CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE PATTERN OF SCHEDULED CASTE HOUSEHOLDS OF KERALA: A STUDY OF IDUKKI DISTRICT

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CERTIFICATE

Certified that the thesis *"Consumption Expenditure Pattern of Scheduled caste Households of Kerala : A study o f Idukki District "* is the record of bonafide research work carried out by **Mrs. Celinkutty Mathew,** under my Supervision. The Thesis is worth submitting for the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy.**

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The economic status of a society or community refers to its position as to where it stands on the ladder of financial position. Most important determinants of economic status of a society are its per capita income, the standard of living, the level of consumption etc. Different indicators of the levels of living presents the "Macro" as well as "Micro" level dimensions of the process of development. While per capita income and per capita consumption expenditure are some of the macro level indicators of development, the distribution of household expenditure is a micro level indicator. The standard of living of a household can be understood from the consumption pattern, and the quality of consumption budget clearly indicate the level of welfare of the household. Food consumption pattern of household is an important barometer of individual welfare and well-being in any country.

Human life is ultimately nourished and sustained by consumption. World consumption has expanded at an unprecedented pace during the 20th century. The benefit of this consumption has spread far and wide. More people are better fed and housed than ever before. Living standards have risen. These achievements relate to human development through consumption. Consumption clearly contributes to human development when it enlarges the capabilities and enriches the lives of people without adversely affecting the well-being of others[1]

But the links are often broken, and when they are, consumption patterns and trends are inimical to human development. Today's consumption is exacerbating inequalities. And the dynamics of the consumption-poverty –inequality environment nexus are accelerating. If the trend continues without change - not redistributing from high income to low-income consumers, not shifting priority from consumption for conspicuous display to meeting basic needs – today's problems of consumption and human development will worsen.

Consumption must be (a.) shared: ensuring basic needs for all, (b) strengthening: building human capabilities, (c) socially responsible: so the

consumption pf some does not compromise the well being of others, and (d) sustainable: without mortgaging the choices of future generations.

Abundance of consumption is no crime. It has, in fact, been the lifeblood of much human advance. The real issue is not consumption itself but its patterns and effects. Consumption patterns to day must be changed to advance human development tomorrow. Consumer choice must be turned into a reality for all.

1.1 Consumption categories

Consumption categories are formed mainly on the basis of the commodities involved. Broadly speaking there are two categories: Food and non-food consumption. Consumption to gratify hunger and thirst needs is food consumption[2]. The consumption that is not related to the above but meant for satisfaction of health, education, travel and recreational needs is regarded as non-food consumption. However this categorization does not provide any idea about the essential and non-essential character of commodities in human consumption. We cannot say that non-food consumption meant for satisfying the needs such as clothing, shelter, health and education is non-essential.

There is yet another classification purely based on the types of needs. According to this classification we can distinguish between essential and non-essential consumption commodities. They are the categories of primary and secondary consumption. Primary consumption involves the fulfillment of needs that arise out of physiological bodily functions like thirst and hunger.[3] These needs are also called biogenic needs. Considering the basic nature, the needs for shelter clothing, health and education can also be included in the category of primary consumption, the secondary consumption comprises the gratification of a more sophisticated structure of physiological needs which relate to social, cultural and intellectual interests.[4]

Nevertheless, the above two categories remain inconclusive because human needs are of varied nature and subjective to the individual consumer. This inconclusive and subjective nature of needs creates constraints to form rigid and

exclusive categories of consumption. This conceptual fluctuation is the major limitation to studies pertaining to consumption.

1.2 Nature of Consumption

The dynamic nature of human needs gives consumption a dynamic character. Human needs are always subjected to continuous change. The dynamic character of consumption depends on the nature of the society and economy. Variations in consumption are visible in different societies, as there exists a difference in environmental, social, economic and cultural contexts. Human wants get transformed as the society grows and in turn cause substantial changes in the outlook of the people towards consumption of commodities.

1.3 Factors affecting consumption options

Individual consumers are assumed to be in the best position to judge their own needs and preferences and to make their own choices. It is fair to presume that people know what they are seeking and have reasons for their preferences when they opt for one consumption pattern over another.

Before being able to make any such decisions, however, the consumer must at least be presented with choices. Yet millions of people face too narrow a range of consumption options, which prevents them from enlarging their capabilities. The existing distribution of consumption options points to serious shortfalls affecting people in every society who lack access to a range of essential goods and services. They may not be able to get enough food, may lack health care services or may have little access to transport beyond their own feet. There are many factors causing these constraints on consumption options. Income is not the only one. Other factors include the availability and infrastructure of essential goods and services, time use, information, social barriers and the household setting.

1.3.1 Income

Income is an important means of widening the range of consumption options, especially as economies around the world become increasingly monetized.

Income gives people the ability to buy diverse, nutritious foods instead of eating only their own crops, to pay for motorized transport instead of walking, to pay for health care and education for their families, to pay for water from a tap instead of walking for many hours to collect it from a well.

The increasing dependence of much consumption on private income means that changes in income have a dominant influence on changes in consumption. When incomes rise steadily consumption rises for most of the population. But for the same reason, when incomes decline, consumption also falls sharply, with devastating consequences for human well being.

1.3.2 Availability and infrastructure of essential goods and services

Consumption options depend on the range of goods and services available - from the market and state provisioning, from home production and common resources. Many of the most basic essential goods and services-water, sanitation, education, health care, transport and electricity-cannot be provided without an infrastructure.

Traditionally, these services have been provided first by the community and then by the state. As markets develop and the technology improves, the services increasingly are being provided by the private sector in areas where profit can be made. Yet it is still the state that must ensure that, by whatever means, access is available to all –rural as well as urban, poor as well as rich.

Even as markets increasingly take over services previously supplied by the state, there is complementarity between public and private goods. Yet in many countries and regions there is now a large and unhealthy imbalance, leading to great social inequality. This was the forceful thesis presented by John Kenneth Galbraith in his seminal work. The Affluent Society' about 40 years ago.

1.3.3 Time use

Opportunities to consume can be severely limited by lack of time. Women, spend many hours a day meeting the household's needs and have no time left for education, better health care or community activities. Similarly, overworked

labourers may receive an adequate wage, but they often work long hours and are denied the opportunity of regular leave.

1.3.4 Information

Information is the key to raising awareness of the range of consumption options available and enabling the consumer to decide which choices are best. Without information, there is no way of knowing what goods and services are available in the market, and what services are being provided by the state and are, by right, available to all. Advertising and public information campaigns play an important role in this respect.

1.3.5 Social barriers

Income cannot always remove barriers to access to opportunities. This is particularly so when considerations of gender, class, caste or ethnicity limit people's freedom to consume the goods and services they want. For example, people belonging to certain ethnic groups might be denied equal access to education, employment and other basic social services by the state, regardless of how much they earn.

1.3.6 The household- decision-making and upbringing

Much analysis of consumer decision-making assumes that the person making the decision is the one who will directly benefit from the consumption. This is far from the truth in many cases. A great deal of household consumption decision-making is in the hands of one person-often the mother or the father of the family. Although this may lead to good outcomes, it can also be a source of inequity within the family- Household values have a wider effect on the consumption options of individual members. The education and upbringing given to children early in life play a critical part in establishing their ability to make good use of the options available for living a full and fulfilling life. The remarkable expansion and diversification in consumption options have made it more difficult for consumers to make informed choices.

1.3.7 Globalisation and Consumption

As a result of increased purchasing power and opportunity to purchase, a change was manifest in the activity of consumption. The definition of what

constitutes a 'necessity' is changing, and the distinctions between luxuries and necessities are blurring.[5]

Globalisation is integrating not just trade, investment and financial markets; it is also integrating consumer markets around the world and opening opportunities. This has two effects –economic and social. Economic integration has accelerated the opening of consumer markets with a constant flow of new products. There is fierce competition to sell to consumers worldwide, with increasingly aggressive advertising. On the social side local and national boundaries are breaking down in the setting of social standards and aspirations in consumption.

As a consequence, a host of consumption options have been opened for many consumers –but many are left out through lack of income. And pressures for competitive spending mount. 'Keeping up with the Joneses' has shifted from striving to match the consumption of a next door neighbor, to pursuing the life styles of the rich.

Some disturbing trends are observed. Pressures of competitive spending and conspicuous consumption turn the affluence of some into the social exclusion of many. When there is heavy social pressure to maintain high consumption standards and society encourages competitive spending for conspicuous displays of wealth, inequalities in consumption deepen poverty and social exclusion.

1.4 Human Development in Kerala

The development experience of Kerala has been unique and reflects among several other things in its consumption patterns as well. It has received worldwide acclaim for its unique features often hailed as the " Kerala model of development". Admittedly, Kerala's development experience is unique in the sense that a high level of quality of life co-exists with a relatively low per capita income. This small state with a per capita income of about 160th of the per capita income of the United States and an unemployment rate of about five times of that of the U.S has achieved a level of development almost comparable to that the U.S in terms of achievements in health and education. Kerala, the southern most state in India, is widely acclaimed for its unique pattern of social development. Significant progress

accomplished by the state in many spheres of social life, serves as a model to many other societies. Education, health and demographic indicators are but a few examples of the nature of social development in Kerala.[6] No similar development has been witnessed in any other Indian States so far. The state has several distinctive socio, economic and demographic features. Very often Kerala is equated with other developed countries.

The quality of life of people in Kerala is much above the average for the country. Kerala is at the top in the country in human development. The Human Development Index in Kerala [0.638] is much higher than the same for India [O.472][7] Human Poverty has been estimated to reflect the level of deprivation. Kerala is far ahead in the Human Poverty Index [19.9] of even the economically better off States. The HPI for all India was 39.4.[8] The prevalence of poverty in Kerala and India shows that Kerala stood only next to Punjab and Haryana with 12.7% below poverty line while for All –India 26.10 % were below poverty line.

Notwithstanding the enviable progress and unique features, Kerala remains to be one of the poorer regions among the states in the Indian Union. With regard to per capita income and its growth rate Kerala's position is below the national level and that of many other Indian States. In terms of economic growth and industrial production the state is still backward. Contrary to the lack of economic growth, the living standards of the people of Kerala is comparatively high. What we see in Kerala is a paradox, poor economic growth and high standard of living. Consumption standard of its people is marked by a significant increase in the level of consumption, of both food and non-food commodities. Compared to all India and most of other states, people in Kerala allocate a considerable part of their income to the consumption of non-food and non-essential items. But in developed economies, such a trend was an outcome of industrialization. In those countries consequent upon industrial growth, the purchasing power of the people increased tremendously. This in turn improved both the level of consumption and the standard of living. Contrary to this experience of developed economies, Kerala society manifests, the same kind of consumption standards without any substantial production base.

1.5 Statement of the problem

The 20th centurie's growth in consumption, unprecedented in its scale and diversity has been badly distributed, leaving a backlog of shortfall and gaping inequalities. Consumption percapita has increased steadily in industrial countries (about 2.3% annually) over the past 25 years, spectacularly in East Asia (6.1%) and at a rising rate in South Asia (2.0%) Yet these developing regions are far from catching up to levels of industrial countries, and consumption growth has been slow or stagnant in others. The average African households today consumes 20% less than it did 25 years ago.

The poorest 20% of the world's people have been left out of the consumption explosion. Well over a billion people are deprived of basic consumption needs Inequality in consumption is stark. Globally, 20% of the world's people in the highest –income countries account for 86% of total private consumption expenditure-the poorest 20% a minuscule 1.3%. More specifically the richest fifth Consume: 45% of all meat and fish, and the poorest fifth 5, the richest 5th consume 58% of total energy and poorest fifth less than 4%, the richest 5th have 74% of all telephone lines, and the poorest fifth 1.5%, the richest 5th consume 84% of all paper, the poorest fifth of 1.1%, The richest 5th own 87% of the world's vehicle fleet, the poorest fifth less than 1 percent.

In India also the existence of large disparities in living standards between regions and between classes of people is found. Wide economic disparities have been observed between the rich and poor especially due to the low rate of economic change among the poor section of the population who generally fail to make use of the development programme. The inequalities that persist between poor people and rich women and men, rural and urban and among different ethnic groups are seldom isolate, instead they are inter related and over lapping. Now economic growth and industrial production has given rise to many serious problems. Widespread disparities are being observed in the levels of living of different sections of the society. The fruits of development have not been distributed equally among them.

All poor have not benefited equally from anti-poverty programmes. Certain sections of society especially the scheduled Castes[9] still suffer from vulnerability. They are victims of illiteracy and rampant poverty. The policy of protective discrimination was followed to reduce vast inequalities between the Scheduled Caste and other strata of society. The out come of social and economic reforms is uneven and far from satisfactory as far as achievement of the stated goals is concerned

In spite of the various Constitutional safeguards and all the different schemes for their upliftment the Socio economic condition of Scheduled Castes are found to be much lower than that of the rest of the society. According to the 1991 census, 64% of Scheduled castes are agricultural labourers, who, without having land possession, have to work as agricultural labourers for subsistence without any security.[10] And according to the Ninth Plan Draft Paper, the majority of Dalits (77%) are absolute landless in India[11] The Scheduled castes and Scheduled tribes constitute near about one fourth of the population in India but control only 17.9% of the agricultural land Around 87% of the Scheduled caste landholders belong to the category of small and marginal farmers.[12] Less proportion of land ownership keeps them in abject poverty, making them socially vulnerable

The condition of scheduled castes in Kerala has remained more or less similar to that in other States in spite of the Kerala model of development. Special provisions have been made for the socio-economic uplift of the Scheduled castes communities in Kerala from time to time since the promulgation of the Constitution of India. While the phase of progress of certain sections amongst Scheduled Castes is encouraging, that of certain other sections among them is very poor

The commission on the socio-economic conditions of the scheduled castes and scheduled Tribes in Kerala found that there are inter community and regional imbalances even among the Scheduled Castes in the state.[13] The findings of the survey had brought to light the deplorable conditions of scheduled castes in Kerala. It showed that the literacy among Scheduled castes was very much below the general level of literacy. It was found that there are many hurdles for their children to peruse their studies; the most important being the financial handicap. No appreciable change in their

occupation pattern was observed from that of the early times. They were found associated with only humiliating, inferior, unclean work. A large percent of them were either agricultural labourers or unskilled workers except in the case of certain castes which follow traditional occupation like cloth washing, basket making, and earthen ware making on the whole it is seen that very few are able to separate their bond with their age-old occupations and enter in to new areas of employment. The economic status of the Scheduled castes were found to be very poor. As per the survey most of the scheduled caste had no land of their own. Even in the case of those who owned their own land, the extent in most cases is 10 cents or so.

Regarding the nature and type of houses occupied by scheduled castes it was seen that less than 10% live in pucca houses. The schemes for giving grants and loans for the construction of the houses for them have not found made any appreciable impact on their environmental and living conditions.

The level of income of the Scheduled castes was found very poor. These households were engaged in low paying occupations and most of them do not get sufficient income for their subsistence. The socio economic survey showed that a large % of the households are getting Rs. 200 or less per month. The condition of the majority of the households is deplorable as revealed by the survey. A monthly income of Rs.200 or less means a per capita income of Rs. 40 or less as the average household size was more than five. Households below poverty line were found to be 50% in most of the Scheduled castes as per the report. Regarding investment the survey also found that no household or less than 5% have bank deposits. Majority of them being below the poverty line cannot naturally think of nothing but mere survival.

The survey also ascertained the items consumed by each household during one month. The items used by all the households are Cereals, Spices and Salt. Nutritious items like Egg, Milk, Ghee and other luxurious item are not found popular with these households. Even if they are having cattle or poultry the products were to be exchanged for other cheap varieties of food like Tapioca or other Tubers.[14] Their low-income levels compels them to remain in the low level of living.

In Kerala Scheduled Castes constitute 9.6 % of the total population while the % of agricultural land[15] they owned is 2.80%. Their average landholding was only 0.07 percent, which was significantly worse than the National average, with only the Punjabi Scheduled castes being behind in share of land holding. The national average of 0.49 hectares for Scheduled castes was significantly lower than that of the general population.[16]

Overall, monthly expenditure of Scheduled castes in Kerala was found about three-fourth of that of general population and this had fallen to 68.2 per cent for urban Scheduled castes in '87-88. Statistics on employment and unemployment showed that Kerala Scheduled Castes still suffer disproportionately.

Selected indicators of development for Scheduled castes show that the percentage of population below poverty line among them is much larger (36.43%) as compared to the general category of households (25.76) in Kerala.[17] Among them a large section of population continues to be out side the reach of development programs in spite of all the different schemes introduced for their upliftment. A successful implementation of the strategies of development for Scheduled castes in the last five decades would have by now reduced the socio, economic differentiates to a nearly zero level, but the reality is different. The trickle down theory has failed to raise the living standard of the poor and vulnerable section.

The economic disability imposed by poor asset possession and a host of socio-cultural features have rendered their participation in the development process less than average. The low-income level of Scheduled Castes compels them to remain in the low level of living. The findings of the report showed that the living conditions of the Scheduled caste s were very deplorable in the state as compared to that of the General population and 'Kerala model of development' had not made any appreciable impact on their lives.

1.6 Significance and Relevance of the study

Today Scheduled Castes are somewhat an enlightened lot but social inequalities still exist. A slow pace of reforms is taking place for improving their

condition though much work remains to be done to put them back into the mainstream society, and make them politically, socially and economically equal. There is a scarcity of good publication on the state of the Scheduled castes. Truly they have been marginalized as objects of our country rather than being treated as its subjects. Inspite of forming a large proportion of the population they have just been receiving minor reference in earlier studies.

There are not many studies of the consumption levels of Scheduled Castes at the macro level. This is because the National sample Survey organization, which is the only official agency that collects such data for the whole country, does not generally publish date separately for Scheduled castes.[18]

The Scheduled castes have been studied as Socio-economic group by several researchers such as Singh (1982) Joshi (1981), Subramanian and Deaton (1991).[19] They were mainly concerned with sociological and political aspects. Micro-level studies with a focus on economic aspects have been under taken by Sundari (1981), Saradamoni, Nayak (1984),[20] Bhattacharya (1986) and Sagar (1994).[21] Most of these studies are based on secondary data, like the Census, Reports of the Commission for SC/ST (1982).[22] Most of the few economic studies on the Scheduled caste concentrate on their educational and occupational structure and deal with its effects on their welfare.

While studies abound on the consumption expenditure among rural and urban households for various expenditure classes, little effort has been made to study the consumption expenditure pattern for Scheduled Castes in rural and urban sectors. The present study on the consumption pattern of these households in Kerala is an effort to collect research and evidence on their present conditions.

1.7 Objectives of the Study
   a) To examine consumption pattern among the SC population.
   b) To examine the differences in the average consumption expenditure of different decile groups of sample SC population.

c) To examine the consumption expenditure elasticity of items in the consumption basket of SC households.

d) To analyze the variations in expenditure of SC households on food, non-food and total expenditure.

e) To examine the association between consumption expenditure and variables such as income, education, occupation and area of residence.

1.8 Hypotheses

a) There is significant difference in the consumption elasticity of different items among SC households.

b) There is a significant difference in the average consumption expenditure of different decile groups.

c) There is significant association between consumption expenditure and income, education, occupation and area of residence.

1.9 Data and Sampling frame

A multi stage sampling procedure was adopted for selecting the sample units. Scheduled castes constitute 9.92 percent of the population of kerala While 10.98 percent of the rural population are SC's only 6. 96 percent in urban areas are SC's. In 6 districts of kerala viz., Idukki, Kollam, Palaghat, Pathanamthitta, Trichur and Trivandrum the percentage of SC population is higher than that of the state average From these districts Idukki district was selected at random using lottery method to study the consumption pattern of SC households. The district was divided into rural and urban areas with Panchayats constituting the rural areas and Municipalities constituting the urban areas. Panchayats with SC population greater than 10% were identified. From among them one Panchayat was selected at random. There being only one municipality in the district, that was selected for the study. In the selected panchayat and municipality, 5 wards each with the highest percentage of SC population were selected at random. Sample of 100 households were selected at random from the selected wards in both the Panchayat and Municipality, in proportion to the SC population in each ward. Thus primary data were collected from a total of two hundred households.

1.10 Methodology and Tools of Analysis

The present study of consumption expenditure pattern of scheduled castes in Kerala investigates the following aspects. (1) The consumption pattern among the Sc population (2) The average consumption expenditure of different decile groups of sample Sc population (3) The consumption expenditure elasticity of items in the consumption basket of Scheduled castes (4) The differences in the expenditure of Sc's between food, non-food and total expenditure (5) The association between consumption expenditure and variables such as income, education, occupation and area of residence.

1.10.1 To examine the consumption pattern among Sc population

Examination of consumption pattern among Scheduled caste population is done by analysing distribution of population by Monthly Percapita Consumption Expenditure, the movement in budget shares on each item of expenditure, distribution of total MPCE for food and non-food, rural urban differences in MPCE, consumption out of different sources namely purchases, home grown stock and gift or loan, changes in value of consumption, possession of durable goods among different MPCE classes, trends in average consumption expenditure and consumption pattern based on NSSO data for the period 1983-1993-94. Using primary data collected from 200 sample households. This was done separately for rural and urban samples.

1.10.2 To examine the average consumption expenditure of different decile groups of sample population.

Differences in consumption pattern of poorer and richer segments of population ranked by MPCE has been attempted by using appropriate deciles of the MPCE distribution of class limits. Separate sets of consumption estimates for different decile groups of sample population are presented. Thus differences in the consumption pattern of poorer and richer segments of the sample population (ranked by MPCE) is studied by examining the differences in their average MPCE on each item of expenditure namely food and non-food. This includes the average MPCE for 10 decile groups or classes of MPCE starting from bottom 10 percent and ending with

the top 10%. Graphical representation of consumption pattern of lowest and highest spending brackets is provided. Consumption pattern of the different decile groups are further studied by estimating proportion of expenditure on food and non-food items and comparing the results. This is done separately for rural and urban sectors.

1.10.3 To examine the consumption expenditure elasticity of items in the consumption basket of Sc households.

Consumption expenditure elasticity of each food and non-food items in the consumption basket of Sc Households is examined by using the Engel elasticity expenditure separately for the rural and urban sample. A detailed explanation of the Engel theory and the theoretical background of the present study are presented in the section 2.4 of chapter II. For the estimation of expenditure elasticity, four functional forms have been selected namely, linear, double log, log inverse, and log-log inverse functions.

a. **Linear:** $E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta E_j + u_j$

b. **Double log:** $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta \log E_j + u_j$

c. **Log Inverse:** $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta (1/E_j) + u_j$

d. **Log-log Inverse:** $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta \log E_j + \gamma \dfrac{1}{E_j} + u_j$

Where Eij is the MPCE of the ith item by j^{th} household Ej is the total monthly per capita expenditure of jth household. α, β and γ shows parameters to be estimated and u is the random disturbance term.

1.10.4 To analyse the variations in expenditure of Sc households on food, non food and total expenditure.

Examination of the relative shares of expenditures on each food and each non-food items among Schedule Caste households has been done by estimating Engel ratios based on primary data for rural and urban sample in general and also separately for different MPCE classes. First Engel ratios for each item of expenditure to total expenditure has been estimated for each item of food and non- food for rural and

urban sample separately. Then sample households have been grouped into 5 comparable expenditure classes. Engel ratio for each item of food, and non-food is estimated for each expenditure class. Further an 'F' test was carried out for finding out rural urban variation in the distribution of MPCE for food, non-food and total expenditure separately for the sample households.

1.10.5 To examine the association between consumption expenditure and variables such as income, education, occupation and area of residence.

Examination of the differences in the expenditure on non-food items among SC households belonging to different income levels, education levels, occupation categories and geographical regions has been done by finding out the association between Monthly Percapita Consumption Expenditure and each of those variables using 'χ^2' test. As per the results of the 'F test rural-urban differences were found not significant for food items and significant for non-food items and also for total expenditure. Hence association of MPCE to various determinants has been estimated by taking expenditure only on non-food items

For estimating association of income and expenditure on non-food items Scheduled caste households are classified in to three per capita income classes: lower class (Rs.1-400), Middle class (Rs.400-600), and upper class (Rs.>600). Besides sample households have been grouped into two per capita expenditure classes on the basis of expenditure on non-food items. The classes are Rs.1-200 and > Rs 200. χ^2 test was carried out to find association

For finding out the association between educational standard of the head of the household and expenditure on non-food, SC households are classified in to 3 groups on the basis of education of the head of the household namely, below. Std V, Std V – Std X, and >Std X. Similarly per capita expenditure on non-food was classified in to four categories, Rs.1-100, Rs.100-200, Rs.200-300 and >Rs.300. χ^2 test was applied to find association

For finding out association between non-food expenditure and occupation sample households are grouped into seven occupation classes in rural and urban

sectors. The % of households in each occupation category showed that a larger % of SC households fall in certain categories such as 'other labourers' and 'agricultural labourers' s in both rural and urban areas and the % in the other categories such as 'farmers', 'self-employed' and 'employed' were found comparatively much lesser. Hence for the purpose of finding the association between occupation level and expenditure on non-food items households of certain occupation categories with lower % of households in the sample are being clubbed together with the adjacent class. Thus the sample Scheduled caste households are classified in to 3 occupation categories on the basis of occupation of the head of the household: agricultural labour households, other labour households and salaried class households. Also the 200 sample households have been grouped into 4 per capita expenditure classes on the basis of expenditure on non-food items. The classes are Rs.1-100, Rs 100-200, Rs200-300 and >Rs 300. X^2 test was applied to find association between occupation and expenditure on non-food items.

To find the association between place of residence factor and per capita expenditure on non-food t he Sample scheduled caste households have been classified in to two categories based on their place of residence namely, rural and urban. The 200 sample households have been grouped into 4 per capita expenditure classes on the basis of expenditure on non-food items. The classes are Rs.1-100, Rs 100-200, Rs200-300 and >Rs 300. X^2 test was applied to find association between place of residence and expenditure on non-food items.

Per capita Expenditure on each food and non-food item has been studied for identifying necessary and luxury items in their consumption baskets. Possession of durable goods by scheduled caste households has been analysed to study the tendency of luxuries consumption among Scheduled castes.

1.11 Relevance of selecting Idukki as sample area.

As per census of India 2001 Scheduled castes constitute 9.91% of total population of Kerala. The Rural Urban distribution of Scheduled castes in Kerala shows that in all the districts the great majority of Scheduled castes live in rural

areas.[23] Of the total Scheduled caste population in the State 81.48% live in rural areas and only 18.52% live in urban areas.

Idukki district was chosen, as the area of study. Among the districts in Kerala Idukki district has the highest % of scheduled castes living in rural areas [namely 98%]. The distribution of Scheduled castes in the district is the most typical in comparison to that in the State. In Kerala while 11% of rural population are Scheduled castes; only 6.96% of population in urban areas is Scheduled castes. The proportion of Scheduled castes in total rural population is 14.98% and in urban areas 6.02 % in the district. Idukki is one among six districts in Kerala where the % of Scheduled castes is above the State average.

As per 2001 census the literacy rate of the District is 88.58 % with a male literacy of 92% and female literacy of 85%. Female literacy of Idukki District is very backward as compared to other districts. The literacy rate for Scheduled castes in the districts is only 74%. While the same for Scheduled castes in the State as a whole is 82.4%.

In the State among Scheduled castes 41.21% are workers and 58.79 non-workers. The % distribution of Scheduled caste population into main workers, marginal workers and non – workers in the different districts show that Idukki has the highest percentage [47.55%] of workers among Scheduled castes which is greater than the corresponding State average [41.21%]. In the district among Scheduled castes majority of workers belong to plantation works namely cardamom and tea plantations works. While the % of males in total workers in Idukki district is 53.51, that of females 41.57. For the State as a whole the corresponding figures are 50.96 and 31.73 respectively. The male and female work participation is the highest in the district among Scheduled castes in the State.[24] Hence Idukki district was selected to study the socio-economics status of Scheduled caste communities and their consumption pattern.

1.12 Profile of the study area

The forgoing analysis of secondary data in chapter IV, V has revealed that the Scheduled castes in India have a much lower income and hence lower consumption standards than the rest of the society.

The economic development of a region is conditioned by the economic and non-economic factors; the importance of latter has considerably increased in recent years. The attitude, motivations and composition of the community pay a predominant role in shaping the economic development of a region. Naturally, households with in a region differ in many respects, in location, in size, in occupational structure, in the average income, savings and living standards. All these characteristics economic, social and demographic in the aggregate, explain the differences among the various households. An extensive analysis to identify the relative importance of the factors determining the levels of income and consumption pattern has to deal with factors such as family composition, Education, age structure, occupational structure of the households etc. In other words the relation between income and consumption changes significantly from one household to another due to the interaction of these factors

The consumption pattern of general households in India and Kerala has been discussed using the available secondary data from different sources in chapter III for rural and urban areas. Chapter V has given analysis of consumption pattern of Scheduled caste households in India and Kerala based on data from NSSO for the period 1983 to 1999-2000. To examine the different objectives of our present study, primary data have been collected through a sample survey. The primary data so collected has been used in analyzing the following aspects in this chapter.

a. Socio Economic background of sample households.

b. Consumption pattern of Scheduled castes in the sample area.

Household is the unit of the study. The data were collected from the member of the family who made all the major expenses for the respective family. In most cases the member was the Head of the household. The concepts and definitions used in this study are the same as those followed by the National Sample Survey. Before discussing the results of this sample survey, this chapter gives a brief analysis of the salient features of demographic and socio-economic characteristics of sample areas and sample households.

1.13 Idukki. District.

1.13.1 General

"Idukku" means constriction. Periyar which is one of the largest rivers of Kerala, flowing through Idukki gorge formed between the two high massive rocks called "Kuravan" and "kurathi" the site of the gigantic Idukki arch dam. Idukki District named after the mighty Idukki Mala and also after the hydroelectric project, has been formed by carving out portions from the erstwhile Ernakulam and Kottayam Districts. The double curvature Arch Dam is the highest of its kind in Asia and in regard to heights it comes the second in the country. The district came into existence on 26th of January 1972. The District is Bounded on the north by Thrissur district and Coimbatore district of TamilNadu State, on the east by Madurai, Ramanad and Thirunelveli districts of Tamil Nadu State, on the south by Pathanamthitta district and on the west by Kottayam and Ernakulam districts. The district lies between 9 degree 15 minutes and 10 degree 21 minutes of north Latitudes and 76 degree 37 minutes and 77 degree 25minutes of Longitudes.

The district consists of Devikulam, Udumbanchola and Peermedu taluks of the erstwhile Kottayam district, and Thodupuzha taluk (excluding two villages Manjallore and Kalloorkadu) of the erstwhile Ernakulam district. Idukki the second largest district of the State has an area of 4517.9 Sq. Km which constitute 11.6% of the total area of the State

It extends by 115km.from south to north and 67km.from east to west.[25] This is a district of great natural beauty with large number of streams, Ereen wooded hills and forests, fertile valleys and luxuriant vegetation. The district headquarters at Painavu is formed in the Idukki project area. At the time of formation, the district headquarters started functioning at Kottayam and from there it was shifted to Painavu in Thodupuzha taluk in June 1976.

The district is highly heterogeneous in the matter of its people, in their culture, climate, cropping pattern, Physiographic features etc. Nearly 96% of the total area of the district comes under the high land area covered by rugged mountain ranges, hills and deep valleys. The district generates more than 50 % of hydroelectric

power of the State. Both rain-shadow and rain sodden areas exist in the district. A lowland area is totally absent in the district. There is only a small strip (4 %) of midland area towards the western part of Thodupuzha Taluk. As per official figures forests cover more than 50 % of the area of the district. But the actual area under forest may be around 30 % due to illegal deforestation. Perennial crops like cardamom, tea, rubber, ԝoconut, pepper etc dominate the agricultural sector. Area under paddy is very limited in the district.

District wise distribution of per capita income shows that among the districts of Kerala Idukki has the third largest per capita income, the first being Ernakulam and second Waynad. During 2001-02, however the lowest growth rate in per capita income was recorded in Idukki district. [8.6%].[26] Even though Idukki is having high per capita income, still it is the most backward of all the districts in Kerala in respect of the communication, Medical and Education facilities, developmental activities, power distribution, housing, and industrial development, the main reason being its isolation from the main stream of activity in the state.

1.13.2 History

We have very little authentic knowledge, which throws light into the ancient history of Idukki district. Even though there is no clear evidence whether men of the Paleolithic age lived here there is evidence of Stonage civilization.

Karikkode near Thodupuzha was the head quarters of Vadakkumkoor Raja. There is the remains of a fort at Karikkode. Near this fort there is a Devi temple said to have constructed by the Vadakkumkoor Raja. There is also another Temple by name Annamala Temple constructed in Chola style. The Church at Muthalakodam, near Thodupuzha is believed to have been constructed before 13th Century. The Ninnar Mosque near Karikkode is said to have been constructed by the Vadakkumkoor Raja for his Muslim soldiers. Thodupuzha was also a nerve center of business. There is historical evidence to prove that from ancient time onwards ivory, teak, rosewood, sandalwood, peacock etc., were exported to foreign countries.

Historians believe that Kuzhumoor, the capital of Chera Kings of the Sangam Age, is the Kumily in Peerumade taluk. It is assumed that portions of Meenachil taluk and the whole of High Range were included in the Thanthuzhynad under the Kulasekhara Empire (A.D.800-1102). For some time these regions were under the reign of the Thekkumkoor Kingdom. It was proved that Vennimala, one of the capitals of the Thekkumkoor Rajas, was in Idukki district. Manavikrama Kulasekhara Perumal established Poonjar Kingdom. Manavikraman brought Poonjar in Meenachil taluk and the High Range from the Thekkumkoor Raja. Thus major portions of Idukki district came under the rule of the Poonjor Raja.

Marayoor, Kanthalloor, Kizhanthaluva, Vattavada and Karayoor 'gramas' were believed to be part of ancient Anchanad on the north of High ranges. Kannan Thevar was the 19th Century tribal headman of Anchanad. It is said that travelers from Madhurai to the west coast passed through these villages and named these hills after him.

The modern history of the district starts with the advent of European planters to this region. In 1877 Kerala Varma, the Raja of Poonjar, sold 227 sq. Miles of Kannan Devan Hills to John Danial Munroe, a British planter. The tract was largely unexplored and covered with thick forests. There were no means of communications. In 1878 the Maharaja of Travancore confirmed the sale. J.D Munroe formed the North Travancore Land Planting and Agricultural Society.

The members of the society developed their own estates in various parts of the High Ranges. A.W Turnor at Devikulam area undertook the first cultivation in 1877. The pioneers tried many cropes such as Coffee, Cinchona, Sisal and Cardamom, before discovering tea as the crop best suited for this area. Tea was first planted by A.H Sharp at Parvathi, now in Seven Mallay Estate by clearing 50 acres on a dense forest. In 1895 Finlay Muir & Company now known as James Finlay and Company Ltd. purchased that area. The Kannan Devan Hills Produce Company Limited and the Anglo-American Direct Tea Trading Company Ltd. owned 28 estates in these areas.

With the entry of large business houses possessing capital and technical skill, the pace of development was accelerated. Experienced tea planters were brought from Ceylon and large areas were planted with tea. Roads were opened, transport organized, houses and factories built and production rose rapidly in the succeeding years. The Tea Companies for their industrial use initially constructed the Pallivassal Hydro-electric Project, the first Hydro-electric Project of the State. Later Messrs. Tata Finlay Ltd., companies incorporated in India, purchased the Tea Estates from them and are running them now, under the name Messrs. Tata Finlay Ltd. Their operations are mainly confined to Munnar - Devikulam area. After the implementation of the Land Reforms Act, about 70,000 acres of Kannan Devan Hills Village were resumed from the Company as excess land with out any compensation. It is also a bare fact which should not be forgotten that the deforestation process started in the High Ranges with the advent of Plantation industry by the end of 19th century. The ever green forests were totally destroyed and substituted with the present greenish carpet of tea leaves.

1.13.3 Administrative units

Under the revenue administrative system the district is divided in to two revenue divisions namely Devikulam and Idukki. The Devikulam revenue division consists of three Taluks namely. Devikulam, Udumbanchola and Peerumade and Idukki revenue division consist of Thodupuzha taluk only. There are 8 Development Blocks and 51 Panchayats in the district. There is only one Municipal town in the district that is Thodupuzha. Thodupuzha is the only Municipality.

1.13.4 Topography and Geographical features

Idukki, the hilly district of the State, has many unique topographical and geographical characteristics. There are 14 peaks in the district, which exceed a height of 2000 metres above M.S.L. Anamudi (Anamala) the highest peak south of Himalayas is in the District. The estimated height of the peak is 2817 metres. As the district lies mostly in the highland, it is covered with dense forest, steep hills, and deep valleys. Because of the undulating topography large area of the district is not suitable for scientific cultivation.

Periyar, Thaliar and Thodupuzhayar are the three important rivers of this district. Periyar that is 227 KM long is the second largest river of Kerala. It originates from Sivagiri in the southeast part of the district touching all the taluks of the district. The Periyar is harnessed at various points in its course for generating electricity and for irrigation purpose. There are a few natural lakes in the district. They are Eravikulam and Devikulam lakes in Devikulam taluk and Elavizhapunchira, in Thodupuzha taluk. Because of the peculiar topography, transportation and communication facilities are poorly developed in the district. Two types of the soil are found in the district. The highland area is covered by forest soil (Alluvial soil) and the other parts by laterite soil

The climate in the district undergoes a sudden variation as we go from west to east. The western parts of the district comprising midland area experiences moderate climate, temperature with minimum seasonal variation. The eastern parts of the district located in the highland have a comparatively cold climate with temperature varying between minus 1 degree C to 15 degree C in November/ January and 5degree C to 15 degree C during March/April. As common to other parts of the State, Idukki district also experiences both the southwest monsoon (Edavappathy) and North -East Monsoon (Thualavarsham)

1.13. 5 Area and Population.

A major portion of the area of the district (97 %) lies in the highland region. 87 % of the population of the district is in the high land region and 13 % in the midland region. This district has no low land and only Thodupuzha taluk has 184 sq.kms. of midland.

According to 2001 Census the population of Idukki district is 11,28,605 of which 566405 are males and 562200 are females. The sex ratio is 993 females per 1000 males. The sex ratio of the state as per the census report of 2001 is 1058. The sex ratio of the district is lowest among the districts except Waynad. Idukki is one of the two districts where sex ratio is in favour of males. Idukki district has the lowest density of population in the State. According to 2001 census the density of population in Idukki district is 252 as against 819 for the State as a whole.

This district accounts for 3.8 % of the State's population. In other words 3.8 % of total population of the State live in 11.6 % of the total area of the State. The density of population in the rural area of the district is 207 persons per sq.kms. The density of urban population of the district is 755 per sq. kms.[27] Idukki is one of the least populated districts. During the last decade population of the district has increased by 11.22 as against 14.32% for the State.[28]

While the % of total workers in the state as per Census 2001 was 32.3 that in the district was 43.3[29] The distribution of main workers in the district is different from that in the State as a whole. Among the main workers for the State as a whole 25.55% are agricultural labourers. Cultivators constitute 12.24%, Other services 15.18%, Trade and commerce 12.64% and manufacturing 12% But for the district, Live stock, Forestry Fishing, and plantation works account for 35.24%, Agricultural labourers 22.16%, and Cultivators 19.43%. There is no other category of workers in the district constituting more than 10% of main workers.[30] The work participation rate for the district is 38.75, for males 55.8 and for females 21.75. This is much higher than the work participation rate for the state of 32 and 50.54 males and 14.7 for females.

About 4 decades ago almost all the present growth centers in the highland region were thick forests. The migration to the highland region started before the formation of Kerala as a consequence to the 'Grow More Food Campaign' in the State, due to the pressure of land in the neighboring districts and due to the sponsorship of other agencies. Since most part of the district is covered with dense forests and plantations there is lesser area for habitation. There is also large- scale conversion of forest areas into arable lands for past two decades. The establishment of the gigantic Idukki Hydro-Electric Project in Thodupuzha taluk also has influenced the growth of population in the district. The inability of the industrial sector in the district and neighboring areas to absorb the labour force also acted as a catalyst for the large- scale encroachment of forest areas

1.13.6 Demography

Scheduled Caste population assumes some important position in the district. Idukki is one among the 6 districts of the State where the % of Scheduled Caste population is higher than that of the State average. As per 2001 Census 9.92% of the total population of the state belong to Scheduled Castes. While 15% of rural population of the district is Scheduled Castes only 6.02 % of population in urban areas are Scheduled Castes.[31] Of the total Scheduled caste population in the State 81.48% live in rural areas and only 18.52% live in urban areas.

Idukki is one of the districts in Kerala where linguistic minority exists. The linguistic minority of the district is mainly the Tamilian population, whose number will be more than two lakhs. They are mainly workers in the tea and cardamom plantations there has always been a harmonious atmosphere in all the areas where there are larger % of linguistic minorities, as is the tradition of Kerala from time immemorial.

Vazhathoppe Panchayat is one among the 6 Panchayats under the Idukki Block in Idukki district. There were 21 Panchayats with Scheduled caste population greater than 10% in Idukki district. As explained in Data and Methodology section one Panchayat was selected for the presented study. Similarly all the urban areas of the district were identified. There being only one Municipality in the district that was selected for the study. In the selected Panchayat and Municipality, 5 wards from each with the highest % of Scheduled caste population were selected. From the list of scheduled castes from the wards, Sample of 100 households each were selected at random from the Panchayat and Municipality, in proportion to the Scheduled caste households in each ward. The basic demographic indicators of the sample area is given in Table 1.1

Table 1.1 Demographic indicators of sample area

Area	Area in sq.km	Density of population	Sex ratio	Population			Literacy rate			Work participation rate		
				P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Idukki District	5019	252*	993*	1128605*	566405*	562200*	88.58*	92.11*	85.04*	38.75	55.8	21.75
Kerala State	38863	819	1058*	31838619*	15468664*	16369955*	92	94	88	32.1	50.5	14.7

Source: Census of India 2001. paper 3. Kerala.

Table 1.2 Demographic indicators of Scheduled castes

Area	Sex ratio for Sc's	Sc population in 2001			Literacy			Work participation rate		
	P	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Idukki District	1014	16407764	81460	82630	73.98	82	65.85	47.55	54.2	41.57
Kerala State	1050	3158143	1539979	1618051	82.4	85.59	75.88	41.31	53.82	30.77

Source: Census of India 2001, paper 3, Kerala.

Table 1.3 Demographic indicators of Scheduled castes in the study areas

Area	Sex ratio for Sc's	Sc population in 2001			Literacy			Work participation rate		
	P	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
Vazhathoppe Panchayat	978	1802	882	920	74.32	76.8	71.89	40.22	54.62	23.87
Thodupuzha Municipality	1028	1869	903	966	74.23	75.87	72.69	36.26	52.64	19.38

Source: Census of India 2001, paper 3, Kerala.
(* Indicates Provisional Results)

This Panchayat comes under Idukki Block, which is in Thodupuzha Taluk. The Panchayat is bounded by Kanjikuzhy Panchayat in North, Arakkulam, Velliamattom and Udumpannoor Panchayats in South, Mariyapuram Panchayat in East and Udumpannoor and Kanjikkuzhi Panchayats in West.

28% of the total geographical area of the Panchayat is forest area. Agriculture is the main occupation of the people in the Panchayat. The crops are Cardamom. Pepper, rubber coconut, cocoa, paddy, coffee, ginger tapioca, banana, Vegetables etc.

The Panchayat has a total area of 199,84 Sq.Hector. The total Scheduled Caste population of the Panchayat is 1723, which constitute 10% of the total population of the Panchayat. The no. of males are 851 and that of females 872. In Vazhathoppe Panchayat there are 2 Scheduled castes colonies with a total of 50 Scheduled caste households.[32]

The sex ratio of the district is 993 and that of the State is 1058. The sex ratio of the Panchayat is 978. The density of the Panchayat is 87 per sq.km. The literacy rate in the Panchayat is 92.65, male literacy is 94 and female literacy is 88.[33]

The work participation rates in the Panchayat is 40, the rate for males is 57 and for females 22. The % of main workers in total workers is 88.71. The % of marginal workers is 11.29.[34]

Thodupuzha Municipality has an area of 35.43 sq.kms. The Municipality has a density of 1148 per sq.kms.[35] The total Scheduled Caste population of the Municipality is 1869, which constitute 5% of the total population of the Municipality. The number of Scheduled caste males is 903 and the number of Scheduled castes females 966.[36] The sex ratio[37] of the Municipality is 1003. Kerala is gender sensitive. Kerala is the only State where sex ratio is above the equality rate –breaking records of 100 years with 1058[38]

The literacy rate of the Municipality is 94% with 96% for males and 91% for females.[39] The literacy rate is much higher than that of the district. The work participation rate is 31 for total population and 51 for males and 11 for females.[40] The % of main workers is 97.27%. The % of marginal workers is 2.73. It is a second grade Municipality. There are 2 Scheduled castes colonies with 76 Scheduled caste households. The Municipality comes under Idukki block, in which there are 15 Scheduled caste colonies with 311 Scheduled caste households.

1.14 The Plan of the study

The broad arrangement of the study is as follows:

a. The first chapter introduces the topic of the study emphasizing the relevance of the study and also profile of the study area

b. The second chapter contains the review of various related studies and the theoretical framework.

c. The third chapter is devoted to the consumption pattern of General households in India and Kerala other than Scheduled Castes

d. The fourth chapter gives a brief profile of the scheduled caste community in Kerala.

e. The fifth chapter is devoted to the consumption expenditure pattern of Scheduled Castes in Kerala using the secondary data.

f. The sixth chapter is devoted to the analysis of primary data regarding the consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in Idukki district using statistical tools.

g. The last chapter deals with the summary of the findings and conclusions of this study.

1.15 Limitations of the study

The major limitations of the study on Consumption Pattern of Scheduled Caste households is that the quality of the estimates depends on the reliability of the data collected on each item of expenditure may have errors due to memory lapses of the respondents since no attempt was done to collect data by providing prior information for respondents regarding the survey Besides errors arising out of lack of co-operation of the respondents, deliberate understatement, overstatement or evasion of information etc might have affected the results.

In the analysis of consumption expenditure pattern no provision was made for differences in household size and, age structure of sample households. Expenditure patterns have been compared ignoring these household characteristics

There may be wide differences between consumption pattern of the different sub groups within the scheduled castes which has not been attempted.

NSS data on consumer expenditure is likely to have non-sampling errors and biases in various degrees. It is very difficult to assess the quality of NSS data especially in the absence of comparable other sources of data. Any discussion of the accuracy of NSS estimates will require a great deal of further research.

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belonging to other social groups was provided by the NSS 38th round enquiry (January-December 1983) which provides a firm basis for assessing the levels of living of the Scheduled Castes, for all India and various states. Besides NSSO over its 43rd and 50th rounds i.e., (July 1987- June 1988) and (July 1993-June 1994) has provided data on consumer expenditures of Scheduled Castes. Unfortunately NSS did not publish data on the consumer expenditures of Scheduled Castes for its latest rounds viz.55th round that is 1999-2000.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND

THEORETICAL FRAME WORK

This chapter contains the review of the various related studies and the theoretical framework.

2.1   Review of related studies

Consumption is the predominant component of aggregate demand in an economy. For this reason consumption behaviour occupies a central position in modern macro theory. Consequently the subject has been widely discussed in the literature. This section reviews briefly the various developments in consumption theories. The review is done under two heads for better understanding.

(a)   General studies on consumption pattern

(b)   Studies on consumption pattern of scheduled castes.

2.2   General studies on consumption pattern

Report (2002) based on Household Budget Survey Data analysed expenditure pattern in Mauritius. Consumption options were found to have widened. The study showed that: average household monthly expenditure registered a rise of about 31%, from Rs 8,172 in 1996/97 to Rs. 10,725 in 2001/02; A lower % of budget was found devoted to food consumption and changing consumption patterns reflected changing life styles and improved living conditions. Prepared meals, frozen sea products, milk preparations and canned vegetables ere found assuming greater importance within the food category; Increased importance in the household budget of items such as electricity cooking gas, refrigerator, washing machine and washing materials were observed, while rent and water charges decreased significantly; personal transport expenditures increased by 50% percentage points while the weight of bus fare showed a slight decrease.[1]

Pendakur (2001) estimate the poverty rate as the proportion of individuals who have consumption - rather than income - lower than the absolute poverty line

based on survey data. Here, consumption was adjusted for differences in the prices faced by, and demographic characteristics of, different households. As with income poverty measures, the consumption poverty rate was found declined over the 1970s and 1980s however, the 1990s, the consumption poverty rate increased by more than half between 1992 and 1998.[2]

Murthy (2001) re-examined the usefulness of the linear expenditure system vis-a-vis two other flexible models viz. Nasse expenditure system, a generalization, of the linear expenditure system itself, and almost ideal demand system in the context for India. The above three models were extended by incorporating dummy variables representing three income groups, rural urban sectors and their interactions; one demographic variable namely household size and time trend variable representing consumer taste & preference in to the appropriate demand model parameters. National Sample Survey data on consumer expenditure for five quinquennial rounds are used for estimating the above models. Seven broad commodity groups are used in the analysis. The empirical result show wide variation in marginal budget shares and demand elasticity across income groups, rural urban sectors and alternative models. The household size and consumer taste & preferences are found to be statistically significant. The results have confirmed the earlier findings that there are significant changes in consumer tastes away from cereals and pulses in favour of other food.[3]

Deaton (2000) examined poverty and inequality in India considering related evidence from C.S.O, National Accounts Statistics and N.S.S.O. It was found that per capita expenditure grow more rapidly across already better of states than the poorer states. Rural urban disparities of per capita expenditure were found to have increased, also inequality with in urban areas. Examination of other indicators of living standards such as literacy rate, nutritional levels, health achievements, it was found that social progress has been uneven across the different fields. Significant increase in economic inequality is found.[4]

Andrew (2000) using annual time series data for Indian state examined the relation ship between average household living standard and inequality. Causality tests are applied to investigate the relationship between household consumption and

subsequent inequality on the one hand and initial inequality and subsequent consumption on the other. Lower inequality has generally been associated with higher future consumption levels, but urban sectors of some state's consumption is positively correlated with subsequent inequality.[5]

The household expenditure survey (1999) on the expenditure pattern of households in Malaysia to determine the goods and services to be included in the basket of the Consumer Price Index. The findings showed an increasing trend on consumption expenditure by households in Malaysia between the periods 1973-1989. Results show that about 80% of the household's expenditure is spend on four main groups namely food, rent, fuel and power transport & communication, and miscellaneous goods and services which includes food and beverages away form home. On an average households living in urban areas spent 1.5 times higher then households living in rural areas.[6]

Young (1998) identified household consumption expenditure patterns in the US to determine if these patterns were different from those of Korean households using household survey data. Data were cluster analysed, and the results revealed four different consumption expenditure patterns for US and Korean households. Logit analysis showed that consumption expenditure patterns of households in both countries were likely to vary depending on socio-economic factors. Similarities and differences in consumption expenditure patterns between cultures were discussed, and implications were provided.[7]

Maifi (1993) used NSS data for the period 1953-54 to 1989-90 to study the incidence of urban poverty. The inter temporal change in inequality in urban consumption expenditure had been analysed on the basis of Lorenz ratios of size distribution of per capita expenditure. It is found that the average per capita expenditure in nominal terms both for the poorest and richest 20% of urban population has registered a substantial increase in the late 1980's compared to the early 1950's. The poverty measure head count ratio and Sen index showed that the percentage of people below poverty line increased up to the mid 1960's and then declined very sharply till latest NSS round.[8]

Sooryamoorthy (1993) identified the significance of certain socio-economic and geographical variables that have an enhancing role in the new trend of consumerism in Kerala. Developing an operational definition of the concept of consumerism he empirically tested the relevance of the chosen variables at the micro level. The study pertained to lower and middle-income classes and was based on data collected from households.[9] The per capita expenditure classification showed that 80% of the population fall under the broad per capita monthly expenditure class of Rs.101-600 and the rest above Rs.601. consumption items like beverages, refreshments and processed food, clothing and footwear are chosen for the analysis and expenditure incurred on these items were analysed to find the influence of independent variables namely income, occupation, educational standard and geographical factors. It was found that the role of the independent variables on influencing the expenditure pattern of the respondents varied from item to item. The variables income, occupation and education were found to enhance the expenditure on all the chosen items. Except in the purchases of beverages, refreshments and processed food, the level of consumption in both rural and urban areas of Kerala remains similar. The study identifies the middle-income class, the employed in regular salaried jobs and the well educated as the category of consumers who spend conspicuously on the items under study.

Burney (1992) examined household consumption patterns in Pakistan by estimating three different functional forms of the Engel curve, namely linear, double logarithmic, and Working-Leser, for six different income groups. Using household level data for the year 1984-85, the study focused on the impact of household-size and household composition on expenditure patterns. Estimates indicated that the coefficients corresponding to total household expenditure follow a cyclical pattern across different income groups. This was explained in terms of quantitative as well as qualitative changes in the consumption basket. It also pointed to the existence of economies of scale in the consumption of some of the commodities. The economies of scale were not only different across commodities but also vary widely across income groups. The evidence further highlighted that, in general, the composition of the households did not had a significant impact on the consumption patterns in Pakistan.[10]

Sen (1990) analysed the trends in consumption expenditure for the period 1950-51 to 1982-83 in the Indian economy using NSS data for total consumption expenditure. The long-term tendency at constant prices for all expenditure classes is almost constant though the amplitude and frequency fluctuations increase as we move to higher expenditure groups.[11]

Ravallion (1990) measured the effects of shifts in budget constraints or household parameters on under nutrition using household level data collected by National Socio-Economic survey, the Central Bureau of Statistics on calorie consumption, incomes, price, and other household characteristics. The study estimated the calories intake functions and used them to stimulate the effect of income changes on various measurers of calorie under nutrition.[12] From the results it follows that inter household variation in reference to calorie consumption was due solely to differences in the price and income parameters of household budget constraints. Even though rural-urban inequality tended to be pronounced; the urban, rural sectors have similar levels of calorie under nutrition.

Minhas' (1990) study for the period 1970-71and 1987-88 used NSS data and adjusted price relatives of consumer price index series for agricultural labourers of rural areas and the combined price relatives data of consumer price index for industrial workers and for non-manual employees for urban areas. For rural and urban India taken together the incidence of poverty declined from 56..3% in 1970-71 to 48.1% in 1983 and further to 45.9% in 87.88.[13]

Birchenhall (1989) concentrates on the seasonal structure of quarterly non-durable consumers expenditure. The study was concerned with empirically investigating the seasonal nature of aggregate non-durable consumer's expenditure in the United Kingdom for the period of 1963-84.[14] The seasonal consumption model was based on a short-run process of adjustment to a long-run or desired level of consumption. Evidence had been presented that the long run income elasticity of consumption and its rate of adjustment to equilibrium both vary seasonally.

Dissanayake et.al (1988) estimated systems of Engel curves for the SriLankan economy considering expenditure on all non-durable goods and with

special importance to the important category of food expenditure. The study analysed cross section per capita household expenditure using the data of 1981-82 survey reported by Central Bank of Ceylon. The study has estimated complete Engel systems for non-durable expenditure categories and also individual food sub categories.[15]

Behrman et,al (1987) explored the case of malnutrition and compared directly reduced form elasticity estimates for major food expenditure with those for major nutrients. The study has made use of data from International Crop Research Institute. The findings showed that increase in income will result in substantial improvements in nutrients intakes.[16]

Mukhopadyay (1987) examined the nature of inter-state differences in the expenditure patterns of rural households. The analysis covers three item groups viz cereals substitutes, all food and all non-food.[17] To examine the nature of inter state differences in expenditure patterns pair-wise analysis of covariance test has been applied to item-specific Engel curves for each pair of States. The state-wise average elasticities for different items have also been examined. On obtaining significant inter-state difference in item specific expenditure patterns investigation had been made to examine how far the observed differences in expenditure patterns could be explained by the variations in the item-wise cash expenditure patterns across states. The study reveals that the expenditure patterns of rural households in India for cereals and cereals substitutes and all food items as reflected by Engel elasticities and ratios are considerably different across states.

Gupta (1986) examined the aggregate consumption behaviour and trends in consumer expenditure using C.S.O. estimates of private final consumption expenditure for the time periods 1950-51 through 1978-80. The study applied the Ordinary Least Square to estimate various parameters of different consumption functions.[18] M.P.C. had been found to vary between 0.84 and 0.90 for the reference period of 30 years. The MPC's are found to be very high for food items relative to those of non-food items. The computed elasticities indicate that food items were necessities while most non-food items behave as luxuries and semi-luxuries. The estimated equations show the unexpected positive effect of prices on consumer expenditure on non-food items. The

food items had negative price elasticities. Sectoral distribution show that MPC declines with sectoral shifts in favour of agriculture.

Savant (1982) has made an assessment of relative position of the extent of poverty by analysing the state of nutrition in different states of India. The assessment of extent of under-nutrition and malnutrition was based on the state wise information relating to the intake of calories and proteins given in the NSS report 26th round. In defining poverty-level-income separately for different states the study noticed absence of uniform pattern of consumption behaviour over different levels of prices of the specified commodities faced by consumers in different income groups with in the same region. Besides the composition of commodities varied over the states and even over the income classes with in a state. The results showed that most of the states had about 20 to 40% of their population severely under nourished.

Sharma (1982) assesses the extent of rural poverty by applying the normative approach to the National sample survey consumer expenditure data of 1972-73 and 73-74. By deflating/inflating the poverty line expenditure he worked out the value of poverty index per capita per month to be Rs.46.50 and Rs.55.86. The extent of rural poverty on the basis of the value of poverty index for 1972-73 and 73-74 has been calculated equal to 31.53% and 47.01% for the two years respectively.[19]

Mukherjee and Kishore (1982) by using the NSS data of consumer expenditure for the year 1973-74 calculated the value of minimum calorie requirement that is 2400 calorie per person per day to be Rs.37.54 per capita per month and the percentage of rural poor falling below this minimum was worked to be 45.65%.[20]

Joher et.al(1982) analysed consumption pattern to estimate expenditure elasticities of demand for different commodity groups. Using the data from NSS reports pertaining to 21st and 28th rounds the study examined the inter-regional and inter-temporal variations in consumption pattern.[21] The study has experimented with three forms of Engel functions namely linear, semi log and double log for all commodity groups. Covariance analysis has been applied to study inter regional and inter temporal variations in the consumption pattern. The study showed that the expenditure elasticities of demand for non-food items to be almost double than those

of food items. With in the food group relatively high elasticities were observed for quality food items viz meat, fish etc. With in the non-food group the expenditure elasticities for clothing, durables etc. are more elastic than for fuel and light in both areas. Both rural and urban households exhibited changes in their consumption behaviour between two periods. Also tastes and preferences have been found to change significantly during the two periods.[22]

Adam (1980) examined poverty based on house budget survey data budget shares for four groups of commodities and household demographic attributes. Expenditure on consumption per equivalent adult is considered as individual welfare measure. Household equivalence scales were estimated using quasi-exact scales trans logarithmic model. Poverty indices were calculated to examine poverty gap, social ability to eliminate poverty by income transfers and inequality among poor. The study used head - count ratio defined as proportion of households with equivalent expenditure below poverty as poverty measures.[23] Poverty indices have been calculated for selected socio - demographic groups. A significant change in poverty were noticed with persistent poverty resulting for pensioners, farmer's and low educated persons.

Saha (1980) presented estimates of Engel elasticities for 101 items of consumption separately for rural and urban India using NSS budget data. Iyengar's (1960-64) method of estimation based on the use of generalized concentration curves had been used along with method of weighted least squares for finding Engel elasticity of items. The estimate seems to vary, though slightly, from one method to the other. However the ordering of commodities on the elasticity scale is found to be approximately the same by all methods.[24] An inter temporal comparison of elasticities over three different NSS rounds found the Engel elasticity to be more or less stable across NSS rounds.

Many studies have examined the time trends in inequality in the distribution of per capita consumption expenditure in both Urban and rural sectors in India. In a detailed study Radhakrishna et.al (1976) found inequality in nominal consumer expenditure to have declined in the urban sector during 1952-53 to 1968-

69. In addition the percentage shares of various fractile groups in the distribution of population by nominal PCE also showed a clear decline in disparities overtime.[25]

An attempt at relative behaviour of consumption levels and their distribution have been made by Chatterjee and Bhattacharya (1974), which traced the relative movements in the per capita nominal consumption levels in rural and urban sectors for the period 1951 to 1967-68. Chatterjee and Bhattacharya (1974) examined disparities in rural level of living. The concentration curves of the NSS round-wise size distributions of populations by per capita total consumer expenditure were studied for rural and Urban India and their shifts over time. Analysis of disparities in the average per capita household consumption between rural and urban India overtime revealed reduction in disparities in the size distribution of per capita consumption expenditure. Between state differences in per capita household consumption had been analysed using Kuznet's index and Lorenz ratio. The study showed that no clear trend prevails in rural urban disparities in nominal consumption levels.[26]

Vaidyanathan (1974) computing state-wise Lorenz ratios of consumption on the basis of NSS data for 4 rounds found that the extent of inequality had no strong consistent relation to per capita consumption nor were the relative levels of inequality stable overtime. The point about the differences in estimates of inequality between those based on real consumption was made first in the rural Indian context by Vaidyanathan (1974). Which was then proved valid in both rural and urban contexts by Radhakrishna et.al(1976). These two studies cover the period from 1952-53 to 1968-69.

Bhattia (1974) using data of Labour Bureau studied consumption pattern of industrial workers. The average monthly income per family of industrial worker for the state and average monthly expenditure were estimated. The average monthly income was found marginally higher than average monthly expenditure. Consumption expenditure for food items consolidated 60% of total consumption expenditure.[27]

Chatterjee (1974) constructed indices of consumer price differentials between rural areas of different states in India using household budget data from NSS. The household budget data were used for estimating weights as well as average prices of 56 items of the household budget Laspayers, Pasche's and Fisher's indices

were computed for comparing the price level in each state with that in every other state and all India.[28]

Vaidyanathan (1974) has studied the pattern of inequalities in per capita consumption levels at the national level by principal occupational and land holding categories and by household size. The changes in the degree of consumption inequality by states and all India over the period 1958-59 to 1967-68 have been examined. Using Lorenz ratio the study has measured the extent of inequality in rural living standards.[29] A comparison of the estimates of consumption inequality in rural areas as from the Rural Saving Survey of NCAER and those from the NSS data have been carried out. The over all inequality coefficients for land holding found to be much higher than for consumption, that is the disparities in living standard were appreciably less than the disparities in land holding. Multiple regression analysis used to examine the relative influence of land holdings and family size on per capita consumption found a positive correlation between land holdings size and per capita consumption and also a negative correlation between family size and per capita consumption. Study of inter state disparities in consumption expenditure shows that average per capita consumption is below the national average in seven states in India. The inequalities in aggregate income and consumption were influenced by the distribution of income from animal husbandry and also non-agricultural activities.

Panikar (1972) has worked out a series of models for deriving minimum cost diets taking into account the local availability and use of food items. To him a nutritionally adequate diet suggested by the National Advisory committee for the whole India is not likely to be very useful basis for formulation of economic policy relating to the eradication of poverty or malnutrition. Panikar (1979) conducted study of agricultural labour households in Kerala to examine the level of employment and food in take among them. The study found that the incidence of under nutrition and malnutrition is a reflection of a very low level of income, which in turn is due to inadequate employment opportunities.[30]

B.M. Mahajan (1971) examined the validity of the assumption of inter - regional homogeneity of consumer behavior with in the compass of regional household consumption data by analyzing the structure and pattern of consumption

for 6 population zones in India using NSS data. per capita formulation of log linear Engel curve has been fitted to data pertaining to rural and urban communities and the method of weighted regression analysis with the number of persons in each class as weight has been used. The results revealed considerable inter - regional variations in the structure and pattern of consumption.[31]

Murthy (1971) analysed consumption pattern utilizing NSS data on consumption. Temporal stability of Engel curves were noticed for almost all the commodity groups in rural sector with an exception of 'other non- food'. In the urban sector the instability of parameters of Engel curve is noticed for almost all the commodity groups with an exception of milk and milk products, food total and clothing.[32]

Mehta (1971) by using the NSS data analysed the differences in the elasticity of consumption expenditure of different commodities with respect to income groups in rural and urban. India The expenditure elasticity except for fuel and light was found more in rural areas than in urban areas. The expenditure elasticity of food grains decreases with increasing total expenditure in urban areas. Elasticities for different items showed interesting contrast in rural and urban areas.[33]

NCAER estimated elasticities of demand for selected agricultural commodities after conducting an all India survey on consumer behavior in the late fifties. They used the estimated elasticities of demand for demand projections.[34]

V.M.Dandekar and N.Rath (1971) used NSS consumption expenditure data in their study of poverty in India and defined poverty line as the expenditure at which average calorie intake was 2,250 calories. As per the study the highest incidence of poverty was seen in Kerala. 90.75% of rural population was found under poverty in Kerala. Kerala also found to have topped in urban poverty with 88.89%.[35]

Chakravarthy et.al(1970) by using data of village surveys examined whether the absolute income level of the household or its income trend is more significant in determining its consumption and investment pattern. They concluded that investment has stronger relation with the income trend than with the income

level. The expenditure on durable consumer goods has stronger affinity with both the income level and income trend. Borrowing and sale of asset also have a stronger relation with trend than with the income level, perhaps to bridge the gap between rising consumption standard and stagnant income.[36]

Bardhan (1970) attempted to assess the change in incidence of poverty between 1960-61 and 1967-68 and concluded that proportion of population falling below a specified minimum consumption standard has increased sharply.[37]

Minhas (1970) portrayed an opposite conclusion and found that the proportion of population below a specified minimum has consistently declined over 1960's. The divergent conclusion appeared to be partly a reflection of differences in the methods of adjusting for price changes, but primarily due to divergent estimates of changes in real consumption.[38]

The incidence of rural poverty in different parts of India over time had been a matter of great interest. Minhas (1970) and Vaidyanathan 1974 have tried to reconstruct the distribution of the entire population by levels of real consumption and then estimate the population falling below the poverty line, also defined in prices of the same base year. Vaidyanathan's study showed that in explaining inter-state variations in consumption inequalities, distribution of land holdings is an important variable and proportion of rural income from animal husbandry is not a significant variable. Proportion of irrigated area is inversely related to consumption inequalities. On the other hand in an attempt to identify the rural poor, Minhas (1970) found that out of the 164 million people below poverty line in 1960-61, around 60 million belonged to rural labour household and of the rest a major chunk belonged to cultivator households with small operational holdings.

Ojhas's study on poverty (1970) looks at both rural and urban poverty for 1960-61 and at rural poverty only for 1967-68. Adopting a calorie norm of 2250 per capita per day for an average Indian, he assumed that 66 percent of this must be obtained from food grains, cereals and pulses in Urban areas, 80 percent was the corresponding figure for the rural sector. These percentages worked out to 518 g.m and 432 g.m per person per day in rural and urban areas respectively Ojha adopted

these standards for studying the incidence of poverty and found that nearly 51.8 percent of all persons in rural areas and 7.6 percent in urban areas fell below the poverty line. For the year 1967-68 he concluded that 70 percent of the rural population were below the minimum level of food grains consumption.[39]

Changes in the distribution of income and consumption over the period 1950-65 have been explored by Mukherjee and Chatterjee (1967).[40] It sought to assess trends in inequality on basis of NSS data as well as the behaviour of inter sectoral disparities as revealed by national income estimate. Mukherjee and Chatterjee concluded that "..........reckoned at current price, there appears to be some reduction in the disparities of the distribution consumption expenditure during the period covered both with in urban and rural areas and for the country as a whole". However in rural areas they found a tendency for disparities to increase.

