Economics of Poverty, Inequality, Conflict and Resulting Impact on Well-Being

Jaspreet Kaur (Punjabi University, India)

Paper prepared for the 34th IARIW General Conference

Dresden, Germany, August 21-27, 2016

PS2.3: Poverty and Exclusion

Time: Thursday, August 25, 2016 [Late Afternoon]

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A Paper for

34th General Conference

International Association for Research in Income and Wealth

Type of Submission: Session- Second Poster Session PS2

Session PS2.3: Poverty and Exclusion

Submitted by:

Jaspreet Kaur

Research Scholar

Department of Economics

Punjabi University, Patiala

Punjab, Patiala

jassarora35f@gmail.com

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I. Introduction: Work on the poverty measurement took a momentum after the Sen's (1976) approach followed by Townsend (1979), Nolan and Callan (1994), who considered 'poverty as a state of relative deprivation within a society'. According Miller & Riessman 'poverty is not only a condition of economic insufficiency; it is also social and political exclusion'. Poverty is both complex and multidimensional phenomenon. The countries experiencing poverty, experience economic inequality, but vice-versa is not necessarily true. Economic injustice/inequality refers to the unequal distribution of material resources and inequality in their ownership and control. Inequality is pretended in the different forms of exploitation and deprivation of material resources such as exclusion from employment & wealth ownership and exploitative pay etc. the correlation between poverty and inequality is possible at the social level, given, poverty as a major concern to the society (individuals) only. But the relationship between issues of poverty & inequality is neither clear nor direct, because these both are analytically different concepts.

Traditionally, income is considered to be as the sole indicator of the poverty & inequality. Titmuss (1962) defines the income as the 'command over resources over time'. But income alone is an inadequate indicator of the level of living and fails to measure all the concerns that are posed in the present era while dealing with poverty and inequality. This is so because variability in other dimensions of well-being is not harmonized i.e. changes in one dimension i.e. income does not captures the changes in all other dimensions as well. Still in the present time there is no consensus between the economists for the use of income as a single variable for measuring poverty & inequality rather some are of the view that average income growth alone has been the major driving force behind both the declines and increases in poverty (Fosu, 2010), whereas some viewed poverty as multidimensional phenomenon. Thus poverty is a concept which varies over a range of dimensions e.g. health, mortality, and security, these dimensions may be inconsistent with conventional measures of income poverty. If we ignore these considerations then it may led to the large distortions in the concepts of poverty and inequality.

The major reason behind the present day globalised world's long term negative impacts on welfare and social inequality is the introduction of Washington Consensus in the late 1980s. Further this inequality has caused many social conflicts in haves and have-nots. Gurr (1970) argued that a large gap between a group's expected and actual economic and living conditions can fuel conflict. The issue of mass poverty is frequently used by one section of the ruling class for the denunciation of the other sections without the poor themselves being mobilized to protest or mutiny against their own deprivation. On the other hand Harms & Zink (2005) observed the 'Hump-shaped' relationship between economic development and social conflict and identified two reasons for this: on the one hand, inequality of wealth endowments creates social tensions, spontaneously greater the cleavage between the haves and have-nots, the greater the attractiveness of redistribution and conflict. The second, more indirect, channel through which economic growth may affect the incentive to challenge the existing social order is due to the link between wealth and economic perspectives. The intensity of social conflict depends both on the distribution and on the level of an economy's wealth.

The relationship between poverty and inequality is easy to understand as these two issues are the two sides of the same coin. Many studies focus on the measurement of these issues but there are very few studies which examined the link between poverty, inequality, conflict and wellbeing of society (individuals). Poverty, inequality and conflict negatively affect the wellbeing of human beings such as health, education, living conditions, environment etc. In this perspective, it would seem judicious to give

special attention to these issues for achieving the pro-poor growth rates that will further reduce poverty, inequality & conflict and enhance well-being of society in developing world.

Poverty is a global problem, India is not an exception to it rather in India problem of poverty is very acute. According to UNDP's MDG Report (2014, 2015), India is home to the largest number of poor with one-third of world's extreme poor living here. Two-third of extreme poor (those who lived on income less than $1 day) live in India, China, Nigeria, Bangladesh and Congo. In India poverty reduction was sluggish i.e. it reduced from 49.4 per cent in 1994 to 42 per cent in 2005, 32.9 per cent in 2010 and 21.9 per cent in 2012. Since India is presenting a vast scale poverty at international scale, also inequalities are high, this country is ought to suffer from the problem of social conflict and lower rank in well-being of society, although the extent of poverty, inequality, conflict and ranking in well-being may vary in rural and urban areas. In this perspective Punjab a predominantly agrarian economy is selected to presents an important glimpses of the wider image of Indian economy. In this context, present study is an attempt to examine the extent and severity of poverty & inequality their consequences and social implications of the income insecurity i.e. social conflict as well as wellbeing for the India in general and Punjab state in particular. This study is based on the findings of primary research undertaken by the authors for the Punjab state for year 2016. This paper is structured into seven sections apart from this introductory section, section II outlines the profile of Punjab state of India as well as of survey of study, section III elucidates the data and methodology utilized in this study, section IV is sub-divided into two parts: first part concerned with measurement of poverty and second with measurement of inequality, section V measures the Well-being Index taking into account the impact of poverty and inequality, section VI analyses the link between poverty, inequality, wellbeing and conflict and finally section VII concludes the paper and provides some policy implications.

II. Profile of Punjab: Punjab is located in the North-West side of the country. It has 1.57 per cent of the national geographical area of India and it contributes more than two third of food grains in the central pool, thereby Punjab is known as granary of India. Statistical profile of Punjab in comparison with India and primary survey results is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Statistical Profile of Punjab, India for year 2011 and Sampled Households (HHs) (figures in brackets are percentages)

Indicators	India	Punjab	Sample HHs
Total Population	121.05 crore	2.77 crore	511
Male population	62.3 crore(51.47)	1.46 crore(52.8)	272(53.23)
Female Population	58.74 crore(48.53)	1.31 crore(47.2)	239(46.77)
Rural Population	83.35 crore(68.8)	1.73(62.52)	316(61.84)
Urban population	37.71 crore(31.2)	1.04(37.48)	195(38.16)
Density(per sq km)	382	551	--
Sex Ratio(per '000 males)	943	895	--
Infant Mortality Rate (year 2013)	40	26	--
Birth Rate	20.2	15.7	--
Death Rate	7.4	6.7	--
Maternal Mortality Rate	167	141	--

Literacy Rate	73%	75.8 %	80.43%
Male literacy rate	80.9%	80.4%	81.99%
Female literacy rate	64.6%	70.7 %	78.66 %
Per capita income (2013-14 provisional estimates, in Rupees)	79412	105143	92972.6

Source: Census of India 2011, Punjab Statistical Abstract 2015, Economic Survey of Punjab 2015-16 and Primary Survey, 2016.

Although more than 50 per cent of Punjab's population is engaged in agriculture sector yet 37.48 per cent of its population live in urban areas as compared to country's average at 31.2 per cent. This implies greater rate of urbanization in the state as compared to the country as a whole. In order to control exodus to cities, Punjab government has undertaken various steps to develop villages such as through provision of basic amenities like drinking water, sanitation etc. within the rural premises. At the same time, increasing urbanization is also considered a symbol of industrialization which further results in higher density of population per square kilometer. In Punjab the density of population is 551 persons per sq km as compared to 382 persons per square km for country as a whole. In India sex ratio is 943 whereas in Punjab it is much less i.e. 895 females per thousand male. This imbalance in sex ratio is shameful for the state. In case of other development indicators such as Infant Mortality Rate (IMR), Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR), Birth Rate, Death Rate and literacy rate, this state is on better side as compared to the country as a whole. Literacy rate for the Punjab is considerable i.e. 75.8 per cent and findings of our study shows much improvements in it i.e. 80.43 per cent (survey finding). From the per capita income for year 2013-14 (provisional estimates) it can be concluded that Punjab is among the progressive states of India. In India society is categorized on the basis of religion & social groups beyond the natural division of gender. The main religions in the country are Hinduism, Sikhism, Islam, Budhism, and Christianity. While the Hindus are in majority in the country but the in Punjab state the predominant religion is Sikhism. Apart from the religious groups, Indian society is also divided on caste lines and there are four main social groups namely Schedule Tribes (ST), Schedule Caste (SC), Other Backward Classes (OBCs) and Others (General categories or upper castes in social hierarchy). SCs, STs and OBCs are the marginalized social groups among whom the problem of poverty is more prevalent than the general category and their well-being is much lower than other upper classes of the society. Here we noted that the state of Punjab has no tribal population, therefore, we hardly have any person categorised as ST in this state.

