general, in this lesson we shall attempt to examine and analyse the population problems specifically being faced by developing countries such as China, Pakistan and Brazil. Beginning with China, we shall identify the problems related to population issues in Pakistan and Brazil as well.

### **9.2 China**

The population of China as per 2013 was 1.357 billion. Historically speaking, the population of China fluctuated between 37 and 60 million for a thousand years and it was only between 1749 and 1851 that the population doubled in a century. Thereafter, especially post 1950, the population of China doubled from 600 to 1300 million within half a century. The Chinese population reached the billion mark in 1982 and ever since China has been the world's most populous country. However, in recent decades China's demographic landscape has undergone unprecedented population changes. The annual

growth rate of population, which was estimated to be 1.32 per cent in 1980-85 has consistently undergone a decline and reduced to 0.67 in 2000- 2005 and further to 0.57 in 2010. Birth rates declined from 20.03 in 1980-85, to 13.6 in 2000-2005 and to 12.37 live births per 1000 population in 2014, just as the total fertility rate per woman has declined from 2.55 in 1980-85 to 1.75 in 2000-2005 and is now 1.55 children per woman as in 2014. Similarly the mortality levels of China or the crude death rates which were quite high today stands at 7.16 deaths per 1000 population almost at par with the developed countries. The average life expectancy at birth now is 75.35 years (2014), 74.09 years for males and 76.68 years for females, the life expectancy for females being higher than for males. Although the infant and child mortality accounts for a great proportion of all deaths, especially in the rural areas, in 2015 the infant mortality rate had declined to 9 per thousand live births. The maternal mortality rate is 28, which is one of the lowest among the developing countries. On the literacy front the percentage of illiterate population has been steadily declining. As of 2010, China's literacy rate was just over 95%. This is an impressive improvement for a country, which, as recently as 1990, had a literacy rate of just 78%. However, even though just 5% of Chinese adults are illiterate, that still means an estimated 54 million people aged 15 and older are unable to read and write a simple sentence.

In general, China had its mortality levels already low, but the stress had been to bring down the fertility levels. There are also rural urban differentials, sex and age differentials in both the case of fertility and mortality levels. The Chinese government's one child policy adopted in 1979 apart from bringing down the fertility levels is creating its own problems. Chinese families have only one child, a product in part of the country's three-decade-old policy limiting couples to one child each. There being a strong preference for sons in China, especially in the rural areas, makes the one child policy a contributory cause of higher female infanticide and increase of maternal deaths. As a result of the country's low fertility rates since the early 1990s, China has already begun experiencing what will become a sustained decline in new entrants into its labor force and in the number of young migrants. The era of uninterrupted supplies of young, cheap Chinese labor is over.

Secondly, as life expectancy increases from 65.5 years in 1980- 85 to 75.20 years on an average in 2015 the age structure of the population is also changing. The proportion of population in the 0-15 age group stands at 17.5% while those in the 65 plus years has increased to 10.1%. In other words, the size of the country's population aged 60 and above, is increasing dramatically, growing by 100 million in just 15 years (from 200 million in 2015 to over 300 million by 2030). The number of families with only one child, which is also on a continued rise, only underscores the challenge of supporting the growing numbers of elderly Chinese. The ageing of China's population represents a crisis hard to reverse, primarily as subsequently an ageing work force will affect the fast pace of economic growth which relied on a cheap and willing young labor force. An ageing labor force will compel changes in this economic model as allocation of resources will need to be diverted more towards health care and pensions. A major challenge to be addressed will be to meet the rising demands for benefits and services, thereby impacting investment and production.

Another major problem will be the result of China's decades-long imbalanced sex ratio at birth and the preference for sons which will lead to the inability of millions of Chinese men to be able to find wives, leading to serious social and psychological problems.

### **9.3 Population Problems**

Although China continues to be the world's most populous nation and its massive population has been a matter of grave concern, today the one child policy is coming to be looked upon as an important cause of the country's demographic problems. As a fall out of this China entered a new demographic era. Its mortality rate has dropped to a level not very different from that of the developed countries. Its fertility has dropped to a level lower than that of many developed countries, including the

United States, Britain, and France—indeed, it is among the lowest in the world. These imperatives as also a large flow of internal migrants forces have created a population that is rapidly ageing and rapidly urbanizing. In addition the populations health has continued to improve leading to longer life expectancy, which means more old people in the population and an increasing demand for services and expenditures related to health care.