A study by the distinguished study group appointed by the government of India (1962) recommended that a per capita consumption of Rs.20 per month (Rs.240 per year) at 1960-61 prices (excluding expenditure on health and education) should be deemed as the nationally desirable level of consumer expenditure.[41]

Iyengar (1960) computed Engel elasticities from concentration curves using NSS data.[42] Iyengar (1964) extended the method for estimating Engel elasticities based on grouped data from NSS reports.

H.S Houthakker (1957) compared elasticities of food, clothing, housing and miscellaneous items with respect to total expenditure and family size using data from surveys conducted in 30 different countries. Regression analysis was used. Money expenditure was used as the dependant variable rather than quantities used by households. Households were cross-classified by income or total expenditure and family size. It was found that the elasticities of four main items of expenditure with respect to total expenditure as similar (but not equal). And that the elasticities with respect to family size were rather similar (but also unequal) for food and miscellaneous items and irregular for clothing and housing.[43] The results were in conformity with Engel's Law.

A study on consumption pattern in India was made by Roy et.al (1954). Using National Sample Survey data on consumer expenditure, they estimated the demand elasticities with respect to per capita household expenditure.[44]

Stone analysed the pattern of demand for consumer's goods relating to United Kingdom over the years 1920-38 on the basis of annual data. Investigation on different group's of consumers expenditure, quantities bought and prices paid were conducted. To analyse demand the study has applied Linear Expenditure System, which is compatible with three conditions imposed on demand systems. ie. additivity, homogeneity and symmetry. The analysis of a system of size commodity group, among which the total of consumer's expenditure per equivalent adult has been divided, is provided.[45]

2.3 Studies on Consumption Pattern of Scheduled Castes

This section gives a brief review of the few available related studies on different social groups, communities or castes.

Akbay (2001) analysed food consumption patterns of socio-economic groups in the State of Ankara. The differences in price and income elasticities of major food demand among high-, middle- and low-income households and also the effects of education, employment, household size, and other demographic variables on food demand pattern were analysed. This study analysed food consumption pattern of households by using two steps estimation procedures for system of equation. In the first stage, Inverse Mill Ratio was estimated by using Probit regression model. Then, these variables, which represent the unobservable influences on the participation decision, are included into log-linear demand system to estimate household food demand elasticities. Data for this study came from the 1994 Household Consumption Expenditure Survey, which was conducted by the State Institution of Statistics, Ankara.[46]

Lanjouw et.al (2001), estimated determinants of per capita consumption for Scheduled caste households in U.P and All India, using regression model for N.S.S.O data from 50th round. Results indicate that while about half the difference in

welfare between Scheduled castes and others could be attributed to differences in asset holdings, a roughly equal share was due to differences in returns to asset stocks. Not only did Scheduled caste households own less land, they also experienced lower returns to higher education as compared to other households.[47]

Rajuladevi (2001) using primary data analysed caste differences in food intake between backward castes and Scheduled castes in four different agricultural regions in Tamil Nadu. The study identified variations in quality of life between Scheduled castes and Backward Castes households. The composition of diet was found related to cropping pattern. Lack of sources and purchasing power, forces Scheduled castes to use nutritionally poor substitutes for others. The results highlighted the linkage between poverty, deprivation and ill health.[48]

Wankhede (2001)) examined the phenomenon of dominance of particular castes in the State of Maharastra which is considered to be one of the most advanced state regarding educational progress of the Scheduled castes, using Census data. The study analysed the existing educational variations among the Scheduled Castes of Maharashtra. It was found that Scheduled Castes continue to be backward in terms of the quantity and quality of education they receive. Their overall educational backwardness is attributed to poverty, lack of easy access to schools, discrimination in schools, practice of untouchability etc.[49]

Kozel (1999) studied poverty profile of Bihar employing field study results. Links that exist between social identity and poverty were identified. Poor households were identified as those at the low end of the caste hierarchy especially belonging to Schedule Castes. It was found that the major factors that explain the gap in living standards between Scheduled caste and majority households are the fewer private assets as well as lower levels of human capital Social identity places a disadvantage to Scheduled castes in interactions with higher castes. It was found that this stigma cancel the advantage conferred by higher education in the competition for high paying jobs in rural areas. In urban sectors it was found that the barriers linked to social identity began to break down as poor households move out of the traditional economy. Further returns for highly educated Scheduled Caste workers were found to be clearly lower than those for well-educated workers from majority households.[50]

Saggar (1994) analysed consumption expenditure pattern to examine inequality and poverty differences among SC's and STS and other households, rural urban disparities and inter-state variations using data from NSS. Consumption inequalities in the four States were captured in the study by employing alternative methods such as Gini co-efficient, Atkinson's index etc. The monthly per capita consumption expenditure of SC's and ST's were found considerably less than that of other households for all states in both rural and urban areas. The MPCE was found marginally higher for the SC's compared to ST's except in case of rural Bihar. As per the results of the study the rural urban difference in consumption standards exist. The MPCE of non-SC/ST households in all four eastern states were below the all India levels with an exception case of urban West Bengal. As per the results concentration ratios for expenditure on non-food items was much higher than on food expenditure. Comparison of concentration ratio for SC and ST population with those for other household showed that in most cases inequality was higher in General population.[51]

Mustafa (1993) employed input output analysis to examine saving consumption and investment behaviour by various social classes. Household consumption differences across social groups were relatively less pronounced for basic items like food and clothing, but the contrast become sharper for industrial goods, energy, pharmaceuticals and service sectors like education and health housing etc. The items of consumption like health and education that had implications for enhancing the physical quality of life or augmenting human development index were heavily biased against rural community in general, and poorer sections of the society in particular. Over all there were considerable variation in average household consumption expenditure across social classes.[52]

Subramanian and Deaton (1991) examined effects of gender discrimination on household consumption pattern, using the household expenditure data from the N S S. Engel curves had been estimated including detailed demographic variables and tested for the effects of gender in the pattern of demand. Substantial gender related effects in the consumption pattern of households for food and non-food groups were examined. The relevant household characteristics considered were occupational pattern of the head of the household, which included (1) those with the

head self employed in non-agricultural activities, (2) agricultural labourers, (3) non-agricultural labourers and (4) self employed in agriculture. Religion of the household including (1) Hindu (2) Muslim and dummy indicating that household head belongs to scheduled caste or tribe also included. The results indicated that scheduled castes and tribes consume less wheat and more coarse cereals. In facts the same was true for both agricultural and non-agricultural labourer households of the same size and same budget. Households with more adult women than men, consume more of these basic foodstuffs. The consumption of meat was found much higher among Muslim households and those from Scheduled castes and tribes. At the same total budget, larger households substitute towards sugar, fruits and vegetables and away from milk. Medical expenses, like educational expenses was a luxury good.[53] For analysis of data weighted scores, transformation matrix, poverty line, Engel rations etc. were employed. Poor levels of living of the population were revealed from low per capita consumption expenditure, high proportion of persons below poverty line and high food share. The findings revealed that addiction to liquor and intoxicants was the primary cause for their economic backwardness, social, degeneration, land alienation and even sexual exploitation of the women.

Kunhaman (1989) analysed the reasons for the inter-regional variations in the levels of socio-economic development among the hill-tribes of Kerala using secondary data The study showed significant inter-district variations in the major sources of household income and a positive correlation between per capita income and the average cultivable area per household. Household consumption expenditure was found lower among the tribes of southern districts. Inter-tribe variations in the matter of consumption expenditure show that the tribes with higher household incomes had a smaller proportion of household expenditure on food. There was near uniformity observed in the proportions of household expenditure incurred on clothing and foot wear among various tribes which suggested that the physical appearances of the members of various tribal communities conceals the inter tribe variations in economic well being. The rather high proportions of the household expenditure on intoxicants indicated that addiction to liquor is wide spread among all the tribes under consideration.[54]

NSSO (1987-88) using data from 43rd round analysed the consumer expenditure and employment, unemployment situation of different social groups, including Schedule Castes.. It was observed that in rural India 72% and in urban 46% of the scheduled caste households could spend only a minimum of Rs. 160 per month. For the Non-scheduled category of households the corresponding figures were only 54% for rural and 28% for urban. It was seen that literacy rate had increased over the five year period among all the Scheduled Caste males of urban India.. Literacy rate was much low among the listed categories of households compared to 'others' category. Scheduled castes had the last position in this respect in urban India. Unemployed in principal status was observed to be relatively lower among males of all social groups of rural areas as compared to urban areas. Considering the female population, the proportion of unemployed in the principal status was found to be relatively higher for the scheduled caste households of rural India as compared to others Category of households.[55]

NSSO (1987) analysed the employment –unemployment situation of Scheduled Caste population using data from 43rd round. The study observed that in rural areas the proportion of households in the lowest expenditure class among Scheduled Castes were 72% and among general households only 57%. In urban India for Scheduled caste the corresponding percentage was 54% and for general households 35%. Examination of the education levels found that in urban India the literacy levels of Scheduled Caste males remained almost stationary. Scheduled castes had the last position regarding literacy as well as the proportion of employed persons in urban India among different social groups.[56]

Selvanathan (1986) analysed impact of economic growth on the members of scheduled castes along with the socio-economic status of Harijans. By using the Census data of 1961, to 1981 and also using some primary data the study attempted to measure the differential impact of structural change and occupational mobility among Scheduled Castes. More than 70% of scheduled caste male workers were found to be employed in cultivation and agricultural labour. Analysis of land status revealed that land operated by Scheduled Caste households were smaller in area than that of General households.[57]

Nayak, et.al(1984) examined the level of living of the SC/ST vis-a-vis the non-SC/ST in Karnataka and inequality in the levels of living of the SC/ST and non SC/ST during 1973-74, 1977-78 by employing the ungrouped NSS data. Also examination of disparities in the levels of education and occupational structure of households in the different groups was done. Comparison of the size distribution of consumer expenditure of the SC/ST with that of the non-SC/ST was carried out. As per the results in both rural and urban sectors the mean consumption of the SC/Sty's were found well below the poverty line and also wide gap was observed in the consumption levels of SC/ST and non - SC/ST groups. The % of SC/ST in the lower expenditure classes was more than those in the higher expenditure classes. The study observed a general decline in the standards of living of SC/ST though there was a rise in the nominal mean consumption of the groups. The analysis showed that inequality in real consumption was relatively less with in the SC/ST as compared to the non-SC/ST in all cases.[58]

NSSO (1983) with data from its 38th round analysed the consumption pattern of different socio-economic groups especially of Scheduled castes and Scheduled tribes in India. The results presented provided a firm basis for assessing their levels of living. In the distribution of households by MPCE larger percentage of Scheduled caste households fell in lowest MPCE classes. Their percentage of expenditure on food items were found much higher than households belonging to other social groups and regarding non-food items the reverse was found true. Analysis of MPCE of upper MPCE classes showed that scheduled castes belonging to upper MPCE classes show close similarity in their consumption pattern to that of the general households.[59]

Report (1982) of the study on the socio-economic conditions of Scheduled castes Scheduled Tribes conducted by the Commission (1982) appointed by Government of Kerala to evaluate the progress achieved by the various castes and tribes in the State found inter-community and regional imbalances even among Scheduled castes. The overall living standards of the Scheduled castes in the State were found to be much below that of general population. Education, income and occupation standards were found very low for them. Besides health and nutritional

standards were found to be very low for Scheduled castes in Kerala. Their housing conditions and level of savings were found very poor. Most of the SC households were found living on cereals, tubers and other cheap food. The study showed that the low-income levels of the households compel them to remain in the low level of living. Inter district and inter communal variations were also observed in the socio-economic conditions of Scheduled castes.[60]

Saradamoni (1981) analysed intra-caste and inter-caste differences in educational employment and land owing status of a village population in Kerala. With the objective to find out what caused deprivation, whether caste or economic ability especially among the Pulayas, among the scheduled castes. Households were classified on the basis of caste as well as occupational categories.[61] Taking all Scheduled castes together 68% were found to follow traditional occupations. Illiteracy was found to be low among women and lower socio-economic categories. Analysing of consumption pattern showed that Pulaya agricultural labours spend less on food or other items of consumption than Pulaya other occupations categories. The labour households have not succeeded in securing regular employment. The poor Scheduled caste households had not benefited from the reservation policy and a section of the Pulayas remain deprived, weak and backward predominantly because of economic and not social factors. Distribution of land, and other assets were not favourable to the poor including agricultural labours, who for generations had tilled and cared for land owned by others. The land reforms with their series of amendments and beneficiary clauses have not helped them become economically stronger.[62]

2.4 Theoretical Background

Consumption being the most fundamental aspect of economic activity; it is not surprising that the study of consumption behaviour has occupied a pre-eminent position in economic science. The study of what, how much and when individuals consume had been the concern of economists. This is not surprising for the consumer occupies the centre stage in economics.

2.4.1 Consumption Hypotheses

Thorstein Veblen (1899) initiated the study of consumption as a social phenomenon and of the way individual tastes are influenced by others. Veblen clarified the two major means by which the relatively small leisure class extended its influence over society through its tastes. First, refined or cultivated taste became associated with distance from the world of work; objects suggesting practical necessity could be dismissed as cheap. Second, the process of emulation, by which each group seeks to copy those above itself, extended conspicuous consumption and upper-class standards throughout society.

Max Weber (1920) introduced the notion of a "status group" sharing a common life style. This provided a wider framework for analysing class and social differentiation, incorporating criteria based on consumption patterns rather than just property ownership and incomes.

Marcel Mause (1925) saw reciprocity in exchange and consumption of goods as the social glue binding individuals and communities to one another.

John Maynard Keynes (1936) mainly looked at consumption from a macro-economic perspective. He saw aggregate consumption expenditures as important components of national income. Keynes argued that with rises in income, consumption would also increase, but not as fast. When income rises the marginal propensity to consume would go down as consumer needs are satisfied. Keynes regarded effective demand by the consumer as the principal vehicle of economic growth.

The impossibility of observing and measuring the utility of consumption was an awkward feature of neoclassical theory from the start. Economists sought to escape this embarrassment by showing that the theory could still be derived without actually measuring utility. Paul Samuelson's revealed preference hypothesis (1938) was a classic example of this thinking. Samuelson believed that no utility, function, cardinal or ordinal, was required; it was enough for consumers to reveal their preferences through their purchases in the market place.

The issue of copying the neighbours in consumption behaviour-keeping up with the Joneses-was taken up by James Duesenberry in the late 1940s. The notion was that individuals' preferences were influenced by the consumption preferences of admired neighbours, so they try to keep up. The relative income hypothesis of Duesenberry (1949) provides the analytical framework for this view. Duesenberry considered the major determinant of consumption to be relative income-not absolute income, as proposed by Keynes.

Tibor Scitovsky (1976) distinguished between comfort and stimulation and emphasized in particular the role of culture in generating the durable pleasure from stimulation. He emphasized the need for acquiring "the consumption skill that will give access to society's accumulated stock of past novelty and so enable to supplement at will and almost without limit, the currently available flow of novelty as a source of stimulation."

Mary Douglas (1979) describes consumption of goods as a medium of communication particularly central to the establishment of people's personal identity and social standing.

Amartya Sen (1985) focuses not on the ownership of commodities but on the uses to which they can be put in extending people's capabilities. Commodities were important for enriching human lives, but their effectiveness depends on personal characteristics and social circumstances, variations in which contribute to inequalities in a society.[63]

Consumption habits are determined by a complex set of socio-economic, cultural, religious and ecological factors. There have been various attempts at both conceptual and empirical levels to explain the differences in consumption pattern and to measure the nature of changes attributed to casual variables.

In the history of demand analysis two threads, related but separable, were discerned. These were first, the work of economists interested in the discovery of general laws governing the operation of markets, particularly agricultural markets; and second the work of those, originally statisticians, interested in the psychological

laws governing what came to be called consumer preference. Brown and Deaton (1972) held the view that this dichotomy continued to characterize the subject.

Empirical research had produced more sophisticated demand equations while, at the same time; theoretical economists and mathematicians enormously increased the knowledge of the pure mathematics of preference relations. While these two activities were not always in balance, the great strength of empirical demand analysis was the existence of strong foundations, which were drawn upon or modified as practice demanded. This inter play between the theory and reality was perhaps more fruitful in this than in any other branch of Economics.

Of the two strands, the empirical may claim historical precedence in the work of Davenant[64] who published in 1699 a numerical schedule of the demand for wheat derived three years earlier by Gregory King.[65] In the eighteenth century, Lioyd[66] gradually sorted out the independent influences of demand and supply on market prices,

Meanwhile it claimed that in 1730 Daniel Bernoulli[67] laid the foundation of preference theory, by writing that "any increase in utility, which is inversely proportional to the quantity of goods already, possessed. Later in the nineteenth century, the specific elements of preference theory in economics were constructed by various writers whose aim was to provide a secure automatic foundations for the model of market equilibrium suggested by Smith. An essential part of this was the proposition that demand curves slope downwards, and it seemed acceptable to Mathematical economists such as Gossen, Jevons, Walras and Edgeworth, to rest this proposition on a generalization of Bernoulli's concept of utility. Thus Edgeworth defined a cardinal utility function in which the purchased quantities of each good were arguments and the marginal utility of each good was a decreasing function of the quantity. Edgeworth, however, also originated the concept of indifference curves and Fisher and Pareto were able to establish the essence of the modern theory on the assumption of ordinal rather than cardinal utility, and diminishing marginal rates of substitution rather than decreasing marginal utilities. The scene was then set for a Mathematically rigorous exposition of the theory by Slutsky in 1915.[68]

Throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the empirical approach had made little or no progress in the measurement of demand curves despite its early and promising beginning. In large part this was due to the fact that statisticians until late in the nineteenth century did not develop the techniques of correlation and regression. Significant progress was however made in the investigation of the influence of income on consumption patterns, and the credit for this goes to such statisticians as Baxter, Ducpetiase, Dieterici, and Le Play who collected and tabulated family budgets. In particular an outstanding contribution was made by Engel, who in 1857 formulated what turned out to be enduring empirical laws governing the relation between income and particular categories of expenditure.

In the late nineteenth century, the fusion between the theoretical and empirical approaches were found in the writings of Marshall, who was perhaps the catalyst, which encouraged agricultural economists to apply the newly discovered technique of correlation to the analysis of single markets. Marshall's great contribution was the clarification and elaboration of the concept of elasticity of demand, which offered a precise framework within which numerical measurement of market characterizes.

Serious progress in the econometric study of demand was achieved by agricultural economists in the United States, beginning with Moore, who published a number of impoitant studies between 1914 and 1929.

By 1939, most of the strengths and weaknesses of what we may call Classical demand analysis had been probed and most of the techniques still in use had been discovered. We may characterize this classical approach as consisting of the application of variations in least squares single - equation fitting, to both time – series and cross-section data, of market models based as far as possible on the theoretical results of Slutsky. (1915), Allen and Hicks (1934) and Hicks (1936). Much of this work, together with a great deal of empirical analysis, was drawn together by Schultz in 1938.[69] Since then, there were a number of important developments. On the theoretical side, many of these derived directly or indirectly from an earlier stimulus, Samuelson's introduction in 1938 of the language of Revealed Preference Theory.[70] Though this did not succeeded in the lead to a new theory of consumer demand, it did

succeed in increasing our understanding of the properties of the old. The debate which eventually established the equivalence of the two models yielded a number of important by-products. Not least of these was the solution in 1950 by Houthakker[71] and Samuelson[72] of the long-standing consistency problem, or the derivation of conditions under which demand functions may lead back to a preference mapping. Furthermore, as Houthakker has pointed out,[73] the discussion of revealed preference focused much more attention on the observable consequences of demand theory.

While the questions to which the classical approach addressed it were of the type "what is the income or price elasticity of good X?" More recent investigations posed and began to answer some more fundamental questions. These were basically questions of methodology for example how should demand functions be specified? What is the best way of allowing for changes in prices? These were questions of how to go about measuring elasticities rather than questions about what numerical values these coefficients should take. In particular attention focuses on the theory of demand and its relevance to applied demand analysis or of welfare theory but as a tool of empirical investigation. These developments did not take place consciously or deliberately. In the first instance it was undoubtedly the development of electronic computation facilities, which made possible the estimation of complete systems of demand equations derived from theoretical considerations. Though the main object of the work was originally the estimation of the parameters of these models, attention was turned rather to the testing of the empirical validity of the models themselves. This latter endeavour, much more difficult of the two, was welcomed not only by those who continually search for new scope to apply more, powerful statistical techniques, but also by those who deplore the uncritical proliferation of models and parameter estimates made possible by the computer.

The problem with which demand analysts were fundamentally concerned were to find out how the demand for a commodity will be after a certain specified variables change. This information is usually required for a specified moment in time and for some aggregate of individuals, either for all consumers or for some sub-group. It we decide to work in per capita terms in order to neutralize change of scale in the population, the problem was to discover how the allocation of the average

budget over different commodities would respond to outside changes. In particular the interest was in the effects of changes in real income, and one should like to allow for the introduction of new commodities and changes in tastes. All this were of considerable importance; the increase in the number of large econometric models and the general increase in interest in model for planning and policy formulation offered a wide area for the positive application of any results, which were achieved.

Consumer expenditure is the largest item in the gross domestic product of most economies and thus the usefulness of disaggregated planning or prediction is likely to depend on its correct allocation. The changing structure of industry over time depends crucially on the evolution of the elements of consumer's expenditure in response to increasing income while knowledge of price response is an important element in the formulation of fiscal policy or any other type of economic control.

2.5   Review of the Theory of Consumption Behaviour

Consumption is the predominant component of aggregate demand in an economy. The problem of consumption behaviour can be taken up either at the micro level or at the macro level. While these two approaches are now well established, it would be pertinent to mention that the latter approach gained currency in the wake of Keynesian revolution. The importance of consumption function in Keynesian analysis hardly need elaboration.

The micro approach consists of two very popular classes of studies, one dealing with family budgets and the other with market demand analysis. The former analysis is the cross-section relationship between income level and pattern of consumption, as across categories of goods and services, holding other variables like prices constant. The latter on the other hand uses time-series data to analyse the price demand relationship. The alternative macro approach, however, concentrates on the income consumption relationship in an aggregative sense.

The subject was widely discussed in the literature. This section reviews briefly the various developments in consumption theories.

The early developments in consumption behaviour were found in micro-economic theories. To describe the way consumers choose among different consumption possibilities, economists a century ago developed the notion of utility.[74]

In Micro economic theories the consumption behaviour was derived on the postulate of utility maximization subject to a linear budget constraint that is.

$$\text{Max. U } (x_1 \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots x_n)$$

$$\text{Subject to } x = p_n \, q_n \qquad \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (1)$$

Where x means total consumption expenditure

P_n denotes prices and

q_n denotes quantities (consumed / demanded)

The Marshallian demand function was described as:

$$q_1 = f_1 (x, p) \qquad \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (2)$$

Where q_1 is the quantity of ith good.

Speaking broadly two approaches were followed in the analysis of household consumption behaviour, (a) one based on aggregate time series data on quantities, prices of commodities consumed and on aggregate income and (b) the other based on incomes and expenditures of a cross section of individual households in a given period of time. Under the former approach lack of availability of comparable data over a time may in no small measure pose difficulties. A part from limitations of data, the statistical problems may invariably circumscribe the usefulness of such studies[75] The future growth of the level and structure of consumption were affected most significantly by income growths but also affected by changes in price structure and by shifts in tastes over a time, due in part to rising levels of living and the availability of new products and in part to the increasing urbanization of population, changes in other demographic features of households like age, sex composition, geographical location, occupation and other distributional changes. The effects of these factors may not be entirely disentangled on the basis of aggregate time-series data. This was because there were likely to be strong time trends in most of them leading to inter correlation over time. And while on the one hand the degrees of freedom obtaining in a time series data were invariably too

insufficient[76] to allow a proper analysis of a multiple regression model, on the other a simple regression of consumption income may erroneously attribute to income the effects of omitted but correlated variables and in that case it gives valid predictions if and only if all time trends remain unchanged (or unchanged). But this assumption is likely to be less valid in the context of planned development where under some of the relevant variables were changed deliberately in a pre-determined manner.

The second approach was usually called a "family Budget study" This type had a long history dating back to 1857 when Earnest Engel (1821-1896) published a study on the conditions of production and consumption in Kingdom of Saxonny, in which he formulated an empirical law concerning the relation between income and expenditure on food Engel's law, as it became known, states that the proportion of income spent on food declined as income increased. Its original statement was mainly based on an examination of about two hundred budgets of Belgian labourers. Since that date the law was found to hold in many other budget surveys; similar laws were also formulated for other items of expenditure. So the law found its generalization viz as the level of household income increase the expenditure on different items of the budget have changing proportions, the proportion devoted to the mere urgent needs (such as food) decreased while the proportions devoted to luxuries and semi luxuries increased.[77]

Assuming that the effects of composition of household are absent and prices are merged into the functional form, the demand function yields,

$$q_i = f_i(x, p) \qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(5)$$

$$q_i = f_i(x) \qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(6)$$

This was termed as an Engel curve and was employed to classify goods into luxuries, necessities and inferior goods. Further, the item-expenditure will increase or decrease with total -expenditure, as total expenditure elasticity (e_i) was greater than or less than unity.

Hence

if $e_i > 1$, the goods were luxuries

if $e_i < 1$, the goods were necessities,

if ei < 0 the goods were inferior.

From the statistical theory, the demand by a single consumer for each commodity can be written as function of consumer's income and all market prices. If prices were held constant qi = qi (μ / P_1,..............Pn), expressing demand as a function solely of the consumer's income, a relation generally known as the consumer's Engel curve for commodity 'i'. This relation was taken as the starting point for the analysis of household budgets. A restricted form of demand function was the Engel function. Demand function becomes the expenditure function if the prices were assumed constant. For cross section data pertaining to a point of time prices were usually assumed constant. For the estimation of such functions family 'budget survey' for a single period were used

Engel investigated and analysed family budget study, which resulted in the relationship showing how consumption expenditure of a particular commodity varies with the level of income of a household. From this, Engel (1857) derived the following main results:

i. Food items account for highest expenditure in the family budget.

ii. The proportion of expenditure on food items decreases with an increase in the standard of living of household.

iii. The proportion of expenditure on rent and clothing is nearly constant_while that on luxury items increases with an increase in the standard of living.

Later in 1895, Engel found that first and third conclusions, as given above, were misrepresentations of the fact while second was repeatedly been confirmed. This second proposition has now become the Engel Law.

Engel Law implies that the rising standards of living (as a result of increasing incomes) will lead to a lower proportion of the consumption expenditure on food (necessary) items, while the expenditure on luxuries increases with the standards of living. The Law, thus, divides the items of consumption into-necessary items and luxury items.

The empirical analysis of the Engel Law involves the formulation of the Engel Curve, which can take any of the various functional forms, available in econometric literature. Econometric literature abounds various functional forms- linear and non-linear, etc., which have been used as Engel Functions.

The criteria fir choosing the algebraic form of Engel Curve is a complex set of issues and related to the distinction between necessities and luxuries. However, not that necessary and luxury items are quite relative in nature to each other. Therefore, it is difficult to choose a priori any form of the Engel Curve, which may yield better identification of items in two categories.

Hence, the criterion for choosing the Engel Function may not be a matter of an individual's concern only as being a matter of economic and statistical considerations. Assuming that the effects of other factors such as the composition of household size etc. are absent and prices (p) are merged in to the functional form, then the demand function yields,

$$p_i q_i = f_i(\mu)\dots \qquad (2.1)$$

$$i = 1,2,\dots\dots,n.$$

Where q_i = amount of ith commodity demanded

μ = total expenditure (income)

p_i = price of ith good

The Engel curve is employed to classify goods into luxuries, necessities and inferior based on the income (expenditure elasticities)

Hence if $e_i \mu > 1$, the goods are luxuries

$e_i \mu < 1$, the goods are necessaries

$e_i \mu < 0$, the goods are inferior

Further, the expenditure on each commodity group will increase/ decrease with the increase /decrease in total expenditure if the expenditure elasticity ($e_i \mu$) is greater / less than unity. It was interesting to note that this was one of the cases in economics where observed regularities of human behaviour were discovered years before a theoretical frame work was developed to explain them[78] for it was not until

well into the 20th century that the indifference preference theory of consumer behaviour was developed.

Much of the empirical experiments of various functional forms for Engel curves were made in this field by Prais and Houthakker (1955).[79] Though none of these forms satisfied the "adding up criterion", yet their theoretical plausibility was not challenged. Working (1943)[80] and later Leser (1963)[81] estimated the form that is consistent with adding up criterion. This relates item expenditure (Wi) linearly to the logarithm of total expenditure:

$$Wi \quad = \quad \alpha i + \beta i \log x. \qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(7)$$

Where αi and βi are parameters to be estimated and Wi denoted expenditure on i[th] item.

$W_i \quad = 1$, was the requirement of adding up criterion. It was fulfilled, if

$$\Sigma\alpha_i \quad = \quad 1, \Sigma \beta_i = 0 \qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(8)$$

Now, estimating equation (7) by OLSM (Ordinary Least Squares method), the estimates of parameters α_i and β_i will certainly, satisfy equation. (8).[82] This form suggested the goods as luxuries, if $\beta_i > 0$ and, necessities and inferiors if $\beta_i < 0$.

During such course of development in the measurement of Consumer expenditure and behaviour, a model based fully on the theory was used. It was termed as Linear Expenditure Systems. Again if we recall the Marshallian demand function-

$$q_i = f_i (x, p) \qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(9)$$

This relationship was measurable with the help of some suitable function, if the theory was not considered directly here But several difficulties were inherent.[83] If the demand function was formed linearly[84] as:

$$p_i q_i \quad = \quad bix + \sum_{j=1}^{n} bij \, pj. \qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(10),$$

The adding up, homogeneity and symmetry restrictions were put algebraically. Then the following form satisfied this theoretical restriction.

$$p_i q_i = p_i c_i + b_i (x - \Sigma pk \ ck). \qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(11)$$

Here $\qquad \Sigma bk = 1$

It was not necessary that any c_i to be positive, the parameters were taken as subsistence values, thus, equation (11) becomes simple to explain. First, necessary expenditure pici was made and then, non necessary expenditure was treated as residual (X-ΣPk ck) Thus, besides ΣPk ck total expenditure was distributed in a fixed fashion on various commodities.

As compared to recent developments in this field, this older method seems to have many limitations. Further testing of the theory has empirically been conducted by Theil (1965)[85] and Barten (1966)[86] and the model used was popularly known as Rotterdam Model. Lesser also fitted the model to test the theory which seemed to be the extension of the study of Working.

The post war efforts to re-specify the consumption theory are found in macro economic formulations of consumption function. The first serious formulation of the consumption function was Keynes' "fundamental psychological law". It claimed that the consumption increased as income increased but not by as much.[87]

This, $c = f(y)$, $0 < dc/dy < 1$

The following quotations from the General theory of Employment, Interest and money summarize Keynes' theory of consumption function.

a. The propensity to consume is a fairly stable function, so that as a rule, the amount of aggregate consumption mainly depends on the amount of aggregate income.

b. Men are disposed as a rule and on average to increase their consumption as their income increased but not by as much as the increase in their income.

c. A higher absolute level of income will tend as a rule to widen the gap between income and consumption because the satisfaction of the immediate primary needs of a man and his family is usually a stronger motive towards accumulation, which only acquires effective sway when a margin of comfort has been attained.

The reasons will lead, as a rule, to a greater proportion of income being saved as real income increases.

d. A rising income will often be accompanied by increased saving and falling income by decreased saving, on a greater scale at first than subsequently.[88]

These and other formulation of Keynes' consumption function were exposed to a major extent for empirical analysis, over last years on consumption behaviour.

A simple linear version of consumption functions is:

$$C = a + by + u$$

Where   a>0, 0<b<1

'u' is a random disturbance term, b is the MPC and it does not differentiate the long run and short run MPC.

The wealth effects are not included. c/y is the ratio of consumption to income or average propensity to consume (apc), which declined with increase in income.

Standard Keynesian doctrine was first challenged shortly after the Second World War.[89] A number of variants of the simple Absolute Income Hypothesis were estimated using various sources of data and the results were far from encouraging and the forecasts very poor. Davis[90] analysed the predictive ability of a number of these consumption functions fitted to U.S. data (1929 – 40). The models under predicted the level of consumption that pertained in the post war period.

Earlier work by Brady and Friedman[91] on household – budget data demonstrated that although the consumption function has a positive intercept and hence the marginal propensity consume was less than the average propensity to consume, the intercept shifted upwards over time. Previously Smithies[92] used a time trend to capture a ratchet – like effect in his analysis of annual series data but the most important results were produced by Kuznets.[93] Kuznets demonstrated that over fairly long periods the A.P.C was high and stable, while the MPC was lower than the average, lower in the short than the long run and tended to fluctuate in value,

particularly during the war year. Clearly the Absolute income hypothesis, as, it stood, was in capable of explaining the apparent contradictions.

2.5.1 Relative – Income hypotheses

As a first reconciliation effort Duesenberry (1949) gave his theory of Relative Income hypotheses on the basis of habit persistence hypothesis, stating that the consumption behaviour was interdependent and consumption relations were, irreversible overtime. He argued that consumption of an individual not only depended on his absolute income, that is on his percentile position in the income distributions further the current income but also on the past level of consumptions. It was practically difficult to reduce previously attained higher level of consumption than to reduce the saving. This reflected the cyclical behaviour of c/y.

The theory explained both-time series and cross-section formulations of consumption behaviour. The Relative Income hypothesis was formulated as:

$$C/y = a + b (y/yo), b<0$$

Where y_0 was peak previous income. Therefore the predicted values of c/y from this function were higher in recessions. In the long run,

$$Y_0 = Y_{t-1} \leftrightarrows Y/Y_0 = (1+Y) \rightarrow (= some\ constant)$$

Where Y was the growth rate of income per unit of time.

Thus c/y = a constant term in the long run

2.5.2 The Permanent Income Hypothesis

Friedman 1957 formulated the theory of consumption functions by introducing the concept of permanent income in contradistinction of the Keynesian notion of "measured" income. The underlying hypothesis was that the ratio of permanent consumption to permanent income was independent of the level of permanent income. Let Y represent a Consumer unit's measured income for some time period, say a year. This income to be treated as the sum of two components: permanent component (YP), and transitory component (Yt) or Yp + Yt.

The permanent component was interpreted as reflecting the effect of those factors that the unit regards as determining its capital value, or wealth, the non-human wealth it owns, the personal attributers of the earners in the unit, such as their training, ability personality, the attributes of the economic activity of the earners such as the occupation followed the location of economic activity and so on. It was analogous to the "expected" value of a probability distribution.

The transitory component was to be interpreted as reflecting all "other" factors that were likely to be treated by the unit affected as "accidental" or chance "occurrences". Though they may from any other point of view, be the predictable effect of specific forces, for example, cyclical fluctuations in economic activity. In statistical data the transitory component included also chance errors of measurement.

Similarly let 'C' represent a consumer units, expenditures for some time period and it was regarded as the sum of a permanent component (cp) and[94] a transitory component (Ct) so that,

$$C \quad = \quad Cp + Ct.$$

Friedman took the expenditure on durables as investment and services as derived from stocks of durables in Cp.

Accordingly $Cp = kYp.$

The function had no intercept term and consequently, Brown (1952)[95] had a new approach to consumer behaviour. He pointed out that customs and habits influence this behaviour. It implies that change in consumption expenditure was comparatively slow to the changes in their income. He took the lagged variable as "previous consumption" instead "previous income".

$$Ct \quad = \quad a + b\,Yt + d\,Ct - 1$$

But Friedman found lags in consumer behaviour. A clear distinction was made by him between income actually received (measured) and income for actual consumption (permanent income)

A number of empirical tests were applied to permanent income hypothesis on various assumptions for time series and Cross section evidences, by Klein

(1958),[96] Ball and Drake (1964),[97] Modigliani and Ando (1960),[98] Mayer (1966)[99] Bodkin (1959).[100]

2.5.3 The Life Cycle Hypothesis

Another approach, which was developed simultaneously with, but independently from the Permanent Income Hypothesis, was the Life cycle hypothesis. It was primarily the work of Modigliani and Brumberg[101] and Ando and Modigliani.[102] The typical consumer had to choose a consumption stream to maximize a utility function, defined on present and future consumption, which was subject to a lifetime resource constraint, and which was itself stable over time. The intellectual basis for the work was the same as that of Freidman. The major distinction lied in the choice of time horizon as the human lifetime.

The underlying argument of consumption function was that consumption depend on the resources available to the consumer over his entire life span, the rate of return on capital and the age of the consumer.

Available resources mean existing net wealth plus the present value of all current and future non-property earnings (labour earnings). Accordingly a consumer allocates his income, accounting all his present resources, to maximize his utility over his lifetime. Thus an increase in income will add in consumption to the extend it adds to total lifetime resources. Obviously, the consumption depends on these resource (labour and property) instead on current income.

The Life Cycle Hypothesis has been illustrated as:

$$C_t^T \quad = \quad K_t^T [(Y_L)_t^T + (N-T)(Y_L^e)_t^T + W_{t-1}^T]^6 \quad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(.1)$$

Where t = Time Period

T = Present age of the consumer

N = Earning period of the consumer

K = Constant of proportionality

YL = Current labour income of an Individual

Y^eL = Expected future income (labour) of the individual

W = Net wealth of the individual. .

Equation (1) can be written as:

$$\underline{C}_t \quad = \quad a_1\,(\underline{Y}_L)_t + a_2\,(\underline{Y}^E)_t + a_3\,\underline{W}_{t-1} \qquad\qquad \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots(2)$$

(underlined letters are aggregates of individuals) Equation(2) is in the aggregate form.

Thus,[103] in the formulation of a consumption function, taking consumption as a function, of income and wealth, the long period marginal propensity to consume was determined and it was equal to the average propensity to consume. Several empirical tests were tried on the consumption function to examine the consumption behaviour in the perspective.

The new macro-economic theories of consumption function had wide implications involving various hypotheses, controversial too. During the course of such analysis, following hypothesis seemed worth mentioning. (a) The Normal Income Hypothesis. (b) The proportionality Hypothesis. (c) The Rate of growth Hypothesis.

2.6 The Normal Income Hypothesis

This hypothesis attempted to clarify the vagueness of the basis of new theories that the consumption in a year not only depended on the income in that year but also on the life-span resources in order to maximize the utility rationally. But future is always uncertain and rational behaviour in uncertainty seems misleading.

The hypothesis was that the current income Y of a consumer affected consumption C through its effects on normal income Y, thus.

$$C \quad = \quad \beta(y)$$

Here β, independent of current income and assets, and, Y, the normal income of consumer's remaining life span.

Future uncertainty will, of course, affect the planned consumption widely, but whether it will affect the current income and so the current consumption, is important to analyse. That is the hypothesis may provide some rule for steady incomes for people while some may talk of rational behaviour for variable incomes for people.

2.7 The Proportionality hypothesis

This hypothesis was related with β, the slope of the consumption function. The new theories said that the consumption function would be a straight line passing through the origin. The hypothesis was equivalent to saying that the consumption was proportional to the normal income for an individual consumer. This hypothesis seemed to be an integral part of the new theories, but it raised several doubts too.

The Normal income hypothesis seemed independent of this hypothesis. Empirical evidence could also not favour the hypothesis.[104] Further, Friend and Kravis (1957)[105] gave a contrary argument challenging proportional relationship. In the same direction, several empirical inferences were drawn which created hostility due to Proportionality hypothesis.

2.8 The Rate of growth Hypothesis

This hypothesis was pertaining to the long-period equilibrium and said that aggregate saving was influenced by the changes in population structure and in per capita real income. In case these factors were steadily changing, the part of aggregate income saved was proportional to the rate of growth of aggregate real income.

Modigliani and Brumberg (1953)[106] have investigated favorably such defined relationship in the long –period. This hypothesis needed some reservations to explain the long-period consumption function, however, the rate of growth was the basic factor to determine aggregate savings/income ration in the long period in any economy.[107]

Further, Modigliani and Brumberg's evidence hardly favour Proportionality hypothesis and it seemed difficult to conclude about the shape of the individual consumption function from the observed long-period aggregate consumption function.[108]

Economic research in the 1980 and 1990's had led to more revealing test of the empirical works of Ando, Modgliani and Friedman and had raised puzzling new questions. Three strands of the new research were particularly important. The use of rational expectations to measure future income prospects, the analysis of data on

the histories of thousands of individual families and case studies of particular economic policy "experiments".

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CHAPTER III

CHANGING PATTERN OF CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURE IN INDIA AND KERALA

The purpose of this chapter is to bring out the changes in consumption, both in the level and type of commodities of consumption that happened in India and Kerala during the recent years. It examines that whether there is any change in the pattern of consumption expenditure over a period of time. Attempt is made to highlight how the Kerala Consumption pattern differs from that of all India.

Large differences in the pattern of Food and non-Food consumption over the regions of the country are well known.[1] One way of studying disparities in consumption is to generate separate sets of consumption estimates for different decile groups of population.[2] This has been attempted at all India level and also for the state. This makes it easy to study the differences in the consumption pattern of poorer and richer segments of population.

Household consumption and possession of Durable goods is examined by looking at the consumer expenditure statistics for India and the Kerala.[3] Changes in the pattern are obvious and striking.[4] Not with standing the very wide range of commodities termed Durable goods, this class of goods accounts for only a small proportion of household expenditure of the Indian population as a whole[5] but the same is not true for the State of Kerala. Allocation of income and the share of Education in the aggregate consumer expenditure are the pointers to the changing pattern of consumption. The changes have become so prominent in Kerala in the last few decades.

The data on consumption expenditure is one of the indicators of well-being and level of living of the households. The study on the magnitude and pattern of consumption expenditure has great value for evaluating the impact of various programmes launched to ameliorate the living conditions of the poor households.[6]

The only source which provides[7] comprehensive time-series information on items of consumption expenditure and distribution of households / population by monthly per capita total consumption expenditure, is the National Sample Survey which conducts surveys on consumption expenditure in the form of rounds. Results[8] are available almost uninterrupted on an annual basis form 1986-87 onwards. The smaller scale surveys are spread over a full year and others over six months only. The quinquennial (full scale) survey were all of a full year's duration. The data are mostly available in value terms for different item / item groups and for selected items in quantity terms except for 26th round (1971-72) separately for rural an urban areas of different states and all India by fixed expenditure classes.

This study utilizes the survey results of N.S.S. on consumption expenditure as available form its 27th round (October 1972 – September 1973) 32nd round (July 1977 – June 1978) 38th round (January –December 1983), 43rd round (July1987-June 1988) 50th round (July 1993-June 1994) and 55th round (July 1999-June 2000).

3.1 Concepts and Definitions.

The main concepts and definitions used by NSSO are given below.

3.1.1 Household: A group of persons normally living together and taking Food from a common kitchen constitutes a household.[9]

3.1.2 Adult: A Person who has completed 15 years of age.[10]

3.1.3 Household size: the size of a household is the total number of persons in the household.[11]

3.1.4 Household Consumer Expenditure: the expenditure incurred by a household on domestic consumption during the reference period is the household's consumer expenditure. The household consumer expenditure is the total of the monetary values of consumption of various groups of items, namely (i) Food, Pan (betel leaves), Tobacco, intoxicants and Fuel & light, (ii) Clothing and Footwear and iii)

Miscellaneous goods & services and durable articles.[12]

3.1.5 Value of Consumption: Consumption out of purchase is evaluated at the purchase price. Consumption out of home produce is evaluated at ex farm or ex factory prices. Value of consumption out of gifts loans, free collection and goods received in exchange of goods and services is imputed at the rate of average local retail prices prevailing during the reference period.[13]

3.1.6 Monthly per capita consumer expenditure (MPCE): For a household, this is its 30 days total consumer expenditure divided by its size. A person's MPCE is understood as that of the household to which he or she belongs.[14]

3.1.7 MPCE Class: For classifying households and persons by monthly per capita expenditure level, 12 classes were formed in each sector – rural and urban. These classes correspond broadly to 5 %, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40% 50%, 60%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 95% and 100% of population.[15] Table 3.1 gives the MPCE classes used for classifying households and persons by NSSO in the 55th round [1999-2000].

Table 3.1 MPCE classes

Sl. No	Rural (R.S)	Urban (R. S)	Combined (R.S)
1	0-225	0-300	0-235
2	225-255	300-350	235-265
3	255-300	350-425	265-320
4	300-340	425-500	320-365
5	340-380	500-575	365-410
6	380-420	575-665	410-460
7	420-470	665-775	460-520
8	470-525	775-915	520-605
9	525-615	915-1120	605-730
10	615-775	1120-1500	730-980
11	775-950	1500-1925	980-1285
12	950+	1925+	1285+

Source: NSSO, (2001), "Level and Pattern of Consumer Expenditure in India", based on NSS 55th round, (July 1999-Jun 2000) data, Report No. 457 May.

3.1.8 Reference period: The annual series of consumer expenditure surveys, up to the 49th round, used a uniform reference period of 'last 30 days' for all items of consumption In the bigger surveys of the quinquennial series, an additional reference period of last '365 days' was used for some items of consumption – particularly,

Clothing, Footwear and Durable goods − but most results were tabulated using the 'last 30 days' data.[16]

3.1.9 Groups of consumption of items: Results on break-up of MPCE over different items of consumption are presented for 19 broad item groups. These are Cereals, G ram, Cereal substitute, Pulses / Pulse products, Milk and Milk products, Edible oil, meat Fish / Eggs, Vegetables, Fruits / nuts, Sugar, Salt, Spices, Beverages refreshments and processed Food, Pan Tobacco and intoxicants, Fuel & light, Clothing, Footwear, Miscellaneous goods & services, durable good. Apart form these subtotals of MPCE on Food and non-Food are also provided.[17]

3.1.10 Miscellaneous goods & services: up to NSSO 54th round this is a residual group containing items other than Food, Pan, Tobacco, intoxicants, Fuel & light, Clothing Footwear, Rent Taxes and Durable goods and[18] as per NSSO 55th round items of consumption other than Food and Drink, Fuel, Clothing and Footwear, Educational and Medical goods and services, Rent, Taxes and Durable goods.[19]

3.1.11 Durable goods: Items included here were distinguished from Miscellaneous goods by having a longer expected lifetime of use (roughly, one year or more). Expenditure incurred on repairs and construction of durables used for domestic purpose were included in expenditure on Durable goods.[20]

3.1.12 Scheduled Caste: A household is considered to belong to Scheduled Caste provided the head of the household is a member of that group. No attempt is however made to verify whether the reported name of the caste belonged to the listed group in the Schedule.[21]

3.2 Distribution of persons by MPCE

The distribution of population by monthly per capita consumption expenditure classes in the rural & urban areas of India and Kerala[22] is given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Per 1000 distributions of persons in the rural and urban sector.

MPCE Class	Rural		Urban		
	All India	Kerala	MPCE Class	All India	Kerala
000-225	52	6	000-300	52	23
225-255	50	6	300-350	50	28
255-300	100	15	350-425	96	92
300-340	100	32	425-500	101	86
340-380	103	40	500-575	99	87
380-420	97	53	575-665	100	98
420-470	102	85	665-775	101	113
470-525	93	103	775-915	100	101
525-615	103	123	915-1120	100	116
615-775	99	195	1120-1500	101	126
775-950	50	138	1500-1925	50	59
> 950	50	204	> 1925	50	71
All Classes	1000	1000	All Classes	1000	1000
Average MPCE (Rs.)	486	766	Average MPCE (Rs.)	855	932

Source: NSSO, (2001), "Level and Pattern of Consumer Expenditure in India", based on NSS 55th round, (July 1999-Jun 2000) data, Report No. 457 May.

It may be observed that 5.2% of the rural population of the country as a whole were below the MPCE level of Rs. 225, Another 5% of the rural population were in the range of Rs. 225 - Rs.255. 10% each of the rural population of the country as a whole were in the MPCE ranges of Rs. 255-300, Rs. 300-340, Rs.340-380, Rs. 420-470 and Rs. 525-615. Only 5% of the rural population of country as a whole belonged to the highest MPCE level of above Rs. 950.

On the contrary, only 0.6% of the rural population of Kerala as a whole were below MPCE level of Rs. 225. Another 0.6% of the rural populations were in the range of Rs. 225-255. 19.5% of the rural populations of Kerala as a whole were in the MPCE range of Rs. 615-775. 20.4% of the rural population of Kerala as a whole were in the highest level of above Rs. 950.

Thus it was is observed that the % of rural population in lower MPCE levels were lesser and those in higher MPCE levels larger in Kerala as compared to

All India rural sector. The MPCE position of rural households in Kerala was much better than their counter parts in the rural sector of the country as a whole.

5.2% of the urban population of the country as a whole were below the MPCE level of Rs. 300. Another 5% of the rural populations were in the range of Rs. 300-350. 10% each of rural population of the country as a whole were in the MPCE range of Rs. 425-500, Rs. 575-665, Rs. 665-775, Rs. 775-915, and Rs. 915-1120 and Rs. 1120-1500. Only 5% of the rural population of country as whole belonged to the highest MPCE level of above Rs. 1925.

It may be observed that only 2.3% of the urban population of the Kerala as a whole were below the MPCE level of Rs. 300. Another 2.8% of the urban populations were in the range of Rs. 300-350. 12.6% of the urban populations of the Kerala as a whole were in the MPCE range of Rs. 1120-1500. 7% of the urban population of Kerala as a whole were in the highest MPCE level of above Rs. 1925. It was observed that in the urban sector, lesser number of households in Kerala fall in lower MPCE classes and higher number in upper MPCE classes as compared to All India level. This is similar to what is observed in case of rural sector.

3.3 Average household size

Table 3.3 gives average household size in rural and urban areas.

Table 3.3 Average household sizes in Rural and Urban areas

State	Average Household Size	
	Rural	Urban
Kerala	4.6	4.4
All India	4.9	4.5

Source: NSSO, (2001), "Level and Pattern of Consumer Expenditure in India", based on NSS 55th round, (July 1999-Jun 2000) data, Report No. 457 May.

The average household size in rural India (4.9) was higher than the same in Kerala (4.6). In urban sector also household size was higher at the National level (4.5) than in Kerala (4.4). It was found that rural household size exceeded urban household size both in India and Kerala.

3.4 Average MPCE

Averages MPCE for all India and the state of Kerala are shown in Table 3.2 (Already given). The all India rural average of MPCE was Rs. 486 and for urban India it was Rs 855. The average MPCE of rural Kerala was Rs. 766 and of urban Kerala Rs.932. It is found that the average MPCE of both rural and urban Kerala were above the national average.

3.5 Movement in Budget Share in Kerala

The consumer expenditure on some broad groups of items and % to total expenditure in the Rural and Urban areas of Kerala for six different rounds of N.S.S. are given in tables 3.4 and 3.5 respectively.[23]

It is found that the expenditures have increased over the years on all the items for both in the rural and urban areas as may be expected due to the price rise in general.

In terms of % there has been a substantial fall in the proportion of expenditure on Food from 70.42% in 1972-73 to 61.67% in 1983 and 53.70% in 99-2000 in the rural areas

In respect of non-Food items the % expenditures have increased from 29.58% in 72-73 to 38.33% in 1983 and 46.30% in 99-2000. In the Food group the items attracting more expenditures are Beverages, Meat, Fish & Egg, Milk & Milk products, Fruits & nuts and Vegetables. In the non-Food group the % expenditure on Miscellaneous goods & services has increased form 13.39% in 72-73 to 16.59% in 83 and declined to 14.02% in 99-2000.

In case of urban areas also similar pattern has been observed. The proportion of expenditure on Food has declined from 64.85% in 72-73 to 59.38% in 83 and to 49.04% in 99-2000.Among the non-food items the % of expenditure has increased form 35.15% in 72-73 to 40.62% in 83 and to 50.96 in 99-2000. In the non-food group the proportion of expenditure on Miscellaneous goods & services has increased form 18.55% in 72-73 to 21.62% in 83 and declined to 18.63% in 99-2000.

Table 3.4 Per Capita per month (30 days Expenditure (in Rs.0.00) of broad groups of Food and non-Food items and % to total expenditure in rural areas of Kerala

Sl. No.	Item		Oct.72-Sep.73	Jul77-Jun - 78	Jan-Dec 83	July 87-Jun - 88	Jul.93-Jun -94	July 99-Jun 00
			Year					
1	Total Cereals	PCE	13.49	17.6	34.86	37.83	66.46	110.68
		%	31.97	23.71	24.01	17.89	17.53	14.45
2	Gram	PCE	0.04	0.14	0.25	0.46	1.06	1.87
		%	0.09	0.19	0.17	0.22	0.27	0.24
3	Cereals Substitute	PCE	2.3	2.1	2.34	2.8	4.19	4.78
		%	5.45	2.83	1.61	1.32	1.07	0.62
4	Pulse & pulse products	PCE	0.54	1.12	2.34	3.69	7.2	13.47
		%	1.28	1.51	1.61	1.74	1.84	1.76
5	Milk & Milk products	PCE	1.52	3.07	5.97	9.76	20.39	37.88
		%	3.6	4.14	4.11	4.62	5.22	4.95
6	Edible oil	PCE	0.82	1.58	3.96	6.76	11.3	20.22
		%	1.94	2.13	2.73	3.2	2.89	2.64
7	Meat, Eggs, and Fish	PCE	1.92	4	8.97	15.59	33.01	61.33
		%	4.55	5.39	6.18	7.37	8.46	8.01
8	Vegetables	PCE	0.94	1.73	4.13	7.48	16.27	29.53
		%	2.23	2.33	2.84	3.54	4.17	3.86
9	Fruits & Nuts dry Fruits	PCE	1.79	3.86	8.12	14.38	23.9	38.51
		%	4.24	5.2	5.59	6.8	6.12	5.03
10	Sugar	PCE	1.51	1.51	2.94	4.58	9.96	12.07
		%	3.58	2.03	2.02	2.17	2.55	1.58
11	Salt	PCE	0.07	0.1	0.16	0.22	0.46	1.02
		%	0.17	0.13	0.11	0.1	0.12	0.13
12	Spices	PCE	1.23	2.52	3.49	6.42	10.22	19.69
		%	2.92	3.4	2.4	3.04	2.62	2.57
13	Beverages etc	PCE	4	6.09	11.71	16.75	29.62	60.16
		%	9.48	8.21	8.06	7.92	7.59	7.86
14	Food Total	PCE	29.71	45.42	89.54	126.76	236.03	411.19
		%	70.42	61.2	61.67	59.94	60.46	53.7
15	Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	PCE	1.58	2.55	4.5	6.79	13.01	19.11
		%	3.74	3.44	3.1	3.21	3.33	2.5
16	Fuel & light	PCE	2.48	4.4	8.45	13.53	22.41	45.9
		%	5.88	5.93	5.82	6.4	5.74	5.99
17	Clothing	PCE	1.78	5.38	9.27	10.78	16.8	42.62
		%	4.22	7.25	6.38	5.1	4.3	5.57
18	Footwear	PCE	0.05	0.26	0.95	1.55	3.54	6.06
		%	0.12	0.35	0.65	0.73	0.91	0.79
19	Misc. goods & services	PCE	5.65	11.7	24.09	38.78	78.39	107.34
		%	13.39	15.76	16.59	18.34	20.08	14.02
20	Non-Food	PCE	12.48	28.98	55.66	84.76	154.38	354.51
		%	29.58	39.05	38.33	40.08	39.54	46.3
21	Total Consumer expenditure	PCE	42.19	74.22	145.2	211.47	390.41	765.71
		%	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO different rounds.

Table 3.5 Per Capita per month (30 days Expenditure (in Rs.0.00) of broad groups of Food and non-Food items and % to total expenditure in Urban areas of Kerala

Sl No.	Item		Oct.72-Sep 73	Jul77-Jun -78	Jan-Dec 83	July 87-Jun -88	Jul.93-Jun -94	July 99-Jun-00
					Year			
1	Total Cereals	PCE	14.16	16.7	35.18	35.82	64.13	105.74
		%	24.3	20.19	19.95	13.46	12.99	11..34
2	Gram	PCE	0.07	0.22	0.4	0.67	1..55	2.54
		%	0.1?	0.27	0.22	0.25	0.31	0.27
3	Cereals Substitute	PCE	1.26	1.03	0.78	0.85	1.86	2..22
		%	2.16	1.25	0.44	0.32	0.38	0..24
4	Pulse & Pulse Products	PCE	1.03	1.5	3.02	5.06	8.07	16.98
		%	1.77	1.81	1.71	1.9	1.63	1.82
5	Milk & Milk products	PCE	3.06	4.35	9.02	16.27	27.67	49.27
		%	5.25	5. 26	5.11	6.11	5.6	5.82
6	Edible oil	PCE	1.25	2.04	5.04	8.53	12.74	23
		%	2.15	2.47	2.86	3.2	2.58	2.47
7	Meat, Eggs, and Fish	PCE	2..96	4.77	11.62	21.24	40.04	70.38
		%	5.08	5.77	6.59	7.98	8.11	7.55
8	Vegetables	PCE	1.28	1.98	4.99	8.97	16.92	33.22
		%	2.2	2.39	2.83	3.37	3.43	3.56
9	Fruits & Nuts Dry Fruits	PCE	2.46	4.6	9.76	17.54	27.1	42.18
		%	4.22	5.56	5.53	6.59	5.49	4.51
10	Sugar	PCE	1.64	1.81	3.39	5.11	10.82	12.48
		%	2.81	2.19	1.92	1.92	2.19	1. 34
11	Salt	PCE	0.06	0.09	0.14	0.24	0.52	1.06
		%	0.1	0.11	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.11
12	Spices	PCE	1.34	2.53	3.76	6.49	9.97	20.1
		%	2.3	3.06	2.13	2.44	2.02	2.16
13	Beverages etc	PCE	7.22	9.35	18.44	25.19	44.77	78.28
		%	12.39	11..3	10.46	9.46	9.97	8.39
14	Food Total	PCE	37.79	50.97	104.73	159.2	266.27	457.35
		%	64.85	61.61	59.38	59.79	53.92	49.04
15	Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	PCE	1.92	2.38	4.23	5.48	11.9	18.59
		%	3.3	2.88	2.4	2.06	2.41	1.99
16	Fuel & light	PCE	3.15	5.2	10.23	16.02	27.38	54.29
		%	5.41	6.29	5.8	6.02	5.54	5.82
17	Clothing	PCE	2.83	5.75	14.35	12.86	36.21	53.84
		%	4.86	6..95	8.14	4.83	7..33	5.77
18	Footwear	PCE	0.15	0.4	1.69	2.69	4.81	8..56
		%	0.26	0.48	0.96	1.01	0.97	0.92
19	Misc. good & Services	PCE	10.81	13.55	38.13	56.87	122.61	173.75
		%	18.55	16.38	21.62	21.36	24.83	18.63
20	Non-Food	PCE	20.48	31.76	71.63	114..3	227.55	475.26
		%	35.14	38.38	40.61	42.91	46.07	50. 96
21	Total Consumer Expenditure	PCE	58.27	82.73	176.36	266.22	493.83	932.62
		%	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO different rounds.

Looking at the latest round data given here for Kerala, a picture of "average" rural and urban consumption patterns for the state as a whole emerges. The following are the main features.

For rural Kerala per capita 30 'days' consumer expenditure was split up into 53.7% for Food and 46.3% for non-Food. Food included 14.05% for Cereals, and 5% for Fruits & nuts, 8% for Meat, Fish & Eggs, 7.86% on Beverages and 5% for Milk & Milk products. 3.86% were spent on Vegetables. Non-Food included 6% for Fuel & light and 5.57% for Clothing and only 0.79% on Footwear. Miscellaneous goods & services constituted 14.02% for rural Kerala. Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants constituted 2.5%.

For the urban sector average MPCE was split up into 49% for Food and 50.96% for non-Food. Of Food expenditure only 11.34% went toward Cereals. While 8.39% was on Beverages and 7.55% on Meat, Fish & Eggs., 5.82% was spent on Milk & Milk products, 4.51% on Fruits & nuts and 3.56% on Vegetables.

5.82% was spent per person on Fuel & light, 5.77% on Clothing and 0.92% on foot wear. Miscellaneous goods & services constituted 18.63%. 1.99% was spent on Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants. Table 3.6 gives rural urban differences in the % of per capita consumption of different groups of items in Kerala.

Table 3.6 Rural Urban differences in the value of per capita consumption of different groups of items in Kerala. based on 55th round

SI. No.	Items group	% expenditure per persons over 30 day period		Difference urban-rural %
		Rural	Urban	
1.	Cereals	14.45	11.34	-3.11
2	Pulses	1.76	1.82	0.06
3.	Milk	4.95	5.82	0.87
4.	Edible oil	2.64	2.47	-0.17
5.	Meat Eggs and Fish	8.01	7.55	-0.46
6.	Vegetables	3.86	3.56	-0.3
7.	Fruits & nuts	5.03	4.51	-0.52
8	Sugar	1.58	1.34	-0.24
9	Beverages	7.86	8.39	0.53
10.	All Food	53.7	49.04	-4.66
11.	Pan, Tobacco, intoxicants	2.5	1.99	-0.51
12	Fuel & light	5.99	5.82	-0.17
13	Clothing	5.57	5.77	0.2
14.	Footwear	0.79	0.92	0.13
19	Misc: goods and service total	14.02	18.63	4.61
21	All non-Food	46.3	50.96	4.66
22	Total consumer expenditure	100	100	0

Source: NSSO different rounds.

Rural expenditure % exceeded urban levels among food items for cereal and cereal substitutes, Edible oil, Meat, fish & egg, Vegetables, Fruits & nuts and Sugar. For the items Pulses, Milk and Beverages urban expenditure % exceeded rural levels.

Non-Food expenditure per person was found higher in the urban sector than in the rural. Among non-food items for items Pan, tobacco & intoxicants, and Fuel & light % of rural expenditure exceeded that of urban and for all other non-food items urban expenditure was higher.

3.6 Movement in Budget share In India

The consumer expenditure on some broad groups of items and % to total expenditure in the Rural and Urban areas of India for six different rounds of N.S.S. are given in tables 3.7 and 3.8 respectively.[24]

It is found that the expenditures have increased over the years on all the items for both in the rural and urban areas as may be expected due to the price rise in general. In terms of % there has been a substantial fall in the proportion of expenditure on Food from 72.81% in 1972-73 to 65.57% in 1983 and to 59.4% in 1999-2000 in the rural areas

In respect of non-Food items the % expenditure has increased from 27.19% in 1972-73 to 34.42% in 1983 and 40.60% in 1999-2000. In the Food group the items attracting more expenditure are Milk and Milk products, Vegetables, meat, Eggs and Fish, Edible oil and Beverages. In the non-Food group, the % expenditure on Miscellaneous goods & services has increased from 8.89% in 1972-73 to 12.74% and declined to 11.61 % in 1999-2000.

In case of urban areas also similar pattern has been observed. The proportion of expenditure on Food has declined from 64.49% in 1972-73 to 59.12% in 1983 and 48.06% in 1999-2000. In the non-Food group, the proportion of expenditure on Miscellaneous goods & services has increased form 19.22 % in 1972-73 to 24.45% in 1983 and 22.06% in 1999-2000

Looking at the latest round data given here, a picture of "average" rural and urban consumption patterns for the country as a whole emerges. The following are the main features.

For rural India per capita 30-days consumer expenditure of Rs. 486 was split up into Rs. 289 on an average for Food and Rs. 197 for non-Food. Food included 22.16%for cereal and cereal substitutes, 8.75%for Milk and Milk products, 6.17%for Vegetables and 4.19% for Beverages.

Table 3.7 Per Capita per month (30days) expenditure (in Rs. 0.00) of broad groups of Food and non-Food items and % to total expenditure in rural areas of All –India

Sl. No.	Item		Oct.72-Sep. 73	Jul77-Jun- 78	Jan-Dec 83	July 87-Jun - 88	Jul.93-Jun - 94	July 99-Jun -00
1	Cereals	PCE	17.9	22.6	36.3	41.3	68.1	107.75
		%	40.6	32.8	32.3	26.1	24.2	22.16
2	Gram	PCE	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.64
		%	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.13
3	Cereals Substitute	PCE	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.36
		%	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.07
4	Pulse & Pulse products	PCE	1.9	2.6	4	6.3	10.7	18.5
		%	4.3	3.8	3.5	4	3.8	3.81
5	Milk & Milk products	PCE	3.2	5.3	8.4	13.6	26.7	42.56
		%	7.3	7.7	7.5	8.6	9.5	8.75
6	Edible oil	PCE	1.6	2.5	4.5	8.9	12.4	18.16
		%	3.5	3.6	4	5.6	4.4	3.74
7	Meat, Eggs and Fish	PCE	1.1	1.8	3.4	5.1	9.4	16.14
		%	2.5	2.7	3	3.2	3.3	3.32
8	Vegetables	PCE	1.6	2.6	5.3	8.2	17	29.98
		%	3.6	3.8	4.7	5.2	6	6.17
9	Fruits & Nuts dry Fruits	PCE	0.5	0.8	1.6	2.6	4	8.36
		%	1	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.72
10	Sugar	PCE	1.7	1.8	3.2	4.5	8.6	11.57
		%	3.8	2.6	2.8	2.9	3	2.38
11	Salt	PCE	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	1.09
		%	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.22
12	Spices	PCE	1.1	2	2.6	4.3	6.9	13.32
		%	2.6	2.8	2.3	2.7	2.5	2.74
13	Beverages etc.	PCE	1.1	1.7	3.7	6.2	11.7	20.38
		%	2.4	2.5	3.3	3.9	4.2	4.19
14	Food Total	PCE	32.2	44.3	73.7	100.8	177.8	288.8
		%	72.8	64.3	65.6	63.8	63.2	59.4
15	Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	PCE	1.4	2	3.4	5	9	13.96
		%	3.1	2.9	3	3.2	3.2	2.87
16	Fuel & light	PCE	2.5	4.1	7.9	11.8	20.7	36.56
		%	5.6	6	7	7.4	7.4	7.52
17	Clothing	PCE	3.1	6	9.7	10.5	15.1	33.28
		%	7	8.7	8.6	6.7	5.4	6.85
18	Footwear	PCE	0.2	0.5	1.1	1.6	2.5	5.37
		%	0.5	0.7	1	1	0.9	1.1
19	Misc. good & services	PCE	3.9	7.3	14.3	22.8	48.7	56.45
		%	8.8	10.6	12.7	14.4	17.3	11.61
20	Non-Food	PCE	12	24.6	38.7	57.3	103.6	197.36
		%	27.2	35.7	34.4	36.2	36.8	40.6
21	Total Consumer Expenditure	PCE	44.2	68.9	112.5	158.1	281.4	486.16
		%	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO different rounds.