III. Data and Methodology: The present study is based on the primary survey of the Punjab state of India. Sample of 100 representative households (HHs) on the basis of 'Stratified Random Sampling' technique is surveyed with the help of well prepared questionnaire focusing on the poverty, inequality, conflict and well-being indicators. Out of total sample of 100 HHs 60 belong to the rural areas and 40 from urban ones. Further the study has also utilized secondary data from Census of India, Census of Punjab, Statistical Abstract of Punjab and India, Economic Survey of Punjab, National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO)' s reports, Compendium 2014 and other published reports. The concepts of poverty and inequality followed in this study need a brief explanation which is given below:

Poverty: The term poverty has been defined in variety of ways such as Sen (1986) defines poverty as the deprivation with respect to certain basic needs or capabilities, Townsend (1979) consider poverty as the

inability to participate in certain forms of social interaction. For Martin (2004), poverty is about absolute levels of living i.e. how many people cannot attain certain predetermined consumption needs. Conventionally, poverty is estimated by the income or expenditure level which can sustain a bare minimum standard of living (Bardhan, 1973). Measurement of standard of living just on the basis of income/ consumption expenditure does not show the actual picture. Thus along with income/ consumption levels (which are taken officially to depict poverty), some other measures of poverty are to be supplemented through which actually the access to minimum level of social amenities is reflected such as health, nutrition, literacy, drinking water etc. which also provide information on poverty (Vani, 2004).

There are various measures of poverty estimates like Headcount Ratio, Poverty Gap Index, Squared Poverty Gap Index, Sen Index etc. which are used to estimate incidence, intensity and distribution of income poverty. Besides, till today the most popular official method to calculate poverty is based on the Headcount ratio. The foremost step for identifying poor is to determine poverty line, because it justifiably distinguishes between poor and non-poor. Thus in the present analysis poverty has been measured through 'Monthly Per Capita Expenditure' (MPCE) which is calculated at Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) i.e.

In terms of PPP

Rs. 17.12= 1US$

and taking world poverty line at $1.9 (www.worldbank.org)

the poverty line for the state becomes: = 17.12*1.9*30 days

= Rs. 975.84 per person per month

Using Tendulkar Methodology (Planning Commission, 2014), the poverty line for Punjab state in Indian National Rupee as well as PPP terms based on international poverty line can be observed from Table 2:

Table 2: Poverty line according to Tendulkar Methodology and International Poverty Line (in Rupees)

Country/State	Rural	Urban
India	816	1000
Punjab	888.08	1230.66
Punjab (PPP)	1053.90	1200.28

Source: Planning Commission, 2014

Apart from finding the persons falling below poverty line, we can also find other categories of the poor such as marginally poor who have a monthly per capita expenditure (MPCE) between poverty line (PL) expenditure and 1.25 of poverty line expenditure; the vulnerable with MPCE lying between 1.25 PL and 2 PL; low middle income group (LMIG) with MPCE between 2PL and 4PL; the middle income group (MMIG) with MPCE between 4PL and 6PL and upper middle income group (UMIG) with MPCE greater than 6PL (NCEUS, 2007). Based on these definitions, the MPCE for different groups has been given in Table 3 using the international poverty line.

Table 3: Monthly Per Capita Expenditure (MPCE) at PPP-Tendulkar Adjusted for Poor and Non-poor (in Rs.)

Poverty Line	Rural	Urban
Poor (1PL)	1053.90	1200.28
Marginally Poor	1053.90 to 1317.38	1200.28 to 1500.35

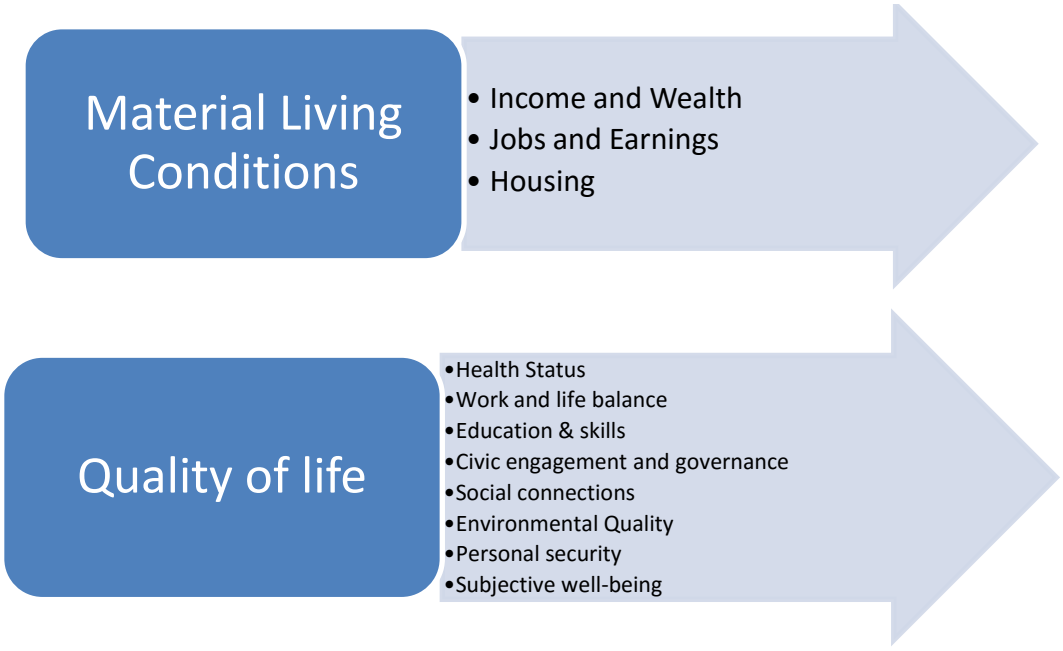
(1PL to 1.25PL)		
Vulnerable (1.25PL to 2 PL)	1317.38 to 2107.80	1500.35 to 2400.56
LMIG (2PL to 4PL)	2107.80 to 4215.60	2400.56 to 4801.12
MMIG (4PL to 6PL)	4215.60 to 6323.40	4801.12 to 7201.68
UMIG (> 6PL)	>6323.40	>7201.68

Source: Author's calculation (LMIG-Lower Middle Income Group, MMIG-Middle Middle Income Group, UMIG-Upper Middle Income Group)

Inequality: Inequality is about the disparities in levels of living e.g. how much more is held by rich people than poor people (Martin, 2004). The study will focus on the income disparities initially through Lorenz Curve and then Gini Coefficient and then disparities in other welfare indicators will be discussed through well-being indicators.

