Study Guide

SOCIOLOGY OF DEVELOPMENT

MEANING AND EXPLANATION

Code No: 8229 **Unit: 1-9**



Department of Sociology
Faculty of Social Sciencs & Humanities
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY

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(BS ENGLISH)

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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD

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PREFACE

One of the few clearest lessons of the study of development in the last two decades is that no individual discipline can adequately deal with the complexity of the topic, and indeed that some form of multidisciplinary approach is necessary, if our present understanding is to be deepened. This course attempts to incorporate such a perspective, although it must be understood that we make no claim for a balanced multidisciplinary text. Such a goal has remained elusive for the present generation of textbooks. While the course emphasizes the contribution of sociologists, it also draws on the work, ideas and data generated by economists, social anthropologists, political scientists, geographers and many others who are not easily pigeon-holed.

The basic aim of this course is to provide students of social sciences with an overview of the major issues surrounding development, with a particular emphasis on social change and social action. We have a wide range than most sociology of development texts in an effort to provide an introduction to the multiple faces of development. Thus, we move from description of conditions in the Third World to global theories of social change and from policy considerations to the modes of social organization required for development. In the short space allowed it is hard to cover everything in detail but from the references provided all subjects can be followed up by the interested student. The course is a test for BS students who are new to the discipline.

In the opening unit we have explored some of the fundamental problems of concept and orientation in the study of development. In units 2, we switch our attention to the various approaches used by the development theorists to explain the nature and course of development. This survey takes us from the modernization school of the 1950s to the neo-Marxists, populists and counter revolutionaries of today.

In unit 3 we tried to explain the different variables of development and how these variables are related to the development in different sectors of life. The unit 4 looks at some of the major issues and how developing countries have attempted to solve them. The special focus is given to the role of aid in development of underdeveloped societies.

Unit No. 5 explains the concept of resource mobilization and types of resources. Discussion is made also on the importance of human resource development. unit No. 6, explained the importance of development planning and enabling policy environment. In unit No. 7, the relationship between technology and socio-economic development of a society is explained.

We can see that some areas in the world as well as in most of the countries are more developed and others are left behind. It is evident that some areas receive more funds and attention than others. This issue is discussed in unit No. 8. In the last unit, the functioning of mass media in the content of development is discussed.

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Unit–1

INTRODUCTION

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INTRODUCTION

As an introduction of the course this unit describes the meanings of Sociology of development. Whereas the terms and definition of the discipline have been explained in the course's perspectives, the relationship between social sciences and development has also been discussed. At the end of the unit the aims of this course for social sciences are also highlighted as well as how the student will benefit from this course. The major topics covered in these units are following.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you will be able to:

1. explain the dynamism of the concept of development.

2. differentiate the relationship between social sciences and development.

3. identify the aims of this course.

1.1 Objectives of The Course

Most of the human disasters are as much to do with complex social and economic processes as they are related with environmental management. The scale of these disasters seems to get worse as time passes. In September 1988, 75 per cent. of the entire country of Bangladesh was under water with 25 million homeless. Future tragedies on a bigger scale are likely, perhaps most particularly in Latin America.

We are concerned as to why do these events occur more frequently in the poorer countries of the world? Would they be less likely to happen if they were developed? Why aren't they developed with better irrigation systems, more effective agriculture and less susceptibility to extremes of weither. Also how did the rich countries of the world open with these problems, if indeed they ever had to. The historical and contemporary experiences of the poorer countries of the world appear so different from well-established industrial states, that it a pear that they exist within a nether world, the ' Third World'. In order to decide whether there is anything unusual about less developed countries, and so to make sense of inequalities within and among between countries, we have to have some idea about the conditions that encourage prosperity and those that work against it. Over the past two decades' social scientists have set themselves the task of understanding patterns of 'development' and social change, particularly those that promote prosperity. These are the specific questions that organize the vast range of material that makes up the sociology of development. More specifically the objectives of the course are as follows:

1. To enable you to understand the social phenomenon of development.
2. To enable you to critically assess, and evaluate the development policies and planning.
3. To give you awareness of the different comparative perspectives on development.

1.2 Terms and Definition of the Discipline

Moreover, we need to know about the social implications associated with growth of consumer markets and the introduction of modern technology in a society. Do such things always undermine existing cultures and traditional ways of life? It may be the case that even when people participate in new economic activities they m ay act in ways that improve their life chances and their standard of living without undermining their traditional culture. This suggests that in some circumstance’s material prosperity may increase without cultural patterns changing markedly. But it may also be the case that, ultimately, without a thorough change in cultural values and norms, only a restricted improvement in material prosperity is possible.

The way in which people regard their lives depends very much on the resources they can command especially through their membership of social groups. If people are well off in a society, it is likely that they will attempt to sustain their relative advantage over others by acting culturally and economically in ways that will create obstacles for others trying to rise from below. The advantaged will become an interest group, perhaps a social class or status group. So in the Third World we may be interested in examining the activities of the colonial and ex-colonial elite. What resources did and do these elite groups command to sustain their advantage? Since the world is unevenly developed, it is crucial to ask as to what extent this is the result of groups defending their interests at both international and national levels. This question lies at the heart of a number of related approaches to development that are distinct from and highly critical of modernization theory.

1.3 Social Sciences and Development

The centers for development studies all over Europe (such as the universities of East Anglia and Sussex) have promoted important research in the area. In Third World countries themselves, academics and political leaders have made and are making increasingly important contributions to the development debate. Official international agencies attached to organizations such as the United Nations (for example the International Labour Office), financial institutions such as the World Bank and the commercial banks spend millions of dollars each year encouraging economic growth in the Third World.

Earlier, Western research including sociological research, was more concerned with what was going on in Western societies. After the Second World War the development of research techniques encouraged social surveys that embodied more and more statistical data. These statistics could be more conveniently, cheaply and reliably obtained in one's own country. Besides, Western social science tended to be home-centered and only as much of it was tied to the demands of governments that s ought advice and information in connection with the growth of the Welfare State. Research in overseas countries was typically carried out by anthropologists interested in patterns of pre-industrial culture rather than in wider social processes connected with patterns of world development.

Reviewing the contributions of the great sociologists such as Marx, Weber and Durkheim, we see the beginnings of a global perspective in as much as all three put forward ideas that they thought were relevant to all societies, both pre-industrial and industrial. Their models of society were in fact built on a number of assumptions about the very origins, passage and future of society. In some ways, then classical sociology was directly concerned with the analysis of social

development. However much of this, as we shall see, relied on nineteenth century theories of evolutionary social progress that bore little resemblance to the processes that were at that very period of history beginning to lay the foundations for the underdevelopment we now see in the Third World.

1.4 Aims of the Text

This course is an introductory guide to the range of debate that has generated among social scientists. The course is primarily though not exclusively interested in the work of those who have concentrated on the sociological aspects of development, specially known as the sociology of development.

The course concludes with a look at the future examining the policy implications of different approaches towards the Third World and asks whether industrialization is likely to occur there through either capitalist or socialist routes.

Although the sociology of development has never been a pure sociology it is now, more than ever, a hybrid creature drawing on political science, social anthropology, economics and other disciplines. The Work of sociologists is the central focus of this book, but the students will find that the multi-disciplinary nature of development studies is reflected in the ideas and writings on which we have drawn. We have examined the issue that increasingly confronts the discipline: should sociologists be purely students of social change or should they become actively and practically involved in attempts to induce social change? As this decade has proceeded, the call for the adoption of a m ore applied sociological stance has gathered i n strength. A g rowing number of sociologists believe that they must not only seek to explain development but also roll up their sleeves and become involved in the day-to-day business of formulating development policy, designing social organizations and planning and evaluating development projects. We anticipate that in the 1990s the debate over whether or not the sociology of development should, and can, become more applied will become a major concern for sociologists.

To summarize the points made so far: the text aims to have:

1. A broad global perspective focusing on the interconnection between rich and poor countries;
2. An awareness of the specific cultural and economic features of the Third World;
3. An awareness of the interaction between old and new forces at work in society.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

The tragedy of famine in Ethiopia will have serious consequences for its neighbor, Sudan, as new refugees flow into the country. [in Port Sudan] 45000 Ethiopians are spontaneously settled in a community of about 350,000 people who have an area of wasteland called Kuria. There is no sanitation in Kuria. There are no taps, and families can spend up to a third of their income buying water brought round in an oil drum on a donkey cart. A II the children suffer from malnutrition and there is ❑ ne s mall UN clinic with two staff member to deal with the entire population.

(Guardian 29 March 1983)

Sudanese relief workers distributed flour to people displaced by flooding yesterday as the Blue Nile continued rising and over-flowed into new areas of Khartoum. But fears receded of epidemics following earlier floods in which 1.5 million people lost their homes in the Sudanese capital.

(Independent, 25 August, 1988)

Two stories separated by the five years that have elapsed a period through which we move from a drought-stricken Ethiopia to a flooded Sudan, whose own refugees search for a safe haven, perhaps in a neighboring state. Drought and flood can bring famine and both are ecologically linked: desertification and flash flooding are the twin results of farming practices that remove trees and allow top-soil erosion.

Read these stories carefully then select a similar type of story and analyze it with special reference to this course?

FURTHER READINGS

Introduction to Sociology of Development, Andrew Webster 1990, 2nd Edition Macmillan Education Ltd, Hong Kong.

Sociology and Development, David Hulme and Mark Turner, 1999, 1St Edition, St Martin Press, New York and Social Change in Pakistan Syed Abdul Quddus, 1999, 2nd Edition progressive Publishers.

Unit–2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

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INTRODUCTION

In these units we will review some of the major postwar approaches to the sociology of development and their evolution from classical political economy onward. Development theories are not only large in number but also usually straddle, with different emphasis in various disciplines such as economics political science and sociology. It is not possible to cover all of these but the most relevant ones have been discussed here.

These theories explain, as to what is happening in the Third World and how the development can be achieved. So far, no theory has achieved and maintained explanatory dominance. They see no clear way forward but have argued that certain meta theoretical problem requires solution before further advances can be made. Some of these details have been discussed here while the others are given in the reader. The major topics covered in these units will be as follows.

OBJECTIVES

After reading these units you will be able to learn:

1. the different approaches of development.

2. how the concept of development is related to the social change and human progress?

3. how the different schools of thought understand development and under-development?

4. the relationship between theory and practice.

2.1 Approaches to Development

Any study of the concept of development must take into account its historically determined character. Although it can be argued that some forms of economic development and social change have existed in most societies throughout history. Consciousness of the fact that societies develop and the concept that economic development should be promoted are relatively new phenomena which arise in precise historical circumstances. The very concept of development appears rather late, in close connection with the emergence of capitalism and the critique of feudal society. This is because, before the arrival of capitalism, there existed mainly agricultural societies whose productive forces limited by feudal property relations changed very slowly over the years and whose economic output was consequently relatively stagnant. It was capitalism that for the first time allowed productive forces to make a spectacular advance, thus making it possible for the idea of material progress and development to arise. The agent of this process and of the new concept of development is the bourgeoisie as it cannot exist without constantly revolutionizing the instruments of production and also the relations of production with society.

Capitalism emerged from the contradictions of feudal society, in particular from the class struggles which led to the breakdown of serfdom and the undermining of peasant ownership of land. These processes culminated in the conscious political struggles of the bourgeoisie which sought to dismantle those medieval institutions that presented such obstacles to the increase in productivity as the restrictions on free trade and on the personal freedom of workers, the restrictive practices of guilds, the prohibition of charging interest on loans, and so on. The first formulations of the new conception of development (or progress as it was more usually called then) can be round in the work of classical political economy which represented the interests of the rising bourgeoisie. It was in the struggle of the British bourgeoisie against the remnants of feudalism that the idea of development was born. There is, then a connection between the conception of development and the development of specific social conflicts.

This relationship between the concept of development and historically determined social processes (which is only a particular formulation of the more general principle of the social determination of knowledge) can be applied to the subsequent development of political economy and indeed to the general evolution of theories of development. Marx was the first to propose such a connection in the case of political economy when he argued that the development of political economy and of the opposition to which it gives rise keeps pace with the real

development of the social contradictions and class conflicts inherent in capitalist production.

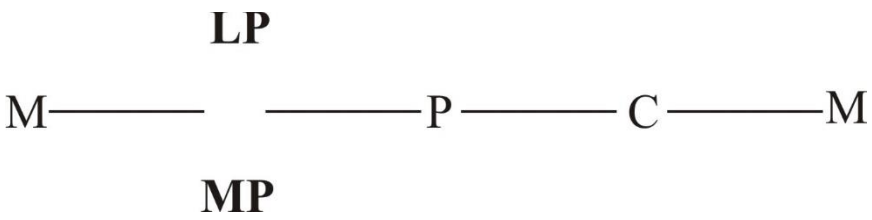
Marx sought to show that as long as working-class struggles were undeveloped or latent, political economy could remain a genuine scientific enterprise. Its emphasis on the real relations of production attracted the opposition of Sismondi and others who stressed the importance of distribution. As soon as working-class struggles became more widespread and threatening vulgar political economy substituted apologetics and political expediency for scientific research and dealt with appearances only. But it then attracted a sharper and more general criticism, especially in Germany: So far as such criticism represents a class, it can only represent the class whose vocation in history is the overthrow of the capitalist mode of production and the final abolition of all classes i-e the proletariat. Marx clearly states his contribution in this perspective and goes on to show how the German bourgeoisie has tried and failed to kill `capital'. It can be said, therefore, that Marx saw his own contribution as determined by the development of class conflicts.

It is argued that this crucial relationship must be extended to cover, more generally, the development of development theories throughout the history of the capitalist mode of production. However, there are within this framework three things, First, to situate the concept of development and map out the evolution of development theories in relation to the development of real contradictions and conflicts inherent in the increasingly internationalized capitalist system. Second, critically to appraise the main theories of development from the point of view of their ideological and conceptual underpinnings. The range from the simple ideological conceptions that, by remaining at the level of appearances, mask and take out of existence the social contradictions of capitalism; through others which rigorously analyses the relations of production which lie behind the appearances of the market but wrongly treat them as self-evident necessities imposed by natural laws to those which accurately deal with the inner relations of the world capitalist system and explore their likely forms of change. Third, to identify the central categories and concepts which follow us a better understanding of contemporary. Development processes, especially those which allow to grasp the productive that lie at the centre of development in definite historical form.

2.2 Marxist Approach

For Marx, development in the restricted sense of capitalist creation of wealth can be described in a twofold manner. In its material content, development is ab out the expansion of productive forces and the increased production of commodities. In its form dev elopement is about the accumulation of capital, that is to say, the drive of

capital both to appropriate the surplus value produced by labor and embodied in the commodities and to realize it by selling the commodities in the market, thus allowing the process to be repeated on a wider scale. Marx synthesized this process of expansive accumulation in the following formula



With money M the capitalist buys two kinds of commodities C in the market, labor5-power LP and other means of production MP, which he or she combines and puts to work in the production process P in order to produce commodities C which possess more value than those he or she b ought in the market and which he or she now sells in the market for more money M than the amount originally invested, and which he or she must re-invest again in order to get even more money. This is the process of capital accumulation which is entirely dependent on the fact that the value of labor-power, and the value which that labor-power creates, are two entirely different magnitudes, and this difference of the two values was what the capitalist had in view, when he was purchasing the things.

To increase accumulation is therefore to extract more surplus- value. Given the physical limitations to prolong the working day (absolute surplus-value), capitalists must try to reduce the value of labor-power (relative surplus-value) by increasing the productivity of labor by means of new technology and improved methods of production. There is immanent in capital an inclination and constant tendency, to heighten the productiveness of labor, in order to cheapen commodities, and by such process of development can be described simultaneously as increased capital accumulation and as continuous growth of productive forces and of commodity production. The latter is the condition for the former.

However, the development of productiveness does not only accelerate accumulation, it also brings about a tendency for the rate of profit to fall as a result of the higher composition of capital, as is, in its turn, a necessary consequence of falling relation of variable capital (surplus value) and rising relation of constant capital to total capital advanced. In other words, because the technological development needed to increase relative surplus-value means that capital contains an increasingly larger portion of means of production and a progressively smaller portion of living labor, surplus-value tends to decline as compared to the value of the total capital advanced. The effect of this is that while the mass of capital

increases, the rate of profit falls an existing capital is depreciated. Furthermore, the increased mass of capital tends to concentrate as the minimum capital required to employ labor productively rises, and the competition between capitalists grows. All this may eventually lead to a crisis of over-production of means of production and increased stocks which cannot be sold. Surplus value cannot be realized and this results in bankruptcies and unemployment. Part of the capital is then destroyed or withdrawn, thus allowing the4 stronger capitalist who survived the crisis to recover their value.