Table 3.8: Per Capita per month (30 days Expenditure (in Rs.0.00) of broad groups of Food and non-Food items and % to total expenditure in Urban areas of All- India

S. No	Item		Oct.72-Sep.73	Jul77-Jun-78	Jan-Dec 83	July 87-Jun-88	Jul.93-Jun-94	July 99-Jun-00
1	Total Cereals	PCE	14.8	19.7	32	37	64.3	105.57
		%	23.3	20.4	19.5	14.8	14	12.35
2	Gram	PCE	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.95
		%	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.11
3	Cereals Substitute	PCE	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.35
		%	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.04
4	Pulse & Pulse Products	PCE	2.2	3.4	5.3	8.4	13.9	24.25
		%	3.4	3.6	3.2	3.4	3	2.84
5	Milk & Milk products	PCE	5.9	9.2	15.2	23.8	44.9	74.17
		%	9.3	9.5	9.2	9.5	9.8	8.68
6	Edible oil	PCE	3.1	4.5	7.9	13.2	20.1	26.81
		%	4.8	4.6	4.8	5.3	4.4	3.14
7	Meat, Eggs, and Fish	PCE	2.1	3.3	5.9	8.9	15.5	26.78
		%	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.13
8	Vegetables	PCE	2.8	4.2	8.2	13.1	25	43.9
		%	4.4	4.4	5	5.2	5.5	5.13
9	Fruits & Nuts dry Fruits	PCE	1.3	1.9	3.5	6.3	10.2	20.68
		%	2	2	2.1	2.5	2.2	2.42
10	Sugar	PCE	2.3	2.5	4	5.9	11	14
		%	3.6	2.6	2.5	2.3	2.4	1.64
11	Salt	PCE	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	1.38
		%	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.16
12	Spices	PCE	1.4	2.4	3.3	5.5	8.8	17.73
		%	2.2	2.5	2	2.2	1.9	2.07
13	Beverages etc	PCE	4.8	6.1	11.2	16.8	33	54.28
		%	7.6	6.3	6.8	6.7	7.2	6.35
14	Food Total	PCE	40.8	57.7	97	139.8	250.3	410.84
		%	64.5	60	59.1	55.9	54.7	48.06
15	Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	PCE	1.8	2.3	4	6.5	10.7	16.22
		%	2.8	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.3	1.9
16	Fuel & light	PCE	3.6	6.2	11.4	16.7	30.2	66.26
		%	5.6	6.4	6.9	6.7	6.6	7.75
17	Clothing	PCE	3.3	6.8	12.5	15	21.4	51.76
		%	5.3	7.1	7.6	6	4.7	6.05
18	Footwear	PCE	0.3	0.6	1.8	2.7	4.2	10.05
		%	0.4	0.6	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.18
19	Misc. good & Services	PCE	12.17	17.9	40.11	58.64	126.03	188.6
		%	19.22	18.62	24.45	23.46	27.52	22.06
20	Non-Food	PCE	22.5	38.5	67.1	110.2	207.7	444.08
		%	35.5	40	40.9	44.1	45.3	51.94
21	Total Cons. Expenditure	PCE	63.3	96.2	164	249.9	458	854.92
		%	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO Different Rounds

Non –Food included 7.52%for Fuel & light, 6.85% for Clothing and only 1% for footwear. Miscellaneous goods &. services constituted 11.61%for rural India. Of this 2.87% was spent on Pan Tobacco and intoxicants.

For the Urban sector, average MPCE of Rs.854 was split up into Rs.410 for Food and Rs.444 for non-Food. Of Food expenditure only 12.35%went towards Cereals, while 8.68% was spent on Milk & Milk products, 5.13% on Vegetables and 6.35%on Beverages. 7.75% was spent per person on Fuel & light and 6.05%on Clothing. Miscellaneous goods & services accounted for 22.06%for urban India. 1.9% was spent on Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants. Table 3.9 gives the Rural Urban differences in the value of per capita consumption of different groups of items in India.

Table 3.9: Rural Urban differences in the value of per capita consumption of different groups of items in India.

SI. No	Item group	% Expenditure per persons over 30-day period.		Difference urban-rural %
		Rural	Urban	
1.	Cereals	22.16	12.35	-9.81
2.	Pulses	3.81	2.84	-0.97
3.	Milk	8.75	8.68	-0.07
4.	Edible oil	3.74	3.14	-0.6
5.	Meat, Eggs and Fish	3.32	3.13	-0.19
6.	Vegetables	6.17	5.13	-1.04
7.	Fruits & nuts	1.72	2.42	0.7
8.	Sugar	2.38	1.64	-0.74
9.	Beverages	4.19	6.35	2.16
10.	All Food	59.4	48.06	-11.34
11.	Pan, Tobacco & Intoxicants	2.87	1.9	-0.97
12.	Fuel & light	7.52	7.75	0.23
13.	Clothing	6.85	6.05	-0.8
14.	Footwear	1.1	1.18	0.08
19.	Miscellaneous goods & services total	11.67	22.06	10.45
21.	All non-Food	40.6	51.94	11.34
22.	Total consumer expenditure	100	100	0

Source: NSSO different rounds

Rural expenditure levels per capita exceeded urban levels for the food items, Cereals, Pulses, Milk, Edible oil, Meat, Fish &Egg Vegetables, Sugar, and Spices. Among Non-Food items, rural expenditure levels per capita exceeded urban levels only for Pan Tobacco and intoxicants and Clothing. For other Non- food items urban expenditure levels per capita exceeded rural levels.

3.7 Food Expenditure Pattern in Kerala

Analysis of the per capita expenditure on individual items of Food in relation to total Food expenditure will show clearly how total Food expenditure is allocated and the changes in consumption pattern. The following two tables 3.10 and Table 3.11. Present per capita per month expenditure on broad groups of Food items and % to total Food expenditure in rural and urban areas of Kerala.

The table 3.10 reveals that in the rural sector the % of expenditure on Cereals has declined form 45.41% in 1972-73 to 38.93% in 1983 and 26.92% in 99-2000. The increase in % expenditure has been observed in respect of Milk & Milk products, Pulses, meat Eggs & Fish and Vegetables. The % of expenditure on Fruits & nuts has increased from 6.02% in 72-73 to 9.37% in 99-2000. The % expenditure on Edible oil has increased form 2.76% in 72-73 to 4.92% in 99-2000. The % of expenditure on Sugar has declined from 5.08% in 72-73 to2.94 in 99-2000. The % of expenditure on Salt has declined form 0.24% in 72-73 to 0.29% in 99-2000.

The % of expenditure on Spices has increased from 4.14 % in 72-73 to 4.79% in 99-2000. As different from all – India pattern, the % of expenditure on Beverages has declined form 13.46% in 1972-73 to 13.08% in 1983, and then increased to 14.63% in 99-2000.

Table 3.10: Percentage expenditure on different items of Food to total Food expenditure Kerala – Rural.

S. No.	Item		Oct 72-Sep 73	Jul 77-June 78	Jan -Dec 83	Jul 87 -June 88	Jul 93 - June 94	June99-July 2000
1	Total Cereals	%	45.41	38.75	38.93	29.84	29.00	26.92
2	Gram	%	0.13	0.31	0.28	0.36	0.45	0.24
3	Cereals Substitutes	%	7.74	4.62	2.61	2.21	1.78	1.16
4	Pulses & Pulse Products	%	1.82	2.47	2.61	2.91	3.05	3.28
5	Milk & Milk products	%	5.12	6.76	6.67	7.70	8.64	9.21
6	Edible oil	%	2.76	3.48	4.42	5.33	4.79	4.92
7	Meat, Eggs and Fish	%	6.46	8.81	10.02	12.30	13.99	14.96
8	Vegetables	%	3.16	3.81	4.61	5.90	6.89	7.18
9	Fruits & nuts, dry Fruits	%	6.02	8.50	9.07	11.34	10.13	9.37
10	Sugar	%	5.08	3.32	3.28	3.61	4.22	2.94
11	Salt	%	0.24	0.22	3.50	0.17	0.19	0.29
12	Spices	%	4.14	5.55	3.90	5.06	4.33	4.79
13	Beverages etc	%	13.46	13.41	12.08	13.21	12.55	14.63
14	Food Total	%	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: NSSO different rounds

The table 3.11 reveals that in the urban sector, the % expenditure on Cereals has declined form 37.47% in 1972-73 to 23.12% in 99-2000. The increase in % expenditure has been observed in respect of Milk & Milk products, Pulses, Meat, Fish & Eggs, and Spices. The % of expenditure on Edible oil has increased from 3.31% in 72-73 to 5.03% in 93-94.

Table 3.11: Percentage expenditure on different items of Food to total Food expenditure Kerala – urban

S. No.	Item		Oct 72-Sep 73	Jul 77-June 78	Jan -Dec 83	Jul 87 -June 88	Jul 93 -June 94	June99-July 2000
								(Round (Year))
1	Total Cereals	%	37.47	32.76	33.59	22.50	24.08	23.12
2	Gram	%	0.19	0.43	3.22	0.42	0.58	0.56
3	Cereals Substitutes	%	3.33	2.02	0.74	0.53	0.70	0.49
4	Pulses & Pulse Products	%	2.73	2.94	2.88	3.18	3.03	3.71
5	Milk & Milk products	%	8.00	8.53	8.61	10.22	10.39	10.78
6	Edible oil	%	3.31	4.00	4.81	5.36	4.78	5.03
7	Meat, Eggs and Fish	%	7.83	9.36	11.18	13.34	15.04	15.38
8	Vegetables	%	3.39	3.88	4.76	5.64	6.35	7.26
9	Fruits & nuts, dry Fruits	%	6.51	9.02	9.32	11.02	10.18	9.20
10	Sugar	%	4.34	3.55	3.24	3.21	4.06	2.79
11	Salt	%	0.16	0.18	0.13	0.15	0.20	0.23
12	Spices	%	3.55	4.96	3.59	4.08	3.70	4.39
13	Beverages etc	%	19.12	18.34	17.61	15.83	16.81	17.16
14	Food Total	%	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: NSSO different rounds.

The % of expenditure on Sugar has declined from 4.34%in 72-73 to 2.79% in 99-2000. The % of expenditure on Salt has increased from 0.16% in 72-73 to 0.23% in 99-2000. The % of expenditure on Beverages in urban Kerala declined from 19.11% in 72-73 to 17.16 % in 99-2000. Among Condiments & Spices, Turmeric, Black pepper, Tamarind and Ginger are the few items having Homegrown stock consumption in urban areas of Kerala, which constitutes 2% of the total per capita consumption of Condiments and Spices in urban Kerala.

3.8 Food Expenditure Pattern in India

Analysis of the per capita expenditure on individual items of Food in relation to total Food expenditure will show clearly how total Food expenditure is allocated and also the changes in consumption pattern. The following tables 3.12 and

3.13 present % expenditure on items of Food to total Food expenditure in the rural and urban areas of India.

Table 3.12: Percentage expenditure on different items of Food to total Food expenditure India – Rural.

Sl. No.	Item	Oct.72-Sep.73	Jul77-Jun-78	Jan-Dec 83	July 87-Jun-88	Jul.93-Jun-94	June 99-Jul-00
1	Total Cereals	55.7	51	49.2	41	38.3	37.3
2	Gram	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.22
3	Cereals Substitutes	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.12
4	Pulses & Pulse Products	5.9	5.9	5.4	6.2	6	6.4
5	Milk & Milk products	10	11.9	11.5	13.5	15	14.7
6	Edible oil	4.8	5.5	6.1	8.8	7	6.28
7	Meat, Eggs and Fish	3.4	4.2	4.6	5.1	5.3	5.58
8	Vegetables	4.9	5.9	7.2	8.2	9.6	10.3
9	Fruits & nuts, dry Fruits	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.5	2.3	2.89
10	Sugar	5.2	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.8	4.01
11	Salt	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.37
12	Spices	3.5	4.4	3.6	4.2	3.9	4.61
13	Beverages etc	3.3	3.9	5	6.1	6.6	7.05
14	Food Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO different rounds

It is found that in the rural sector the % expenditure on Cereals has declined from 55.72% in 1972-73 to 37.3% in 99-2000.

The % of expenditure on Milk & Milk products has declined from 10% in 1972-73 to 4.7% in 99-2000. The % of expenditure on Edible oil has increased from 4.8% in 72-73 to 6.28% in 1999-2000. Increase in % expenditure has been observed in respect of Meat, Fish & Eggs, 3.39% in 1972-73 to 5.58% in 99-2000. Increase in % expenditure has been observed in case of Vegetables also 4.94% in 72-73 to 10.3% in 99-2000. For Fruits & nuts also increase in % expenditure has been observed, 1.4% in 72-73 to 2.89% in1999-2000. Increase in % expenditure on Beverages has been observed, 3.33% in 72-73 to 7.05% in 99-2000.

In the urban sector increase in % expenditure has been observed for Milk & Milk products 14.47% in 72-73to 18.05% in 99-2000, Vegetables 6.78% in 72-73 to 10.68% in 99-2000,Fruits & nuts 3.11% in 72-73 to 5.03% in 99-2000. % of expenditure on Beverages has increased from 11.80% in 72-73 to 13.21% in 99-2000.

Table 3.13: Percentage expenditure on different items of Food to total Food expenditure, India – Urban.

Sl. No.	Item	Oct.72-Sep 73	Jul77-June 78	Jan-Dec 83	July 87-June - 88	Jul.93-Jun 94	June 99-Jul 00
1	Total Cereals	36.17	34.09	32.96	26.45	25.68	25.69
2	Gram	0.49	0.42	0.33	0.29	0.34	0.23
3	Cereals Substitutes	0.2	0.17	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.09
4	Pulses & Pulse Products	5.29	5.95	5.46	6.04	5.56	5.9
5	Milk & Milk products	14.47	15.88	15.62	17.05	17.93	18.05
6	Edible oil	7.52	7.73	8.19	9.47	8.03	6.52
7	Meat, Eggs and Fish	5.07	5.77	6.1	6.33	6.2	6.57
8	Vegetables	6.78	7.33	8.43	9.39	9.99	10.68
9	Fruits & nuts, dry Fruits	3.11	3.26	3.57	4.49	4.07	5.03
10	Sugar	5.58	4.4	4.16	4.19	4.39	3.4
11	Salt	0.17	0.23	0.19	0.21	0.25	0.36
12	Spices	3.35	4.2	3.43	3.92	3.51	4.32
13	Beverages etc	11.8	10.56	11.56	12.04	13.19	13.21
14	Food Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO different rounds

3.9 Per capita consumption of individual items in India: Food items.

Per capita expenditure estimates for different items of consumption including Food, Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants and Fuel, Clothing & Footwear Education and Medical expenses and other Miscellaneous items are presented based on different rounds of NSS data.

Table 3. 14 and 3.15 shows the quantity and value of total consumption of different items of Food, Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants and Fuel & light per person for a period of 30 days during 1987-88, 1993-94 and 1999-2000 for All India, for the rural and urban sectors. These tables are presented Appendix

3.9.1 Cereals and Pulses

All India consumption of Atta has declined from 4.48kg in 87-88 per person for 30 days to 4.32 kg in 93-94 and increased to 4.45 kg in 1999-2000 in rural areas. While for the urban sector rise was observed, from 4.37 kg in 87-88 to 4.44 kg in 1993-94 and to 4.45 kg in 99-2000. In the rural sector per capita consumption of Rice has declined from 6.81 kg in 87-88 to 6.79 kg in 93-94 and to 6.59 kg per person for a period of 30 days in 99-2000.

In the urban sector Rice consumption per person showed a decline from 5.26kg in 87-88 to 5.13kg in 93-94 and to 5.10 kg in 99-2000. The decline in Rice consumption was more pronounced in rural sector (0.20 kg) than urban (0.03 kg) between 93-94 and 99-2000. Similarly the rise observed in the consumption of Atta was higher in rural sector (0.32kg) between 93-94 and 99-2000 while the rise observed in the urban sector was (0.15kg) lower than that. The per capita consumption of Pulses remained stable in rural areas, a marginal rise in consumption of most of the varieties appears to be indicated in the urban sector.

3.9.2 Milk & Milk products.

The per capita consumption per month has increased by about 600-700 ml in both sectors during 87-88 to 93-94 but it was under 4 liters (about 130ml per day) in rural areas and under 5 liters (about 165 ml per day) in Urban areas. One third of rural households and one fifth of all urban households reported no consumption of Milk during the last 30 days.

These proportions have not changed greatly since the 87-88. In the rural sector per capita consumption of Milk per month increased since 93-94 by about 150ml. It still continues to be less than 4 liters in rural areas and just above 5 liters in urban areas. In the urban sector per capita consumption per month increased since 93-94 by about 210ml, that is between 93-94 and 99-2000.

3.9.3 Edible oil

It is found that per capita consumption of the item in the urban sector is much higher than the same in rural sector. All India estimates of per capita consumption of Edible oil are higher in 99-2000 than in 1993-94. In the urban sector the difference is much pronounced. Table 3.16 gives Edible oil (gm) consumed per person in 30 days for India.

Table 3.16. Edible oil (gm) consumed per person in 30 days.

Year	Rural	Urban
1993-94	340	460
99-2000	410	560

Source: NSSO Different Rounds.

3.9.4 Meat, Fish & Eggs

There is a great deal of regional variation in the consumption of these items. At the all-India level, Consumption of meat includes mainly three categories: goat meat, mutton and Chicken. All India estimates of per capita consumption of meat are higher in1999-2000 than in 93-94. While in the rural sector per capita consumption of meat has increased from 120 gm per head per month in 1993-94 to 150gm in 99-2000, in the urban sector the per capita consumption has increased from 200 gms in 1993-94 to 240 gms in 99-2000.

All India estimates of per capita consumption of Eggs shows that, per capita consumption of Eggs has increased from 0.64 Eggs per person in the rural sector in 93-94 to 1.09 Eggs in 99-2000. In the urban sector the increase was more pronounced that is from 1.48 Eggs in 93-94 to 2.06 Eggs in 99-2000. Both rural and urban areas show some increase in per capita consumption of Fish.

3.9.5 Vegetables

Per capita consumption of potato's, onion, cauliflower, cabbage, ladies finger, tomato, chilly & lemon were higher during 1999-2000 in both rural and urban areas than during 1993-94. On the whole per capita consumption levels of Vegetables appear to have risen slightly

3.9.6 Fruits & nuts

The Food group Fruits & nuts showed a marked rural-urban differential as measured by the % of households reporting consumption last month. Among individual items the rural-urban differential in this % is now seen to be as high as 25% points for bananas, 17 for apples and 4-6 points for groundnuts, mangos and Coconuts. % of households reporting consumption have increased for bananas and apples and remained stable or fallen slightly for Coconuts and mangoes.

It may be noted that bananas and Coconuts accounted for 75% of the value of consumption of fresh Fruits & nuts by rural households in 93-94 and the corresponding figure was 68% in 99-2000. In the urban sector bananas and Coconuts accounted for 62% of the value of consumption of fresh Fruits & nuts by urban households in 93-94, and the corresponding figure was 60% in 99-2000. Table3.17 gives Consumption of important Fruits & nuts in India.

Table 3.17: Consumption of important Fruits & nuts.

Fruits & nuts	Rural				Urban			
	% Of households reporting consumption last montah		Value of per capita consumption Rs in 30 days		% Of households reporting consumption last month		Value of per capita consumption (Rs.) in 30 days	
	87-88	93-94	93-94	99-2000	87-88	93-94	93-94	99-2000
Banana	32	43	1.15	1.90	60	68	2.80	4.40
Coconut	25	24	1.23	1.92	31	30	1.89	2.96
Mango	9	8	0.40	1.04	14	13	1.30	2.48
Apple	6	9	-	-	19	26	2.35	1.62
All fresh Fruits	56	64	4.90	6.89	78	84	12.20	16.67
Ground nut	10	14	0.48	0.83	18	22	-	-

Source NSSO different rounds.

3.9.7 Other Food: Sugar

While all India consumption of crystalline Sugar shows an increase of nearly 320gm per month in the rural sector, it is offset by an even sharper fall in per capita rural consumption of Gur, so that the Sugar group as a whole registers little change. Since 1993-94 some substitution of Sugar for Gur appears to have taken place in the urban sector as well.

3.9.8 Beverages: tea:

While the % of households reporting consumption of purchased tea ("tea: no. Of cups") has remained stable since 1987-88; the % reporting consumption of tea brewed at home has gone up by about 6-7 % points. Only about 7 % of the rural households and 13 % of urban households reported consumption of Coffee powder.

3.10 Per capita consumption of individual items Kerala

3.10.1 Food items

Per capita expenditure estimates for different items of consumption including Food, Tobacco, Fuel, Clothing and Footwear, Educational, Medical expenses and other Miscellaneous items for Kerala are presented for individual item based on state wise data. Since data on per capita expenditure of individual items were available only for the latest round of NSS [1999-2000] comparison with earlier round data cannot be presented for the state. Table 3.18, 3.19 gives quantity and value of per capita purchase and consumption over a 30-day period for important items of Food for rural and urban Kerala.

The per capita consumption of Rice in the rural areas of Kerala was higher than the same in the urban areas. Among individual items other items attracting more per capita consumption in rural Kerala than urban are consumption of Vegetables items like Coconut, Salt, Dry chilies, Other Spices, Coffee powder, Salted Refreshments, Prepared sweets, Cooked meals.

Table 3.18 Monthly per capita quantity and value of consumption for Food items for Rural Kerala

Sl. No	Item	1999 - 2000	
		Quantity (kg*)	Value (Rs)
1	Rice	9.16	99.47
2	Atta	0.7	6.89
3	Cereal: s.t.	9.89	110.68
4	Cereal Substitutes	0.96	4.78
5	Pulse& Pulse Products: s.t	0.55	15.33
6	Milk: liquid (liter)	2.97	35.91
7	Milk & Milk products: s.t.	-	37.88
8	Coconut oil	0.31	16.61
9	Edible oil: s.t	0.42	20.22
10	Eggs, Fish Meat: s.t.	-	61.33
11	Vegetables: s.t	-	29.53
12	Banana (no)	4.49	5.63
13	Coconut (no)	4.89	27.05
14	Fruits:(fresh): s.t.	-	37.54
15	Fruits:(dry): s.t.	0.02	0.97
16	Sugar	0.81	11.55
17	Gur	0.03	0.49
18	Sugar: s.t	0.85	12.07
19	Salt	0.27	1.02
20	Turmeric (gm)	24.26	1.23
21	Black pepper (gm)	6.07	1.18
22	Dry chilies (gm)	11.51	5.82
23	Garlic (gm)	25.87	1.01
24	Tamarind (gm)	72.82	3.35
25	Ginger (gm)	20.94	0.79
26	Spices: s.t.	-	19.69
27	Tea: Leaf gm)	95.9	23.85
28	Biscuits	0.61	3.03
29	Salted Refreshments	1.52	4.48
30	Prepared sweets	0.09	0.91
31	Cooked meals (no)	1.36	18.36
32	Beverages etc: s.t:	-	60.16
33	Total Food	-	411

In case of urban areas of Kerala per capita consumption of Atta, Gram and Pulses were found higher than that in rural. The other items attracting more quantity consumption were Milk, Coconut oil, Meat, Fish & Eggs. Among Vegetables almost all items found higher per capita quantity consumption in the urban areas of Kerala. Among Fruits & nuts, for almost all items per capita urban quantity consumption were found higher. Besides these the per capita quantity consumption of Sugar, Gur were also found higher than rural consumption of the same.

Table 3.19 quantity and value of per capita purchase and consumption over a 30-day period of important items of Food & Fuel for Kerala. Urban

Sl.No	Item	Quantity (kg*)	Value (Rs)
1	Pulse & pulse products: s.t	0.69	19.52
2	Milk: liquid (liter)	3.49	44.34
3	Milk & Milk products: s.t	-	49.27
4	Coconut oil	0.34	18.83
5	Edible oil: s.t	0.46	22.99
6	Eggs, Fish & meat: s.t	-	70.38
7	Vegetables: s.t.	-	33.22
8	Banana (no)	5.81	7.23
9	Coconut (no)	4.81	26.35
10	Fruits (fresh): s.t.	-	40.57
11	Fruits (dry): s.t.	0.03	1.51
12	Sugar	0.85	11.95
13	Gur	0.03	0.46
14	Sugar: s.t	0.88	12.48
15	Salt	0.26	1.06
16	Turmeric (gm)	24.18	1.19
17	Black pepper (gm)	6.28	1.26
18	Dry chilies (gm)	113.67	5.66
19	Garlic (gm)	28.07	1.08
20	Tamarind (gm)	73.84	3.54
21	Ginger (gm)	23.61	0.91
22	Spices: s.t.	-	20.1
23	Tea	103.34	26.53
24	Coffee: powder (gm)	11.79	1.42
25	Cold Beverages:	0.12	0.55
26	Other Beverages	-	0.93
27	Biscuits	1.07	4.18
28	Salted Refreshments	0.85	6.09
29	Prepared sweets	0.05	1.3
30	Cooked meals (no)	2.77	28.97
31	Other processed Food	-	6.19
32	Beverages etc.: s.t	-	78.28
33	Total Food	-	457

Source: NSSO (1999-2000), "Consumption of some important commodities in India, based on NSS 55th round, (July 1999- Jun 2000) data, report No. 461. s.t. shows sub total

3.11 Per capita consumption of individual items in India

3.11.1 Non –Food items.

Tables 3.20, 3.21 give per capita expenditure on individual items of Non - food for All India. These are given in Appendix

3.11.1.1 Pan, Bidis and Cigarettes:

Consumption of Finished pan has shown an increase between 1993-94 and 1999-2000 in rural areas. In case of urban sector consumption of finished pan declined between 1993-94 and 1999-2000. In both sectors smoking of Bidis has gone down judging by per capita consumption levels between 1993-94 and 1999-2000. It is noticed that the smoking of Cigarettes in the rural sector has increased during the same period while for the urban sector the same has shown a decline. Table 3.22 shows Consumption of Pan, Bidis and Cigarettes. All – India

Table 3.22: Consumption of Pan, Bidis and Cigarettes. All – India

Items	Year					
	1987-88		1993-94		99-2000	
	Per capita Consumption (no.)	% Of hhs reporting consumption	Per capita Consumption (no.)	% Of hhs reporting consumption	Per capita Consumption (no.)	% Of hhs reporting consumption
Pan Finished) R	0.65	10	0.64	10	0.83	27
U	1.70	15	1.39	12	1.20	21
Bidis R	49.5	47	45.7	45	38.18	62
U	38.7	31	32.4	27	22.13	39
Cigarettes R	1.0	4	0.8	4	0.96	_⊗
U	4.9	13	3.7	11	3.24	-

Source: NSSO (1999-2000), "Consumption of some important commodities in India, based on NSS 55th round, (July 1999- Jun 2000) data, report No. 461.

3.11.1.2 Fuel & light

Fire wood consumption per month has fallen in urban areas by more than 1 Kg per capita. The % of Firewood consuming households has fallen from 45% to 37%. Electricity consumption per person has risen from 2.3 standard units (Kwh) to 4.6 units per month in rural areas and from 9.7 units to 20.9 units in urban areas

between 93-94 and 99-2000. Finally the per capita consumption of LPG by Urban households has risen from 0.88 to 1.31 between 93-94 and 99-2000. The per capita consumption of LPG in rural sector remains to be very little.

3.11.1.3 Medical, Educational, Rent, Conveyance and other Miscellaneous Expenditure

Non-Food consumer expenditure is usually divided into six to eight different heads for the purpose of presentations of NSS estimates, such as Clothing, Fuel & light and Durable goods. Of these the category "Miscellaneous goods & services" commands the largest share of expenditure in both rural and urban areas in India. MPCE on this group of item as per NSSO 1999-2000 data was, 28.42% in total non-Food expenditure in rural areas, and 42.57% in urban areas.

Further, the share of this group has been increasing over time in rural areas. It has doubled over the period 1972-73 to 1999-2000. Unfortunately, most items of the Miscellaneous "category, in particular the Consumer services, are not amenable to measurement of quantities consumed. This make it extremely difficult to separate out change in level of physical consumption from changes in prices as can be done a reasonable extent for Food and Clothing and make meaningful comparisons overtime for such data.

Table 3.23 & 3.24 gives the breakup of monthly per capita expenditure on Miscellaneous goods & services by a number of sub groups: Amusement, Goods for personal care & effect, Toilet articles, Sundry articles, Conveyance, Rent, Consumer taxes and cesses, Educational expenses, Medical expenses and (other) Consumer services. This break-up is given for each of 12 MPCE classes of population in rural and urban areas for India.

It is seen that urban households spent nearly four times as much per person on Educational and three times as much per person on Conveyance as rural households. Per capita expenditure on Rent was about 5% of total MPCE in urban areas and only 0.41% of total expenditure in rural areas. The proportion of MPCE accounted by Medical expenses appears to be (6% in rural) a little higher in the rural

sector than in the urban, 5%. Also, the importance of Medical expenditure relative to the other Miscellaneous heads (Education, Conveyance, other consumer services etc) is seen to be appreciably greater in rural areas compared to urban areas.

Table 3.23 Value (Rs.) of consumption of broad groups of non-Food items per person for a period of 30 days for each MPCE class for All India.Rural

Item	000-225	225-255	255-300	300-340	340-380	380-420	420-470	470-525	525-615	615-775	775-950	950-more	All
Pan	0.66	1.02	1.17	1.57	2.01	2.40	2.71	3.17	3.47	3.71	4.25	4.15	2.52
Tobacco	3.16	4.13	4.74	5.59	6.24	6.82	7.66	8.09	9.02	10.03	11.00	16.95	7.57
Intoxicants	1.67	1.73	2.09	2.65	2.54	3.04	2.92	3.57	4.23	5.44	8.35	13.00	3.88
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	5.49	6.88	8.01	9.81	10.79	12.25	13.29	14.82	16.72	19.18	23.60	34.09	13.96
Fuel & light	17.45	20.84	23.76	26.25	28.96	31.77	35.39	38.74	43.64	50.85	60.20	75.21	36.56
Clothing	13.92	17.96	20.51	23.99	25.85	28.71	31.64	34.74	39.22	46.07	54.79	78.70	33.28
Footwear	1.39	1.93	2.34	2.96	3.43	3.92	4.69	5.39	6.30	8.00	10.21	20.10	5.37
Education	1.36	2.09	2.98	3.69	4.63	5.42	6.92	8.25	10.75	15.55	23.35	44.61	9.37
Medical –Institutional	0.55	1.05	1.22	1.66	1.96	2.71	3.56	4.93	7.35	11.17	16.89	45.78	6.66
Medical-non-inst.	4.29	6.24	8.21	11.09	12.86	15.34	17.53	21.58	25.76	37.46	49.07	100.45	22.94
Entertainment	0.30	0.38	0.60	0.71	1.15	1.43	1.46	1.68	2.20	3.40	4.75	9.78	2.02
Goods prs. Care & effects	0.22	0.29	0.47	0.61	0.75	0.71	0.99	1.32	1.64	2.14	3.24	5.74	1.34
Toilet articles	4.60	5.74	6.60	7.80	8.86	9.94	10.96	12.31	14.20	16.53	20.21	27.88	11.62
Sundry articles	3.86	4.90	5.62	6.60	7.45	8.25	9.44	10.60	11.97	14.37	17.77	25.23	10.00
Misc. cons. Goods	8.98	11.32	13.30	15.72	18.21	20.32	22.84	25.91	30.02	36.43	45.97	68.62	24.97
Consumer services	4.29	5.77	6.83	7.99	9.06	10.02	11.92	13.82	15.92	21.41	28.57	58.10	14.51
Conveyance	2.17	2.57	3.59	4.71	5.74	7.25	9.36	11.72	15.74	23.67	38.09	79.73	14.28
Misc. cons. Services	6.46	8.34	10.42	12.70	14.79	17.28	21.28	25.54	31.66	45.08	66.67	137.84	28.79
Rent	0.05	0.10	0.12	0.24	0.29	0.45	0.75	0.93	1.58	2.72	5.88	17.55	1.89
Taxes and cesses	0.11	0.17	0.23	0.29	0.34	0.44	0.54	0.83	0.91	1.27	2.25	3.90	0.80
Misc. cons. Goods & services	15.59	19.92	24.07	28.94	33.63	38.49	45.42	53.21	64.17	85.50	120.75	227.90	56.45
Durable goods total	2.29	3.38	3.64	4.61	5.23	6.09	7.40	8.61	10.82	17.04	26.96	95.83	12.76
Total non-Food	62.33	80.28	94.73	113.00	127.34	144.70	165.84	190.28	224.73	290.84	385.83	722.66	197.36
Total expenditure	190.98	241.82	278.69	321.04	360.83	399.90	445.49	496.74	566.62	686.00	851.58	1344.76	486.16

Source : NSSO 55th round

Table 3.24 Value (Rs.) of consumption of broad groups of non-Food items per person for a period of 30 days for each MPCCE class for All India urban

Item	MPCE CLASSES												
	000-300	300-350	350-425	425-500	500-575	575-665	665-775	775-915	915-1120	1120-1500	1500-1925	> 1925	All
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Pan	1.13	1.83	1.92	2.29	2.84	3.53	3.57	4.28	3.88	4.74	4.68	4.17	3.30
Tobacco	4.34	4.57	5.37	6.51	7.33	6.44	7.49	7.81	8.96	11.11	11.78	19.12	8.10
Intoxicants	1.38	1.74	2.37	3.22	3.70	3.75	4.24	3.96	5.09	6.16	7.79	20.55	4.83
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	6.85	8.14	9.65	12.02	13.87	13.72	15.30	16.05	17.93	22.01	24.25	43.84	16.22
Fuel & light	23.34	30.22	34.72	41.31	45.79	51.94	58.23	65.37	73.32	87.90	106.77	246.39	66.26
Clothing	17.76	22.52	26.00	30.55	35.26	40.29	46.14	53.20	62.97	76.37	98.78	153.47	51.76
Footwear	2.39	3.39	4.10	5.01	6.36	7.48	8.91	10.62	12.70	15.60	20.07	33.26	10.05
Education	3.83	5.60	7.78	10.75	15.21	20.81	26.84	34.37	46.61	67.73	97.65	172.34	37.06
Medical –Institutional	1.07	1.50	2.80	2.95	4.98	4.76	8.45	11.55	13.41	18.46	29.82	79.06	12.33
Medical-non-inst.	6.28	8.14	12.36	15.63	19.83	20.59	25.62	31.68	37.36	48.08	56.59	124.92	30.95
Entertainment	0.63	1.14	1.80	2.73	3.84	5.29	6.92	8.28	11.14	16.11	26.21	57.06	9.88
Goods prs. Care & effects	0.30	0.42	0.68	0.84	1.09	1.35	1.83	2.34	3.42	4.90	6.82	14.39	2.75
Toilet articles	7.78	9.42	11.35	13.77	16.42	18.77	21.48	24.91	28.93	35.63	46.48	120.05	26.34
Sundry articles	5.19	6.95	8.48	10.24	12.35	14.37	16.36	19.20	22.65	27.26	36.17	49.06	17.98
Misc. cons. Goods	13.90	17.92	22.31	27.58	33.69	39.78	46.59	54.73	66.14	83.91	115.69	240.57	56.96
Consumer services	6.18	8.16	9.61	12.34	14.47	17.95	22.41	29.55	41.21	65.92	112.20	253.56	40.43
Conveyance	3.69	4.18	6.66	9.88	15.21	20.38	28.30	40.11	56.49	86.74	142.52	263.72	47.19
Misc. cons. Services	9.87	12.34	16.27	22.21	29.68	38.33	50.71	69.66	97.70	152.67	254.72	517.28	87.62
Rent	2.07	3.98	6.67	9.51	13.08	18.75	26.54	33.96	50.60	73.31	99.32	191.39	38.16
Taxes and cesses	0.75	1.09	1.43	2.22	2.59	3.58	4.19	5.46	7.52	9.15	15.21	27.73	5.86
Misc. cons. Goods & services	26.59	35.33	46.68	61.51	79.04	100.44	128.03	163.82	221.96	319.03	484.94	976.97	188.60
Durable goods total	3.00	3.62	4.63	5.89	7.82	9.82	12.92	18.27	25.28	47.26	76.44	268.88	30.85
Total: non-Food	91.11	118.46	148.73	185.62	228.16	269.86	330.46	404.92	511.56	702.45	995.30	2099.16	444.08
Total expenditure	255.77	327.13	389.14	463.92	537.22	618.61	718.67	840.53	1009.67	1286.19	1692.16	3074.27	854.92

Source : NSSO,55TH ROUND

3.12 Per capita consumption of individual items Kerala

3.12.1 Non –Food items.

Tables 3. 25, 3. 26 give per capita expenditure on individual items of Non -Food for Kerala. These are given in Appendix Besides this per capita consumption of Pan, Bidi, Firewood chips and Matches were also found higher in rural areas of Kerala than urban. The tables gives quantity and value of per capita purchase and consumption over a 30 day period for important items of Non –Food

The per capita consumption of Cigarettes was found much higher in urban Kerala while that of Bidi higher in rural. In rural Kerala 2% of per capita consumption of Bidi and Cigarettes was constituted by Pan, 91% Bidi and 7%

Cigarettes. In urban Kerala the same was 1% Pan, 85% Bidi and 13% Cigarettes. The per capita consumption of electricity and kerosene were also found higher in urban Kerala. More LPG consumers also found here.

3.12.1.1 Expenditure on Miscellaneous goods & services Kerala

Tables 3.27 &3.28 gives break-up of monthly per capita expenditure on Miscellaneous goods & services by a number of sub-groups, Amusement, Goods for personal care & effect, Toilet articles, Sundry articles Conveyance, Rent, Consumer taxes and cesses, Educational expenses, Medical expenses and Other consumer services. This break up is done for each of 12 MPCE classes of population in rural and urban areas of Kerala.

Table 3.27: Value (Rs.) of consumption of broad groups of non-Food items per person for a period of 30 days for each MPCE class – rural Kerala

Item	MPCE CLASSES												
	000-225	225-255	255-300	300-340	340-380	380-420	420-470	470-525	525-615	615-775	775-950	950-more	All
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Pan	4.70	3.57	2.44	3.33	2.50	3.36	2.89	2.86	2.33	2.82	3.09	2.80	2.84
Tobacco	5.29	2.21	2.51	4.85	5.27	4.37	5.74	7.44	6.71	9.93	9.27	13.25	8.68
Intoxicants	0.00	1.08	0.10	1.40	1.51	2.82	3.35	4.86	6.64	8.72	4.27	16.81	7.59
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	9.99	6.86	5.04	9.57	9.28	10.54	11.98	15.16	15.68	21.47	16.63	32.85	19.11
Fuel & light	17.57	21.77	26.53	25.88	26.28	33.15	33.89	34.89	39.86	44.86	52.35	69.93	45.90
Clothing	11.10	15.40	16.82	20.75	22.60	24.36	25.90	30.04	33.82	38.83	46.37	77.94	42.62
Footwear	1.53	1.74	1.96	3.32	3.10	3.35	3.72	4.32	4.73	5.42	6.76	11.09	6.06
Education	3.98	4.38	3.80	4.11	5.84	5.54	7.69	8.06	11.05	15.15	24.14	50.26	20.16
Medical -Institutional	3.46	4.97	3.49	4.41	7.02	7.37	10.10	12.20	12.50	15.19	18.89	55.90	21.56
Medical-non-inst.	8.22	11.13	15.24	17.77	17.81	15.22	20.41	23.15	25.08	34.32	47.86	80.01	39.27
Entertainment	0.32	0.00	0.28	0.28	0.69	1.05	0.76	1.45	1.47	2.27	3.31	7.50	2.92
Goods prs. Care & effects	0.23	0.00	0.00	0.36	0.57	1.05	1.20	1.18	1.93	1.65	2.83	6.03	2.50
Toilet articles	5.73	8.55	9.19	9.82	11.59	12.79	12.76	14.10	15.98	18.03	20.35	27.35	18.09
Sundry articles	4.74	4.91	6.30	6.08	6.97	8.81	9.00	9.86	10.50	13.25	16.41	22.43	13.59
Misc. cons. Goods	11.01	13.46	15.77	16.53	19.82	23.70	23.72	26.58	29.88	35.21	42.89	63.31	37.10
Consumer services	1.15	2.64	4.47	5.23	5.64	8.04	10.15	11.59	13.03	17.42	29.59	72.31	26.82
Conveyance	4.75	4.56	6.70	10.54	11.61	13.24	15.64	18.66	21.13	29.17	42.01	92.44	37.87
Misc. cons. Services	5.90	7.21	11.17	15.77	17.25	21.27	25.79	30.25	34.15	46.59	71.60	164.75	64.69
Rent	0.00	0.72	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.27	0.25	0.21	1.72	0.88	1.21	18.11	4.31
Taxes and cesses	0.15	0.28	0.20	0.32	0.34	0.42	0.62	0.59	0.76	0.85	1.23	3.09	1.23
Misc. cons. Goods & services	17.05	21.66	27.16	32.64	37.42	45.66	50.38	57.64	66.51	83.53	116.93	249.27	107.34
Durable goods total	1.26	0.44	5.92	2.47	3.67	4.72	5.84	8.61	17.22	20.83	34.26	194.05	52.51
Total non-Food	74.17	88.36	105.97	120.93	133.03	149.91	169.93	194.07	226.45	279.59	364.20	821.30	354.51
Total expenditure	199.71	242.99	280.78	324.33	359.34	401.08	446.81	496.84	570.28	690.40	853.61	1474.40	765.71

Source : NSSO 55TH ROUND

Table 3.28: Value (Rs.) of consumption of broad groups of non-Food items per person for a period of 30 days for each MPCE class – Kerala urban.

Item	000-300	300-350	350-425	425-500	500-575	575-665	665-775	775-915	915-1120	1120-1500	1500-1925	> 1925	All
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Pan	0.48	0.99	1.47	1.88	1.99	1.81	1.27	1.75	1.49	2.11	0.90	0.65	1.54
Tobacco	5.35	6.61	5.16	6.80	5.78	7.12	7.27	11.13	12.32	10.70	13.44	12.14	8.95
Intoxicants	0.00	0.74	1.50	2.35	6.08	3.32	0.51	5.44	16.30	14.83	9.60	17.62	8.09
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	5.83	8.34	8.13	11.03	13.85	12.26	15.04	18.33	30.10	27.64	23.94	30.41	18.59
Fuel & light	20.41	25.45	31.73	32.35	38.18	44.42	50.16	55.19	64.55	74.07	80.88	96.38	54.29
Clothing	20.48	19.04	22.91	26.79	32.89	37.65	40.98	45.87	56.24	76.37	100.55	147.55	53.84
Footwear	3.15	2.87	3.60	4.31	4.62	5.34	6.24	7.15	8.09	12.47	17.03	25.70	8.56
Education	3.05	4.58	5.74	9.37	11.56	15.55	21.60	25.25	36.54	58.10	71.91	138.33	34.73
Medical -Institutional	7.61	3.82	6.14	6.46	10.48	7.53	11.95	26.85	30.72	25.29	48.88	149.09	27.37
Medical-non-inst.	7.36	12.60	13.60	16.74	23.31	27.08	29.39	38.63	44.14	58.09	81.85	121.69	41.08
Entertainment	0.94	0.93	1.21	1.02	1.70	3.12	4.00	5.27	9.48	10.47	23.25	35.63	8.02
Goods prs. Care & effects	0.05	0.31	1.30	1.59	1.26	1.78	2.19	2.63	6.11	6.89	5.59	17.65	4.23
Toilet articles	10.24	10.10	11.90	12.56	14.80	16.87	19.03	19.19	23.12	27.08	32.96	47.76	21.17
Sundry articles	4.42	5.75	8.64	7.55	10.09	11.23	12.89	13.67	18.30	21.46	24.78	35.32	15.33
Misc. cons. Goods	15.65	17.08	23.05	22.71	27.86	33.00	38.10	40.76	57.00	65.91	86.57	136.37	48.75
Consumer services	4.31	5.44	8.13	10.52	10.77	17.34	20.16	28.97	36.87	57.94	97.73	224.31	43.08
Conveyance	7.60	10.47	12.82	15.83	22.18	26.94	29.96	52.96	57.52	84.45	110.74	169.13	52.25
Misc. cons. Services	11.91	15.91	20.95	26.36	32.95	44.28	50.12	81.93	94.39	142.39	208.47	393.44	95.33
Rent	0.58	0.23	0.18	0.94	3.68	10.15	6.48	12.03	25.05	45.89	95.14	112.87	25.75
Taxes and cesses	0.65	0.97	0.55	1.24	1.38	1.83	1.98	3.60	4.57	5.79	8.45	14.94	3.91
Misc. cons. Goods & services	28.80	34.19	44.73	51.25	65.87	89.26	96.69	138.33	181.01	259.97	398.63	657.62	173.75
Durable goods total	1.55	2.54	7.50	6.49	11.45	11.07	33.94	42.13	48.29	87.61	139.67	373.83	63.06
Total: non-Food	98.24	113.44	144.07	164.79	212.22	250.15	306.00	397.72	499.68	679.61	963.35	1740.60	475.26
Total expenditure	253.22	327.08	390.70	464.54	537.35	619.02	717.78	850.33	1013.71	1282.78	1692.00	2636.63	932.62

Source: Source : NSSO 55TH ROUND

It is seen that per capita expenditure on Education of urban households was Rs. 34.73 while that of rural households was Rs. 20.16. Per capita expenditure on Education is found much higher in Kerala compared to National level. The proportion of MPCE accounted by Conveyance expenses appears to be much higher in urban sector as compared to rural sector. While per capita expenditure of the urban households in Kerala was Rs. 41.08 on Medical expenses, rural households spend still lower Rs. 39.27.

3.13 Consumption out of home- grown stock in India

Table 3.29 shows the Contribution of Homegrown stock in total consumption of households in India. In the urban areas this is a negligible phenomenon for most Food items. Important exceptions are Coconuts, more than 20% of whose urban consumption is seen at the all India level to come from Homegrown stock and Milk (over 11% home-produced). About 11% of fire wood chips, and more than one-third of the dung cake, used in urban areas is also reported to be home produced. For the rural sector, the home-produced component of consumption is of much greater significance.

Table 3.29: Share of home produced component in total consumption selected items All-India Rural

Item	% Of Consumption from home produce
Rice	38
Atta	44
Milk	74
Eggs	30
Coconut	44
Gur	12
Firewood & Chips	33
Dung Cake	76

Source : NSSO, 55TH ROUND

It is seen that three quarters of Milk consumption in and 30% of consumption of Eggs is out of home-produced stock. For Firewood & chips purchases account for less than 13% of rural consumption, about 54% of consumption in rural India seems to be from "Free collection".

3.14 Detailed Miscellaneous items: India

The "Miscellaneous goods & services" category is split up into detailed items. Very few of them contribute more than Rs. 0.50 to total MPCE in the rural sector or Rs. 1.00 in the urban sector. This is shown in Table 3.30 & 3.31 which gives per capita expenditure for each of the selected Miscellaneous items.

The items include Toilet Soap and four other Toilet items, Washing soap, Bus and Railway Fare, and expenditure on Postage, Telegram and Telephone. One or two items such as Petrol and Railway Fare have been included in view of their importance in the context of economic development rather than their relative weight in total Miscellaneous expenditures.

Table 3.30 Monthly per Capita quantity and value of consumption for non-Food items by MPCE class for all India rural

Sl.No	Item	Value [Rs.]
1	Cinema, theatre	0.72
2	Other Entertainment	0.54
3	Entertainment: S.t.	2.02
4	Goods for personal care and effects: s.t	1.34
5	Toilet Soap	4.33
6	Toothbrush, toothpaste etc.	1.84
7	Powder, snow, cream	1.09
8	Hair oil, lotion, shampoo etc	2.92
9	Shaving blades etc	0.52
10	Other Toilet articles	0.61
11	Toilet articles: s.t.	11.62
12	Electric bulb, tube light	0.51
13	Washing soap / soda	5.38
14	Other washing requisites	0.96
15	Agarbathi	1.03
16	Flower (fresh):	0.30
17	Other petty articles	0.75
18	Sundry articles: s.t.	10.00
19	Barber, beautician etc.	2.59
20	Washer man, laundries	0.51
21	Tailor	2.77
22	Postage & telegram	0.20
23	Telephone charges	0.90
24	Grinding charges	3.14
25	Miscellaneous expenses	2.08
26	Pet animals	0.66
27	Other consumer services excluding Conveyance	0.50
28	Consumer services excluding Conveyance: s.t.	14.51
29	Bus/tram fare	8.93
30	Taxi, Auto - rickshaw fare	0.99
31	Petrol	2.70
32	Conveyance: s.t.	14.28

Source:NSSO, 55TH

St shows sub total

**Table 3.31 Monthly per Capita quantity and value of consumption
for non-Food items by MPCE class for all India urban**

Sl.No	Item	Value [Rs.]
1	Cinema, theatre	2.48
2	Mela, fair, picnic	0.79
3	Sports goods, toys etc.	0.92
4	Entertainment: S.t.	9.88
5	Spectacles	0.60
6	Pen	0.48
7	Umbrella, raincoat	0.73
8	Other Goods for personal care and effects	0.58
9	Goods for personal care and effects: s.t.	2.75
10	Toilet Soap	7.26
11	Toothbrush, toothpaste etc.	4.99
12	Powder, snow etc	3.11
13	Hair oil, lotion, shampoo etc	6.48
14	Shaving blades, etc	1.46
15	Shaving cream	0.73
16	Sanitary goods	0.93
17	Other Toilet articles	1.30
18	Toilet articles: s.t.	26.34
19	Electric bulb, tube light	1.23
20	Bucket, water bottle etc	0.59
21	Washing soap	8.34
22	Other washing requisites	2.03
23	Agarbathi	1.94
24	Flower	1.19
25	Insecticide etc	0.71
26	Other petty articles	1.22
27	Sundry articles: s.t.	17.98
28	Domestic servant / cook	5.6
29	Sweeper	0.63
30	Barber, beautician etc.	4.13
31	Washer man, laundry etc	2.49
32	Tailor	4.35
33	Priest	0.62
34	Postage & telegram	0.81
35	Telephone charges	11.44
36	Grinding charges	3.20
37	Miscellaneous expenses	4.58
38	Pet animals	0.69
39	Other consumer services excluding Conveyance	1.22
40	Consumer services excluding Conveyance: s.t.	40.43
41	Airway fare	0.73
42	Railway Fare	3.57
43	Bus/tram fare	15.69
44	Taxi, Auto - rickshaw fare	3.34
45	Rickshaw fare etc.	0.98
46	Porter charges	0.53
47	Petrol	19.21
48	Diesel	0.73
49	Lubricating oil	0.76
50	School Bus / van	1.32
51	Conveyance: s.t.	47.19

Source :NSSO, 55TH ROUND

3.15 Detailed Miscellaneous item-Kerala

Table 3.32 & 3.33 gives the Miscellaneous expenditure for Kerala. Among Miscellaneous goods & services Bus fare, Petrol, Toilet Soap, Telephone charges & Taxi and Auto - rickshaw fare constitutes major items in both rural and urban Kerala.

Table 3.32: Monthly per capita quantity and value of consumption for non-Food items for Kerala- Rural

Item code	Item	Value (Rs)
1	2	3
1	Cinema, theatre	1.33
2	Other Entertainment	0.8
3	Entertainment: s.t	2.92
4	Pen	0.37
5	Umbrella, raincoat	1.47
6	Goods for personal care and effects: s.t	2.5
7	Toilet Soap	6.76
8	Toothbrush, etc..	3.7
9	Powder, snow etc.	1.24
10	Hair oil, lotion, shampoo, etc.	4.47
11	Shaving blades, etc	0.96
12	Other Toilet articles	0.47
13	Toilet articles: s.t	18.09
14	Electric bulb, etc.	1.05
15	Electric batteries	0.5
16	Washing soap	7.37
17	Other washing requisites	1.63
18	Agarbathi	1.01
19	Other petty articles	0.54
20	Sundry articles: s.t	13.59
21	Domestic servant / cook	1.71
22	Barber, beautician etc	4.65
23	Tailor	1.92
24	Priest	3.25
25	Postage & telegram	0.92
26	Telephone charges	6.93
27	Grinding charges	1.38
28	Miscellaneous expenses	2
29	Pet animals	1.07
30	Other cons: service excluding Conveyance	2.31
31	Cons: service excluding Conveyance: s.t	26.82
32	Railway Fare	0.63
33	Bus / tram fare	23.44
34	Taxi, Auto - rickshaw fare	5.61
35	Petrol	5.53
36	School Bus / Van	1.59
37	Conveyance: s.t	37.87

Source : NSS 55ᵗʰ round

Urban households spent Rs. 13.04 per capita on Petrol while it was only Rs. 5.53 in rural sector. It is found that in rural as well as urban the expenditure on Miscellaneous items is very high as compared to the National pattern.

Table 3.33: Monthly per capita quantity and value of consumption for Non-Food items for Kerala Urban.

Item code	Item	Value (Rs)
1	Cinema, theater	2.67
2	Video etc	0.6
3	Entertainment: s.t.	8.02
4	Spectacles	0.72
5	Pen	0.42
6	Umbrella, rain coat	2.55
7	Goods for personal care and effects: s.t.	4.23
8	Toilet Soap	7.56
9	Tooth brush etc.	4.33
10	Powder, snow etc	1.55
11	Hair oil, lotion, shampoo etc.	4.6
12	Shaving blades etc	1.31
13	Sanitary items	0.89
14	Other Toilet articles	0.69
15	Toilet articles: s.t.	21.17
16	Electric bulb etc.	1.55
17	Bucket, water bottle etc.	0.94
18	Washing soap	7.54
19	Other washing requisites	2.18
20	Agarbathi	1.19
21	Other petty articles	0.41
22	Sundry articles: s.t.	15.33
23	Domestic servant / cook	4.81
24	Sweeper	0.96
25	Barber, beautician etc.	4.80
26	Washer man, laundry	0.66
27	Tailor	4.07
28	Priest	2.75
29	Postage & telegram	1.03
30	Telephone charges	16.90
31	Repair charges for non-durables	0.79
32	Grinding charges	1.64
33	Miscellaneous expenses	2.13
34	Per animals	1.17
35	Other consumer services excluding Conveyance	1.23
36	Consumer services excluding Conveyance: s.t.	43.08
37	Railway Fare	1.56
38	Bus / train fare	26.18
39	Taxi, Auto - rickshaw fare	5.97
40	Petrol	13.04
41	Diesel	1.40
42	Lubricating oil	0.51
43	School Bus/Van	2.83
44	Conveyance: s.t	55.25

Source:NSSO,55TH ROUND
s.t shows percentage

3.16 Educational & Medical Expenditure in India

Table 3.34: Monthly per Capita quantity and value of consumption for non-Food items by MPCE class for All India rural.

Item code	Item	Value [Rs.]
1	2	4
1	Books, Journals	2.87
2	Stationery	1.51
3	Tuition and other fees	2.74
4	Private tutor / coaching centre	1.28
5	Other Educational expenses	0.69
6	Education: s.t.	9.37
7	Medicine	3.75
8	Doctor's / fee	0.78
9	Hospital charges	1.14
10	Other Medical expenses	0.53
11	Medical - Institutional s.t.	6.66
12	Medicine	19.11
13	X-ray, and other I tests	0.71
14	Doctor's fee	2.22
15	Other Medical expenses	0.87
16	Medical - non -Institutional s.t	22.92

Source:NSSO,55™ ROUND   s.t. shows sub total

Table 3.35 Monthly per Capita quantity and value of consumption for non-Food items by MPCE class for All India urban.

Item code	Item	Value[Rs.]
1	Books, Journals	6.87
2	Newspapers, Periodicals	2.35
3	Stationery	3.05
4	Tuition and other fees	16.71
5	Private tutor / coaching centre	6.00
6	Other Educational expenses	2.01
7	Education: s.t	37.05
8	Medicine	5.78
9	X-ray, other tests	0.88
10	Doctor's fees	1.64
11	Hospital charges	2.86
12	Other Medical expenses	1.17
13	Medical - Institutional s.t	12.33
14	Medicine	24.37
15	X-ray, other tests	1.30
16	Doctor's	3.95
17	Other Medical expenses	1.27
18	Medical - non -Institutional s.t ·	30.95

Source:NSSO,55™ ROUND   s.t shows sub total

Households allocate a considerable amount per month on Educational and Medical expenses Per capita expenditure on Books / Journals Periodicals, Tuitions Doctor's fees and medicine are shown in Table 3.34 and 3.35. It is found that among the non-Food items considered 'Medical non –institutional' constitutes the highest expenditure in rural India, and in urban India it is 'Education'

3.17 Education & Medical Expenditure Kerala

Per capita expenditure on Books, Journals, Periodicals, tuition fees, Doctor's fees and medicine is shown in table's 3.36 & 3.37 It is found that the per capita expenditure on Education is very high as compared to National pattern.

Table 3.36: Monthly per capita quantity and value of consumption for non-Food items for Kerala.

Sl. No	Item	Value (Rs)
1	Books, Journals	6.59
2	Newspapers, Periodicals	7.61
3	Stationary	2.17
4	Tuition and other fees)	8.79
5	Private tutor / coaching centre	6.63
6	Other Educational expenses	2.9
7	Education: s.t.	34.73
8	Medicine	11.2
9	X-ray, other tests etc.	2.35
10	Doctor's	2.46
11	Hospital charges	9.51
12	Other Medical expenses	1.84
13	Medical institutional: s.t	27.37
14	Medicine	33.2
15	X-ray, other test etc.	3.11
16	Doctor's	3.89
17	Other Medical expenses	0.85
18	Medical- non- institutional: s.t	41.08

Source: NSSO 55TH ROUND

Table 3.37: Monthly per capita quantity and value of consumption for Non-Food items for Kerala Urban.

Sl No	Item	Value[Rs,]
1	Books / Journals	4.44
2	News papers, Periodicals	4.32
3	Stationary	1.87
4	Tuition and other fees etc	4.86
5	Private tutor/ coaching centre	3.25
6	Other Educational expenses	1.4
7	Education: s.t	20.16
8	Medicine	10.22
9	X-ray, other test etc	2.07
10	Doctor's	1.81
11	Hospital charges	5.23
12	Other Medical expenses	2.23
13	Medical - institutional: s.t	21.56
14	Medicine	32.9
15	X-ray other tests etc	1.97
16	Doctor's	3.47
17	Other Medical expenses	0.92
18	Medical - non-institutional: s.t	39.27

Source: NSSO 55th round

Among Education and Medical expenses, tuition fees and medicines constitute major items in both rural and urban sectors. Per capita expenditure on Education amounted to Rs. 20.16 in rural and Rs. 34.73 in the urban.

3.18 Consumption level and pattern of different fractile groups

Differences in consumption pattern of poorer and richer segments of population (ranked by MPCE) have been attempted using approximate fractile of the MPCE distribution as class limits. Table 3.38and 3.39 gives the item – group wise break-up of average MPCE for twelve fractile groups of MPCE for all India starting from the bottom 5% and ending with top 5%.

In the rural sector the average MPCE of the bottom 5% was around Rs. 120 in 135 in Kerala and at the all-India level it was Rs. 101 in the urban sector the average MPCE OF the bottom 5% was Rs. 133 for the country as a whole and it was Rs. 147 for Kerala.

Table 3.38: Value (Rs) of consumption of broad groups of Food & non-Food items per person of 30 days for each fractile group. All-India

Rural	Fractile group												
Item	0-5	5-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-95	95-100	all
1 Cereals	40.9	51.96	57.9	62.51	67.12	68.42	71.2	73.36	75.82	76.13	79.07	85.83	68.1
2 Gram	0.09	0.16	0.17	0.26	0.34	0.42	0.54	0.55	0.72	0.92	1.14	1.68	0.54
3 Cereal subst.	0.1	0.11	0.1	0.13	0.17	0.24	0.22	0.3	0.37	0.51	0.54	0.74	0.28
4 Pulses & prod.	5.17	6.38	7.29	8.27	8.89	9.92	10.6	11.45	12.64	14.01	16.28	20.54	10.7
5 Milk & prod.	2.42	4.79	7.29	10.52	13.74	18.16	23	28.37	36.54	49.26	65.42	87.86	26.7
6 Edible oil	5.22	6.69	7.81	9.01	10.07	11.2	12.4	13.54	14.94	17.14	18.8	25.69	12.4
7 Meat, Eggs, Fish	2.04	3.08	4.35	5.55	6.79	7.79	9.14	10.27	11.87	14.56	17.04	24.54	9.37
8 Vegetables	7.8	10.07	11.6	13.17	14.56	15.6	17.3	18.66	20.09	22.47	25.02	30.48	17
9 Fruits (fresh)	0.56	0.88	1.19	1.57	2.01	2.64	3.11	4.05	5.1	7.25	9.83	15.71	4.04
10 Fruits (dry)	0.24	0.2	0.31	0.39	0.43	0.58	0.65	0.77	0.98	1.33	1.98	3.6	0.85
11 Sugar	2.77	3.55	4.36	5.32	6.1	7.15	8.11	9.29	10.66	13.12	15.39	21.43	8.57
12 Salt	0.38	0.41	0.45	0.47	0.49	0.5	0.53	0.53	0.57	0.59	0.62	0.73	0.52
13 Spices	3.55	4.22	4.78	5.43	5.9	6.39	6.92	7.33	8.1	8.98	10.05	12.66	6.91
14 Beverages, refreshments etc.	2.7	3.6	4.92	6.19	7.21	8.63	10.2	11.98	14.38	18.74	23.36	39.59	11.7
15 Food total	73.9	96.11	113	128.8	143.8	157.6	174	190.4	212.8	245	284.5	371.1	178
16 Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	3.78	4.7	5.49	6.26	7.04	7.83	8.73	9.55	10.87	12.14	13.96	21.1	8.97
17 Fuel & light	11	13	14.4	15.67	17.05	18.52	20	21.45	23.5	26.96	29.91	44.81	20.7
18 Clothing	0.92	1.42	2.17	2.98	4.19	5.79	7.92	10.85	16	27.02	47.49	98.73	15.1
19 Footwear	0.26	0.24	0.41	0.67	0.78	1.09	1.47	2	2.8	4.53	7.61	13.94	2.48
20 Misc. good & services	11.1	15.08	18.3	22.64	26.34	31.46	36.4	44.44	54.52	72.62	104.5	230.2	48.7
21 Durable goods	0.37	0.63	0.78	1.17	1.54	1.94	2.48	3.64	4.1	7.29	11.08	95.53	7.67
22 Non-Food; total	27.4	35.07	41.5	49.39	56.93	66.63	77	91.94	111.8	150.6	214.5	504.3	104
23 Total expenditure (Rs.)	101	131.2	154	178.2	200.8	224.3	251	282.4	324.6	395.6	499	875.3	281

Source: NSSO 50th round

Average monthly spending levels of the top 5% of the population varied considerably in the rural sector. For Punjab, Haryana and Kerala-the three states with highest average rural MPCE for the whole population it was Rs. 1300/-. For India as a whole the average MPCE OF the top 5% of the population was Rs. 875.

In the urban sector there was inter state variation in average spending of the top 5% average MPCE of the top 5%. Of the all-India population was Rs. 1626.

Table 3.39: Value (Rs) of consumption of broad groups of Food & non-Food items per person of 30 days for each fractile group. All-India

Urban	Fractile group												
Item	0-5	5-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-95	95-100	all
1 Cereals	42.6	52.32	57.63	60.31	62.77	64.49	65.92	68.15	68.48	71.86	72.9	78.37	64.27
2 Gram	0.11	0.23	0.33	0.45	0.54	0.72	0.88	1	1.03	1.44	1.71	1.98	0.84
3 Cereal subst.	0.1	0.11	0.14	0.18	0.26	0.29	0.32	0.38	0.35	0.44	0.52	0.56	0.3
4 Pulses & prod.	6.15	8.4	9.43	10.8	12.28	13.18	14.31	15.5	16.63	18.55	19.85	22.61	13.92
5 Milk & prod.	7.11	10.75	15.68	21.01	27.54	34.48	42.81	50.46	61.03	76.86	98.43	121.3	44.87
6 Edible oil	7.56	10.03	11.99	14.35	16.01	18.32	20.71	22.08	25.16	28.67	31.77	37.89	20.09
7 Meat, Eggs, Fish	3.6	5.77	8.3	10.24	11.67	13.36	14.67	16.82	19.76	23.33	26.94	37.76	15.52
8 Vegetables	9.64	12.62	15.18	17.76	19.58	22.25	24.31	26.45	29.88	35.5	42.74	53.12	25
9 Fruits (fresh)	1.31	2.15	3.12	3.96	5.32	6.54	8.14	10.14	12.53	17.98	26.68	37.92	10.18
10 Fruits (dry)	0.34	0.37	0.49	0.75	0.98	1.08	1.33	1.73	2.13	3.46	5.15	10.1	1.99
11 Sugar	4.79	6.04	6.98	8.26	9.39	10.57	11.25	12.59	13.28	14.63	15.98	17.41	10.91
12 Salt	0.39	0.44	0.48	0.51	0.55	0.59	0.62	0.68	0.73	0.8	0.87	0.96	0.63
13 Spices	4.54	5.61	6.44	7.25	7.84	8.27	8.77	9.36	10.01	11.18	12.37	14.9	8.79
14 Beverages, refreshments etc.	6.19	8.96	11.56	14.49	17.38	20.16	24.24	31.14	41.13	57.28	84.43	126	33.01
15 Food total	94.5	123.5	147.8	170.34	192.1	214.3	238.3	266.5	302.1	362	440.3	560.9	250.3
16 Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	4.16	5.47	6.2	7.95	8.37	9.34	9.92	11.13	11.97	15.04	18.61	26.76	10.74
17 Fuel & light	13.4	15.98	18.7	21.8	24.02	26.47	29.05	31.99	36.71	42.45	48.89	62.4	30.15
18 Clothing	0.83	1.74	2.63	4.14	6.26	8.26	11.82	17.7	25.94	40.43	62.14	129.5	21.43
19 Footwear	0.26	0.57	0.84	1.03	1.57	2.08	2.65	3.87	5.23	6.64	10.98	24.2	4.19
20 Misc. good & services	19.4	27.94	35.3	45.37	57.63	71.85	68.39	111.8	151.1	211.3	303.7	623.6	126
21 Durable goods	9.41	0.65	0.93	1.49	1.85	2.6	3.79	5.76	8.37	13.78	26.52	198.5	15.17
22 Non-Food; total	38.5	52.34	64.6	81.79	99.7	120.6	145.6	182.2	239.4	329.62	470.9	1065	207.7
23 Total expenditure (Rs.)	133	175.9	212.4	252.12	291.8	334.9	383.9	448.7	541.5	691.5	911.2	1626	458

Source: NSSO 50th round

Table 3.40 & 3.41 gives the item – group namely break-up of average MPCE for twelve fractile groups of MPCE for Kerala starting from the bottom 5% and ending with top 5%. It is found that there are much inequalities in the distribution of MPCE between bottom and top fractile groups in both rural and urban sectors. Bottom fractile contribute very little towards total consumption in both sectors. Besides this there are differences in the distribution of total expenditure between Food and non-Food items among different decile groups.