Well-being: Wellbeing is a subjective issue and its estimation is generally restricted to 'happiness' only. But wellbeing covers a wider range of concepts beyond happiness. Wellbeing can be defined as, "Good mental state, including all of the various evaluations, positive and negative, that people make of their lives and the affective reactions of people to their experiences (OECD, 2013). For Mukherjee (2001) the state of wellbeing is a multifaceted phenomena and the concept of deprivations which goes beyond the income denial to the lack of several socio-economic attributes of life. Measurement of wellbeing represents however a complex & challenging phenomenon as its coverage of welfare indicators goes beyond general income and expenditure method. Measurement of wellbeing differs from country to country due to lack of uniformity in data for indicators used. Present study uses the Wellbeing Index also known as Better Life Index, as introduced by the OECD in 2011, which is composed of 11 dimensions broadly classified under two heads as shown in Fig. 1 (see appendix). This index allows a better understanding of what drives the wellbeing of people and nations, and what needs to be done to achieve greater progress for all.

Fig. 1: Indicators of Well-being Index



This study has collected data on all the indicators except 'civic engagement and governance'. The section on well-being measurement will also focus on discussing relationship between poverty, inequality and their impacts on well-being.

Conflict: The process of development which generated affluence for the few simultaneously generated poverty for many (Kurien, 1978). Accordingly this unequal distribution of fruits of development creates social tensions and an increase in the utility distance between any pair of groups leads, ceteris peribus, to an increase in societal conflict (Esteban & Ray, 1999). Social conflict in this paper has been analysed through FGD (Focused Group Discussion) conducted by the author with a group of rich and poor persons from rural and urban areas. Their views on poverty & inequality and redistribution of wealth have been collected. This part will be discussed in detail in the last section of the paper.

IV a) Measurement of Poverty: By using the PPP poverty line, we have calculated headcount ratio of the population which is deprived of consumption expenditure and this is shown through Table 4. The Table, gives a profile of poor and non-poor in the sample population.

Table 4: Profile of Poor and Non-poor Population.

Poverty Line	Percentage of Population	
	Rural	Urban
Poor	7.91	11.22
Marginally Poor	12.34	7.65
Vulnerable	31.65	37.24
LMIG	35.76	23.98
MMIG	8.54	12.24
UMIG	3.80	7.65

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

It can be observed from the table that the proportion of population living below poverty line is higher in urban areas (11.22 per cent) as compared to rural areas (7.91 per cent) of Punjab. The possible reason behind this high rate of urban poverty is the prevalence of slum and migrated labour, whereas in comparison to this Punjab government has undertaken various steps for the reduction & removal of poverty in the rural areas. Moreover, in an agrarian state fewer employment opportunities are available outside agriculture as a result; the informal sector dominates in urban areas. The aggregate share of population which are marginal and vulnerable (which have a higher probability of being pushed into poverty trap with a smaller increase in price level) accounts around 44 per cent in rural and 45 per cent in the urban ones. Now moving to proportion of richer section who accounts major share in the total income of the society, they accounts 7.65 per cent of UMIG population in urban area as compared to rural area which accounts just half of them. It simply indicates that inequalities are more lucid in urban parts then in rural parts of the society. This overall scenario has many internal differences. Since India is a highly segmented society, the prosperity as well as poverty is also unequally borne by different social groups. Table 5 represents the degree of poverty among people by their social group. It can be observed from the Table that SCs and OBCs are the most deprived & marginalized sections of the society both in rural as well as urban areas.

Table 5: Poverty according to Social Groups (Figures in percentage)

Poverty	Rural			Urban		
	General	SC	BC	General	SC	BC
Poor	3.11	12.82	13.16	3.54	21.57	21.88
Marginally Poor	3.73	17.09	10.53	3.54	13.72	12.50
Vulnerable	23.60	48.72	36.84	30.98	39.22	40.62
Poor and Vulnerable	**30.44**	**78.63**	**60.53**	**38.06**	**74.51**	**75.00**
LMIG	50.31	17.09	31.58	41.59	13.73	9.38
MMIG	11.18	4.28	7.89	11.50	11.76	15.62
UMIG	8.07	0.00	0.00	8.85	0.00	0.00

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

78.63 per cent of SCs followed by 60.53 per cent of OBCs and 30.44 per cent of Other classes are poor & vulnerable in rural areas, while in urban parts around 75 per cent of SCs & OBCs are poor & vulnerable as compared to about 38 per cent for general categories. We can also notice that the upper castes in urban areas have a greater ratio of people facing poverty and vulnerability than their rural counterparts. Actually, the socially marginalised groups own lesser physical capital assets and due to lower economic capacity they end up having low human capital as well resulting into chronic poverty situations. They end up having low education status and earning their living from casual, insecure unskilled jobs. Obviously poverty rates are higher for casual labour in agriculture as well as non-agricultural occupations as compared to those who are working as regular and self employed workers. This fact can be observed from Table 6. The Table shows that in rural areas, the agricultural labour experience the worst living conditions followed by those who are self-employed in non-agriculture (they are generally the small shopkeepers and street vendors in the villages).

Table 6: Poverty according to Employment Status (Figures in percentage)

Poverty Line	Rural					Urban			
	Self Employed in Agriculture	Self Employed in Non Agriculture	Agricultural Labour	Other Labour	Others (include Regular salaried)	Self Employed	Regular Salaried	Casual Workers	Others
Poor	0.00	18.18	25.00	0.00	0.00	11.76	0.00	14.29	25.00
Marginally Poor	5.00	9.09	25.00	12.50	11.11	5.88	8.33	14.29	0.00
Vulnerable	25.00	36.36	33.33	50.00	22.22	35.29	8.33	71.43	50.00
Poor and Vulnerable	**30.00**	**63.63**	**83.33**	**62.50**	**33.33**	**52.93**	**16.66**	**100.0**	**75.00**

LMIG	50.00	18.18	16.67	37.50	33.33	23.53	58.33	0.00	0.00
MMIG	10.00	9.09	0.00	0.00	33.33	17.65	8.33	0.00	25.00
UMIG	10.00	9.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.88	16.67	0.00	0.00

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

The Table shows that about 83 per cent of the agricultural labour in rural areas and all of the casual labour in the urban areas are poor and vulnerable. In rural areas, the poverty among the self-employed in non-agricultural sectors is higher than those in the agriculture. In rural areas, the self employed in agriculture has the lowest proportion of poor and vulnerable population (actually none of them is found to be living below the poverty line) while in urban areas, this proportion is the lowest for the regular workers.

Table 7: Poverty According to Education (Figures in percentage)

	Rural							
Poverty Line	Illiterate	Below Primary	Primary	Middle	Matric	Senior Secondary	Graduation	Post-Graduation & higher study
Poor	36.00	0.00	12.00	16.00	20.00	12.00	4.00	0.00
Marginally Poor	23.08	7.69	38.46	15.38	10.26	0.00	5.13	0.00
Vulnerable	21.00	9.00	20.00	15.00	13.00	12.00	8.00	2.00
LMIG	20.35	7.96	13.27	7.96	17.70	7.96	16.81	7.96
MMIG	7.41	0.00	22.22	18.52	11.11	18.52	22.22	0.00
UMIG	0.00	0.00	8.33	16.67	25.00	16.67	8.33	25.00
Urban								
Poor	40.91	13.64	13.64	18.18	13.64	0.00	0.00	0.00
Marginally Poor	26.67	13.33	6.67	20.00	26.67	6.67	0.00	0.00
Vulnerable	24.66	10.96	10.96	13.70	16.44	8.22	12.33	2.74
LMIG	8.51	4.26	10.64	4.26	21.28	12.77	25.53	12.77
MMIG	8.33	4.17	0.00	4.17	8.33	12.50	29.17	33.33
UMIG	0.00	6.67	0.00	6.67	20.00	0.00	46.67	20.00

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

Table 7 shows the relationship between poverty and education level. In rural areas of Punjab there is no strong correlation between education and poverty as majority of them are employed in the agriculture sector for which education is not a pre-condition. Despite the fact out of total poor population 36 per cent are illiterate and 48 per cent having education upto matric(10^{th} standard). In case of marginal and

vulnerable most of the population has attained education upto senior secondary level. Opposite is the case with non-poor section their spread is towards higher education. It is justified with the fact that out of total poor about 41 per cent are illiterate, whereas in UMIG about 67 per cent are having education access upto higher education.

b) Measurement of Inequality: For measuring inequality, the sample population has been divided according to the decile classes. We have employed Lorenz curve and Gini coefficient for the calculation of inequality based on the HH's income. This distribution has been shown in Table 8. In rural areas, income share of lowest 10 per cent HHs is 1.18 per cent, that of lowest 30 per cent is just 6.12 per cent, whereas middle 80 per cent of HHs share 75.85 per cent and top 10 per cent have 22.97 per cent or we can say that top 20 per cent of the HHs have huge share of total income of society i.e. 40.13 per cent. The share of bottom 5 percent of rural population is 0.52 per cent as compared to 12.34 per cent for top 5 per cent.