In this way Marx shows that the two aspects which define capitalist development end up contradicting one another:

2.3 Modernization School

In the 1950s and early 1960s modernization theory was developed by a number of social scientists, particularly a group of American scholars the most prominent of whom was Talcott Parsons as much of his interest in modernization was prompted by the decline of the old colonial empires. The Third World became a focus of attention by politicians who were keen to show countries pushing for independence that sustainable development is possible only under the western wing (rather than that of the Soviet Union). Academics reflected this interest by examining the socio-economic conditions conducive to modernization.

2.3.1 Tradition Versus Modernity

In constructing the accounts of development, theorists drew on the traditional modernity distinction of classical sociologists, like Durkheim and Weber, who placed most emphasis on the values and norms that operate in these societies and their economic systems. Like Durkheim, many argued that the transition from the limited economic relationships of traditional society to the innovative, complex economic associations of modernity depended on a prior change in the values, attitudes and norms of people. Bauer for example, argues that:

Economic achievement and progress depend largely on human aptitudes and attitudes, on social and political institutions and arrangements which derive from these, on historical experiences, and to a lesser extent on external contacts, market opportunities and on natural resources.

Development then depend on 'traditional', 'primitive' values being replaced by modern ones.

In a 'traditional' society, three crucial features are noted:

a) The value of traditionalism itself is dominant: that is, people are oriented to the past and they lack the cultural ability to adjust to new circumstances;

b) The kinship system is the decisive reference point for all social practices, being the primary means through which economic, political and legal relationships are controlled. One's position in the kinship system and hence in the society is ascribed, not achieved- that is, is a reflection of the status or standing of the family, clan or tribe into which one is born. One's position only changes as one moves up the family hierarchy. Status is then, not earned or achieved, but conferred by virtue of kin relationships;

c) Members of the traditional society have an emotional superstitious and fatalistic approach to the world. As things have always been this way. In contrast 'modern society' is made up of completely opposite characteristics:

d) People may still have traditions but they are not slaying to them and will challenge any that seems unnecessary or get in the way of continued cultural progress (that is they do not suffer from `traditionalism').

e) Kinship has much less important role in all areas of society (even within the family) because of the need for geographical and social mobility which weakens family ties as w ell a s moreover, one's position i n t he economy, polity etc., is earned through hard work and high achievement motivation and not determined by kinship;

f) Members of the modern society are not fatalistic but forward looking and innovative ready to overcome the obstacles they find in their way, particularly in business affairs, reflecting a strong entrepreneurial print and rational scientific approach to the world.

2.4 Develop Mentalism

For more details of "Sociology of Development" reading No. 2, and for the above three topics i.e. "Socialist Model", "Neo-Populism" and "Developmentalism" please see the book titled "Theories of Development" by Jorge Larrin 1st Edition in 1989.

2.5 Structural Adjustment

The primary aim of economic policy is to ensure rapid growth and reduce poverty. A complex set of variables affects economic growth and the relative importance of

the various components influencing growth has frequently been the subject of intense debate. The importance given to particular instruments is a function of the stage of a country's development and the characteristics of an economy. None the less, there is considerable agreement on many of the economic policies required to stimulate growth. In addition to the objective of reducing poverty, the aim of economic management is more short term in nature. This has to do with managing aggregate resource flows in a manner which ensures stability.

Short term stability can be threatened by macro-imbalances reflected in unsustainable fiscal and current account deficits. Large and growing macro-imbalances essentially reflect the fact that a society is living beyond its means. The causes of the imbalance between aggregate supply and demand may be domestic or exogenous but macro-stability would require precautionary measures.

It is important to recognize that the measures taken to address the dual objectives of economic policy can temporarily be in conflict, i.e. a growth rate may become unsustainable if it causes macro-imbalances, to correct which a reduction in the pace of economic activity is required. These demand contractionary measures that can also adversely affect social sector public spending and lead to falling investment. The extent of the impact on long-term growth prospects would depend on how temporary or deep the cuts were. A brief stabilization period is unlikely to undermine the growth potential, while a protracted period of extended cuts in growth sensitive areas can clearly have a lasting impact on longer term development.

Moreover, the theory of structural change focuses on the mechanism by which underdeveloped economies transform their domestic economic structures from a heavy emphasis on traditional subsistence agriculture to a- more modern, more urbanized, and more industrially diverse manufacturing and service economy. It employs the tolls of neoclassical price and resource allocation theory and modern econometrics to describe how this transformation process takes place.

In this section we examine the causes leading to the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Program in 1988 and how the demands of short-term stabilization have interacted with the need for structural reform to sustain the momentum for equitable growth.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Fill in the blanks:
   i. To study the concept of development is called_____
   ii. In Marxist approach LP stand for_____ and MP stands for
   iii. Economic achievement and progress depends largely on_____
   iv. The traditional society is made up of _____
   v. The modern society is made up of _____

2. What is the primary aim of structural adjustment and how it can be achieved? Describe with reference to the agriculture sector.

3. What is Marxist approach to development? Discuss it in details.

4. How do capitalist and socialist approaches to development differ?

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Just Development, Tariq, Shahrukh, Muazam 1997, 1st edition, Oxford University Press.

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Unit–3

DEVELOPMENT VARIABLES

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past two decades less developed countries have experienced an increase in their per capita income. However, the relative gap between the poorest and the richest countries of the world has remained the same. While the absolute gap has ever widened, why despite some gaining the inequality remains so persistent.

Actually this is the difference between development and underdevelopment and there are certain measures, both social and economics that can be helpful in determining the level of development in a country. In these units we will discuss some of these variables related to development process.

As the development does not occur unless the pure economic growth is accompanied by other dimensions such as the quality of life such as good health, political stability, reduction in poverty and inequality, improvement in participatory democracy, a sustainable environment of forests, potable water employment opportunities, migration rate, less violent crimes and, basic human right etc. But unfortunately their contribution is not recognized.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

1. describe meanings of the variables of development
2. analyse contribution of the socio-cultural and economic resources to enhance development.
3. explain measures of socio-economic development.
4. describe correlation between key socio-economic variables and economic

3.1 Variables of Development

Comparisons between the rich and the poor are usually based on estimates of the Gross National Product (GNP). This is an approximate measure of the total value of goods and services produced by an economy for any one year to enhance the quality of life for the people living there or to measure their level of development. Though comparisons between countries can be made in this way, it is also necessary to compare sections of society within countries to show that there may be many poor people even in rich societies. Subsequent international comparison creates the paradox that the poor in, say, the United States, may be relatively rich compared with the Third World poor.

A wide range of socio-cultural resources can be used to enhance one's economic life chances. In India, for example, as the economy has failed to generate sufficient jobs for the many thousands who arrive in Calcutta (or any other important urban center), many have begun to use their caste status as a resource to improve their chances of getting a job. Members of different castes who have by tradition been associated with specific occupations make a claim to any such jobs that become available in the town. In these circumstances caste divisions become accentuated. However, in times of an expanding labor market, caste division may become less significant as there is plenty of demand for workers, as happened i n t he textile industry in Bombay in the -I 920s. Caste, ethnic, family and other status distinctions influence patterns of inequality in an important way in the Third World, and overlay the patterns of stratification which are more directly determined by class.

Industrialization in Western Europe and other industrialized countries has been accompanied by educational expansion, population growth, mobility and urbanization; at the political level it has typically meant the development of sovereign nation states. A key question is, therefore, whether industrial expansion and international commerce has a similar impact on the Third World. Towns have grown, universities have been built, sovereign states recognized, and populations increased. The skyline of most modern Third World cities would be familiar to any Western traveler. Yet we need to know about the real character of the urban centers: does it derive from an expanding industrial base that requires mobility, education and political stability or is it in some ways a pretended —modernization without industrialization? How does the development of education and urban centers compare with a similar development in the advanced industrial societies?

As education has emerged with the key role in the dissemination of new knowledge and for capacities to adopt as central to the growth process, this is of increasing strategic importance in the new environment of knowledge.

Educational expansion is an important priority for many less developed countries seeking to improve literacy rates and the overall level of skill in the population. This expansion is funded by governments who have relatively little capital. Costs are increasingly being met by borrowing form international aid agencies, even though these debts are becoming more and more difficult if not impossible to repay.

3.2 Quality of Life

Every year almost 90 million people are being added to a world population of over 5 billion. Over 80 million of these additional people per year will be born in Third World countries. These increases are unprecedented in history. But the problem of population growth is not simply a problem of numbers. It is a problem of quality of life for human being and of development. Rapid population growth can have serious consequences for the wellbeing of humanity worldwide. If development entails the improvement in people's levels of living, their incomes, health, education, and general w ell-being, while it also encompasses t heir s elf-esteem, respect, dignity, and freedom to choose, then the really important question about population growth is: how does the contemporary population situation in many Third World countries contribute to or detract from their chances of realizing the goals of development, not only for the current generation but also for future generations? Conversely, and how does development affect population growth?

Among the major issues relating to this basic question are the following:

1. Will third world countries be capable of improving the levels of living for their people with the current and anticipated levels of population growth? To what extent does rapid population increase make it more difficult to provide essential social services including housing, transport, sanitation, and security?

2. How will the developing countries be able to cope with the vast increases in their labor force over the coming decades? Will employment opportunities be plentiful or will it be major achievement just to keep unemployment levels from rising?

3. What are the implications of higher population growth rates among the world's poor for their chances of overcoming the human misery of absolute poverty? Will world food supply and its distribution be sufficient not only to meet the anticipated population increase in the coming decades but also to improve nutritional levels to the point where all humans can have an adequate diet?

4. Given the anticipated population growth, will the developing countries be able to extend the proper health coverage to their people and improve the quality of their health and educational systems so that everyone can at least have the chance to secure adequate health care and basic education?

5. To what extent are low levels of living an important factor in limiting the freedom of parents to choose a desired family size? Is there a relationship between poverty and family size?

Therefore, qualities of human life: prosperity in place of poverty, education in place of ignorance, health in place of illness and death, environmental beauty in place of deterioration, full opportunities of the next generations of children in place of current limitations. Population trends, if favorable, open man's options and enlarge his choices. But it is only a means-- a means to the better life. That is what the concern is about, or ought to be.

3.3 Education

The relationship of education to a young person's economic wellbeing and satisfactions later in the life has long been recognized by most families. After considerable neglect, it has now been recognized, as Knowledge for development has also become a central theme for many economic development agencies e.g. the World Bank. Now in the new system of development and growth the economists give education and knowledge a central and compulsory role. This section therefore develops the single basic idea, i.e. the systematic measurement of the net returns of education, tracing its impacts on economic growth and development. The conceptual framework focuses on more comprehensive measurement and valuation of both monetary and non-market returns. This enables certain of the key Solow's constants such as population growth, the saving rate, and even political stability to be treated as endogenous within the complete model and within medium term context about 40 years. In this way this section of the book seeks to reorient economic theory and analysis to encompass the central role of knowledge and its dissemination within the broader process not just of economic growth but also of a theory of economic development.

Most economists would probably agree that it is the human resources of a nation and not its capital or its material resources, that ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social development. For example, according to the late Professor Frederick Harison of Princeton University.

Human resources...constitute the ultimate basis for wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations, and carry forward national development. Clearly, a country which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else.

The principal institutional mechanism for developing human skills and knowledge is the formal educational system. Most Third World nations have been led to believe or have wanted to believe that it is the rapid quantitative expansion of educational opportunities that holds the basic key to national development: The more the education, the more rapid the development. All countries have committed themselves, therefore, to the goal of universal education in the shortest possible time. This quest has. become politically very sensitive, but often economically a costly sacred cow. That is how the education is a key variable in determining the development of a country.

3.4 Health

What do we mean by health? From one point of view, health can be defined simply as the absence of illness or disease. This view may be called the medical model of health.

The medical model is the fundamental point of reference for the health care system. This system includes practicing physicians and other medical professionals and the settings in which they practice (clinics, hospitals). Moreover, the universities, research centers, manufacturing corporations, that create new drugs and medical technologies, and the organizations (government agencies, insurance firms etc.) that regulate health care and help consumers purchase it are also a part of this system. Guided by the medical model, the health care system focuses on responding to the problems of individuals who present themselves to it.

Because of the prevalence of the medical model the most commonly used indices of health status relate to illness and death rather than to how well people are exercising their potential. Among these measures is life expectancy. This is the average number of children born in a group of people in a year who are expected to live.

Obviously, these measures only very crudely assess the health status of any given members of society and the quality of life they enjoy.

In this section we address several questions like how can we assess the health status of a society? What is the health status and access of peoples to health facilities in Pakistan?

The coverage of curative health facilities in Pakistan compares favorably with that of other countries classified in the low human development category in urban but not in rural areas. In the decade 19851995, 35 percent of the rural population and 99 percent of the urban population are cited as having access to health facilities, compared to 66 percent and 95 percent health access available in rural and urban areas respectively in the low human developed country group (HDR, 1996: 153). Health facilities in Pakistan measured by population per hospital, doctor and nurse have also shown significant improvement over years.

Improvements in population per doctor and nurse between 1990 and 1994 dramatically slowed down, compared to earlier period. The population per doctor for 1990 is about half the average of countries classified in the medium human development category. However, the population per nurse was about double to that of countries in the medium human development category. Pakistan was spending half the average spent by its. reference group on health in 1960 (.3% of GDP), and by 1990 its expenditure on health at .7 percent of GDP remained less than half the average of 1.6 percent of its reference group.

Surprisingly despite the low expenditure, indicators of health i.e. the longevity show that life expectancy at birth at 61.8 years in 1993 was higher than the average of 56.8 years for the low human development countries, although it was still 5 and 12 years behind the average for medium and high human development groups.

Similarly, at 89 per thousand in 1993, infant mortality in Pakistan was below the average of the low human development group i.e. 92, but much higher than the medium human developed group i.e. 48. Also, in all the other health indicators, including prenatal care, anemia, birth right weight babies, maternal mortality rate, immunization, ORS access, and underweight children, Pakistan's performance was considerably better than the average for its reference group in the early 1990s. Finally, with regard to certain diseases, Pakistan's performance matches the average to the middle human development group. For example, reported cases of tuberculosis and malaria in 1990 were 150 and 60 per 100, 000 respectively, which compares favorably with the average of 155 and 190 for the middle human development group of countries.

Notwithstanding these signs of progress, it would be far too soon to become complacent. We end this sub section with some recommendations for greater

improvement in the health sector, First, there is still a bias in government priorities towards curative facilities over preventive facilities: this needs to be rectified, Secondly there is a need for an effective regulatory arrangement to cover food and drugs, Thirdly the problem of the growing air and water pollution must he addressed to on an urgent basis, Fourthly there is a need for greater involvement of communities in the monitoring and provision of health services, Fifth targeted subsidies should be provided to make medicines accessible to the poor and lastly improved training facilities and incentives are needed for medical technicians and paramedics.

3.5 Potable Water

Most diseases in Pakistan are water-born. It is estimated that 6 0 percent of infant deaths are due to infectious and parasitic diseases, most of them are water born. Therefore, the provision of safe drinking water and sewerage facilities would have a major favorable effect on the health services in the country on the one hand and on the development on the other hand. As between 1990-95 96 percent of the urban population and 51 per cent of the rural population had access to safe drinking water (Pakistan Economic Survey). Therefore, if we take access to potable water as a development indicator then Pakistan stands in the list of developed countries. This compares favorably with the low human development country group performance in urban areas (78%) and rural areas (64%) (HDR 1996, p.153). The statistics with regard to sanitation are similar. Three fifth (62 per cent) of the urban population and 19 percent of the rural population had access to sanitation facilities between 1990-1995. These numbers are virtually identical with the low human development country group. However, the general impression is, that much of the sewerage in Pakistan is discharged untreated into water courses, or burned or dumped. These are the conditions that better analyse the Pakistan's development level.

3.6 Employment

Historically, the economic development of Western Europe and North America has often been described in terms of the continuous transfer of economic activity and people from rural to urban areas, both within and between the countries. As urban industries expanded, new employment opportunities were created and over the same period, labor saving technological progress in agriculture reduced rural manpower needs. Although urban slums and unemployment were evident in 19th century. England, the combination of the above two phenomena made it possible for Western nations to undergo a systematic rural to urban transfer of their human resources.