Table 3.40 Value (Rs) of consumption of broad groups of Food & non-Food items per person of 30 days for each fractile group Kerala - Rural

S.No	Item	Fractile group												
		0-5	5-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-95	95-100	All
	Kerala													
1	Cereals	38.3	48.36	57.85	59.83	64.23	66.05	71.84	72.85	76.03	82.36	84.19	95.68	68.45
2	Gram	0.17	0.58	0.38	0.64	0.75	0.88	1.06	1.26	1.48	1.35	2.04	2.83	1.06
3	Cereal subst.	2.89	1.87	3.19	3.89	3.26	4.52	4.47	4.96	5.37	5.31	5.59	3.46	4.19
4	Pulses & prod.	1.35	3.17	3.46	5.05	5.53	6.29	7.9	7.94	9.02	10.29	12.36	16.18	7.2
5	Milk & prod.	2.4	4.37	7.57	7.36	10.56	14.14	18.86	25.2	29.08	32.49	51.42	58.95	20.39
6	Edible oil	5.38	6.1	7.04	8.44	9.4	10.14	11.42	12.45	12.91	14.65	18.62	23.03	11.3
7	Meat, Fish & Eggs	12.4	15.07	17.72	20.53	23.07	27.32	31.03	36.54	41.8	49.15	57.57	80.56	33.01
8	Vegetables	6.7	8.37	9.47	11.39	12.92	13.97	17	17.79	19.58	22.5	26.98	34.09	16.27
9	Fruits (fresh)	5.65	9.07	11.37	14.35	17.32	19.74	23.63	26.13	29.36	34.2	44.8	53.96	23.29
10	Fruits (dry)	0.04	0.09	0.15	0.23	0.2	0.31	0.45	0.48	0.53	1.16	1.62	3.4	0.61
11	Sugar	4.12	6.11	7.16	8.04	8.69	9.1	9.94	11.31	11.47	12.6	14.54	17.72	9.96
12	Salt	0.28	0.34	0.35	0.37	0.4	0.42	0.47	0.49	0.51	0.56	0.65	0.73	0.46
13	Spices	5.27	6.18	7.35	8.45	9.07	9.56	10.69	11.31	11.59	13.02	14.83	16.02	10.22
14	Beverages, refreshments etc.	7.97	13.24	15.27	20.75	23.43	27.49	28.86	29.44	33.47	42.82	46.47	81.33	29.62
15	Food total (1-14)	92.9	122.9	148.3	169.3	188.8	209.9	237.6	258.2	282.2	322.46	381.7	487.94	236
16	Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	4.87	7.19	6.67	8.78	11.57	14.94	13.02	13.4	15.58	19.59	20.73	20.31	13.01
17	Fuel & light	11.9	14.7	14.98	16.59	19.52	21.12	22.28	23.56	25.45	29.32	36.99	38.85	22.41
18	Clothing	0.82	0.36	1.79	3.31	5.73	6.77	5.3	9.89	18.67	37.61	56.82	99.49	16.8
19	Footwear	0.41	0.24	0.69	1.24	1.39	1.85	2.93	3.65	4.66	6.69	6.73	17.14	3.54
20	Misc. good & services *	18.8	25.38	32.51	41.38	47.7	53.09	59.74	77.77	93.14	115.53	169.1	311.82	78.39
21	Durable goods	-	1.21	0.6	0.59	0.72	1.41	2.91	1.76	2.99	12.84	30.48	324.38	20.23
22	Non-Food total	36.74	49.11	57.24	71.89	86.62	99.18	106.2	130	160.5	221.57	320.9	812.01	154.4
23	Total expenditure (Rs.)	130	172	205.6	241.2	275.5	309.1	343.8	388.2	442.7	544.03	702.6	1300	390.4

Source: NSSO 50th round

Table 3.41 Value (Rs) of consumption of broad groups of Food & non-Food items per person of 30 days for each fractile group. Kerala - Urban

Item	0-5	5-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-95	95-100	All
Kerala		No. of sample blocks: 183											
1 Cereals	39.6	49.15	53.3	60.34	58.47	64.76	70.24	69.07	71.35	72	77.3	77.31	64.13
2 Gram	0.6	1.02	0.82	1.06	1.02	1.24	1.43	2.04	1.59	2.38	2.96	3.25	1.55
3 Cereal subst.	1.54	1.96	2.42	1.52	1.79	2.09	2.34	1.79	1.42	1.68	2.16	1.52	1.86
4 Pulses & prod.	2.03	2.97	4.47	5.24	6.32	7.59	7.22	9.53	10.55	11.67	14.03	17.09	8.07
5 Milk & prod.	4.82	9.24	11.21	12.66	17.01	23.12	23.61	30.49	34.06	44.22	64.77	81.22	27.67
6 Edible oil	5.65	7.21	8.5	10.43	10.1	11.51	12.07	14.29	15.48	17.03	19.56	23.46	12.74
7 Meat, Eggs, Fish	13.06	22.48	21.6	25.74	30.96	32.31	39.16	46.47	46.58	509.13	77.5	83.12	40.04
8 Vegetables	6.58	7.56	10.18	11.68	12.46	15.16	15.55	19.43	19.89	23.54	32.13	36.03	16.92
9 Fruits (fresh)	8.95	11.92	14.67	17.88	19.23	23.21	25.68	29.08	30.81	37.77	53.1	57.66	25.43
10 Fruits (dry)	-	0.08	0.07	0.13	0.23	0.69	0.43	0.86	0.43	1.33	2.84	4.12	0.77
11 Sugar	5.44	6.86	7.68	8.95	9.59	10.19	10.54	10.95	12.59	14.04	16.83	18.16	10.82
12 Salt	0.33	0.39	0.4	0.44	0.45	0.49	0.5	0.51	0.67	0.58	0.72	0.78	0.52
13 Spices	5.17	6.19	7.59	8.44	9.15	10.09	10.56	10.55	11.39	12.25	13.61	14.39	9.97
14 Beverages, refreshments etc.	11.1	16.94	17.3	27.02	36.2	34.35	34.24	38.87	52.35	70.75	95.29	148.9	44.77
15 Food total	104.9	143.96	160.2	191.5	213	236.8	253.6	284	309.2	368.4	472.8	567	266.3
16 Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	3.77	5.67	6.72	9.17	9.73	11.28	16.41	16.65	10.63	14.44	11.93	26.31	11.9
17 Fuel & light	13.46	16.11	17.88	21.7	23.37	24.58	25.76	28.48	33.14	35.91	44.14	51.89	27.08
18 Clothing	2.49	0.75	7.15	6.24	10.16	16.07	19.92	32.41	42.26	80.05	79.88	211.1	36.21
19 Footwear	0.44	0.8	1.23	1.45	1.75	3.54	2.58	4.17	5.9	8.48	12.27	24.43	4.81
20 Misc. good & services *	22.31	30.04	42.34	51.08	60.39	67.11	85.24	98.43	142.4	175.9	292	658.7	122.6
21 Durable goods	-	0.26	0.81	2.39	1.05	2.5	5.2	2.06	9.14	16.88	14.29	396.5	24.64
22 Non-Food total	42.45	53.63	76.13	92.02	106.4	125.1	155.1	182.2	243.5	331.7	454.5	1369	227.6
23 Total expenditure (Rs.)	147.3	197.59	236.4	283.6	319.4	361.9	408.7	466.2	552.7	700.1	927.3	1936	493.8

Source: NSSO 50th round

3.19 Trends in average consumption expenditure and in consumption pattern over the last two decades in India

The composition of household MPCE at all-India level is shown for the successive consumer expenditure surveys of NSS in tables 3.42 &3.43.

Apart from absolute values of average MPCE, the bottom of the table present indices of average MPCE using the 1972-73 figures as base. The corresponding consumer price indices (CPI for agricultural workers for rural areas and CPI for non-manual employees for urban areas) again with 1972-73 as the base are shown in the last row of the table.[25]

Table 3.42: Value of consumption of broad groups of items per person
for a period of 30 days by NSS rounds India Rural

Item	Oct-72- Sep-73	Jul-77-Jun-78	Jan-dec 83	Jul-87-Jun-88	Jul-93-Jun-94	Jul-99-jun-2000
Cereals	17.92	22.59	36.21	41.33	68.1	107.8
Gram	0.25	0.29	0.29	0.38	0.5	0.64
Cereal subst.	0.24	0.23	0.21	0.21	0.3	0.36
Pulses & prod.	1.89	2.63	3.98	6.27	10.7	18.5
Milk & prod.	3.22	5.29	8.5	13.63	26.7	42.56
Edible oil	1.55	2.46	4.53	7.88	12.5	18.16
Meat Eggs, Fish	1.09	1.84	3.37	5.11	9.4	16.14
Vegetables	1.59	2.6	5.31	8.23	17	29.98
Fruits & nuts	0.45	0.77	1.54	2.57	4.9	8.36
Sugar	1.66	1.82	3.18	4.51	8.6	11.57
Salt & Spices	1.23	2.09	2.82	4.52	7.4	14.41
Beverages etc.	1.07	1.72	3.69	6.18	11.7	20.38
Food total	32.16	44.33	73.63	100.8	177.8	288.8
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	1.36	1.99	3.35	5.03	8.9	13.96
Fuel & light	2.49	4.13	7.92	11.77	20.7	36.56
Clothing	3.09	5.99	9.64	10.52	15.1	33.28
Footwear	0.23	0.51	1.11	1.55	2.5	5.37
misc. good & services *	3.89	7.12	14.06	22.78	48.7	95.43
Durable goods	0.95	4.82	2.6	5.64	7.7	12.76
non-Food total	12.01	24.56	38.68	57.28	103.6	197.4
total expenditure (Rs.)	44.17	68.89	112.3	158.1	281.4	486.2
MPCE index						
(27th round = 100)	100	156	255	358	637	1100
Consumer Price index						
(27th round = 100)	100	144	227	289	520	833

Source: NSS Various round
*Includes rents and Taxes

The following are among the noticeable features of the data.

a) The rural MPCE at all India level has risen form Rs. 44 in the 72-73 to Rs. 486 in the 99-2000. The corresponding estimates for per capita expenditure on Food has increased from Rs. 32 to Rs. 289 and per capita expenditure on non-Food has increased from Rs. 12 to Rs. 197.

b) The urban MPCE at all-India level has risen from Rs. 63 in the 27th round to Rs. 855 in the 55th round. The corresponding estimates for per capita expenditure on Food has increased from Rs.41 to Rs. 411 and per capita expenditure on non-Food has increased from Rs. 22 to Rs.444.

Table 3.43 Value of consumption of broad groups of items per person for a period of 30 days by NSS rounds India.

Item	In Rs.					Urban
	Oct-72-Sep-73	Jul-77-Jun-78	Jan-Dec-83	Jul-87-Jun-88	Jul-93-Jun-94	Jul-99-Jun-2000
Cereals	14.77	19.66	31.85	36.97	64.3	105.57
Gram	0.20	0.24	0.31	0.41	0.80	0.95
cereal subst.	0.08	0.10	0.13	0.17	0.30	0.35
Pulses & prod.	2.16	3.43	5.32	8.44	13.90	24.25
Milk & prod.	5.91	9.16	15.27	23.84	44.90	74.17
Edible oil	3.07	4.46	7.98	13.23	20.10	26.81
meat, Eggs, Fish	2.07	3.33	5.93	8.85	15.50	26.78
Vegetables	2.77	4.23	8.17	13.12	25.00	43.90
Fruits & nuts	1.27	1.88	3.48	6.27	12.20	20.68
Sugar	2.28	2.54	4.06	5.86	10.9	14.00
Salt & Spices	1.44	2.55	3.55	5.78	9.40	19.11
Beverages etc.	4.82	6.09	11.26	16.82	33	54.28
Food total	40.84	57.67	97.31	139.7	250.3	410.84
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	1.75	2.34	4.05	6.53	10.70	16.22
Fuel & light	3.57	6.17	11.40	16.72	30.20	66.26
Clothing	3.34	6.78	12.80	15.00	21.40	51.76
Footwear	0.26	0.59	1.84	2.69	4.20	10.05
misc. good & services *	12.17	14.05	33.85	58.64	126.00	232.62
Durable goods	1.40	8.55	4.55	10.60	15.20	30.85
non-Food total	22.49	38.48	68.49	110.2	207.7	444.08
total expenditure (Rs.)	63.33	96.15	165.80	249.9	458.00	854.92
MPCE index						
(27th round = 100)	100	152	259	395	724	1351
Consumer Price index						
(27th round = 100)	100	160	258	364	618	998

Source : NSS Various rounds

*Includes rents and Taxes

c) The share of Cereals in household consumer expenditure has fallen steadily in both rural and urban areas. In rural areas it has fallen from 41% to 22% and in urban areas from 23% to 12%.

d) In the rural sector the share of Food as a whole has also substantially decline since the 27th round (1972-73). The share of some Food groups, notably Milk and Milk products, Vegetables and Beverages, refreshments and processed Food has increased in this sector at the expense of the share of Cereals.

e) In the urban sector, the share of Food has continued to fall throughout the period 1972-1999, the over all decline being of order of 16 % points. In this sector the shares of the Non-Cereal Food groups have not changed much. A fall in the share of Sugar from its 27th round value is the only noticeable change.[26]

f) Among non-Food groups, the category Miscellaneous goods & services registered a steady rise in share over the period under consideration. In the rural sector the share of this category has increased from 36% to 52%.

g) Both in rural and urban areas the overall rise in MPCE over this period was a little higher than the rise in consumer prices between 1972-73 and 1993-94.

Table 3.44 &3.45 give the % composition of household MPCE.

Table 3.44: Percentage distribution of MPCE by 18 groups of consumption items in India

Item	In Rs.					Rural
	Oct-72-Sep-73	Jul-77-Jun-78	Jan-Dec-83	Jul-87-Jun-88	Jul-93-Jun-94	Jul-99-Jun-2000
Cereals	40.6	32.8	32.3	26.3	24.2	22.2
Gram	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
Cereal subst.	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Pulses & prod.	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.0	3.8	3.8
Milk & prod.	7.3	7.7	7.5	8.6	9.5	8.8
Edible oil	3.5	3.6	4.0	5.0	4.4	3.7
Meat, Eggs, Fish	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.3
Vegetables	3.6	3.8	4.7	5.2	6.0	6.2
Fruits & nuts	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.7
Sugar	3.8	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.1	2.4
Salt & Spices	2.8	3	2.5	2.9	2.7	3.0
Beverages etc.	2.4	2.5	3.3	3.9	4.2	4.2
Food total	72.9	64.3	65.6	64	63.2	59.4
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	3.1	2.9	3	3.2	3.2	2.9
Fuel & light	5.6	6.0	7.0	7.5	7.4	7.5
Clothing	7.0	8.7	8.6	6.7	5.4	6.9
Footwear	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.1
Misc. good & services *	8.7	10.3	12.5	14.5	17.3	19.6
Durable goods	2.2	7.0	2.3	3.1	2.7	2.6
Non-Food total	27.1	35.7	34.4	36	36.8	40.6
Total expenditure (Rs.)	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSS Various rounds

Includes rents and Taxes

Table 3.45: Percentage distribution of MPCE over NSS rounds

Item	In Rs.					Urban
	Oct-72-Sep-73	Jul-77- Jun-78	Jan-Dec-83	Jul-87-Jun-88	Jul-93-Jun-94	Jul-99-Jun-2000
.	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cereals	23.3	20.5	19.4	15	14	12.4
Gram	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Cereal subst.	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Pulses & prod.	3.4	3.6	3.2	3.4	3.0	2.8
Milk & prod.	9.3	9.5	9.2	9.5	9.8	8.7
Edible oil	4.9	4.6	4.8	5.3	4.4	3.1
Meat, Eggs, Fish	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.1
Vegetables	4.4	4.4	5.0	5.3	5.5	5.1
Fruits & nuts	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.5	2.7	2.4
Sugar	3.6	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	1.6
Salt & Spices	2.3	2.7	2.1	2.3	2.0	2.2
Beverages etc.	7.6	6.3	6.8	6.8	7.2	6.4
Food total	64.5	60	59.1	56.4	54.7	48.1
Pan, Tobacco & intoxicants	2.8	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.3	1.9
Fuel & light	5.6	6.4	6.9	6.8	6.6	7.8
Clothing	5.3	7.1	7.6	5.9	4.7	6.1
Footwear	0.4	0.6	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.2
Misc. good & services *	19.2	14.6	20.5	23.2	27.5	27.2
Durable goods	2.2	8.9	2.3	4.1	3.3	3.6
Non-Food total	35.5	40	40.9	43.6	45.3	51.9
Total expenditure (Rs.)	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSS Various rounds

*Includes rents and Taxes

3.20 Trends in average consumption expenditure and in consumption pattern over the last three decades in Kerala

a) The rural MPCE of Kerala has risen from Rs. 42 in the 27th round to Rs. 765 in 55th round. (The corresponding estimate for per capita expenditure on Food has increased from 29 to Rs. 411 and for per Capita expenditure on Non-Food has increased from Rs.12 to Rs. 354.)

b) The urban MPCE of Kerala has risen from Rs. 58 in the 27th round to Rs. 932 in the 55th round. (The corresponding estimate for per capita expenditure on Food has increased from Rs. 37 to Rs. 457 and for per capita expenditure on non-Food has increased from Rs. 20 to Rs. 475.)

c) The share of Cereals in household consumer expenditure has fallen steadily in both rural and urban areas. In rural areas it has fallen from 32% to 14% and in urban areas from 24% to 11%.

d) In the rural sector the share of Food as a whole has also substantially declined since the 27th round. The share of some Food groups, notably Milk and Milk products, Meat, Eggs and Fish, Fruits & nuts Vegetables, Beverages, refreshments and processed Food have increased in this sector at the expense of the share of Cereals.

e) In the urban sector the share of Food has continued to fall through out the period 1972 –1999. The over all decline being of the order of 17% points. In this sector the shares of the Non-Cereal Food groups have not changed much. A fall in the share of Sugar from its 27th round value is the only noticeable change.

f) Among non-Food groups the category Miscellaneous goods & services registered a steady rise in share over their period 1972-1999. In the rural sector the share of this category has increased from 45% to 51%. This category has registered a decline in share over the period 1994-1999. In the rural and urban sectors of Kerala as different from the trend observed earlier the share of Non-Food has continued to rise through out the period 1972-99 from 29.58% to 46.30% in the rural and from 35.14% to 51% in the urban sector.

g) Both in the rural and urban areas, the overall rise in MPCE over this period were a little higher than the rise in consumer prices between 72-73 and 99-2000.

3.2 Possession of Durable goods

Household consumer goods other than Food, Fuel and Clothing / footwear are according to usual NSS practice classified into Durable goods and a residual Miscellaneous goods category. Durable goods are distinguished from miscellaneous goods by having a longer expected lifetime of use (roughly, one year or more). Durable goods used for household purposes thus include Furniture and fixtures, recreational goods such as cameras, TV, Cassettes and musical instruments, jewelry and ornaments clocks and watches, household utensils and appliances for cooking, heating, cooling and other work such as sewing, vehicles for personal transport and other electrical and sanitary fittings.

Expenditure on durables, for the population as whole, forms a very small proportion of total household expenditure. Per capita household expenditure on durables in 1999-2000 was estimated as Rs. 12.76, (2.6% of total household expenditure) in rural areas and Rs. 30.85 (3.60%) in urban areas of the country. Per capita household expenditure on durables in Kerala was Rs.52.51 (6.81) and Rs. 53.06 (6.8%) in urban Kerala.

Expenditure incurred on repairs and construction of durables used for domestic purpose is included in expenditure on Durable goods. The all deciles groups figures for certain important items are considered first. % of rural and urban households reporting possession of fourteen important household durables in India and Kerala are shown in Table 3.46.

Table 3.46 Proportion of households possessing different items of Durable goods (Number per 1000)

Sl. No.	Item	All-India		Kerala	
		Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
1	Bedstead	791	818	873	906
2	Almirah, Dressing table	269	561	587	729
3	Chair, stool, bench, table	529	741	931	927
4	Suitcase, and other Travel goods	737	827	557	669
5	Foam, rubber etc	24	125	118	226
6	Carpet, & other floor matting	153	227	40	86
7	Paintings etc.	19	78	10	19
8	record player etc	6	17	17	17
9	Radio	304	351	495	434
10	Television	187	595	338	568
11	VCR/ VCP	5	37	65	138
12	Tape recorder, CD player	91	278	333	402
13	Electric fan	263	685	487	718
14	Air conditioner r etc	17	109	3	10
15	Sewing machine	74	203	115	195
16	Washing machine	6	89	35	108
17	Stove	273	618	380	599
18	Pressure Cooker	131	496	195	368
19	Refrigerator	27	229	138	284
20	Bicycle	405	390	195	249
21	Motor cycle / Scooter	45	184	65	141
22	Motor car, jeep	4	27	20	40
23	Clock, watch	389	604 .	803	819

Source: NSS 55th round

The % of possessor households in urban areas are in nearly all cases higher than the corresponding % for rural areas. Rural- urban differences in incidence of possession are seen to be low in case of bedsteads (79% for rural India and 81% for urban India) and also low for bicycles (40% for rural and 39% for urban).

For all the other durables listed in the table rural-urban differentials were much higher. Examples are TV / VCR / VCP and pressure cooker (rural 13%, urban 49%) Electric fan (rural 26%, Urban 68%) and refrigerator (rural 2%, Urban 22%).

Rural – Urban differentials were somewhat less marked for radios and clocks / watches both of which were possessed by more the quarter of all rural households in 99-00.

The % cf possessor households in urban areas are in nearly all cases higher than the corresponding % for rural areas. Rural – urban differences in incidence of possession are seen to be low in case of bedsteads (87% for rural, 90% for urban).

For all the other durables listed in the table rural urban differentials were much higher examples are electric fan (48% for rural, 71% for urban) and stove (38% for rural, 59% for urban). Rural –urban differentials were somewhat less marked for radio and clocks / watches.

Regarding possession of Durable goods there is much difference observed between households in National level and those in Kerala. Items with wider differences in possession are explained here.

3.21.1 Entertainment items:

3.21.1.1 Radio, TV and Tape recorder

Radio sets were possessed by 50% of rural households in Kerala and 30% of rural households in India. Tape recorders and CD players were present in 33% of rural households in Kerala. This was only 9% for rural Indian households. In urban areas of Kerala the incidence was 40.44% and the same 27% in All India urban.

The % of rural households reporting possession of VCR / VCP are seen to x6% for Kerala while it is less than 1% for all major states. In urban areas of Kerala, 1% of households possessed VCR / VCP.

In rural areas, the proportion of households possessing television is 34% in Kerala while it is only 18% of all India rural level.

3.21.2 Equipment for housework: Refrigerators, washing machines, pressure cookers, stoves and sewing machines.

It is found that only 3% of rural households and 23% of urban households in India were found to possess a refrigerator. The proportion of rural households having pressure cooker in Kerala was 14% and for all India it was 13%. As far as urban sector is concerned the proportion becomes 36% and 44% respectively.

The use of washing machines was found to be 15 times more frequent in urban India compared to rural India. The proportion of rural households having washing machines in Kerala was 3% while the same was 10% in urban Kerala.

About 38-40 % of rural households possessed stoves in Kerala while it was 27% at the National level. In urban Kerala the proportion of households having stoves was 60% at all India level.

3.21.3 Personal Transport equipments:

3.21.3.1 Motor cycles, Scooters and Bicycles

Kerala had the lowest proportion (20%) of rural households possessing bicycles. The proportion was 40% in rural India. In urban Kerala only 24% of households possessed bicycles while it was 39% in urban India. Interestingly the proportion was much lower in urban areas, no doubt due to the widespread use of motorcycles and scooters in preference to bicycles.

The % of households with motorcycles / scooters was around 18% in urban India and 5% in rural India. The incidence was 18% in urban and 6% in rural Kerala.

3.21.4 Comfort goods

3.21.4.1 Air coolers / conditioners and electric fans.

The % of rural households with electric fan in rural India was 26% while that was around 68% in urban India. In urban Kerala 71% households possessed electric fans while in the rural areas the incidence of possession was 48% only. Air coolers / conditioners were present in 11% of urban households in the country as a whole and 10% of urban households in Kerala. In rural Kerala the possession of the commodity was reported by 3% of households.

3.21.5 Other durables

In both rural and urban areas around 80% of households possessed bedsteads in all India. Both rural and urban areas of Kerala had around 80% households possessing clocks / watches. While in urban India 2% of households reported possession of motorcar, jeep, in urban Kerala it was 4%.

3.22 Average Number of Durable goods possessed by households reporting possession

Table 3.47 shows for each of 23 different Durable goods, average number possessed by 1000 households in rural and urban areas of Kerala and all-India. The following features deserves mention.

3.22.1 Furniture

Bedstead is the only item out of the 23 items under consideration, for which the average number of bedsteads possessed by a rural household (2.5) is more than that in urban areas (2.1). The average number is more or less the same in the two sectors for bicycle (0.4). For all the other items the average number was less in rural compared to urban.

In Kerala the proportion of households owning bedsteads is somewhat same in both rural (2.1) and urban (2.3). The average number of almarah, dressing table & chair possessed by households in rural Kerala are lesser than urban households.

Table 3.47 Average Number possessed per 1000 households

S.No.	Item	Rural		Urban	
		Kerala	All-India	Kerala	All-India
1	Bed stead	2159	2474	2372	2117
2	Almirah, dressing table	917	388	1242	935
3	Chair, tab le etc	5452	1567	6367	2923
4	Suitcase, and other, Travel goods	1057	1896	1508	2629
5	Foam, rubber	251	55	556	371
6	Carpet, and other floor matting s	69	382	157	523
7	Painting, etc	18	49	48	204
8	record player etc	17	6	17	20
9	Radio	500	308	438	373
10	Television	343	192	569	607
11	VCR/VCP	66	5	139	39
12	Tape recorder, CD player	337	95	421	291
13	Electric fan	1249	443	2032	1393
14	Air conditioner	3	19	12	152
15	Sewing machine	117	78	200	212
16	Washing machine	35	6	108	92
17	Stove	413	297	695	720
18	Pressure cooker	241	162	526	684
19	Refrigerator	138	28	286	237
20	Bicycle	210	456	273	457
21	Motor cycle, scooter	68	48	149	212
22	Motor Car, Jeep	21	4	42	106
23	Clock, Watch	2265	753	2604	1624

Source: NSS 55th round

3.22.2 Television:

In rural India the average number of television sets possessed by the households was 0.2 and that in urban areas was 0.6. In rural Kerala the average number of television sets possessed by households was 0.3 and urban sector 0.6

3.22.3 VCR/VCP:

The average number of VCR/ VCP possessed by households was 0.005 in rural and 0.04 in urban areas. In the rural areas of Kerala the average number is 0.06. Kerala stands along with Punjab. In all other parts of rural India the possession is 0.01. Regarding urban sector Kerala (0.1) is the only state where the possession is more than 0.06.

122.4 Radio

The variation in the average number of radio sets possessed by the households is much less compared to other items of Durable goods. While in the rural areas of the country the average possession is 0.3 in rural India it is 0.5 in rural Kerala. In the urban India the possessions 0.3 and urban Kerala it is 0.43.

122.5 Tape recorder / CD player

The average number of tape recorders/ CD players in urban India (0.3) is three times that in rural areas (.09). It is higher in Kerala rural sector, 0.3 and in urban Kerala the possession amounts to 0.4.

122.6 Washing Machine

The average number of washing machines possessed by urban household (0.09) was fifteen times that of rural households (0.006) at all India level. Like other items the average number is high in both sectors of Kerala rural (.03) and urban (0.1).

122.7 Bicycle

A household possessed 0.5 bicycle on an average in both rural and urban areas of India. In the rural areas of Kerala the average number(0.21) is relatively low as compared with rural areas of other states In the urban Kerala also the possession was relatively lower as 0.27.

122.8 Other items of Durables

Households in urban areas reported an average of 1.4 fans possessed compared to 0.4 is rural areas. Average number of fans possessed in urban Kerala was 2 fan while rural it was 1 fan.

Households in urban areas of India reported an average of 0.7 stoves possessed compared to 0.2 stoves in rural areas. Average number of stoves possessed in urban Kerala was 0.6 while in rural it was 0.4. In urban areas the % of households possessing pressure cooker was 0.7 on an average and in rural areas the average was 0.2. Average number of pressure cookers possessed in urban Kerala was 0.5 while in rural it was 0.2. Households in urban areas reported an average of 1.6 clock/ watch possessed compared to 0.7 in rural areas. The average number of clock/ watch possessed in rural Kerala was 2.2 while for urban Kerala it was 2.6.

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33. Note: These six quinquennial surveys were carried out during October 1972-September 1973, July 1977-June 1978, January-December 1983, July 1987-June 1988, July 1993-June 1994 and July 1999-June 2000.

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(b) NSSO, 32nd round (July 1977-June 1978), NSSO, 50th round (July 1993-June 1994)

(c) NSSO, 38thround (January1983-December 1983), NSSO, 55th round (July 1999 June 2000)

37. *Ibid.*

CHAPTER IV
PROFILE OF SCHEDULED CASTES

4.1 Introduction

The Scheduled castes are not a homogeneous group but consist of more than 400 major caste groups having varying numerical strength. Due to occupational differentiation some castes are predominantly rural while others are exclusively urban based. Agricultural labourers, cobblers, weavers and artisans tend to concentrate in rural areas. The spatial distribution of the Scheduled caste population is such that they can be described as "dispersed minority"[1]

The Scheduled castes have been notified by the President of India under articles 341 of the constitution of India. Accordingly from 1951 Census onwards information on Scheduled castes were collected and made available in Census reports. From 1961 Census onwards-special tables on Scheduled Castes were published in Census reports. From 1981 Census onwards Primary Census abstract for Scheduled Castes were prepared separately from that of General Population.[2]

From the very beginning of social stratification based on caste system, the Schedule caste population of India has remained socially, economically and educationally backward. This stratum of the population, on account of their low status, had been subjected to a variety of disabilities under the traditional system From time immemorial Scheduled castes have been a deprived section of our society. Their low status has been the bye – product of the caste system that prevailed in India over the years. A general review of the history of caste system in India and kerala is provided in the next section.

4.2 Caste system a general view

Treatises on caste, which go into the origin of Brahmanic notions of purity and pollution, have done well in explaining the caste idea or cultural values under the caste system. Sinha[3] defined caste system as a hierarchy of endogamous groups organized in a characteristic hierarchy division of labour where in the

unctions of caste specialization and hierarchy were originally linked. Moreover, a fairly close correlation existed between caste hierarchy and the distribution of land holding and power.

Caste may be defined as a small and named group of persons characterized by endogamy, hereditary membership and specific style of life which sometimes includes the persuit by tradition of a particular occupation and is usually associated with a more or less distinct ritual status in a hierarchical system[4] Srinivas[5] defined caste as a hereditary, endogamous, usually localized group having a traditional association with an occupation and a particular position in the local hierarchy of castes. According to him relations among castes are governed among other things by the concepts of pollution and purity, the maximum commensality occurring in general with in the same caste. However a caste itself happens usually to be segmented into several endogamous sub-castes.

4.3 Origin of Caste system and untouchability in India

The origin of the caste system are shrouded in a pre-historic past. A social organization based on differential access to resources, exchange of service, sharing of produce and a hierarchy of status among a host of corporate groups got gradually institutionalized.

The Indian society was characterized by caste system from the days of early Aryan settlers Scheduled castes hold the opinion that they are the original inhabitants of India; that they inhabited this land much before Aryans came here.

The saga of the oppression of Scheduled castes in India is as long as the history of this subcontinent itself. Right from the Indus Valley Civilisation, we find the presence of this class in Indian society in one form or the other.Caste has been one of the primary unit of stratification in India.[6] The institution of caste is regarded as a distinguishing feature of social organization of the Indian people under Hinduism. Caste system is based on the fundamental social principal of hierarchy.[7] The caste system determines the hierarchical social status of various groups in the Indian society. The traditional Indian society remained structurally stratified into

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different unequal strata of caste / occupational groups comprising the socially and economically privileged section of the higher castes or the Savarnas on the one side and the Avarnas consisting of the most disadvantaged group of the lowest castes, and of the intermediate castes with relative deprivation or affluence on the other

The caste society was moulded within the work frame of the varna system which was established in ancient India. The distinction of the four varnas dates back to the origins of the human race according to the Rig-Veda, the oldest of the four vedas. But the four varnas were actually established during the middle of the Later Vedic Era(1000-600 B.C), which marked the formation of Aryan agrarian society.[8]

The Brahmanas, who made up the highest ranked varna monopolized the positions of priest and teacher of the Vedas; the Kshatriya were assigned to the charge of politics and the military; the Vaisyas formed the commoner ranks of cultivators and merchants; and the Sudras were marginalised to the lowest levels-servants.

The top three varnas were formed by the regular members of Aryan society. These three varnas were known as dvijati, or twice born and were given privilege to participate in the religious worship presided over by the brahmanas. Their second birth was the initiation ceremony into the Vedic studies (upanayana) which they performed while they were young. On the contrary to this the Sudras were segregated from the dvijati as ekajati, who were born only once from their mothers' wombs. There was yet another class of inferior people below the Sudras, in which the Candalas, or untouchables were placed. Thus[9] lowest ranking groups with in the caste system are referred to as "Scheduled Castes" (Since the enactment of Govt. of India Act in 1935). The Scheduled Castes were designated as Panchamas, those of the fifth order. They were ranked below the four varnas of the Brahmins, the Kshatriya, the Vaishya and the Sudra.

In this social regulations of life discipline, the phenomenon of pollution between certain castes was introduced, which in later centuries, even, today became a ruling power in society. This is the phenomenon of untouchability. They were not to come in the view of an upper caste and were not supposed to tread on the path, where an upper caste was supposed to traverse. The untouchables were not permitted into

emples and institutions of learning. They had no right to education and right to way, ary were disallowed to possess land, wear gold and silver ornaments and construct mses using bricks and tiles. They were prescribed distances to be observed by them r the sight of higher castes.[10] They had to observe untouchability and unapproachability may be even unseeability. The imprint of caste is most apparent on the habits of consumption. To avoid pollution at the time of eating is an important matter for the Hindu. Caste in India retained and reinforced the exclusiveness of the primitive family.[11]

The caste system was developed to meet the requirement of the Hindu society in good faith and was based not on birth but on type of work, but gradually it gave way to division in the Hindu Society leading to castes and sub-castes based on birth. Thus untouchability was the out come of degenerated caste system.

Untouchability is not simply a reflection of caste phenomenon, but of underlying socio economic factors of semi feudal relation. Further the social oppression of the untouchables had religious sanction. Thus the untouchables have been the victims of brutal exploitation and have suffered the stigma of untouchability, social isolation, residential segregation, economic deprivation, political subjugation and cultural degradation. They became illiterate, landless, and with no hope of progress. Lack of wealth, education and power made the untouchables vulnerable to oppression Coming to the other point, ie. the economic condition; these became worse and kept on worsening due to the nature of tasks entrusted to Sudras, which apart from being menial were not remunerative enough to keep them going. This led them to take loans and loan sharks, ultimately, took not only them, but their families also in bondage. This made them slaves forever and hence they were left behind in the struggle of life.

The caste system retarded economic mobility by its insistence on hierarchy passing on of crafts and skills. Division of labour was to begin with "forced" rather than spontaneous, the power holding groups reserved themselves the professions which bestowed on them power and dignity, they systematically relegated to the oppressed all the monotonous and fatiguing jobs devoid of joy or honor. Caste system not only denied liberty to the individual but also solidarity to the social whole:

the Hindus of one caste remained stranger to all others and most abominable indifference prevailed among them.[12]

4.4 Caste system in Modern India

During the course of the last century the institution of caste in India underwent considerable changes. During the late 19th century when the colonial administration started, and the economy marched towards a commercial production process, the feudal caste structure was left to adjust itself.

The feudal caste structure continued to prevail over the emerging capitalist relations of productions. During the colonial period the British introduced reforms in transport and communication and new avenues of employment emerged from the development of commercial capitalization in agriculture and industrial capitalism. New labour relations came into existence and educational institutions sprang up in[13] large numbers.

Under colonial administration also the broad association between caste persisted. Though it decreased the number of divisions of the society of the pre-colonial caste ridden feudal period, stratification of the working class was made along caste lines.[14] The new economic programmes introduced during the 19th century by the colonial government included the abolition of slavery. Even though the legislation for abolition of slavery was enacted through the Act of 1843, the system continued in existence till the beginning of 20th century. Later the system of bonded labour and attached labour was in existence and thus the slave castes were "rehabilitated".

The policy of the British government towards the down trodden was indifferent and they were treated as born criminals. The Government had no soft corner for them. The operation of the Criminal Tribes Act of 1924, transgressed the basic principles of jurisprudence and condemned untouchables as criminals.

The Christian missionaries, the Colonial Government and social reformers in India promoted western style education which became institutionalized. The status of communities as 'untouchables' in the Hindu caste system was the most

enous impediment to their education. While stringent social taboos conscribed their behavior, severe strictures were laid down to prevent their access to knowledge.

British policy documents relating to the education of the untouchables reals a dualism, following from a liberal stance on the one had and a tendency to compromise with dominant caste pressures on the other. This crucially affected the early educational opportunities of untouchables. The British aimed at consolidations and strengthening of their administration by divide and rule policy. The British government granted certain concessions to the depressed classes to have more opportunities for economic development. But equality of opportunity remained still a far cry. The colonial government did little to curb the social and economic evils. But several enactments which legitimated the use of forced labour were made in various parts of India.[15] Thus almost until the end of the colonial period the caste factor continued to play an important role in the social economic and political life of India.

Advent of the British to a certain extent proved to be a blessing in disguise for the untouchables. The British made them understand that education can play a major role in freeing them from the shackles of slavery. Early efforts towards education of the untouchables are usually associated with British rule and the efforts of the Christian missionaries in India. The caste disabilities removal act of 1850 and subsequent establishment of school's provided the first opportunities for education to the lowest of castes.

The social reform movement during late 19th century removed many of the barriers and gave impetus to the spread of literacy and education among the depressed castes. During the pre-independence struggle, many social reformers worked toward creating awareness among them and tried to wake them up to their rights. They worked for removal of inequalities and the spread of education among them. Among the high profile leaders Mahatma Gandhi and B.R. Ambedkar stand out for the pioneering work they did to uplift them. Gandhi did his best for removal of untouchability and fought for their rights. Gandhi gave the untouchables the name of Harijans, meaning the people of God "The idea of untouchability is unacceptable to reason. It is contrary to truth and non-violence and, therefore is certainly not dharma"[16]

This large chunk of population has been named in different forms like sudras, untouchables, exuntouchable, exterior castes, out castes depressed classes, harijans, dalit and scheduled castes with the passage of time. These terms have been used to refer to this social category by Hindu, social reformers and officials. Dr. Ambedkar was the first to use the term dalits to describe the scheduled castes. But their conditions remained pathetic and they continued to suffer socially, educationally and economically. According to Dr. Pantawan, dalit is not a caste. Dalit is a symbol of change and revolution. The Dalit believes in humanism. He rejects the existence of God, rebirth, soul, sacred books that teach discrimination, fate and heaven, because these have made him a slave. He represents the exploited men in his country. Dalitness is essentially a means towards achieving a sense of cultural identity. The inferior complex, to be Dalit, has now disappeared. Now, Dalit is a source of confrontation.

The status of communities as "untouchables" in the Hindu Caste system was the most serious impediment to their economic development. In 1934 Munshi Premchand[17] chided his nationalist friends for merely shouting "nation", 'nation", while "our hearts are still plunged in the darkness of caste distinctions" "who does not know", he asked "that caste distinctions and nation hood are opposed to each other like poison and nectar"?. If Hindus look upon untouchability as "essential part of Hinduism", Gandhi wrote in 1924, " We are only destroying the Hindu religion". For that reason "untouchability....will mean suicide". "I have not the ghost of a doubt that it is the primary dharma of every Hindu to try to eradicate it and die in the attempt". "The fight against untouchability" he emphasized, "is a religious fight". This is a "fight for the mighty reform of Hinduism."[18] If Hindus sanctioned present inequalities, then Hinduism itself must be renounced.[19] Further Gandhi did not accept the mythology of origins touted by the militant Hindus: "We have no historical record of man who first assigned the lowest status to this essential sanitary service."[20]

In post-Independence India many social reformers came triumph in their efforts to give a force lift to the Dalit society Ambedkar set new guidelines for the Dalit society to follow. Thus they helped in a great deal to remove the inferiority complex based on to be Dalit. It was the time when social and cultural Reform

ovement was being born in India, the zealous reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Keshab Chanda Sen, Debendranath Tagore, Swami Dayananda Sarawati, and above all Swami Vivekananda went to emphasize the equality of all men. This century-long action was not to be fruitless. People were awakened, consciousness spread. But it was all pin-pointed towards the upliftment of the oppressed class only in order to make it equal in status with those traditionally well off.

In the time of Gandhi, saw a serious attempt from Gandhi to bring about social equality among all the Indians. He fought against untouchability which was the worst feature of our then society. He threw open the doors of temples to Dalits - But Gandhi's way was not aggressive as he was an advocator of Ahimsa. But Ambedkar was direct and straight. He represented the discontent brewing inside the Dalits for long Education has been emphasized in regard to achieving socio-economic progress among Dalits and other weaker sections of people in India by many Dalit leaders including Ambdekar.[21]

4.5 The Period Since Independence

Independent India offered to the untouchables (now officially called Scheduled castes) the promise to a life of dignity through a number of protective measures written into the Constitution. The Constitution of independent India does not recognize the concept of caste. Untouchability has been prohibited and various castes have the right to function freely. The constitution forbids legal recognition of hierarchal ordering of, and patronization among caste groups. Two schedules of the constitution (under Article 341 and 342) have specifically listed the needy caste groups for giving special considerations.

The constitution prohibits discrimination against any citizen on grounds of religion, race, class, place of birth or any other factor. The President enjoys the power to appoint a special officer to investigate matters related to safeguards provided for Scheduled castes and Scheduled tribes in the constitution and accordingly a commissioner for the weaker sections of the Nation is appointed.

Free India's commitment to a socialist, secular and democratic order required the states to inspire and institutionalize change in tune with the national objective. An important instance in this, is to be found in the induction of provisions in India's constitutional mechanism, not only to protect the interest, but also to promote the welfare of the weaker sections. This is designated as the policy of protective discrimination.

Education is means through which one inculcates knowledge, values, skills and attitudes. It is a major tool for socio-economic improvement of an individual and it also reduces social inequalities in income distribution. Education has been instrumental in defining and mapping out the aims and objectives of an individual. In education the criteria is mere merit not the caste or creed of an individual. Thus it provides the right person with the oceanic opportunities in displaying his/her skill and intelligence. It has the potentiality for creating awareness of the difficulties and obstacles that may hinder the path of development. Such awareness in a better way helped the deprived groups to go in search for alternative solutions of their problems for improving their lot and climbing the ladder of social hierarchy.

In Independent India, the main objective of education is to look after the needs and development of Scheduled Caste children who have remained isolated from the ambit of education for centuries. The reservation policy of Indian Government put in place for the benefit of certain sections of society, namely Scheduled Castes; to set right the wrongs done to them in the past and bring them back on rails as early as possible. Reservation is the preferential treatment given to them mainly in the spheres of education, employment and housing, to the exclusion of other individuals or groups. This policy is known by variously as reservation system, quota system, positive discrimination, reverse discrimination etc

The Constitution under its sections on Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles of State Policy has made provisions to abolish untouchability and protect the economic and educational interests of depressed classes. The Union Parliament and State Legislative Assemblies have reserved seats for Scheduled Castes based on special provisions in the Constitutions. Similarly they are given priority in appointments in government administration and services. The Central and State

Governments have introduced a variety of schemes for the overall development of the target groups. Special schemes for assisting marginal farmers, agricultural laboures exist. Minimum wage laws employment generation, provisions for land reforms and promotion of industries etc. are schemes for the welfare of the Scheduled castes. The Integrated Rural Development programme, special component plans etc are also included in the strategy for their development.

Substantial funds were allocated in the National Five Year Plans for ameliorating the conditions of scheduled castes. Constitutional guarantees, planned development of the country which aimed at a rapid economic growth, agrarian reforms, adult franchise and elections at all levels had a profound impact on the life of the untouchables. The five decades since independence witnessed a perceptible improvement in their lives and socio-economic status. However the benefits of the overall development and growths have not percolated down to the concerned groups as much as expected. This weaker sections are still the victims of growing economic inequalities. They have not even been assured of the basic amenities of life such as food, shelter, education and medical care and they continue to be exploited economically and are discriminated socially.

It has been found that the growth of the educational standard among scheduled castes are not uniform and educational facilities among backward castes are being distributed unevenly. In almost all the states in India certain prominent castes among them are dominating in enjoying the educational facilities meant for the whole scheduled caste society.

Coming to the present day situation, after independence, constitution makers played their due part sincerely, thanks to the presence of Dr. B.R. Ambedkar, in providing for the justice for dalits in the shape of various acts which became the guiding spirit for the future policy makers to make enough laws to help them.[22]

The provision of assistance and generation of opportunities etc were intended to integrate them with the rest of the society as equals. The fact that such programmes were being extended decade after decade makes it clear that the goals have remained exclusive. The majority of the Scheduled castes have not yet freed

themselves from the stranglehold of poverty, inequality and injustice. The vast majority among them still suffers from social disabilities and falls to atrocities in many parts of the country.

There is a growing sense of deprivation and consciousness of the rights among Scheduled Castes now a days. This has been derived from the deeply felt grievances that have been lived with them for a long time. The awakening lies in the fact that people no longer feel that they have to repress their aspirations as much as they did formerly. Thus protest movements among the Scheduled Castes have been launched by dalits channeled towards raising their social status.

By embracing other religions apart from Hinduism they put in all the efforts to regain their lost identity or status. Thus, the major problem to be solved for the Scheduled castes in India is to regain the fuller human self identity. The main motive or purpose behind the various efforts including the change of religion from Hinduism to other religion by the Scheduled castes has been to gain their lost identity or to establish a new one. The general feeling that the caste consciousness is vanishing in modern India may be there but there is a prevalence of caste system hegemony through physical discrimination, subordination, hostility and prejudices against the dalits.[23]

The dalits in India still form a poor lot undoubtedly. But, as the data reveal, they are not confined only to a handful of castes. The historical interpretation of the term dalit, ie. the oppressed can now be changed to 'the poor'. Although there are pockets in the country where some castes are still oppressed, but they can be taken as exceptions, and with the outbreak of the new economic revolution in India these pockets cannot be thought to be remained secluded for long. Already we have reached a point of time when the caste identities are disappearing out of economic considerations. In such a time, the Scheduled castes themselves should take the initiative to get with the time.

ს Caste system in Kerala.

The self – styled supremacy of casteism disintegrated the unity of the society in Kerala for more than ten centuries. Brahmanic influence over the Hindu society monopolized the leadership at the cost of society itself.[24] As early as from 4th century A. D. groups of Brahmins started moving towards Kerala from North India and they began to influence the social life of the native society. By the 6th century Buddhism was on decline and Brahmanism was resurgent trying to retain the supremacy upon all the communities comprising the Hindu Society.

The Aryans seem to have come to Kerala by eighth century. Under the caste system (Chathurvarnya in the rest of the Hindu Society in India) in Kerala, the society comprised of two sections Savarnas and Avarnas. It was the Aryan settlers who introduced the fourfold division of castes in Kerala.

The division of the people into four well-defined castes never existed in Kerala as is seen in the Northern parts of India. The principle of treating each group following a particular occupation as a separate caste and of prohibiting inter marriage and interdining between them was introduced in Kerala by the Aryan immigrants. The immigrants claimed superiority in caste and refused to recognize any other class of inhabitants as Brahmins.

The Brahmins being the priestly order wielded great influence over the other.[25] The [26] ruling families were recognized as Kshatriyas who were relatively few and mainly landlords. A few were recognized as Vaisyas and bulk of people as Sudras. In the process of social interaction a portion of the indigenous conquered population was accepted into the Aryan fold. These backward sections of the incorporated population constituted the caste of untouchables who were outside the fourfold Varna system.

People belonging to particular occupation groups were made separate castes. The castes, which follow low occupations, are in the lower state of social order.[27] They were discriminated in all respects. The use of public roads public wells and common eating-places were denied to them. The facilities of hospitals

educational institutions were also denied to them. Entry in temples worshipped by the high castes Hindus also denied to them. They could not even dream admissions to houses of the upper caste Hindus in the past. Even in the dress used by each caste there were differences.[28] The society composed of diverse occupational groups which got restricted into several hereditary and sub-caste divisions with specific and rigidly defined rights and obligations.

The unquestioned dominance of the Brahmins in the society began at least as early as the twelfth century A.D. The Brahmin community appropriated to themselves the power for allocation of professions. The Brahmins were the custodians of wide area of land in two forms: as (temple property) Devasoms and Brahmaswams. (Property of Brahmins received from Kings etc. as donations).

The Temple 'Entry Proclamation' issued by the Maharajah of Travancore in 1936 was the pioneer in the field of reforms relating to eradication of untouchability. Through this proclamation it was ordered that there should be no restriction placed on any Hindu by birth or religion on entering or worshipping at the temples controlled by the Maharaja or his government. This give momentum to this much need reform and various other state Governments followed with their own legislation in this field.

Various laws have since been enacted by the State Governments making the practice of untouchability in one form or other as punishable offence. The Cochin Temple Entry Authorization Proclamation of 1123, the Travancore Cochin Removal of Social Disabilities Act, 1125 (T. C. Act VIII of 1125), The Travancore Cochin Temple Entry (Removal of Disabilities) Act, 1950, (T. C. Act, XXVII of 1950) and the Madras Removal of Civil Disabilities Act, 1938 (Madras Act XXI of 1938), are some of the legislations which were in force on the different areas in the State. The Central Government has passed an All India Enactment namely Untouchability (Offences) act, 1955 which has made the offence cognizable and punishable under law throughout the territory of India.

The advent of British rule, the Industrial Revolution in the west, modern technological growth and fast communication together with some social movements

ied to some changes in the basic social structure of the Indian society. Indian national movement that led to India's Independence followed these changes. The nation declared itself to be a welfare state with the principle of equality and justice and committed itself by constitution to the welfare of weaker sections and special incentives were provided by constitution to these sections.[29]

The Socio-Economic Survey conducted by the Commission appointed for studying the socio-economic conditions of Scheduled Caste or Scheduled Tribes (1982) provided information on the status of Scheduled Caste in the state.[30]

4.7 Present Condition of Scheduled Castes in Kerala

According to 2001 Census, the population of Scheduled Castes in Kerala is 3158143, consisting of 1539979 males and 1618051 females. The Scheduled Caste population of Kerala increased by 9.4% during 1991-2001 as against a 13.22 % increase during the decade 1981-91.

The decadal increase of Scheduled Castes in the state (9.40) is less than the decadal increase of 9.42 % for the General population. scheduled castes constitute 9.91% % of the population of the State in 2001 census.[31]

The absence of comparable data for Scheduled Castes for the pre-independence period is a major handicap to assess the socio-economic progress achieved during the period after independence on a firm basis. However the rate of progress now achieved among the various sections the Scheduled Caste populations is examined with available data in this section.

4.8 Economic Status

According to latest estimates, 36 per cent of India's population live below the poverty line with households having less than Rs. 33 per day to spend. Approximately 80 per cent of India's poor live in rural areas and the balance in urban areas. Poverty is usually defined as lack of adequate income. It is measured by the number of people living with incomes (or consumption expenditure) below a stipulated poverty line. In India this line is drawn at the level of income assumed to

x necessary to provide individuals living in rural and urban areas, a daily calorie make of 2,400 and 2,100, respectively, in addition to basic non-food items. A major proportion of disadvantaged groups in the society such as the Scheduled Castes live below the basic minimum requirements.[32]

Kerala State is economically backward compared to many of the states in India. The significant progress accomplished by the state in many spheres of social life, serves as a model to many other societies But with regard to per capita income, Kerala's position is below the national level and that of many other Indian States. In terms of economic growth and industrial production the state is still backward. Judged by the per-capita income, it is poorer than the States of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Maharashtra, Punjab and West Bengal.

The comparatively poor economic condition of the State is reflected more in the weaker sections of the population. The economic stability of a society is judged on the basis of standard of living of the weaker sections of the population. The position of the Scheduled Castes in Kerala requires particular mention here. As the Scheduled Castes population are engaged in low paying occupations like agricultural labour and unskilled work in large percentage of cases, most of them do not get sufficient income for their subsistence. And many are below poverty line. As per the Census of families Below Poverty Line by the Kerala Government, it was found that among the total families below poverty line, 20% belonged to Scheduled castes in the State.[33] The Census indicated a rural poverty percentage of 36.56 and urban poverty of 17.04% in the state. In the study area Idukki district among the total below poverty line families, 16.87 % belonged to Scheduled Castes.

From the data collected in the Socio-Economic Survey[34] it was seen that a large percentage of households were getting Rs. 200 or less per month. The percentages of such households varied from 21 to 100 in the case of different castes. Among the Scheduled Castes only in the case of 7 castes approximately 5 households had monthly income above Rs. 200.

Table 4.1 Percentage of SC households with income < Rs. 200 and size of households

Sl No	Caste	% with income < Rs. 200	Size	Sl.No	Caste	% with income < Rs. 200	Size
1.	Ajila	100.00	6.50	36.	Pathiyan	57.25	6.25
2	Gosangi	100.00	5.25	37.	Mannan	56.91	5.60
3	Koosa	100.00	4.32	38.	Bharathar	55.69	5.71
4	Pampada	100.00	4.88	39.	Velan	55.11	4.61
5.	Vallon	92.43	4.98	40.	Perumannan	53.92	5.83
6	Kavara	9154	5.15	41.	Vettuvan	53.76	5.83
7.	Adi Andhra	91.27	5.46	42.	Kakkalan	53.62	5.62
8	Kalladi	91.15	5.38	36.	Pathiyan	57.25	6.25
9	Cheruman	90.16	5.36	37.	Mannan	56.91	5.60
10.	Valluvan	89.49	5.66	38.	Bharathar	55.69	5.71
11.	Karimpalan	88.66	5.36	39.	Velan	55.11	4.61
12	Thoti	88.00	4.04	40.	Perumannan	53.92	5.83
13	Gavara	85.91	5.39	41.	Vettuvan	53.76	5.83
14.	Vetan	85.53	4.61	42.	Kakkalan	53.62	5.62
15.	Mavilan	84.03	5.23	43.	Adi Karnataka	53.19	5.38
16.	Domban	82.36	4.82	44.	Mundala	52.38	5.69
17.	Puthiraivannan	82.36	5.94	45.	Baira	50.00	5.85
18.	Kadaiyan	82.04	5.57	46.	Thandan	49.95	-
19.	Kanakkan	82.00	5.70	47.	Thandan	49.95	5.98
20	Malayan	78.97	5.09	48.	Vannan	46.07	5.48
21.	Moger	75.16	5.93	49.	Holeya	40.26	
22	Ayyananvar	75.09	-	50.	Arunthathiyar	40.00	7.20
23.	Nayadi	69.90	5.45	51.	Samagara	37.50	6.75
24.	Boyan	68.44	4.81	52.	Pallan	20.92	5.29
25.	Adi Dravida	67.07	5.92	53	Holeya	-	6.36
26.	Kootan	67.00	5.21	54	Panan	-	5.36
27.	Samban	66.67	5.33	55	Padannan	-	5.33
28.	Bakuda	65.01	5.98	56	Kuravan	-	5.05
29.	Pulayavettuvan	64.59	6.25				
30.	Pulayan	64.15	5.44				
31.	Maila	61.95	5.49				
32.	Nalkadaya	59.82	6.44				
33.	Parayan	59.16	5.18				
34.	Paravan	58.75	5.44				
35.	Chakkiliyan	57.71	5.08				

Source: report of the commission for Sc's, 1982 P. 13

More than 90% of the households in the following castes had income less than Rs. 200 per month.[35] They belonged to the Adi Andhra, Ajila, Cherman, Gosangi, Kalladi, Koosa, Kavara, Pambada and Vallon castes. 64% Pulaya and 90% Cheruman households, the two largest sections among scheduled castes, had income below Rs.200 per month. 90% Painiyan households had monthly income below Rs.200.

For the following castes the percentage was below 60. Castes: Adi Kamataka, Arunthathiyar, Baira, Bharathar, Chakkiliyan, Holeya, Kallalan, Mannan, Mundala, Padannan, Pallan, Parayan, Perumannan, Pathiyan, Thandan, Vannan, Velan, Samagara and Vettuvan.

Even among the households whose monthly income is above Rs. 200 a good percentage were having income between Rs. 201 – 300. Very few households had higher income, Rs. 500 or above. To a very small extent, there were households with monthly income above Rs. 1000 in some castes. These households had one or more Government employees or other salaried persons. Notable castes in this category were Paravan, Vannan, Thandan, Pathiyan, Kakkalan, Malai Aryan, Malayarayar, Parayan, Mannan, Perumannan, and Pulayan. The % of SC households with income < Rs. 200 and the average size of households is presented in table 4.8.

4.9 Occupational Status of SC's

The available sources of information from Commissioner's report shows that[36] from very early times SC's were associated with only, inferior work. Agricultural labourers, scavengers and the like are the majority among SC's. There was no appreciable change in this pattern during the past centuries. The data on the occupational pattern of the population surveyed by the Commission threw light on this aspect.[37] In the plains they were agricultural serfs toiling from morning to night for earning a livelihood and among those who were attached to the land in the forest areas the chief occupations of the people were collecting honey; forest produces and hunting.

The Scheduled Caste were considered as an inferior set of people in the society. Most of them are agricultural labourers. They are expected to watch the crops living on the bunds of fields. Some of them like Parayan, Kavara, and Bellara were basket makers. Chakkiliyans were leather workers. Castes like Kakkalan and Panan engaged themselves in tailoring and palmistry. Mannan, Vannan, Pathiyan and Velan were castes engaged in cloth washing. Thandan and Paravan in some area were tree climbers.

Agriculturists were very rare among the Scheduled castes as revealed by the survey. A large percent of Scheduled Castes were either agricultural labourers or unskilled workers except in the case of certain castes which follow traditional occupation. The following came under the category with traditional occupations – Mannan, Vannan, Kakkalan, Nayadi, Kavara, Adi Andhra and Adi Dravida.

As per Census 2001 among the Scheduled Castes in Kerala 41.3 1% are workers and 58.69% non-workers.[38] Among workers main workers account for 36.83% and marginal workers, 4.4 8%. While 53.82% percent of males are workers only 30.77% of females are workers. As far as main work is concerned female participation is less than that of males. But female participation is more than that of males in case of marginal work. Among the main workers of Scheduled castes 53.78% are agricultural labourers.[39] Workers in forestry, fishing, hunting and plantation works constitute 10.87% and workers in other services account for 10.70 percent of main workers. There is no other category of workers constituting more than 10% of main workers in the State.

Since the average level of educational attainment is very low among SC's, their share in the skilled and professional segment of the labour market also continues to be low.[40] Even though attempts were made to provide industrial training to SC's for the purpose of running their own industries as solution to their financial bondage under Governmental initiative, the performance was not up to expectations. On the whole it is seen that the SC's are still following their traditional occupations, very few are able to separate their bond with their age-old occupations and enter into new areas of employment.

The work participation rate of Scheduled Castes in Kerala is higher compared to all India level. Even though work participation rate of Scheduled Castes in the State is higher than the all India level majority of the main workers are engaged in primary sector. The percentage of cultivators among Scheduled Castes is the lowest in Kerala while the percentage of agricultural laborers is high. Despite the high work participation rate of Scheduled Caste the incidence of poverty is relatively higher among them indicating their low earnings and lack of assets. The selected indicators of development of Scheduled Castes are presented in the Table 4.1

Table 4.2.Selected indicators of development for Scheduled Castes in Kerala

Area	Sex ratio for Sc's	Sc population in 2001			Literacy			Work participation rate		
	P	P	M	F	P	M	F	P	M	F
dkki District	1014	16407764	81460	82630	73.98	82	65.85	47.55	54.2	41.57
erala State	1050	3158143	1539979	1618051	82.4	85.59	75.88	41.31	53.82	30.77

ource: Census of India 2001, provisional results

4.19 Education

In Kerala State there is a steady progress in literacy level of both categories of population. As Per 2001 census literacy rate of general population of Kerala is 92 %, and that of SC's 82.4 %. But a 10% point difference between the two categories of population is noticed even in the latest Census data. as given in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Literacy level in Kerala and India

All India		General 1981	SC 1981	General 1991	SC 1991	General 2001	SC 2001
	Persons	36.23	21.38	52.21	37.41	65.4	50.52
	Males	46.89	31.12	64.13	49.91	76	61.46
	Females	24.89	10.93	39.29	23.76	54	37.54
Kerala	Persons	70.42	55.96	90.59	79.66	92	82.4
	Males	75.26	62.33	94.45	85.22	94	85.59
	Females	65.73	49.73	89.81	74.31	88	75.88

ource: Economic Review 1999, 2002, Census 1991 for SC., Census of India, 2001, Paper 3, Compendium on the elfare of SC's and ST's in Kerala, Trivandrum 1990. Ministry of welfare Government of India. Page 28. Book No: 124.

It may be seen that literacy rate of SC females of Kerala is even higher than the All India male's rates. Although the education has served as a positive contributor to the process of planned change. It is found that changes have been restricted to urban areas, to particular regions, and to particular castes and individuals among the scheduled castes. There have been regional rural-urban, male-female and caste-to-caste variations among them across the country. The literacy rates of total population of Scheduled Castes particularly female literacy are also high in Kerala as compared to the same at the National level for Scheduled Castes.

As per the Socio-Economic Survey[41] among the scheduled castes Barathar toped the list in the literacy percentage with about 80% literacy, Samban, athirai, Vannan, Velan, Pathiyan and Paravan were the castes, which had higher

percentage of literacy in 1981.[42] Castes which had literacy percentage between 70 and
80 were; Mannan, Paravan, Perumannan, Pathiyan, Vannan, and Velan. A large
percentage of the literates were found only able to read and write and with out any
educational qualification. Table 4.4 gives the percentage of literacy between different
sub castes among SC's.

Table 4.4 Percentage of literacy between different sub castes among SC's.

Sl. No	Caste	% Of Literacy	Sl.No.	Caste	% of Literacy
1.	Bharathar	81.57	30.	Kalladi	45.16
2.	Samban	81.25	31.	Bakuda	45.16
3.	Puthirai Vannan	81.19	32.	Pallan	42.88
4.	Velan	77.49	33.	Gossangi	42.86
5.	Pathiyan	76.03	34.	Kadaiyan	41.80
6.	Paravan	75.38	35.	Cheruman	40.64
7.	Perumannan	74.77	36.	Vetan	39.73
8.	Mannan	70.37	37.	Adi Andhra	39.65
10.	Kakkalan	68.97	38.	Nayadi	38.50
11.	Adi Dravida	66.30	39.	Karimpalan	37.45
12.	Ayyanavar	66.21	40.	Nal Kadaya	34.56
13.	Aruthathiyar	65.97	41.	Chakkliyan	34.09
14.	Samagara	65.74	42.	Kootan	33.57
15.	Thandan	65.51	43.	Mogar	33.57
16.	Pandannan	64.91	44.	Baira	33.48
17.	Vettuvan	62.20	45.	Ajila	30.76
18.	Pulayan	61.32	46	Adi karnataka	28.65
19.	Valluvan	58.65	47.	Domban	28.05
20.	Panan	57.53	48.	Koosa	23.14
21.	Mundala	56.48	49.	Mavilon	18.39
22.	Parayan	57.53	50.	Boyan	17.42
23.	Pulayavettuvan	55.33	51	Gavara	14.64
24.	Malayan	52.85	52.	Kavara	12.14
25.	Pambada	51.28	53.	Holeya	7.36
26.	Kuravan	49.44	54.	Maila	4.37
27.	Kanakkan	47.45			
28.	Vallon	46.81			
29.	Thoti	46.53			

Source; report of the Commission on the Socio Economic conditions of SC's and ST's of Kerala,1982, p.9

The percentage of those who have passed "matriculation or above" gave a
more realistic picture of the educational attainment. Among the Scheduled castes the
percentage of persons who have passed S.S.L.C or above was only 2.87 in 1981.[43]

'e percentages of persons of the different castes who had passed matriculation or
ove are given in table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Percentage of persons who passed matriculation
or above among SC's in Kerala

Sl. No	Caste	Percentage	Sl.No.	Caste	Percentage
1.	Samban	25.00	14.	Ayyanavar	4.85
2.	Puthiraivannan	11.88	15.	Padannan	4.18
3.	Paravan	8.14	16.	Parayan	3.64
4.	Bharathar	7.96	17.	Panan	3.54
5.	Perumannan	7.78	18.	Arunthathivar	3.47
6.	Ajila	7.69	19.	Thandan	3.46
7.	Pathiyan	7.64	20.	Padannan	3.40
8.	Velan	7.27	21.	Pulayan	3.07
9.	Vannan	6.75	22.	Mulyan	2.85
10.	Samugara	6.48	23.	Thoti	1.98
11.	Mannan	5.52	24.	PuluyaVettan	1.89
12.	Mundala	5.44	25.	Kuravan	1.81
13.	Kakkalan	5.14	26.	Nayadi	1.64
14.	Ayyanavar	4.85			

'urce: Report of commission on Sc's and St's 1982 P. 9

Among Scheduled castes, Samban is observed to be the most advanced
:aste. Among Puthiraivannan 12% have passed matriculation or above. Perumannan,
Ajila, Pathiyan and Velan where found with literacy rate close to 8%. Among
Pulayar, who constitute more than 36% of SC's, only 3% have passed "matriculation
or above".[44] Thus educational progress varied widely between the various castes.

4.11 Extent of Immovable Property and Types of Houses

The extent of land owned by the Scheduled Castes households is an
indicator of their economic position and social status. The distribution in Idukki
District is a little different from other state with higher percentage of household in
some castes having no land and household in some castes with higher percentage
having large extent of land. Even in the case of those who owned their own land, the
extent in most cases was 10 cents or so. The % of households having more than 10
cents of land is negligible in the case of most castes. It was found that the average
area of holdings of SC's in Kerala was only 0.12 hector. While that of total
population is 0.41 hector.[45] This is shown in table 4.7.

Table 4.6 Ownership of land and type of houses of Scheduled Castes

SI No	Caste	% with no land	% huts	SI. No	Caste	% with no land	% huts
1.	Pallan	93.78	11.16	32.	Vettuvan	9.08	-
2.	Adikamalaka	75.54	14.90	33.	Kavara	8.66	67.15
3.	Chakklian	49.07	54.79	34.	Kanakkan	3.28	77.75
4.	Arunthathiyar	40.00	60.00	35.	Thoti	8.00	29.17
5.	Bakuda	35.99	46.66	36.	Perumannan	7.78	32.69
6.	Samban	33.33	66.67	37.	Nalkdaya	7.55	85.72
7.	Ayyanavar	29.09	87.71	38.	Pandannan	7.26	35.90
8.	Boyan	28.27	64.44	39.	Malayan	6.38	76.06
9.	Vannan	28.13	-	40.	Samagara	6.25	50.00
10.	Parayan	26.13	64.58	41.	Vallon	6.06	69.84
11.	Maila	24.34	97.81	42.	Gavara	5.73	56.81
12.	Pathiyan	23.55	77.94	43.	Moger	5.72	80.54
13.	Velan	22.93	-	44.	Cheruman	5.30	80.71
14.	Mannan	21.95	66.06	45.	Valluvan	4.55	86.61
15.	Holeya	19.48	-	46.	Kootan	4.00	89.00
16.	Bharathar	19.15	61.22	47.	Adi Dravida	2.55	18.91
17.	Adi Anddhra	19.13	91.25	48.	Karimpalan	1.27	93.09
18.	Kuravan	17.63	86.08	49.	Ajila	0.00	100.00
19.	Kakkalan	17.23	67.32	50.	Gosangi	0.00	100.00
20.	Mundala	16.67	61.91	51.	Dompan	0.00	94.12
21.	Baira	16.22	90.54	52.	Kadaiyan	0.00	67.19
22.	Paravan	15.93	69.71	53.	Koosa	0.00	51.62
23.	Velan	14.24	57.73	54.	Pampada	0.00	37.50
24.	Pulayan	12.67	77.85	55.	Holeya	-	96.65
25.	Nayadi	12.50	61.66	56	Vettuvan	-	71.40
26.	Puthiraivannan	11.76	29.41	57	Vannan	-	62.15
27.	Panan	11.74	72.58	58.	Vetan	-	83.52
28.	Mavilan	11.65	94.58				
29.	Thandan	11.57	76.13				
30.	Pulaya-Vettuvan	10.25	73.70				
31.	Kalladi	9.37	92.63				

Source : Report of the Commission, 1982

One of the basic needs of man is a house to live in with his family. The facilities in the house are also equally important. The types of houses occupied by the people of the State varies from cave like structures constructed with sheets of stone by the tribes of Idukki district to palatial mansions in various parts of the State. The type of houses of Scheduled castes as per the socio-economic survey[46] is also presented in table 4.7.