However, a major population problem today is declining fertility, which has touched new low of 1.5 i.e. below the replacement level and rivals the lowest fertility rates in the world. The impact is already beginning to be felt in all spheres, as it is pertinent to mention that these changes, the decline in fertility and the decline in mortality, and increasing life expectancy have been achieved in an extremely short span of time. as school and university enrolments decline. 'China has achieved in 50 years—increasing life expectancy from the 40s to over 70—what it took many European countries a century to accomplish. In 2000, when the ratio of income levels in the United States and China was still about 10 to 1, female life expectancy in China was only about five years below that of the United States (75 versus 80). China, in other words, completed its mortality-decline transition while per capita income was still at a very low level. Major fertility reduction in China took even less time. In just one decade, from 1970 to 1980, the total fertility rate (TFR) was more than halved, from 5.8 to 2.3, a record unmatched elsewhere. In contrast to Western European countries, where it took 75 years or longer to reduce TFR from around 5 to the replacement level, in China a similar decline took less than two decades. As a result, in 2008, China's rate of population growth was only 5 per thousand, down from over 14 per thousand in 1990 and 25 per thousand in 1970. Such a compressed process of demographic transition means that, compared with other countries in the world, China will have far less time to prepare its social and economic infrastructure to deal with the effects of a rapidly ageing population'.

A major population problem that China has to contend with is that as it continues to transform itself from an agrarian to an industrial and post-industrial society and from a planned to a market-based economy, its population too is rapidly changing. It is evident that China's vast population remains a core issue. The United Nations Population Division estimates that China's population will increase to 1.49 billion in 2025 and only then will an actual decline set in. Thus, despite low levels of fertility China's future population growth will be the result of a population momentum, a product of past growth. Even though the average number of children per woman has been below the replacement level of 1.6 since the 1980s, population growth will be caused by population momentum of China's young age structure, a legacy of the 1950s and 1960s when China's fertility was quite high (6.22 and 5.59) and mortality had already declined. Consequently, China now has a large number of adults of reproduction age and their number will continue to increase till 2015. Therefore, providing for in terms of employment, housing and food security emerges as a significant problem affecting several aspects of the population. Moreover it will also need to provide health care and pensions for a rapidly growing elderly population.

A significant population problem facing China is the high dependency ratio of 36 in 2014 of which the child dependency ratio has declined from 42.9 in 1990 to 23.4 in 2014, as fertility levels have declined, while as a result of increased longevity the old dependency ratio has increased from 8.3 in 1990 to 12.5 in 2014. According to the UN World Population Prospects by 2025 the old dependency ratio will reach 20. Caring for the elderly poses several problems especially in the wake of economic reforms and liberal attitudes. The burden of providing for infrastructure and health care then rests with the state.

Another salient population problem facing China is the uneven distribution of its population. Most of its large population is concentrated in the eastern part of the country especially the coastal zones, while much of China's land, such as the Gobi Desert and the Himalayan slopes are virtually uninhabited. Roughly 5 billion Chinese i.e. 90% of the population live in a little over 50% of the



country's land area leading to high densities. The problem of lack of infrastructure that still contributes to the population concentration needs to be resolved too.

### Self Assessment Questions-1 (SAQ-1)

#### Fill in the Blanks

- i ) The Chinese population reached the billion mark in \_\_\_\_\_ and ever since China has been the world's most \_\_\_\_\_ country.
- ii ) The Chinese government's one child policy adopted in \_\_\_\_\_ brought a sharp decline in the \_\_\_\_\_ levels.
- iii ) China is now experiencing a sustained decline in new entrants into its \_\_\_\_\_ and in the number of \_\_\_\_\_ migrants.
- iv ) The one child policy is coming to be looked upon as an important cause of the country's \_\_\_\_\_ problems.
- v ) Despite low levels of fertility China's future population growth will be the result of a \_\_\_\_\_, a product of past growth.

## 9.4 Pakistan

The population of Pakistan estimated to be 103.2 million during 1985 has increased to 182.1 million in 2013 making it the sixth most populous country in the world, a population which is likely to increase to 225 millions by 2025. The growth rate of population that was 3.63 (1980-85) has decreased to 2.1 in 2014, which is among the highest for Asia. The crude birth rate, which was 42.1 in 1985, declined to 28.9 in 2000, to 28.1 in 2005 and is now 26.1 (2015). The total fertility rate too, which was at 6.30 in 1985 reduced to 3.65 in 2005 and has currently declined to 3.2 as in 2015. It is projected to decline still further to 2.67 by 2020-2025. The mortality level as seen from the crude death rate, which was 10.8 in 1985 reduced to 7.7 in 2005, reached 6.8 in 2015 and is projected to decline still further to 6.1 by 2020-2025. The average life expectancy at birth, which was 56.2 years in 1985 and increased to 63.6 years in 2005 now stands at 65.5 years (2007) and is projected to reach 70.1 years by 2020-2025.