Our purpose in this section is to examine and analyze the dimensions of the employment problem in developing nations and its relationship to the development process. Therefore, a quantitative profile of current and anticipated trends in the third World unemployment has been shown. It focuses on the nature and characteristics of the employment problem and the linkages among unemployment, poverty, and income distribution. Unemployment in its simplest dimension results form a relatively slow growth of labor demand in both the modern, industrial sector and in traditional agriculture sector combined with a rapidly growing labor supply, especially as a result of accelerated population growth and high levels of rural urban migration.

Therefore, an understanding of the causes and determinants of rural urban migration and the relationship between migration and relative economic opportunities in urban and rural areas is central to the analysis of the third World development problems. Because migrants comprise a significant proportion of the urban labor force in many developing nations, the magnitude of rural urban migration has been and will continue to be a principal determinant of the urban labor supply, through which the unemployment can be properly understood and the government policies to ameliorate the situation. The urban unemployment problem must be understood on the basis of knowledge of who comes to town and why in the first instance.

3.7 Rural Urban Migration

The factors influencing the decision to migrate are varied and complex. As migration is a selective process affecting individuals with certain economic, social, educational, and demographic characteristics, the relative influence of economic and non-economic factors may vary not only between nations and regions but also within defined geographic areas and populations. Much of the early research on migration tended to focus on social cultural, and psychological factors while recognizing but not carefully evaluating, the importance of economic variables. Emphasis has variously been placed, for example, on:

1. Social factors including the desire of migrants to break away from traditional constraints of social organizations.
2. Physical factors including climate and meteorological disasters like floods and droughts.
3. Demographic factors including the reduction in mortality rates and the concomitant high rates of rural population growth.
4. Cultural factors including the security of urban extended family relationships and the allurement of the bright city lights.

5. Communication factors including improved transportation, urban oriented educational systems, and the modernizing impact of the introduction of radio, television, and the cinema.

3.7.1 The Migration and Urbanization Dilemma

In this section we focus on one of the most perplexing dilemmas of the development process: the phenomenon of massive and historically unprecedented movements of people from the rural countryside to urban centers. B y t he year 2 000 world population could range anywhere from 6.1 to 6.5 billion people, although the lower estimate is more likely to be accurate given recent fertility declines. But whatever the figure eventually reaches, one thing is clear and that is that there will be population growth more dramatic than in the major cities of the developing world.

After reviewing trends and prospects for overall urban population growth, we examine the growth of the urban informal economy and try to ascertain its potential role and functions. We then turn to a well-known theoretical model of rural urban labor transfer in the context of rapid growth and high urban employment as the impact of migration on development process that is much more pervasive than obvious.

Exacerbation of Urban unemployment and underemployment. In fact, the significance of the migration phenomenon in most of the sectoral allocation of human resources, rather, lies in its implications for economic growth in general and for the character of that growth, particularly its distributional manifestations.

We must recognize at the outset, therefore, that migration in excess of job opportunities is both a symptom of and a contributor to Third World underdevelopment. Understanding the causes, determinants, and consequences of internal rural urban labor migration is thus central to understanding the nature and character of the development process and to formulating policies to influence this process in socially desirable ways.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by development variables? Discuss the key Variables in reference to development.

2. Name and discuss two sources of medical care available in most countries.

3. What are potable water sources and constraints in Pakistan?

4. Develop a profile to maintain a standard quality of life in Pakistan and compare it with any developed Nation.

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Unit–4

AID AND DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, development work, backed by research, has tried to tackle a number of development issues which have replaced comprehensive theories of development and underdevelopment. These issues span such concepts as sustainability, institutional capacity and capability, poverty reduction, empowerment, gender relations and environmental protection. They can be addressed at the micro and macro levels.

These units briefly introduce the concepts and forms of Aid in Pakistan and the role it has played in the economic development. Different development strategies since independence have been discussed in details in the reader along with a case study of rural development with reference to agriculture, whereas the overall scenario has been briefly introduced here.

OBJECTIVES

After reading these units you will be able to:

1. define the meanings of Aid.

2. learn the different development strategies adopted so far.

3. analyse the contribution of Aid to Pakistan's development.

4. learn to develop the Case Study.

4.1 Aid and Development

Donor countries give aid primarily because it is in their political, strategic, or economic self-interest to do so. While some development assistance may be motivated by moral and humanitarian desires to assist the less fortunate (e.g. emergency food relief programs), there is no historical evidence to suggest that over longer periods of time donor nations assist others without expecting some corresponding benefits (political, economic, military, etc.) in return. We can, therefore, characterize the foreign aid motivations of donor nations into two broad, but often interrelated, categories: political and economic. A Social Research Report Those peoples, who are poor, scratch a living without enough land or water. Every year the government distributes subsidized wheat at great expense, but many are too remote to be reached. The men have to leave their homes to look for work elsewhere. The ecology is collapsing. As the trees have been destroyed, there are deadly mud slides which bury villages, and floods which destroy the crops. Three and a half million Afghan refugees make the situation worse — but they are not our concern. The refuges are under separate administration and for us they hardly exist. We pass their camps and caravans, and the officials direct our attention elsewhere. We are skilled at not seeing.

The Official to the Donor
"We are very interested in the mountain area. We w ant to do something for our people quickly. We don't want your six-year project; we want two years, three years. The people up there hardly know the government exists. They wonder what the government is doing for them. They see the refugees receiving all sorts of international aid and they wonder why they are not getting anything. It is a restless place. You should not think so small. We want to make an impact. You should be building tunnels through the mountains and making truckable roads. There are huge barren areas you could irrigate with large scale irrigation schemes. Agricultural research and improved farming are not enough. We want results. The government is ready to move. You do not need to work it out in detail. Just release the money and we will do the rest.

4.2 The Donor to the Authorities

Look, we want to lend you the money, but one valley is not enough. One valley doesn't have the absorption capacity. We need a minimum of two valleys. We want at least a million people. Otherwise Geneva won't like it. We want to give you a project but you will have to take away some valleys from someone else and give them to us.

After Frank, 1986:234,241 (in GRANTA, No.20). Reprinted with permission from Grant Publications. Human Resource Development by T.V RAO, 1999, 4th edition, Sage Publication New Delhi, India.

Aid is further criticized for focusing on and stimulating the growth of the modern sector, thereby increasing the gap in living standards between the rich and the poor in Third World countries. Some would even assert that foreign aid has been a positive force for anti-development in the sense that it both retards growth through reduced savings and worsens income inequalities. Rather than relieving economic bottlenecks and filling gaps, aid, and for that matter private foreign investment, not only widens existing savings and foreign exchange resource gaps but may even create new ones e.g. urban-rural or modern traditional sector gaps.

4.3 Role of Aid in Economic Development

Pakistan, like many other developing countries, has been relying on foreign assistance to supplement national saving to finance investment. In order to bridge the resource gap, it started foreign borrowing as early as 1950s. The basic policies of development which Pakistan has been following so far are dictated by the aid giving countries in general and USA in particular and that these countries exerting considerable influence over the framing and implementation of our development plans.

Pakistan has been receiving Foreign Aid from various sources which can be grouped under three main categories: consortium, non-consortium and Islamic countries. Of these, Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium has been the single largest source, providing 80% of the total gross inflow, consisting of 50% on bilateral and 30% on multilateral basis. The remaining 20% has been shared by both the non-consortium and Islamic countries. The basic strategy followed is as under:

4.3.1 Basic Strategy

During initial stages of growth, trained personnel are sent from abroad who direct the policies of the underdeveloped country.

Local experts in the later stage receive training in the donor country on the lines which they want them to follow.

Plans are submitted to consortium that decides how much aid they will give, as a consequence plans are formulated according to their will.

Technical assistance is an important means for exerting influence. Foreign experts are associated in every sphere.

As a result, the recipient countries like Pakistan become a puppet in the hands of consortium countries and become poorer.

4.3.2 Foreign Aid

Foreign Aid (FA) occurs when the recipient country receives additional resources i n foreign currency over and above the capacity to import generated by exports. In simple words, Foreign Aid means those additional resources which are used to raise the performance of the recipient country above the existing level. It has the following forms.

4.4 Forms of Aid

4.4.1 Financial Aid

The simplest form of capital inflow is the provision of convertible foreign exchange, but very little foreign capita! indeed comes to the underdeveloped world so conveniently. If any divergence from this form is described by saying that "strings are attached", then almost all foreign public capital has strings. Financial aid is divided into various sub-forms, like.

a) Tied Aid
b) Untied Aid
c) Grants
d) Loans

4.4.2 Commodity Aid

It includes the following

a) Hard Loans
b) Soft Loans
c) Food Aid
d) Technical Aid

For more details on this topic please see Economy of Pakistan by Dr. Khawaja Amjad Saeed (1999).

4.4.3 Types of Aid

Foreign aid is divided into two types according to their source.

a) Bilateral Aid

The aid which is given from the government of the donor country to the recipient country is called bilateral aid. It depends upon political and economic relationships of various countries and it also depends on the will of donor country.

b) Multilateral Aid

Multilateral aid is given by certain financial institutions, agencies or organizations to the government of a developing country. It is distributed in a fair manner in order to raise the pace of economic development. It is better than bilateral aid which is given on the basis of political considerations. It also removes the fear of domination by the donor country. In case of multilateral aid when it may be helpful in raising the pace of economic development.

c) Foreign Direct Investment

It is also included in the type of foreign aid. In Pakistan, the examples of Foreign Direct Investment are Lever Brothers, Reckitt and Colman, Bata and Philips etc.

4.3.4 Types of Aid to Pakistan

a) Project Assistance

The large bulk of foreign aid received by Pakistan has been in the form of project assistance which is tied in most cases, both for source and utilization. Project aid is a type of aid allocated for particular developmental ventures like irrigation projects or large industrial and communication networks which require a substantial imported component.

Besides the imported component, there is also a local finance component of a particular project which has to be covered by raising the necessary resources domestically. Once the domestic component of the project has been raised, the government has to open a special account for the project and withdrawals from this account are possible only after the approval of Aid Mission of the donor countries or agencies.

b) Commodity Assistance and Food Aid (PL 480)

Commodity assistance, the second largest component amongst the different categories of aid received by Pakistan, has allowed some degree of flexibility to the country by not being tied to utilization although in most cases it is tied to sources. It is for this reason that Pakistan has preferred commodity over project assistance. However, commodity assistance as a ratio of total aid decreased from 34% in 1960-65 to 23% in 1979-80.

The third largest component of aid received by Pakistan is commodity assistance under PL 480 provided by USA through the sale of surplus agricultural commodities. These commodities, ranging from wheat to edible oil, have been purchased by government of Pakistan from US Government and were paid for in Pakistani rupee till 1967 and in rupee and dollar after

1967. The funds generated by the sale of these surplus agricultural commodities are then deposited in a special counterpart fund controlled by US Government through its Aid Mission to Pakistan. The allocation of these funds, termed as aid, between different activities has been the privilege of the US Government.

c) Technical Assistance:

Technical assistance has comprised a small proportion of the total foreign economic assistance as it covered the services of foreign experts as well as the training of Pakistani experts abroad. Therefore, it is of great importance

4.3.5 The Effects of Aid

The major reason in accepting the aid is clearly economic in concept and practice. Third World countries have often tended to accept uncritically the proposition, typically advanced by developed country economists, t aught i n all university development courses and supported by reference to "success" cases like Taiwan, Israel and South Korea to the exclusion of many more "failures" that is that aid is a crucial and essential ingredient in the development process. It supplements scarce domestic resources; it helps to transform the economy structurally; and it contributes to the achievement of Less Developed Countries (LDC) take offs into self-sustaining economic growth. Thus, the economic rationale for aid in Less Developed Countries (LDCs) is based largely on their acceptance offer he donor's perceptions of what they, the poor countries, requires to promote their economic development.

What happens is that:

1. The recipient country comes under heavy influence of donor country which cannot be avoided in any circumstances.

2. The foreign advisers are in favor of modern technology whether it is appropriate for recipient country or not. So, they prefer those projects in which new and modern technology is used as it flows from the donor market

3. Because of technical assistance the indigenous technology may be affected adversely.

It is sometimes argued that the Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is much cheaper for the recipient country because it entails no payment of principal or interest. But it is also argued that profit outflow may exceed the amount of repayment. Another argument is that FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT brings technical know-how in developing countries. But technical know-how can be purchased at cheaper rates

on commercial basis. So FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT should be discouraged because it is not more beneficial for developing countries. FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT can be controlled by taking the following steps:

4.3.6 Controlling the FDI

1. It should be licensed.
2. It should be taxed more than domestic investment and their books should be audited by the officials of the recipient country.
3. All abroad payments should be controlled or limited.
4. Reinvested capital should be considered as domestic capital.

The issue of the economic effects of aid, like that of the effects of private foreign investment, is fraught with disagreements. On one side are the "economic traditionalists", who argue that aid has indeed helped to promote growth and structural transformation in many Less Developed Countries (LDCs). On the other side are those who argue that aid does not promote faster growth but may in fact retard it by substituting for, rather than supplementing, domestic savings and investment.

Aid is further characterized for focusing on and stimulating the growth of the modern sector, thereby increasing the gap in living standard between the poor and rich in third world countries. Some would even assert that foreign aid has been a positive force for anti-development in the sense that it both retard growth through savings and worsens income inequalities rather than relieving economic bottlenecks and filling gaps. For that matter private foreign investment, not only widens existing savings and foreign exchange resource gaps but m ay even creates new one i.e. urban rural and modern traditional sector gaps.

Apart from these criticisms, the 1970s and 1980s witnessed, on the donor side, a growing disenchantment with foreign aid, as domestic issues like inflation, unemployment, government deficits, and balance of payments problems gained increasing priority over international cold war politics. During this period, one often heard the expression "aid weariness" used to describe the attitudes of developed countries toward foreign assistance. Taxpayers became more concerned with domestic economic problems especially as they increasingly realized that their tax dollars allocated to foreign aid often were benefiting the small elite groups in Less Developed Countries who in many cases were richer than the taxpayers. Given the declining real value of Western aid programs, hope arose among the Less Developed Countries that the vast new oil wealth generated by the Oil Producing European Countries (OPEC) trade surpluses in the 1970s might help to compensate for lost revenues.

4.5 Different Development Strategies

Inadequate mobilization and poor allocation of resources, inefficiencies in the production structure and low priority accorded to the development of human resources have been the major constraints on the development process in Pakistan. This is essentially a reflection of the lack of political commitment to development objectives and is manifested in the lack of direction in public policy. This lack of commitment and direction, together with poor institutional arrangements, has led to adhoc decisions on the one hand and poor implementation of the decisions on the other hand.

But not everything has been negative. The growth rate between 1949-50 to the early 1990s has been a robust 5.5 per cent. Pakistan experienced a structural change in the move from an agrarian to a manufacturing mixed economy, much as would be expected from a steadily developing economy. Exports as percent of GDP increased several percentage points from the early 1980s to the early 1990s. Industry diversified and textiles and food went down from about fifty percent of total manufacturing to about one third. The private manufacturing investment GDP ratio almost tripled from 1980-1 to 1993-4.

Without creative tax reform, the country faces the prospect of large and growing budgetary deficits which in turn limit other much needed meaningful social and economic reforms. Any attempt to cope with poverty and inequality must start with a successful employment strategy. Given the low and falling employment elasticities in the formal sector, the government must turn to the informal sector for labor absorption. Credit, technical advice, and improving feedback mechanisms between consumers, exporters, and producers are pivotal to such a strategy. On balance, while Pakistan's economy has demonstrated the ability to produce robust growth rates and shown other strengths, it continues to suffer from several fundamental weaknesses and problems, Perhaps, one of its most major failings that may have serious repercussions on its future performance, is the neglect of the social sector.

4.6 Rural Development in Pakistan

The development of rural areas is the heart of the economic development of a country like Pakistan. It does not mean merely agricultural growth, i.e. quantitative increase in farm output rather it calls for improving the economic and social conditions of the rural population by raising their incomes and providing them with necessary amenities like good houses, paved streets, water supply and sewerage,

health services, education roads, power communication and above all opportunities for participating in cultural and political activities. To summarize, the rural program combines the objectives of increased productivity, employment opportunities and income redistribution for the socioeconomic up lift of the rural masses.