The position of the two major castes Pulayan and Cheruman were not very bad- among them 9 and 6 percent respectively lived in pucca houses Approximately 20% of the Scheduled Castes households lived in single room houses of households in most castes live in houses with one or two rooms. The very single room was used as Kitchen and for living and sleeping by all members of the household. The type of the house and the facilities available varied between castes. Some of these are quarters provided by plantation owners for their workers.

4.12 Investment

The economic status of a community can be judged by the total income of the households and the amount of money they are able to save. It was revealed that in the case of most of the castes no household or less than five percent have bank deposits.

The Scheduled Castes populations are in the lowest economic state. Their income is not even sufficient to meet their consumption expenditure. Hence the question of saving or investing does not arise in most cases.

4.13 Household size

The number of persons in a household gives a broad indication of the fertility level of the population since the nuclear household consists of parents and children only. Also the living conditions of the family are very adversely affected if there are a large number of members in a family. As per 1991 census size of the households 4.90% for Scheduled Castes of Kerala and for General population it was 5.30%.

4.14 Food habits

The health and nutritional standards of people depend on the quality and quantity of food consumed by them, especially on the quality of items. The items used by all the households as found by the Socio-Economic Survey were Cereals, Spices and Salt. Since many persons belonging to Scheduled Castes are agricultural workers or coolies they have to be away from their home for most of the day. They depend on the food available in the hotels during noon. Nutrition's item like egg,

milk, ghee, and other milk products and other luxurious items are not found popular, with these households as per Survey 1982.[47]

Only less than 10 percent households in most of the castes consume eggs is revealed by the Survey[48] Among castes that use egg in large percentage of households are Vannam, Chakkiliyan, Paravan, Pallan, Pathiyan and Kanakkan. Milk is used by a larger percentage is households in most of the castes. Milk products are seen to be consumed by only a small percentage of households. In short it can be said that most of the Scheduled Castes households are living on cereals, tubers and other cheap food. The rich and nutritious food items are not common with them.

The quality of the food taken by a person affects the person's health standard. The quality of the food depends on the resources. One can afford for food. A group of people having very low income, cannot be expected to afford a substantial amount for food. The small amount at their disposal will be utilized to purchase cheap food. The Scheduled Castes households in the State are seen to be in the low-income groups and are seen to be living on cheap and not nutritious food. The percentage of households consuming milk, milk products and egg are still lower in Idukki District. In short, the Scheduled Castes households very rarely take food items other than cereals and tubers as per survey.

Good health and nutritional standards of a people are essential pre-requisites for their well-being. No progress can be expected for a population if it does not maintain a reasonable level of health standards. Scheduled Castes being put up in poor and unhygienic circumstances and living on less nutritious food cannot be expected to have a high-level health standard.

4.15 Use of modern garments, cosmetics and foot wear

Scheduled Castes, though inhabitants of the plains are different from the other sections of the people. In ancient times, mode of dress also was peculiar to them. But with the change of time much progress has been achieved. As seen from the results of the socio-economic survey, modern garments are being used by most of the Scheduled Castes people with a few exceptions.

4.16 Special Programmes For Scheduled Castes in Kerala

In Kerala the initial Five-Year Plans did not had a separate component for the development of Scheduled Castes except for certain welfare programmes undertaken by the Harijan Welfare Department. Detailed guidelines for the preparation of a Special Component Plan for Scheduled Castes were issued as part of Fifth Five-Year Plan.

A review of the programme reveals that the funds earmarked were significantly lower than the population share and the schemes were often not relevant to the local needs. It was in this background that in Kerala it was decided to decentralize the Special Component Plan to the district from 1983-84 onwards. District Level Working Groups for Scheduled Castes were formally constituted. A project-based approach had been adopted for implementation of schemes from 2002-03 onwards. This new approach is expected to ensure human resources development of Scheduled castes including their education and training, provision of minimum needs like housing, drinking water, electricity, health care and economic development.

The Scheduled Caste Development Department is implementing various schemes for development of scheduled castes in Kerala. There are at present two types of schemes, State schemes and State sponsored schemes. The state schemes are implemented by the Department direct and the State sponsored schemes are implemented through local governments. Major schemes implemented by the Department can be grouped into three namely: schemes for educational development, employment oriented programmers and other social development and welfare programmes

Kerala Institute For Research, Training and Development studies is another agency mandated to conduct "A study on decentralized planning and developmental activities among Scheduled Tribes of wayanad district" and a study on "Unemployment problem among the educated Scheduled Castes and Scheduled tribes in Kerala". The Kerala State Development Corporation for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is implementing about 60 types of schemes under various sectors of

developments for asset creation and employment generation for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

4.17 Summary

From time immemorial Scheduled castes have been a deprived section of our society. Their low status has been the bye – product of the caste system that prevailed in India over the years This large chunk of population has been named in different forms like sudras, untouchables, exuntouchable, exterior castes, out castes depressed classes, harijans, dalit, scheduled castes etc with the passage of time. The caste system retarded economic mobility by its insistence on hierarchy passing on of crafts and skills

During the course of the last century the institution of caste in India underwent considerable changes. Independent India offered to the Scheduled castes the promise to a life of dignity through a number of protective measures written into her constitution. The majority of the Scheduled castes have not yet freed themselves from the stranglehold of poverty, inequality and injustice. The division of the people into four well-defined castes never existed in Kerala as is seen in the northern parts of India. The principle of treating each group following a particular occupation as a separate caste and of prohibiting inter marriage and interdining between them was introduced in Kerala by the Aryan immigrants

People belonging to particular occupation groups were made separate castes. The castes, which follow low occupations, are in the lower state of social order. The advent of British rule, the industrial revolution in the west, modern technological growth and fast communication together with some social movements led to some changes in the basic social structure of the society. A major proportion of disadvantaged groups among Scheduled Castes still live below the basic minimum requirements.[49]

The general economic progress of the state has not made any appreciable impact on the economic condition of the majority of scheduled castes population. They are in the lowest level even now as in the past. The Socio-economic conditions of Scheduled Castes of the State are very poor. There are much differences in the conditions of the various sub- castes among them.

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CHAPTER. V

CONSUMPTION PATTERN OF SCHEDULED CASTES IN INDIA AND KERALA

The existence of large disparities in living standards between regions and between classes of people is widely believed to be an important cause of prevailing social tensions and unrest in India.[1] Wide economic disparities have been observed between the rich and the poor especially due to low rate of economic change among the poorer sections of the population of India who generally fail to make use of the development programmes.

Development policies of the government are increasingly judged not merely by their success in achieving a rapid expansion of aggregate real output but in terms of how the fruits of development are distributed between different classes and regions. The inequalities that persist between poor people and rich, women and men, rural and urban and among different ethnic groups are seldom isolated instead they are interrelated and overlapping,[2] Continued efforts haven been made through five year developmental plans for the socio-economic upliftment of the people. It is in this context that a proper understanding of the level and components of per capita consumption expenditure, (an indicator of the level of living) in the rural an urban area is attempted that could reveal whether economic disparity has increased or decreased.

Studies abound on the pattern of food and non-food consumption over the regions of the country Here in this chapter an attempt is made to analyse the changes in the consumption expenditure pattern of Scheduled Castes overtime and to see in what way it differs from consumption expenditure pattern of General population[3] The purpose of this part is to bring out the changes in consumption, both in the level and commodities of consumption of SC's that happened in India and Kerala during the recent years. Also it highlights how the consumption pattern of SC's in Kerala differs from that of General population in Kerala and also that of SC's in all India. Here consumption expenditure break-up by the same broad groups of items of consumption are considered as done in case of analysis of consumption pattern of the General population in Kerala in Chapter III.

Here for the analysis of consumption Pattern of Scheduled Castes comprehensive time series data on items of consumption expenditure and distribution of SC households/ population by monthly per capita total consumption expenditure is not available from the NSSO or any other sources. For the first time in NSS history, the pattern of consumption of the Scheduled Castes, their size as well as composition, separately and in complete exclusion of the households belonging to other social groups was provided by NSSO based on the data from its 38th round enquiry [January -December 1983].[4] The results give a firm basis for assessing the levels of living of the Scheduled Castes households which constitute the most vulnerable section in the society. The NSSO also in its 43rd [July 1987 – June 1988] and 50th [July 1993- June 1994] round enquiries provide data on pattern of consumption of different social groups separately from that of other households.[5] This chapter analyses the consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in Kerala based on the NSSO data from three rounds covering the period January 1983 - June 1994. The concepts and definitions followed here are as same as those used in the NSS.

The purpose of this part is to bring out the changes in consumption, both in the level and commodities of consumption of Scheduled Castes that happened in India and Kerala during the recent years. Also it highlights how the consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in Kerala differs from that of General population in Kerala and also that of Scheduled Castes in all India.

5.1 Distribution of persons by MPCE

The distribution of Scheduled Castes population by monthly per capita consumption expenditure classes in the rural and urban areas of India and Kerala is given in Table 5.1

Table 5.1 Percentage Population of SC below selected MPCE levels

State	Social group	Rural % Population below			Urban % Population below		
		Rs. 165	Rs. 210	Rs.355	Rs.230	Rs.310	Rs. 605
Kerala	SC	8	25	80	23	39	96
	All	6	16	57	14	33	80
India	SC	27	50	88	32	56	91
	All	19	39	80	19	39	80

Source: Nsso.50th round

At all India level it may be observed that 27% of the rural Scheduled Castes population of the country as a whole were below the MPCE level of Rs.165, 50% Scheduled Castes population were below the MPCE level of Rs.210 and 88 % below the MPCE level of Rs. 355.

Considering all households at all India level it may be observed that only 19% of the rural population of the country as a whole were below the MPCE level of below Rs. 165, 39% of the rural population were below the MPCE level of Rs. 210 and 80% below the MPCE level of Rs. 355. Hence it is found that the MPCE position of Scheduled Castes population in the rural areas of country is consistently poorer than that of the General population as evidenced by higher proportion of persons falling in the lower MPCE levels.

Among the urban SC population of the country as a whole 32% were in the lowest MPCE level of below Rs. 230. 56% of the urban Scheduled Caste population of the country as a whole were having an MPCE level below Rs. 310 and 91% of Scheduled Caste of the country belong to the MPCE level of below Rs. 605.

It may be observed that only 19% of all urban population of country were below the MPCE level of Rs. 230 and 39% of the urban population were having an MPCE level below Rs. 310 and 80% were with an average MPCE level below Rs. 605.

Hence it is found that the MPCE level of the Scheduled Caste population in the urban areas of the country also is consistently poorer than that of the General population as evidenced by the higher proportion of population falling in the lower MPCE levels.

The distribution of Scheduled Caste population by monthly per capita expenditure classes in the rural areas of Kerala show that 8% of the rural Scheduled Caste population were below the MPCE level of Rs. 165. And 25% of rural Scheduled Caste population had an MPCE level below Rs.210 and 80% of them had an MPCE level below Rs. 355 in Kerala.

The MPCE position of the General population of rural Kerala show that only 6% were below the MPCE level of Rs.165. And 16% rural population had an

MPCE level below Rs. 210 and 57% of them had an MPCE level below Rs. 355. Hence in rural Kerala also the MPCE position of is consistently poorer than that of the General population.

The distribution of Scheduled Caste by monthly per capita expenditure classes in the urban areas of Kerala shows that 23% of the urban Scheduled Caste were below the MPCE level of Rs. 230. And 39% of urban Scheduled Caste had an MPCE level below Rs. 310 and 96% of them had an MPCE level below Rs. 605 in Kerala.

The MPCE position of the General population of urban Kerala show that only 14% were below the MPCE level of Rs. 230. 33% of urban population had an MPCE level below Rs. 310 and 80% of them had an MPCE level below Rs. 605. Considering the different MPCE classes it is observed that in case of urban Kerala also the MPCE position of Scheduled Caste is consistently poorer than that of General population.

5.2 Average Household size of Scheduled Castes.

Average household size of Scheduled Castes is presented in Table 5.2. As per the Table 5.2 the average household size for Scheduled Castes in the rural sector in India was 4.85 and for General population it was 5.20 for the urban sector at the National level the same was 4.75 for Scheduled Castes and for others it was little higher 4.81. It is found that the average household size of Scheduled Castes was lower than that of General population.[6] Similarly for Kerala rural sector the average household size it was 5.24 for Scheduled Castes and 5.24 for General population.

Table 5.2 Average household sizes of SC's

State	Average Household size			
	Rural SC	ALL	Urban sc	ALL
Kerala	5.24	5.32	4.89	5.12
All-India	4.85	5.20	4.75	4.81

Source: NSSO 38th round

For the urban Kerala the average size of Scheduled Castes households was 4.89 which was lower than 5.12 for General population. Thus for Kerala also it is found that Scheduled Castes have lower household size than General population.

5.3 Average monthly per capita consumption expenditure

The average MPCE for Scheduled Castes vis-a-viz the total population is shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Average MPCE for Scheduled Castes

States	Year	Scheduled Castes		General population	
		Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
All India	1983	94.31	128.95	112.31	165.80
	87-88	133.35	185.03	157.66	245.72
	93-94	238.91	346.84	281.43	458.04
Kerala	1983	105.07	133.99	145.24	178.31
	87-88	164.39	182.39	208.83	261.70
	93-94	298.72	395.21	390.41	493.83

Source: NSS various rounds

As per NSSO data for the 38th round [January –December 1983], the average MPCE of Scheduled Castes in All-India was Rs.94.31 for the rural sector. The average MPCE increased to Rs. 133.35 in 43rd round [1987-88] and as per the 50th round it further increased to Rs. 238.91.

For the same periods for the General population the increase was from Rs. 112.31 to Rs. 157.66 and further to Rs. 281.43. It is found that the MPCE position of Scheduled Castes is much below that of General population in the rural sector in India.

Considering the rural sector of Kerala the average MPCE of Scheduled Castes as per the NSS 38th round was Rs. 105.07. This increased to Rs. 164.39 in 1987-88 and further to Rs 298.72 in 1993-94. For the same period for the General population the increase was from Rs. 145.24 in 1983 to Rs. 208.83 in 1987-88 and further to Rs. 390.41 in 1993-94 in rural Kerala.

The average MPCE of Scheduled Castes are found lower than that of General population in India as well as Kerala. As seen earlier it is also found that the MPCE of Scheduled Castes households in All India is lower than Scheduled Castes in Kerala. Scheduled Castes in Kerala have a comparatively better MPCE position than their counterparts at the National level.

In the urban sector the MPCE of Scheduled Castes in India was Rs. 128.95. Average MPCE of Scheduled Castes increased to Rs. 185.03 in 1987-88 and further to Rs 346.84 in 1993-94. For the General population the corresponding increase was from Rs. 165.80 in 1983 to Rs. 245.72 in 1987-88 and to Rs. 458.04 in 1993-94 in the urban sector in India. Here as in case of the trend found in rural sector the Scheduled Castes have a lower MPCE position.

The average MPCE of Scheduled Castes in urban Kerala for 1983 was Rs133.99 and it increased to Rs.182.39 in 1987 and further to Rs. 395.21 in 1993-94. For the corresponding periods for the General population the increase was from Rs.178.31 to Rs.261.70 and further to Rs. 493.83. It is found that the MPCE of Scheduled Castes households in urban Kerala is lower than that of General population but it is found that in Kerala. Scheduled Castes have a comparatively better MPCE position than their counterparts at the National level.

5.4 Proportion of Expenditure on Food

Table 5.4 shows the % of expenditure on food items to total consumer expenditure for rural and urban areas of Kerala and All India for Scheduled Castes and also for General population.[7]

Table 5.4 Percentage of expenditure on food to total consumer expenditure for Scheduled Castes and General population

State	SC			General population	
	Year	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
All India	Jan. Dec. 83	67.8	62.05	65.6	59.1
	July 87-Jun 88	63.62	60.29	63.8	55.9
	July 93-Jun 94	64.30	57.89	63.23	54.7
Kerala	Jan. Dec. 83	66.51	63.09	61.64	59.38
	July 87-Jun 88	60.36	61.68	59.94	59.79
	July 93-Jun 94	60.4 9	60.21	60.46	53.92

Source: NSSO various rounds

The % of expenditure on food for Scheduled Castes is higher than the same for General population[8] both in the rural and urban sectors except for the rural

India for the 43rd and 50th round. The proportion of food expenditure is found declining for both Scheduled Castes and General population.

The % expenditure on food for Scheduled Castes in rural all India has registered a decline from 67.8% in 1983 to 64.30 in 1993-94. For the General population the corresponding decline was from 65.6% in 1983 to 62.23% in 1993-94. The decline is found more or less same for both types of households.

For urban sector for Scheduled Castes of all India the % declined for the same period from 62.05% to 57.89%. For General households in urban sector, the decline was from 59.1% to 54.7% in the same period.

In Kerala as observed at the National level the % of expenditure on food for Scheduled Castes is higher than the same of General population in both rural and urban sectors. The proportion of expenditure on food is declining for both Scheduled Castes and General population.

In Kerala for the rural sector for Scheduled Castes the % expenditure on food showed a decline from 66.51 in 1983 to 60.49 in 1993-94 and for the General populations for the same period the corresponding decline was from 61.64 to 60.46. It is found that in rural Kerala % of food expenditure declined faster for Scheduled Castes than General population.

In the urban sector for the Scheduled Castes the % expenditure on food declined from 63.09 to 60.21 for the same period and for the General population the decline was from 59.38 to 53.92. It is observed that % expenditure on food declined faster for General population in urban Kerala than Scheduled Caste population.

5.5 Proportion of Expenditure on Non – Food

The % of expenditure on non- food for Scheduled Castes is lower than the same for General population both in the rural and urban sectors. The proportion of non- food expenditure is found increasing for both Scheduled Castes and General population.

The % expenditure on non-food for Scheduled Castes in rural all India has registered an increase from 32.2%in 1983 to 35.7% in 1993-94. For the General population the corresponding increase was from 34.44 % in 1983 to 36.77%in 1993-94. The increase is found more for General population.

For urban sector for Scheduled Castes of all India the % increased for the same period from 37.35 % to 42.11%. A much more steeper increase in % was observed. For general house holds in urban sector, the increase was from 40.9% to 45.3% in the same period.

In Kerala as observed at the National level the % of expenditure on non - food for Scheduled Castes is lower than the same of General population in both rural and urban sectors. The proportion of expenditure on non- food is increasing for both Scheduled Castes and General population. Table 5.5 Shows Proportion of Expenditure on Non – Food Items to Total Consumer Expenditure for Rural and Urban Areas In Kerala & India

Table 5.5 Proportion of Expenditure on Non – Food Items to Total Consumer Expenditure for Rural and Urban Areas In Kerala & India

State	SC			General population	
	Year	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
All India	Jan. Dec. 83	32.2	37.35	34.44	40.9
	July 87-Jun 88	36.38	39.71	36.2	44.1
	July 93-Jun 94	35.7	42.11	36.77	45.3
Kerala	Jan. Dec. 83	33.49	36.9 1	38.36	40.62
	July 87-Jun 88	39.6 4	38.32	40.06	40.21
	July 93-Jun 94	39.51	39.79	39.54	46.08

Source: NSSO different rounds

In Kerala for the rural sector for Scheduled Castes the % expenditure on non- food showed an increase from 33.49% in 1983 to 38.36 %in 1993-94 and for the General populations for the same period the corresponding increase was from 38.36% to 40.06%. It is found that in rural Kerala % of non- food expenditure increased much faster for Scheduled Castes than for General population over the period.

In the urban sector for the Scheduled Castes the % expenditure on non-food increased from 36.91 to 39.79 for the same period and for the General

population the increase was from 40.62 to 46.08. It is observed that % expenditure on non food has increased much faster for General population in urban Kerala than Scheduled Castes households.

Summing up, the variation in percentage expenditure on food and non food is higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

5.6 Pattern of Consumer Expenditure of Scheduled Castes

It has already been observed that the average MPCE for Scheduled Castes is less than that for the General population. In both rural and urban areas of Kerala, the % of expenditure on food for Scheduled Castes households (66.51, 63.09) is found higher than the average for General population (61.61, 58.96). Consumer expenditure pattern of Scheduled Castes and General population is presented in Table 5.6 and Table 5.7 for Kerala and all India.[9]

5.6.1 Rural Kerala

The Kerala rural MPCE on Cereals for Scheduled Castes Rs. 30.34 is lower than that for General population Rs. 34.36 of Kerala. Expenditure on certain food groups Cereals substitutes, Beverages & refreshments is higher for Kerala Scheduled Castes than General population. The average MPCE on Milk of Rs. 5.97 of Kerala General population is much higher than that of Kerala Scheduled Castes Rs. 2.08. Similarly the average MPCE of General population of rural Kerala on Sugar, Pulses are higher than the same of Kerala rural Scheduled Castes.

Larger differences are observed for the non-food items. The expenditure on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants of Rs. 5.78 is higher for Kerala rural Scheduled Castes than the same of Rs. 4.50 for Kerala rural General population. The expenditure on Fuel & light is higher for Kerala rural General population, Rs. 8.45 than for Kerala rural Scheduled Castes Rs. 7.20.

The observed differences are of much higher order for Clothing. The average MPCE on Clothing of Rs. 9.27 of Kerala rural General population is higher than the same for Kerala rural Scheduled Castes of Rs. 5.29. The average MPCE of

Kerala rural Scheduled Castes on Miscellaneous goods and services is only Rs. 13.20 and that of Kerala rural General population is nearly double than that Rs. 24.09.

For Kerala it is observed that Scheduled Castes have higher expenditure than General population only on items Cereals substitutes and Beverages among food items.

Among Non-food items Scheduled Castes spend much higher than General population on the item Pan, tobacco & intoxicants and for all other items General population spend more.

Table-5.6 Average consumer expenditure (Rs. 0.00) Per person for a period of 30 days for SC and General population and for the respective groups of households belonging to the monthly per capita expenditure class of 300 and above Rural

Sl. No.	Items	All Expenditure classes Expenditure per person for 30 days				More than Rs. 300/- Expenditure per person for a period of 30 days.[10]		
		Sc	Sc	General households	General households	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Castes	General households
		Kerala	All-India	Kerala	All-India	All - India	Kerala	All-India
1	Cereals	30.34	34.65	34.36	36.21	66.71	64.6	59.06
2	Gram	0.10	0.24	0.25	0.29	1.78	0.37	1.28
3	Cereals Substitutes	2.36	0.15	2.34	0.21	0.09	2.08	0.34
4	Pulses	1.53	3.17	2.34	3.98	9.75	7.01	11.18
5	Milk	2.08	4.88	5.97	8.50	25.32	4.39	36.53
6	Edible oil	2.70	3.61	3.96	4.53	18.38	6.04	16.85
7	Meat, Fish & Egg	5.83	2.98	8.97	3.37	16.66	12.39	12.41
8	Vegetables	2.97	4.73	4.13	5.31	12.91	9.18	12.80
9	Fruits & nuts	4.66	0.83	8.12	1.54	5.70	15.36	8.47
10	Sugar	2.05	2.39	2.94	3.18	13.27	6.21	13.54
11	Salt	0.14	0.19	3.13	0.19	0.39	0.31	0.29
12	Spices	3.03	2.42	3.49	2.63	6.39	6.26	6.41
13	Beverages & refreshments	12.10	3.02	11.71	3.69	13.41	36.68	17.29
14	Food total	68.89	63.26	89.54	73.63	191.27	170.88	196.45
15	Pan Tobacco, Intoxicants	5.78	3.42	4.50	3.35	14.28	22.35	10.66
16	Fuel & Light	7.20	7.23	8.45	7.92	16.71	12.58	16.99
17	Clothing	5.29	6.90	9.27	9.64	78.50	65.76	80.32
18	Footwear	0.39	0.79	0.95	1.11	7.26	3.34	7.93
19	Misc. Goods & Services	13.20	11.04	24.09	14.06	78.78	37.98	77.73
20	Durable goods	3.32	1.67	-	2.60	61.17	126.50	55.39
21	Non-food total	35.18	31.05	58.66	38.68	256.70	268.51	249.02
22	Total Consumer Expenditure	105.1	94.31	145.20	112.31	447.97	439.39	445.47

Source : NSS 38ᵗʰ round

5.6.2 Pattern of consumer Expenditure for the Scheduled Castes in the Top MPCE class:

The pattern of consumption of Scheduled Castes in this expenditure class [MPCE >Rs. 300] is entirely different from that of the total Scheduled Castes in rural Kerala.The average MPCE of total Scheduled Castes in Kerala is Rs105 whereas Scheduled Castes in the top MPCE class have an average MPCE of Rs. 440. Expenditure on food amounted to Rs.68.9 for the first class and for the top class it is Rs, 170.88. Expenditure on non-food amounted to Rs. 35.18 for total rural Scheduled Castes and the same for the top class Scheduled Castes it was Rs. 268.51. The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is comparable to that of the general house holds in the top expenditure class in rural Kerala.In this top class Scheduled Castes s spend more on the different non –food items as similar to the trend observed in case of General population in Kerala.

It is seen from Table 5.6 that in the top expenditure class [MPCE above Rs.300] the average MPCE for all India rural Scheduled Castes, Rs. 448 is higher than that of the total rural Scheduled Castes in Kerala, Rs. 440.[11] The pattern of consumption of Kerala rural Scheduled Castes in this expenditure bracket exhibit sharp dissimilarity to that of all India rural scheduled castes in the same expenditure bracket. In the food group for the items Vegetables, Sugar, Pulses, Milk, Edible oil, Meat, Fish & Egg, the MPCE of Kerala rural Scheduled Castes is much lower than that of all India rural SC population.

In the top expenditure class the average MPCE is lower, Rs. 439, and also MPCE on food is lower, Rs. 171, for Kerala rural schedule castes. The average MPCE is higher, Rs. 448 and MPCE on food is also higher, Rs. 191, for all India rural Scheduled Castes.

Relatively much higher expenditure for Kerala rural Scheduled Caste population is reported on the food items, such as Fruits & nuts, and Beverages & refreshments. The average MPCE of Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population on Fruits & nuts Rs. 15.36 is more than three times the same of all India rural Scheduled Castes population Rs. 5.70. Similarly the observed difference in the expenditure on

Beverages & refreshments between Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population and all India rural Scheduled Castes population is much higher. The expenditure on Beverages & refreshments of Rs. 36.68 for Kerala rural Scheduled Caste population are more than double than that of all India rural Scheduled Caste population Rs. 13.41.

The average MPCE for all India rural Scheduled Caste population on Cereals, Pulses, Milk, Edible oil, Meat, Fish & Egg, Vegetables, Sugar and Spices is much higher than that for all Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population. The MPCE on Milk Rs. 25.32 of all India rural Scheduled Caste population is more than five times that of all Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population Rs. 4.39. The expenditure on Edible oil Rs. 18.38 of all India rural Scheduled Castes population is more than double than the some of all-Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population in the same item. Among the non-food item group all Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population spend larger amount on Pan, tobacco& intoxicants, Rs. 22.35.

The MPCE on Fuel & Light is higher for all India rural Scheduled Caste population Rs. 16.71. Expenditure on Clothing is higher for all India rural Scheduled Caste population Rs. 78.50 than the same for all Kerala rural Scheduled Castes Rs. 65.76.

The expenditure on Durable goods of Rs. 126.50 of All Kerala rural Scheduled Caste population is more than double than that of the all India rural Scheduled Caste population Rs. 61.17 on Durable goods. Thus it is found that rural Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure spend more on Fruits & Nuts, Beverages Refreshments and Processed food than their counterparts in the National level among food items. And among non-food items they spend much higher on Pan, Tobacco & Intoxicants and Durable goods than Scheduled Castes in the National level

5.6.3 Pattern of consumer Expenditure for the Scheduled Castes for urban Kerala in the Top expenditure class

The pattern of consumer expenditure pertaining to the Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala and Scheduled Castes of urban in all India are shown in Table 5.7

Broadly the consumer expenditure pattern of Scheduled Castes in the urban areas are similar to those obtaining in the rural areas. The Kerala urban MPCE on Cereals for Scheduled Castes Rs. 32.86 is lower than that for General population Rs.35.18 of Kerala. Expenditure on certain food groups Cereals substitutes and Salt is higher for Kerala Scheduled Castes than General population.

The average MPCE on Milk of Rs9.02. of Kerala urban General population is much higher than that of Kerala Scheduled Castes Rs.3.67. Similarly the average MPCE of General population of urban Kerala on Sugar, Pulses Edible oil, Meat, Fish & Egg, Fruits & nuts, are higher than the same of Kerala urban Scheduled Castes.

Table 5.7 Average consumer expenditure (Rs. 0.00) Per - Person for a period of 30 days for Scheduled Castes and General population and for the respective groups of house holds belonging to monthly per capita expenditure class of Rs. 300/- and above urban

S. No.	Items	All expenditure classes expenditure per person				> Rs. 300 expenditure per person[12]		
		Sc	Sc	General population	General population	Scheduled Castes	General population	General population
		Kerala	All - India	Kerala	India	All - India	Kerala	All - India
1	Cereals	32.86	31.02	35.18	31.85	46.64	43.13	38.59
2	Gram	0.17	0.28	3.37	0.31	1.03	-	0.68
3	Cereals Substitutes	0.90	0.07	0.78	0.13	0.12	1.54	0.25
4	Pulses & Products	2.11	4.62	3.02	5.32	9.95	7.42	9.11
5	Milk Products	3.67	8.52	9.02	15.27	23.66	2.52	42.12
6	Edible oil	3.69	6.25	5.04	7.98	13.18	6.70	15.92
7	Meat, Fish & Egg	7.88	5.36	11.62	5.93	17.25	15.62	14.88
8	Vegetables	3.65	6.80	4.99	8.17	14.40	10.83	16.50
9	Fruits & nuts	6.23	1.72	9.76	3.48	6.67	16.35	12.75
10	Sugar	2.68	3.42	3.39	4.06	7.92	8.71	7.56
11	Salt	0.15	0.18	0.14	0.19	0.26	0.16	0.28
12	Spices	3.27	3.07	3.76	3.36	7.43	4.55	5.66
13	Beverages &Refreshments	17.27	8.70	18.44	11.26	39.47	29.61	40.18
14	Food Total	84.53	80.01	104.73	97.31	187.98	165.14	204.48
15	Pan, Tobacco Intoxicants	5.22	4.93	4.23	4.05	14.64	3.31	9.22
16	Light & Fuel	8.89	9.47	10.23	11.40	18.41	17.28	21.57
17	Clothing	6.59	9.70	14.35	12.80	73.87	60.20	65.75
18	Footwear	0.54	1.26	1.69	1.84	6.97	-	7.58
19	Mis. Goods& Services	26.31	20.56	38.13	33.85	78.30	132.20	121.36
20	Durable goods	1.91	3.02	-	4.55	55.12	-	36.10
21	Non-food	49.46	48.94	71.63	68.49	247.31	212.99	261.58
22	Total consumer Expenditure	133.99	128.95	176.36	165.80	435.29	378.13	406.06

Source: NSS 38th round

Larger differences are observed for the non-food items. The expenditure on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants of Rs.5.22 is higher for Kerala urban Scheduled Castes than the same of Rs. 4.23 for Kerala urban General population.

The expenditure on Fuel & Light for Kerala urban General population, Rs. 10.23 than for Kerala urban Scheduled Castes Rs.8.89.

The observed differences are of much higher order for Clothing. The average MPCE on Clothing of Rs. 14.35 of Kerala urban General population is higher than the same for Kerala urban Scheduled Castes of Rs. 6.59. The average MPCE of Kerala urban Scheduled Castes on Miscellaneous goods and services is Rs. 26.31 and that of Kerala urban general population is 38.13

For urban Kerala it is observed that Scheduled Castes have higher expenditure than General population only on items Cereals substitutes among food items. Among non-food items Scheduled Castes spend much higher than General population on the item Pan, tobacco & intoxicants and for all other items General population spend more.

5.6.4 Pattern of consumer Expenditure for the Scheduled Castes in the top MPCE class of Rs.300 and above: Kerala Urban:

The pattern of consumption of Scheduled Castes in this expenditure class is entirely different from that of the total Scheduled Castes in urban Kerala. The average MPCE of total Scheduled Castes in Kerala is Rs.134 whereas Scheduled Castes in the top MPCE class have an average MPCE of Rs378. MPCE on food amounted to Rs. 84.53 for the urban Kerala and for the top class it is Rs. 165 Expenditure on non-food amounted to Rs, 49.46 for total urban Scheduled Castes and the same for the top class Scheduled Castes it was Rs.213. The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is comparable to that of the general house holds in the top expenditure class in Kerala. In this top class Scheduled Castes spend more on the different non –food items. This shows that among the Scheduled Castes the higher expenditure class is exhibiting luxurious consumption pattern. It[13] is seen from Table 5.7 that in the top expenditure class the average MPCE for all India

urban Scheduled Castes Rs. 435 is much higher than that of the all Kerala Urban Scheduled Castes[14] Rs. 378.

The pattern of consumption of Kerala urban Scheduled Caste population exhibit sharp dissimilarity to that of all India urban Scheduled Caste population in the same expenditure brackets.

In the food group only for four items, Cereals substitutes, Fruits & nuts, Sugar, and Salt, the MPCE of Kerala rural Scheduled Castes is much lower than that of all India rural Scheduled Caste population.

In the top expenditure class the average MPCE is lower, Rs. 378 and also MPCE on food is lower, Rs.165, for Kerala urban schedule castes. The average MPCE is higher, Rs. 435 and MPCE on food is also higher, Rs.188, for all India urban Scheduled Castes.

Relatively much higher expenditure for Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population is reported on the food items, such as Cereals substitutes, Fruits & nuts, and Sugar. The average MPCE of Kerala rural Scheduled Castes population on Fruits & nuts Rs. 16.35 is more than double the same of all India rural Scheduled Castes population Rs. 6.67. The observed difference in the expenditure on Beverages & refreshments between Kerala Scheduled Castes population and all India Scheduled Castes population is much higher. The average MPCE for all India urban Scheduled Caste population on Cereals, Pulses, Milk, Edible oil, Meat, Fish & Egg, Vegetables, Salt, Beverages & Spices is much higher than that for all Kerala urban Scheduled Castes population.

Among the non-food item group all Kerala urban Scheduled Castes population spend larger amount only on Miscellaneous goods and services,[15] Rs.132.20 while that of the Scheduled Castes in India is only Rs.78.30 nearly half of that of Scheduled Castes in Kerala. The MPCE on all other non-food items is higher for all India urban Scheduled Castes population.

Expenditure on Clothing is higher for all India urban Scheduled Castes population Rs. 73.87 than the same for all Kerala urban Scheduled Castes Rs.60.20.

Thus it is found that urban Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class spend more only on Cereals substitutes Fruits & Nuts and Sugar than their counterparts in the National level among food items. And among non-food items they spend much higher on Miscellaneous goods than Scheduled Castes in the National level. This shows the particular pattern of consumption among the urban Scheduled Castes of Kerala.

5.65 Pattern of Consumer Expenditure of Scheduled Castes and General population

5.6.6 India.

There is a wide range of variation between the rural MPCE of scheduled castes and General population. While there is not much variation in the case of cereals, there is considerable variation in the case of milk & milk products and other commodities this is shown in table 5.6. Expenditure on Cereals is higher for the General population 36.21 than for Scheduled Castes 34.65 at all India level.

Larger differences are observed for the non-food items. The expenditure on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants is higher for Scheduled Castes Rs. 3.42 than for General population Rs. 3.35 but the difference is not that high as that observed in Kerala between the same two set of households.

The expenditure on Fuel & light is higher for General population Rs. 7.92 than for Scheduled Castes Rs. 7.23. The observed difference is of a much higher order for Clothing, Rs. 6.90 for Scheduled Castes and Rs. 9.64 for General population.

The average MPCE of Rs. 14.06 on Miscellaneous goods and services for the General population is perceptibly higher than that for Scheduled Castes. The expenditure for the General population is again higher for Footwear and Durable goods at all India level.

Thus it is found that at the National level in the rural sector the General population spends more than Scheduled Castes on all food items. Among non-food Scheduled Castes spend more than General population only on Pan, & intoxicants.

5.7 Pattern of consumption expenditure for the Scheduled Castes in the MPCE class of Rs. 300 and above All- India rural

The pattern of consumption of Scheduled Castes in this expenditure class entirely different from that of the total Scheduled Castes in rural India The average MPCE of total Scheduled Castes in India is Rs.94 whereas Scheduled Castes in the top MPCE class have an average MPCE of Rs 448. Expenditure on food amounted to Rs.63.26 for the first class and for the top class it is Rs, 191.27. Expenditure on non-food amounted to Rs 31 for total rural Scheduled Castes and the same for the top class Scheduled Castes it was Rs256.7. The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is comparable to that of the general house holds in the top expenditure class in rural India. In this top class Scheduled Castes s spend more on the different non –food items.

It is seen from Table 5.6 that the average MPCE for the Scheduled Castes and General population in the top expenditure class is very close to Rs. 450/-. The corresponding amount Rs. 445 for General population is lower than the same for Scheduled Castes Rs. 448. It is interesting to note that the pattern of consumption of Scheduled Castes in this expenditure bracket unlike that for the total Scheduled Castes, exhibit close similarity to that of General population. For most of the item groups the MPCE of Scheduled Castes is higher than the corresponding MPCE of the General population. In the top expenditure class, the average MPCE of general households is lower Rs. 445 while MPCE on food is higher Rs. 196 for General population. The average MPCE is higher Rs. 448 and MPCE on food is lower Rs. 191 for Scheduled Castes.

Relatively higher expenditure is reported for Scheduled Castes on cereals, Edible oil, Meat, Fish & Egg. In spite of the fact that they belong to top expenditure class the MPCE on Milk for the, the Scheduled Castes population is found substantially lower compared to General population

Among non-food items, Scheduled Castes spend larger amount on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants Rs.14.28. The MPCE on the item for General population is only Rs.10.66 It is further observed that the MPCE on Fuel & light is of the order of Rs. 17

in the two groups of population being studied. Scheduled Castes MPCE for the item Durable goods is Rs.61.17 while the same for General population is Rs.55.39 only.

From the foregoing analysis it can be concluded that the consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is entirely different from the same for total Scheduled Castes in rural India. They spend higher than General population in rural sector at National level on food items such as Cereals, Edible oil, Meat, Egg & Fish, and non-food items such as Pan& intoxicants, and Durable goods. Thus they exhibit similar or even better consumption standards as compared to General population in the rural sector at the National level.

5.6.8 Pattern of consumer expenditure for the Scheduled Castes Urban: - All India.

The pattern of consumer expenditure pertaining to the Scheduled Castes and to General population of the urban areas of India are shown in Table 5.7. It is evident from the table that the amount spent on food items have declined while the amount spend on most of non-food items especially Miscellaneous goods have increased considerably over the years.

Miscellaneous goods, Durable goods and non-food total are the items found to be consumed at an increased rate than earlier round. Durable consumption in urban India is higher than that of urban Kerala. In case of Clothing consumption the expenditure incurred by Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala is more than that of Scheduled Castes of urban India. Compared with Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala Footwear consumption is found to be less in urban India.

Broadly the deviation in the consumer expenditure pattern of Scheduled Castes compared to that of the General population in the urban areas are similar to those obtaining in the rural areas. In value terms the average MPCE in the urban areas is nearly one half times of that in rural areas for General population. For Scheduled Castes the corresponding proportion is 1.36.

The all India urban MPCE on Cereals for the two groups that is Scheduled Castes and General population are very close. Expenditure on Cereals is higher for the General population 31.85 than for Scheduled Castes 31. 02 at all India level.

Expenditure on all the food-groups is higher for the General population. The average MPCE on Milk and Milk products of Rs. 15.27 for the all India rural General population is more than double of that for Scheduled Castes Rs. 8.52

Expenditure on Pulse & Products, Edible oil, Fruits & nuts, Vegetables, Sugar & Beverages are also higher for the General population The average MPCE on Beverages of Scheduled Castes households Rs. 8.70 is much lower than the same for General population Rs. 11.26.

Larger differences are observed for the non-food items. Pan, tobacco & intoxicants is the only item for which average MPCE of Scheduled Castes is higher Rs.4.93, than for General population Rs. 4.05 but the difference is not that high as that observed in Kerala between the same two sets of households.

The expenditure on Fuel & light is higher for General population Rs. 11.40 than for Scheduled Castes Rs.9.47. The observed difference is of a much higher order for Clothing Rs. 9.70 for Scheduled Castes and Rs12.80 for General population

The average MPCE of Rs. 33.85 on Miscellaneous goods and services for the General population is perceptibly higher than for Scheduled Castes 20.56 The expenditure for the General population is again higher for Footwear and Durable goods at all India level.

Thus it is found that in the urban sector in India Scheduled Castes are much behind General population in expenditure on almost all items except Pan & intoxicants.

5.6.9 Pattern of consumer expenditure in the MPCE class of Rs. 300 and above for urban India

The average MPCE in the top MPCE class for the General population and the population belonging to Scheduled Castes are Rs. 406.06 and Rs. 435.29 respectively. Agreement and dissimilarities among the MPCE on different groups of items for the two population groups in the urban areas exhibit close similarity with the same top expenditure class of the rural areas.

The pattern of consumption of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is entirely different from that of the total Scheduled Castes in urban India. The average MPCE of total Scheduled Castes in India is Rs.129 whereas Scheduled Castes in the top MPCE class have an average MPCE of Rs. 435.29. Expenditure on food amounted to Rs. 80.01 for the first class and for the top class it is Rs. 187.98. Expenditure on non-food amounted to Rs. 48.94 for total urban Scheduled Castes and the same for the top class Scheduled Castes it was Rs. 247.31.

The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is comparable to that of the General population in the top expenditure class in urban India. In this top class Scheduled Castes spend more on the different non –food items as similar to the trend observed in case of General population. This shows that among the Scheduled Castes the higher expenditure class is exhibiting luxurious consumption pattern.

It is seen from Table 5.7 that the average MPCE for the Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is Rs.435.29. The corresponding amount Rs. 406.06 for General population is lower than the same for Scheduled Castes. It is interesting to note that the pattern of consumption of Scheduled Castes in this expenditure bracket unlike that for the total Scheduled Castes, exhibit close similarity to that of General population. For most of the item groups the MPCE of Scheduled Castes is higher than the corresponding MPCE of the General population. In the top expenditure class, the average MPCE is lower Rs. 406 and MPCE on food is higher Rs. 204.48 for General population. The average MPCE is higher Rs. 435 and MPCE on food is lower Rs. 189 for Scheduled Castes.

Relatively higher expenditure is reported for Scheduled Castes on Cereals, Gram, Pulses, Meat, Fish & Egg, Sugar and spices, in spite of the fact that they belong to top expenditure class the MPCE on Milk for the, the Scheduled Castes population is found substantially lower compared to General population.

Total non-food expenditure of the Scheduled Castes Rs. 247.31 is found higher than that of General population, Rs. 261.58 Among non-food items, Scheduled

Castes in the top expenditure class spend larger amount on Pan, tobacco& intoxicants, Clothing, and also Durable goods.

From the foregoing analysis it can be concluded that the consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class in All-India is entirely different from the same for total Scheduled Castes in the urban sector also. In the top expenditure class they exhibit better consumption standards as compared to General population in the urban sector at the National level.

Considering the consumption standards of the total Scheduled Castes population it is found that they are still below general households in both India and Kerala. On the other hand considering the consumption standards in the top expenditure class, Scheduled Castes are found possessing similar and even better standards than General population in the same expenditure categories. Comparison of consumption standards of Scheduled Castes population in India and Kerala shows that Scheduled Castes in Kerala are possessing relatively better consumption standards than their counterparts in India but have yet a long way to go to reach the standards of the other general households.

5.7 Per capita expenditure

5.7.1 Kerala

Table 5.8 gives Per capita expenditure in on broad groups of food and non-food items and % to total expenditure in Kerala for Scheduled Castes & General population Looking at the 38th round data given here a picture of average rural and urban consumption pattern for Scheduled Castes and General population for Kerala emerges.

Thus it is found that t he per capita expenditure of Scheduled Castes of rural Kerala Rs. 105.07 is found to be much lower than that of General population Rs. 145.20. While average monthly expenditure on food of Scheduled Castes amounted only to Rs. 69.89 per month, that of General population was Rs. 89.54. Food expenditure constituted 66.51% of total consumption expenditure for Scheduled Castes and only 61.67% for General population. Of the food expenditure, expenditure

Cereals constituted 28.87% for Scheduled Castes and only 24.01% for General population. Among food items average monthly expenditure of Scheduled Castes was higher than the others only for the items Beverages & refreshments and Spices.

Regarding non-food items expenditure of Scheduled Castes was higher than that of General population, only on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants. Expenditure on Miscellaneous items by Scheduled Castes Rs. 12.56 amounted only to half of the expenditure on the same item by General population Rs. 24.09. While the per capita expenditure on Clothing by General population of rural Kerala constituted 6.38% of total expenditure for the Scheduled Castes the same was only 5.03%. Hence among non-food items Scheduled Castes spend more only on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants.

Table 5.8 Per capita expenditure in (Rs) on broad groups of food and non-food items and % to total expenditure in Kerala for Scheduled Castes & General population

Sl No	Item	Rural				Urban			
		General population		Scheduled Castes		General population		Scheduled Castes	
		Rs	%	Rs	%	Rs	%	Rs	%
1	Cereals	34.36	24.01	30.34	28.87	35.18	19.95	32.86	24.52
2	Gram	0.25	0.17	0.1	0.09	3.37	1.91	0.17	0.12
3	Cereals Subst.	2.34	1.61	2.36	2.24	0.78	0.44	0.9	0.67
4	Pulses	2.34	1.61	1.53	1.45	3.02	1.71	2.11	1.57
5	Milk & Products	5.97	4.11	2.08	1.97	9.02	5.11	3.67	2.73
6	Edible oil	3.96	2.73	2.7	2.56	5.04	2.86	3.69	2.75
7	Meat, Egg & Fish	8.97	6.18	5.83	5.54	11.62	6.59	7.88	5.88
8	Vegetable	4.13	2.84	2.97	2.82	4.99	2.83	3.65	2.72
9	Fruits & nuts	8.12	5.59	4.66	4.43	9.76	5.53	6.23	4.64
10	Sugar	2.94	2.02	2.05	1.95	3.39	1.92	2.68	2
11	Salt	3.13	2.16	0.14	0.13	0.14	0.08	0.15	0.11
12	Spices	3.49	2.40	3.03	2.88	3.76	2.13	3.27	2.44
13	Beverages & refreshments	11.71	8.06	12.1	11.51	18.44	10.46	17.27	12.88
14	Food Total	89.54	61.67	69.89	66.51	104.73	59.38	84.53	63.08
15	Pan, Tobacco, & Intoxicants	4.50	3.10	5.78	5.50	4.23	2.4	5.22	3.89
16	Fuel & light	8.45	5.82	7.2	6.85	10.23	5.8	8.89	6.63
17	Clothing	9.27	6.38	5.29	5.03	14.35	8.14	6.59	4.91
18	Foot wear	0.95	0.65	0.39	0.37	1.69	0.96	0.54	0.4
19	Misc.goods& Services	24.09	16.59	13.2	12.56	38.13	21.62	26.31	19.63
20	Durable goods	11.30	5.79	3.32	3.15	3	1.70	1.91	1.42
21	Non-food total	58.66	38.33	35.18	33.48	71.63	40.62	49.46	36.91
22	Total expenditure	145.20	100	105.07	100	176.36	100	133.99	100

Source: 38th NSSO.

It is found that per capita expenditure of Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala (Rs.133.99) is found to be much lower than that of General population (Rs.176.36). While average monthly expenditure on food of Scheduled Castes amounted only to Rs. 84.53 per month that of General population was Rs. 104.73. Food expenditure constituted 63.08% of total consumption expenditure for Scheduled Castes and only 59.38% for General population. The expenditure on Cereals constituted 24.52% for Scheduled Castes and only 19.95% for General population among food items average monthly expenditure of Scheduled Castes was higher than General population on the items Cereals substitutes & Salt. On all other items General population expenditure is higher than that of Scheduled Castes.

Regarding non-food items expenditure of Scheduled Castes was higher than that of General population only on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants. While expenditure on Miscellaneous items by Scheduled Castes constituted to 19.63% of total expenditure, the expenditure on the same item by General population was 11.62%. While the per capita expenditure on Clothing by General population of urban Kerala constituted by 8.14% of their total expenditure for the Scheduled Castes only 4.91%. Thus among non-food items Scheduled Castes spend more on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants than General population in urban Kerala.

5.8 Percentage expenditure on food items to total food

Table 5.9 shows % expenditure on different items of food to total food expenditure for Scheduled Castes and General population in rural and urban Kerala.

For Scheduled Castes of rural Kerala the Table 5.9 reveals that the % expenditure on Cereals has been 43.40%, which is higher than that of General population 38.93%. Among different items of food, Scheduled Castes of rural Kerala reported higher % expenditure on items Cereals, Cereals Substitutes and Beverages & refreshments. For Cereals substitutes the % expenditure of rural Scheduled Castes was 3.36% and that of General population was 2.61% of total food expenditure. For Scheduled Castes of rural Kerala Beverages & refreshments constituted 17.30% of their food expenditure, while that of General population was only 12.08%. For Scheduled Castes % expenditure on Pulses was 2.18%, while that of General

opulation 2.61%. For Scheduled Castes Meat, Egg & Fish constituted 8.32% of their ood expenditure. While that of General population only 10.02%. On all other items of food Scheduled Castes of rural Kerala reported lower % expenditure than the General population of rural Kerala.

Table 5.9 reveals that for urban sector Scheduled Castes % expenditure on Cereals has been 38.87% which is much higher than that of General population 33.59%. For Scheduled Castes the % on Cereals substitute also was 1.06% higher than that of 0.74% General population in urban Kerala.

For Scheduled Castes Beverages & refreshments constituted 20.41% of their food expenditure. While that of General population 17.61%. Only other items of Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala reported lower % expenditure than the General population f urban Kerala.

For the Scheduled Castes in both rural and urban sectors a change in the pattern of consumption is observed over the years The proportion of food in their consumption basket is going on declining. Proportion of expenditure on non- food items is found increasing. The increase in expenditure is visible especially in case of Scheduled Castes belonging to higher income groups. They are found to be following the consumption pattern of General population.

Table 5.9 Percentage Expenditure on different items of food to total food expenditure for Scheduled Castes and General population in Kerala

S No.	Item	Rural		Urban	
		General population	Scheduled Castes	General population	Scheduled Castes
1	Cereals	38.93	43.40	33.59	38.87
2	Gram	0.28	0.135	3.22	0.19
3	Cereals Substitute	2.61	3.36	0.74	1.06
4	Pulses	2.61	2.18	2.88	2.48
5	Milk & Products	6.67	2.96	8.61	4.32
6	Edible oil	4.42	3.84	4.81	4.35
7	Meat, Egg & Fish	10.02	8.32	11.18	9.32
8	Vegetable	4.61	4.23	4.76	4.31
9	Fruits& Nuts	9.07	6.66	9.32	7.35
10	Sugar	3.28	2.93	3.24	3.17
11	Salt	3.5	0.19	0.13	0.17
12	Spices	3.9	4.33	3.59	3.86
13	Beverages & refreshments	12.08	17.30	17.61	20.41
14	Food total	100	100	100	100

Source NSS; 38th round

5.9 Movement in Budge share Kerala

Expenditure on some broad groups items and % to total expenditure of Scheduled Castes in the rural and urban areas of kerala for the period 1983 –19 87-88 is given in Table 5.10 changes that have taken place in the consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes over the years have been analysed here with the available to study the differences in the changes that have occurred in the consumption pattern in the rural and urban Kerala.[16] Table 5.10 gives the movement in budget share of Scheduled Castes in Kerala. The following points are observed.

a) It is found that the expenditures have increased over the years on all the items both in the rural and urban areas as may be expected due to the price rise in general.

b) In terms of % there has been a decline in the proportion of expenditure on food from 66.5 % in 1983 to 60.36 % in 1987-88 in the rural Kerala

c) In respect of non-food items the % expenditure has increased from 33.48 % in 1983 to 39.68 % in 1987-88

d) In the food group the items attracting more expenditure were Beverages & refreshments, Meat, fish & egg, Vegetables, Fruits & nuts, Edible oil, Spices and Sugar.

e) In the non-food group the % of expenditure on Clothing has declined from 5.03 % in 1983 to 4.64% in 1987-88.

In the case of urban areas also similar pattern has been observed.

a) The proportion of expenditure on food has declined from 63.08% in 1983 to 61.68% in 1987-88.

b) Among the non-food items the % of expenditure increased from 36.91% in 1983 to 38.31% in 1987 – 88.

Looking at the available data given here for Scheduled Castes in Kerala, a picture of average rural and urban consumption patterns for the state as a whole emerges. The following are main features.

Table 5.10 Per capita per month (30 days) expenditure in (Rs. 0.00) of food and non-food items and % to total expenditure for Scheduled Caste households in Kerala.

SI. No	Item		Rural		Urban	
			1983	1987-88	1983	1987-88
1	Cereals	PCE	30.34	35.04	32.86	33.05
		%	28.87	21.31	24.52	18.12
2	Gram	PCE	0.10	-	0.17	-
		%	0.09	-	0.12	-
3	Cereals substitutes	PCE	2.36	-	0.9	-
		%	2.24	-	0.67	-
4	Pulses	PCE	1.53	-	2.11	-
		%	1.45	-	1.57	-
5	Milk & Products	PCE	2.08	-	3.67	-
		%	1.97	-	2.73	-
6	Edible oil	PCE	2.70	-	3.69	-
		%	2.56	-	2.75	-
7	Meat, Egg, Fish	PCE	5.83	-	7.88	-
		%	5.54	-	5.88	-
8	Vegetables	PCE	2.97	-	3.65	-
		%	2.82	-	2.72	-
9	Fruits & nuts	PCE	4.66	-	6.23	-
		%	4.43	-	4.64	-
10	Sugar	PCE	2.05	-	2.68	-
		%	1.95	-	2	-
11	Salt	PCE	0.14	-	0.15	-
		%	0.13	-	0.11	-
12	Spices	PCE	3.03	-	3.27	-
		%	2.88	-	2.44	-
13	Beverages & refreshments	PCE	12.10	-	17.27	-
		%	11.51	-	12.88	-
14	Food Total	PCE	69.89	99.24	84.53	112.51
		%	66.51	60.36	63.08	61.68
15	Pan& Intoxicants	PCE	5.78	-	5.22	-
		%	5.5	-	3.89	-
16	Light & Fuel	PCE	7.20	-	8.89	-
		%	6.85	-	6.63	-
17	Clothing	PCE	5.29	7.64	6.59	10.94
		%	5.03	4.64	4.91	5.99
18	Footwear	PCE	0.39	0.83	0.54	1.56
		%	0.37	0.50	0.4	0.85
19	Mis. Goods& Services	PCE	13.20	-	26.31	-
		%	12.56	-	19.63	-
20	Durable goods	PCE	3.32	8.25	1.91	2.13
		%	3.15	5.01	1.42	1.16
21	Non-food	PCE	35.18	65.15	49.46	69.88
		%	33.48	39.68	36.91	38.31
22	Total consumer Expenditure	PCE	105.07	164.39	133.99	182.39
		%	100	100	100	100

Source : NSS different rounds

Shows data not available

For rural Kerala per capita 30 days consumer expenditure was split up into 66.51%for food and 33.48% for non-food. Food included 28.87% for Cereals and 11.51 % for Beverages and 5.54 % for Meat, fish & egg. Non-food included 3.32% for Miscellaneous goods and services and 5.5% for Pan & intoxicants.

For the urban sector average MPCE was split up into 63.08%for food and 36.91 for non-food. Of food, 24.52%went towards Cereals and 12.88% for Beverages & refreshments, and 5.88% on Meat, fish & egg. Non- food included 19.63% for Miscellaneous goods and services and 3.89% for Pan, tobacco & intoxicants.

Table 5.11: Per capita consumption (%) of different items in Kerala for Scheduled Castes

Sl. No	Item	% expenditure for 30 days		U-R Difference
		Rural	Urban	
		1983	1983	
1	Cereals	28.87	24.52	-4.35
2	Gram	0.09	0.12	0.03
3	Cereals substitutes	2.24	0.67	-1.57
4	Pulses	1.45	1.57	0.12
5	Milk & Products	1.17	2.73	0.76
6	Edible oil	2.56	2.75	0.19
7	Meat, Egg, Fish	5.54	5.88	0.34
8	Vegetables	2.82	2.72	0.1
9	Fruits & nuts	4.43	4.64	0.21
10	Sugar	1.95	2	0.05
11	Salt	0.13	0.11	-0.02
12	Spices	2.88	2.44	-0.44
13	Beverages & refreshments	12.51	12.88	1.37
14	Food Total	66.51	63.08	-3.43
15	Pan& Intoxicants	5.5	3.89	-1.61
16	Light & Fuel	6.85	6.63	-0.22
17	Clothing	5.03	4.91	-0.12
18	Footwear	0.37	0.4	0.03
19	Mis. Goods& Services	12.56	19.63	7.07
20	Durable goods	3.15	1.42	-1.73
21	Non-food	33.48	36.91	3.43
22	Total consumer Expenditure	100	100	0

Source: NSSO 38th round

Of the gap between urban and rural MPCE of Scheduled Castes in Kerala, which is of the order of Rs. 28.92 as much as Rs.14.64 was accounted by Food total. Non-food total accounted for only Rs. 14.28 of the difference. Non-food expenditure

r xson in the urban sector exceeded that of the rural sector only by the extent of
ь⅃⅜ Miscellaneous good accounted for Rs. 13.11% of the difference. Per capita
xxiture on Durable goods and Pan, tobacco & intoxicants in the urban sector
ır ɔund less than that in rural sector.

Movement in Budget Share - All-India.

Expenditure on some broad groups items and % to total expenditure of
Scheduled Castes in the rural and urban areas of India[17] for the period 1983 –1993-94
given in Table 5.12

It is found that expenditures have increased over the years on all items the both
in the rural and urban areas as may be expected due to the price rise in general.

In terms of % there has been a fall in the proportion of expenditure on food of
Scheduled Castes from 67% in 1983 to 65% in 1987-88 and 64.88% in 1993-94
in the rural areas at all – India level.

In respect of non-food items the % expenditure has increased from 32.92% in
1983 to 34.78 % in 1987-88 and 35.19 in 1993-94

In the food group the item attracting more expenditure are Milk & milk products,
Vegetables, Edible oil, Pulses, Beverages, Meat, fish & egg.

In the non-food group the % of expenditure on Durable goods has increased from
1.77 % in 1983 to 2.55 % in 1987 – 88 and declined to Rs.2.1 in 1993-94.

In the non-food group the % of expenditure on Clothing has declined from 7.31
% in 1983 to 5.69 % in 1987 – 88 and declined to Rs. 4.6 in 1993-94

In case of urban areas also similar pattern has been observed. The proportion of
expenditure on food has declined from 62.04 % in 1983 to 60.29 % in 1987-88
and further declined to Rs.57.89 in 1993-94. The proportion of expenditure on
non-food has increased from 37.95% in 1983 to 39.70% in 1987-88 and to Rs.
42.24 in 1993-94.

Table 5.12 Per capita per months (30 days) expenditure in (Rs. 0.00) of food and non-food items and % to total expenditure for Scheduled Castes All India

S.No	Item		Rural			Urban		
			1983	1987-88	1993-94	1983	1987-88	1993-94
1	Cereals	PCE	34.65	40.35	66.64	31.02	36.26	62.1
		%	36.70	30.25	27.89	24.05	19.59	17.93
2	Gram	PCE	0.24	-	0.37	0.28	-	0.57
		%	^.25	-	0.15	0.21	-	0.16
3	Cereals & substitutes.	PCE	0.15	-	0.14	0.07	-	0.24
		%	0.15	-	0.05	0.05	-	0.06
4	Pulses	PCE	3.17	-	9.36	4.62	-	12.09
		%	3.36	-	3.91	3.58	-	3.49
5	Milk & Products	PCE	4.88	-	17.42	8.52	-	25.55
		%	5.17	-	7.29	6.60	-	7.37
6	Edible oil	PCE	3.61	-	10.72	6.25	-	16.29
		%	3.82	-	4.49	4.84	-	4.7
7	Meat, fish & egg	PCE	2.98	-	7.98	5.36	-	14.27
		%	3.15	-	3.34	4.15	-	4.12
8	Vegetables	PCE	4.73	-	15.65	6.80	-	21.41
		%	5.01	-	6.55	5.27	-	6.18
9	Fruits & nuts	PCE	0.83	-	2.99	1.72	-	6.54
		%	0.88	-	1.25	1.33	-	1.88
10	Sugar	PCE	2.39	-	7.06	3.42	-	9.16
		%	2.53	-	2.95	2.65	-	2.64
11	Salt	PCE	0.19	-	0.51	0.18	-	0.59
		%	0.20	-	0.21	0.13	-	0.17
12	Spices	PCE	2.42	-	6.51	3.07	-	8.02
		%	2.56	-	2.72	2.38	-	2.31
13	Beverages & refreshments	PCE	3.02	-	9.49	8.70	-	23.69
		%	3.20	-	3.97	6.74	-	6.84
14	Food Total	PCE	63.26	86.97	154.83	80.01	111.56	200.53
		%	67.07	65.21	64.88	62.04	60.29	57.89
15	Pan Tobacco& Intoxicants	PCE	3.42	-	9.26	4.93	-	13.24
		%	3.62	-	3.87	3.82	-	3.82
16	Fuel & light	PCE	7.23	-	18.83	9.47	-	24.73
		%	7.67	-	7.88	7.34	-	7.14
17	Clothing	PCE	6.90	7.59	11.01	9.70	10.56	16.26
		%	7.31	5.69	4.6	7.52	5.70	4.69
18	Footwear	PCE	0.79	1.18	1.73	1.26	1.89	3.28
		%	0.83	0.88	0.72	0.97	1.02	0.947
19	Mis. Goods & Services	PCE	11.04	-	38.2	20.56	-	78.23
		%	11.70	-	16.19	15.94	-	22.58
20	Durable goods	PCE	1.67	3.41	5.04	3.02	6.06	10.57
		%	1.77	2.55	2.1	2.34	3.27	3.05
21	Non-food	PCE	31.05	46.38	84.05	48.94	73.47	146.31
		%	32.92	34.78	35.19	37.95	39.7	42.24
22	Total Consumer Expenditure	PCE	94.31	133.35	238.91	128.95	185.03	346.34
		%	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSS various rounds

Shows data not available

Looking at the data available given here a picture of average rural and urban consumption patterns of the Scheduled Castes for the country as a whole emerges. The following are the main features.

For rural India per capita 30 days consumer expenditure was split up into 64.88%for food and 35.19% for non-food. Food included 27.89% for Cereals, 7.29% for milk and products. Non-food included 16.19%for Miscellaneous goods and services.

Table 5.13. Value (%) of per capita consumption of different groups of items in rural and urban India for Scheduled Castes

S. No	Item	% expenditure Rural	% expenditure Urban	U-R
		1993-94	1993-94	Difference
1	Cereals	27.89	17.93	-9.96
2	Gram	0.15	0.16	0.01
3	Cereals subst.	0.05	0.06	0.01
4	Pulses	3.91	3.49	-0.42
5	Milk & Product	7.29	7.37	0.08
6	Edible oil	4.49	4.7	0.21
7	Meat, Egg, Fish	3.34	4.12	0.78
8	Vegetables	6.55	6.18	-0.37
9	Fruits & nuts	1.25	1.88	0.63
10	Sugar	2.95	2.64	-0.31
11	Salt	0.21	0.17	-0.04
12	Spices	2.72	2.31	-0.41
13	Beverages & refreshments	5.97	6.84	2.87
14	Food Total	64.88	57.89	-6.99
15	Pan Tobacco& Intoxicants	3.87	3.82	-0.05
16	Light & Fuel	7.88	7.14	-0.74
17	Clothing	4.6	4.69	0.09
18	Footwear	0.72	0.947	0.227
19	Mis. Goods & Services	16.19	22.58	6.39
20	Durable goods	2.1	3.05	0.95
21	Non-food	35.19	42.24	7.05
22	Total Consumer Expenditure	100	100	0

Source: NSS various rounds

For the urban sector average MPCE was split up into 57.89%for food and 42.24 % for non-food. Of food only 17.93% went towards Cereals and 7.37% on milk and products. Non-food included 22.58% for Miscellaneous goods,. Rural expenditure levels per capita exceeded urban levels for Cereals, pulses, vegetables,

sugar and spices Among non-food for Pan, Tobacco &Intoxicants rural expenditure exceeded that of urban.. Non-food expenditure per person in the urban sector was about double that in the rural sector. Similarly per capita average expenditure on Durable goods in urban Sector was double than that in rural sector.

5.12 Percentage Expenditure on food to total food expenditure and items of non-food to total non-food expenditure in India

The composition of total expenditure on food items over different years shows changes in pattern of consumption. As per Table 5.14 in India in the rural sector the % expenditure on Cereals has declined over the period under study.

Table 5.14 Percentage expenditure on items of food to total expenditure and on items on non-food to total non-food expenditure in India

Item	Rural		urban	
	1983	1993-94	1983	1993-94
Cereals	54.71	43.04	38.76	30.96
Gram	0.37	0.23	0.33	0.28
Cereals subst.	0.22	0.09	0.08	0.12
Pulses	5.00	6.04	5.77	6.02
Milk and Products	7.7	10.97	10.63	12.74
Edible oil	5.69	6.92	7.8	8.12
Meat, Fish & Egg	4.69	5.15	6.68	7.11
Vegetables	7.46	10.10	8.49	10.67
Fruits & nuts	1.31	1.93	2.14	3.26
Sugar	3.77	4.55	4.27	4.56
Salt	0.29	0.33	0.2	0.29
Spices	3.81	4.20	3.83	3.99
Beverages & refreshments	4.77	6.12	10.86	11.81
Food Total	100	100	100	100
Pan & intoxicants	10.996	11.01	10.065	9.04
Fuel & Light	23.298	22.48	19.341	16.90
Clothing	22.21	13.09	19.82	11.11
Footwear	2.521	2.05	2.55	2.24
Misc. Goods services	35.54	45.44	42.00	53.46
Durable goods	5.376	5.99	6.166	7.22
Non-food total	100	100	100	100

Source: NSS various rounds

Increase in % of expenditure has been observed in respect of non-food items. Among food items the highest % is for Cereals followed by milk and products and vegetables for Scheduled Castes of rural India in 1993-94. Increase in % expenditure on Miscellaneous goods and Pan & Intoxicants and Durable goods is

observed. The % of expenditure on Clothing declined from 22.21% in 1983 to 13.09% in1993-94. % expenditure is found highest among non-food items for Miscellaneous good s for Scheduled Castes of both urban and rural India.

The table shows that in the urban sector the % of expenditure on food declined. For Cereals the decline was from 38.76% in 1983 to 30.96 % in1993-94. Among food items the highest % was for Cereals followed by milk and products and Beverages for Scheduled Castes in urban India in 1993-94.

Increase in % of expenditure observed in case of non-food items. Expenditure on Miscellaneous goods increased from 42% in 1983 to 53.46% in 1993-94 for Scheduled Castes in urban India. The increase in Durable goods % was not that high as in case of Miscellaneous goods in both rural and urban sectors. The % of expenditure on Clothing declined form 19.82% in 1983 to11.11 in 1993-94.

5.13 % Expenditure on food items to total food expenditure and items of non food to total non-food expenditure in Kerala

The following Table 5.15 present per capita per month expenditure of broad groups of food items and % to total food expenditure and % of expenditure on items of non-food to total non-food expenditure in rural and urban areas of Kerala.