Another indicator of the mortality level, the infant mortality rate which was 96.7 per 1000 live births and which declined to 70.8 in 2005, stands at 66 per 1000 live births in 2015. It is hoped to decline to 49.2 by 2020-2025.

The population of Pakistan is young as indicated by the dependency ratio which stands at 65.8 in 2014 down from 70 in 2005 and of which the child dependency ratio is 58.3 and the old dependency ratio has gone up to 7.5. The other indicators of social, economic and health status indicate a high maternal mortality rate of 276 per 100,000 live births (2015), a very high population per physician ratio of 0.83 physicians per 1000 population (2010), and an ever decreasing per capita calorie supply. Pakistan has one of the lowest literacy rates in the world and according to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), it is 55 per cent and Pakistan stands at 160th among the total countries of the world.

The average literacy rate remains low at 58% and reveals great gender disparity with almost 65% of the female population being illiterate. Thus as can be inferred from the above, the demographic profile, although showing much improvement in varied aspects is far from being problem free. Much has to be achieved by Pakistan as regards the demographic, social and economic standards.

## 9.5 Population Problems

One of the major problems faced by Pakistan on the demographic front is over population. Pakistan's population growth rate is 2.05 per cent per year, which is the highest in Asia. No plausible development plan can sustain such a high rate of population growth. Since the 1960s different governments have made efforts to check the unrestrained population growth in the country, but their efforts could not produce significant results. This is because a huge segment of the population has developed a phobia for birth control, mainly due to socio-cultural factors.

The main reasons for this can be related to an attitudinal preference to have large families supported by the belief that God will provide for all born, the non-engagement of females in economic participation, which leaves them more time to bear and look after children without any impact on the family income, the universality of marriage, early marriage, the practice of polygamy, lack/absence of family planning and contraceptive use and the joint family system wherein providing for a child is the joint responsibility of the entire family. Moreover, low status of women, illiteracy, wherein people are not aware of the adverse economic consequences of too many children, need for more earning hands, low living standards, setting in the vicious cycle of poverty and the practice of polygamy are some of the causes responsible for high population growth rate.

The high population growth is the source of several problems such as low per capita income, inability of the government to provide adequate jobs leading to unemployment, the rate of which in Pakistan is 5.6%, underemployment, stress on government resources, inflation, poverty, low living standards, pollution, unplanned urbanization, environmental problems, reduced investment in infrastructure and social exclusion. Rising population cannot be provided the basic facilities of life in developing countries like Pakistan. So, rising population means low living standard. About 21 % population is living below poverty line. There are also marked rural urban differentials in provision of education and public health services. Balanced growth in population of a country is necessary for economic development and social well being of the masses.

Problems of deficiency of females in the population, low socio-economic status of women, low degree of urbanization, poor environmental conditions in the urban centers, limited diversification of economy, unemployment, under employment influx of refugees especially from Afghanistan are also major demographic issues that Pakistan has to contend with. According to the [Demographic Health Survey](#) of Pakistan, conducted in 2006-07 by the Ministry of Population Welfare, while 96 percent of women who have ever been married are aware of at least one family planning method, fewer than half have ever used one, and less than 30 percent of married women currently use a contraceptive. The survey also indicates that even though 25 percent of married couples would like to use contraception but are not doing so, mainly because they lack access to advice or contraceptives.

Moreover the "closed, conservative nature of society", the problems in tending to the health needs of women in rural areas, the attitude that God determined family size and ideas that use of contraception may lead to infidelity on the part of women are mind sets difficult to change and therefore, Pakistan has struggled to promote family size. Though the fertility rate has declined gradually over the last 15 years, according to the [Demographic Survey](#), the fertility rate of 4.1 children per woman means the population continues to grow, with an increased strain placed on dwindling resources. In addition, frequent pregnancies means poorer woman and child health, which has its own social, demographic and economic problems. While women are considered to be more receptive to the idea of smaller families, pressure from family and the absence of any effective role in decision making, attributed to the patriarchal system and the low status designated to women are some of the problems that have to be urgently dealt with if population growth in Pakistan is to be abated.