4.5.1 Rural Development Programs

Many efforts have so far been made for the development of rural areas. The basic aim of all these efforts was to ameliorate poverty, raise the standards and improve the quality of life in the rural areas. Some of these programs were:

1. Village agricultural and industrial Development Program (Village Aid) which was a version of the internally known "community Development Program" (1953-61).
2. Basic Democracies — a system of mainly_ rural (but also urban) development through local government institutions (1959-1970).
3. Rural Works Program 1(1963-71) was a program for the provision of physical infrastructure, renamed as "People's Works Program" in 1971.
4. Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) (1972-80), based on joint action by*the farmers, line departments and local organizations to make the Markaz or a community complex, a functional unit of local development of a multispectral nature.

These programs were successful in varying degrees. Their evaluation suggests that although these made considerable progress however a great deal was left undone perhaps due to the investment inputs being far too limited to produce any dramatic results. The overall conditions in the villages of the country remained almost constant.

4.5.2 Rural Development and Five-Year Plans

Rural Development lies at the heart of any meaningful strategy. This is the only mechanism to carry the message of change to the majority of the people and to obtain their involvement in measures designed to improve productivity levels. Rural population exceeds 70% of the total population of the country, despite a rapid rate of urbanization. Average rural income i s 3 4% Less than per capita urban income. A Large part of under-employment is still concealed in various rural activities particularly in the less developed parts of the country.

Realizing its importance, emphasis have been given. to rural development in all the five-year plans. Their objectives with regard to rural development are as under:

4.5.3 Objectives of The Five-Year Plans

1. To meaningfully integrate rural development with the national socioeconomic development effort.

2. To reduce the burden of under employment.
3. To increase the opportunities of services provided to agriculture and other rural activities.
4. To improve rural infrastructure.
5. To make a beginning towards providing social amenities to target groups.
6. To create an institutional framework for ensuring community participation in the implementation of the rural development program.

The rural development under the last 4 five-year plans has been briefly discussed here but for details see the Pakistan Economic survey of every year published by the government of Pakistan.

4.5.4 Rural Development and Eighth Plan

To achieve the objectives in the area of rural development, the Eighth Five Year Plan has included the following targets:

1. Construction of about 10,000 kilometers of farm to market rural roads.
2. Providing drinking water to about 27.41 million additional population i- e coverage of 70.5% rural population.
3. Providing sanitation facilities to about 18.81 million additional population coverage of 31.5% rural population
4. Providing primary education to about 4.2 million additional children between the age of 5-9 years in the rural areas.
5. Providing teacher training to about 0.213 million teachers in the rural areas.
6. Providing non-formal education (adult education) to about 6.0 million adults in the rural areas.
7. Providing population welfare services to about 2.06 million additional acceptors in the rural areas.
8. Strengthening of nutrition component in primary health care by establishing nutrition clinics in Basic Health Units and Rural Health Centers.
9. Upgrading 3,874 existing and construction of 252 additional basic health units.
10. Upgrading 492 existing and construction of 45 additional rural health centers.
11. Covering 90% children and 90 percent mothers under the preventive program (immunization Program).
12. Engage 33,00 village health workers in the rural areas.
13. Providing electricity to 19,700 additional villages/abides.

The target for safe water supply and sanitation was to cover an additional population of 18 million and 4.5 million respectively. The target could not be achieved fully and only 12.7 million people were provided safe water supply facilities and 3.1 million additional persons were provided sanitation facilities. The

shortfall was mainly due to the fact that public health engineering departments of the provinces could not implement physically such a massive program. The implementation capacity of these departments is being strengthened.

This was an overall scenario of rural development in Pakistan but the reader focuses only on the agriculture sector.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Differentiate between the forms of Aid and Types of Aid.

2. What is the role of Aid in the Economic Development of a Country?

3. Why do the less developed Countries accept Aid?

4. Write a case study of Agriculture Development in Pakistan.

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Unit–5

RESOURCE MOBILIZATION

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INTRODUCTION

Human Resource Development (HRD) deals with creating conditions that enable people to get the best out of themselves and their lives. Development is a never-ending process. As people develop themselves in new directions, new problems and issue, arise, requiring them to develop new competencies to meet the changing requirements, aspirations and problems. There are however, some universal goals which all human resource development efforts should aim to achieve. Keeping in view the above we in these units gradually move from global to national level in the analysis of resource mobilization. The discussion is as to what type of resources are that we need to mobilize and how. Very briefly we have also explained some of the ongoing programs for the capacity building of human resource.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

1. explain the meaning of resource mobilization and its importance
2. list the different types of resources linked with development.
3. describe the different strategies of resource mobilization for development.
4. summaries the different programs being run by the government of Pakistan to promote human resource development (HRD).

5.1 An Overview

About a third of the world's population lives in the 51 countries that constitute the Commonwealth. There are great variations among the commonwealth countries themselves. The population of the member countries varies from over 866 million of India to 9,000 of Tuvalu. About half the world's absolute poor and the illiterate adults live in the commonwealth. More than half of the world's malnourished children are also to be found in the commonwealth countries. At the same time, a few of the commonwealth countries (like Canada, Australia, Britain, New Zealand and Barbados) figure among the top 20 on the basis of the UNDPIE 1-11.man Development Index, while another 20 are listed in the button halt. Some commonwealth countries, however, have also made significant stories in their development and have become subjects of study and analysis.

In Pakistan over the past three decades, a number of contributions to economic analysis have focused on human development, human needs, and the human factor in overall development. Most prominent among these were the human capital and the basic needs approaches. In spite of advances made, health, nutrition, and education (as well as other fundamental! public goods', such as good administration, law and order, participation, and justice) in most countries have remained peripheral to the theory and practice of most academics, policy makers and development planners. A number of enduring biases and more contingent factors have been at the base of such neglect.

First, while it is generally accepted that health, nutrition, and particularly education is desirable because of their contribution to the welfare of the population, most conventional economists still do not view them as a sign of development. Rather they see them as a kind of lower-priority 'welfare-oriented consumption' which ought to yield precedence to investment in power, transport, telecommunication, and industrial infrastructure.

Second, in a number of countries, the lack of real political democracy and justice have inhibited the effective and spontaneous support and participation of communities in the design and execution of social sector activities, thus reducing the effectiveness of already inadequate government interventions.

Third, in the 1980s, the re-establishment of macroeconomic balance prevailed over any other development objective, whether human focused or not. With governments facing severe fiscal constraints, health, education, and social welfare came to be seen even more than previously as luxuries which could be afforded in good times but not in bad times. However, due to donors urging and financial

backing, but mainly due to its own corresponding efforts, Pakistan's expenditure on social development as a percentage of GNP has gradually increased.

Four closely interrelated factors may have contributed to the greater awareness in Pakistan and elsewhere, about the role and importance of human capabilities and effective political participation for overall development. First, the large and growing dissonance between economic growth and human resource development is itself a major source of concern. Second, empirical evidence, as well as theoretical reasoning, suggest strong linkages between human development and growth in the short as well as the long run. Third, this is particularly true for an increasingly open economy in the 1990s. And finally, the growing recognition that rapid and sustainable development will be impossible without a substantial improvement in public participation in decision making.

5.2 Type of Resources

At the individual level, the type of resources may include developing capabilities for ensuring a happy and healthy living. The dimensions of such happiness may vary from individual to individual. These may include: a good education or skill base that may be the key to income generation and fulfillment of many other social needs; a good income base itself; self-respect; security; status and recognition in the society; good family; and a sense of belonging to a group, society or organization.

At the organizational level, the type of HRD is normally to have competent and motivated people (employees) to ensure higher levels of productivity, profitability and growth of the organization. Organizations normally direct their HRD efforts towards the development of competencies, culture and commitment among employees individually or in groups. Organizations use many mechanisms to enhance this type of HRD, as without competent and committed employees, organizations can achieve very little even if they have excellent technological and other resource bases.

At the national level human resource development aims at ensuring that people in the country live longer; live happily, free of disease and hunger; have sufficient skill base to earn their own livelihood and wellbeing; have a sense of belongingness and pride through participation in determining their own destinies. The promotion of the well-being of individuals, families and societies provides a human resource agenda for all the countries in the world over.

The most important and common type of human resource development at all levels is competence (capacity) building for a healthy and happy 1iving. Competencies

help people to bring happiness to their lives. They are the best possible means to achieve a variety of goals. They are also a powerful means for income-generation and upgradation of quality of life in the family, organization or country. The only exception where such competency building is not needed is perhaps for those who are born rich and have an access to all comforts and happiness through their economic situation. However, individuals, organizations and countries with good economic base seem to have become even richer through investment on human resources and continue to spend a considerable part of their other resources on developing new competencies.

5.3 Strategies for Resource Mobilization

Given the resource constraints most of the governments are facing to make choices at every stage for optimal utilization of resources and best possible achievement of HRD goals. The choices may have to be among sectors (representing various HRD goals), target groups and implementation methodologies and processes. Every country, state or region may prepare its own plans and make choices and take the strategic advantages in the context of its needs, aspirations, history, resource constraints and other factors. The course of action chosen by a country to achieve HRD competencies may be considered as its strategy. As there are so many elements in HRD to be covered and multiple goals to be achieved, as outlined earlier, the choice of target group (s) can by itself be considered as a strategy. For example, if investments on girls' education are likely to help in achieving multiple HRD goals (like health, population and economic well-being) and therefore educating girls is chosen as a priority, it can be considered as a strategy or strategic choice.

Similarly, there are a number of sectors to be covered by HRD for policy interventions (education, agriculture, health, population, industry, infrastructure, communications and media, science and technology, environment, etc.,). While policy interventions may deal with all of these, some of these sectors may be chosen for intensive action during a particular period for their relationships with other sectors or multiple effects or other reasons. Thus, the choice of sectors for action also becomes a strategic choice.

Sectors and target groups are not always independent. For example, in dealing with a sector like science and technology one has to deal with scientists and technologists. However, sectoral interventions go beyond a target group and aim at larger benefits to larger groups through that sector. Some sectors may have to be chosen more for the strategic role they play in helping achieve more than one goals of HRD.

At another level, effective implementation of the HRD policies and programs also require a choice of instruments or methodologies of implementation. These methodologies may be as n arrow as involving a particular group of people or institutions (e. g., NGOs), or as broad as continuous schemes of mobilizing resources, or improving the effectiveness of government institutions, or developing leadership qualities in the program managers. There can be many such methodologies, and new methodologies may keep on surfacing from time to time. Based on these considerations, this chapter highlights some strategic choices that could be made in terms of target groups, sectors as well as implementation processes and methodologies. Let us have a look at them,

5.3.1 Sectors

1. Health, nutrition, sanitation and water supply
2. Adult literacy and primary education
3. Technical, Vocational and higher education
4. Science and technology
5. Environment

5.3.2 Target Groups

1. Women and girls
2. Poor and unemployed, particularly the youth

5.3.3 Implementation Methodologies and Processes

1. Involvement of non-government organization
2. Decentralization and participation
3. Mobilization of resources and optimization of their use
4. Inter-agency coordination
5. Professionalization of government

These choices are based on the experiences available so. far. These need not be taken as the strategies for all countries. Countries may need to use these in the light of their requirements. The emphasis here is on implementation. For any given country, the strategies and choices need to be made after taking into consideration the current attainments in relation to HRD goals, resources situation and other such variables. What is presented here is intended to offer broad guidelines for policy makers and implementers. There are a few other strategic choices that we consider as important but these have not been emphasized either due to the already available knowledge base or due to the dearth of it. For example, agriculture, industry and population programs play an important and strategic role. Enough is available in these sectors, and hence these are not covered. Similarly, politics, and ethics and values, including corruption, play a very critical role. These have not been dealt

with as the available knowledge base on these is not adequate for providing insights into these issues.

5.3.4 A Concrete Example of an Alternate Education Strategy

The abstract conditions for social sector development delineated above can be illustrated using a concrete example of one sector, i.e., education. This will apply by analogy to other critical sectors like health, sanitation, housing, and income generation.

a) School Education

In the education pyramid, we can begin at the base with the largest enrolment in primary schools and work up to the apex of the smallest enrolment i n universities and professional colleges. Define a community as a group of relatively contiguous households whose children should be in primary school. Assume three problems in this community. There is no public primary school. Boys have access to a primary school at a one-hour distance from their home. Girls' enrolment in an equally distant school is much lower. These three problems imply a school supply and demand problem. Because facilities are low, some households withhold boys and even more households withhold girls. For a significant increase in coverage, especially for girls, both supply and demand problems have to be tackled.

The community can elect a school board from within itself to establish, monitor, and guide the running of a primary school. To meet the demand problem for girls, the board needs to be more sensitive and responsive to girls' and boys' non-enrolment result from similar courses. These include work at home and on the farm, expense, and negative attitudes that rural girls may have special needs, meeting which would enhance their enrolments. These could include boundary walls, toilet facilities, women teachers, child-care, and flexible timings. Responsiveness to these enrolment needs would be facilitated by a school board consisting of a majority of women.

The school board can be created by a charter which mandates it to establish the school. Given the charter, the state should recognize the school board as the competent authority as well. The school board should estimate minimal requirements for boys and girls, of the community. It should then estimate costs. The board can then negotiate with the state for whole, part, or counterpart public funding. The board has to generate the community's share of the funding. It can experiment with a variety of cost distributions a cross the community. These can range from minimal fixed contributions based on the ability to pay, to payments based on land and asset ownership.

After generating this funding, the board can then context out the construction of the school premises and monitor the construction. The board will also be responsible for managing the school, monitoring its running, and providing guidance. Four areas critical to a school's running are teachers' employment policy, school pricing policy, syllabus policy, and a specific enrolment enhancement incentive policy.

Teachers' employment policy must be designed to minimize absenteeism. Local employment will create an incentive for education. It must encourage women's employment, and so motivate girls to get education. To meet these requirements, local employment and women teachers should be given top priority. Finally, employment policy must offer permanent contracts. This will be critical for increasing the vested interest of teachers in their school.

School pricing policy has to balance low fee incentives for attendance against high fee for growth. To meet both these needs, a two-tier structure could be introduced. Local children's fees could be kept low and children from other localities could pay more. The higher fee would reflect u se of facilities b y t hose who had n of contributed t o e stablishing them. It would also reflect better facilities in some localities attracting children from other localities.

School pricing policy could also differentiate morning, afternoon, and evening shifts. Local children could be preferred for morning shifts. Children from other localities could be given afternoon shifts. The school premises could also be used for adult literacy programs, or other social sector programs like health and nutrition care in the evenings.

Syllabus policy has to balance standardization with local innovation and incentives. Standardization can be checked through periodic province level exams at the end of primary, middle, and high schools. This leaves the policy fairly free for innovation and incentives. Syllabi must be approved by both the teachers and the board. In fact, teachers must form a majority on the syllabus committee. The syllabi must also create an incentive to increase enrolments. Some skill courses that increase employment and income generating prospects should be included. Regional languages, literature, and history must also be prioritized.

Finally, a specific incentives policy must be designed to increase enrolment. The school board will best understand the nature of the incentive which the community needs to s end its children to school. An important constraint on children's schooling is that education is found to be too expensive, both directly and indirectly in terms of the non-availability of the children to do household and farm chores. The school then needs to offer some material incentive to compensate at least partly for this opportunity cost.

One generally agreed form of compensation i s t he provision o f a simple hot meal and m ilk. This could also be combined with a nutrition policy for vulnerable children. For girls, the provision of a crèche for sibling children under their care would be a major incentive. In each case, with the local school board in charge, incentives could be provided locally at cheaper rates. For example, elder women with a low opportunity cost of labor could provide meals and crèche services cheaply.

5.4 On Going Programs

Human resource development has been a neglected factor in the process of economic development in Pakistan. Social sector expenditure in 1981-2 increased form 2.0 percent to 3.0 percent in 1985-6,) The social sector also figures low in the priorities of households; thus, only 1.53 percent of household consumption expenditure was allocated to education in 1990-1.

In the past, a lack of commitment, inadequate resources, and poor utilization of the limited resource-base were responsible for the failure of the population welfare programs and the inadequate development of human resources. Whenever there has been a shortfall in resources, the social sector has suffered the most. There are signs of change. While only 71 percent of the overall financial allocation to education was utilized during the Sixth Plan, utilization exceeded allocation by nine percent overall during the seventh plan. Similarly, in the annual Development Plan expenditures, which represent the implementation of the Five-Year Plan priorities, education and health ranked ninth and tenth among fourteen sectors in 1975-6 and this ranking went to seventh and ninth in the revised estimates of the 1993-4 Plan (Economic Survey 1995-6, 44-6).