The Table 5.15 reveals that[18] in the rural sector the % of expenditure on Cereals has declined from 43.40% in 1983 to 35.31% in 1987-88. Increase in % of expenditure has been observed in respect of Durable goods from 9.41% in 1983 to 12.63% in 1987-88. The % of expenditure on Clothing declined from 15.02% in 1983 to 11.69% in 1987-88.

Table 5.15 Percentage Expenditure of Scheduled Castes on items of food to total food expenditure and items of non-food to total non-food expenditure in Kerala

Sl.No.	Item	Rural		Urban	
		1983	1987-88	1983	1987-88
1	Cereals	43.4	35.304	38.87	29.37
2	Gram	0.135	-	0.19	-
3	Cereals subst.	3.36	-	1.06	-
4	Pulses	2.18	-	2.48	-
5	Milk and Products	2.96	-	4.32	-
6	Edible oil	3.84	-	4.36	-
7	Meat, Fish & Egg	8.32	-	9.32	-
8	Vegetables	4.23	-	4.35	-
9	Fruits & nuts	6.66	-	7.35	-
10	Sugar	2.93	-	3.17	-
11	Salt	0.19	-	0.17	-
12	Spices	4.33	-	3.86	-
13	Beverages & refreshments	17.3	-	20.41	-
14	Food Total	100	100	100	100
	Pan Intoxicants	16.43	-	10.54	-
	Fuel & Light	20.46	-	17.96	-
17	Clothing	15.02	11.69	13.30	15.64
18	Footwear	1.11	1.26	1.08	2.22
19	Misc. Goods services	37.51	-	53.18	-
20	Durable goods	9.41	12.626	3.85	3.03
21	Non-food total	100	100	100	100

Source: NSS different rounds

The % of expenditure on Footwear increased from 1.11% in 1983 to 1.26% in 1987-88. The table reveals that in the urban sector % of expenditure on Cereals had declined from 38.87% in 1983 to 29.37% 1987-88. In urban Kerala increase in % of expenditure had been observed in respect of Clothing from 13.3% in 1983 to 15.64% in 1987-88. In case of Footwear also increase in % of expenditure had been observed from 1.08% in 1983 to 2.22% in 1987-88. The % of expenditure on Durable goods increased from 3.85% in 1983 to 3.03% in 1987-88

5.14 Expenditure on food

A comparison of the % of food expenditure in total consumer expenditure in for Scheduled Castes is done in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16 Expenditure on food in Total Consumer Expenditure [. %]

% of expenditure on food							
	Scheduled Castes				General population		
	1983		1987-88		1983		1987-88	
	Kerala	India	Kerala	India	Kerala	India	Kerala	India
Rural	66.51	67.08	60.36	65.21	61.64	65.56	59.94	63.8
Urban	63.09	62.05	61.68	60.29	58.96	58.69	59.79	55.9

Source: NSS different rounds

It is found that the % expenditure on food to total consumer expenditure for the Scheduled Castes in both rural and urban Kerala are much higher than the same for General population in both periods under consideration, The same trend is observed at the National level also. Comparing the food expenditure of households in India and Kerala shows that in the rural sector [for both Scheduled Castes and also general] households of All India have higher food expenditure than for Kerala. [for both groups.] But in the urban sector Kerala households of these two groups spend more on food than All India households

5.15 Change in Consumption pattern

Table 5.17 shows average per capita expenditure on selected broad groups of items of Scheduled Castes over the different NSS rounds in Kerala. The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in rural parts of Kerala over two separate rounds of 38th, 43rd representing periods of 1983, 1987-88 respectively shows significant changes in the pattern of consumption.

Table 5.17 Average monthly per capita expenditure (Rs.) on broad groups of items in Kerala: Rural.

Sl.No.	Items	Monthly per capita expenditure	
		1983	1987-88
1	Cereals	30.34 (28.88)	35.04 (21.32)
2	Food total	69.89 (66.52)	99.24 (60.37)
3	Clothing	5.29 (5.03)	7.64 (4.65)
4	Footwear	0.39 (0.37)	0.83 (0.51)
5	Durable goods	3.32 (3.16)	8.25 (5.02)
6	Non-food total	35.18 (33.48)	65.15 (39.63)
7	Total	105.07 100	164.39 100

(Figures in brackets represent percentages.) Source: NSS various rounds

It is evident from the Table 5.17 that the amount spent on many items had increased considerably over the years. Cereals, Footwear, Durable goods and non-food total are found to have increased than earlier rounds. This shows the changes that have occurred in consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes of Kerala since 1983. During the span between 1983 and 1987 – 88 a shift in the emphasis of consumption of Scheduled Castes is obvious. Increased expenditure on non-food items namely, Durable goods, Footwear etc. are indicative of the rising standard of consumption.

The expenditure ratio of food and non-food items had also changed showing a decrease in the food consumption and an increase in non-food consumption. The ratio in 1983 was 66:33. It was 60:40 in 1987-88. Table 5.18 shows the average per capita expenditure on selected broad groups of items for Scheduled Castes of Kerala in the urban areas.

Table 5.18 Average per capita expenditure (Rs) on

selected broad groups of items urban Kerala.

Sl. No.	Items	Monthly per capita expenditure	
		1983	1987-88
1	Cereals	32.86 (24.52)	33.05 (18.12)
2	Food total	84.53 (63.09)	112.51 (61.68)
3	Clothing	6.59 (4.91)	10.94 (5.99)
4	Footwear	0.54 (0.40)	1.56 (0.85)
5	Durable goods	1.91 (1.43)	2.13 (1.17)
6	Non-food total	49.46 (36.91)	69.88 (38.31)
7	Total	133.99 100	182.39 100

(Figures in brackets represent percentages.)
Source: NSS various rounds

The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the urban regions Kerala is also seem to have changed since 1983 Non-food items, Clothing Footwear, durable good etc. are found to have gained more acceptance among the urban Kerala consumers than food items. As different from what was observed for rural Scheduled Castes the Clothing expenditure of urban Scheduled Castes had increased from 1983 to 1987-88. Cereals consumption of an urban Scheduled Castes in Kerala is found to have declined... Increase in expenditure on Durable goods was recorded here also. The expenditure ratio of food and non-food items of Scheduled Castes in urban areas of Kerala also had changed 63:37 in 1983 to 62:38

:io All India

Table 5.19 Average per capita expenditure (Rs.) on selected items in Rural India

S.No	Item		Monthly per capita consumption expenditure	
			1983	1993-94
:	Cereals	PCE	34.65	66.64
		%	36.70	27.89
:	Gram	PCE	0.24	0.37
		%	0.25	0.15
:	Cereals subst.	PCE	0.15	0.14
		%	0.15	0.05
4	Pulses	PCE	3.17	9.36
		%	3.36	3.91
5	Milk & Product	PCE	4.88	17.42
		%	5.17	7.29
6	Edible oil	PCE	3.61	10.72
		%	3.82	4.49
7	Meat, Egg, Fish	PCE	2.98	7.98
		%	3.15	3.34
8	Vegetables	PCE	4.73	15.65
		%	5.01	6.55
9	Fruits & nuts	PCE	0.83	2.99
		%	0.88	1.25
10	Sugar	PCE	2.39	7.06
		%	2.53	2.95
11	Salt	PCE	0.19	0.51
		%	0.20	0.21
12	Spices	PCE	2.42	6.51
		%	2.56	2.72
13	Beverages & refreshments	PCE	3.02	9.49
		%	3.20	3.97
14	Food Total	PCE	63.26	154.83
		%	67.07	64.88
15	Pan Tobacco& Intoxicants	PCE	3.42	9.26
		%	3.62	3.87
16	Light & Fuel	PCE	7.23	18.83
		%	7.67	7.88
17	Clothing	PCE	6.90	11.01
		%	7.31	4.6
18	Footwear	PCE	0.79	1.73
		%	0.83	0.72
19	Mis. Goods & Services	PCE	11.04	38.2
		%	11.70	16.19
20	Durable goods	PCE	1.67	5.04
		%	1.77	2.1
21	Non-food	PCE	31.05	84.05
		%	32.92	35.19
22	Total Consumer Expenditure	PCE	94.31	238.91
		%	100	100

urce: NSS various rounds

Table 5.20 Average per capita expenditure on selected broad groups of items in urban India

Sl. No	Item		Monthly per capita consumption expenditure	
			1983	1993-94
1	Cereals	PCE	31.02	62.1
		%	24.05	17.93
2	Gram	PCE	0.28	0.57
		%	0.21	0.16
3	Cereals subst.	PCE	0.07	0.24
		%	0.05	0.06
4	Pulses	PCE	4.62	12.09
		%	3.58	3.49
5	Milk & Product	PCE	8.52	25.55
		%	6.60	7.37
6	Edible oil	PCE	6.25	16.29
		%	4.84	4.7
7	Meat, Egg, Fish	PCE	5.36	14.27
		%	4.15	4.12
8	Vegetables	PCE	6.80	21.41
		%	5.27	6.18
9	Fruits & nuts	PCE	1.72	6.54
		%	1.33	1.88
10	Sugar	PCE	3.42	9.16
		%	2.65	2.64
11	Salt	PCE	0.18	0.59
		%	0.13	0.17
12	Spices	PCE	3.07	8.02
		%	2.38	2.31
13	Beverages & refreshments	PCE	8.70	23.69
		%	6.74	6.84
14	Food Total	PCE	80.01	200.53
		%	62.04	57.89
15	Pan Tobacco& Intoxicants	PCE	4.93	13.24
		%	3.82	3.82
16	Light & Fuel	PCE	9.47	24.73
		%	7.34	7.14
17	Clothing	PCE	9.70	16.26
		%	7.52	4.69
18	Footwear	PCE	1.26	3.28
		%	0.97	0.947
19	Mis. Goods & Services	PCE	20.56	78.23
		%	15.94	22.58
20	Durable goods	PCE	3.02	10.57
		%	2.34	3.05
21	Non-food	PCE	48.94	146.31
		%	37.95	42.24
22	Total Consumer Expenditure	PCE	128.95	346.34
		%	100	100

Source: NSS different rounds

Table 5.19 shows average per capita expenditure on selected broad groups of items for Scheduled Castes population in rural India.

Table 5.20 India shows average per capita expenditure on selected broad groups of items for Scheduled Castes population in urban India.

It is evident from the Table 5.20 that the amount spent on food items have declined while the amount spend on most of non-food items especially Miscellaneous goods have increased considerably over the years.

Miscellaneous goods, Durable goods and non-food total are the items found to be consumed at an increased rate than earlier round. Durable consumption in urban India is higher than that of urban Kerala. In case of Clothing consumption the expenditure incurred by Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala is more than that of Scheduled Castes of urban India. Compared with Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala Footwear consumption is found to be less in urban India.

5.17 Conclusions

It is found that the MPCE position of Scheduled Castes population in the rural as well as urban areas of All-India is consistently poorer than that of the General population as evidenced by higher proportion of persons falling in the lower MPCE levels. Similarly in rural as well as urban Kerala also the MPCE position of Scheduled Caste population is consistently poorer than that of the General population.

It is found that the average household size of Scheduled Castes was lower than that of General population in India as well as Kerala. Comparison of MPCE of Scheduled Castes in India and Kerala showed that the MPCE of Scheduled Castes is lower than that of General population in Kerala in both rural and urban sectors. But Scheduled Castes in Kerala have a comparatively better MPCE position than their counterparts at the National level regarding MPCE on various items.

In India as well as Kerala the % of expenditure on food for Scheduled Castes is higher than the same for General population both in the rural and urban sectors. The proportion of food expenditure is found declining for both Scheduled Castes and General population

The % of expenditure on non- food for Scheduled Castes is lower than the same for General population both in the rural and urban sectors. The proportion of non- food expenditure is found increasing for both Scheduled Castes and General population. Among Non-food items scheduled castes spend much higher than General population on the item Pan, tobacco & intoxicants and for all other items General population spend more.

The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is comparable to that of the general households in rural Kerala. In this top class Scheduled Castes spend more on the different non –food items as similar to the trend observed in case of General population in Kerala. At the National level in the rural sector the General households spend more than Scheduled Castes on all food items. Among non-food, Scheduled Castes spend more than General population only on Pan, & Intoxicants. It is found that in the urban sector also in India Scheduled Castes are much behind General population in expenditure on almost all items except Pan& Intoxicants

In the top expenditure class they spend higher than General population in rural sector at National level on food items such as Cereals, Edible oil, Meat, Egg & Fish, and non-food items such as Pan& intoxicants, and Durable goods. Thus they exhibit similar or even better consumption standards as compared to General population in the rural sector at the National level.

The consumption pattern of Scheduled Castes in the top expenditure class is comparable to that of the General population in the top expenditure class in urban India. In this top class Scheduled Castes spend more on the different non –food items as similar to the trend observed in case of General population. This shows that among the Scheduled Castes the higher expenditure class is exhibiting luxurious consumption pattern.

Considering the consumption standards of the total Scheduled Castes population it is found that general house holds are far better in both India and Kerala Considering the consumption standards in the top expenditure class Scheduled Castes are found possessing similar and even better standards than General population in the

ame expenditure bracket. Comparison of consumption standards of Scheduled Castes population in India and Kerala shows that Scheduled Castes in Kerala are possessing better consumption standards than their counterparts in India.

The per capita expenditure of Scheduled Castes of rural Kerala is found to be much lower than that of General population. Food expenditure constituted 66.51% of total consumption expenditure for Scheduled Castes and only 61.67% for General population. Of the food expenditure, expenditure on Cereals constituted 28.87% for Scheduled Castes and only 24.01% for General population. Per capita expenditure of Scheduled Castes of urban Kerala is found to be much lower than that of General population. Food expenditure constituted 63.08% of total consumption expenditure for Scheduled Castes and only 59.38% for General population. The expenditure on Cereals constituted 24.52% for Scheduled Castes and only 19.95% for General population

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5. (a) NSSO,(1998), " Level and Pattern of Consumer Expenditure" based on 50th round data, Sarvekshana, Issue No.74, Vol.XXI,No.3,January-March.

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6. (a) NSSO,(1989), "Survey Result On A Note On Pattern of Consumer Expenditure of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Households", based on 38th round (January-March) data,Sarvekshana,P.6,P.8.

7. NSSO,(1993), " 43rd round data, Sarvekshana, 57th issue, Vol.XVII, No.2, October-December.

8. Note: Households other than Scheduled Castes.

9. Note: Data on individual items of expenditure for Scheduled Castes not published for different rounds in NSS, hence 38th round data alone presented here.

10. Note: Data for General Population of Kerala in this class not available.

11. Note: For comparing the MPCE of Scheduled Castes and General Population in the top expenditure class in Kerala data on MPCE of General Population in top class not available. Hence here MPCE of Scheduled Castes in Kerala is compared with that of Scheduled Castes in India.

12. Note: Data for General Population of Kerala in this class not available.

13. Note: Columns 5,6.

14. Note: For comparing the MPCE of Scheduled Castes and General Population in the top expenditure class in Kerala data on MPCE of General Population in top class not available, hence here MPCE of Scheduled Castes in Kerala compared with that of Scheduled Castes in India is given.

15. Note: Data on expenditure of durable goods is available.

16. Note: These two surveys were carried out during January-December 1983, July 1987-June 1988. Data on consumption expenditure of Scheduled Castes in Kerala were available only for the 38th and 43rd rounds. In the 43rd round data detailed items of per capita expenditure were published only for total Cereals, Food-total, Clothing, Footwear, Durable goods non-food total and total expenditure, while for the 38th round, data on expenditure on all items were published. For the 50th round data on expenditure of Scheduled Castes have not been published.

17. Note: For this part data from 50th round (1993-1994) on per capita per month expenditure of different items of expenditure of Scheduled Castes for all India have been presented.

18. Note: Data of 1993-1994 for Kerala Scheduled Castes not published.

CHAPTER VI
SOCIO ECONOMIC BACKGROUND AND CONSUMPTION PATTERN OF SAMPLE SCHEDULED CASTE HOUSEHOLDS IN IDUKKI DISTRICT

The development policy in India is based on the premise of "growth with equity". It did not take much time for the development planners in India to realize the bi-directional linkages between social well-being and economic development.. The policy of protective discrimination was intended to reduce the vast inequalities between the Scheduled Castes and other strata of Indian society. Its express purpose was to enable the Scheduled Castes, to educate themselves and seek secular employment so that they may be free of their traditional shackles[1].

The outcome of social and economic reforms is uneven and far from satisfactory as far as achievement of the Stated goals is concerned. In India a large section of population continues to be out side the reach of development programmes and is yet to be reached by the State driven initiatives. The share of population lacking basic facilities is still large- most of whom are below the poverty line. The statutory defined Scheduled castes constitute a major share of those below poverty line despite the fact that the framework of socio-economic development adopted five decades ago was biased in their favour.

6.1. Characteristics of Sample Households.

The primary data collected from sample households are being analysed in this chapter to study the socio-economic background and consumption pattern of Scheduled Caste households. A study of the socio-economic characteristics of the households is necessary to assess the general levels of living of the sample households. An explanation of the characteristics of the sample Scheduled Caste households selected is presented here.

6.1.1 Sex wise Distribution of Sample Households

The sex – wise distribution of the sample Scheduled Caste households is presented in table 6.1

Table 6.1 Sex wise Distribution of Sample Households

Category	No. Of SC hhds selected	Sample Population		
		M	F	T
RURAL	100	231	239	470
URBAN	100	181	241	422
TOTAL	200	412	480	892

Source: Survey Data

In the sample of 100 SC households selected from rural area the total population is 470 persons. The number of males was 231and the number of females 239. In the sample 100 SC household selected from urban area the total population is 422 persons. The number of males was 181 and the number of female 241. The total population for urban and rural sample together was 892.

Females out number males in both rural and urban sample areas. The sex ratio observed in the sample rural and urban sectors is different from the sex ratio for the district as a whole. As per 1991 Census of India the sex ratio in Idukki district is 993 females per 1000 males. Idukki is one of the two districts where sex ratio is in favour of males.

6.1.2 Sub Castes

There are 68 sub castes among the Scheduled Castes in Kerala. Their distribution is found in all the districts in Kerala. Table 6.2 give the community wise distribution of sample rural and urban Scheduled caste households. There are 10 communities identified the rural SC sample selected. Of them Pulaya community alone constituted 48%. Others constituted 52%. Among the urban Scheduled caste sample households there are 11 communities identified and Pulaya alone constituted 62% and others 34%.

Table. 6.2 Distribution of sample Sc households into different sub- castes (%)

Caste	% Of households.-	
	Rural	Urban
1. Paravan	21.00	10.00
2. Pulaya	48.00	62.00
3. Velan	14.00	7.00
4. Cheramar	3.00	-
5. Sambavan	1.00	1.00
6. Parayan	8.00	1.00
7. Kanakkan	-	6.00
8. Kakkalan	-	5.00
9. Chaklian	1.00	4.00
10. Panan	2.00	2.00
11. Padanna	1.00	1.00
12. Vettuvan	1.00	1.00
All	100	100

Source: Survey data

Among the 12 communities identified in the total sample of 200 households, 9 were found in both rural and urban sectors. Pulayas constituted the highest share of % of sample rural (48%) and urban (62%)households. The second highest share was Paraven (21%)in rural and (10%) in urban. The next highest share was to Velan (14%) in rural and (7%)in urban.

6.1.3 Size of sample households

The standard of living of a household depend up on not only the level of income but also on the size of the household. Table 6.3 gives the average household size in the sample rural and urban areas

Table 6.3 Average household size in rural and urban areas

	Average Household Size
Rural	4.70
Urban	4.22
Total	4.5

Source: Survey data.

Average household size is found to be 4.7 for rural area and 4.2 for the urban area in the survey area. The average household size is found to be higher in rural area than urban. This is in tune with the average household size for Scheduled Castes for the country as a whole namely, 4.9 for rural areas and 4.5 for urban areas[2]. For Scheduled Castes of Kerala the average household size was 4.6 and 4.4 in rural and urban Kerala respectively. Table 6.4 presents size distribution of sample households for rural and urban areas

Table 6.4. Size distribution of sample households.

Number of members	Number of households	
	Rural	Urban
1	0	0
2	8	5
3	24	11
4	31	33
5	23	25
6	9	15
7-9	4	11
10& above	0	1

Source: Survey data

31% of the sample households in the rural and 33% in urban have a size of 4 members per household. None of the sample households had an average size below 2 members. 8% of households in rural and 5% in urban have an average size of 2 persons per household.

Only 1% of households in urban sector had an average size of 10 and above. In the rural sample none of the households had an average size >10 members.

6.1.4 Age structure of sample population

The age-structure of sample population is given in Table 6.5. In the rural area 21.91% of the sample population belonged to age group 0-14. The age group 15-59 constituted 70.64% of sample population. 7.45 % of sample population in rural were in the age group 60 and above.

In the urban areas 0 – 14 age group constituted **18.48%** of sample population and **71.56%** of sample population were in the age group 15-59. In the urban sector **9.95%** of population were in the age group 60 & above.

Table No 6.5 Age Structure of Sample Population. (%).

Average group	% of population					
	Rural			Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1-14	43.69	56.31	21.91	48.72	51.28	18.48
15-59	51.51	48.49	70.64	42.38	57.62	71.56
60&above	42.86	57.14	7.45	35.71	64.29	9.95
Total	49.15	50.85	100	42.89	57.11	100

Source: Survey data.

6.1.5 Distribution of Persons in the Sample Households Based on Education.

The Scheduled Castes communities are among the least literate social groups in the State as per Census of India 2001, 82.4% of the Scheduled caste populations have acquired the most elementary skills in reading and writing[3].

Explanations that are offered for the relatively poor spread of education among Scheduled Caste communities largely center around factors that lie "out side" the School system. Poverty and immiserisation of majority of the Scheduled Caste population of the their denigrated social status, illiterate home environments and apathetic attitudes towards education are seen to be largely responsible for the poor response to schooling from these communities. Such arguments often tend to ignore the distinct historical experience of Scheduled Caste communities particularly in the context of education. These are the ex-untouchable communities that have traditionally been denied accesses to learning, specifically because of their position in the Indian caste structure. Though schooling was "formally" open to all communities in the 1850's, the education of the "untouchables" proceeded at a snail's pace. Report and studies have documented the social opposition to the early schooling of the 'untouchables' as well as the social and economic constrains that impede their education even today.

The status of a community depends to a certain degree on the educational level of its members. Education not only qualifies people for better jobs, but also creates an awareness of opportunities open to them, which enriches life[4]. Education is

considered to be the most important factor in the ladder of social mobility. It is widely accepted that Education plays an important role in social mobility both vertical and horizontal The lowest income groups typically have not been able to have the same effective access to primary education as the higher-income groups, because for them, (a) the opportunity cost (Labour) of primary education is higher, (b) the benefit from primary education is lower, (c) the private rate of return to them from such education is lower hand at the same time (d), cost of capital against which such rate of return must be compared, is higher than for the higher income groups[5]. In the case of Scheduled Castes, education offers the possibility for social advancement. Table 6.6 gives the distribution of persons in the sample households based on education.

Table 6.6. Distribution of Person in the Sample Households Based on Education %.

Educational qualification	Rural			Urban		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Illiterate	15 (3.2)	29 (6.2)	44 (9.4)	14 (3.3)	56 (13.3)	70 (16.6)
Below V	52 (11.1)	46 (9.8)	98 (20.9)	41 (9.7)	32 (7.6)	73 (17.3)
V- SSLC	134 (28.5)	127 (27.0)	261 (55.5)	104 (24.6)	109 (25.8)	213 (50.5)
Pre Degree	12 (2.6)	20 (4.3)	32 (6.8)	13 (3.1)	31 (7.3)	44 (10.4)
Graduates	4 (0.9)	- (0.0)	4 (0.9)	4 (0.9)	7 (1.7)	11 (2.6)
Post Graduates	1 (0.2)	- (0.0)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	2 (0.5)
Technical/ professional	- (0.0)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	- (0.0)	- (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Any other	231 (2.8)	239 (3.4)	470 (6.2)	181 (0.9)	241 (1.2)	422 (2.1)

Source: Survey Data.

Figures in brackets represent Percentages.

Nearly 91% of the persons in the rural sample and 84% in the urban sample are literates. The % of illiterates in rural area is found to be less than that of urban Scheduled Castes. This could probably be the result of the sincere efforts of the volunteers of the State Literacy Programme in the rural areas.

Rural-Urban differences are much less pronounced in educational levels below V, and V-SSLC. Here male female differences also are very less. At the same time, at the education levels 'pre-degree' and 'graduates', the rural urban differences are very much pronounced. More percentage of persons in these educational levels

are found in urban sample than rural. Only 0.2% of total rural sample population had reached an education level of post graduation and the corresponding % in urban was 0.5%.

This reveals that in spite of the various schemes introduced for improving the educational attainments of Scheduled Castes as a prime solution for their over all upliftment, Scheduled Castes in our sample study area are very poor in educational attainments. Both in rural (55.5%) and in urban (50.5%) the highest % of persons belonged to the education level of V-SSLC. 89% of rural sample Scheduled Caste population and 85% of urban sample Scheduled Castes population had an education level below SSLC.

6.1.6 Distribution of persons in the sample households based on occupation

There are various factors determining the occupational status of Scheduled Castes. Educational standards and mobility to a great extent influence the occupational status. Reservation for Scheduled Castes is a support to attain better occupational status In spite of all the schemes implemented for improving their educational levels the educational attainments and occupational status were very poor among Scheduled castes compared to other households as revealed through the secondary data analysed in previous chapters. The situation was not anymore optimistic in the case of sample households also. Table 6.7 presents distribution of persons in the sample households based on occupation.

In both rural and urban sectors a major proportion of sample population are unemployed or dependents. In the rural sector "students" constituted 23.19% of sample population while this is 23.93% in the urban sample. The occupation category "any other"[6] constituted 20% in rural and 19.67% in urban. Hence the two categories 'students' and 'any other' together account for total persons who are not making any direct earning for themselves in both rural and urban sectors. In the rural sector these two categories together account for 43.19% of sample population and in urban 43.60%. This shows that the % of unemployed is very high among sample Scheduled Castes in the study area.

In the rural sector 'agricultural labour' constitute 17.87% of sample population and in urban this is 10.19 %. The category 'farmers' is found only in rural sector, 1.70%. The % of 'other labourers[7]' is the highest in the rural sector 25.11% and this is 27.01% in urban. The persons who are regularly 'employed[8]' in 'private sector' and in 'Govt. Sector' among rural sample constitute 9.15% and the same in urban sector was 17.45%. This shows that those in the urban sector are in better occupational status than their counter parts in rural sector. The category 'self-employed[9]' constitute 2.98% in the rural sector and 1.66% in urban. Among sample Scheduled Castes the number of persons with regular earning is found to be very less.

Table 6.7 Distribution of persons based on occupation; number and %

Occupation	Rural			Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agricultural labour	67 (14.26)	17 (3.62)	84 (17.87)	40 (9.48)	3 (0.71)	43 (10.19)
Farmer	8 (1.70)	0 (0.00)	8 (1.70)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Other labours	33 (7.02)	85 (18.09)	118 (25.11)	21 (4.98)	93 (22.04)	114 (27.01)
Employed in						
1 Private	22 (4.68)	10 (2.13)	32 (6.81)	25 (5.92)	6 (1.42)	31 (7.35)
2 Government	8 (1.70)	3 (0.64)	11 (2.34)	27 (6.40)	16 (3.79)	43 (10.19)
3 Self	9 (1.91)	5 (1.06)	14 (2.98)	4 (0.95)	3 (0.71)	7 (1.66)
Students	44 (9.36)	65 (13.83)	109 (23.19)	40 (9.48)	61 (14.45)	101 (23.93)
Any other	40 (8.51)	54 (11.49)	94 (20.00)	24 (5.69)	59 (13.98)	83 (19.67)

Source: Survey data

Figures in brackets represent Percentages

6.7 Monthly Income

An important focus of public policy is to ensure acceptable living conditions (or living standards) for all Scheduled Castes. Underlying the notion of well-being is a range of fundamental human needs and aspirations. One such area of social concern is the living conditions of the population, including the levels and distribution of income and wealth, the adequacy of social security etc[10]. Regular income is the means by which most individuals and families finance current consumption and make provision for the future through saving and investment. The

level of cash income can be used as an indicator of the standard of living for most of the population. People can obtain an income from various sources. Important among these is cash income received from employment, either as an employee or from self employment, cash income received from assets, and regular cash transfers received from government or other sources. They may also receive non-cash benefits, such as income-in-kind, from various sources.

Standard of living of the population is revealed by the income level, which is highly correlated with employment of the population. The distribution of households based on the income level, therefore is an important background indicator. Expenditure being very suitable proxy for income, the NSSO in its surveys collects data on expenditure, as reliable information on income is very difficult to collect. Table 6.8 presents distribution of sample households by monthly per capita income

Table 6.8 Distribution of sample households by monthly per capita income

Monthly per capita Income	Number of households	
	Rural	Urban
1-200	28	11
200-400	31	35
400-600	14	15
600-800	11	14
>800	16	25

Source Survey data

The general picture that emerges from the Table is that among rural households 59% of households fall in the lowest income classes, that is below the average monthly per capita income of Rs. 400/- and in urban this is (46%). Only 16% of rural households fall in the highest monthly income class and this is 25% in urban.

6.1.8 Income, Consumption and saving

As stated above the per capita income level of Scheduled Castes in the study area is very low. Most of them fall in lower income classes. Due to the financial crisis, the households are forced to withdraw children from education and children are forced into the labour market at an early age.

Table 6.9 shows the income disposition between consumption and saving by households in different income class.

Table 6.9 Income disposition between consumption and saving by income class –rural and Urban

Income class rural	No of hhs	Population	MP C I (Rs)	MPCE (Rs)	MPCS (Rs)
1-200	28	150	156.33	165.94	-9.61
200-400	31	144	280.47	271.04	9.43
400-600	14	70	486.09	429.13	56.96
600-800	11	44	700.19	565.41	134.79
>800	16	62	1094.99	748.81	346.18
All	100	470	450.99	372.57	78.42
1-200 urban	11	54	149.86	169.49	-19.64
200-400	35	148	292.63	286.88	5.74
400-600	15	70	498.23	460.90	37.33
600-800	14	54	663.64	577.59	86.05
>800	25	96	1391.58	1028.59	362.99
All	100	422	634.44	526.20	108.24

Source: Survey data

The disposition of income between consumption and saving seems to be quite different between rural and urban households. The monthly per capita income (MPCI) is higher in urban sector for all MPCI classes except for the lowest class. For the sample Scheduled Caste households of both rural and urban sectors per capita monthly savings is found to be negative for the lowest income class and very low for the other lower income classes. Among rural Scheduled Caste households 82% of the income is spent for consumption and 17.84% is saved where as, in urban households the proportion of consumption is 83% and that of savings 17%. Average per capita monthly expenditure of rural households is Rs. 372 and the same for urban sector is Rs. 526. Average per capita monthly savings is Rs.78.42 in rural sector and Rs.108 for the urban sector. The proportion of savings is more or less same in both sectors. Scheduled Caste households of the sample areas are found to be belonging to lower income position and hence most of their income is allocated for consumption expenditure and hence their per capita savings are very low compared to general households. Even though most of urban sample households have higher monthly per capita income than rural households this is not reflected in their savings. This may be due to the influence of differences in spending habits between rural and urban areas.

6.1.9 Structure of houses

The general characteristics of a household like type of structure of houses, facilities like electricity, drinking water etc., and ownership of land, outstanding liabilities etc. give an idea about the standard of living of the study households. Table 6.10 gives the type of structure of sample Scheduled Caste households in the rural and urban sector.

Table 6.10. Type of structure of houses (%)

Sl. No	No. of rooms	Floor					Wall					Roof					Ownership	
		Mud	Cow dung	Cement	Mosaic	Tiles	Coco. Leaves	Wooden. Planks	Bricks. Plastered.	Bricks. non. plastered	Mud	Coco. Leaves	tiles	Asbestos.	Concrete	Own	Any other
Rural	2.95	18	49	32	0	0	5	3	37	13	36	29	60	4	3	72	28
Urban	3.02	17	25	56	2	0	0	6	56	19	19	22	63	4	6	53	47

Source: Survey data

It is found that most of the sample households live in very low standard houses both in rural and urban sector. In spite of the various types of housing aids provided to Scheduled Castes by different schemes their housing condition has not improved much for most of the households investigated. Average number of rooms in rural is 2.95 where as it is only 3.02 in urban sector.

6.1.10 Household facilities

Table 6.11 shows the general facilities available to sample households.22% of rural and 64% of urban sample households live in electrified houses. 17% of rural and 13% in urban have their own wells. The average distance to town is 18 kms in rural and 2.89 kms in urban area. While in rural area hospital facility is available within a distance of 2 kms, in the urban area the average distance to medical facility is only 0.86 km.

Table 6.11. General facilities available to sample households [% of households.]

	Electrified houses	Drinking water			Average distance (km) to		
		Own well	Neighbors	Public tap	Town	School	Hospital
Rural	22	17	33	43	18	2.46	2
Urban	64	13	31	38	2.89	1.83	0.86

Source: Survey data

6.1.11 Liabilities outstanding

Table 6.12 shows the outstanding liabilities of sample Scheduled Caste households for five per capita expenditure classes (MPCE). 43% of rural and 27% of urban sample households below MPCE of Rs. 400 depend on loans to meet their basic requirements. As already seen the sample households are in a very low-income position and so most of the households are in debt. 61% of rural and 54% in urban are in debt. It is observed that most of the households are in the grip of poverty. Poverty not surprisingly, has its own culture, if it exists and has long existed, people come to terms with it. They cease to struggle against the obtrusively normal for seemingly impossible[11].

Table 6.12 Outstanding Liabilities of sample households

MPCE Class	No of households with Loan rural	No of households with loan Urban
0-200	18	11
200-400	25	16
400-600	9	8
600-800	4	8
>800	5	11
Total	61	54

Source: Survey data

6.1.12 Ownership of land

Table 6.13 shows the nature of ownership of land by Scheduled Castes. Scheduled Castes in rural possess on an average 21.89 cents of land and in urban this is 8.22 cents. Land ownership of Scheduled Castes in the study area is very poor. Besides own land some of them are in ' Kudikidappu', 'Purampokku' lands and some in 'others[12]'

Table 6.13 Land ownership pattern of sample households

	Rural (Acre/ Cents)	Urban (acre/ Cents)
Own	21.89	8.22
Kudukidappu	0.00	0.08
Purampokke	0.05	0.38
Others	0.21	0.11
Total	19.95	8.38

Source: Survey data

6.2 Monthly per capita consumption expenditure

Expenditure-based indicator is used in most studies than income, as households tend to hold back information on income, but found more open about reporting real expenditure levels[13]. This is based on expenditures made by households to consume goods and services. Variations in income receipts and the inability or unwillingness of survey respondents to report completely and accurately how much income was received can cause income to be an unreliable measure of household economic resources. Obviously, when consumer income is under stated, the consumer unit can be classified as poor when it is not. Given these problems in measuring income, researchers have used total expenditures as a proxy for income. The theoretical basis for this substitution is the permanent income hypothesis. It suggests that consumers try to maintain a given level of consumption over time and are relatively unresponsive to transitory increases and decreases in income. Thus: compared with measures of annual income, annual total expenditures are a better representation of consumption patterns over the lifespan. One drawback of using total expenditures instead of income when assessing household's economic status is that a household might appear to be poor on the basis of total expenditures, when it is simply saving rather than spending. To overcome this drawback, it is suggested of using total expenditures in addition to, rather than instead of, income when assessing whether a household is above or below the poverty thresholds.

For a household, MPCE is household consumer expenditure over a period of 30 days divided by its household size. A person's MPCE is understood as that of the household to which he belongs[14]. Table 6.14 gives distribution of sample scheduled caste households over five classes of MPCE of the study area for rural and urban sectors.

Table 6.14 Distribution of sample population based on MPCE classes

Monthly per capita expenditure	Rural		Urban	
	Percentage of households	% Of population	Percentage of Households	% Of population
1-200	28	31.70	13	14.69
200-400	36	35.96	34	35.55
400-600	20	20.43	20	19.19
600-800	10	7.45	17	16.11
>800	6	4.47	16	14.45
100	100	100	100	100

Source: Survey data

It may be observed that among the rural sample households 28% were below the MPCE level of Rs. 200 compared to 13% for urban. Another 36% of sample rural households were in the range of Rs. 200 – Rs. 400 along with 34% of urban households. While 16% of sample urban households were above the MPCE level of >Rs 800,only 6%of the rural population belonged to the highest MPCE class.

Considerable variation in the distribution of households by MPCE was found in the two sectors. 28% of rural sample households and 13% in urban sample households were in the lowest MPCE class. Number of households was highest in the MPCE class of 200-400 in both rural and urban sectors. Number of households in the highest MPCE class of >Rs.800 was 6 rural in and 16 in urban. Figure 6.1 shows the distribution of population between MPCE classes for rural and urban sample areas.

Figure 6.1. Distribution of population between different MPCE classes
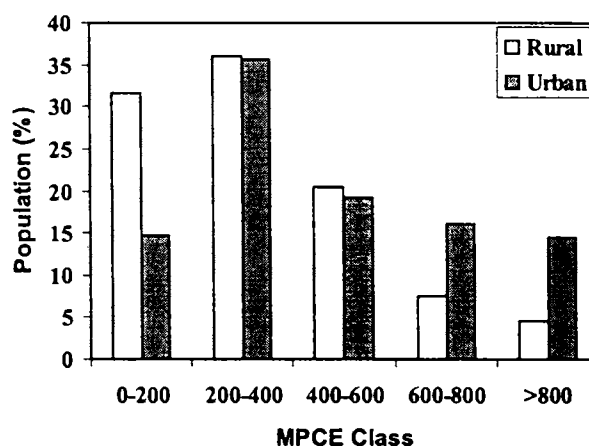
Source: Survey data

6.3 Average Monthly Per capita Consumption Expenditure

For general households the all India rural average MPCE was Rs. 486 in which Rs.288 was for food and Rs.187 for non-food as per NSSO 55th round [1999-2000]. For urban it was Rs.854 of which Rs.410 for food and Rs.444 for non-food The average MPCE in urban India exceeded average MPCE in rural by more than 60%.

In Kerala rural average MPCE was Rs. 766 of which Rs.411 was for food and Rs. 354 for non-food. For urban this was Rs. 932 in which Rs.457 for food and Rs.475 for non-food[15]. The average MPCE in urban Kerala exceeded average MPCE in rural Kerala by only 26%. For SC's as per NSSO 50th round data average MPCE in rural All India was Rs. 238 and for urban Rs. 346. Average MPCE of Scheduled castes for rural and urban sample areas are shown in Table.6.15

The average MPCE in the urban sector (Rs.526) exceeded the average MPCE in the rural area (Rs.372). Average Urban MPCE exceeded average rural MPCE by more than 30% for the sample SC population. It is found that the in the sample area SC's have a very low average MPCE.

Table 6.15. Average MPCE and Average household size

	Average household size	Average MPCE
Rural	4.70	372
Urban	4.22	526

Source: survey data

Average MPCE on broad groups of food and non-food items for sample SC households per person for each MPCE class in the rural and urban areas are given in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16 it is observed that there are wide rural and urban differences in the proportion of expenditure on food and non-food items for most of the expenditure classes. The proportion of non-food expenditure is higher for higher expenditure class and lower for lower expenditure class in rural sector. Similarly the proportion of food expenditure is higher for lower expenditure classes and lower for higher expenditure classes in rural sector. While the lowest expenditure class in rural sector spend 64.30% of their MPCE on food items, the highest expenditure class spend only 47.75%of their MPCE on food. Like wise while the proportion of expenditure of non-

food of the lowest expenditure class is 35.70%, the highest expenditure class spend 52.25% of their MPCE on non-food items.

Table 6.16 Distribution of sample households by expenditure on food and non-food items for various expenditure classes

MPCE class Rural	No. of households	Population %	MPCE	MPCE on food	MPCE on non-food
1-200	28	31.70	154.99 (100)	99.66 (64.30)	54.91 (35.70)
200-400	36	35.96	285.62 (100)	179.4 (62.79)	106.26 (37.21)
400-600	20	20.43	490.36 (100)	273.28 (55.73)	217.61 (44.27)
600-800	10	7.45	691.63 (100)	365.2 (52.85)	326.20 (47.15)
>800	6	4.47	985.16 (100)	470.39 (47.75)	514.90 (52.25)
Urban					
1-200	13	14.69	167.30 (100)	88.81 (53.08)	78.24 (46.91)
200-400	34	35.55	289.00 (100)	146.7 (50.8)	142.81 (49.43)
400-600	20	19.19	483.63 (100)	238.75 (49.37)	244.05 (50.63)
600-800	17	16.11	685.28 (100)	317.54 (46.34)	367.81 (53.66)
>800	16	14.45	1206.04 (100)	476.59 (39.52)	730.67 (60.48)

(Figures in brackets represent %.)

Source: Survey data.

A similar pattern is observed in the urban sector also. We see that lower expenditure classes spend more proportion of their total expenditure on food than higher expenditure classes. Proportion of expenditure on non-food of higher expenditure classes of urban sector is found much higher than the same of lower expenditure classes in the urban sector.

In case of urban sector the lowest expenditure class spend 53.08% of their MPCE on food items. The highest expenditure classes spend only 39.52% of their MPCE on food items. The proportion of expenditure on non-food items of the lowest expenditure class in the urban sector of 46.91% is much less than the same of the highest expenditure class in the urban sector (60.48%)

We find significant differences between rural Scheduled castes and urban Scheduled castes in their distribution of MPCE between food and non-food items. Considering the first expenditure class Rs.1-200 proportion of MPCE on food items in the rural sector was 64.30% while that of urban sector is much lower 53.08%.

For the second expenditure class Rs. 200-400, the proportion of MPCE on food items in the rural and urban sector were lower as 62.79% and 50.58% respectively. For the third expenditure class Rs. 400-600, the proportion of MPCE on food items in the rural sector is still lower as 55.73% and in the urban sector for the same class it was 49.37%.

Considering the fourth expenditure class Rs. 600-800, in the rural sector the proportion of MPCE on food items was only 52.85% and in the urban sector for the same class it was 46.34%. Regarding the fifth expenditure class >Rs. 800, in the rural sector the proportion of MPCE on food items was further lower as 47.75% to while in the urban for the same class for food items it was 39.52. We find that both in rural and urban sectors the proportion of MPCE on food items is declining as we move from lower to higher expenditure classes.

It was found that the proportion of expenditure on non-food items increased from lower to higher MPCE class in both rural and urban sector. Considering non-food item in the consumption basket of sample SC households for the first expenditure class Rs. 1-200 in the rural sector, the proportion of MPCE on non-food items was 35.70% and the same for the same class in the urban sector, the proportion of expenditure on non-food items was much higher 46.91%. In the rural sector for the second expenditure class Rs. 200-400 the proportion of MPCE on non-food items was 37.21%. While in the urban sector for the same class the proportion of MPCE on non-food items was 49.43%

For the third expenditure class in the rural sector Rs. 400-600 the proportion of MPCE on non-food items was higher as 44.27% and in the urban sector the MPCE on non-food items 50.63%. Regarding the fourth expenditure class Rs. 600-800 in the rural sector the proportion of MPCE on non-food item was 47.15% and in the urban sector for the fourth expenditure class the corresponding MPCE was 53.66%.

In the fifth expenditure class > Rs.800, the proportion of MPCE on non-food items in the rural sector was 52.25% and corresponding MPCE in the same class for urban sector was 60.48%.

Regarding non-food items moving from lower to higher expenditure class the proportion of MPCE on non-food is increasing. The decline in the proportion of MPCE on food items for the urban sector is more pronounced than rural sector. The increase in the proportion of MPCE on non-food items is more pronounced for urban sector than rural sector. We find that the influence of place of residence is very significant in the allocation of MPCE on food and non-food items by Scheduled castes.

6.4 Per capita expenditure on different items of consumption: Engel ratio Analysis.

The consumption pattern of Scheduled Caste households is analyzed by studying the differences in the expenditure on different items in the consumption baskets. The NSSO classifies expenditure into 33 items. Here for the present study data on 25 items have been collected and presented. This includes 12 food items and 13 non-food items. Among the food items expenditure on cooked food purchased is also included as a new item of expenditure. This is because we find a considerable number of households reporting consumption of cooked food purchased. Table 6.17 presents the average MPCE and Engel ratio estimated from household consumption data for rural an urban Scheduled Caste households. It attempts to examine the differences in their expenditure on each of food and non-food items.

The break up of MPCE of sample Scheduled Caste households is taken for 25 groups that is 12 food groups and 13 non- food groups for the sample rural and urban areas. The main features revealed by the survey data are as follows.

For the rural sector per capita 30 days consumer expenditure of Rs.372.57 was spilt up in to Rs. 211.90 on an average on food and Rs.160.67 for non-food. Food constituted 56.88% and non-food 43.12 % of MPCE. Among food items Cereals constituted 19.28 %, Meat, fish & egg 6.24 %, Vegetables 4.64 % and Fruits 4.62 %. The Engel ratio for cooked food purchased was 6.79 %, for Spices 3.43 % and for Milk & milk products only 2.62%.

Table 6.17. Average Monthly Expenditure per person on different items in the rural and urban areas

Sl.No	Item	Rural		Urban	
		Average MPCE (Rs.)	Engel ratio	Average MPCE (Rs.)	Engel ratio
1	Cereals	71.83	19.28	68.52	13.02
2	Pulses	5.71	1.53	7.81	1.48
3	Milk & milk products	9.74	2.62	19.28	3.66
4	Edible oil	12.36	3.32	16.31	3.10
5	Meat, fish & egg	23.23	6.24	29.34	5.57
6	Vegetables	17.3	4.64	17.93	3.41
7	Fruits	17.19	4.62	21.99	4.18
8	Sugar	7.27	1.95	10.22	1.94
9	Beverages	7.77	2.09	11.74	2.23
10	Salts	1.42	0.38	1.37	0.26
11	Spices	12.78	3.43	14.01	2.66
12	Cooked food purchased	25.28	6.79	20.75	3.94
13	Food total	211.9	56.88	239.23	45.5
14	Pan, tobacco & intoxicants	40.31	10.82	45.84	8.71
15	Fuel & light	21.35	5.73	44.71	8.5
16	Clothing	21.19	5.69	29.2	5.55
17	Footwear	2.61	0.70	2.57	0.49
18	Education	7.99	2.14	14.74	2.8
19	Medical	11	2.95	25.03	4.76
20	Entertainment	5.33	1.43	5.44	1.03
21	Goods for personnel care	11.19	3.00	17.87	3.4
22	Other misc. Goods.	11.83	3.17	16.03	3.05
23	Misc.Consumer goods=20+21+22	28.35	7.61	39.34	7.48
24	Travel	9.71	2.61	14.24	2.71
25	Rent	0	0	0	0
26	Taxes	0.19	0.05	2.5	0.48
27	Misc. goods and services=23+24+25+26	38.26	10.27	56.09	10.7
28	Durable goods	17.96	4.82	68.80	13.1
29	All non food total	160.67	43.12	286.97	54.5
30	Total consumer expenditure	372.57	100	526.2	100

Source: Survey data

Among non-food items, Engel ratio for Pan, tobacco & intoxicants alone accounted to 10.82 %. Miscellaneous consumer goods includes entertainments, Goods for personal care and effects, and other Miscellaneous goods. Here expenditure on services such as Medical services and Education are given separately and they are not included in Miscellaneous services. Miscellaneous services include expenditure on Travel, Rent and Taxes.

Among non-food items Miscellaneous goods and services constituted 10.27 %. Per capita expenditure on services such as Education and Medical services are given separately. While expenditure on Clothing and Footwear accounted 6.39 %, Fuel & light constituted 5.73 %. Engel ratio for Durable goods was 4.82 %, and for Education only 2.14 %.

For the urban sector average MPCE of Rs.526.20 was split up in to Rs.239.23 for food and Rs.208 for non-food expenditure. Food expenditure constituted 45.5% and non-food, 54.5 % of MPCE in the urban sector. Engel ratio for Cereals was 13.02 %, while for Meat, fish & egg was 5.57 %. Vegetables and Fruits together accounted 7.59 % and Milk & milk products constituted 3.66 % of MPCE in urban areas. For the urban sample expenditure on cooked food purchased from out side constituted 3.94 %.

For the urban sector among non-food items Pan, tobacco intoxicants alone accounted to 8.71 %. Miscellaneous consumer goods includes as in case of rural, entertainments, Goods for personal care and effects and other personal goods. Expenditure on services such as Medical services and Education are given separately they are not included in Miscellaneous services. Miscellaneous services include expenditure on Travel, Rent, and Taxes.

Among non-food items Miscellaneous goods and services constituted 10.7 %. While expenditure on Clothing and Footwear together accounted to 6.04 %, for Fuel & light it was 8.5 %. Expenditure for Durable goods accounted to 13.1 % of MPCE in the urban sector and Engel ratio for Education was 2.8 %.

Rural Expenditure levels per capita did not exceeded urban levels for all the item groups except Cereals and Salt.

6.5 Average Monthly Expenditure and Engel Ratios

Table 6.17 given earlier express estimated Engel ratios for all food and non-food items for rural and urban sample. It may be noted that the Engel ratio for food total (56.88%) is higher for rural sample and low for urban sample (Rs.45.46).

Regarding non-food items the Engel ratios of non-food total is higher in urban sample (54.54) than rural sample (43.12).

The estimated values of Engel ratios given in the Table are compared for rural and urban sample. Rural – urban differences in MPCE is pronounced in case of certain items. Among food items Engel ratio on the items Cereals, Pulses, Edible oil, Meat, fish & egg, Vegetables, Fruits, Sugar, Salt, Spices and cooked food purchased, rural expenditure exceeded urban. For the food items Milk & Milk products and Beverages, urban expenditure exceeded rural. For the food items Cereals, Cooked food and Vegetables rural expenditure is observed to be much higher than urban expenditure.

Important rural urban differences are found in the share of Cereals, (rural share exceeding urban by 6.26 % points. Households in urban sample spend more on non-food items compared to households in rural sample. Among non-food items Engel ratio on the items Pan, tobacco & intoxicants, Entertainments and footwear, rural expenditure exceeded urban. For all other non-food items Scheduled Caste in the urban sector spend higher than rural.

Urban Medical expenditure was higher by 127.5% than the same by rural households. Regarding Education the urban area monthly per capita expenditure was double than that of rural. It was found that rural expenditure on pan, tobacco intoxicants (Rs.40.31) was more or less closer to urban expenditure (Rs.45.84) on the same item. Non-food expenditure per person in the urban sector (286.97) was 79% higher than that in the rural sector (160.67).

Table 6.18 and 6.19 shows the rural urban differences in the share of food and non-food items.

Tables 6.18 Percentage Of MPCE on specific item groups: rural –urban differences.
Rural share>urban share

Sl. No	Item group	Rural	Urban
1	Cereals	19.28	13.02
2	Pulses	1.53	1.48
3	Edible oil	3.32	3.10
4	Meat Fish & Egg	6.24	5.57
5	Vegetables	4.64	3.41
6	Fruits	4.62	4.18
7	Sugar	1.95	1.94
8	Salt	0.38	0.26
9	Spices	3.43	2.66
10	Cooked food purchased	6.79	3.94
11	Food Total	56.88	45.46
12	Pan, Tobacco intoxicates	10.82	8.71
13	Cioth	5.69	5.55
14	Footwear	0.70	0.49
15	Miscellaneous consumer goods	3.17	3.05

Source: Survey data

Table 6.19 Urban Share > Rural Share

Item group	Rural	Urban
Milk & milk product	2.62	3.66
Beverages	2.09	2.23
Fuel & light	5.73	8.50
Education	2.14	2.80
Medical	2.95	4.76
Miscellaneous goods& Services	10.27	10.66
Durable goods	4.82	13.07

Source: Survey data

Among food items the highest rural-urban difference is found for the item Milk & milk products. Urban expenditure on the item is found higher by (Rs.9.5) than rural Among non-food items the highest rural-urban difference is found for item Durable goods. Average urban expenditure on the item is higher by (Rs.50.84) than rural sector.

An F-test was carried out to fined out if there is a significant difference between rural and urban areas with respect to total expenditure, expenditure on food and expenditure on non-food. The results are given in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20. Results of 'F' test

Items	Group	Mean Expenditure	F - value
Total expenditure	Rural	372.5672	12.2**
	Urban	526.1990	
Food total	Rural	211.9012	2.00ns
	Urban	239.2287	
Nonfood	Rural	160.6660	19.433**
	Urban	286.9703	

*Significant at 1 % level, ns – non significant at 5 % level
Survey data

Significant F-value indicates that the mean consumption is different for Rural and urban. In the case of food consumption, there is no significant difference in the mean consumption between two groups (rural and urban). Total expenditure is significantly higher in the urban group compared to rural group. Similarly non-food consumption was also higher in urban area. F value is founded significant in the case of total expenditure. The calculated value of F is 12.2 while tabled value of F at 1% level of significance is 3.5 Hence the difference is significant.

In the case of food items however the calculated F value is 2, which is found to be non- significant. Hence there is no significant difference between the rural and urban areas as far as food expenditure is concerned. On the contrary for non-food items the calculated value of F is equal to 19.433, the difference is significant at 1 % level.

6.6 **Percentage expenditure of each food item in total food expenditure and percentage expenditure of each non -food item in total non-food expenditures.**

Table 6.21 gives % of selected items of food in total food expenditure in rural and urban areas. Among food item sample rural SC households spend the highest % of 33.90 on Cereals while this is 28.64% in urban. Expenditure on cooked food purchased constitute 11.93% of total food expenditure in rural area and 8.67% in urban. Rural Scheduled castes spend 11% of their average MPCE on Meat, fish, and egg and urban Scheduled castes spend 12.26%. Other food items attracting more expenditure in both rural and urban are Vegetables, Fruits and Spices and Edible oil. Expenditure on Milk & milk products constitute 4.60% of total food expenditure and 8.04 % in urban sector.

Figures 6.2 and 6.3 gives % expenditure on selected item of food to total food and % expenditure on selected item of non –food to total non- food expenditure. Among the non-food items Pan, tobacco & intoxicants had the highest share in rural areas (25.09%). In urban areas too it come up to 15.97.

Table. 6.21 Percentage Expenditure on selected items of food to total food expenditure

Items	% Expenditure		
	Rural	Urban	All
Cereals	33.90	28.64	31.11
Pulses	2.70	3.26	3.00
Milk & milk products	4.60	8.04	6.42
Edible oil	5.84	6.82	6.36
Meat, fish & egg	10.96	12.26	11.65
Vegetables	8.17	7.50	7.81
Fruits	8.11	9.19	8.69
Sugar	3.43	4.27	3.88
Beverages	3.67	4.91	4.32
Salt	0.67	0.57	0.62
Spices	6.03	5.86	5.94
Cooked food purchased	11.93	8.67	10.20
Food total	100.00	100.00	100

Source: Survey data

Figure 6.2. Percentage expenditure on selected item of food to total food expenditure in rural and urban areas
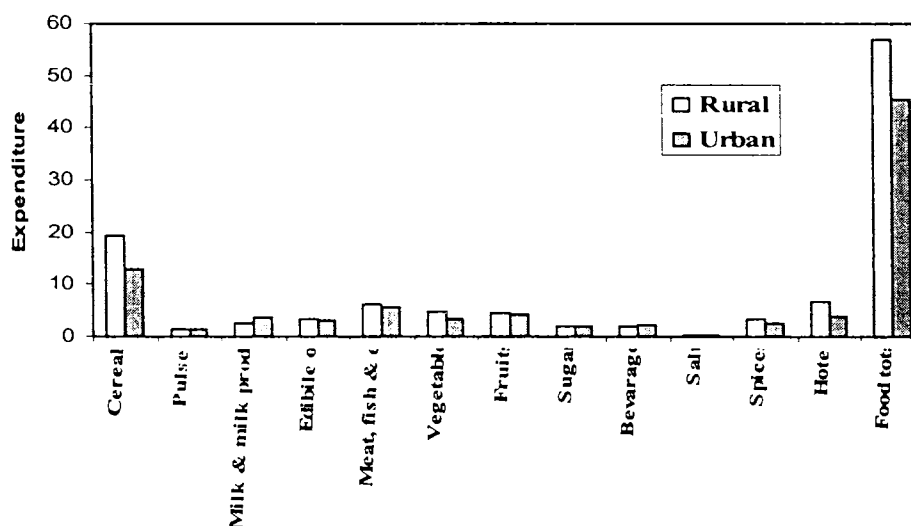
source : survay data

Table. 6.22. Percentage Expenditure on selected items of non-food to total non-food expenditures

Items	% Expenditure		
	Rural	Urban	All
tacco & intoxicants	25.09	15.97	19.25
l light	13.29	15.58	14.76
ng	13.19	10.17	11.26
ear	1.62	0.89	1.16
ation	4.97	5.14	5.08
al	6.84	8.72	8.05
ainment	3.32	1.90	2.41
for personnel care	6.97	6.23	6.49
bution	7.36	5.59	6.22
consumer goods	17.64	13.71	15.12
l	6.05	4 96	5.35
s	0.00	0.00	0.00
s	0.12	0.87	0.60
goods and services	23.81	19.54	21.08
le goods	11.18	23.97	19.38
food total	100	100	100

Survey Data

Figure 6.3. Percentage expenditure on selected item of non-food to total non-food expenditure in rural and urban areas
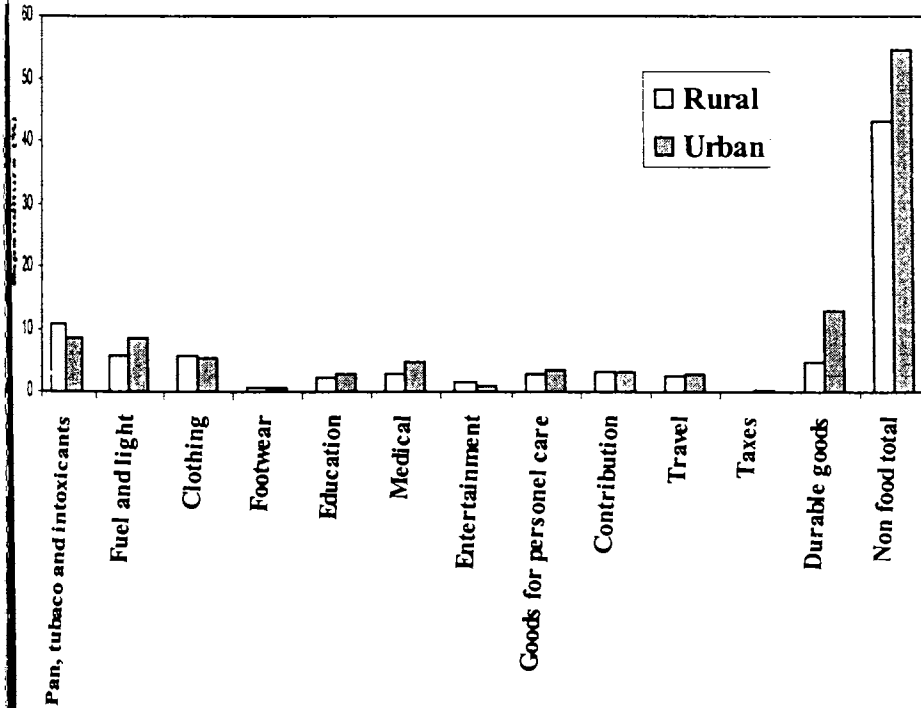
Survey data

6.7 Engel ratio at the disaggregate level for comparable expenditure classes

Consumption expenditure pattern of Scheduled caste households in the rural and urban sample areas belonging to different comparable monthly per capita consumption expenditure classes are presented in this section. The estimated Engel ratio on each food and non-food items is used for comparing the consumption expenditure pattern of households belonging to comparable MPCE class in rural and urban sectors. Differences if any between rural and urban households will show that the influence of place of residence on household's consumption pattern.

Table 6.23. Gives the average MPCE on broad groups of food and non-food items per person for a period of 30 days for each MPCE class of rural and Table 6.24 the same for urban sample.

Items	1-200	%	200-400	%	400-600	%	600-800	%	800-1000	%	All	%
Cereals	1.74	1.04	3.12	1.08	7.31	1.51	10.92	1.59	20.02	1.66	7.81	1.48
Pulses	0.14	0.08	5.62	1.94	15.48	3.20	21.18	3.09	66.35	5.50	19.24	3.66
Milk & milk products	4.52	2.70	9.48	3.28	16.44	3.40	22.18	3.24	34.01	2.82	16.31	3.10
Edible oil	4.79	2.87	15.23	5.27	33.46	6.92	38.57	5.63	64.27	5.33	29.34	5.57
Meat, fish & egg	5.04	3.01	9.03	3.13	13.32	2.75	29.13	4.25	41.19	3.42	17.93	3.41
Vegetables	7.90	4.72	9.72	3.36	21.98	4.54	30.21	4.41	50.83	4.21	21.99	4.18
Fruits	5.66	3.38	7.46	2.58	10.90	2.25	11.98	1.75	17.06	1.41	10.22	1.94
Sugar	1.61	0.96	6.87	2.38	11.86	2.45	16.61	2.42	25.01	2.07	11.74	2.23
Beverages	0.99	0.59	1.39	0.48	1.60	0.33	1.25	0.18	1.49	0.12	1.37	0.26
Salt	5.81	3.47	7.76	2.69	14.09	2.91	17.24	2.52	30.45	2.52	14.01	2.66
Spices	1.95	1.16	16.70	5.78	19.81	4.10	34.67	5.06	31.02	2.57	20.75	3.94
Hotel	48.67	29.09	53.79	18.61	72.51	14.99	83.62	12.20	94.90	7.87	68.52	13.02
Food total	88.81	53.08	146.17	50.58	238.75	49.37	317.54	46.34	476.59	39.52	239.23	45.46
Pan, tubaco and intoxicants	12.41	7.42	41.13	14.23	61.33	12.68	58.35	8.51	50.38	4.18	45.84	8.71
Fuel and light	30.13	18.01	39.21	13.57	50.79	10.50	46.16	6.74	59.08	4.90	44.71	8.50
Clothing	6.71	4.01	12.57	4.35	24.88	5.14	38.27	5.58	78.56	6.51	29.20	5.55
Footwear	0.57	0.34	0.99	0.34	2.31	0.48	2.86	0.42	7.55	0.63	2.57	0.49
Education	2.07	1.24	7.32	2.53	9.48	1.96	23.45	3.42	38.14	3.16	14.74	2.80
Medical	9.51	5.68	14.74	5.10	22.43	4.64	51.20	7.47	34.95	2.90	25.03	4.76
Entertainment	0.97	0.58	2.11	0.73	2.87	0.59	7.07	1.03	17.63	1.46	5.44	1.03
Goods for personnel care	5.16	3.09	10.04	3.47	18.14	3.75	22.85	3.33	39.19	3.25	17.87	3.40
Contribution	2.03	1.21	3.94	1.36	4.45	0.92	11.88	1.73	71.99	5.97	16.03	3.05
Misc. consumer goods = 20+21+22	8.16	4.88	16.09	5.57	25.47	5.27	41.79	6.10	128.81	10.68	39.34	7.48
Travel	2.08	1.25	4.61	1.60	6.43	1.33	10.98	1.60	57.83	4.79	14.24	2.71
Rent	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Taxes	0.08	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.31	0.06	1.35	0.20	13.75	1.14	2.50	0.48
Misc. goods and services= 23+24+25+26	10.32	6.17	20.71	7.16	32.21	6.66	54.11	7.90	200.38	16.62	56.08	10.66
Durable goods	6.51	4.04	6.15	2.14	40.63	8.57	93.40	13.62	261.62	21.59	68.80	13.07
All non food total	78.24	46.91	142.81	49.43	244.05	50.63	367.81	53.66	730.67	60.48	286.97	54.54
Total consumer expenditure	167.30	100.00	289.00	100.00	483.63	100.00	685.28	100.00	1206.04	100.00	526.20	100.00

Items	1-200	%	200-400	%	400-600	%	600-800	%	>800	%	All	All
Cereals	53.11	34.26	69.45	24.32	84.01	17.13	103.90	15.02	79.37	8.06	71.83	19.28
Pulses	2.03	1.31	4.66	1.63	7.67	1.56	9.44	1.36	16.49	1.67	5.71	1.53
Milk & milk products	2.42	1.56	6.82	2.39	16.86	3.44	7.75	1.12	41.12	4.17	9.74	2.62
Edible oil	6.49	4.18	11.10	3.89	13.27	2.71	18.95	2.74	33.36	3.39	12.36	3.32
Meat, fish & egg	7.59	4.90	19.04	6.67	31.93	6.51	38.16	5.52	67.53	6.86	23.23	6.24
Vegetables	6.33	4.09	11.67	4.08	29.16	5.95	29.90	4.32	41.81	4.24	17.30	4.64
Fruits	5.70	3.68	16.23	5.68	21.38	4.36	19.03	2.75	59.64	6.05	17.19	4.62
Sugar	3.63	2.34	6.75	2.36	8.04	1.64	13.61	1.97	14.29	1.45	7.27	1.95
Beverages	3.22	2.08	6.13	2.15	11.65	2.38	13.62	1.97	16.13	1.64	7.77	2.09
Salt	1.05	0.67	1.31	0.46	1.91	0.39	1.49	0.22	2.01	0.20	1.42	0.38
Spices	6.11	3.94	13.55	4.74	13.67	2.79	17.89	2.59	27.82	2.82	12.78	3.43
Cooked food purchased	1.99	1.28	12.63	4.42	33.73	6.88	91.78	13.27	70.83	7.19	25.28	6.79
Food total	99.66	64.30	179.34	62.79	273.28	55.73	365.52	52.85	470.39	47.75	211.90	56.88
Pan, tubaco and intoxicants	17.86	11.52	31.30	10.96	41.28	8.42	87.49	12.65	117.29	11.91	40.31	10.82
Fuel and light	15.30	9.87	18.51	6.48	22.05	4.50	30.50	4.41	49.01	4.97	21.35	5.73
Clothing	7.40	4.78	16.54	5.79	27.34	5.58	32.80	4.74	73.63	7.47	21.19	5.69
Footwear	0.65	0.42	1.80	0.63	4.37	0.89	4.31	0.62	7.90	0.80	2.61	0.70
Education	3.84	2.48	3.54	1.24	14.32	2.92	13.18	1.91	24.31	2.47	7.99	2.14
Medical	2.84	1.84	6.89	2.41	11.89	2.43	41.93	6.06	19.16	1.94	11.00	2.95
Entertainment	1.02	0.66	2.04	0.71	8.11	1.65	12.17	1.76	24.51	2.49	5.33	1.43
Goods for per. care	4.08	2.63	8.32	2.91	16.38	3.34	19.13	2.77	31.09	3.16	11.19	3.00
Contribution	0.66	0.43	6.08	2.13	27.65	5.64	9.44	1.37	49.67	5.04	11.83	3.17
Misc. consumer goods= 20+21+22	5.76	3.71	16.44	5.76	52.14	10.63	40.74	5.89	105.27	10.69	28.35	7.61
Travel	1.05	0.68	4.40	1.54	19.12	3.90	16.59	2.40	39.23	3.98	9.71	2.61
Rent	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Taxes	0.00	0.00	0.13	0.05	0.62	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.38	0.04	0.19	0.05
Misc. goods and services=23+24+25+26	6.81	4.39	20.97	7.34	71.87	14.66	57.33	8.29	144.88	14.71	38.26	10.27
Durable goods	0.21	0.40	6.71	2.36	24.48	4.88	58.65	8.47	78.74	7.98	17.96	4.82
All non food	54.91	35.70	106.26	37.21	217.61	44.27	326.20	47.15	514.90	52.25	160.67	43.12
Total consumer expenditure	154.99	100.00	285.62	100.00	490.36	100.00	691.63	100.00	985.16	100.00	372.57	100.00

Average MPCE for five expenditure classes separately for each item of expenditure and for the aggregate rural sample and urban sample are presented in the table. Engel ratio for comparable expenditure classes of rural and urban sample is compared here between rural and urban households.