Thus, it is the rapid population growth that is the major problem that confronts Pakistan as it lies at the centre of the country's social, economic and political problems. In 1947, Pakistan was the 13<sup>th</sup> most populous country in the world with a population of 32.5 million. Today, Pakistan is the sixth most populous country in the world with a population of approximately 180 million. By 2020, Pakistan's population is expected to reach the 210 million mark — a situation that will burden its limited resources making it difficult for the country to meet the requirements of its people.

If this critical scenario in the population sector of the country is to change, Pakistan will have to focus on reducing its population growth rate to a sustainable level in the long-term, while seeking to benefit from its growing labour force by investing in human capital development in the medium-term. High growth rate of population creates unfavorable effects on the economic development in the developing countries like Pakistan. High rate of population growth in Pakistan means poverty, illiteracy, low living standard, an absence of prosperity and the vicious circle of poverty.

## **9.6 Brazil**

Brazil with its 8.5 million square kilometers of area occupies nearly half of South America. With a population of 204.5 million in 2015, Brazil is the fifth most populated country in the world. Population in Brazil averaged 140.93 million from 1960 until 2015, reaching an all time high of 204.45 Million in 2015 and a record low of 72.74 Million in 1960. Brazil, which by the end of 1991 had reached 150 million, was 174.1 million by 2000, 186.8 million by 2005 and 204.5 million by 2015. Between 1950 and 1960 the rate of population growth was 3.06 (one of the highest in the world) the result primarily of a sharply declining death rate and high birth rate, Growth rates have however, consistently declined from 2.35 in 1980 to 1.88 in 1985 to 1.41 in 2000-2005 and now is 0.7962%. The crude birth rates too have declined from 26.4 in 1985 to 16.4 in 2005 and 14.0 in 2015, just as a significant decline has been recorded in the crude death rates, which have declined from 7.5 in 1985 to the current 6 since 2011.

## **9.7 Population Problems**

The large disparities between the industrialized and less industrialized areas of the country are a matter of concern. The levels and trends of mortality are viewed as unacceptable. The mortality decline has been moderate. Life expectancy at birth increased from 65.3 years in 1985 to 72.2 years in 2005 and is currently 75.1 years (2015). The infant mortality rate declined from 100 in 1970 to 52.4 by 1990 and now stands at 16 as in 2015.

Levels and trends of fertility and mortality differentials among different income groups and areas, infant mortality levels, infectious diseases and malnutrition are problems of much concern to the government. Satisfactory both in relation to population growth and family well being, the fertility rate which was 3.8 in 1980-85 came down to 2.35 in 2000-2005 and has now declined to 1.82 as in 2015. The crude birth rate has declined from 26.4 in 1985 to 16.4 in 2005 and now is at 14.72 live births per 1000 population. Contraceptive prevalent rate is considerably high at 80%. However efforts to widen health coverage, to innovate on models of health care, to enhance cost effectiveness in service delivery and to improve the overall management of the health sector are areas of concern.

Population distribution in Brazil is very uneven and the average density of population is 25 persons per square kilometer. The majority of Brazilians live within 300 kilometers of the coast, while the interior in the Amazon Basin is almost empty. Therefore, the densely populated areas are on the coast and the sparsely populated areas are in the interior. This historical pattern is little changed by recent movements into the interior. Overall too, despite being an important agricultural and industrial power, with the strongest economy in Latin America, poverty is still widespread in some parts of the country, and issues such as income inequality and social exclusion remain unsolved. The country's

poorest and least developed region is the semi-arid North-East. This region has historically had the single largest concentration of rural poverty in Latin America, with more than half of the total population and three quarters of the rural population being poor. Low incomes, adverse climatic conditions and limited access to public services have led to the migration of large numbers of people to urban areas; mainly the big cities in south-east Brazil.

Throughout Brazil's history, population growth has been rapid and Brazil is a country of young people. Today, 62% of Brazilians are aged 29 or under. According to the latest census, undertaken in 2010, the population of Brazil was 190.7 million, although this number has grown significantly in the last three years to 204.5 million. Population growth in Brazil is slowing as the country urbanises and increases its wealth (it is now the sixth largest economy in the world). Brazil's growth rate between 2005 and 2010, as reported by the United Nations, was 1.26%. This makes Brazil the 107th fastest growing country in the world, which means it is now growing only slightly faster than the world average. It is projected that its population will continue rising longer than previous estimations as the country's middle class continues expanding and living longer. It's currently projected that Brazil's population will peak around 231 million by 2050.