Table 8: Distribution of Income of HHs in Deciles and Gini Coefficient

Deciles	Cumulative percentage		
	Rural	Urban	Total
10%	1.18	1.37	1.24
20%	3.07	3.23	3.13
30%	6.12	6.13	6.12
40%	13.49	12.55	12.90
50%	22.96	20.32	21.88
60%	33.27	27.47	31.88
70%	45.90	41.25	43.95
80%	59.87	54.67	57.76
90%	77.03	72.29	74.99
100%	100.00	100.00	100.00
Bottom 5 %	0.52	0.62	0.57
Top 5 %	12.34	18.13	14.69
Gini Coefficient	0.36	0.4	0.38

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

On the other hand in urban areas, income share of the bottom 10 per cent of HHs is 1.37 per cent, bottom 30 per cent have 6.13 per cent, middle 80 per cent have 70.92 per cent, top 10 per cent have 27.71 per cent and top 20 per cent have 45.32 per cent of the total income of the society. It shows that distribution of income is relatively more unequal in the urban areas i.e. HHs have income around 20 times that of bottom 10 per cent HHs income. In urban areas, the bottom 5 per cent share 0.62 per cent of total income while the top 5 per cent share 18.13 per cent of the same. This shows that fruits of development process have not trickled down the lower rungs. Therefore special attention and efforts by the development practitioners and policy makers are needed to uplift the weaker strata of the society.

Lorenz curve has been formulated from this decile distribution in order to measure inequality of income distribution. On the vertical axis cumulative percentage of HHs is taken and on the horizontal axis cumulative percentage of income. Lorenz curve for rural, urban and Punjab is shown in the Appendix

section figure 1, 2 and 3. The results of Lorenz curve while calculated with Gini coefficient formula indicate that income inequality is more in urban areas with Gini coefficient of 0.4 in comparison to the rural counterpart with Gini coefficient 0.36. However the overall Gini coefficient for Punjab is 0.38.

Section V: Measurement of Well Being Index: Is our life rally getting better with the development? How can one express? What are the main ingredients for improving life- are they getting better education, environment, healthcare, housing or working hours? Pioneering work in this field of research has been done by OECD. OECD has been working for more than a decade to identify the best way to estimate the progress/development of societies moving beyond GDP and macroeconomic indicators and examining the areas that impact people's lives. OECD capture major aspects of life that matter to people and assists in shaping the quality of their lives into Well Being Index.

This section will focus on the measurement of various indicators of Well-being Index along with taking into account the impact of poverty & inequality concepts. There is strong debate among the policy makers about the relationship between poverty & well-being and inequality & wellbeing. Researchers in the field of international development have intensely debated the relationship between wellbeing and poverty (Seers (1969); ILO(1976); Morris(1979); Sen(1982) and Streeten (1984)) to the more recent debates on MDGs (UNDP 2003, 2005) and the wellbeing approach (WeD 2004-07). It is being held that redistribution of income will reduce poverty and inequality and hence improve wellbeing of the society (individuals).

i)Income and Wealth: Starting with material living conditions, Table 9 shows the decomposition of income and wealth into further two parts namely 'Household Average Net Adjusted Disposable Income per person' and 'Household Financial Net Wealth per person'. It can be observed from the table that 'household financial net wealth per person' in rural areas is Rs. 23492 and Rs.32150 in the urban areas for the deprived strata. As compared to this, UMIG has 78 times of poorer section's average net wealth per person in rural areas and 119 times in urban areas. This depicts very high rates of inequality in urban areas as compared to rural ones. On an average each household having Rs.438895 net wealth per person in rural areas and Rs.819408 in urban areas. On the other hand, the second part of the table which is related to 'household average net adjusted disposable income per person' depicts that on an average in rural areas per person in HH earn Rs.94057 and Rs.90495.42 in urban areas.

Table 9: HH Average Financial Net Wealth Per Person & HH Average Net Adjusted Disposable Income Per Person Average Income (in Rupees)

HH Average Financial Net Wealth per person		
Poverty Status	Rural	Urban
Poor	23491.67	32150
Marginally Poor	55000.83	52411.90
Vulnerable	216568.69	178103.65
LMIG	478412.58	1172771.97
MMIG	1106942.6	1139698.33
UMIG	1835505.56	3833658.33
Average	438894.88	819408.25
HH Average Net Adjusted Disposable Income per person		
Poor	11760	12494.05
Marginally Poor	35792.86	22819.05

Vulnerable	64497	54906.91
LMIG	102618.33	133257.58
MMIG	209231.48	139133
UMIG	266944.44	190395.56
Average	94056.68	90495.42
Average Income		
Rural	Urban	Punjab
89256.33	98489.8	92972.6

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

ii) Jobs & earnings: This indicator is composed of employment and unemployment rate and average earnings per person. For measuring unemployment rate we have used secondary data from the NSSO report on Employment & Unemployment in India.

Table 10: Unemployment Rate (per '000) 15-59 Age Group in comparison with India (2011-12) at Usual Status (Principal Status+ Subsidiary Status)

	Gender	Punjab	India
Rural	Male	24	19
	Female	15	17
	Person	22	18
Urban	Male	27	31
	Female	37	55
	Person	29	36
Total	Male	25	22
	Female	21	25
	Person	24	23

Source: NSSO, Key Indicators of Employment & Unemployment in India 2011-12

Comparative profile of Punjab & India with respect to unemployment rate is shown in Table 10, according to which unemployment rate for Punjab as well as for India is higher in urban areas as compared to rural areas. Unemployment rate for female (3.7 per cent) is higher than male (2.7 per cent) in urban areas. However for this average for the country as a whole is 5.5 per cent and 3.1 per cent for females and males respectively in urban parts. The overall unemployment rate in Punjab is 2.4 per cent which is a little bit higher than country average at 2.3 per cent according to usual principal and subsidiary status. The results of primary survey show that share of persons that remain unemployed for more than six months are 7.59, 5.1 and 6.65 per cent for rural areas, urban areas and Punjab as a whole, respectively. Main feature of these facts is that majority of unemployed in both rural and urban areas is found among the educated youth which pose a serious problem for the state. Further the average income per person in rural areas is Rs. 89256 and Rs. 94490 in urban and Rs. 92973 for Punjab which is higher than the national average income per person, it is shown in Table 9.

iii) Housing: Housing comes at first among the basic necessities of human being, thus it is mandatory to measure this indicator. Moreover adequate availability of housing assists in enhancing welfare of the individuals. It is discussed with respect to the number of room availability and lack of basic facilities in dwelling. It can be observed from Table 11 that average number of rooms available for the poor HHs is 1.6 in rural areas and 1.25 in urban areas. But mostly in poor class they accommodate 6 to 7 persons just

in one room which implies most congested dwelling. As opposite to this gloomy picture there is bright picture where 4 persons family having 5 to 6 rooms means 1.5 rooms availability per head.