The sixth, seventh, and eighth five Year Plans emphasized the development of human resources, and in the Eighth Plan the government also formulated a Social Action Plan (SAP) specially to attain this goal. However, changed priorities are barely visible in the numbers.

A number of factors are responsible for the neglect of human resource development in Pakistan. Prominent amongst them is the inadequacy of public resources. In other words, social sector expenditures are highly correlated with aggregate public expenditures. Precisely, an increase in public revenues of one percent of GDP expected to raise the share of social sector in total public expenditures by 0.77 percent, and in GDP by 0.29 percent. Therefore, unless major efforts are made to increase public revenues, the social sectors may still be neglected in the future.

It is argued that resource mobilization must avoid placing the burden on the poor, both for equity reasons and in order not to negate the human resource development efforts.

Pakistan is finally making some progress with regard to policy emphasis on the social sectors and in terms of the output indicators. Expenditure on the social sectors has more than doubled in the last decade, in part due to the Social Action Plan. Priorities also seem to have become sensible, such as the focus. on primary education and rural health.

While participation rates have been rising steadily, progress in female and rural education appears to be at snail's pace compared to neighboring countries. Similarly, Pakistan's literacy rate is still low compared even with Pakistan's reference group of low human development countries. Negative attitudes of parents, the direct and indirect costs of schooling, and inadequate school supply are the main reasons for low enrolments and high droplets. Public will need to focus on changing attitudes, providing incentives, and enhancing access to schooling.

The reason for the failure of population programs is the government's I nobility to take the attitudes and values of the population seriously.

Health statistics for the early 1990s are more promising. While there is no ground to be complacent, Pakistan is doing better on all health indicators than the average of the low human development countries. The pressure of population on housing is unrelenting, as indicated by the increase over time in the number of persons per room over the last thirty years. Successful long-term financing of the social sectors will require a change in the terms of reference of the National Finance Commission (NFC), to ensure that provincial governments are provided with finances to meet both current and development needs. Under the Seventh Five Year Plan (1988-93) the government attempted to build a very limited number of rural 7 marla (200 square Yards) houses which lay unoccupied and derelict.

There is the possibility of introducing financial cum physical measures to increase the capacity utilization of existing institutions. This is based on the constancy of fixed costs. If fixed overhead costs are large, relative to the variable running costs of a facility, then the number of users can be increased. A school can add an afternoon shift to its regular morning shift. This reduces the fixed costs of the building by one-half or two-thirds, and only the variable running costs increase. Similarly, a hospital can entertain more patients, and as long as it increases its working hours proportionately, the quality need not deteriorate up to some optimal use of its fixed facilities.

Another issue is of direct reform of tax administration. It may well be that work incentives, organizational structures, and the nature of internal and external supervision have led to the creation of significant leakages. Not only does this reduce revenue collection, it also adversely influences the willingness to pay taxes. There is an urgent need to examine this issue in all its complexity. The following is perhaps the biggest program being run by the government for social development.

5.4.1 Program for Balanced Social Development Social Action Program

The Social Action Program (SAP) a multi-sectoral approach with an aim to correct the poor status of the social sector was launched in 199293. It was transformed into a five-year time horizon, with a total allocation of Rs. 206.623 billion and was included in the Eighth Five Year Plan (1993-98). Of this allocation Rs. 102.423 billion were planned for development and Rs. 104.2 billion for recurrent expenditure. - In the first phase of SAP (1993-96), an outlay of Rs. 127.4 billion was earmarked. In order to make the programme manageable, SAP was given a tight definition designed to address basic social sector services. The focus of the programme was on the provision of basic service to most vulnerable of marginalized groups of society, e.g. female education, infants and unreached rural inhabitants in the five sub-sectors of Primary Education, Primary Health Care, Nutrition, Population Welfare and Rural Water Supply and Sanitation.

The SAP phase-1 was supported by four donors, i.e. World Bank (WB), International Development Agency (IDA), Asian Development Bank (ADB), Overseas Development Agency (ODA) of UK and Netherlands Government. Overall planned investment size of the SAP-I was Rs. 127.4 billion and actual outlay aggregated at Rs 106.3 billion, indicating utilization of 83.4%.

Encouraged with the success of SAP-I, the SAP-II (1997-2002 has been formulated. The SAP-II reforms package, will focus on consolidation of SAP sector services rather than their expansion, excepting some additional components in education (middle schooling, technical teacher training and non-formal education etc.) and health sector (tehsil and district headquarter hospitals, Tuberculosis and nutrition etc.), massive decentralization of administrative and financial powers down to tehsil levels, CBOs, NGOs and private sector participation and strengthening of institutional arrangements for better development of social sector.

The investment size of SAP-II has been set at Rs. 494.8 billion, with development financing share of Rs. 163.0 billion and non-development Rs. 335.8 billion. With the targets set for SAP-II, it is expected that Pakistan would be able to improve human development and lay foundation for sustainable economic development and growth so as to enter in the 21st century, as a literate nation.

5.4.2 Pakistan 2010 Program

Pakistan 2010 is a vision tomorrow. Its main features are as under:

1. It is the vision for transforming Pakistan into a prosperous and developed nation in one generation.
2. Pakistan 2010 is the vision for education, enlightenment and health care; for globalization and sustainable development.
3. Pakistan 2010 is the vision for a just, tolerant, self-respecting and honorable society; of poverty eradication and income equity - based on the principles of Islam.
4. Pakistan 2010 is the vision of a people throbbing with spirit and enthusiasm to work relentlessly for transforming their country into a model state, on course for attaining the foals of its creation, and leaving for others a trail of light and glory to follow.
5. Pakistan 2010 is the vision of a country at peace, and a people resplendent with happiness.

The Economic Survey of Pakistan 1997-98 (page 8) has highlighted the above program on the following lines:

The International economic environment is changing at a rapid pace. In three years', time the country will be entering the 21th Century. A Century of technology-based production, competition and efficiency; the quality of human resources and so on Pakistan has to prepare itself to face the challenges of the 21th Century. In addition to short-term macroeconomic imbalances and medium-term structural rigidities.

Pakistan also faces formidable longer-term development challenges as it moves as it moves into the next century. Not only must the country make up for slow progress in the past in the key areas of human resource development and essential infrastructure, but strong efforts are needed to strengthen Pakistan's potential for rapid economic growth and employment creation, slow down population growth, and bring about greater flexibility in the economic structure by diversifying exports and the productive base and by opening up the economy to international competition. Pakistan also needs to strengthen its legal institutions and reform public administration better manage its natural resource base and tackle governance problems Sustained progress in all of these areas is essential to improve the country's economic standing among developing countries and bring its social indicators up to acceptable levels.

The present government has accepted the challenge of 21th Century and has launched long term agenda for growth and stabilization which will be handled

through Pakistan 2010 Program. The goal of his program is to create a new economy and a new society by the year 2010.

Furthermore, the saving rate must average % of GDP, Investment must average 3.0% of GDP, export-to-GDP ratio must increase from the current level of 17.5% to about 25.0%; this calls for an annual average growth rate of 9.0% in the exports. Manufacturing sector must play the leading role in achieving the growth target, therefore, the share of this sector in GDP must increase from its current level of 18.3% to about 22.0%, in other words, manufacturing must grow at an average rate of 9.0% per annum.

As regards the social sector, the country is disastrously ill-prepared for the technological challenges of the 21st Century. The country has set the target of universal primary education by 2010 and 50.0% secondary enrolment by that period. In other words, the literacy rate must increase from the current level of 40.0% to 65% by the year 2010. In sum Pakistan's performance would reach that of the successful East and South-East Asian economics, resulting in a substantial improvement in welfare and living standards in the next 15 years and thereby an induced reduction in population growth.

To achieve these targets a concerted effort is needed all around. There are strong linkages between macroeconomic stabilization, structural reforms and sectoral reforms. Actions taken to address one set of issues can benefit from the reforms of the economy, which in turn may have a powerful feedback effect.

SELF-ASSESSMENT OF QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by Human Resource Development? With HRD reference discuss the strategic intervention for the followings:
   i. Health
   ii. Environment
   iii. Women in Development

2. How the HRD is linked with economic growth of a country? Discuss.

3. Fill in the Blanks:
   i. Human Resource development deals with _____
   ii. At the individual level human resource development is _____
   iii. At the organizational level the goal of human resource development is _____
   iv. At the national level the human resource development aims_____
   v. The most common objection of the human resource development is _____

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Unit–6

DEVELOPMENT POLICIES AND PLANS

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INTRODUCTION

Pakistan's economy was completely disrupted at the time of its independence in 1947. The principal concern of the government in the early years after independence was to establish an administrative structure, to rehabilitate millions of refugees and to repair the damage caused by the disruption of the various social and economic services. In 1950, members of the British Commonwealth assembled in Colombo to mark the beginning of the Colombo Plan. Government of Pakistan also included several continuing and some hurriedly prepared new projects in the Sixth Five Year Development Plan (1951) which was scheduled to go into effect from the middle of 1951. This plan was compiled hurriedly within a period of three months. It visualized a modest public sector development expenditure of Rs. 2 ,600 million. No attempt was made to relate this investment to aggregate targets for the economy in terms of growth, employment or exports, nor to prepare any estimates or targets for the private sector. The focus of all activities was on the approval of the isolated development projects. To overcome these problems, the First Five Year Plan was undertaken before the completion of Colombo Plan, after which several five-year plans were developed and implemented. These units describe the plans and policies of some important social sectors with the following objectives.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will learn about:

1. the significance of development planning for less developed countries.

2. the difference between plans and policies

3. planning in some social sectors.

6.1 Social Demand of Development Planning

The concept of planning has attained greater importance after the World War-II. We need to know as to why planning is important in the process of development. In the first place, planning is required in underdeveloped countries to initiate zod speed up the process of economic development. As is well known, underdeveloped countries are caught up in the vicious circle of poverty. Therefore, is assumed that with economic planning they would be able to break the vicious circle and accelerate the speed of their economic development. Moreover, the planning can guarantee quick economic growth in underdeveloped countries. The urgent need and demand for accelerating economic development, on the one hand, and inability of the private sector to do this task satisfactorily, on the other hand, requires that the government should plan for economic development of the country.

In less-developed economies, market prices of such factors of production as 1 about, capital and foreign exchange deviate substantially from their social opportunity costs and are, therefore, not a correct measure of the relative scarcity or abundance of the factor in question.

Therefore, planning in developing countries is made necessary by the inadequacies of the market as a mechanism to ensure that individual decisions will optimize economic performance in terms of society's preferences and economic goals. Even more importantly, the market mechanism cannot properly a I low for the external effects of investment. Also, the development planning is needed for:

1) Structural Change
2) Mobilization and allocation of Resources
3) Harmonized growth
4) Price stability
5) Reducing unemployment
6) Capital formation

6.2 Plans and Policies

In the development plans, a detailed statement of national s socioeconomic objectives is formulated. These objectives are to be achieved during the given period. It is argued that an enlightened central government, through its economic plan, can best provide the needed incentives to overcome the inhibiting and often divisive forces of sectionalism and traditionalism in a common quest for widespread material and social program.

History of planning in Pakistan can be divided into the following five distinct phases:

1) The period of economic coordination (1947-53)
2) The period of the Planning Board (1953-58)
3) The period of a powerful Planning Commission (1958-68)
4) The period of decline of the Planning Commission (1968-71).
5) Recent attempts at revival of Planning Commission

The formulation of detailed development plans with specific output targets and carefully designed investment profits has often been a necessary condition for the receipt of bilateral and multilateral foreign aid.

The development policies on the other hand are formulated in a broader perspective aiming at the macrostatsility i.e. reduction in budget deficit, balance of payment/ deficit and checking the inflation rate for example to invoke these tools in the coming years the policy steps will be:

Restricting the taxation system in order to enhance the tax elasticity. Containing government expenditure, particularly current expenditure.

Effecting good governance at all levels, maximizing the convergence between efficiency and equity.

Increasing export growth, particularly of high value-added products.

Higher domestic production both in agriculture, minerals and manufacturing sector, e.g. w heat, edible oils, crude oil, fertilizers, and high engineering parts and spares. But to differentiate between policy and plan the preceding paragraphs will help to make it clearer,

6.3 Planning in Deferent Sectors

The short period, from the viewpoint of the economic decision making by the state authorities, is taken to cover the period of one year. The broad economic objectives are set out in the Annual Budget and the Annual Development Plan. When an overall Five-Year Plan is in operation the Annual Plan becomes the instrument for achieving the targets of the Plan and it includes those projects which are within the framework of the Five-Year Plan. If, however, the economic conditions have changed drastically, as compared to what was envisaged when the Five-Year Plan was formulated, the Annual Plan will take into account the new circumstances and to this extent deviate from the original targets. During periods of considerable

uncertainty, the Annual Plan becomes the main instrument of development planning in the country.

Generally, the annual planning of an economy has the following important objectives:

1. Raising revenue for running the state machinery.
2. Raising resources to finance development programmes to be
3. undertaken by the government or public sector.
4. Achieving output levels and growth targets of major sectors especially in agriculture and industry.
5. Maintaining stable prices.

Keeping the foreign trade balance within manageable levels so that the deficit does not go beyond what is covered from foreign borrowing.

The five-year plans are broken down into annual plans which act as the recurrent instruments for detailing exactly what must be done to convert the former into programs of action. Therefore, the annual plans contain more details. A typical annual operational plan starts with an account of the progress of the medium-term plan in the previous year. The more important projects and programmes to be carried out during the current year, along with estimates of costs and available resources are described. The most important sector of an annual plan describes the specific monetary, credit, fiscal and other measures to be adopted during the year to achieve the annual targets.

6.4 Industrialization

In the field of industry, Pakistan, at the time of independence, started almost from a scratch, i.e. a very weak and meager condition. Pakistan inherited only 34 small industrial units out of total 921 in the subcontinent. These largely pertained to cotton textiles, cigarettes, sugar, rice husking, cotton ginning and flour milling. These together contributed only 7% of GNP and employed a little over 26,000/- persons in the country.

Therefore, the analysis of the economic policies undertaken by Government of Pakistan perused in the last 52 years reveals that they are heavily based in favor of industrialization certainly due to a very s mall and weak industrial base. Soon after the independence in 1947, an industrial conference was convened at Karachi to sort out ways and means for the industrialization in Pakistan. The conference was attended by the representatives of the central, provincial and state governments as they existed at the time. It was on the basis of conclusion reached at that conference

that the government announced its industrial policy. Though it was later revised from time to time however, in fundamentals, it remained intact.

Industrial experience of Pakistan can be divided into different phases for which see Economy of Pakistan. 1999 by Dr. Khawaja Amjad Saeed.

6.5 Agriculture Sector Policies

The growth in agriculture is the result of an active government policy and planning to encourage the spread of technological change. The underlying philosophy in government policy has been to achieve growth by allowing farmers to take their investment and cropping decisions in response to price signals for inputs and outputs triggered off by the government. Thus, the government has been active in setting procurement prices for the main crops, like wheat, cotton and sugarcane and the prices of inputs such as fertilizer and irrigation water. The government is also the major trader in wheat, rice and cotton and takes on the responsibility of proving the socio-economic infrastructure such as construction and maintenance of dams, canals, electricity and rural roads network. Thus, government policy for agriculture is elaborate and complex and greatly influences the returns to farming. Whereas the active government policies regarding agriculture can be classified as:

1. Land Reforms
2. Green Revolution
3. Mechanization
4. Commercial Agriculture
5. Agriculture Price Policies

In agriculture sector the thrust of planning is to the achievement of self-sufficiency in basic food items and improvement in productivity through efficient use of inputs and credit. The farmers are provided remunerative support prices. Research and extension are strengthened.