Brazil's rapid fertility decline since the 1960s is the main factor behind the country's slowing population growth rate, ageing population, and fast-paced demographic transition. Due to a steady increase in the life expectancy in Brazil the average age of the population has also rapidly increased and According to the 2015 revision of the World Population Prospects the proportion of children below the age of 15 in 2015 was 25.0%, 69.2% was between 15 and 65 years of age, while 7.8% was 65 years or older. Obviously Brazil is experiencing a deep demographic change with significant transformations in its age structure. The main determinant of these changes has been fertility decline one of the most intense observed among the most populous countries in the world in modern times. However, population will begin to arise when the current favorable age structure, will begin to shift around 2025, with the labor force shrinking and the elderly starting to compose an increasing share of the total population. Further, despite great poverty alleviation efforts, and now with more than half of Brazil's population considered as middle class, poverty and income inequality levels remain high, as "the Northeast, North, and Center-West, women, and black, mixed race, and indigenous populations are disproportionately affected". Such social exclusion and consequent disparities in opportunities contribute to Brazil's high crime rate, particularly violent crime in cities and city slums known as favelas.

Level and trends of immigration and emigration are considered not significant and satisfactory pattern of spatial distribution are perceived as partially appropriate. Major concerns are the concentrations of population in large metropolises such as Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo and the absence of growth centers to stimulate development in peripheral regions.

### **Self Assessment Questions-2 (SAQ-2)**

#### **State True or False**

- i ) In Pakistan rapid population growth is linked to its social, economic and political problems.
- ii ) Women in Pakistan are not receptive to the idea of smaller families.
- iii ) Demographic change in Brazil is the result of declining fertility levels.
- iv ) Large disparities between the industrialized and less industrialized areas of Brazil are not a matter of concern.
- v ) In Brazil the level and trends of immigration and emigration are considered not significant.

## 9.8 Summary

In this lesson we learnt about the population problems specific to China, Brazil and Pakistan. To begin with the demographic parameters existing in China were discussed followed by the identification of the major problems related to population issues there. This was followed by an attempt to explain the social, cultural and economic imperatives in Pakistan responsible for population problems. Lastly, the population concerns of Brazil in the context of a fast paced demographic transition were discussed.

## 9.9 Further Readings

1. *World Development Report 2015*, World Bank, Oxford University Press.
2. Geoffrey McNicoll, (1984). 'Consequence of Rapid Population Growth, in *Population and Development Review* Vol.10, June 1985.
3. Warren C. Robinson Ed. (1975): *Population and Development Planning*. New York
4. Frejka Thomas (1973) *The Future of Population Growth*, New York; the Population Council.
5. United Nations : *World Population Prospect 2014*.

## 9.10 Model Questions

- Q1. Examine and analyze the population problems being faced by China.
- Q2. Discuss the major causes of the population problems of Brazil.

## Answers to Self Assessment Questions

### Self Assessment Questions-1

i) 1982, populous; ii) 1979, fertility; iii) Labour force, young; iv) Demographic; v) Population momentum.

### Self Assessment Questions- 2

i) True;          ii) False;          iii) True;          iv) False;          v) True.

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**CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION**

**PANJAB UNIVERSITY, CHANDIGARH-160 014**

Subject: Issues and Problems of Population

Paper: III

Class: ADHFWPE (Semester-II)

Lesson No. : 1-9

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**INSTRUCTIONS**

Detach this Response Sheet, write on it your name and address in capital letters in English script, tag it with your answer sheet and then either despatch it by post or deposit personally at the counter of the CDOE. It should be addressed to the Director, Centre for Distance and Online Education (CDOE), Panjab University, Chandigarh- 160014 and should reach this office within one month of despatch of this lesson/block to you. Each of the response sheets be tagged separately, though mailed in the same envelope. Use foolscap paper for your answer.

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**(DO NOT TEAR AWAY QUESTIONS PLEASE)**

**Time : 2 Hrs.**

**Max. Marks : 50**

**Note : Attempt any two questions. Each carries 10 marks.**

1. 'Ageing of population is emerging as a major population concern in the developed and developing countries.' Elucidate.
2. Discuss poverty as a major population problem in India.
3. Population problems are generally associated with densely populated poor or developing countries. Comment on the statement.
4. Describe the population problems of Japan and Sweden.
5. Describe the population problems of developing countries with special reference to China.
6. Describe briefly the population problem of the more developed realm.
7. Discuss the relationship between population problems and sustainable development.

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**(TO BE FILLED IN BY THE RESPONSE SHEET EVALUATOR)**

Name of the Evaluator \_\_\_\_\_

Percentage of Marks \_\_\_\_\_

Remarks \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_