In the lowest MPCE class Rs.1-200, among food items the estimated Engel ratios are found to be the lower for urban households for the items Cereals, Pulses, Milk & milk products, Edible oil, meat, fish, and egg, Vegetables, Beverages, Salt and Spices and higher for Fruits, Sugar and expenditure on cooked food purchased.

Among non-food items, the Engel ratio is found lower in urban households for the items Fuel & light, Medical expenses, Goods for personal care, Travel, Taxes and Durable goods. It is found that between households belonging to same expenditure classes in rural and urban there are significant differences in the expenditure pattern especially in case of non-food items.

In the second MPCE class Rs.200-400, Engel ratios are found to be higher in the rural sector for the food items, Cereals Milk & milk products, Edible oil, Meat, fish & egg, Vegetables, Fruits, Spices and expenditure on cooked food purchase. The urban households of the same MPCE classes have higher Engel ratio for the items Sugar, Beverages, and Salt.

Among non-food items expenditure is higher for rural households for the items Clothing, Footwear and Durable goods. For the items Pan, tobacco & intoxicants, Fuel & light, Education Medical expenses, expenditure on Entertainment, and Goods for personal care and effects, Engel ratio for urban households are found high. It is found that regarding consumption of almost all food items, place of residence does not have much influence. But regarding non-food items the difference between rural and urban households in Engel ratio is much higher and this shows for this MPCE class of households. Thus it is found that urban households have more preference to wards spending on non-food items even among Scheduled caste households as similar to the case of general households in Kerala as per NSSO data.

Considering the third MPCE class Rs.400-600 estimated Engel ratios are and to be higher among the food items for rural households for the items Cereals, ʰlses, Milk & milk products Vegetables and expenditure on cooked food purchased. ᵢₚenditure of urban sample Scheduled caste households estimated Engel ratios were and higher for the food items Edible oil, Meat, fish & egg, Fruits, Sugar, ᵢᵥerages, Salt and Spices.

Among non-food items Engel ratio is higher for urban households on the ᵢₑₘs pan, tobacco, Fuel & light. Rural households had higher Engel ratio only on ᵢₙ-food items such as Clothing Footwear, Education, Entertainment and travels.

We find that as we are moving to ward higher MPCE class, even for ᵢₐₙy of the food items like Beverages meat, fish, and egg urban households reported ᵢₓher Engel ratios. In the urban sector expenditure on non-food is found to be ᵢₛnificantly different from rural expenditure.

In the next expenditure class Engel ratio is found to be significantly ᵢₓher for rural sample households among food items only on items such as Cereals, ᵢₙd expenditure on cooked food purchased. Regarding non-food items Engel ratio for ᵢₑ items pan, tobacco& intoxicants and Travel were found significantly higher for ᵢᵤral households.

Urban sample households Engel ratio of expenditure on non-food item ₛᵤch as Fuel & light, Clothing, Education, Goods for personal care and Durable goods ᵢₑₑ found much higher than the rural sample households. It is found that for the ᵢᵣban upper MPCE class, non-food expenditure is significantly higher than other ₛₐₘple households. This is similar to what is revealed through NSSO data over the ᵢₑᵣiod from 1983-2000 for Kerala.

For the highest expenditure class >Rs.800 it is found that expenditure on ᵢₒod items like Cereals constituting very smaller proportion of average MPCE as ₑₒmpared to previous MPCE classes in both rural and urban sectors. In rural upper ᵢₘPCE class sample Scheduled caste households Engel ratios for the food items

reals Meat, fish & egg, Edible oil and cooked food purchased are found to be significantly higher than urban.

It is found that rural Scheduled caste households in the upper MPCE ranges shows more preference towards nutritious food items such as meat fish & egg, edible oil, Fruits etc. Expenditure on purchased cooked food is found common among all classes of rural Scheduled caste households and high among higher MPCE classes of rural Scheduled caste households. For the lower MPCE classes this tendency is found to be influenced by their particular occupation status. In the rural sector most of them being agricultural labourers and other labourers they have to be away from their home for most of the day. They depend on the food available in the hotels during especially in noon. But for the upper MPCE classes this may be viewed as a part of increasing preference towards imitation of general consumption pattern of the affluent sections in Kerala - a tendency increasingly observed in the consumption pattern of Kerala households - in recent years.

Regarding non-food items it is found that expenditure on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants is higher for all MPCE classes in both rural and urban. The Engel ratio for this item is found much higher for upper MPCE classes of rural sample. For the rural sample for the non-food items Clothing and Footwear and Entertainment also Engel ratio is found to be significantly higher than urban sector. Urban non-food items such as Education, Goods for personal care & effects, Travel and Durable goods showed higher Engel ratio than rural households.

A very important observation is that while upper MPCE households of urban sample show conspicuous consumption of Durable goods, Travel Goods for personal care & effects, Education etc, those of rural sector show similar consumption pattern for items such as pan, tobacco& intoxicants, Clothing, Footwear and entertainments. Besides the variable geographical factor has got significant influence on consumption pattern of Scheduled castes and rural urban differences are found to be much prominent regarding non-food expenditure.

Elasticity of Consumption Expenditure

Regression Analysis

In this section regression analysis has been used to find out the relation between expenditure on each food and non-food items and total expenditure of sample households. Among the many alternative forms available the following specifications are tried; Linear, double log, log inverse and for rural and urban sample. Among them Double log and Log inverse forms are presented here. The results for the other two forms; Linear and Log log inverse forms are given in Appendix II

The models used are;

a. **Linear :** $E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta E_j + u_j$

b. **Double log :** $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta \log E_j + u_j$

c. **Log Inverse :** $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta (1/E_j) + u_j$

d. **Log-log Inverse :** $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta \log E_j + \gamma \dfrac{1}{E_j} + u_j$

Where Eij is the MPCE of the ith item by j[th] household Ej is the total monthly per capita expenditure of jth household. α, β and γ shows parameters to be estimated and u is the random disturbance term.

6.1.1 Estimates using Double Log function

Table 6.25 and 6.26 presents regression analysis results using double log model for rural and urban sample SC households. The model is estimated using ordinary least squares [OLS]100 households in rural and 100 households in urban are used in the two Tables.

Expenditure elasticity has been estimated. The calculated values of β represented as $\hat{\beta}$ in each equation shows expenditure elasticity. Estimates for each item of food and non- food (24 items: 12 food and 12 non-food) are presented. For both rural and urban sample.

β is found to be statistically significant at 1% level for Cereals, Pulses, able oil, Meat, fish & egg, Fruits, Sugar, Beverages, Spices, pan, tobacco, & axicants, Fuel & light, Clothing, Footwear, Education, Medical, Entertainment, avel, Goods for personal care and Durable goods and at 5% level of significance athe items, Milk & milk products, Vegetables, Salt, and cooked food purchased.

In the rural sample among food items the highest elasticity is for the apenditure on cooked food, the next being Vegetables. Other items with high asticity are Meat, fish & egg (0.9979), Beverages (0.8936), Fruits (0.8204) and able oil (0.8195). Cereals being a necessary item the elasticity of Cereals 0.3170. It sfound to be the second lowest among food items next to Salt (0.2520).

Table 6.25 Consumption pattern of rural households
Estimated regression model: $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta \log E_j + u_j$

Items	$\hat{\alpha}$	$\hat{\beta}$	SE ($\hat{\beta}$)	t - value	R^2
areals	2.3718	0.3170	0.0590	55.377**	0.4773
ases	-3.1918	0.8638	0.1213	7.121**	0.6563
ik & milk products	-0.8259	0.6304	0.2802	2.25*	0.3600
able oil	-2.4020	0.8195	0.0703	11.657**	0.7622
eat, fish & egg	-2.9338	0.9979	0.1204	8.290**	0.6559
egetables	-3.2438	1.0017	0.1208	8.290*	0.6559
ats	-2.1232	0.8204	0.1136	7.225**	0.6059
gar	-2.1768	0.6897	0.0733	9.405**	0.6888
everages	-3.3387	0.8936	0.0868	10.297**	0.7281
at	-1.2613	0.2520	0.1098	2.296*	0.2472
aces	-1.6392	0.6987	0.0826	8.462**	0.6517
aked food purchased	-3.5945	1.2163	0.2025	6.008*	0.7027
an, tobacco & intoxicants	-1.4558	0.8078	0.1699	4.753**	0.4479
al & light	0.4378	0.4339	0.0698	6.215**	0.5317
athing	-3.7835	1.1317	0.0801	14.122**	0.8188
aotwear	-5.8929	1.1314	0.1172	9.655**	0.7212
aucation	-4.0914	1.0876	0.1455	7.477**	0.7006
ledical	-4.0868	1.0323	0.1653	6.247**	0.5702
atertainment	-3.0035	0.8598	0.2437	3.529**	0.4968
avel	-7.3259	1.5987	0.1884	8.484**	0.7357
ads for personal care	-3.6671	1.0043	0.1032	9.731**	0.7065
urable goods	-7.6968	1.6893	0.5315	3.178**	0.4403

* significant at 5% level; ** significant at 1% level; ns - no significant

ace: Survey data

While items such as expenditure on cooked food purchased constitute the most luxury item among food items Vegetables, Meat, fish & egg, Beverages are also luxurious items in the food basket of rural SC households.

Among non-food items expenditure elasticity is lowest for the item Fuel & light (0.4339) and next Pan, tobacco & intoxicants (0.8078) for rural sample SC households.

Expenditure elasticity is found to be highest for the items Durable goods (1.6893) and next Travel (1.5987). Other non-food items with higher expenditure elasticity are Clothing, Footwear, Education, Medical expenses and Goods for personal care and effects. Expenditure on Entertainment also has higher expenditure elasticity

We find that for the rural SC households of the sample area non-food items Fuel & light and pan, tobacco& intoxicants are necessary items and other items such as Clothing, Footwear, Education, Medical expenses and Goods for personal care and effects are luxurious items of consumption.

Estimated Double log regression model for urban sample is given in Table 6.26

Table 6.26 Consumption pattern of urban households Estimated regression model:

$$\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta \log E_j + u_j$$

Items	$\hat{\alpha}$	$\hat{\beta}$	SE($\hat{\beta}$)	t - value	R^2
Cereals	1.8659	0.3772	0.0483	7.814**	0.6196
Pulses	-3.7211	0.9287	0.1086	8.552**	0.7099
Milk & milk products	-2.6748	0.9635	0.1542	6.247**	0.6983
Edible oil	-3.2782	0.9609	0.0636	15.100**	0.8376
Meat, fish & egg	-4.6048	1.2489	0.0983	12.712**	0.7936
Vegetables	-3.8619	1.0682	0.0858	12.453**	0.7971
Fruits	-3.5681	1.0442	0.6897	11.647**	0.7685
Sugar	-1.1756	0.5491	0.0757	7.253**	0.5910
Beverages	-3.1065	0.8716	0.1061	8.216**	0.6568
Salt	-1.0464	0.2072	0.0800	2.59*	0.2607
Spices	-3.2327	0.9258	0.0731	12.668**	0.7879
Cooked food purchased	1.5684	0.3053	0.1792	1.703ns	0.2436
Pan, tobacco & intoxicants	0.8058	0.4617	0.1294	3.568**	0.3521
Fuel & light	1.5929	0.3460	0.0666	5.196**	0.4648
Clothing	-4.4578	1.2288	0.0745	16.483**	0.8608
Footwear	-5.1592	0.9673	0.1198	8.074**	0.6868
Education	-3.4263	1.0050	0.1901	5.287**	0.5770
Medical	-2.0431	0.8058	0.1712	4.706**	0.4611
Entertainment	-3.1950	0.8737	0.1746	5.004**	0.6458
Travel	-5.9223	1.3294	0.1858	7.157**	0.6817
Goods for personal care	-3.1533	0.9450	0.0871	10.846**	0.7403
Durable goods	-12.5772	2.4521	0.3719	6.593**	0.6007

*Significant at 5% level; ** significant at 1% level; ns - no significant

Source: Survey data

Among food items the elasticity is found to be low for Salt (0.2072), ded food purchased (0.3053), Cereals (0.3772) and Sugar (0.5491). Among food as highest elasticity of expenditure is for Meat, fish & egg (1.2489). Other items a higher expenditure elasticities are Vegetables, Fruits, Milk & milk products, :ble oil, Spices, Pulses, and Beverages.

We find that in the urban sector also Cereals form a basic necessary item expenditure for the sample area. Other necessary items are Sugar, Salt, cooked od purchased.

Urban Scheduled caste households consider Meat, fish & egg as the most aurious items among food items. Other luxurious items are Vegetables, Fruits, Milk milk products, Edible oil, Pulses, Spices and Beverages.

For the urban are among non-food items expenditure elasticity is lowest x the item Fuel & light (0.3416). Items like Pan, tobacco & intoxicants (0.4617) also as low elasticity of expenditure compared to other non-food items for urban sample X households. Highest expenditure elasticity is found for the items Durable goods :4521) and the next highest Travel (1.3294). Other items with higher elasticities are Jothing (1.2288) and Education (1.0050). Goods for personal care (0.9450), Jotwear (0.9673) and Entertainment (0.8737) have comparatively lower elasticity of xpenditure compared other non-food items for urban sector households.

It is found that for the urban sample households also the non-food items Fuel & light, and Pan, tobacco & intoxicants form the basic necessary items of xpenditure. For them the expenditure on Durable goods forms the most luxurious item expenditure. Expenditure on Travel, Clothing, and Education are also luxurious items in the expenditure list of SC's in urban sector. Urban SC's do not consider purchase of Footwear and Goods for personal care and effects and expenditure on Entertainment to be luxurious expenditure.

6.8.1.2 Rural – Urban differences for food items

For both rural and urban sample households, Cereals form the basic necessary item of consumption. It is found that the elasticity of expenditure on Cereals is higher for urban sector compared to rural sector.

While expenditure on the cooked food purchased is a luxury items in rural ple it is found as a necessary item in urban sample. Expenditure on Sugar is a ury item for rural households while the same is a necessary item for urban SC seholds. Meat, fish & egg forms a luxury good for both rural and urban seholds but the elasticity of expenditure for the item is higher for urban sector. r the rural sector elasticity of expenditure for Vegetables is higher than that for at, fish & egg, the same is lower than that for Meat, fish & egg in urban sector. an sector sample households are showing a preference towards Vegetables apared to the item Meat, fish & egg than rural households.

Milk & milk products have higher elasticity of expenditure in the urban tor while it is lower for rural sample Scheduled caste households. The item is more a necessary one in the food basket of rural Scheduled castes. This may be mainly ause of the share of consumption out of home grown stock in the rural sector.

Beverages form a luxury item for the rural and urban Scheduled castes. ut the elasticity of the item to total expenditure is found to be higher for urban sector an rural sector. Urban households show more preference towards the item compared rural SC's.

8.1.3 Rural – Urban differences for non-food items.

Elasticity of expenditure for non-food shows that Fuel & light and Pan, bacco & intoxicants are basic necessary items of consumption for both rural and ban Scheduled caste households. Elasticity of expenditure for Fuel & light is higher r rural sector than urban sector.

One important observation regarding the sample SC households in the udy area is that Pan, tobacco & intoxicants is a less elastic item of non-food penditure in both rural and urban sample. SC population of the sample area gardless of rural and urban consider it as a basic necessary item of non-food. The asticity of expenditure for the item is low for the urban sector compared to rural ctor. For urban sector SC households, the elasticity of expenditure on Pan, tobacco intoxicants is closer to that of expenditure on Cereals.

Expenditure on Durable goods is considered a luxurious consumption by both rural and urban sector. The elasticity of expenditure on the item is found for urban sector somewhat double than that of rural sector. The item Goods for care showed higher expenditure elasticity in rural than urban. Households in sample show more preference towards consumption of the item than rural.

Entertainment expenditure has shown lower expenditure elasticity in sector than rural sector. Urban households show more preference towards ing on Entertainment than rural households. Travel expenditure has shown as of a luxury good both for rural and urban. The elasticity for the item is found for rural than urban sample.

Clothing expenditure has shown lower expenditure elasticity in urban than rural sector. But the difference is not as high as observed in case of other food items. Expenditure on Footwear showed that the elasticity of expenditure on item is much lower in urban than the same in rural sector. To the urban households it is more of a necessary good compared to rural. Education expenditures shown higher expenditure elasticity in rural than urban. In case of expenditure medicals, urban households have lower expenditure elasticity than rural households

6.1.4 Log inverse Model

Table 6.27 and 6.28 presents regression analysis results using log inverse model for rural and urban sample SC households. The model is estimated using ordinary least squares [OLS]

Expenditure elasticity has been estimated. The calculated values of β presented as $\hat{\beta}$ in each equation shows expenditure elasticity. The tables show regression equations for each item of food and non- food (24 items: 12 food and 12 non-food) for both rural and urban sample.

All the $\hat{\beta}$ values are tested using 't' test. B values are significant 1% level for Cereals, Pulses, Milk & milk products, Edible oil, Meat, fish & egg, Vegetables,

fruits, Sugar, Beverages, Salt, Spices, cooked food purchased, pan, tobacco, & intoxicants, Fuel & light, Clothing, Footwear, Education, Medical, Travel, Goods for personal care and Durable goods and at 5% for entertainment.

Table 6.27 Consumption pattern of rural households
Estimated regression model: $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta\left(1/E_j\right) + u_j$

Items	$\hat{\alpha}$	$\hat{\beta}$	SE ($\hat{\beta}$)	t - value	R^2
Cereals	4.515	-90.773	19.451	-4.665**	0.425
Pulses	2.664	-227.375	38.860	-5.851**	0.579
Milk & milk products	4.116	-278.793	62.180	-4.484**	0.560
Edible oil	3.108	240.584	21.515	-11.182**	0.749
Meat, fish & egg	4.154	-334.306	31.702	-10.545**	0.734
Vegetables	3.666	-262.579	28.520	-9.208**	0.694
Fruits	3.672	-243.331	32.308	-7.532**	0.620
Sugar	2.642	-225.735	23.357	-9.664**	0.697
Beverages	2.974	-281.929	26.120	-10.794**	0.742
Salt	0.722	-115.215	25.535	-4.512**	0.430
Spices	2.883	-142.854	25.409	-5.622**	0.492
Cooked food purchased	4.892	-434.311	54.560	-7.960**	0.833
Pan, tobacco & intoxicants	4.330	-299.699	49.099	-6.104**	0.543
Fuel & light	4.035	-211.310	29.701	-7.115**	0.582
Clothing	3.970	-328.038	25.657	-12.785**	0.792
Footwear	1.580	-263.442	32.044	8.221**	0.666
Education	3.830	-402.576	50.817	-7.922**	0.740
Medical	3.692	-408.398	46.325	-8.816**	0.685
Entertainment	3.570	-481.944	170.11	-2.833*	0.535
Travel	3.671	-478.704	67.103	-7.134**	0.717
Goods for personal care	3.335	-296.698	27.752	-10.691**	0.734

*Significant at 5% level; ** significant at 1% level; ns – non significant
Source: Survey data

The expenditure elasticity of Cereals. It is found to be the lowest among food items next to Salt. It is understood that Cereals constitute the necessary item. In the rural sample among food items the highest elasticity is for the item expenditure on cooked food purchased, the next being meat, fish &egg. Other items with high elasticity are Beverages, Milk & milk products and Vegetables

To the rural households Cereals constitute the basic item of consumption. Spices have lower elasticity values compared to other food items.

While items such as expenditure on cooked food purchased constitute the most luxury item among food items. Meat, fish & egg, Beverages and Milk & milk products are also luxurious items in the food basket of rural Scheduled caste households.

Among non-food items expenditure elasticity is lowest for the item Fuel & light and next Footwear and next, Pan, tobacco & intoxicants for rural sample Scheduled caste households.

Expenditure elasticity is found to be highest for the items Durable goods and next Entertainment. Other non-food items with higher expenditure elasticity are Travel, Education, Medical expenses, Clothing and Goods for personal care and effects.

We find that for the rural Scheduled caste households of the sample area non-food items Fuel & light, Footwear and pan, tobacco& intoxicants are necessary items and other items such as Durable goods, Entertainment, Travel, Medical, Education, Medical expenses and Clothing are luxurious items of consumption.

Among food items the elasticity is found to be low for Salt, Cereals and Sugar, cooked food purchased. Among food items highest elasticity of expenditure is for Milk & milk products. Other items with higher expenditure elasticities are Meat, fish & egg, Pulses, Beverages, and Vegetables.

We find that in the urban sector also Cereals form a basic necessary item of expenditure for the sample area. Other necessary items are Sugar, Salt, cooked food purchased and Edible oil

Urban Scheduled caste households consider Milk & milk products and Meat, fish & egg as the most luxurious items among food items. Other luxurious items are Pulses and Beverages

Table 6.28 Consumption pattern of urban households

Estimated regression model: $\log E_{ij} = \alpha + \beta\left(1/E_j\right) + u_j$

s	$\hat{\alpha}$	$\hat{\beta}$	SE($\hat{\beta}$)	t-value	R^2
eals	4.453	-97.589	13.954	-6.994**	0.579
es	2.856	-333.909	41.466	-8.053**	0.691
& milk products	4.481	-763.826	121.489	-6.287**	0.749
le oil	3.399	-258.303	21.419	-12.060**	0.775
t fish & egg	3.869	-353.655	37.415	-9.452**	0.704
etables	3.351	-309.918	34.952	-8.867**	0.685
ts	3.383	-271.469	32.475	-8.359**	0.655
ar	2.583	-159.777	22.653	-7.053**	0.582
erages	2.938	-321.399	38.671	-8.311**	0.663
	0.230	-54.985	27.405	-2.006**	0.215
es	3.241	-275.990	24.163	-11.422**	0.759
ked food purchased	4.159	-246.849	72.551	-3.402**	0.417
tobacco & intoxicants	4.034	-170.819	41.322	-4.134**	0.398
l & light	3.621	-96.64	21.714	-4.451**	0.412
hing	3.920	-327.717	28.007	-11.701**	0.767
twear	1.895	-413.082	56.107	-7.362**	0.650
ation	3.23	-251.177	51.472	-4.88**	0.527
ical	3.131	-222.917	66.918	-3.331**	0.359
rtainment	2.959	-308.739	59.227	5.213**	0.582
el	3.549	-477.159	60.543	-7.881**	0.681
ds for personal care	3.357	-314.715	34.458	-9.133**	0.686
ble goods	5.24	-796.968	108.124	-7.371**	0.651

nificant at 5% level; ** significant at 1% level; ns – non significant

e: Survey data

For urban among non-food items expenditure elasticity is lowest for the
n Fuel & light. Items like Pan, tobacco & intoxicants also has low elasticity of
enditure compared to other non-food items for urban sample Scheduled caste
seholds. Highest expenditure elasticity is found for the items Durable goods and
next highest Travel. Other items with higher elasticities are Footwear, Clothing,
ds for personal care and Entertainment Medical and Education have
iparatively lower elasticity of expenditure compared other non-food items for
an sector households.

It is found that for the urban sample households the non-food items Fuel
light, and Pan, tobacco & intoxicants form the basic necessary items of
enditure. For them the expenditure on Durable goods forms the most luxurious
i of expenditure. Expenditure on Travel, Footwear are also luxurious items in the

nditure list of Scheduled castes in urban sector. For Urban Scheduled castes
base of Goods for personal care and effects and expenditure on Entertainment
comparatively higher expenditure elasticity

1.5 Rural – Urban differences for food items.

For both rural and urban sample Cereals form the basic necessary item of
sumption. It is found that the elasticity of expenditure on Cereals is higher for
an sector compared to rural sector.

While expenditure on the cooked food purchased is a luxury items in rural
mple it is found as a necessary item in urban sample. Expenditure on Sugar is a
ury item for rural households while the same is a necessary item for urban
cheduled caste households. Meat, fish & egg forms a luxury good for both rural and
ban households but the elasticity of expenditure for the item is higher for urban
ctor. For the rural and urban sectors elasticity of expenditure for Vegetables is
ver than that for Meat, fish & egg. Urban as well as rural sector sample households
showing a preference towards Vegetables compared to the item Meat, fish & egg.

Milk & milk products have higher elasticity of expenditure in the urban
ctor while it is lower for rural sample Scheduled caste households. The item is more
a necessary one in the food basket of rural Scheduled castes. This may not because
ey are purchasing the item due to its nutritional value but mainly because of the
are of consumption out of homegrown stock in the rural sector.

Beverages have higher elasticity in urban sector. It forms a luxury item
in the urban Scheduled castes. But its elasticity is lower for rural sector. For rural
ouseholds it is more of a necessary good.

8.1.6 Rural – Urban differences for non-food items.

Elasticity of expenditure for non-food shows that Fuel & light has very
low elasticity in urban sector than rural. Pan, tobacco & intoxicants are basic
necessary items of consumption for both rural and urban Scheduled caste households.

One important observation regarding the sample Scheduled caste
holds in the study area is that Scheduled caste population of the sample area
less of rural and urban consider it as a basic necessary item of non-food. The
ity of expenditure for the item is lower for the urban sector compared to rural
Expenditure on Durable goods is considered a luxurious consumption by
duled casts in both rural and urban sector. The elasticity of expenditure on the
is found equal for both areas. The item Goods for personal care showed higher
nditure elasticity in urban than rural. For rural elasticity for the item is lesser.

Entertainment expenditure has shown higher expenditure elasticity in
sector than urban sector. Urban households show more preference towards
ding on Entertainment than rural households. Travel expenditure has shown
ures of a luxury good both for rural and urban. The elasticity for the item is found
for rural than urban sample.

Clothing expenditure has shown lower expenditure elasticity in urban
tor than rural sector (Almost same). But the difference is not as high as observed
se of other non-food items. Expenditure on Footwear showed that the elasticity
expenditure on the item is much lower in rural than the same in urban sector.
ation expenditures have shown higher expenditure elasticity in rural than urban.
case of expenditure on medicals, urban households have lower expenditure
sticity than rural households.

Hence the first hypothesis has been accepted which states that there is
nificant difference in the consumption elasticity of different items among
heduled caste households.

Factors that influence Consumption Pattern

Consumption pattern of households is increasingly determined by
ifferent variables. Consumption standards of persons belonging to different income
vels, different occupations etc. differs significantly. In the present study four
riables determining consumption pattern of households are considered. They are:
ccupation, Education, Income and Place of residence.

Occupation and MPCE

Differences in MPCE among occupational types: rural

Table 6.29 below gives the distribution of population among different occupations and MPCE classes in the rural sector. MPCE distributions have been carried out for each occupation category for sample SC population. This enables to see whether occupational factors have influence on MPCE levels. It looks in to other disparities in MPCE are of same nature or different for different occupational categories in rural and urban sectors.

The % of persons with MPCE <200 in rural sample for 'other labour' households was 24.16% while for agricultural labour households it was 12.08. In the employed category the % was 4.03. "Others[16]" (includes students, aged, children unemployed) category accounted for 55.70 % of persons with MPCE <200 in sample. The least % was in 'farmer' and 'employed in Government' categories.

In the urban the % of "Others" accounted for 54.84 % of persons in the lowest MPCE class. The percentage was high among "other labour households", that is 5.81% in the urban sector also. This was slightly higher comparing with that of it. Agricultural labour households accounted for 12.90 % of such persons.

From the MPCE position given in the Table we find that "other labour households" and agricultural labour households are in very low MPCE levels among sample Scheduled caste households in both rural and urban sectors. More % of population falling in the lowest MPCE range is indicative of the very low standard of living and consumption levels of Scheduled caste population in rural and urban sectors

Table 6.29. Percentage of persons in different MPCE classes among different occupation types

Occupation	1-200	200-400	400-600	600-800	>800	All
Agricultural labour	12.08	21.89	16.67	34.29	4.76	17.87
Farmer	0.67	1.78	2.08	2.86	4.76	1.70
Other labours	24.16	27.81	21.88	17.14	38.10	25.11
Employed						
a. Private firm etc	2.68	4.73	10.42	17.14	19.05	6.81
b. Government	0.67	0.59	5.21	5.71	9.52	2.34
c. Self	4.03	2.96	2.08	0.00	4.76	2.98
Others	55.70	40.24	41.67	22.86	19.04	43.38
All	100	100	100	100	100	100

Considering the lower MPCE tail it is found that 40.24 % of populations
in MPCE class of Rs200-400 are not making an earning[17]. Among others who
are, the % of "other labourers" constitutes 27.81% and agricultural labours 21.89
The lowest % is for "Employed in Government". Only 0.59 % of those belonging
Rs.200-400 MPCE class is having regular employment % of self-employed
households are also comparatively lesser for this class (2.96%).

Considering the upper MPCE tail (> Rs.800), only 19.04 % are belonging
"others" category in rural sector. Here in this MPCE class the highest % is for
other labourers' (38.10%). The % of population in the occupation class "employed in
private" (19.05) and "employed in Government" (9.52) are much higher here
compared to other MPCE classes. Besides the % of "self employed" also is the
highest in this class as compared to the % of self-employed in other MPCE classes.

Thus in the upper MPCE tail the % of unemployed and dependents are
low and more % of population have better occupational status. These are the reasons
for better MPCE position of population here.

69.1.2 Differences in MPCE among occupational types in Urban

Table 6.30 gives the distribution of population among different
occupations and MPCE classes in urban sector.

Table 6.30. Percentage of persons in different MPCE classes among different occupation types

	Group	1-200	200-400	400-600	600-800	>800	All
	Agricultural labour	12.90	12.67	12.35	7.35	1.64	10.19
	Farmer	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Other labours	25.81	28.67	35.80	25.00	14.75	27.01
Urban	Employed in -						
	a. Private firm etc	4.84	8.67	6.17	7.35	8.20	7.35
	b. Government	0.00	0.67	11.11	20.59	31.15	10.19
	c. Self	1.61	2.00	3.70	0.00	0.00	1.66
	Others	54.84	47.33	30.86	39.71	44.27	43.60
	All	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Survey data

MPCE distribution has been worked out for each occupation category for mple Scheduled caste population. This helps to see whether MPCE levels are icted by occupational distribution of population in urban sector.

Considering the lower tail it is found that 47.33 % of population in the PCE class of Rs.200-400 are not making an earning. Among others who work, the ı of "other laboures" are the highest (28.67 %) and the category agricultural iourers constitute the next (12.67%). Compared to rural sector the % of 'other iourers' are higher and that of agricultural labourers lower in urban sector. The west % is for those who are employed in Government (0.67%) and next for self-mployed (2%) in urban sector. The category 'farmers' are not found in urban sector.

Considering the upper MPCE tail, > Rs.800, it is found that 44.27% are it making an earning for themselves. Among other who work the highest % is for hse who are "employed in Government" (31.15%). Here we see that as different im the case of rural the higher % of population in the highest MPCE class is mainly ie to their better occupational status. The % of those employed in "private firm" ınstitutes 8.20% of those belonging to the highest MPCE class. This is less than the ame for rural sector the % of "other labourers" is less (14.75) while the same was igher (38.10%) for the urban sector. Even in case of the MPCE class Rs.600-800, a imilar pattern is observed.

i9.2 Education and MPCE

Education being an important factor determining consumption pattern, the MPCE levels of different Education groups are analysed here. Differences in MPCE mong different Education levels are presented in the Table 6.31.

The Table 6.31 shows that in the rural sector the highest % of 35.57persons with Education 'below V' is in the lowest MPCE class. And in the top most MPCE class >Rs. 800 their % is the lowest namely, 14.29%. Similar is the case of urban sector also. Considering the highest Education level >S.S.L.C the lowest namely, 2% if persons belong to the lowest MPCE class Rs. 1-200 and in the top most MPCE class >Rs800, their % is the highest namely, 23.81% in the rural sector.

ar is the case of urban sector also. The Table reveals that Education is an
rtant influencing factor on the MPCE levels of Scheduled caste population. It is
I that in rural as well as urban sectors persons with higher Education levels
ig to higher MPCE class. As Education level increases monthly per capita
umption expenditure also increases.

Table 6.31. Percentage Of persons in different MPCE classes among different Educational types

up	MPCE class	Below V	V-SSLC	>SSLC	Any other	Total
ural	1 - 200	35.57	53.69	2.01	8.72	100
	200 - 400	27.22	56.21	10.06	6.51	100
	400 - 600	31.25	55.21	10.42	3.13	100
	600 - 800	28.57	62.86	8.57	0.00	100
	> 800	14.29	52.38	23.81	9.52	100
	All	30.21	55.53	8.09	6.17	100
Urban	1 - 200	41.94	48.39	3.23	6.45	100
	200 - 400	36.00	56.00	6.67	1.33	100
	400 - 600	38.27	44.44	16.05	1.23	100
	600 - 800	35.29	45.59	19.12	0.00	100
	> 800	13.11	52.46	31.15	3.28	100
	All	33.89	50.47	13.51	2.13	100
All	1 - 200	37.44	52.13	2.37	8.06	100
	200 - 400	31.35	56.11	8.46	4.08	100
	400 - 600	34.46	50.28	12.99	2.26	100
	600 - 800	33.01	51.46	15.53	0.00	100
	> 800	13.41	52.44	29.27	4.88	100
	All	31.95	53.14	10.65	4.26	100

Source: Survey data

6.9.3 Association between levels of non-food consumption and independent Variables

It has been revealed through the forgoing analysis of primary data there
are differences between rural and urban Scheduled caste households in their total
MPCE and MPCE on non-food items An attempt is made to find outfit there is any
significant association between expenditure on non-food items and independent
variables such as income of the respondents educational level, category of occupation
and region of residence. Chi-square test has been applied.

Income and expenditure on non-food items

As per data given earlier it is found that a larger % of sample SC households belong to lower per capita income classes. The % of households aging to top per capita income class is very less in rural as compared to urban. households are classified in to three per capita income classes: lower class (Rs.1-, Middle class (Rs.400-600), and upper class (Rs.>600).

The 200 sample households have been grouped into two per capita expenditure classes on the basis of expenditure on non-food items. The classes are 0-200 and > Rs 200. Table 6.32 shows the association between per capita income per capita expenditure on non-food items

Table 6.32 Income and expenditure on non-food items.

Income classes	Per capita expenditure on non-food items. (NO. Of households)		
	0-200	>200	Total
Lower 0-400	102	3	105
Middle 400-600	9	20	20
Upper >600	11	55	66
Total	122	78	200

Source: Survey data $\chi^2{}_0 = 132.106$, $\chi^2{}_{.05, 2} = 5.991$

The estimated χ^2 value 132.106 is found to be significant at 5 % level of significance It is revealed that expenditure on non-food is associated with income level of households. The middle income and higher income groups form a considerable % of the total non-food consumers. The Table 6.32 shows that among 105 households in the lower income class 97% households spend less than Rs.200 on non-food items. In the same group only 3 % households spend greater than Rs. 200-300 on non-food items.

Considering the middle income and upper income class we see that more number of Scheduled caste households in these income classes fall in the higher expenditure classes. Among the 66 upper income class households 83% households spent >Rs.2 00 per month on non-food items. In the middle-income class among the

)9 households, 69 %households spend > Rs.200 per month on non-food items. The differences in the level of non-food consumption is very clear from this.

6.9.3.2 Educational level and expenditure on non-food items

Table 6.33 shows the relation ship between educational standard of the head of the household and expenditure on non-food. Some relation ship between educational levels and expenditure on non-food is noticed. For higher levels of education of the head of the household the, non-food expenditure is also seen to be high. Among the 200 Scheduled caste households, 91 households have their head of the household with Education level below std. V, for 85 households with Std. V- Std. X and for 24 households > Std. X Education level.

Among the 91 households with lowest Education level, 35.16% households spend less than Rs.100 per month on non-food. Only 15.38% households spend morethan Rs.300 on non-food items.

Among the 24 households belonging to the highest Education level of >std. X, 18 households (75%) spend more than Rs.300 on non-food items and only one household (4.16%) household spend < Rs.100 on non-food.

Among the 85 households with the educational level std. V- std. X, 33 households 38.82% spend <Rs. 100 on non-food and only 1.17% households spend >Rs.300 on non-food.

Table 6.33. Education and expenditure on non-food items

Education levels	No of households spending on non-food item each per capita expenditure class				
	1-100	100-200	200-300	>300	Total
Below V	32	28	17	14	91
V-X	33	28	12	15	85
>X	1	3	2	18	24
Total	66	56	31	47	200

Source: Survey data $\chi^2_0 = 41.788$, $\chi^2 0.05, 6 = 12.592$

The estimated chi-square value 41.788 is found to be significant at 5% rel. It is found that expenditure on non- food is associated with the level of education.

9.3.3 Occupation categories and expenditure on non-food

Along sample households the number of persons with regular occupation nd income is very low. Some relation ship between occupational level and xpenditure on non-food is noticed. The % of households in each occupation category tows that a larger % of Scheduled caste households fall in categories such as 'other labourers' and 'agricultural labourers' s in both rural and urban areas and the % in the ategories such as 'farmers', 'self-employed' and 'employed' is very negligible. Hence for the purpose of finding the association between occupation level and xpenditure on non-food items households of certain occupation categories with lower % in the sample are being clubbed together with the adjacent class.

The sample Scheduled caste households are classified in to 3 occupation ategories on the basis of occupation of the head of the household: Agricultural labour households, other labour households and salaried class households.

Table 6.34 Occupation and expenditure on non-food items

Occupation classes.	No of households spending on non-food in each per capita expenditure class				
	1-100	100-200	200-300	>300	Total
Agriculture Labour	26	15	3	4	49
Other Labour	35	34	17	11	97
Salaried	5	7	11	31	54
Total	66	56	31	46	200

Source: Survey data $\chi^2_{0}=61.752$, $\chi^2_{0.05,6}$

The Table 6.34 shows that among the three occupational categories the households belonging to salaried class spend more on non-food items than the other two categories.

Among the 54 salaried households 57.4 % spend >Rs.300 per capita per month on non-food. Among 49 agricultural labour households, 53.06 % households spend only <Rs 100 per capita per month on non-food items. Among 97 other labour households, 69 households spend <Rs.200 per capita per month on non-food items.

Of the 46 households who spend greater than Rs. 300 per capita per month on non- food 31 belonged to salaried class, 11 belonged to other labour households and 5 belonged to Agriculture labour households

Of the 66 households who spend less than Rs.100 per capita per month on non-food, only 5 belonged to salaried class 35 to other labour households and 26 to agricultural labour households.

The estimated χ^2 value (61.752) is found to be significant at 5 % levels. It is found that expenditure on non-food is associated with the type of occupation.

6.9.3.4 Rural Urban Factor and expenditure on Non-food items

Table 6.35 gives the relationship between place of residence factor and per capita expenditure on non-food. The Sample Scheduled caste households have been classified in to two categories based on the place of residence namely, rural and urban. The 200 sample households have been grouped into 4 per capita expenditure classes on the basis of expenditure on non-food items

Scheduled caste households belonging to urban sector show tendency of spending more on non-food item than rural Scheduled caste households.

Among the sample households in rural areas, 74% of households spent <Rs.200 per capita per month on non-food items in rural while 15% households spend >Rs. 300 per capita per month on non- food items.

Among 100 urban samples only 48% households spend <Rs.200 per capita per month on non-food and 32% households spend >Rs 300 per capita per month on non-food. Among the 66 Scheduled caste households, who spend below Rs.100 per capita per month on non-food, 73% belong to rural and only 27% belonged to urban sector. Similarly among the 47 Scheduled caste households who spend above Rs.300 per capita per month on non-food, 68% belonged to urban sector and only 32% belonged to rural sector.

It is found that rural Scheduled caste consumers tend to spend less on non-food than their counter parts in urban sample.

Table 6.35 Rural urban Factor and expenditure on Non-food items

Region	No of households spending on non-food item each per capita expenditure class				
	1-100	100-200	200-300	>300	Total
Rural	48	26	11	15	100
Urban	18	30	20	32	100
Total	66	56	31	47	200

Source: Survey data $\chi^2_0 = 22.684$, $\chi^2_{0.05,3} = 7.815$

The estimated χ^2 value (22.684) is found to be significant at 5% level for 3 d.f. There is association between level of non-food expenditure and region of residence. Urban households spend more on non-food consumption.

Hence the third hypothesis is accepted that there is significant association between consumption expenditure and income, education, occupation and area of residence.

6.10 Monthly Per capita Consumption Expenditure among Decile groups

Differences in consumption pattern of poorer and richer segment of population (ranked by MPCE) in the sample area has been attempted by using in appropriate deciles of the MPCE distribution of class limits

Tables 6.36 and 6.37 give consumption of broad groups of food and non-food items per person for a period of 30 days for each decile group. It is observed that regarding food consumption lowest 10 % of population account for 4.75 % of the total MPCE for the entire rural sample, while top 10% account for 13.32% that is 3 times higher than the % for lowest decile group.

Among food items the highest expenditure of the top 10% is for Milk & milk products. Other items are Fruits, Meat, fish & egg, Pulses, cooked food purchased and Edible oil. While for the lowest decile group the highest % is for the item Cereals. Other items are Salt, Spices, Sugar, and Edible oil.

It is found that regarding non-food consumption lowest 10% of population account for only 2.83% of the total MPCE for the entire rural sample while top 10% account for 19.23 % i.e. About 6 times greater than % for the lowest decile group. Among non-food items for the top decile group items attracting more expenditures are Miscellaneous goods and services, Entertainment. Durable goods, other miscellaneous goods and Travel.

Figure 6.4 Monthly Per capita Consumption Expenditure among Decile groups
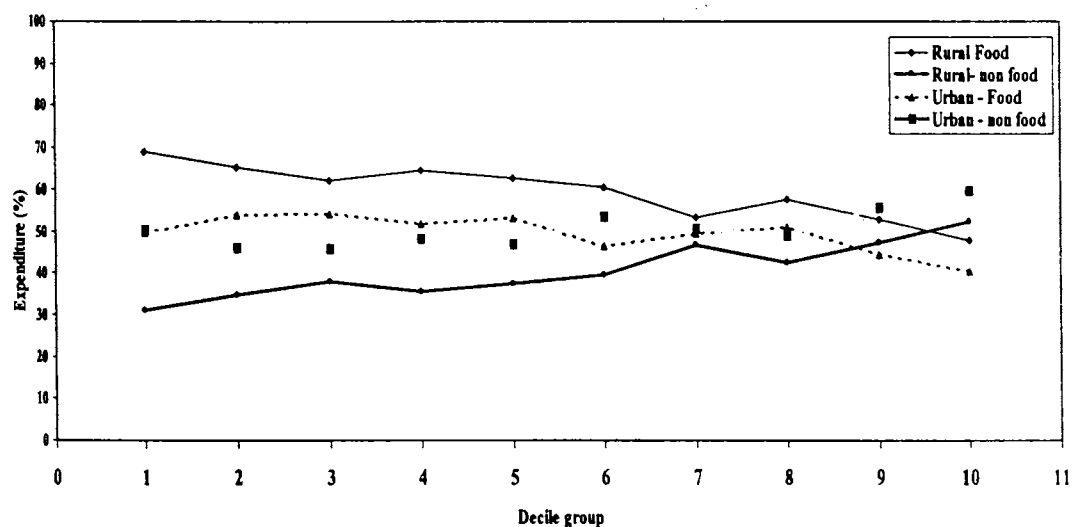
The figure shows that the households in the bottom decile groups for both rural and urban sector spend greater % of total expenditure on food compared to top decile group. For the top decile group % of expenditure on non-food is found very high.

For the lowest decile group the item attracting highest expenditure is Fuel & light. All other non-food items constitute only very low % of expenditure compared to higher decile group. It is found that the disparities among Scheduled castes in the distribution of consumption expenditure is much higher in the rural sector. Disparities in MPCE can be assumed to be the reflection of prevalence of wide spread inequalities in the distribution of income, educational and occupation differences among households in the sample area.

Table 6.36 Percentage of consumption of broad groups of food and non-food items per person for a period of 30 days for each decile group - Rural

Items	Bottom 10%	10-20%	20-30%	30-40%	40-50%	50-60%	60-70%	70-80%	80-90%	Top 10%	All
Cereals	7.68	9.07	9.39	10.46	8.31	10.60	11.68	11.72	14.47	6.63	100
Pulses	3.05	3.81	6.85	10.43	4.77	10.41	11.86	14.99	16.52	17.31	100
Milk & milk products	1.54	5.40	3.16	8.03	3.95	10.05	18.39	16.21	7.95	25.32	100
Edible oil	4.98	4.94	8.06	8.69	5.92	14.43	10.34	11.12	15.33	16.19	100
Meat, fish & egg	3.45	4.13	6.19	7.29	6.96	10.63	10.92	16.57	16.42	17.44	100
Vegetables	3.83	4.60	7.01	6.04	4.02	9.02	12.27	21.43	17.28	14.50	100
Fruits	3.17	5.00	8.13	9.17	7.33	10.45	13.88	10.98	11.07	20.81	100
Sugar	5.83	5.06	8.25	7.65	8.10	12.49	10.16	11.95	18.72	11.79	100
Beverages	3.47	5.35	6.63	7.16	6.25	11.16	12.05	17.93	17.53	12.46	100
Salt	7.43	8.65	10.57	10.93	7.08	9.29	17.77	9.22	10.52	8.52	100
Spices	5.93	5.59	7.83	10.68	9.18	12.34	9.85	11.55	14.00	13.06	100
Cooked food purchased	0.15	0.99	1.49	5.64	6.06	5.87	3.63	23.06	36.31	16.81	100
Food total	4.75	5.83	7.14	8.66	6.99	10.27	10.99	14.81	17.25	13.32	100
Pan, tobacco & intoxicants	2.65	5.67	8.82	6.32	6.25	10.65	8.93	11.55	21.70	17.46	100
Fuel & light	7.93	7.56	9.07	9.60	7.63	9.49	9.83	10.82	14.29	13.77	100
Clothing	3.04	4.66	5.53	7.10	6.31	11.24	12.30	13.51	15.48	20.84	100
Footwear	2.74	3.12	4.60	6.59	4.00	10.78	18.39	15.09	16.53	18.16	100
Education	3.56	4.95	9.71	3.07	4.94	3.18	15.15	20.70	16.50	18.25	100
Medical	2.35	3.13	4.05	4.79	5.40	10.08	10.52	11.11	38.13	10.45	100
Entertainment	0.00	3.94	2.75	5.00	4.15	3.28	13.42	17.03	22.83	27.60	100
Goods for personal care	4.22	3.47	6.51	8.21	6.04	8.53	14.63	14.64	17.09	16.67	100
Contribution	0.21	0.23	1.12	4.86	5.07	8.58	25.40	21.35	7.98	25.20	100
Misc. consumer goods	1.75	2.21	3.55	6.21	5.28	7.56	18.89	17.89	14.37	22.28	100
Travel	0.23	2.37	2.67	5.33	4.33	4.41	15.57	23.79	17.08	24.23	100
Rent	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Taxes	0.00	0.61	0.00	0.00	0.00	24.15	34.66	28.98	0.00	11.59	100
Misc. goods and services	1.36	2.24	3.31	5.95	5.01	6.85	18.13	19.44	14.99	22.72	100
Durable goods	0.02	0.16	0.15	4.12	2.17	7.14	13.37	13.90	32.66	26.31	100
All non food total	2.83	4.10	5.79	6.26	5.53	8.87	12.75	14.34	20.30	19.23	100
Total consumer expenditure	3.92	5.09	6.56	7.62	6.36	9.67	11.75	14.60	18.57	15.87	100

Source: Survey data

Table 6.37. Percentage of consumption of broad groups of food and non-food items
per person for a period of 30 days for each decile group - Urban

Items	Bottom 10%	10-20%	20-30%	30-40%	40-50%	50-60%	60-70%	70-80%	80-90%	Top 10%	All
Cereals	2.41	6.31	3.86	7.90	8.37	7.94	8.98	14.22	14.86	25.15	100
Pulses	0.50	2.22	1.23	3.23	5.95	4.62	6.71	15.60	14.43	45.51	100
Milk & milk products	0.00	0.00	0.10	2.43	4.50	3.00	9.23	6.86	17.64	56.25	100
Edible o	1.17	2.03	2.72	4.22	6.43	7.97	8.93	13.75	16.12	36.66	100
Meat, fish & egg	0.76	0.92	2.22	2.38	8.16	6.32	10.05	15.32	16.86	37.01	100
Vegetables	0.75	2.71	3.36	3.70	5.55	4.70	6.98	9.14	21.47	41.63	100
Fruit	1.39	2.38	1.83	3.14	6.56	4.73	6.97	15.99	17.81	39.19	100
Sugar	1.48	5.19	3.91	5.19	9.17	7.91	7.42	15.95	14.97	28.80	100
Beverages	0.67	0.82	1.93	3.79	7.64	7.88	7.72	13.95	17.29	38.31	100
Salt	2.48	6.41	4.69	7.93	11.85	10.99	9.71	14.42	12.85	18.68	100
Spices	1.04	3.82	2.37	4.07	6.47	6.79	8.80	13.97	15.45	37.22	100
Cooked food purchased	0.00	0.58	3.53	5.40	9.00	11.88	3.68	17.57	15.78	32.59	100
Food total	1.23	3.12	2.77	4.87	7.41	6.99	8.12	13.90	16.40	35.20	100
Pan, tobacco & intoxicants	1.03	2.16	5.64	8.23	5.43	13.99	12.76	13.78	17.10	19.89	100
Fuel & light	2.58	5.53	3.43	7.18	9.99	10.78	8.58	15.14	13.83	22.96	100
Clothing	0.99	1.71	1.61	2.68	6.39	4.39	6.44	12.75	17.78	45.27	100
Footwear	0.49	1.87	1.22	2.62	5.67	4.56	6.69	13.02	15.42	48.44	100
Education	0.66	0.79	0.90	3.00	9.68	3.68	6.46	7.34	19.10	48.40	100
Medical	0.89	3.65	0.94	3.88	5.63	10.63	8.34	12.89	29.63	23.53	100
Entertainment	1.35	0.37	1.84	1.84	8.12	2.00	2.75	10.26	19.63	51.85	100
Goods for personal care	1.03	2.57	1.96	3.70	6.99	7.22	9.52	14.17	15.64	37.20	100
Contribution	0.00	1.62	0.44	0.65	6.23	1.22	1.99	3.74	11.36	72.75	100
Misc. consumer goods	0.65	1.88	1.32	2.20	6.84	4.05	5.51	9.38	14.45	53.71	100
Travel	0.99	0.71	0.61	1.47	5.85	5.18	2.77	4.75	11.58	66.09	100

Source: Survey data

We find that in the consumption of food the lowest declie group account for 1.23% of the total MPCE while the highest decile group in the urban sector accounted for 35.20% of total MPCE on food. The condition of the lowest decile is found to be much worse in the urban sector than rural sector. The disparities between Scheduled caste households in the distribution of total MPCE is found to be higher in urban sample than rural sample.

The comparatively better position of rural Scheduled castes than urban Scheduled castes belonging to lowest decile group may be considered to be the result of the fact that consumption out of home grown stocks, through gift or loan substitutes purchases in cash to a certain extent in rural sector. Other items attracting

more expenditure for lower decile group are Cereals, Salt, Sugar, and Edible oil. For top decile group items with more expenditure are Milk & milk products, Vegetables, Beverages, Fruits, and meat fish & egg. It is found that the top decile SC population spend lavishly on these items. This is in tune with the general trend among Kerala households in both urban and rural especially belonging to higher MPCE classes.

Among non-food items it is found that lowest 10% of the population account for 1.04% to total MPCE on non-food by urban sample households. While top 10% account for 43.48%. Lowest decile group being unable to spend even enough for food do not find a place in the non-food expenditure at all. Of the total expenditure on most of the non-food items, the top decile group constitutes a major share. The important items are Miscellaneous goods and services, Entertainment, Durable goods, Clothing and Footwear. The disparities in MPCE distribution is found to be wider in urban than in rural sector among SC's.

Figures 6.5 and 6.6 gives Consumption of food and non-food items in rural and urban group in bottom 10-% group. Figure 6.7 and 6.8 gives Consumption of food and non-food items in rural and urban group in top 10-% group. There is widespread differences observed the distribution of total expenditure between food and non-food items between the bottom and top decile groups. Hence the second hypothesis is accepted that there is significant difference in the average consumption expenditure of different decile groups.

Figure 6.5 MPCE on food and non-food items in rural for bottom Decile group
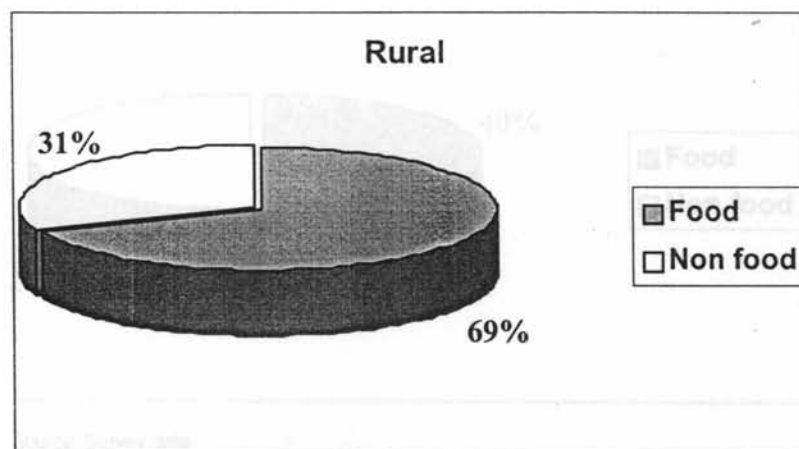
Source: Survey data

Figure 6.6 MPCE on food and non-food items in urban for bottom Decile group
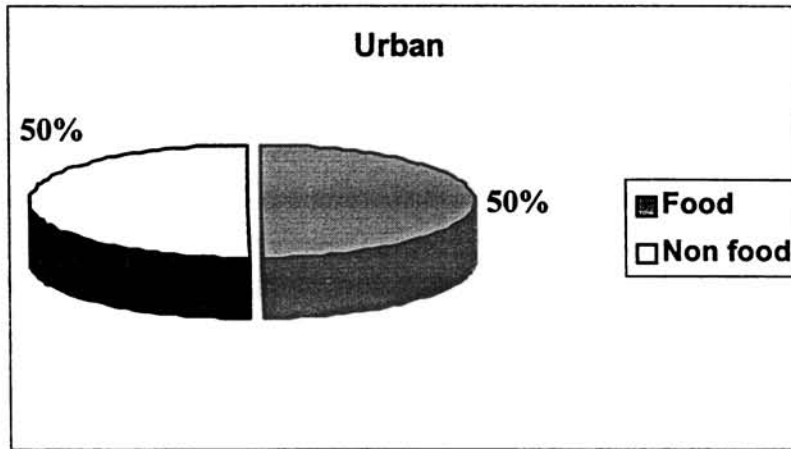
Source: Survey data

Figure 6.7 MPCE on food and non-food items in rural for top Decile group

Source: Survey data

Figure 6.8 MPCE on food and non-food items in urban for top Decile group

Source: Survey data

6.11 Sources of consumption

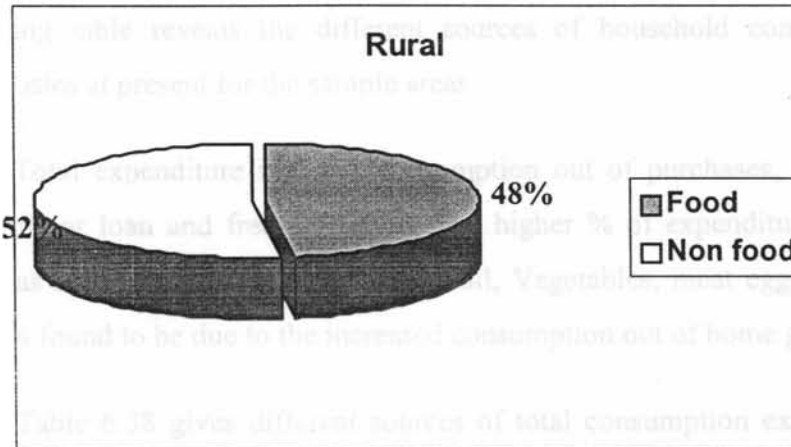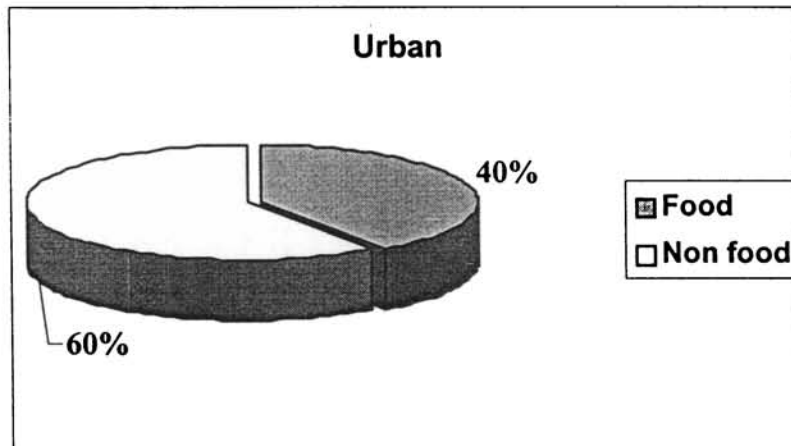As per the findings on the living standards of Scheduled castes by the commission in 1982, the Scheduled castes had very low levels of consumption. Their food items were, the little quantity of unhusked paddy they got as cooli; roots and Fruits they collect from fields, fish they caught from paddy fields, and the carcass of animals. The innutrition food, filthy habits, wretched conditions of life and ignorance made their life miserable and somewhat similar to that of animals. In the forest areas they were collecting honey, forest produces and hunting. They hunted wild animals for food.

These conditions of the Scheduled castes have undergone drastic changes. The following table reveals the different sources of household consumption of Scheduled castes at present for the sample areas.

Total expenditure includes consumption out of purchases, home grown stock and gift or loan and free collection. The higher % of expenditure on certain items such as Milk & milk products, Edible oil, Vegetables, meat egg, fish, Fruits, and Spices is found to be due to the increased consumption out of home grown stock.

Table 6.38 gives different sources of total consumption expenditure for sample rural and urban Households. Table shows that consumption out of cash purchase constitutes the major source of total consumption expenditure both in rural and urban areas for all items.

Table. 6.38 Percentage Of consumption out of cash purchase, homegrown and gift loan in total consumption expenditure for rural and urban samples for different items.

	Rice & other cereals		Vegetables		Meat fish egg		Oil and fats		Milk and milk products		Fruits and nuts		Condiments and spices		Fuel and light	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Cash Purchase	91.4	99.3	81.2	96.6	95.0	96.8	94.4	100.0	80.6	92.9	42.6	59.1	93.4	96.2	46.7	58.3
Home grown	5.3	0.1	18.6	3.0	4.8	2.8	5.6	0.0	19.4	7.1	49.2	22.6	5.2	0.1	13.9	3.6
Gift loan, free collection.	3.3	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.2	18.3	1.4	3.7	39.4	38.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Survey Data

It is found that consumption out of homegrown stock constitutes a good
e of total consumption among rural sample for many items of consumption.
ortion of consumption out of homegrown stock is highest for the items Fruits &
in both rural (49.2%) and urban (22.6%) sectors. People in Kerala are known for
r high consumption of coconut kernel and oil. According to household
sumption surveys, the per capita average intake of coconut products in terms of oil
ivalent was 10.023 kg in 1985[18].

Other items reporting higher proportion of home grown stock in total
sumption in rural sector are Milk & milk products (19.4%) and Vegetables
1.6%). Oil & fats, Cereals, Spices, meat, fish, & egg also show considerable
ound 5%) proportion of home grown consumption in rural areas. In urban sector
is is a negligible phenomena for almost all food items except milk, Vegetables, and
eat, fish & egg.

Proportion of consumption out of gift, loan and free collection constitutes
gligible % in both rural and urban sectors regarding almost all items of
sumption. This indicates that there is significant change in the source of
sehold consumption of Scheduled castes from the past periods. They are
ending on their cash purchases or their own home grown products for
sumption and no much dependence is on the gifts or loans or free food items
lected or received from elsewhere in their total consumption.

Per capita Consumption of Individual Items - food

Per capita expenditure estimates for different items of consumption
uding food, tobacco& fuel, Clothing and Footwear, Education and Medical
nse, and other miscellaneous items are presented based on sample data from rural
urban areas.

This section gives an analysis of the per capita consumption expenditure
mple rural and urban households on individual items. Sample households have
categorized in to various monthly per capita expenditure classes in Table 6.39.
of rural households and 84% of urban population come under the broad per

capita monthly expenditure class of Rs.1-800 and the remaining 6% in rural and 16% in urban sectors among the sample population selected belonged to >Rs.800.

Table. 6.39 Distribution of sample households by monthly per capita consumption expenditure

Monthly per capita consumption expenditure	Rural		Urban	
	No. of House holds	%	No. of households	%
1-200	28	28	13	13
200-400	36	36	34	34
400-600	20	20	20	20
600-800	10	10	17	17
>800	6	6	16	16

Source: Survey data

The per capita expenditure data collected under individual items of consumption how ever cannot be accurate as there are chances of unaccounted expenses and recall lapses

As per the table on average MPCE given earlier, average MPCE for the rural sector was found to be Rs.372.57 and for the urban sector Rs.526.20. Average MPCE on food items for rural sector was found to be Rs.211.90 (56.88%) and for the urban sector Rs.239.23 (45.48%). For the non-food items average MPCE for rural sector was Rs.160.67 (43.12%) and for urban sector Rs.286.97 (54.54%).

6.12.1 Consumption of Cereals

Of the 200 sample households the expenditure data on Cereals of all households were available. The Table 6.40 shows that the number of households, which spent between Rs.50-60 per person monthly, was highest in the sample in both rural as well as urban. Nearly 19% of the households fell under this expenditure class in the rural area and 21% in the urban.

Table 6. 40 Monthly per capita expenditure on Cereals by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
Below - 30	2	2	2	3	3	3
30-40	9	9	11	9	9	12
40-50	13	13	24	14	14	26
50-60	19	19	43	21	21	47
60-70	12	12	55	17	17	64
70-85	18	18	73	13	13	77
85-100	13	13	86	6	6	83
Above-100	14	14	100	17	17	100
Total	100	100		100	100	

Source: Survey data

There were 11% of families in rural sample whose per capita expenditure per month on Cereals was below Rs. 40 and the corresponding % in urban sample was 12. Families, which consumed Cereals worth less than Rs.1.66 per person a day (Less than Rs.50 per head per month) was more than 20% in rural and nearly 26%in urban areas. The % of families whose per capita daily expenditure on Cereals exceeded Rs.3.33 was 14% in the rural area while the % in urban was 17%. Mean cereal expenditure for the rural sample was Rs.71.92 and urban sample was Rs. 68.52. [As per Table 6.20]

6.12.2 Consumption of Pulses

Pulses do not form major consumption item for all the sample families. Table 6.41 shows that about 30% of the households in rural did not expend any amount on Pulses and 26% in urban. In addition 77% of those who consumed Pulses in rural spent only less than Rs.10 per head a month and likewise more than 60%in urban. If those who expended less than Rs.20 per person are included, the % of those who spent nominally on this item in rural will go up adding another 18% in rural and 26% in urban.

Table 6.41 Monthly per capita expenditure on Pulses by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No.of households	%	Cu. frequency	No.of households	%	Cu. frequency
1-10	54	77.14	77.14	45	60.81	60.81
10-20	13	18.57	95.71	19	25.68	86.49
20-30	2	2.86	98.57	7	9.46	95.95
30& Above	1	1.43	100	3	4.05	100
Total	70	100		74	100	

Source: Survey data

The majority of the house holds came under the expenditure class of below Rs 10. During the survey it is noticed that generally poor families do not consume Pulses though they expend on cosmetics and toiletries. Extreme cases of Pulses consumption (Rs.30& above) were found among only 1 % of the sample rural household and 4% among urban households

6.12.3 Consumption of Milk & milk products

The Table 6.42 shows that 64 sample Scheduled caste households are missing from Milk & milk products consumption in rural and 57 in urban. They could not afford to spend on this item as they belonged to the lower income category; even though it is a nutritious item. Among those who spend 70% belonged to the per capita expenditure classes of below Rs. 30 in rural sample and 40 % in urban sample. There were only 2 households whose per capita consumption was wroth more than Rs.60 a month in rural area and 7 households in urban.

It was noticed that many of them who belong to higher expenditure classes were not particular about spending on milk though they allocate pretty good amount to the consumption of meat, egg and fish. This indicates the particular food habits of Scheduled castes in the study area and their preference to non-vegetarian food.

Table 6.42 Monthly per capita expenditure on Milk & milk products by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	6	16.67	16.67	3	6.98	6.98
10-20	8	22.22	38.89	3	6.98	13.96
20-30	11	30.56	69.45	11	25.58	39.54
30-40	4	11.11	80.56	7	16.28	55.82
40-50	3	8.33	88.89	7	16.28	72.10
50-60	2	5.56	94.45	5	11.63	83.73
Above 60	2	5.56	100	7	16.28	100
Total	36	100.00		43	100	

Source: Survey data

6.12.4 Consumption of Edible oil

Among the rural sample Scheduled caste households all households reported expenditure on Edible oil.50%of the families belonged to the per capita monthly expenditure class of below Rs.10 in rural area and 41%in urban area. The households, which expended more than Rs.30 per head, formed 6% of the sample in rural and 12% in urban sample.

Table 6.43 Monthly per capita expenditure on Edible oil by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No.of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No.of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	50	50.00	50	41	41.41	41.41
10-20	36	36.00	86	27	27.27	68.68
20-30	8	8.00	64	19	19.19	87.87
30-40	4	4.00	98	7	7.07	94.94
Above 40	2	2.00	100	5	5.05	100
Total	100	100.00		99	100	

Source: Survey data

It was noticed that both rural and urban consumers are not inclined to the consumption of sophisticated oil brands. Most of the consumers are not using modern types of oil.

6.12.5 Consumption of Sugar

All rural and urban sample households had spent on Sugar consumption. The households clustered in the expenditure classes of below Rs.20.constituted 97%

in rural and 90%in urban. Sugar as a food item, cannot be consumed at a higher level due to health reasons. Even the middle-income families had not spent much on this item, unlike any non-food items. The level of Sugar consumption would not go up beyond a certain level unlike in the case of non-food, non -essential commodities.

Table 6.44 Monthly per capita expenditure on Sugar by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	81	81.00	81	61	61.00	61
10-20	16	16.00	97	29	29.00	90
Above 20	2	3.00	100	10	10.00	100
Total	100	100.00		100	100	

Source: Survey data

6.12.6 Consumption of Meat, fish & egg.

As revealed in the secondary data analysis the Scheduled castes of Kerala prefer non-vegetarian food. It is found that the consumption of Meat, fish & egg constitutes one of the prominent items in the consumption basket of Scheduled castes The primary data showed that for a considerable % sample population, it is an inevitable item of consumption. They are able to spend only a relatively small amount on this item.