Policy measures to improve agricultural productivity and income of the farmers are introduced through comprehensive planning. A Productivity Enhancement Programme (PEP) has been launched. A relief package on outstanding loans is announced. Liberal credit facilities have been provided. Import duties on agricultural implements including tractors were reduced. The farmers are also provided adequate return for their produce through support prices. In order to boost the export of fruits and vegetables, rebate of 25% was announced on freight on national carriers. In different five year plans comprehensive programs were also planned for afforestation, watershed management, range management and resource conservation. In the last five year plan the growth rate was 3.8% against the plan

target of 4.7%. The shortfall is mainly due to the setback on account of devastating floods in 1988-89 and 1992-93. There was a remarkable increase in cotton production during the plan period. Its production increased to 1 2.8 million bales in 1 991-92, but decreased to 9.1 million bales in 1992-93 due to floods and leaf curl virus. However, on the basis of five year total the output targets of cotton, sugarcane, potato and onion were exceeded while those of wheat, maize and rice were achieved to the extent of 99%, 90.5% anr4 83.9% respectively. On the other hand, substantial shortfall was empierced in Le output of nontraditional oil seeds, gram and rapeseeds and mustard. The overall growth performance of the livestock sub-sector was 5.8% against the target of 5.3%.

6.6 Education

The government has recently announced National Education Policy 1998-2010 which aims at attaining respectable level of literacy by universalization of basic education, providing quality of education, reducing gender disparities, encouraging private investment in education, upgrading the quality of higher education, reforming the examination system and evolving an efficient decentralized management structure.

In 1987-88 the total expenditure on education sector programs was Rs. 19.0 billion an against the p Ian a (location of Rs. 23.11 bullion. Thus, in real terms the overall financial expenditure has been 82% of the Plan allocation. Consequently, there have been shortfalls in the achievement of physical targets. Some of the important policy initiatives proposed in the Seventh Plan could not be implemented. At primary level, about 21,000 primary and 13,000 masque schools were established against the target of 34,613 primary schools and 20,000 mosque schools. Buildings were constructed for 16,500 shelter less schools against the target of 20,075. About 13,000 class rooms were added in the existing primary schools against the target of 8,750. About 3.1 million additional children (including .5 million girls) were enrolled at the primary level against the Plan target of 4.6 million (including 2.7 million girls). Major reasons for shortfall of about 32% in the additional enrolment can be attributed to socioeconomic factors that inhibit the low-income families from sending their children to the school, high dropout rate and non-enactment of compulsory primary schooling legislation proposed in the Seventh Plan.

During the Plan period, about 4,201 primary and 2,600 middle schools were upgraded to middle and secondary level against the target of 6,500 primary and 3,700 middle schools respectively, besides 1 10 new high schools were established, intermediate classes were added in more than 368 secondary school respectively. Two million additional s tents were enrolled at secondary level in classes VI-X

against the target of 1.88 million. In quantitative terms about 100% of the enrolment target has been achieved but much remains to be done for improving quality and relevance of secondary education.

Some headway was made towards diverting students to technical and vocational streams. Towards this end works were started on establishment of 29 polytechnics and only 4 of them were completed. Work on the remaining institutions is expected to be completed during the Eighth Plan. The Seventh Plan period also witnessed a number of initiatives of managerial nature for the acceleration of educational development. These include:

i. Education Foundations were established for encouraging the private sector's participation in the establishment of new educational institutions on non-commercial basis, particularly in the rural areas.

ii. Under the "Tameer-e-Watan" Program was launched, requiring the legislators to identify the immediate needs of the people at the grass-root level (including, most prominently, education) and develop projects for implementation through normal channels under their supervision.

iii. Foreign assistance for education sector was made available to the provinces over and above their normal ADP shares.

iv. The pay scales of school teachers were upgraded by one step and the upper age limit for appointment of primary schools' teachers was relaxed.

v. The Social Action Program (SAP) was launched in 1992-93 to accelerate integrated development of social sectors. Basic education, including primary education, functional literacy and female education, forms the largest component of the Social Action Program.

6.7 Environment

Pakistan is facing environmental pollution and natural resource degradation problems. These include industrial, municipal, vehicular and air pollution on the one hand and deforestation, waterlogging and salinity on the other hand. The environmental plans focus on efficient and effective implementation of National Conservation Strategy (NCS) at the provincial and federal levels in 14 core areas. The government has allocated Rs. 268.7 million (FEC Rs. 183.40 million) for Environment Sector in Federal area 1997-98, whereas the overall sectoral allocation under provinces is Rs. 794.1 million.

But the picture of the global environment is different, Besides the problems mentioned above both at the national and international level, the beginning of the twenty first century will not only witness new scientific discoveries but also wider dispersal uses of technology. This is particularly in t e field of production and communications. This will make the world more competitive and interdependent. Many economies will be compelled to restructure themselves to face the challenges of competitiveness. The role of multinationals is likely to expand. Joint production and marketing arrangements among them will be a key factor. Existing regional groupings will be expanded. New arrangements, particularly in Asia, may emerge. The flow of official resources towards developing countries may contract and will be subject to more strict conditions. Therefore, with all these problems and global picture the chances would enhance the role of foreign private investment.

But still the solution of the world environmental problems in future is being viewed with cautious optimism. It is predicted that in the next decade the industrial market economies with careful management, should see a return of economic growth rate of 3% per annum and a real average growth in world trade of 5 to 6%. The prospect of developing countries in Asia, are expected to be better than t hose in Latin America and Africa. The future of the Eastern European countries and former States of USSR hinges on how quickly they are able to restructure their economies and stabilize political and social conditions.

6.8 Development Policy and Poverty

This reviews the existing data on poverty and income distribution in Pakistan and then presents head counts of the poor, identifying them in terms of their social characteristics. The first exercise involves a historical literature survey and the construction of a poverty map based on data from the most recent years (1992-3) Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES). The historical literature on poverty in Pakistan is limited, and even in that it ignores attributes and behavior patterns of the poor. We have tried to rectify this failing in the data analysis but the results are only partially comparable with the earlier literature, since they have been based on a poverty line constructed from income rather than multidimensional categories.

HIES is the main source of data for the measurement of poverty and income inequality in Pakistan. However, such surveys are believed to grossly understate the incomes of the highest income group and to exclude the poorest from their purview. Moreover, in urban areas, the share of the highest income group in GNP has probably risen due to the significant growth in the concentration of industrial

and financial assets. Consequently, a decrease or (increase) in income inequalities is overstated or (understated).

There are different approaches to the study of poverty. Conventional analyses have focused on what might be called a long run definition of causal and structural mechanisms that produce and perpetuate poverty. These include, for example, various forms of discrimination, distribution of political and economic power, distribution of income earned from industrial, financial, and human capital, possible policy biases in market returns, and contribution of government policy towards the aggravation of such biases. By calling into question the underlying socio-economic structure, this perspective helps identify policies and actions to decrease poverty.

Poverty, defined as a headcount of those unable to meet a nutritional norm of 2.250 calories per day, shows a declining trend in the long run since the late 1960s, with some short-term fluctuations. Poverty increased over the 1960s. declined over the 1970s and much of the 1980s, to register a small but significant upturn by 1990. Poverty in the early 1990s is higher than it has ever been in the last three decades. Our explanation is that the two casual factors of GNP growth and explicit government policy towards the vulnerable have a complex relationship with poverty and income distribution.

GNP Growth was high over the 1960s, I ow over the 1 970s, high over much of the, 1980, and dropped by 1990. Government policy towards the vulnerable was negligent over the 1960s, concessionary over the 1970s, and somewhat mixed over the 1980s. Therefore, poverty seems to have been affected by the combination of GNP growth and government policy in the following way. Over the 1960s, the high growth was not deficient to decrease poverty, and a negligent policy towards the vulnerable actually increased poverty. Over the 1970s, poverty dropped, not because of growth, which was low, but because of a concessionary government policy towards the vulnerable. Over much of the 1980s, both growth and government policy supported the decline in poverty. However, by 1990, poverty increased again because of inflationary government policy which adverse impact on the vulnerable, Therefore, poverty seems to have 8/stronger relationship with explicit government policy rather than with growth.

Conversely, income distribution appears to have a close link with growth. Over the 1960s, government policy was negligent, especially towards income distribution, but the distribution improved, propelled by high GNP growth rates. Then over the 1970s, while government policy was explicitly directed towards improving income distribution, the distribution worsened due to low growth. Over much of the 1980s

high growth improved the income distribution again. By 1990, the income distribution has worsened. Therefore, our exercise shows income distribution to be more closely related to growth, while poverty is more closely associated with explicit government poverty alleviation policy.

The poverty map also brings out some interesting alternative explanations of the causal mechanisms of poverty. First, a demographic theory of poverty is not supported by the data, which shows a significantly lower mean family site of the poor compared to upper income groups. This suggests that family size adjusts to income rather than income adjusting to family size. A constant dependency ratio of earners to family size across income groups further supported this argument, showing that family size adjusts to income to keep the dependency ratio constant. Female-headed households are three times more likely to be in poverty.

Second, the poor are over-represented in particular economic sectors, which are remarkably consistent across both rural and urban areas. In rural areas, the poor are over-represented among the landless compared to higher income groups, which in turn leads them to be overrepresented in the contractual employment of share tenancy and wage labour. The rural poor are also over-represented in manufacturing and construction, while being under-represented in the higher income sectors like trade and finance. Similarly, the urban poor are also over-represented in manufacturing and construction while being under represented in trade and finance. Third, the landlessness of the rural poor and the concentration of both the rural and urban poor in manufacturing and construction restricts them largely to low-wage employment. The poor are also significantly under-represented in self-employment. The consumption profile of the poor shows t hem to be extremely vulnerable to pricing policy on food and essentials. Household budgets show the poor to be caught in permanent deficits of approximately 25 per cent of their mean incomes while the higher income groups run surpluses. Eighty per cent of the expenditure of the poor is on food, rent, energy and apparel, which presumably exhausts their income, leaving health and education to be discretionary expenditure financed through deficits. They also earn 68 and 46 per cent of their income from wage employment in urban and rural areas, respectively. This makes them very susceptible to macroeconomics shocks.

Finally, we estimated the incidence of taxation across income groups. If the highest group, with incomes per month of above Rs. 4,500 is excluded, the incidence of tax paid as a proportion of income is virtually constant at about 8 percent a cross income groups regressive between 1987-8 and 1990-1, with the tax incidence increasing for the lowest income groups and decreasing for the highest income groups.

SELF-ASSESSMENT OF QUESTIONS

1. Differentiate between development plans and policies and discuss the role of plans and plans and policies I the economic development of a country.

2. Why development is desired by a nation and how does it take place?

3. Discuss planning of the following under the 8th five-year plan (1993–1998)
   - Agriculture
   - Population
   - Poverty
   - Education

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Unit–7

TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Have you ever heard someone say, "This is the age of technology"? It is easy to see what they mean. Evidence of technology is all around us. In your house you have furniture, appliances, food, clothing, television, telephone, stereo, and may be a VCR. Your parents probably have a car or a truck. Maybe you have a bicycle. All of these things are products of technology. These units describe how these technologies bring a change in society, how are they transferred from one society to the other and how the impact of technology can be determined. In closing we briefly discuss the patterns of economic development in Pakistan, and what had been the trends in economic growth of Pakistan. Therefore, after reading these units the students will be able to comprehend the following objectives.

OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. define technology
2. exemplify technology criteria.
3. determine causal relation between technology and change/ development
4. explain the ways in which technology affects people Describe the gradual economic development of Pakistan

7.1 Technology Development and Society

The world in which we live is in a state of constant change. For better or for worse, people have been modifying their environment since prehistoric times. At first, the rate of change was very slow. During the lifetime of our grandparents there have been more changes than in all of the rest of the time that humans have lived on the earth. Each succeeding year brings change at a faster pace.

Because technology is developing so rapidly, that it is virtually impossible to predict exactly what kinds of technological skills will be needed in future. As soon as we have learned about a certain form of technology, something new replaces it. Therefore, people must develop skills that are useful despite the changes that will no doubt occur. Such skills include learning how to understand new technologies as they evolve.

Although technology can improve the quality of our lives, it can also create undesirable consequences. To better understand the relationship between technology development and society we s ay that school is the ideal place to begin understanding technology and the role it plays in our culture Technology is a human endeavor. Whether it is used to benefit or to destroy our society is our decision. People can and must control the development and application of technology.

Technology has created three distinct eras. In the agricultural era, most people lived off the land. Many of the tools and discoveries were related to improving methods of tilling the soil. The second era i-e industrial era began with the Industrial Revolution in the late 1700s. During the industrial era, a great many mechanical devices were invented. Today, we are in information age. Many of today's inventions are based upon electronics and the computer.

During the agricultural era, many people were farmers. They produced their own food. They used their own muscle power or animal power to do chores like pumping water and plowing the fields.

During the industrial era, many people were employed in factories. Machines replaced human muscle and animal power. Steam and electricity were used to run motors, which in turn ran machinery. The factories depended upon human labor to run the machines.

Most modern societies have now entered the information age. In this period, many good jobs require educated workers who have lot of knowledge and skills. Because the pace of technological change has increased so rapidly during the last few decades, technology has become a major driving force in our society.

7.2 Technology Determinism

In order to shift from agricultural to industrial and then to information age, the social change that is taking place is so complex that it can be approached from a number of directions. One of these approaches is technology, which has become such a pervasive and spectacular cultural prime mover in modern society. Ogburn says, technology changes society by changing our environment to which we, in turn adapt. This change is usually in the material environment and the adjustment we make to the changes often modifies customs and social institutions.

Succinctly stated, this is the relationship between technology and social change. Technology is a cultural element, and this knowledge is part of the organized culture that is communicated from generation to generation. This cultural factor produces changes in the social environment ranging from the way men make a living to the way they rear their children and indeed, to the number of children they will have. These adjustments involve changes in statuses and roles, expectations, obligations, privileges, institutions and social structure.

. The role of technology in bringing social change is the main subject but there is no single cause of social change, nor is there a single and all-embracing theory of social change. Modifications in status and role may arise from religious, political, or revolutionary changes, in which the role of technology is marginal. We are here merely presenting one pattern out of several possible patterns of change. The results of advances in technology are the telephone, television, automobiles, plastics, refrigeration, new medicines, polyester clothing, nylon, and so on, but for details please see social change in Pakistan by S. M. Huda p.482-483.

Technology has extended our natural capabilities. We can increase the power of our hands with tools like pliers and hammers. We can increase our h eight with I adders. We can swim under water with scuba tanks. We can fly, and we can survive in extreme cold. We can conquer disease and can make replacement parts for the human body. Following are the few examples from which we can determine the impact of technology.

7.2.1 Morning Routines

When we wake up in the morning and attend washroom, we hardly realize how much technology influences this ordinary routine. Washing up in the morning with warm water is something we simply expect to do. We adjust the faucet until the amount of water and the water temperature are just what we desire. We wash our hair using shampoo with all kinds of chemical conditioners, and quickly blow it dry. These subroutines have developed only because technology makes them possible.

In Akbar-e-Azam's time, people bathed only a few times a year. It was difficult to heat enough hot water to fill a bathtub. As late as the 1930s, Americans living in isolated rural communities bathed in nearby creeks after working in the cornfields.

7.2.2 Technology Satisfies Our Need

Agricultural Technology Now	Agricultural Technology Then
Modern machinery can harvest enough wheat in nine seconds to makes seventy loaves of bread	Years ago, farmers had to use human or animal muscle power to plow their field

7.2.3 Technology and Medical Needs

Medical Technology Now	Medical Technology Then
Various Medications are available for headache relief	In Primitive times, headaches were thought to be caused by spirits that invaded the head. In order to release the spirits, holes were drilled into the patients occasionally survived more than one such procedure.

7.2.4 Technology and Manufactured Items

Manufacturing Now	Manufacturing Then
In a modern automobile plant, Cars are produced at the rate of One every minute.	In 1885 in Germany, Kari Benz built the first gasoline-driven motor car. Henery Ford built his first car in 1896 arid founded the Ford Motor Company in 1903.

7.2.5 Technology and Energy Sources

Energy Sources Now	Energy Sources Then
Modern technology has brought ua a variety of efficient methods for producing energy.	In the Middle Ages (about A.D. 1100), water wheels provided most of the Power for production. The water wheel was used to grind corn or wheat in order to produce flour.

7.2.6 Technology and Communication

Communications Now	Communication Then
Today, space-based communications Satellites bring television signals from distant countries to our homes. These satellities are like relay stations. They receive signals from one location on earth and rebroadcast them to other location.	In 1774 in Geneva, Switzerland, George Lesage set up a telegraph using one wire for each letter of the alphabet. Static electricity generated by a friction machine was used to power the system. The telegraph sent a message along the wires into an adjacent room.