Table 11: Average Number of Room Availability Per Household

	Rural	Urban
Poor	1.60	1.25
Marginally Poor	1.57	1.33
Vulnerable	2.32	2.07
LMIG	3.90	4.18
MMIG	4.83	4.80
UMIG	4.67	6.00
Average no. of rooms per person	0.62	0.68
Average no. of rooms per HH	3.07	3.15

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

Table 12 depicts the lack of basic facilities in the dwelling. It has been found out that out of total 100 HHs, 90 are having their own dwellings and rest 10 are residing in a rented building. The tendency of living in a rented dwelling is more prevalent in urban areas (12.5 per cent HHs reside in rented house as compared to 8.33 per cent in rural areas). About 50 per cent sampled persons are satisfied from their accommodation, 33 per cent are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and lastly 17 per cent are dissatisfied these are particularly the people living in 'slums', 'jhugi &jhompri' (hutments) etc.

Table 12: Deprivations and Facilities Related to Housing (Figures in percentage)

Indicator	Rural	Urban	Punjab
Dwelling Owned/Rented			
Owned Dwelling	91.67	87.50	
Rented Dwelling	8.33	12.50	
Satisfaction from Accommodation			
Satisfied	48.73	51.02	49.71
Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	33.86	31.63	33.07
Dissatisfied	17.41	17.35	17.22
Lack of Facilities in Dwelling			
Shortage of Space	38.33	42.50	47.00
Too Dark, not Enough Light	18.33	17.50	18.00
Lack of Adequate Heating Facilities	23.33	22.50	23.00
Leaky Roof	20.00	17.50	19.00
Damp Walls, Floors, Foundations	35.00	22.50	30.00
Rot in Window Frames	21.67	17.50	20.00

or Floors			
No Place to Sit Outside e.g. a Terrace or Garden	71.67	65.00	69.00
House has Dirt Walls & Floor	50.00	45.00	48.00
Other (Related with Roof Material)	18.33	17.50	18.00
Not having Indoor Flushing Toilet	6.67	7.50	7.00
Not having Bathroom	3.33	5.00	4.00
Not having Electricity Facility	5.00	5.00	5.00
Katcha House	6.67	7.50	7.00
Pucca House	56.67	55.00	56.00
Semi Pucca House	36.67	37.50	37.00
Access to Safe Drinking Water	78.33	85.00	81.00
Access to Improved Sanitation	65.00	75.00	69.00
Type of Cooking Fuel used			
LPG/Natural Gas	85.00	85.00	85.00
Kerosene	1.67	0.00	1.00
Charcoal	1.67	0.00	1.00
Firewood	46.67	25.00	38.00
Straw/Shrubs/Grass	10.00	7.50	9.00
Agricultural Crop Waste	66.67	0.00	40.00
Dung Cakes	66.67	32.50	53.00

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

Further we can see from the table that in rural areas problems related to dwelling are severer than that faced in urban areas. Main problems related to dwellings are shortage of space, dirty & damped walls & floor and no garden/open space in the dwelling. We can also see that around 7 per cent and 8 per cent HHs having no indoor flushing toilet in the rural and urban areas respectively. In rural areas this should be acute problem instead of urban areas, but here picture is opposite (though the difference is marginal), this is so because of steps undertaken by the government for providing sanitation facilities both in rural and urban areas under 'Swachh Bharat Mission (Clean India Mission)', the work is actively, speedily and seriously undertaken. According to 'Swachh Bharat Mission' report, HHs toilet coverage across India is 53.47 per cent and in comparison to this in Punjab it is 78.60 per cent (www.sbm.gov.in). Further, we can see that 5 per cent of the population does not have electricity facility at their homes. Urban areas have

more access to safe drinking water (85 per cent) and improved sanitation (75 per cent) as compared to rural areas.

In addition to the indicators considered by the OECD for housing we have also calculated data on the type of cooking fuel used by the HHs. We can see from the Table 12 that in rural areas along with LPG, people also use other cooking fuels like firewood, agricultural crop waste, dung cakes and straw/shrubs. In comparison to this urban areas mainly rely on LPG and the HHs in lower rungs opt other alternatives who can't afford LPG i.e. they rely on dung cakes & firewood. Still, 85 per cent of the total sampled units are found to be using LPG, this is because government is also providing subsidy on this to poorer families.

iv) Health Status: Here we have classified health status into 3 categories namely: fairly good (having no health problem), good (having minor health problem) and not good (having major health problems). According to our survey, we came across the result that in rural areas people are healthier because of healthy environment & nutritious diet and are less stressed as compared to urban areas where people are under more stress. Accordingly 11.39 per cent in rural areas and 19.39 per cent in urban areas do not rate their health as good (Table 13). We have also worked on the prevalence of diseases in rural & urban areas according to their economic status, which can be seen from the Table 1 in Appendix. The health status also covers life expectancy of a person. Life expectancy for the female is more than male i.e. about 68 years for females and 64 years (Table 14) for the males.

Table 13: Health Status (Figures in percentage)

	Rural	Urban	Rural+Urban
Good	41.14	37.76	39.92
Fairly Good	47.47	42.86	45.79
Not Good	11.39	19.39	14.29
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

Table 14: Life expectancy (in years)

Rural			Urban			R+U		
Female	Male	Person	Female	Male	Person	Female	Male	Person
69.88	63.48	66.27	65.62	65.00	65.33	67.89	64.04	65.89

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

v) Work and life balance: Work and life balance can be explained by the distribution of a person's time between work and leisure. Table 15 shows that 46.67 per cent of the family members of the sampled households in rural areas and 22.5 per cent of the same in urban areas are working more than 50 hours per week. Further, we can see that in most of the families this is the case with one family member only while 8per cent of the families in rural areas and less than 3 per cent of the families in urban areas reported that two of their family members are working more than 50 hours a week.

Table 15: Number of Family Members working more than 50 hours per week, Sparing Time for Leisure and Percentage of Working Women with Children of Age 6-14 years (Figures in percentage)

No. of Family Members Working more than 50 hours Per Week	Rural	Urban	Rural+ Urban
1 member	35.00	20.00	29.00
2 member	8.33	2.50	6.00
3 member	1.67	0.00	1.00
4 members	1.67	0.00	1.00
Total	46.67	22.50	37.00
Leisure			
Sparing Time for Sports	33.54	35.71	34.44
Visiting Entertaining Friends	60.13	61.22	60.67
Sparing Time for Hobbies	25.95	29.59	27.40
Proper Time for Food Intake	72.78	78.06	74.76
Regularly Visiting Doctor for Medical Checkup	13.29	23.47	17.22
Traveling for Leisure	20.89	29.08	24.07
Average Number of Sleeping Hours	8	8	8

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

Table 15 also shows that weather the individuals spare their time for leisure and personal care or not. We can see that about one-third of population is sparing time for sports, hobbies and this proportion is around one-fourth in case of travelling for leisure. However, around 61 and 75 per cent of the population is able to spare their time with entertaining friends in time of leisure and take food on time respectively.

vi) Education: This concept is measured on the basis of literacy rate and educational attainment for male-female and rural-urban parts separately. Literacy rate for Punjab is 80.43 per cent and it is less for females (78.66 per cent) shown in table 16. Further the education attainment of the sampled persons can be observed from the Table 17. Table shows that illiteracy is higher among the females as compared to males both in urban and rural areas. The level of education attainment is higher in case urban areas than in rural ones. Moreover the percentage share of sampled persons having post-graduation & higher education are found 4.43 per cent in rural areas and 9.69 per cent in urban areas, this implies more access to higher education in urban areas than rural ones.