Table. 6.45 Monthly per capita expenditure on Meat, fish & egg by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No.of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No.of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	26	27.96	27.96	27	27.84	27.84
10-20	29	31.18	59.14	17	17.53	45.37
20-30	13	13.98	73.12	18	18.56	63.93
30-40	9	9.68	82.80	12	12.37	76.30
40-50	4	4.30	87.10	4	4.12	80.42
50-60	4	4.30	91.40	6	6.19	86.61
60-70	3	3.23	94.63	3	3.09	89.70
70-85	2	2.15	96.78	4	4.12	93.82
85-100	1	1.08	97.86	4	4.12	97.94
Above 100	2	2.15	100	2	2.06	100
Total	93	100.00		97	100	

Source: Survey data

Table 6.45 show that 28 % of both the rural and urban sample households spend only below Rs.10 on the item. While in the rural sector 31.18% of households spend Rs. 10-20 on the item in the urban the % was 17.53. Thus 59% in rural and 45.37% in urban spend below Rs 20 on the item.13% of households in rural and 20% in urban had an average per capita expenditure of more than Rs. 50 on the item. Thus the upper expenditure classes spend more on the item among sample Scheduled caste households

6.12.7 Consumption of Vegetables

In the rural sector 7 households are missing from the vegetable consumption and 9 in urban. Table 6.46 shows that among those who spend on the item, 72% in rural and 71 % in urban spend below Rs.20 per capita per month on the item. In the rural sector only 5.39% and in urban 6.6o % of households spend more than Rs. 50 on Vegetables. Vegetable was one of the items for which consumption out of homegrown stock was reported. It was found that consumption of Vegetables was not as common as meat, egg & fish among the sample households.

Table.6.46 Monthly per capita consumption expenditure on Vegetables by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No.of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No.of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	40	43.01	43.01	35	38.46	38.46
10-20	27	29.03	72.04	29	31.87	70.33
20-30	6	6.45	78.49	9	9.89	80.22
30-40	10	10.75	89.24	7	7.69	87.91
40-50	5	5.38	94.62	5	5.49	93.40
Above 50	5	5.39	100	6	6.60	100
Total	93	100.00		91	100	

Source: Survey data

6.12.8 Consumption of Fruits & nuts

As per Table 6.47 it was found that 8% of the sample households did not consume either Fruits or nuts in rural and 4%. In rural sector 49.2 % of the consumption of Fruits & nuts was out of homegrown stock and in the urban sector consumption out of home grown stock constituted 22.6 % of the total consumption of the item. This has been presented in table 6.38.It is apparent that consumption of this

tem was largely determined by the income factor. Many of those who could not allocate some portion of their income on the consumption of the item were poor people. For them this item is a luxury whatever maybe its nutritional importance.66% of the rural households and 56% of urban households spent a meager sum of less than Rs.20 per person monthly on Fruits & nuts. Only 2% could afford to expend more than Rs.50 per person in rural and this was 8% in urban

Table. 6.47 Monthly per capita
Consumption expenditure on Fruits & nuts by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	34	36.96	36.96	35	36.46	36.46
10-20	27	29.35	66.31	19	19.79	56.25
20-30	24	26.09	92.40	16	16.67	72.92
30-40	3	3.26	95.66	11	11.46	84.38
40-50	2	2.17	97.83	7	7.29	91.67
Above 50	2	2.18	100	8	8.34	100
Total	92	100.00		96	100	

Source: Survey data

6.12.9 Consumption of Non-Alcoholic Beverages.

As per the secondary data the beverages comprising tea, coffee, soft drinks and all sorts of modern food substances occupy a very prominent place in Kerala consumption and that is why the expenditure on this item remains quite high compared with that of other States and All India level. Regardless of income class people set apart a considerable amount of their income for the consumption of this item.

But regarding Scheduled castes the Table 6.48 show that more than 78% of the rural population expended only Rs.10 per person and this was 47% in urban. Among rural Scheduled castes only 2% spends more than Rs.30 on Beverages and this was 5% among urban. It was found that 4% of rural and 9%of urban Scheduled caste did not spend on Beverages. Urban dwellers were found to be more inclined to the consumption of this item and their propensity in this regard was above that of their counter parts in rural areas. Regarding consumption if this item for most of Scheduled castes in rural, Beverages do not occupy a prominent place in consumption

basket. But the higher MPCE classes of rural and urban samples show preference to this item.

Table 6.48 Monthly per capita expenditure on Beverages by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	75	78.13	78.13	43	47.25	47.25
10-20	16	16.67	94.80	36	39.56	86.81
20-30	3	3.13	97.93	7	7.69	94.50
Above 30	2	2.08	100	5	5.49	100
Total	96	100.00		91	100	

Source: Survey data

6.12.10 Consumption of Spices

As per Table 6.49 out of 99 families 83% of the households fell in the expenditure class of below Rs.20 per head in rural and out of a sample of 100 families 78% fell in the expenditure class of below Rs 20 per head in urban. Like Cereals, Spices also constitute an ingredient in Scheduled castes diet. It is an inevitable item in the food basket of rural and urban Scheduled castes. 5.05%of Scheduled castes in rural belonged to the expenditure class of above Rs 30 and the same was 6% in case of urban sector.

Table 6.49 Monthly per capita expenditure on Spices by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	40	40.40	40.40	41	41.00	41
10-20	42	42.42	82.82	37	37.00	78
20-30	12	12.12	94.94	16	16.00	94
Above 30	5	5.05	100	6	6.00	100
Total	99	100.00		100	100	

Source: Survey data

6.12.11 Consumption of Salt

As per Table 6.50 out of the 100 rural families, 99% of households fell in the expenditure class of below Rs.20 per head and all the 100 urban families fell under this category.

Table 6. 50 Monthly per capita expenditure on Salt by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	99	99.00	99	100	100.00	100
10-20	1	1.00	100	0	0.00	0
Total	100	100.00		100	100	

Source: Survey data

Extreme levels of consumption are not found here. This is perhaps because there is a limit for the quantity for salt that one could consume.

6.12.12 Expenditure on cooked food purchased

Table 6.51 shows MPCE on cooked food purchased for the sample households.

Table 6.51 Monthly per capita consumption expenditure on cooked food purchased

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-50	21	53.84	53.84	32	66.66	66.66
50-100	10	25.64	79.48	14	29.16	95.82
Greater than 100	8	20.51	100	2	4.16	100
Total	39	100.00		48	100	

Source: Survey data

It was found that about 60% of the total rural households did not spend on cooked food purchased from outside their homes and more than half of those who spend spend less than Rs. 50 per capita per month on the item. There are 20% of households who spend more than Rs. 100 on the item in the rural sector. It was found that most of the Scheduled castes in the sample area being agricultural laboures or other labourers they are far off in their work place and are unable to take food from their own houses, Not only that some of them consider it as convenient. In the urban sector about 67% of households spend less than Rs 50 per capita per month on the item. Among the urban households 62% reported consumption of the item urban households showed more preference towards spending on the item especially those in

the higher MPCE classes. This might be intune with the emerging conspicuous consumption pattern among the higher income groups in Kerala as per NSSO data.

6.13 Per capita consumption of individual items: Non-food

Monthly per capita consumption expenditure on non-food items has also been analysed to understand the difference between expenditures on food and non-food items.

6.13.1 Consumption of Pan, tobacco & intoxicants

Pan, tobacco & intoxicants form a major consumption item for almost all the sample households. Table 6.52 shows that out of the total 200 households 184 households spent on the item. Consumption of Pan, tobacco & intoxicants is at very high level among Scheduled castes as per the sample data. Expenditure incurred on the items indicates that a considerable % of the population consume extravagantly. In the rural sector number of households who spend on the item is higher in the lower expenditure classes as compared to urban. 57 % of those who spend on the item in rural areas and 37% in urban areas have an average monthly expenditure below Rs. 30. 22% of those households in the rural sector have an average per capita expenditure of Rs.30-60, while in the urban sector it is 36%. Similarly 10 % of rural households have an average per capita expenditure of Rs.60-100 and the corresponding % in urban sector was 15%. Among those who spend on the item in rural 10% spend Rs.100-250 per capita per month on the item and for urban sample this was 13%. It is found that moving to higher expenditure classes in the rural sector the sample Scheduled caste households spend extravagantly on Pan, tobacco & intoxicants. Also in rural sector even among lower expenditure classes the expenditure on the item is found much higher. The low per capita income position of the households along with higher expenditure on pan, tobacco, drugs & intoxicants adversely affects their consumption standard. It is observed that those households having larger expenditure on the item especially in the lowest expenditure classes have not even the basic consumption requirements. This is true in case of both rural and urban households in the sample areas and this is one of the most important

reasons for the very low consumption standards of Scheduled castes in comparison to general households as observed also through NSSO data for Kerala as well as India.

Table 6.52. Monthly per capita consumption expenditure on Pan tobacco and intoxicants

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. frequency
1-10	19	20.65	20.65	5	5.43	5.43
10-20	19	20.65	41.30	17	18.48	23.91
20-30	15	16.30	57.60	12	13.04	36.95
30-40	12	13.04	70.64	15	16.30	53.25
40-50	4	4.35	74.99	9	9.78	63.03
50-60	4	4.35	79.34	9	9.78	72.81
60-70	5	5.43	84.77	5	5.43	78.24
70-85	4	4.35	89.12	2	2.17	80.41
85-100	0	0.00	89.12	6	6.52	86.93
100-125	2	2.17	91.29	8	8.70	95.63
125-250	7	7.61	98.90	4	4.35	99.98
250 above	1	1.09	100	0	0.00	100
Total	92	100.00		92	100.00	

Source: Survey data

6.13.2 Consumption expenditure on Fuel & light

97% of the sample households in the rural sector and 69%in urban spent less than Rs.50 per person on this item. As per Table 6.53 while only 3% of households in the rural sample spent more than Rs 50 per person on the item, in the urban sector 31% of sample households belonged to this category. Rural Scheduled caste households spent much less on the item than urban households. One reason for this is found in the fact that in the rural sample consumption out of cash purchase of the item constitutes only 46.7% of total expenditure on the item as presented in Table 6.29 earlier [check this in sources of consumption] In the urban sector 58.3% of the total consumption of item is out of cash purchase In the rural sector, the main source of fuel may be firewood whereas in the urban are it may be kerosene or LPG.. Consumption of the item from other sources[19]constitutes 53.3% in the sector and in the urban this is only 41.8%.

Table 6.53 Monthly per capita expenditure on Fuel & lights by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
1-10	8	8.00	8	0	0.00	0
10-20	52	52.00	60	8	8.00	8
20-30	25	25.00	85	19	19.00	27
30-40	10	10.00	95	18	18.00	45
40-50	2	2.00	97	24	24.00	69
50-60	1	1.00	98	12	12.00	81
60&above	2	2.00	100	19	19.00	100
Total	100	100		100	100	

Source: Survey data.

6.13.3 Consumption expenditure on clothing

Table 6.54 indicates that among the rural and urban sample households, higher expenditure classes, expenditure on Clothing increases rapidly. In the rural sector per capita expenditure on Clothing for the lowest 7% of households were below Rs.50 and the corresponding in urban was 6%. 21% of households rural and 10% in urban spend Rs. 50-100 per capita per month on the item. 72% of households in rural and 83% in urban spend Rs. 100-250 per capita per month on Clothing.

Secondary data analysis has shown that expenditure on Clothing is very high among households in Kerala. As per sample data it is found that Scheduled caste households in the lower MPCE classes spend very less on the item in both sectors and those in higher MPCE classes follow the general consumption trend observed in Kerala for the item.

Table 6.54 Monthly per capita expenditure on Clothing by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency	No. of households	%	Cu. Frequency
20-30	1	1.00	1.00	1	1.03	1.03
30-40	3	3.00	4.00	1	1.03	2.06
40-50	3	3.00	7.00	4	4.12	6.18
50-60	3	3.00	10.00	1	1.03	7.21
60-70	2	2.00	12.00	1	1.03	8.24
70-85	10	10.00	22.00	4	4.12	12.36
85-100	6	6.00	28.00	4	4.12	16.48
100-250	72	72.00	100.00	81	83.5	99.98
Total	100	100		97	99.98	

Source: Survey data.

6.13.4 Consumption expenditure on Footwear

The survey has revealed that nearly 36% of the households are not spending any amount in their MPCE on the item. As per Table 6.55 of the 88 households who spent on the item in rural sample 65% spend on Footwear to the tune of Rs.1-30 per head monthly. In the urban sector the corresponding % was 57%. In the rural sample 20.45% spend on Footwear to the tune of Rs.30-70. In the urban sector the corresponding % was 30.26. 14.78% of households in rural and 13.16% of households in urban spend above Rs.70 per capita per month on Footwear.

The NSSO data showed that expenditure on this item by Scheduled castes has gone up in recent years. During 1983 the average expenditure on the item for Scheduled castes in rural sector in Kerala was Rs.0.39 that is 0.37 % of the total MPCE. By 1987- 88 this has increased to Rs.0.83 ie. 0.50 % of total MPCE. In the urban sector the corresponding change was from Rs. 0.54 ie.0.4% in 1983 to Rs.1.56 i.e. 0.85 % in 1987-88.

But in the all-India level the proportion of the total expenditure on this item for Scheduled castes in rural sector has grown from Rs.0.79 ie. 0.83% of MPCE in 1983 to Rs.1.18 ie 0.88% of MPCE in 1987-88 and to Rs.1. 73 ie 0.72% in 1993-94.

Table 6.55 Monthly per capita expenditure on Footwear by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F	Number of households	% of households	Cum. f
1-10	21	23.86	23.86	12	15.79	15.79
10-20	20	22.73	46.59	18	23.68	39.47
20-30	16	18.18	64.77	13	17.11	56.58
30-40	7	7.95	72.72	9	11.84	68.42
40-50	6	6.82	79.54	6	7.89	76.31
50-60	2	2.27	81.81	5	6.58	82.89
60-70	3	3.41	85.22	3	3.95	86.84
70&above	13	14.78	100.00	10	13.16	100.00
Total	88	100		76	100	

Source: Survey data

6.13.5 Consumption expenditure on Education

Of the 200 households only 118 households reported to spend on Education. That is 60% in rural and 58% in urban... Table 6.56 show per capita expenditure on Education.

Table 6.56 Monthly per capita expenditure on Education by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F	Number of households	% of households	Cu. Frequency
10-20	4	6.67	6.67	2	3.45	3.45
20-30	1	1.67	8.34	2	3.45	6.90
30-40	4	6.67	15.01	2	3.45	10.35
40-50	4	6.67	21.68	4	6.90	17.25
50-60	5	8.33	30.01	0	0.00	17.25
60-70	5	8.33	38.34	1	1.72	18.97
70-85	6	10.00	48.34	2	3.45	22.42
85-100	8	13.33	61.67	4	6.90	29.32
100-250	23	38.34	100.01	41	70.68	100.00
Total	60	100		58	100	

Source: Survey data

Since Scheduled castes receive the various types of financial assistance for Education from government per capita expenditure estimates on the item presented here may not be the actual picture. As per NSSO data the average MPCE on Education among Scheduled castes has gone up in recent years. Of the households reporting expenditure in the rural sector, 37% spend on the item between Rs10-100 per head per month.

In the urban sector 29.32% of households reporting expenditure, spent between Rs.10-100 per head per month. In the urban sample 70.58% households spend between Rs 100-250 per head per month this and their % is much higher than that of rural sample. Hence we find that urban Scheduled castes households in the higher MPCE classes spent much more on the item per person compared to rural Scheduled caste households.

6.13.6 Consumption expenditure on Medical services

Medical expenditure is a very important item among non-food expenditure of Scheduled caste households. Expenditure on medicines and Medical services of different households is determined by a number of factors and hence expenditure data on the item have been collected for last 30 days and also for previous 365 days. In Table 6.57 average monthly per capita expenditure data is presented. Nearly 17% of the households in rural are not spending any amounts on Medical. In the rural sector, nearly 46% of the Scheduled caste households, who spend, spend below Rs 50 per person per month and in urban sector nearly 16%. Among households belonging to the top expenditure class in the urban sector 84.53% spend above Rs. 50 per capita per month as Medical expenditure and the corresponding % for rural is 54.23%. Medical expenditure is found to be noticeably higher per head in the upper MPCE class of urban sample than rural.

Table 6.57 Monthly per capita expenditure on Medical by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F	Number of households	% of households	Cu. Frequency
1-10	1	1.20	1.20	0	0.00	0.00
10-20	5	6.02	7.22	1	1.19	1.19
20-30	8	9.64	16.86	3	3.57	4.76
30-40	17	20.48	37.34	2	2.38	7.14
40-50	7	8.43	45.77	7	8.33	15.47
50&above	45	54.23	100.00	71	84.53	100.00
Total	83	100		84	100	

Source: Survey data.

6.13.7 Consumption expenditure on Entertainment

Table 6.58 shows that of the 200 households only 77 households spend on entertainments. Among Scheduled caste households expenditure on the item is found to be negligible in rural as well as urban sectors. About 85% of households who spent on the item in the rural sector spent between Rs.1-20 per month. Scheduled caste households in sample area are having much lower per capita expenditure on the item

and may be due to their lower income levels. Even in the urban sector about 84% of households had the same expenditure pattern on the item. It is found that even for the . upper MPCE classes of urban sector expenditure on Entertainment does not constitute a major item among non-food items

Table 6.58. Monthly per capita expenditure on Entertainment by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F
1-10	22	55.00	55.00	21	56.76	56.76
10-20	12	30.00	85.00	10	27.03	83.79
20-30	4	10.00	95.00	1	2.70	86.49
30-40	1	2.50	97.50	2	5.41	91.90
40-50	1	2.50	100.00	1	2.70	94.60
50&above	0	0.00	100.00	2	5.40	100.00
Total	40	100		37	100	

Source: Survey data

It shows that the influence of place of residence is much less in the determination of expenditure on recreation and Entertainment among Scheduled caste households.

6.13.8 Consumption of Goods for personal care, toilet articles and sundry articles.

Table 6.59 shows that 85% in rural and 84% of households in urban spend less thanRs.20. 97% of sample rural households and 94% of urban sample households spend below Rs.50 per person on the items. Households belonging higher MPCE classes spending more than Rs. 50 per person constitute only 4% in the urban sector and 2% in the rural.

It is found that Scheduled caste population of the sample area do not show preference to spending more on cosmetics and other personal commodities and whatever expenditure on the item is recorded is on account of expenditure on toilet articles on which most of households recorded larger expenditures. Here rural urban differences are not pronounced as in the case of certain other commodities.

Table 6.59. Monthly per capita expenditure on Goods for personal care by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F	Number of households	% of households	Cu. Frequency
1-10	56	57.14	57.14	36	36.36	36.36
10-20	31	31.64	88.78	25	25.25	61.61
20-30	7	7.14	95.92	29	29.29	90.90
30-40	1	1.02	96.94	3	3.03	93.93
40-50	1	1.02	97.96	2	2.03	95.96
50&above	2	2.04	100.00	4	4.04	100.00
Total	98	100		99	100	

Source: Survey data

6.13.9 Consumption Expenditure on Travel and conveyance

Besides Travel expenditure needs of households differ based upon the nature of jobs, place of residence etc. Table 6.60 shows monthly per capita expenditure on Travel by households.

Table 6.60 Monthly per capita expenditure on Travel by households

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F	Number of households	% of households	Cu. Frequency
1-10	3	4.76	4.76	2	3.28	3.28
10-20	3	4.76	9.52	4	6.56	9.84
20-30	4	6.35	15.87	3	4.92	14.76
30-40	3	4.76	20.63	4	6.56	21.32
40-50	7	11.11	31.74	5	8.20	29.52
50-60	1	1.59	33.33	1	1.64	31.16
60-250	42	66.56	99.89	42	68.86	100.02
Total	63	99.89		61	100.020	

Source: Survey data

67% of rural households and 69% of urban households had an average expenditure of Rs. 60-250. 10% each in rural and urban spend below Rs.20 per capita on the item.

The study has also collected data on other items of non-food expenditure such as expenditure on other miscellaneous items, Taxes, rent, newspaper and magazines, household work and food items such as cooked food purchased etc. The data has shown that expenditure on each of these items constitute only negligible amount {or not at all found} in the consumption baskets of SC's, hence has not included in the analysis.

6.13.10 Consumption of Durable goods

Expenditure on Durable goods being not a regular item in the consumption basket for every month, data on the item was collected for the last 30 days and also for previous 365 days. Data presented in Table 6.61 shows average one-month expenditure on the item based on 365 days expenditure data collected.

Table 6.61 Monthly per capita consumption expenditure on Durable goods

Per capita Expenditure class	Rural			Urban		
	Number of households	% of households	Cum. F	Number of households	% of households	Cu. Frequency
1-10	11	25.00	25.00	31	38.75	38.75
10-20	10	22.73	47.73	8	10.00	48.75
20-30	4	9.09	56.82	4	5.00	53.75
30-40	2	4.55	61.37	3	3.75	57.50
40-50	5	11.36	72.73	1	1.25	58.75
50&above	12	27.27	100.00	33	41.25	100.00
Total	44	100		80	100	

Source: Survey data

44 % of the rural sample households and 80% of the urban sample households have reported to spend on the item. This shows that Durable goods does not constitute an important item in the consumption basket of SC's belonging to lower expenditure classes in rural sector. Among those who spend 73% spend on the item to the extent of Rs.1-50 per head monthly and 27% spend Rs.50-250 in the rural sector. Among urban sample 59% of those who spend on the item spend to the extent of Rs.10-50 per head monthly and 41% spend Rs.50-250.

Average expenditure on the item for the rural sample was Rs.17.96, which constituted 4.82% of the total MPCE. For the urban sector average MPCE on the item was Rs.68.80, which was 3 times greater than rural average MPCE on the item. This constituted 13.07% of total MPCE in the urban sector.

We find that both rural and urban sample households are spending considerable amount on Durable goods. Among them upper MPCE classes and urban households spend conspicuously on the item.

As per NSSO data in Kerala rural SC's MPCE on Durable goods is increasing in recent years. Average expenditure on the item in 1983 was Rs3.32, which constituted 3.15 % of the total MPCE. In the urban sector as per NSSO data the expenditure on the item in 1983 was Rs1.91 which amounted to 1.42 % of the total MPCE. In 1987-88 expenditure on the item increased to Rs.8.25 (5 %) in rural and Rs.2.13 (1.16 %) in urban. As per primary data, it is found that the urban SC sample households in the upper MPCE ranges are exhibiting features of consumerism regarding expenditure on Durable goods.

6.14 Possession of Durable goods

Household consumer goods other than food, fuel & Clothing /Footwear are classified into "Durable goods" and a residual "Miscellaneous goods" category. Items included here are distinguished from Miscellaneous goods by having a longer expected lifetime of use (roughly, one year or more). Expenditure incurred on repairs and construction of durable used for domestic purpose is included in expenditure on Durable goods[20]

Durable goods used for household purposes thus include furniture and fixtures, recreational goods such as musical instruments, T.V cassettes, cameras, jewelry and ornaments, clocks and watches, household utensils, appliances for cooking heating, cooling and other work such as sewing, vehicles for personal transport, and lamps and other electrical and sanitary fittings.

Table 6.62 give estimates % of households possessing different Durable goods in different deciles groups of population (from poorest 10% ranked by MPCE, to richest 10%) and the entire population of rural and urban areas.

Table 6.62 Percentage of households possessing different items of
Durable goods in rural and urban

MPCE Class			
SI. No	Items	Rural	Urban
1	Bedstead	55.0	76.0
2	Almirah etc	22.0	37.0
3	Table, Chair	62.0	70.0
4	Any other	66.0	56.0
5	Radio	40.0	46.0
6	Television, Video	6.0	25.0
7	Tape Recorder	6.0	17.0
8	Camera	2.0	1.0
9	Musical Instruments	0.00	0.00
10	Others	0.00	1.0
11	Gold (gm)	77.0	78.0
12	Silver (gm)	34.0	27.0
13	Stainless steel utensils	24.0	43.0
14	Copper utensils	10.0	13.0
15	Aluminium utensils	27.0	44.0
16	Brass Utensils	26.0	24.0
17	Other	14.0	12.0
18	Electric fan	15.0	32.0
19	Stove	13.0	26.0
20	Pressure Cooker	4.0	15.0
21	Sewing Machine	5.0	15.0
22	Washing Machine	0.0	2.0
23	Refrigerator	1.0	7.0
24	Mixer Grinder	5.0	14.0
25	Air conditioner	0.0	0.00
26	Others	1.0	0.00
27	Bicycle	11.0	14.0
28	Motor cycle, Scooter	0.00	3.0
29	Car, jeep	0.00	0.00
30	Others	0.00	1.0
31	Clinical etc	0.00	1.0
32	Type writer	2.0	0.00
33	Other personal goods	43.0	31.0

Source: Survey data.

33 different Durable goods are considered. The all decile group figures for certain important item are considered first.

6.14.1 Rural-Urban Differences in possession of Durable goods

The % of possessor household in urban areas are in nearly all cases higher than the corresponding % for rural areas. Rural –Urban differences in incidence of possession are seen to be low in case of items like radio, Table, gold, For the other

durables listed in Table 6.65, the rural -urban differentials are much higher. Examples are electric fan (rural 15%, urban 32%, stove rural 13% urban 26%).

6.14.2 Variation with over all level of living

Table 6.63: Percentage of households possessing different items of Durable goods in each MPCE class - rural

Items	MPCE class					
	0-200	200-400	400-600	600-800	>800	All
Bedstead	53.6	44.4	65.0	60.0	83.3	55.0
Almirah etc	7.1	22.2	30.0	20.0	66.7	22.0
Table, chair	39.3	55.6	85.0	90.0	83.3	62.0
Any other	67.9	55.6	80.0	80.0	50.0	66.0
Radio	39.3	30.6	50.0	60.0	33.3	40.0
Television, Video	0.0	0.0	15.0	10.0	33.3	6.0
Tape Recorder	0.0	5.6	10.0	10.0	16.7	6.0
Camera	0.0	2.8	5.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
Musical Instruments	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Gold (gm)	67.9	72.2	85.0	90.0	100.0	77.0
Silver (gm)	32.1	41.7	30.0	20.0	33.3	34.0
Stainless steel utensils	17.9	16.7	30.0	40.0	50.0	24.0
Copper utensils	3.6	5.6	15.0	0.0	66.7	10.0
Aluminium Utensils	21.4	19.4	30.0	40.0	66.7	27.0
Brass Utensils	10.7	22.2	35.0	50.0	50.0	26.0
Other	7.1	5.6	20.0	30.0	50.0	14.0
Electric fan	3.6	0.0	35.0	40.0	50.0	15.0
Stove	0.0	5.6	30.0	10.0	66.7	13.0
Pressure Cooker	0.0	0.0	10.0	0.0	33.3	4.0
Sewing machine	7.1	2.8	5.0	0.0	16.7	5.0
Washing machine	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Refrigerator	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.7	1.0
Mixer, Grinder	0.0	0.0	10.0	10.0	33.3	5.0
Air conditioner	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.7	1.0
Bicycle	7.1	5.6	5.0	40.0	33.3	11.0
Motor, cycle, Scooter	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Car, jeep	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Clinical etc.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Type writer	0.0	2.8	5.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
Other personal goods	39.3	50.0	45.0	30.0	33.3	43.0

Source: Survey data

Table 6.63 & 6.64 give the %s of households possessing each item of Durable goods in each MPCE classes in rural and urban areas.

Variation with over all level of living is studied based on %s of possessing households belonging to different ranges of household monthly per capita consumer expenditure. Thus each of the five rural and urban MPCE groups contain roughly same % of population both in rural and urban and may be thought of, respectively, as the ' poorest' [in terms of level as reflected in the MPCE], the 'next poorest', and so on up to the 'richest'.

Table 6.64 : Percentage of households possessing different items of Durable goods in each MPCE class- urban

Items	MPCE class					
	0-200	200-400	400-600	600-800	>800	All
Bedstead	61.5	64.7	80.0	82.4	100.0	76.0
Almirah etc	7.7	11.8	40.0	58.8	87.5	37.0
Table, chair	46.2	58.8	90.0	76.5	81.3	70.0
Any other	46.2	35.3	60.0	58.8	100.0	56.0
Radio	30.8	38.2	55.0	64.7	43.8	46.0
Television, Video	0.0	8.8	10.0	41.2	81.3	25.0
Tape Recorder	0.0	2.9	15.0	29.4	50.0	17.0
Camera	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3	1.0
Musical Instruments	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3	1.0
Gold (gm)	61.5	70.6	80.0	82.4	100.0	78.0
Silver (gm)	15.4	17.6	45.0	29.4	31.3	27.0
Stainless steel utensils	61.5	41.2	20.0	29.4	75.0	43.0
Copper utensils	7.7	8.8	5.0	23.5	25.0	13.0
Aluminium Utensils	61.5	41.2	30.0	35.3	62.5	44.0
Brass Utensils	30.8	11.8	15.0	29.4	50.0	24.0
Other	7.7	2.9	10.0	11.8	37.5	12.0
Electric fan	7.7	8.8	25.0	58.8	81.3	32.0
Stove	7.7	0.0	15.0	52.9	81.3	26.0
Pressure Cooker	0.0	0.0	5.0	17.6	68.8	15.0
Sewing machine	0.0	5.9	15.0	29.4	31.3	15.0
Washing machine	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	2.0
Refrigerator	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.9	37.5	7.0
Mixer, Grinder	0.0	0.0	5.0	23.5	56.3	14.0
Air conditioner	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bicycle	15.4	8.8	25.0	11.8	12.5	14.0
Motor, cycle, Scooter	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.8	3.0
Car, jeep	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Others	0.0	2.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
Clinical etc.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3	1.0
Type writer	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other personal goods	15.4	17.6	40.0	41.2	50.0	31.0

Source: Survey data

The five ranges of MPCE to which the population of rural and urban areas correspond are specified by their lower [or upper] limits. Here the object of interest is the variation among the different MPCE groups in respect of the % of households possessing each item of durable good s.

In figures 1-5 the % of households in different MPCE class reporting possession are shown graphically for five of the 33 Durable goods considered, with the MPCE classes represented on horizontal axis.

Figure 6.9 Leisure time needs-% of possessor households-Rural
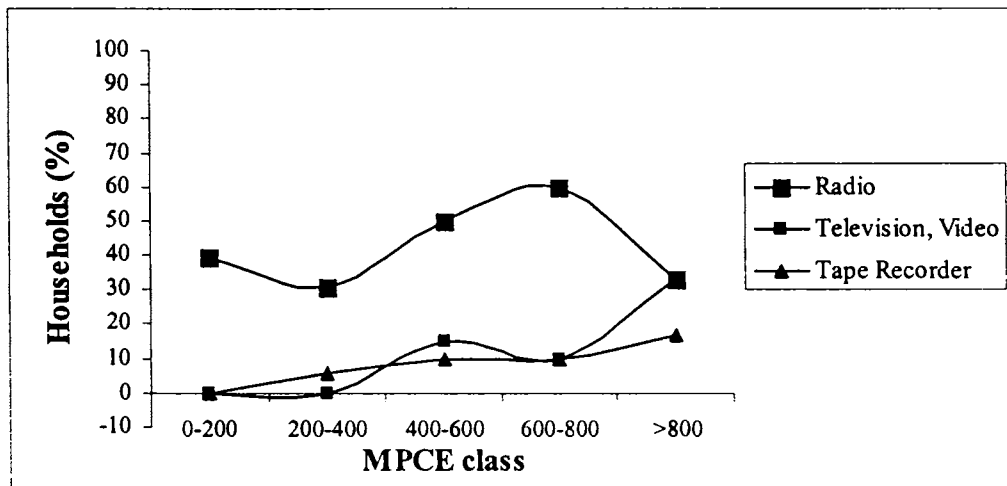
Figure 6.10 Leisure time needs-% of possessor households-Urban
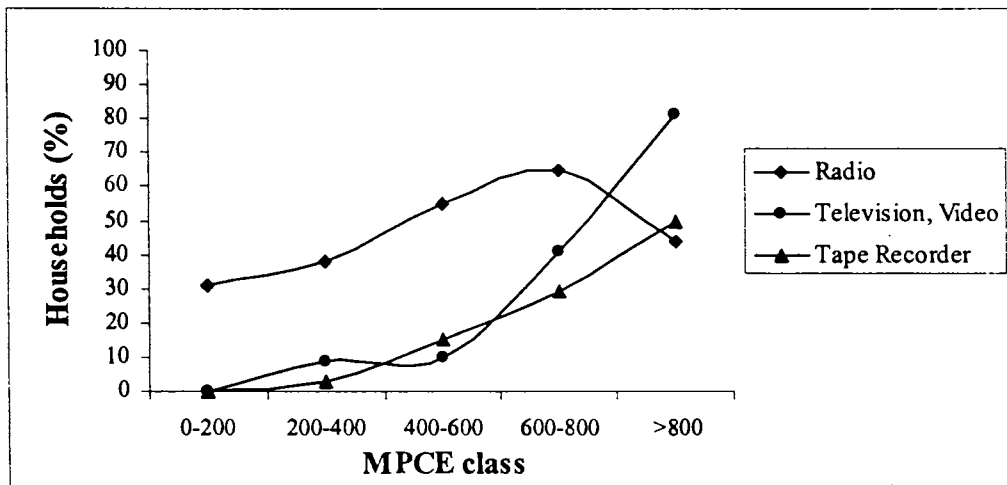
6.15 Goods for leisure time needs:

Figures 6.9 and 6.10 show possession of goods for leisure time needs[21]

6.15.1 Radios

There is no marked contrast between rural and urban areas in the way the incidence of possession varies over the MPCE Classes. For urban areas the curve is seen to flatten out considerably. The % of possession in the lowest MPCE class is 30.8% and in the highest 46%. In rural areas on the other hand the proportion of possessor households in the lowest MPCE class is 39.3% and in the highest 40%. In rural as well as urban areas a considerable %of households consider it as a leisure time equipment that they can afford

6.15.2 Television and Video

There are much later arrivals on the Kerala market, compared, for the instance, to the T.V.set. Incidence of possession in the lowest MPCE class is 0% and highest MPCE class 33.3%in rural areas. The average for 'All' is only 6%. In the urban sector for lowest MPCE class the % of possession is 0% and for highest MPCE class is 81.3% Both commodities are clearly luxury items with the incidence of possession rising sharply The incidence of possession curve rises sharply for upper MPCE classes of urban sector as per NSSO data for general households. In urban Kerala TV sets are possessed by nearly 15%_of households in even the lowest MPCE class and by nearly 50% households in the top MPCE class.

6.15.3 Tape Recorder

There is marked contrast between rural and urban areas in the way in which incidence of possession varies over the MPCE classes for the urban areas the curve is rising steadily as different from rural. The % of possession in the lowest MPCE class is zero and in the highest 50% In the rural sector on the other hand the proportion of possessor households in the lowest MPCE class is also zero and in the highest MPCE class only 16.7 %.

6.15.4 Equipments for household work

Figures 6.11 and 6.12 gives possession of Equipments for household work.

6.15.5 Stoves

In the lowest MPCE class of rural population on3.6 % possessed stoves and in the highest MPCE class 66.7%

Figure 6.11 Labour saving Household equipment -% of possessor households-rural
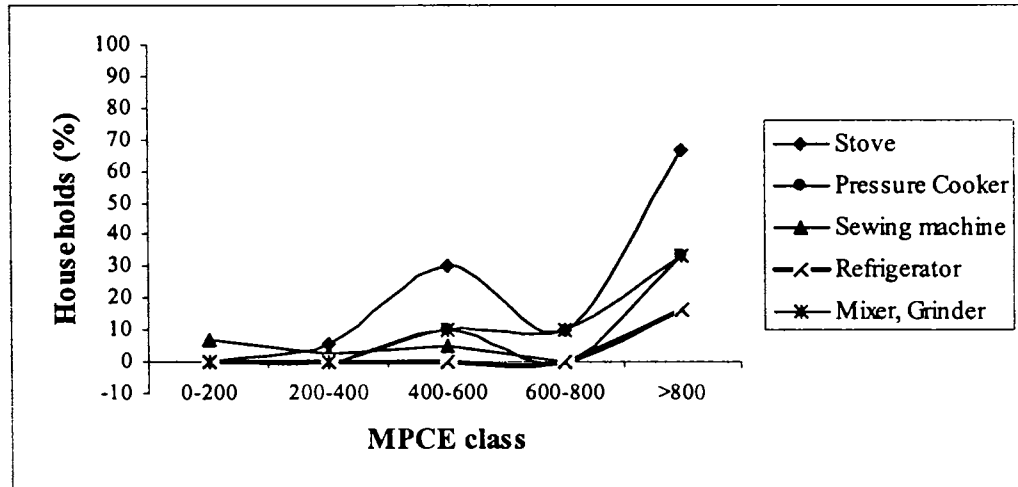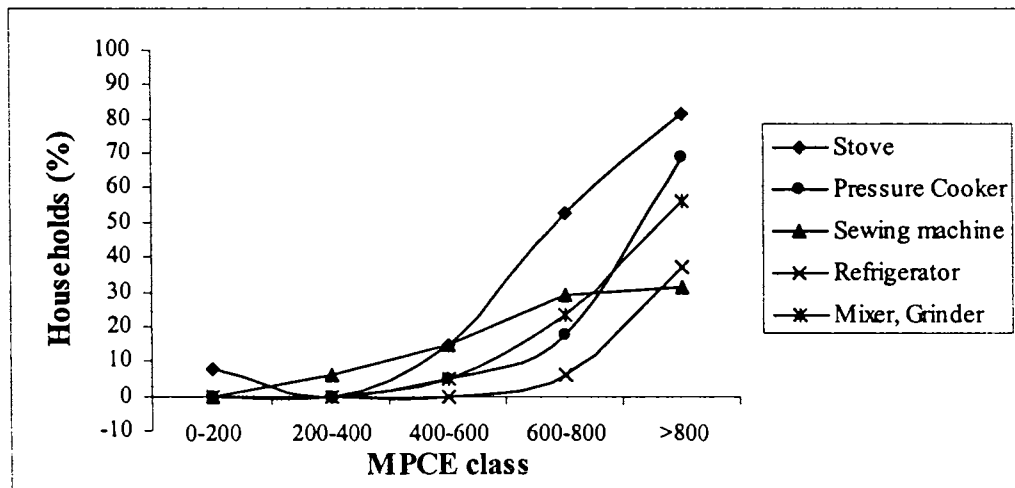

Figure 6.12 Labour saving Household equipment -% of possessor households-Urban

For urban areas figure 6.7 the variation in the % of possessing household is not a totally different kind as in case of general households given in NSSO data. Starting at a level of 7.7% for the lowest MPCE class, the % rise with each successive MPCE class up to the 5th, at which point a peak (81.3%) is reached. The data thus enable one to identity fairly accurately, the average level of living at which the stove, in urban Kerala, begins to get substituted by "superior" equipment such as the LPG cylinder.

6.15.6 Pressure cookers

The % of rural possessor households is zero for the first two MPCE classes of both rural and urban sectors. The incidence of possession then rises, ending at 33.3% for the top MPCE class in rural and 68.8% for urban

6.15.7 Refrigerators

This commodity unmistakable luxury character not only for rural SC's Kerala but also for urban SC's. % of possessor households is of course much higher in urban areas 37.5% for the highest MPCE class. In rural areas none of the households possessed the item till the top most MPCE class where it is 16.75%

6.15.8 Sewing machine

In rural area the % of possessor households is higher [7.1%] for lowest MPCE classes than urban [0 %]. For the highest MPCE class the % is 16.7 in rural and 31.3 in urban. The curve is roughly linear and the propensity to possess a machine increases only gradually with level of living,

6.15.9 Other durables

Figure 6.13 and 6.14 gives possession of other durables.

6.15.9.1 Electric Fans

The lowest MPCE class in rural sector has about 3.6 % households possessing electric fans and the highest MPCE class 50%. The incidence of possession is very low for the lowest two MPCE classes but it goes up suddenly from 3rd MPCE class onwards The incidence of possession curve rises thereafter steeply.

The % of urban households with fans goes up from 7.7% for the lowest MPCE class to 81.3for the highest, the slope of the incidence of possession curve increases progressively as one move from lower to upper MPCE classes.

6.13 Electric fan, bicycles and two wheelers -% of possessor households-rural
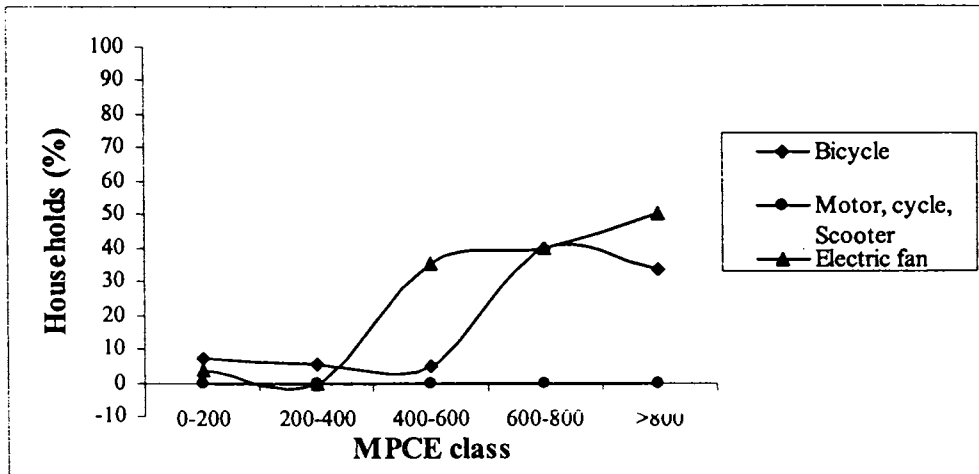
6.14 Electric fan, bicycles and two wheelers -% of possessor households-urban
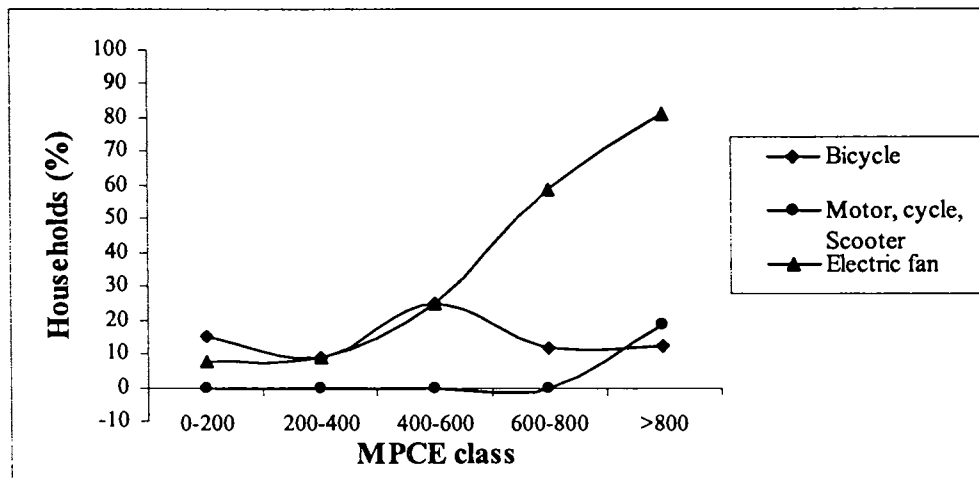
6.15.9.2 Motor cycles/Scooters

As per NSSO data the % of households with motorcycles or Scooters raises smoothly in both rural and urban Kerala. In rural areas the % remains under 5% up to the 9th MPCE class and then rises sharply to 24% for the highest MPCE class. As per the sample data of rural SC's none of the SC households possessed the item being an unreachable expenditure. In the urban sector possession of the item is reported only for the top expenditure class [18.8 %]. This shows that even for urban SC's the item is a pure luxury.

6.15.9.3 Bicycles

The bicycle on the other hand is, a commodity affordable for many SC households in rural as well as urban areas with the possession rate reaching a peak of 33.3 % for the top MPCE class in rural. In urban the % of possession increases from a minimum

of 15.45 to 25% for third MPCE class and then starts declining. The urban SC's consider it as an 'inferior' item after they reaches a certain level of expenditure. In rural areas, by contrast, the % of households with bicycles, rises from 7.15 % for the lowest MPCE class and rises for each MPCE class and reaches 33.3% for the top MPCE class.

6.16 Average number possessed by households reporting possession

Table 6.65 and Table 6.66 shows for each 31 different Durable goods, average number possessed by sample SC house holds in rural and urban areas. The following features deserve mention.

Table 6.65 Possession of Durable goods by MPCE classes Rural

Items	MPCE class					
	0-200	200-400	400-600	600-800	>800	All
Bedstead	1.3	1.7	2.2	2.0	3.0	1.9
Almirah etc	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4
Table, chair	2.0	2.0	3.1	3.0	5.2	2.7
Any other	1.8	2.8	1.9	2.1	3.3	2.2
Radio	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Television, Video	-	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Tape Recorder	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Camera	-	1.0	1.0	-	-	1.0
Musical Instruments	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gold (gm)	10.4	17.4	18.4	25.3	23.0	17.3
Silver (gm)	75.3	47.3	104.2	300.0	35.0	78.9
Stainless steel utensils	1.8	7.5	10.5	14.8	14.3	9.1
Copper utensils	1.0	6.0	1.0	-	2.3	2.5
Aluminium Utensils	1.2	1.9	4.0	7.5	4.5	3.4
Brass Utensils	1.3	1.3	1.6	3.0	2.3	1.8
Other	1.0	6.5	6.3	8.7	12.0	7.3
Electric fan	1.0		1.3	1.3	2.7	1.5
Stove	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Pressure Cooker	-	-	1.0	-	1.0	1.0
Sewing machine	1.0	1.0	1.0	-	1.0	1.0
Washing machine	-	-	-	-	-	-
Refrigerator	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.0
Mixer, Grinder	-	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Air conditioner	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.0
Bicycle	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Motor, cycle, Scooter	-	-	-	-	-	-
Car, jeep	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clinical etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Type writer		1.0	1.0			1.0
Other personal goods	1.5	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.2

Source: Survey data

The five ranges of MPCE to which the population of rural and urban areas correspond are specified by their lower [or upper] limits. Here the object of interest is the variation among the different MPCE groups in respect of the % of households possessing each item of durable goods.

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Table 6.66 Possession of Durable goods by MPCE classes -Urban

Items	MPCE class					
	0-200	200-400	400-600	600-800	>800	All
Bedstead	1.8	1.5	2.3	2.6	3.0	2.2
Almirah etc	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.2
Table, chair	2.3	1.8	2.1	2.6	5.5	2.8
Any other	1.5	1.3	1.9	2.4	3.4	2.3
Radio	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Television, Video	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Tape Recorder	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Camera	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.0
Musical Instruments	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.0
Gold (gm)	12.4	11.1	25.8	40.7	77.1	33.1
Silver (gm)	23.0	29.2	41.3	68.4	34.8	41.1
Stainless steel utensils	6.3	6.9	10.0	20.2	24.8	13.6
Copper utensils	1.0	2.0	3.0	1.0	4.3	2.4
Aluminium Utensils	4.3	4.7	4.5	6.0	6.7	5.2
Brass Utensils	1.5	2.5	2.7	2.8	4.0	2.9
Other	10.0	4.0	6.0	7.0	9.5	8.1
Electric fan	2.0	1.0	1.4	1.5	2.4	1.8
Stove	1.0	-	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.2
Pressure Cooker	-	-	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.5
Sewing machine	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Washing machine	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.0
Refrigerator	-	-	-	1.0	1.0	1.0
Mixer, Grinder	-	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Air conditioner	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bicycle	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Motor, cycle, Scooter	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.0
Car, jeep	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	1.0	-	-	-	1.0
Clinical etc.	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.0
Type writer	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other personal goods	1.0	1.3	1.8	3.0	2.6	2.1

The five ranges of MPCE to which the population of rural and urban areas correspond are specified by their lower [or upper] limits. Here the object of interest is the variation among the different MPCE groups in respect of the % of households possessing each item of durable good s.

The five ranges of MPCE to which the population of rural and urban areas correspond are specified by their lower [or upper] limits. Here the object of interest is the variation among the different MPCE groups in respect of the % of households possessing each item of durable good s.

6.16.1 Furniture

Table 6.65 and 6.66 reveals that rural-urban differences are very less in case of furniture. Among all items of furniture, almirah is the only item for which the average number possessed by a rural SC household (1.41) is more than that in urban areas (1.22). The average number of bedsteads, possessed by a rural household (1.85) is less than that in urban areas (2.21). For other types of furniture, the average number is more or less the same in two sectors.

6.16.2 TV/VCR/VCP

Among the TV/VCR/VCP owning households the average number of sets owned was 1 in rural SC sample and the same in urban SC sample. This is low as compared to the average possession of television and VCR/VCP sets for general population in rural [1.03] and urban [1.05] Kerala as per NSSO data.

6.16.3 Radio

No variations are found in the average number of radio sets possessed by household in urban (1.0) and rural (1.0) sectors.

6.16.4 Tape recorder

No variation in found in the average number of tape recorders possessed by households in urban (1.0) and rural (1.0) sample areas The vast majority of possessor households possessed only one and none of them possessed a second one.

6.16.5 Gold and Silver

Wide variations are observed in the average quantity of possession of Gold and Silver in the rural and urban areas. SC households possessed on an average of 33.09 gms Gold in the urban sample area while rural sample SC households ₋possession was only 17.25 gms. Similarly regarding possession of silver rural SC households seen to be possessing more silver ornaments (78.91 grms) than urban (41.07). The poor asset position of SC households in the sample areas especially in rural sector is revealed in this

6.16.6 Household utensils

While the average number of copper utensils possessed by rural SC households (2.50) exceeded that of urban (2.38) for all other types of household utensils, the average number of possession per household was higher in urban areas. Among household utensils stainless steel utensils was found to be used more by SC's both among urban and rural households.

6.16.7 Stove, pressure cooker

SC households in the urban area reported an average of 1.19 stoves possessed compared to (1) in rural areas. Implying that all possessor households in rural sample possessed only one. In the urban sample the vast majority of possessor households also possessed only one and less than 19 % owned a second one Average number of pressure cookers possessed in urban area was 1.53. While in rural it was (1) pressure cooker.

6.16.8 Mixer Grinder

Rural-urban difference was not found in the possession of mixer grinder. Average possession of the item was equal (1) in both sample sectors.

6.16.9 Electric fan, Sewing machine

A household possessed 1.81 electric fan on an average in urban area while the same in rural was 1.53.Regarding sewing machine number possessed was equal in both sectors, (1) sewing machine.

6.16.10 Washing Machine, Refrigerator

While none of the sample SC households possessed washing machine, the urban average possession for those who possessed was (1) machine per household. Both urban and rural areas reported equal average possession of (1) refrigerator.

6.16.11 Two Wheelers

Sample SC households reported very low possession of personal vehicles a household possessed 1 bicycle on an average in both rural and urban sample areas. Rural sample households have not reported possession of any other two wheelers namely motorcycles, Scooters etc. The only one which SC's of sample rural area consider as attainable is a bicycle. The average possession of Motorcycle and Scooter was (1)

For urban sample households neither rural nor urban households reported possession of other vehicles such as car, jeep, etc.

6.16.12 Other personal goods

Among rural households the average household possession of the personal goods was reported to be higher (2.19) as compared to urban (2.13) possession of the same.

6.16.13 Expenditure on Durable goods

Expenditure on durable for the sample population as a whole, forms a very small proportion of total household expenditure. Per capita household expenditure on durables is estimated in the survey as only Rs.17.96 (4.82%) total household spending in rural sector and Rs.68.80 (13.07%of total) in urban sector.

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6. Note: Any other: Aged, Children, Unemployed.

7. Note: Other labourers includes: Construction workers, Household workers, Headload workers and House wives.

8. Note: Employed: both in government sector and in private sector, the major categories included are Engineer, Army, Teacher, Peon, Attender, Sweeper, Thotty, Driver etc.

9. Note: Self Employed: Fish Selling, Beedi Making, Fire wood collection etc.

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12. Note: Others: rented houses, layam or government accommodations free of charge etc.

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15. NSSO, (2001), "Level and Pattern of Consumer Expenditure in India", 55th round data, Report No.457, PP.38-41.

16. Note: Others: Students, Any other: Aged, Children. Unemployed.

17. Note: Unemployed or unable to work.

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19. Note: Other sources include from free collection from neighbors, forest

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21. Leisure time needs: Radio, Tape recorder, Television, Video.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

More than half a century has elapsed after India attainted independence. Ever since then our National leaders and the successive Governments have brought about a number of reforms with the specific objective of alleviating the poverty of the downtrodden masses especially the backward communities. Despite all these efforts we find that even now they continue to remain marginalized from enjoying the fruits of development. Even in a State like Kerala which boasts of a unique development experience, with social indicators like literacy birth rate, death rate and health status being comparable to countries like U.S.A, the scheduled castes, especially those living in the rural areas are still experiencing standards of living much below that of the general population. In this context, the present study made an attempt to analyse the socio-economic background and the consumption pattern of scheduled caste households in Idukki district. The summary of the findings on various aspects and recommendations of the study are given in this chapter.

A comparative study of the MPCE of Scheduled castes in India and Kerala with that of General households in India and Kerala using NSSO data has brought out the following features:

7.1 Distribution of MPCE among scheduled Castes

Looking to the proportion of persons in each MPCE level, it is found that, the MPCE position of schedules castes population in rural Kerala is lower than that of the general population. This is the same trend at all India level. The MPCE position of SC's in urban Kerala is also lower than that of general population in Kerala.The same trend is found at the all India level. However the MPCE position of rural Kerala SC's is better than that of SC's in rural India. The MPCE position of urban Kerala SC's is also higher than that of SC's in urban India. More percentage of SC population in rural Kerala fall in lower MPCE levels than urban SC's. Similarly in rural India more percentage of SC's fall in lower MPCE classes than urban SC's..

Looking in to the distribution of persons in to different MPCE classes. It is found that MPCE position of SC households in both rural and urban Kerala is lower than that of non-Sc households in both sectors in both Kerala and India. MPCE position of SC's in both rural and urban Kerala is better than that of SC's in the All India level. More percentage of SC's fall in lower MPCE ranges in rural Kerala than Urban Kerala. Similar is the trend in all-India also.

7.2   Size distribution of Scheduled Castes

Looking to the average size of SC households it is found that, In case of rural Kerala for SC's average household size is higher than (5.24) the urban SC's (4.75).All India level also rural SC's have larger household size (4.85) than urban SC's (4.75).Average size of rural SC households in Kerala is higher than rural SC households in All India. Average household size of urban SC households in Kerala is higher than All India urban SC's. Average household size is higher in rural sector for SC's in Kerala as well as all-India.

7.3   Proportion of Expenditure on food of SC's

Analysis of proportion of expenditure on food for scheduled Castes provided the following findings: For rural Kerala SC's percentage expenditure on food declined from 1983to 1987-88.Same trend is found for food expenditure in all-India also. For rural India SC's percentage expenditure on food declined from 1983 to 1993-94.Food expenditure for Kerala urban SC's declined from 983 to 1987-88.In case of urban India SC's percentage expenditure on food declined from 83 to 93-94. Here it is observed that the pattern similar to that of general households.

In rural Kerala for general households, percentage expenditure on food declined from 1983 to 1987-88.In rural India for percentage expenditure on food declined from 1983 to 63.23 in 1993-94..For urban Kerala general households the percentage expenditure on food increased from 1983 to 1987-88.For urban India general households the percentage expenditure on food changed only very little between 1983 to 1987-88. But there was a steady decline between 1987-88 and 1993-94.So it is found that as in case of the general households in Kerala as well as in India

percentage of expenditure on food of scheduled castes was declining between 1983-1993-94.

7.4   Pattern of Consumption Expenditure of SC's.

It is found that (considering all expenditure classes) average MPCE of SC's in rural Kerala is lower than that on general households). This is similar to the situation of SC's and general households of all India rural sectors. In the top most MPCE classes of Rs.300& above the average MPCE of SC's found very high in Kerala. At All- India level in the top most MPCE classes of Rs.300& above the average MPCE of SC's is greater than that of general households

Unlike the pattern of MPCE for the total population of SC's, the top expenditure class among Sc's exhibit close similarly in average MPCE to the general population in rural India. In the top expenditure class in rural average MPCE is lower and MPCE on food is higher for general households That is the average MPCE is higher and MPCE on food is lower for SC's in the top expenditure class. SC's belonging to top expenditure class spend morethan general households on food items like cereals, fish and egg and on non-food items like pan, tobacco and intoxicants, miscellaneous goods and services and durable goods in rural India. SC's in rural India spend less than general households on food items like pulses, milk and milk products, fruits and nuts, beverages and refreshments and non-food items like clothing and footwear in the top expenditure class. Considering all expenditure classes, average MPCE of SC's in rural and urban Kerala and India is lower than that of general households. Considering " top expenditure class" in rural and urban sector average MPCE of SC's in higher than general households on items such as cereals, meat, fish and egg and non-food items like pan, tobacco and intoxicants, miscellaneous goods and services and durable goods.

7.5   Per capita Expenditure.

As observed earlier average monthly per capita expenditure general households of Kerala is found much higher than that of SC's of rural and urban Kerala. In urban Sc's spend on food 63.08% on food and general households spend

59.38%SC's non-food expenditure in rural Kerala was 33.48% of total MPCE and that of general households 38.33%. The same trend was seen in urban also. MPCE on cereals of Sc's of rural Kerala was higher than that of general households in rural Kerala. In urban Kerala also same trend. SC's had higher average MPCE only on cereals, and spices in rural Kerala than general households urban SC's have higher average MPCE on sum more items sugar, and beverages and refreshments than non-SC's in urban Kerala. Among non-food in rural and urban Kerala SC's have higher expenditure on only two items pan, tobacco and intoxicants, fuel and light. It is found that Sc's in both rural and urban Kerala have higher percentage expenditure on food than general households Among food items cereals, cereal substitutes and spices are the item that lead in the food basket of SC's than general households MPCE on non-food items pan. Tobacco and intoxicants and fuel and light exceed that of general households in both rural and urban Kerala.

7.6 Movement in budget Share

Analysis of movement in the budget share for SC's over the period using NSSO data 1983- 1993-94 showed that over the period from 1983- 1987-88, expenditures have increased an all items for SC's in both Kerala and ali India rural and urban. Proportion of expenditure on food declined while that of non-food has increased. In food group in rural and urban items attracting more expenditures were cereals, beverages and refreshments, meat, egg and fish and spices. Percentage expenditure on clothing is found to be declining while expenditure on footwear is increasing in both sectors. In urban sector percentage of expenditure on durable goods found decreasing during the period, and increasing in rural sector. Per capita expenditure on the item was found less than that in rural sector.

7.7 Percentage expenditure of SC's

Looking to the percentage expenditure over the years for Kerala, it is found that for SC's expenditure on cereals is declining over the period in both rural and urban Kerala Similar trend s found in all India level percentage expenditure on cereals declined steadily during the period. Increase in percentage expenditure has been observed in case of durable goods. Increase in percentage expenditure has been

seen for all India SC's in rural and urban for durable goods. Expenditure on clothing in total non-food expenditure in declining for SC's in rural sector of Kerala and increased in urban Kerala. At all India level also clothing expenditure has been declining for SC's.

7.8 Per capita consumption expenditure.

Looking to per capita consumption expenditure it is found that average MPCE of SC's lower than that of general households in rural Kerala. Same trend is found in rural India also. In urban Kerala also average MPCE of SC's is lower than that of general households same trend is found in urban India also.

7.9 Rural Urban differences Kerala Consumption Pattern

Examinations of consumption pattern of rural and urban Kerala for Scheduled castes show significant changes. In rural sector, footwear, durable goods and total non-food are found to be consumed at an increased rate. In urban consumption of durable goods is fast increasing. Cereals expenditure is declining for rural SC's of Kerala. Clothing expenditure is declining for rural and increasing for urban. In both rural and urban Kerala for SC's expenditure ratio of food and non-food items changed showing decrease in food consumption and an increase in non-food consumption. Similar trend is found in all-India also expenditure ratio of food and non-food items has changed. Non-food consumption of SC's in Kerala rural SC's higher than that of rural India SC's. For durable goods SC's in urban Kerala have lower expenditure than urban all India SC's.

7.10 MPCE among Occupation groups.

Higher proportion of population in lower MPCE classes is seen among labour households (agricultural labour, other labour) than all households in Kerala. Similar trend is seen in rural India also MPCE levels casual labour households were lower than other categories of households in urban Kerala. In urban India also same trend has been observed MPCE among Occupation Groups for SC's. Estimation of the two lowest and two top MPCE classes brings some important differences. At the all India level it is found that SC's is more affected by poverty than "others" in each

occupation category. Incidence of poverty is more pronounced among agricultural labour households among SC's. in the lower tail of MPCE distribution. In the upper tail of MPCE distribution, differences among SC's is most prominent for "other type" households.

Analysis of the consumption expenditure pattern and socio-economic background of sample Scheduled Caste households gave the following findings.

1. The scheduled casts living in the rural sample of Idukki district belong to five types of occupational categories viz, Agricultural labourers (17.87%) Other labourers (25.11%), Farmers (1.70%), Regular salaried (9.15%) and Self employed (2.98%). Percentage of unemployed in the rural sample is 8.51. Students constituted 9.36% in the rural sample.

   The scheduled caste living in the urban sample of Idukki district are engaged in four types of occupations viz; Agricultural labourers (10.19%), Other labourers (27.01%), Regular salaried (17.54%) and Self employed (1.66%). The percentage of 'others' is found to be much high among SC's.

2. Among the rural sample SC house holds literacy rate is 91% and in the urban sample it is 84%. There is 3.2% male illiteracy and 6.2% female illiteracy among sample rural SC's of Idukki district. In the urban sample the male illiteracy is 3.3% and female illiteracy is 13.3%.

3. 20.9% of rural sample and 17.3% of urban sample have "below standard V", level of education. 55.5% of rural sample and 50.5% of urban sample SC's have education level "Standard V – Standard X".

4. Only 3.1% of rural SC's and 13.5% of urban SC's in sample area belong to an educational level of "above SSLC".

5. Average household size of rural sample is 4.7 and that of urban sample 4.22. Rural household size of SC's is higher than urban household size. At the all India level and for Kerala state average household size of SC's in rural sector is found higher than that of urban SC's.

6. Average monthly per capita income of rural sample SC's (Rs.450) is lower than the same for urban sample (Rs.634.4)

7. Average monthly per capita expenditure of rural sample SC's households (Rs.372.57) is found lower than the same for urban sample (Rs.526).

8. Average monthly per capita savings among sample SC households is very less; lower in rural sample (Rs. 78.42) than in urban sample (Rs. 93.33).

   Among sample in SC households in both rural and urban more percentage of households fall in lower Monthly Per Capita Consumption Expenditure (MPCE) classes as similar to the trend found between SC's in all India and all Kerala

9. The percentage of SC households in the MPCE class of above Rs. 355 (top MPCE class) is higher for urban sector in Kerala (50%) than in rural sector (20%).

10. In the top most MPCE class at all India level for SC's, the average MPCE (Rs.448) is greater than that of general population (Rs. 445). The same trend is found in Kerala also. This could be because they have been able to avail the concessions offered to them, while the people in the lower MPCE classes may not even be aware of these issues.

11. Also for the SC's belonging to the top most MPCE class in the sample rural and urban areas have high average MPCE.

12. Unlike the pattern of MPCE for the total of SC's, the top expenditure class among them exhibits close similarity in their average MPCE to the general population in all India and Kerala.

13. For the sample SC households in both rural and urban, proportion of food in total expenditure is higher for lower expenditure classes and proportion of non-food higher for higher expenditure classes as already established by theory.

14. At all India level, SC's in the top expenditure class spend more than general households on food items such as cereals, meat, fish and egg and non-food items like pan, tobacco and intoxicants, miscellaneous goods and services and durable goods. They spend less than general households on food items such as pulses, milk and milk products, fruits and nuts, beverages and refreshments and non-food items such as clothing and footwear.

In Kerala SC's in both rural and urban have higher percentage expenditure on food, than general households. MPCE on pan, tobacco and intoxicants of SC's exceeded that of general households in both rural and urban Kerala which is one reason why they have not been able to rise up from the low standards of living.

15. For the sample rural SC's MPCE on food constituted 56.88% and in urban 45.46%. MPCE on non-food of sample SC's in rural constituted 43.12% where as in urban areas it was 54.54%. Those SC's living in urban areas have adapted the life styles of the other communities and have more or less merged in to the main stream of the community.

16. Significant differences are there in the "total expenditure" and "expenditure on non-food items" between SC's in rural and urban samples in the study area.

17. Mean consumption of food is not significantly different in rural and urban sample area.

18. Over the period from 1983 to 1993–1994 for all India and Kerala expenditures on all items have increased for SC's in both sectors.

    The proportion of expenditure on food declined and that of non-food increased for SC's during the period. Percentage expenditure on cereals is found declining over the period.

19. Top most MPCE classes among rural and urban SC households in sample area show preference towards non-food expenditure and conspicuous consumption which is in line with the general pattern of behaviour.

20. Total expenditure of SC households consisted of consumption out of cash purchases; home grow stock, gift loan and free collection.

21. Results of χ^2 test revealed that there is significant association between monthly per capita expenditure and income, education, occupation and place of residence for SC's in sample area and this finding supported the third hypothesis.

    It was found that higher MPCE levels are associated with higher income, higher levels of education, better occupational status and residents in urban areas.

22. Results of regression analysis using double log model showed that there is significant differences in the consumption elasticity of different items among SC households in the study area. This finding supported the initial hypothesis of the study.

23. Significant differences exist in the consumption pattern of poorer and richer segments of SC population in the sample area. Average MPCE on food and non-food items by SC's belonging to different decile groups showed disparities in the distribution of MPCE. This finding has supported the second hypothesis of the study.

7.11 Recommendations

The study has found that the levels of livings of the Scheduled Castes are far below the expectations. Large percentage of the Scheduled Caste belongs to low-income groups. This is due their very low economic status and the consequent employment prospects in low paying occupations. The consumption standards of the majority of Scheduled Castes are found to be much below that of General population. Effective implementation of the Schemes for their economic upliftment is needed for improving their consumption standards

Some of the scheduled castes have a comparatively better status in educational field. But the educational attainments of the Scheduled Castes especially in the rural areas are much below that of General population. Hence the present educational concessions to Scheduled Castes should be continued wherever necessary.

The analysis of the occupation distribution of Scheduled Castes has revealed a very dismal picture even after five decades of programmes for their upliftment. For their economic upliftment a change in their occupational pattern is necessary. The Minimum wage Act in the case of agricultural labourers should be enforced.

In the agricultural sector the contribution of Scheduled Castes is mainly as agricultural labourers. Their participation as cultivators is handicapped by the non-availability of cultivable land. For those few cultivators among them the lack of resources is the main hurdle in developing their land. As the educational attainment of

a majority of Scheduled Castes are very low the bulk of the population should be provided employment in other fields. The sectors, which can absorb them, are the agricultural and small industries sector. There are a few hailing from households pursuing traditional and cottage industries. Regarding the case of Scheduled Castes in Idukki district this is very important. Facilities for enlarging their activity should be provided; others should be given employment in the agricultural sector.

Schemes for improving the health standards of women and children among Scheduled Castes is necessary to improve their consumption standards. Majority of the Scheduled castes having low educational status are either not aware or are careless of the importance of better health standards. Hence they are found to be addicted to pan, tobacco and drugs and intoxicants, which adversely affects not only their health but also hinders their economic progress. This also adversely affects the consumption standards of the other members of the households.

The housing conditions of the Scheduled castes in the study area are found to be deplorable both in rural and urban sectors. Even though the Government has implemented various schemes they have not been properly utilized and hence programmes for creating better awareness regarding the schemes should be provided. Besides the colonization programmes should be extended to the unreached areas and the existing facilities in the colonies should be improved.

Lack of availability of enough State level data on the status of scheduled castes and also on different sub-castes is a major problem in studying the conditions of Scheduled Castes in Kerala. An intensive data collection on the various socio-economic aspects of Scheduled Castes is necessary to help the researchers in the field.

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