7.2.7 Technology and Transportation

Transportation Now	Transportation Then
Today we can ferry materials and devices like communications Satellites back and forth between Earth and outer space. In the future People will be working in outer space. They, too, will be shuttled back and forth like space-age commuters.	1903 at Kity Hawk, North Carolina , Wilbur and Orville Wright's biplane flew a distance of 8.52 feet and stayed a loft for 59 seconds.

7.3 Technology Transfer

There are many ways of transfer of technology. One way is through direct investment by a multinational corporation in a wholly owned or majority-owned subsidiary. Another is through joint venture where the multinational has minority interest. Other ways include the use of licenses and patents, turn-key operations, management contacts, equipment suppliers, and consultative arrangements that may be done independently or in combination with some of the other modes of transfer. The essence of all these methods however, is that the technology moves from a private entity in the developed country t o t he recipient, public or private, in the developing country. While the developing countries may present this dependence, the harsh truth is that developing countries do not need technology, and there exist few alternative sources outside the transnational corporations where they may obtain it.

The innovation of new products and the transfer of technology between countries are desirable from a global perspective. The innovation of new products increases the range of consumer choice and transfer of technology increase the efficiency of world production, both innovation and technology transfer affect the distribution of income between the two countries.

There are two forms of technology transfer, vertical and horizontal. Vertical technology transfer occurs when information is transmitted from basic research to applied research, from applied research to development, and from development to production. Such transfers occur in both directions, and the form of the information changes as it moves along this dimension. Horizontal technology transfer occurs when technology used in one place, organization, or context is transferred and used in another place, organization, or context. The problems involved in transferring technology from one country to another are quite different when the transfer is vertical as well as horizontal. In general, the difficulties and costs are much greater under these circumstances than if only a horizontal transfer is involved.

Therefore, it has often been followed by design transfer, that is the transfer of, blueprints, and the ability to manufacture the new material or product in the recipient country. Finally, there is the phase of capacity transfer, which occurs when the capacity to adapt the new item to local conditions is transferred. Clearly, the last phase of learning as well as how to use what others have learned is quite different from the earlier phases and much more difficult and costly to achieve. It is a phase that many countries have yet to enter in the more sophisticated areas of technology.

7.4 Patterns of Economic Development in Pakistan

Inadequate mobilization and poor allocation of resources, inefficiencies in the production structure and low priority accorded to the development of human resources have been the major constraints in the development process of Pakistan. This is essentially a reflection of the lack of political commitment to development objectives and is manifested in the lack of direction in public policy. This lack of commitment and direction, together with poor institutional arrangements, has led to adhoc decisions on the one hand, and poor implementation of the decisions on the other.

But not everything has been negative. The growth rate between 1949-50 to the early 1990s has been a robust 5.5 per cent. Pakistan experienced a structural change in the move from an agrarian to a manufacturing or mixed economy, much as would be expected from a steadily developing economy (Chenery and Syrquin 1975). Exports as per cent of GDP increased several percentage points from the early 1980s to the early 1990s. Industry diversified and textiles and food went down from about fifty per cent of total manufacturing to about one-third. The private manufacturing investment-GDP ratio almost tripled from 1980-1 to 1993-4.

Despite these strengths, many fundamental weaknesses in Pakistan's economy remain. Water-logging and salinity continue to plague Pakistan's agriculture and productivity continues to be low by international standards. While there has been some industrial diversification, much more is needed to safeguard the country from external shocks. A decline in the terms of trade index of 44 points in twenty years (1971-1991) is an important cause of Pakistan's continued current account deficit despite the rise in export growth. In addition to the current account deficit, Pakistan's economy is also plagued by a large and growing fiscal deficit.

Compared to the high performing East Asian economies, investment and saving ratios are small. Domestic savings have been unable to meet even the relatively low investment ratio, and the shortfall has been met with remittances and foreign saving. Since the latter two sources cannot be relied on into the indefinite future, this remains a fundamental economic weakness of Pakistan's economy. An important reason for this dissonance between investment and saving is that the government has been spending 'lore than the resources it mobilizes.

While successive governments in Pakistan have had the avowed objective of self-reliance, they have hardly made any effort to mobilize domestic resources. Also, they did not formulate any long-term strategy to raise foreign resources to augment domestic resources. Consequently, aid has been accepted at a high cost to the economy.

The saving rate in Pakistan has ranged between 13 and 14 per cent. While private savings can still be increased further, the low overall savings rate is essentially due to negative public savings, which reflect the huge overall budgetary deficit. The budget deficit has increased due to rising subsidies, rising public investment following nationalization, inadequate resource mobilization, large military expenditures, interest payments and the unrestrained growth of non-development expenditures. Until 1990-1, the bulk of the deficit was financed by non-bank borrowing which resulted in contained inflation. This practice changed after 1990-1 and the bulk of the deficit started being financed by bank borrowing. This is likely to have fed into the high inflation rate since 1994-5.

Both the tax collection and expenditure side of the budget have exhibited inefficiencies and waste. Immunities, amnesties, and individualized exemptions have hurt resource mobilization. At the same time, subsidies have been subverted or misdirected. Provincial government expenditures far exceed the tax revenues they generate.

Without creative tax reform, the country faces the prospect of large and growing budgetary deficits which in turn limit other much needed meaningful social and economic reforms. Any attempt to cope with poverty and inequality must start with a successful employment strategy. Given the low and falling employment elasticities in the formal sector, the government must turn to the informal sector for labor absorption. Credit, technical advice, and improving feedback mechanisms between consumers, exporters, and producers are pivotal to such a strategy.

On balance, while Pakistan's economy has demonstrated the ability to produce robust growth rates and shown other strengths, it continues to suffer from several fundamental weaknesses and problems. Perhaps, one of its major failings, which may have serious repercussions on its future performance, is the neglect of the social sector development.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the nature and importance of technology.

2. What are the four ingredients of technology? Exemplify.

3. Discuss the relationship between technology and development.

4. How does technology influence our daily life? Give three examples of the good effects and bad effects of technology.

5. How does technology cause change/development?

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Unit–8

DEVELOPMENT AND DISPARITIES

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INTRODUCTION

Most of the things that differentiate one person from another mean relatively little in everyday life. People are unalike in characteristics ranging from eye color to style of laughter. But such differences have few, if any, implications for an individual's life chances. It is doubtful, for example, that they will affect one's educational or employment opportunities. We can think of these as natural differences.

System of disparity, on the other hand, exist on an entirely separate level and can have far reaching consequences for the individual. They are sets of social relationships built around attributes form wealth to skin color to sexual orientation to which societal members accord a great deal of meaning and significance in every d ay life. Systems of disparity are socially constructed. Keeping in view the above meaning of disparity, the focus has been concentrated on the nature of inequitable development. How the socio-economic disparities come into existence in a society and how these disparities become the regional disparities? Out of numerous disparities the gender disparities have been discussed in a little detail with the following objectives:

OBJECTIVES

After studying these units, you will be able to:

1. list the different types of inequalities.

2. identity the reasons of unequal distribution of wealth.

3. analyze why some societies are more developed than others?

4. judge why the women are suffering from underdevelopment?

8.1 Inequitable Development

Each of us is caught up in a complex multidimensional matrix composed of various systems of inequality. Whether the inequality revolves around class, race, sex, age, sexual orientation, or state of able-bodied ness, our biographies are shaped and tempered by where we are situated in the matrix. In each system of inequality, we may be among the oppressed, or we may be in the dominant group. Note that we enter these systems of inequality involuntarily. Persons cannot readily exert control: --, very their social Class membership, ancestry, sex, aging, sexual orientation, or state of able-bodied ness. Individuals fighting against discrimination not only provide inspiration to other who are oppressed but often inspire those who hold membership in the dominant group. When members of the dominant group break rank and deny the legitimacy of a particular system of inequality, that system weakens.

The systems of inequality we have presented do not all show signs of weakening. Economic inequality is actually getting worse. Gender inequality has been breaking down much faster than any other inequality. In view of some, progress toward eliminating racial inequality is starting to erode. The prognosis for dismantling the system of age inequality and that involving persons with disabilities is more promising at least at this point. If one's wish is a society in which everyone is in a position to live and contribute to his or her full potential, there is much to be done. Now it is stressed that systems of inequality differ from society to society. They will, for example, be different in core nations and peripheral nations of the world economic system. Thus, one's life chances will depend upon the society of which one is a member and one's position in the particular systems or inequality contained within that society.

This is., the. Basis of all the inequitable development because as the social disparities take place, the inequitable development goes by it.

8.2 Socio Economic Disparities

Sociologists have long been interested in studying and understanding systems of inequality. Karl Marx (1813 — 1883), of course, brought attention to the economic inequalities characterizing capitalist societies, a concern that is relevant even today.

German sociologist Max Weber (1864 —1920) was also, highly influential (Gerth and Mills, 1968). He encouraged sociologists to analyze societies in terms of their systems of social stratification, the ways in which people occupying different social positions are stratified form high to low.

While Marx emphasized economic inequality in his writings, Weber suggested that in any given society social stratification is likely to be multidimensional. The dimensions Weber considered most important in stratification are class (possession of goods, and skills to generate income), status (social honor or prestige), and power (the ability to dominate or influence others). In Weber's view the nature and relative importance of these dimensions could differ from society to society, as well as within any given society over time. Weber's notion that social stratification is multidimensional has influenced our approach to inequality. His stratification dimensions of class, status, and power help inform our analysis of systems of inequality. As social constructions, they tend to differ from society to society and in different historical periods. For example, in the United States old age was once highly respected by society, which now venerates youth, but in China elderly persons are still treated with great respect.

A society's system of production and rules of distribution determine how much poverty there is. We need to set them in a larger context. Not only are they socially constructed, but these systems also represent differences in power and development. When one group has the ability to set standards of "good" or "normal", it also has the power to impose disadvantage or underdevelopment on others. For example, in many societies men traditionally assume certain roles for themselves and limit women to others. In doing so, men decide what behavior is "normal" for each sex. This exercise of power and its outcome are usually justified by a system of ideas, or ideology.

The ideology helps keep the system of inequality going. The ideas it contains typically include the notion that the system of inequality is necessary and inevitable (Adam, 1978). When such ideologies become incorporated into a society's culture, the inequalities they foster may be accepted as the -natural order of things.

Systems of inequality often give rise to conflict as some group seek change while others fight to maintain the status quo. Our biographies are strongly influenced not only by our positions in a given system of inequality but also by the presence and outcome of movements for change. Obviously, if a person is unfavorably situated in a system of inequality, as is the case for so many people one way to alter the system is to join or otherwise lend support to such movements.

One of the features of many societies is economic inequality, the vast difference in wealth and income that families and individuals possess. A great deal of meaning and significance is attached to the possession of such resources, principally because they can be used to improve life chances. Let us look briefly at distribution of income and wealth in the United States.

In United States a small percentage of family own most of the nation's wealth in the form of corporate stocks and bonds, savings accounts, real estate cars and boats etc. The richest population i-e 0.5 percent of the population possesses over a quarter of this wealth, while the richest 20 percent owns four fifths of the personal wealth (Kerbo, 1991: 40). There is also substantial inequality in the distribution of income, although not as extreme as the inequality in wealth. The 5 percent of households with the highest incomes receive 20 percent of all household income; the most affluent 20 percent receive almost half (U.S. Bureau of Census. 1993b). both income distribution and wealth distribution have become increasingly unequal in recent years (Phillips, 1990). Another dimension of economic inequality is the extent of poverty. While a few individuals possess an enormous amount of wealth, some possess practically none. In 1993, the U S government defined poverty for a family of four as an annual income falling below S14,763 (the figure changed depending upon family size). That year, 39.3 million people in the United States most of whom were women and children lived in the poverty. Another 1 2 million persons were Irving in " near poverty," just above the poverty line (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1994). Many manage to climb out of poverty, but they often don't rise very far; meanwhile, others keep plunging in. While most poor people are white people of color are disproportionately found among the poor. Job losses in recent years, as well as a rise in the number of female-headed households because of marital breakups, have introduced poverty to many families who had assumed their middle-class status was secure (Newman, 1989).

The facts about economic inequality are open to different, often conflicting interpretations. Let us look at one viewpoint that is very close to what most people in our society believe about economic inequality. This is the functionalist theory of stratification.

8.2.1 Functionalist Theory of Stratification

The functionalist theory of stratification, whose foundations were established by early European sociologists such as Emile Durkheim (1858-1917), holds that economic inequality is the result of beneficial forces (Durkheim, 1964). This theory poses that different occupational levels in society should receive different rewards. Thus, it is not necessarily a bad thing.

The economic inequality in Pakistan causes great suffering for many citizens. As we have noted, some 39 million people in this country live below the official poverty line. An estimated 20 million do not get enough to eat each day. Perhaps 7 million are chronically homeless. Rates of serious mental disorders, such as schizophrenia, are highest for poor people (Dohrenwend et al., 1980). So are deaths

from infectious diseases, including influenza, pneumonia, tuberculosis, and diphtheria (USA Department of Health and Human Services, 1992).

Economic inequality exacts enormous costs from persons who experience serious disadvantage because of it, whether a society's economy is capitalist or socialist. Society as a whole loses as well. A vast pool of potential talent is suppressed, as individuals who might make substantial contributions to the wellbeing of others never develop and utilize their gifts. Insofar as economic inequality stifles human potential, everyone suffers. The costs to society of increased crime, disease, and unrest can be very high.

8.3 Regional Disparities

Relationships between peoples living at different places in the world are often characterized by misunderstanding, tensions, and conflict. Conflict is particularly likely to occur when populations with different geography receive unequal advantage in the existing class structure of the world (Steinberg, 1981).

This conflict can be the basis for systems of racial inequality, in which some groups are subjected to discrimination and exploitation. Infect certain groups are singled out for majority group status. The term does not denote numbers but indicates status within one's society. In South Africa, for instance, black outnumber whites, yet for many years black South Africans were a minority group because the dominant white group structured social institutions to ensure that blacks occupied an inferior status. Only in 1994 the first elections open to all South Africans resulted in the election of a black president, Nelson Mandela.) in both South Africa and the United States, the physical trait of skin color has been used by the dominant white population as a criterion of social worth. Personal and institutional practices that adversely affect minority groups often turn their members into victims whose lives become limited by the dominant population.

Although, we all belong to one human species, but still the regional disparities exist among members of the human species. They are also, in part, the outcome of generations of genetic selection as different groups have come into contact with one another. Thus, such features as skin color, hair texture, and shape of the eyes, nose, or lips vary among people whose ancestries lie in diverse geographic locations and belong to various races.

Within the economy, for example, discrimination in employment continues to be a major problem. This contributes to the income advantage whites possess. A study

of Chicago area businesses revealed inner city employers expressed the kinds of stereotypes revealed in the General Social Survey:

When they talked about the work ethics, tensions in the workplace, or attitudes toward work, employers emphasized the color of a person's skin. Many believed that white workers were superior to minorities in their work ethic.

As one employer put it:

That according to the energy that they put into their job and trying to be as productive as possible, I would have to put the white native born at the high end and Hispanic in the middle and the blacks at the bottom, from which it is obvious that employers acting on these stereotypes try to avoid hiring minority workers.

8.4 Gender Inequality

Just as systems of economic inequality and racial inequality have ideologies justifying their existence, so too do systems of gender inequality. This inequality stems from the notion that "biology is destiny," that biological differences between the sexes require that the sexes play very different societal roles. Males and females obviously differ biologically. Their genetic makeups are not the same, anatomical differences are apparent, and their hormones perform different functions. But how much social importance should we attach to such differences? To answer this question, we must make a distinction between two concepts, that is sex and gender. Sex refers to be the fundamental biological characteristics that cause a person to be categorized as either a female or male. These characteristics are genetically determined. Rarely is there ambiguity as to the sex of any given newborn once the baby's physical traits are established. Moreover, sex differences remain the same from society to society.

Gender, on the other hand, is a social construction, much like "race". Gender refers to the ways of behaving and relating to others that members of a society expect of the two sexes; it refers to the different roles that males and females are expected to plak Gender is learned, whereas sex is inherited. As such the behaviors associated with gender differ in various respects from society to society (Martin and Voorhies, 1975). For example, in some society’s women are expected to be active and aggressive individuals, while in others they are expected to be passive and retiring. Indeed even within societies the role of and expectations from women may differ. Nonetheless, men have used the ideology expressed in "biology is destiny" to create and maintain systems of gender inequality in which they dominate. The concept of patriarchy is used to refer to such systems. Not only domination but also oppression

and exploitation are common themes in societies characterized by patriarchy. While undergoing important changes in the last couple of decades, society in Pakistan is still patriarchal. Men and women are not equal sharers of power whether it be economic, political, or social. While the differences between them require that there be a sexual division of labor, in which men and women take on responsibility for the tasks that each one is most capable of performing. Hence, because women bear children, female biology dictates that they are most fit for child rearing and care taking roles I. le home.