Table 16: Literacy Rate (Figures in percentage)

	Rural			Urban			Punjab		
Literacy Rate	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person
	81.82	77.48	79.75	82.24	79.78	81.12	81.99	78.66	80.43

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

Table 17: Educational Attainment (Figures in percentage)

	Rural	Urban

	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person
Illiterate	18.18	22.52	20.25	17.76	20.22	18.88
Below Primary	10.30	2.65	6.65	8.41	8.99	8.67
Primary	19.39	18.54	18.99	8.41	8.99	8.67
Middle	10.91	15.23	12.97	14.02	6.74	10.71
Matric	16.97	13.25	15.19	19.63	14.61	17.35
Senior Secondary	9.09	10.60	9.81	3.74	13.48	8.16
Graduation	12.12	11.26	11.71	20.56	14.61	17.86
Post-Graduation & higher study	3.03	5.96	4.43	7.48	12.36	9.69

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

vii) Social Connections: For evaluating the social connections of individuals we have analysed them from two points i.e. their socialization with friends, relatives, neighbours etc. at different frequencies and second point is, did they get help in times of need. It can be observed from the Table 18 that people usually meet their friends, relatives and others once in month their share is 46.58 per cent whereas 13.5 per cent of people meet their friends and relatives on regular daily basis. Social support network can also be observed from the Table, and it is found that 71.23 per cent people get financial help or social support at the time of need which clearly indicates the helping nature of the society.

Table 18: Number of Times a Person Socialize with Friends and Relatives (Figures in percentage)

Number of times you socialize with friends and relatives	Rural	Urban	Rural+ Urban
Rarely	39.56	40.31	39.92
Once a month	46.20	47.45	46.58
Everyday	14.24	12.24	13.50
DO you Get Help from Friends and Relatives in Time of Need	73.73	66.84	71.23

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

viii) Environmental Quality: The wellbeing or quality of life of society(individuals) is strongly affected by a healthy physical environment (OECD, 2011). Polluted environment play a significant role in generation of major diseases and it is empirically proven by the study by OECD(2011) that about 25 per cent of diseases and deaths globally are due to poor environmental conditions. However our primary survey shows that 3.72 per cent proportion of our sampled units are suffering from TB, Asthama, respiratory problem, allergy etc. i.e. the diseases which are caused by polluted air. Further for identifying level of pollution we have relied on the secondary data for the state. Punjab as discussed earlier is predominately an agrarian state, is also well known for its rapid industrialization in the post-independence period. This industrialization further results in the increasing levels of air pollution and presently the RSPM (Respirable Suspended Particulate Matter) levels are above the maximum permissible limits by CPCB(Central Pollution Control Board) in almost all the cities of Punjab. Industries, vehicular sector and agricultural burning are the major sources of air pollution in Punjab (CPCB, 2012; Envis Punjab, 2015). Significant contributor to deterioration of air quality in Punjab is the industries and central government

put 13070 industrial units of Punjab in the red category (highly polluting) in 2011-12(GoP, 2011). Further industrial combustion contributes 47per cent of the PM10 emissions followed by brick and open burning and almost 56 per cent of NOx emissions are contributed by transport sector in Punjab. It is clear that at all the air quality monitoring stations, RSPM is higher than the annual average standard of 60 μg/m3 approved by CPCB. Cities which show RSPM concentration levels more than 180 μg/m3 are Ludhiana, Amritsar, Gobindgarh and Khanna, this concentration levels are thrice than the prescribed standard. However the concentration level of SO2 and NOx in Punjab are well below the standards prescribed by CPCB(Mehta, 2015).

ix) Personal Security: One of the important components of measuring well-being is the personal security. It is not only affected or reduced by poor health or poverty but also by the serious crime, war and other social conflicts which results in mass fatalities e.g. trends in homicide rate in most of the developing countries have received great attention by the general public (UNOCD, 2011). Thus crimes increase insecurity among general public thus reducing their well-being. Personal security is measured on the basis of crime rate. Crime rate is defined as the number of crimes reported per one lakh population. For this purpose we have relied on the report of National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) entitled 'Compendium 2014'. According to which the crime rate in India is 229.2 whereas in Punjab it is much lesser than country i.e. 129.6. On the other hand incidence of crime out of country's total crime incidence is 1.3 per cent which indicates that although Punjab is a border state but the rate and incidence of crime is less here (Table 2 in Appendix).

x) Subjective Well-being: After calculating all the indicators of well-being on the basis of information provided by the individuals a simple and broad question regarding their views on life is asked, such as how they evaluate their life? It has been found that about 50 per cent respondents are satisfied with their life whereas around 16 per cent are satisfied to greater extent with their life. On the other hand 28.96 per cent are satisfied to some extent and 5.28 per cent are not satisfied at all. The proportion of the dissatisfied people and those who are satisfied to some extent only is higher in rural areas than the urban ones while opposite is the case for the proportion of the people who are satisfied to a great extent.

Table 19: Subjective Evaluation of Life (Figures in percentage)

Subjective Evaluation	Rural	Urban	Rural+Urban
Satisfied to Great Extent	14.87	17.35	15.85
Satisfied	50.00	49.49	49.90
Satisfied to some Extent	29.75	28.06	28.96
Not Satisfied	5.38	5.10	5.28

Source: Primary Survey, 2016.

VI. Conflict: Poverty and inequality both give birth to conflict which further negatively affects the well-being of the society. One of the oldest concern in the political economy is the link between inequality and violent conflict. According to Tiwari (2009), it is almost a universal assumption that an inequitable distribution of resources and wealth will provoke violent rebellion. Moreover greater the cleavage between 'haves' and 'have-nots', more will be the demand for redistribution at the same time if the economic growth is associated with the changes in wealth and income inequality then the development pattern will play the more typical phases of more or less intense conflict within the society.

For examining the presence of conflict among people, the views of poor and richer sections have been collected through conducting FGDs (Focused Group Discussions). It has been observed that lower rungs of society consider major cause of poverty not their illiteracy or lack of awareness or anything else rather they consider it as their fate only. Some of the poor also view that scarcity of resources i.e. income & property, lack of awareness about the government schemes and lastly illiteracy are the reasons for poverty. They thought they are 'born poor' and employed in their generational work like if child's grand grandparents are working as rag picker or trash collectors then the forthcoming generations will follow the same occupation. On the other hand richer section think that poor are poor because of their backward thinking, lack of awareness, bigger family size etc. Thus we can say that changes in the perceptions of the individuals concerned are also necessary if poverty is to be eliminated.

On the question of redistribution as a solution for poverty and inequality, mostly richer section is not ready to compromise, as they are of the view that redistribution of resources is not the correct solution of poverty because even if the redistribution will take place, poor will become 'equal' in society but at the end he /she will definitely come back to the original situation because of their traditional/backward thinking and the tendency to shirk the work. Instead of redistribution they are in favour that government should invest in education, health facilities and provide them with decent employment opportunities so that they will come out of poverty trap. At the same time to the question related to tax increment i.e. "if the government proposes to increase tax to enable everyone to afford the necessities, would you support or oppose this policy?" 47 responded in affirmative, 27 per cent in negative and about 26 per cent did not comment; about 87 per cent respondents suggest provision of employment opportunities as a solution for reducing poverty (see appendix Table number 3).

VII. Conclusion and Policy Implications: To sum up, it can be stated that although the problem of poverty is not severe in Punjab state as compared to the country, but the growth rates and development process is not pro-poor across all the sections of the society particularly the marginalised sections. It has been observed that among the social groups SCs, OBCs are the poorest categories and by HH types agricultural labour and casual labour are the poorest one, on the other hand the problem of inequality is more acute in the urban Punjab and similarly in urban India. In nutshell we can state that the well-being of society in the state is improved and lastly the conflict between the haves and have-nots is also present in the state. Therefore, it is suggested that government should increase its expenditure on the provision of education, health, housing, safe drinking water and sanitation facilities initially free of cost then at subsidized rates, marginalized sections and HHs should be targeted on priority basis. Targeting these sections is necessary because they account for a considerable share in total population of the state. Moreover, poverty is the highest among them as compared to other social groups. Lastly government should aim at provision of employment opportunities on regular basis for directly affecting poverty and hence promote well-being.

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Appendix:

Following are the dimensions of Wellbeing Index as given by OECD:

i) Income and Wealth: Two essential gears of well-being of individuals and society, which assist in expanding people's consumption possibilities and provide them resources to satisfy their needs, are income and wealth. It is generalized fact that wealth also permits individuals to smooth their consumption pattern over time and absorb unexpected shocks that could lead to poverty and destitution. Further these indicators bring non-economic benefits also namely higher health and education status, higher life satisfaction etc. Income and wealth is measured through two indicators namely: Net Adjusted Disposable Income Per Person, Net Adjusted Disposable Income Per Person and Household Financial Net Wealth Per Person.

ii) Jobs and Earnings: Both availability of jobs and earnings are important as enhance people's command over resources and helps in developing skills and building self-esteem. Society where employment rates are higher are intends toward richer and politically stable on the other hand high unemployment rates negatively affect the subjective wellbeing of society. For calculating jobs and earning indicator two rates are calculated: Employment Rate and Unemployment Rate

iii) Housing: Among the basic needs of human being adequate accommodation is at the top of the hierarchy. The poor housing conditions can negatively affect individual's mental as well physical health and also the family functioning's. The main indicators of housing are: Average number of rooms per person in dwelling and Percentage of dwellings without access to basic facilities.

iv) Health Status: One of the most valued aspect of people's life is, their health status along with other factors. The key indicators used for this aspect are: Life-expectancy at birth and Self-reported health status

v) Work and Life Balance: Maintaining the balance between work and personal life is central to well-being of individuals. Having too much work pressure will negatively affect the health as well as their life; on the other hand too little work cannot assist in maintaining their desired standards of living. Therefore balance is required between work and life i.e. allocate time properly for work and also for personal care activities. The indicators used for measuring work and life balance are: Employees working very long hours, Time devoted to leisure and personal care and Employment rate of women with children of age 6-14

vi) Education: Education is one of the basic need and important aspiration of society, which have strong positive impact on their well-being. There is positive correlation between education and higher earnings and better job opportunities are available to them. For this indicator used are as: Literacy rate and education attainment

vii) Social Connections: Social connections mean how frequently you meet with your friends, relatives and others and get help on time of need. The very nature of social connections/interactions has wider implications besides the immediate social circle, impacting levels of trust within their community, which is further an important driver of other outcomes including democratic participation, crime and health (OECD, 2001). The aspects used for this are as: Contact with others and Social network support

viii) Environmental Quality: Quality of life of people is also affected by the environment in which they live. The environmental pollution has considerable impact on the health of society. Environmental quality is measured through: Air Pollution and Percentage of people affected by air pollution i.e. incidence of diseases caused by air pollution

ix) Personal Security: It is measured through the incidence of crime and conflicts in the society. More the conflicts more will be the insecurity, less the conflicts i.e. equitable society lesser will be the incidence of crimes. Anand and Santos (2006) are of the view that biggest impact of crime on people's well-being appears to be through the feeling of vulnerability that it causes.

x) Subjective Well-being: The indicator of subjective well-being measures simply the overall life satisfaction as supposed by the individuals.