Finally, current social conditions make it clear that women can and must be able to support themselves. Millions o f w omen, are unmarried. separated, divorced, or widowed —Many with children are independent necessity or choice. The demands faced by these women, for their own survival and that of their children, often cannot be met by the earnings accorded to "women's work".

Patriarchy, as a system of sex inequality, it finds expression through practices of sexism. This term refers to the systematic subordination of persons on the basis of their sex.

At the personal level, sexism typically takes the form of male chauvinism. Men who are chauvinistic against women express attitudes or behave in way, which suggest that males are superior to females and have a right to insist on females' subordination. Attitudes can range from sexist points of view to extreme sexist behavior. Women who challenge the sexist views and behaviors of a professor or employer, for example, may end up receiving a poorer grade or wage than deserved, being overlooked for a promotion, or being dismissed from work.

Recently the government has been pressed to provide legal protections for women who are the victims of this type of harassment. Institutional sexism fosters male advantage through the routine operations of social institutions. In the spheres of the economy and the state institutional sexism is pervasive, yet often less visible and less open to direct confrontation than male chauvinism. Given its far-reaching impact, institutional sexism is more of a problem not only for women but for men as well.

The U.S. Labor market is sex segregated to the point where it is appropriate to use the term dual labor market to describe it. Women hold jobs in which the majority of their coworkers are female. Women are overly represented in jobs that are the I east well paying, offer the Ideas, security, and have relatively low prestige much clerical jobs but this gender discrimination in the institutions is a routine matter. Indeed, the state itself is a Locus of institutional sexism in employment. Women

are poorly represented in the elected and appointed offices that make important policy decisions. Women thus have Limited power in resolving major issues in which their life chances are at stake. These issues include the level of income maintenance provided to poor families, government support for affordable day care for working mothers, a national program of universal health care, and the protection of women's reproductive rights.
Any society in which the opportunities for women, i.e., half of the population are channeled and restricted is a society that is limited in its development. Why should we knowingly do without the kinds of contributions women can make?

Men, too, are victims in a patriarchal society in which women have to struggle against them. Working to change a patriarchy would make available a much wider range of biographies for people of both sexes.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Of all the systems of inequality discussed in these units, which do you feel has the more effect on your daily life? Discuss.

2. Economic inequality is getting worse in the world. Why this is not a lively public issues as compared to other systems of inequality?

3. How the males feel about the advances made by women in the field of education and employment in a patriarchal society like Pakistan?

4. How different stereotypes about men and women are fostered and maintained? And actually, what function they play? Please Discuss.

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Unit–9

MASS MEDIA & SOCIAL CHANGE

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INTRODUCTION

At present we are living in a media saturated world, where the media are all around us, where new technology has shrunk the globe and made global communication a common practice. Therefore, we cannot separate ourselves from the changes that are taking place due to mass media. Mass media affect societies in m any ways, a s much media and population culture are now international. Films, T.V. programs, Rock groups, Folk dance groups and folk singer groups now travel throughout the world and nothing is unusual for anyone to Listen and watch these groups. Similarly press and news within seconds travel throughout the world.

These units focus on, that what role the media is playing in the development process and in bringing about the social change. The objectives of these units are as following.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

1. identify the aims of mass media.

2. be more aware about mass media in Pakistan.

3. describe the relationship between media and development. Determine the role of Mass media in bringing social change.

9.1 Background

Today, we are living in the age of information and communication. We are all experiencing instant level, instant change and instant communication. We can send a man to the moon in less time than it takes for a post card to travel from Karachi to Islamabad. We can instantly talk on phone to almost any part of the world. Satellite television makes us eyewitness observers to the swearing in ceremony of the President of the United States. Unfolding and stroke-by-stroke execution of the Gulf War, excitement of cricket and baseball games are brought live in our drawing rooms with a flick of a switch on the remote-control device of television. These and many more are the wonders of modern communication.

However, notwithstanding the revolutionarychanges in communication technologies and the space age communication devices, we witness ineffective communication at all levels contributing to our miseries and failures be it our families, business, industry or larger social or political scenarios. But still, the contribution of communication to economic growth and national development is well recognized through its precise nature, extent and mechanism but they still largely elude proper understanding. Any agreement on the concept and strategy for development or basic needs, participation, democratization, decentralization and quality of life, etc., have been used to highlight varying emphasis in policy and planning debates on communication and development. However, any view of development in the ultimate analysis must see development as development of human beings.

To conclude, media and communication in Global village mean different for different people. Various concepts and yardsticks have been used to define its impact on development such as per capita income, calories intake, health index, basic needs, minimum needs; etc. different approaches and strategies have been tried to bring about growth and development. For making best use of communication for development, it is necessary to first clearly define the development objectives, and then accordingly also define clearly the communication objectives, and also specific communication tasks and inputs to achieve the development objectives in a most cost-effective manner.

9.2 Press and Development

Literacy is an indispensable component of human resource development and socio-economic progress. It is a basic tool of communication and learning, for acquiring, sharing and exchanging information and knowledge. It is assumed that increase in literacy creates quest for information, self-learning and reading, thereby generating

a demand for print media. According to the 1981 and 1991 Censuses, literacy rate in India was and percent, respectively.

Besides literacy, other factors that have had a positive impact on media circulation and reading behavior include: improved purchasing power, better transportation and communication network, attitudinal changes, publication of magazines in regional languages, greater sales outlets etc.

Although television and radio outstrip the print media in reporting current events, yet print media continue to occupy high prestige, credibility and advantage for their interesting presentation, wide topic coverage, expression and reference at leisure. The magazine is regarded as a strategic, informational, educational and cultural institution as well as the public inquest. In Pakistan the number of magazines has increased many times, which has a lot of potential and as their circulation in rural areas has been gaining ground, it is a healthy trend.

The newspapers have a very great circulation but the benefits of their vast expansion do not go to the greater masses of the country (Durrani, 1991-92). Somewhat similar situation is true regarding benefits of magazine. The reality is that a significant majority of the population, especially those belonging to lower socio-economic strata still do not have sufficient access to such mass media.

Again, in our country where some 70 percent population is living in rural areas I and is illiterate, print media have a limited impact on these people.

Moreover, it is a tough task to cover a vast population of about 140 million people spread over a large number of villages in the shortest possible period to effectively disseminate modern scientific knowledge. In such a situation, television is certainly one of the most popular and effective media, as it provides entertainment, information and education in a healthy environment to all segments of society.

Rural population, in spite of being one of the most important segments of the society, still remains least benefited by this medium, especially the press. But on the other hand, as is well known, people in rural areas are always busy in agricultural and household tasks. They work 16 hours a day bearing the double burden, that too for unequal wages, therefore, they are left with no time for utilization of mass media.

9.3 Role of Mass Media in Development

Communication and information are power. Communication is for development. Communication prompted development is long lasting, more meaningful and is readily acceptable. Media in the modern world are a force to reckon with. No task

in the world of today can be accomplished successfully and adequately without media support.

Therefore, an active role of media in development of human beings in national, regional or international spheres has to be endowed and fully acknowledged. The most important endeavor in development has to be accorded to human development. In fact, human development is a key to development in all other areas. Without adequately planned, skillfully executed and willingly received media support, human development will pose a difficult proposition and remain an unachievable goal. It is therefore, imperative that before we plan any development activity, we ensure that the human power involved in the task is sufficiently communication oriented. Media inputs develop human upbringing, human nature and human personality in a number of ways. Twentieth century has seen media blitz change, and in fact, transform human kind totally out of shape if one compares them with their brethren of earlier times.

Similarly, media have contributed tremendously in changing nations and societies. Take our own country. In spite of inequalities, in our society, revolutionary changes have taken place at all levels. Our farmers are sufficiently awakened about their farming operations, which are being affected by media inputs of certain variety. In fact, agriculture is the living proof of excellent progress by intimate media support. Similarly, media have brought about inconceivable innovations in the field of health. Doctors use satellites to receive and render advice on complex medical issues. Mind boggling variety of medical journals, films, video programs, and radio presentations are available for consultation, advice and guidance. These could not be thought of some years ago. Besides, medical care through media support, a wide canvas of field researches are richly contributing in improving the health of nations. The role of media in reflecting on women's issues and helping ameliorate their condition has been amply recognized. A large number of television serials on women have focused on their problems, child marriages, girl child dowry deaths, broken marriages, widow remarriage, discrimination against women in work and numerous other issues.

It must, however, be recognized that media are a tremendous force in today's world. National and international issues are affected. Influenced and shaped by media outputs. Any nation or organization which ignores media power does so at its own peril.

The task of media in development is twofold: to help remove illiteracy, fatalism, enlarge aspirations, increase and extend social status; and secondly, to lead to overall national progress and prosperity. All other allied tasks are byproducts of media inputs and media consumption. Despite some ill effects of media, the more

the media inputs the greater the media consumption by masses, and increased will be the welfare of the nation and happiness of the people.

No aspect of our life, no segment of our population or any area of our country can be conceived to be bereft of media impact. The recent television channels have multiplied, Courtesy the increase in number of newspapers and periodicals in several languages, including English, which have immensely influenced all areas of human endeavor. Though most of the media operations and inputs are urban oriented, even then the rural areas have perhaps been adequately affected by mass media, particularly since the early 1980s, satellite television, newspapers, complex technology, news gathering logistics and intricate media distribution networks have ably facilitated extension of media roles all over the world including rural masses. Therefore, to some extent, it is true that communication has thoroughly transformed rural life. Specifically speaking, the term rural development has vast implications. In a restricted s€.nse it means development in economic terms of progress, promotion and prosperity in all areas of human life in countryside.

As a noted expert of communication media, Wilbur Schramm has said, media have the power to initiate, stimulate, provoke and promote rural development by providing varied perceptions like interests, motivations, beliefs, faiths and ideas. In fact, quite often the communication media appropriately set the process of determining the agenda for rural development. It is the media, which mediate the processes of production, consumption and accumulation of goods and services besides promoting political, social, psychological and cultural processes."

Media roles in terms of rural development are appreciated. In fact, it helps in increasing, the per capita income, productivity per person, self-efficiency, literacy and skilled human resources. It also enhances in providing, greater media flow, increased transport, communication facilities, adequate nutrition, food supply, greater industrialization, stable administration, low births and increased resources of family welfare. Even though in most of our villages, large number of these factors are simply not there, or are available in a very limited measure.

9.4 Mass Media in Pakistan

In Pakistan, the significance of communication in equipping people with new information and skills and mobilizing them for their willing participation in various development programs and activities has been well-recognized and emphasized in five-year plan. In the recent years, there has been a definite policy shift in favor of adopting more of new communication technologies to accelerate the pace of development and change. The country is on the threshold of a new communication

revolution of which satellite, computer, television and video are major manifestations. Communication wise the whole country is technically knit together and the people can have common experience of joy, grief, information and aspirations through the mediation of various means of communication.

The number of journals and newspapers has multiplied several folds since the dawn of independence. The combined circulation of the press is several million copies. The radio is by far the most extensive network. Technically, the radio signals cover almost the whole country. Television expansion in recent years has been phenomenal. With the advent of satellite and cable television, the expansion of television in Pakistan has got enormous boost in the last few years or so. On the whole, the reach of mass media in Country is rather limited, especially in rural areas and among women and slum dwellers. This is mainly due to five mutually reinforcing factors. These are:

a) low literacy,
b) low purchasing power.
c) poor means of transportation for timely delivery of newspapers, or
d) maintenance of radio and television sets; and
e) lack of relevant information.

Thus, if we analyze the situation carefully, we will find a noticeable association between backwardness or underprivileged conditions and deprivation of communication resources.

A recent study of the rural poor target beneficiaries of the integrated rural development program has revealed that an overwhelming majority of them was not exposed to any mass medium. Only five percent of the under privileged regularly listened to radio. Therefore, the fact is that mass media are of limited relevance to the rural masses, especially those who are living below the poverty line.

In Pakistan the mass media is providing glib entertainment, pander to consumer gullibility and becoming an addiction with audience. It is also offering unprecedented scope of communication support for education and social development of masses. These are the people, who are in greatest need of information relevant to knowledge, skills, and their well-being.

9.5 Aims of Mass Media

Even at the risk of over simplification it may be noted that in contents, the urban stamp on mass media is obvious to merit further dealation here. Consumerism and escapism are the dominant value thrusts in our mass media fare. And entertainment is the major

gratification people seek from radio, television, films and other visual media. Even newspapers, besides giving hard news, generally serve entertainment functions as would be obvious from the popularity of glossy film and gossip magazines over the serious information and views-oriented newspapers and magazines.

However, despite the Limited access and the urban biases, mass media have been effective in communicating hard news, significant political issues, and relevant developmental information. News about major political developments preceding general elections get disseminated far and wide and influences the voter's choice.

Farm broadcasts in certain regions are popular and help farmers about new farm methods. In-depth analyses of media effects s how that mass media is effective whenever the contents are relevant and or of political significance where sources are considered credible. The interpersonal channels and folk forms of communication are fairly active and make up for the limited reach of mass media in our society. More importantly, the interface and interaction between mass media and other modes of communication significantly influence the reach and effect processes.

Be mass media, despite its above listed limitations of access and urban character, have had a far-reaching impact on society and is an effective vehicle of public opinion and the socialization process. More importantly, media ascribe prestige and status to new values, norms and practices as these are portrayed in media programs and presentations.

9.6 Mass Media and Social Change

Any agreement on the concept or model of social change is not easy, but it would be worthwhile to view it as a process, which facilitates and results in participation and advancement, bath material and social, of the widest possible number in a given society. Viewed as a means to break out of the poverty and ignorance tap, the relevance of communication to the process of education and human development becomes obvious. Therefore, extending communication in all its varied trends from a minority to all population is a priority in any scheme of social development change. However, the content and mutuality of communication determine its usefulness, apart from the question of access to it.

The right to expression as well as to information is a basic need of 'children as well as of adults. This need is all the more urgent when a change in the way of life and living is the aim involving a break from old system of tradition and belief even on simple daily concerns such as eating habits, hygienic practices, farming methods and the equation with the natural environment.

Besides facilitating social change, the increased communication is also making socio economic disparities. It may be the result of development which is more visible and perceptible to the neglect of basic welfare, material wellbeing of the common man and uneven progress of different communities.

Moreover, the regions are contributing to the sectarian forces leading to many conflicts and turmoils. Further, in a multi lingual and multi-cultural society the spread of media industry and communication is sometimes viewed as a threat to the language and cultural identities.

During the last few years, Pakistan has experienced rapid changes in all the phases of development. Technological advancements have also tremendously influenced the various fields of communication. Proper and effective use of communication affects all human beings and social development immensely.

Dissemination of information to right clientele at the right time is perhaps the most essential process in any vibrant society. It is an established fact that mass media play a crucial role in the functioning, development and change in any society. Modern mass media include print, electronic, satellite and cable.

Through these media, it is possible to transfer a message from one source to an audience of several hundreds and thousands. However, each of these media has its own respective different role and impact. Incidental studies on the impact of mass media especially television, indicate that rural population's exposure to media is by and large inadequate and unsatisfactory.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. (Exercise suggested)

This exercise will help you to gauge your own media involvement and how much time you and the rest of your family actually spend with different kinds of media.

Close your eyes for a moment and imagine your lives without television, radio, newspapers, magazines and music. How would you learn about events? What would you do with all the spare time that became available?

Keep a media diary (ideally for one week, but at least for three days), noting d own the time you spend with different media. It is quite a good idea to do this at the end of each day. You should also ask other members of your family to do the same. The media that you might include: television; video programmes, films, cinema, radio, newspapers, magazines, computer games, music tapes, CDs, and the records the internet.

And from your data answer the following questions:

- Which family member spends most time watching television?
- When is the whole family engaged with the same medium? Who spends the most time reading newspapers and/or magazines?
- Write down your general conclusions about your family's use of the media.
- To what extent is it true to say that, in your family, the time taken up by the Media is greater than any other leisure-time activity?
- What is the total time spent for media?

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