Fig. 1: Lorenz curve for Rural

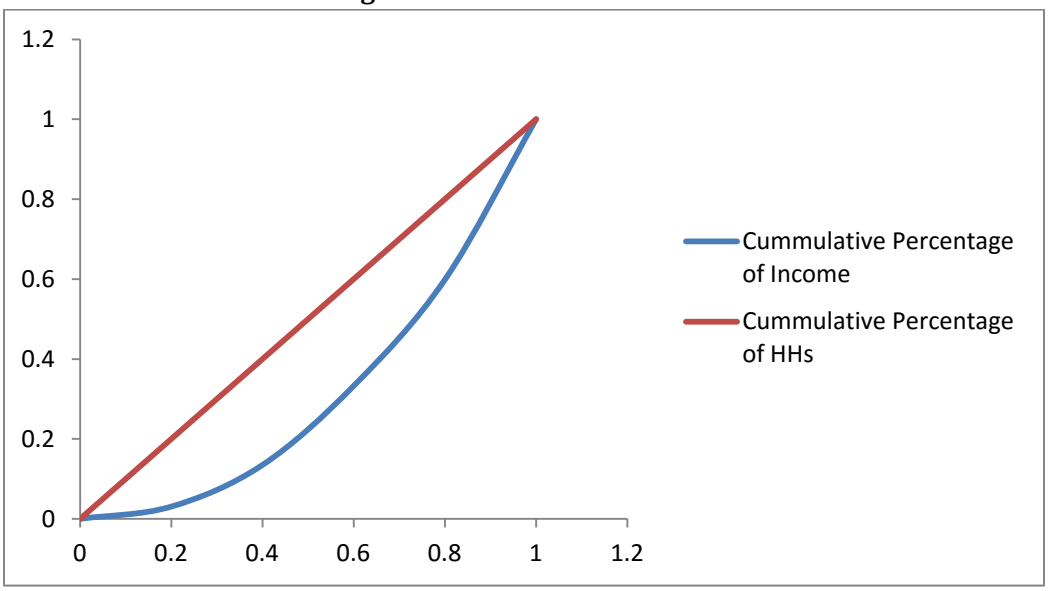

Fig. 2: Lorenz curve for urban

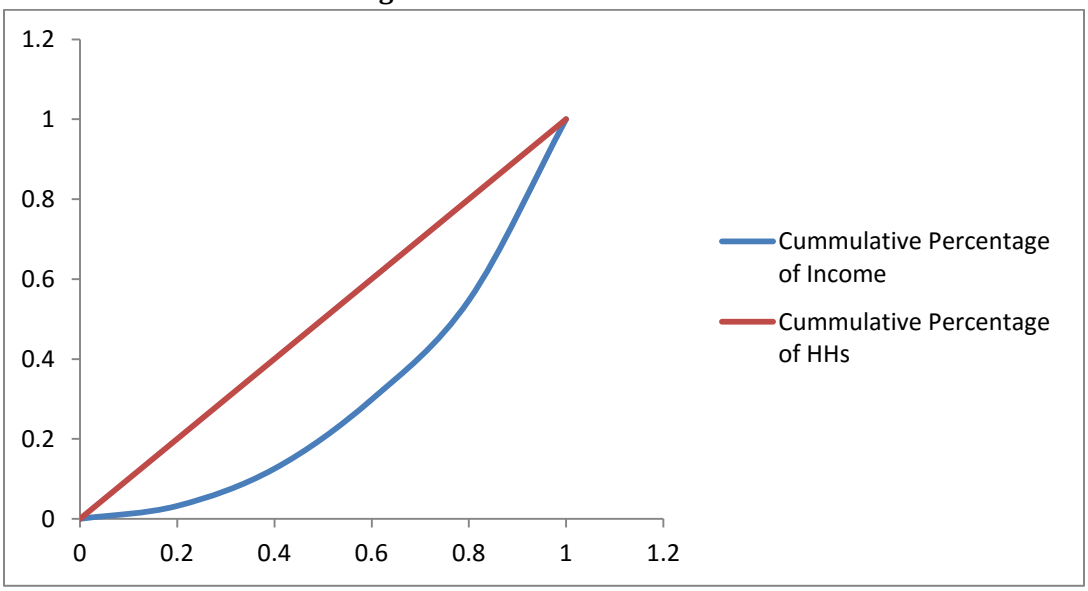

Fig. 3: Lorenz curve for Punjab

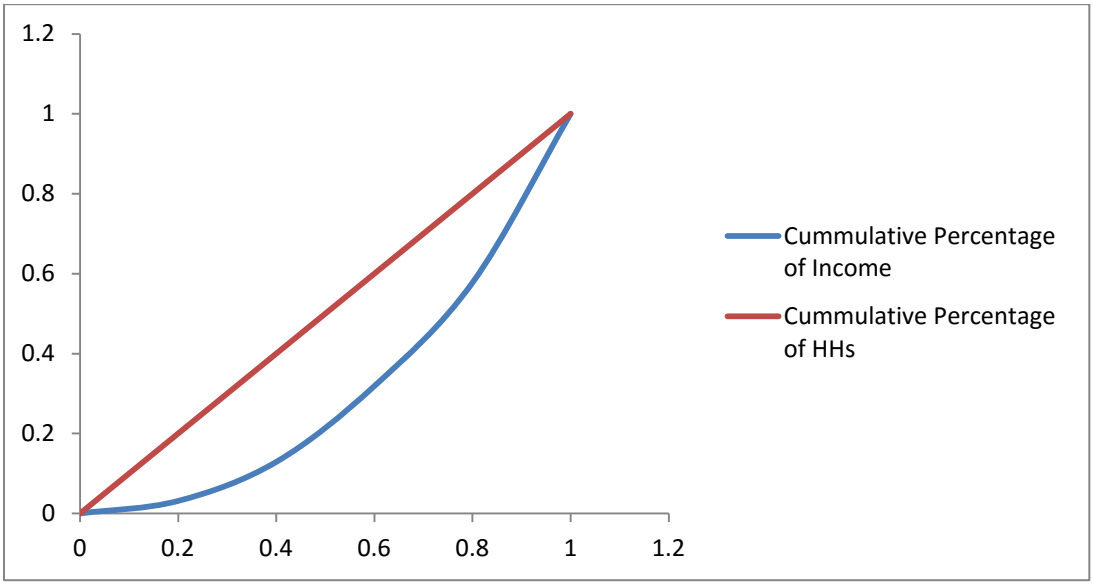

Fig. 4: Lorenz curve for rural, urban and overall Punjab

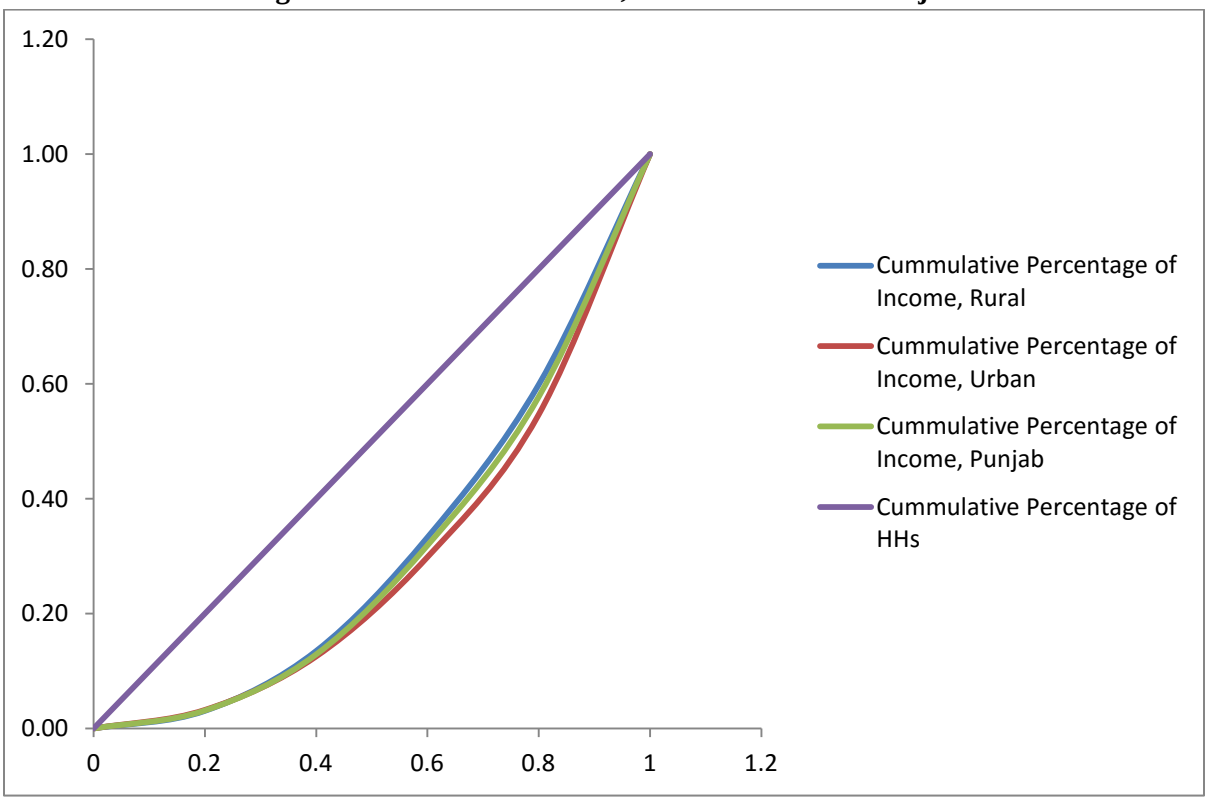

Table 1: Prevalence of diseases

	Rural		Urban	
	%age of population suffering from these disease	Diseases	%age of population suffering from these disease	Diseases
Poor	20	Allergy, joint pain, Asthma, Stomach Problem	9.09	Kidney Failure, Stone Pain
Marginally Poor	15.38	Lungs problem, kidney stone, breathing problem, Blood related disease	12.5	Diabetes, Cough & cold, Joint pain
Vulnerable	14	TB, Allergy, Asthma, Heart Problem, Cough & Cold, BP, Diabetes,	24.66	Regular Cold, Cough, BP, Heart Problem, Breathing, Kidney Problem, Stomach

		Migraine, Brain Problem		Problem, Joint Pain, Diabetes, Paralyses, Blood Disease, Asthma, Stone pain, Thyroid
LMIG	15.93	On bed, BP, Diabetes, Allergy, Joint Pain, Asthma, Hearing Problem, Thyroid, Heart problem	19.57	Paralysis, Joint Pain, Stone Pain, BP, Diabetes, Thyroid, Heart Problem
MMIG	14.81	BP, Diabetes, Allergy, Heart Problem	45.83	Thyroid, Asthma, BP, Joint Pain, Diabetes
UMIG	25	Arthritis, Diabetes, Cancer, BP	20	Asthma, BP, Survical

Table 2: Comparative Profile of Punjab and India on Incidence and Rate of Crime

	Punjab	India
Incidence of IPC* Crime	37162	2851563
Rate of IPC Crime	129.6	229.2
Incidence of Crime Against Body	11331	813745
Rate of Crime Against Body	39.6	65.4
Incidence of Crime Against Property	3248	600861
Incidence of Crime Against Public Order	63	85537
Rate of Crime Against Public Order	0.2	6.9
Incidence of IPC Economic Crimes	4073	142560
Incidence of SLL Crimes	7812	4377630
Rate of SLL Crimes	7.0	351.9
Incidence of Violent Crimes	4838	330754
Rate of Violent Crimes	17.2	26.6
Disposal Percentage of IPC Crime Cases by Police	55.1	71.9

Source: GoI, 2015, *Crime in India 2014 Compendium* (*IPC- Indian Panel Code)

Table 3: View on Tax Increment, Role of Government and Possible Solution for Reducing Poverty.

Do you Support/Oppose the Tax Increment by the Government	Rural	Urban	Rural+Urban
Support	43.04	52.04	46.58
Oppose	31.65	21.43	27.79
Don't Know	25.32	26.53	25.64
How you Evaluate Government Role in Providing Basic Facilities			
Too much	6.33	2.04	4.70
Too little	81.96	86.22	83.56
About the right amount	6.96	11.73	8.81
Don't know	4.75	0.00	2.94
Possible Solution of Poverty in your view			
Provide Employment opportunities	91.77	78.57	86.69
Provide Direct Cash Benefits	3.80	16.33	8.61
Provide Basic Necessities Through Lower Price Shops	4.43	3.57	4.11
Other	0.00	1.53	0.59